Title

The pPhysical activity paradox in relation to work ability and health-related productivity loss

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Running title: PA paradox in work ability and productivity

Ρ А **Ethics statement** G Е All participants signed a consent form, and anonymity and confidentiality were ensured. The study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Dong-A University (IRB number: 2-1040709-AB-N-01-202202-HR-017-06). ₩ * Μ **Conflict of interest** Е R The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare for this study. G Е F Ο Funding R This work was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea [NRF^M] А gued 2022R1F1A1066498]. Т ,10 Acknowledgement None

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

<u>The p</u>Physical <u>Activity Paradoxactivity paradox</u> in <u>Relationrelation</u> to <u>Work Abilitywork</u> <u>ability</u> and <u>Healthhealth</u>-related <u>Productivity Lossproductivity loss</u>

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Abstract

Objectives: Occupational<u>The physical activity paradox suggests that occupational</u> physical activity (OPA), contrary to<u>unlike</u> leisure-time physical activity (LTPA), may adversely affect<u>detrimentally impact</u> health-through. We explored the physical activity paradox. In this study, we investigated the relationship amongrelationships of OPA₇ and LTPA with work ability (WA) and health-related productivity loss (HRPL).

Methods: We incorporated This study included 5,501 workers in Korea who were recruited in 2021 through a web-based cross-sectional questionnaire-in 2021. Using the, The questionnaire; was utilized to quantify OPA and LTPA were quantified in Metabolic Equivalents, and metabolic equivalents, while WA and HRPL were also measured. Non-parametric regression, using a generalized additive model (GAM), was usedemployed to visualize the relationship between relationships of LTPA and OPA towith WA and HRPL. The mean Mean differences in WA and HRPL-according, in relation to OPA and LTPA, were examined using linear regression models after adjusting. These models were adjusted for covariates, such as including sex, age, body mass index, education level, alcohol consumption, smoking history, insomnia, occupation, working hours worked, and income.

Results: Both<u>The</u> GAM and linear regression results showed<u>analyses revealed</u> that an increase in-higher LTPA resulted in an increase incorresponded with higher WA and a decrease in<u>lower</u> HRPL. The opposite was true for OPA. With an increase in OPA<u>In contrast, as OPA increased</u>, WA decreased, and HRPL increased. However, within the <u>high OPA-group with high OPA</u>, HRPL didwas not decreasesignificantly lower in the <u>high-LTPA-high group subgroup</u> relative to the <u>low-LTPA-low group subgroup</u> (mean difference $=_{3}$ 1.92% point <u>percentage points</u>%; pvalue = 0.343). This trendpattern was exaggerated in the worker groupespecially pronounced among workers aged \geq 60 years, resulting and older, with an increase in increased HRPL

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observed with increasing LTPA within among the respondents with high OPA-group.

Conclusions: High LTPA was associated with increased WA and decreased HRPL. In contrast, high OPA-levels were associated with decreasedelevated WA and diminished HRPL. In contrast, higher levels of OPA were associated with lower WA and increasedhigher HRPL e productivity loss levels.

Keywords: Physical activity; Productivity; Work ability; Health-related productivity loss

Introduction

An Health is frequently considered an individual's health is often the most valuable asset. WithoutWhen health is less than optimal health, basic everydaydaily activities, such asincluding the capacityability to work, arecan be severely compromised. According toUnder the theoretical framework of the human capital model, a person's work ability (WA) and workplace productivity are directly proportional to theirthat individual's health status [1]. To maintainTherefore, promoting personal health is crucial to maintaining WA and enable employees to increaseenhancing labor productivity, people should invest in _____among employees. Examples of personal health promotion. Healthy lifestyles, including _____include the adoption of healthy lifestyle behaviors, such as engaging in regular exercise, are typical examples...

Considerable health benefits can be gained from regular<u>Regular</u> physical activity. It prevents diseases can yield substantial health benefits, including the prevention of conditions such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes, cancer, and osteoporosis and positively affects. It also may have a positive impact on mental health [2-4]. However, not all physical activity positively affectscontributes favorably to health. The physical activity paradox is a phenomenon in which occupational physical activity (OPA) adversely affects can have detrimental effects on health eompared to <u>_</u> in contrast to the beneficial impacts of leisure-time physical activity (LTPA). This phenomenon impliessuggests that LTPA and OPA should be considered separately. For exampleinstance, while higher LTPA is related to associated with a lower prevalence of cardiovascular disease or diabetes, <u>elevated OPA is correlated with a</u> higher OPA can increase the prevalence of these diseases [5,6].

This pattern probably<u>may</u> also <u>appearsbe evident</u> in labor market performance. For <u>example-instance, a higher level of</u> OPA is <u>associatedlinked</u> with <u>a higher probability of an</u>

increased likelihood of experiencing burnout at work [7]. Conversely, a higher level of LTPA is related to a higherassociated with increased WA [8]. In aA study onexamining long-term sickness absence (LTSA) and physical activity, found that higher OPA increased the corresponded to an elevated risk of LTSA, whereas such absence, while higher LTPA decreased thewas associated with reduced risk-of LTSA, exhibiting, thus demonstrating the physical activity paradox [9]. As suchConsequently, the impactinfluence of LTPA and OPA on labor market performance can be also complex and paradoxical seemingly contradictory. Therefore, the paradoxical associationassociations of LTPA and OPA with WA and health-related productivity loss (HRPL) isconstitute an important area of research-for, key to improving our understanding of these complex intricate relationships and developing evidence-based interventions to promote betterimproved health and productivity in the workplace. ThisSuch research can benefit workers, employers, policymakers, and society as a wholeat large by contributing to a healthier and more productive workforce.

However, research has been limited on the paradoxical associationassociations of LTPA and OPA with WA and/or HRPL has been limited, although reports have described the physical activity health paradox has been reported for in the context of various health outcomes [10]. Therefore, the present study aimedwas conducted to explore the physical activity paradox in the context of relation to WA and HRPL. In particular, since WA and HRPL are Since these issues amongare relevant to aging workers, we also investigated whether effect modifications were present depending on the age group. This information The findings from this study could provideoffer a scientific basisfoundation for practical advice forguidance to help workers to maintain productivity and work ability and promoteWA, as well as enhance their overall health.

Materials and Methods

Study participants

We used firstthe initial dataset from a panel-survey calledknown as the Korean Worker's Workers Health and Sleep Study (KWHSS), which is , an ongoing nationwidenationwide panel study frominitiated in 2022. Participants were recruited in July 2022 usingvia the online survey platform EMBRAIN. In brief, panelists were invited to participate in the survey based on-through a process of random sampling, which was stratified by sex, age, and occupation. A-The initial screening process was completed by a total of 5,517 participants completed the initial screening process (, all of whom were wage earners, regardless of occupation, varying occupations and aged ≥19 years). Only those who answered _or older. Inclusion in the study was contingent upon participants providing complete responses to questions completelydesigned to obtaingather the necessary information necessary for this study (e.g., including sex, age, body mass index [(BMI],), education level, occupation, working hours worked, income, alcohol consumption, smoking status, and insomnia severity index, along with questions used to calculate physical activity, questions to calculate WA, and HRPL) were included in the study. Accordingly. Consequently, 16 people who incompletely answered individuals who did not provide complete answers to the questions necessary required to calculate thedetermine HRPL were excluded. Finally, we enrolled from the study. Ultimately, a total of 5,501 participants were enrolled.

Independent variablevariables: OPA and LTPA

The Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ) [11,12] was <u>usedemployed</u> to measure OPA and LTPA. It <u>aimedIts purpose was</u> to <u>gather information aboutcollect data on</u> an individual's <u>levels of physical activity levelsin</u> both at work and <u>during</u> leisure time. It <u>eomprises contexts</u>. The <u>questionnaire consists of</u> 12 questions <u>regardingabout</u> the intensity,

Metabolic equivalents (METs) were used to quantify the <u>intensity of physical activity intensity</u>. The MET is, METs reflect the ratio of a person's an individual's metabolic rate during physical activity <u>compared</u> to that <u>during-person's metabolic rate at rest</u>. OneA single MET is defined as the energy <u>costexpenditure</u> of sitting quietly and is equivalent, which equates to a caloric consumption of 1 kcal/kg/h. Four and eight METs were assigned to the time spent on moderateModerate and vigorous activities were assigned values of 4 and 8 METs, respectively. Using theThe survey questions,— were used to separately calculate OPA and LTPA were calculated separately—in MET-min/minutes per_week. If certain activities arewere not performed—(e.g., no, such as vigorous-intensity sports)₇₅ the corresponding values arewere considered to be 0. ForTo calculate LTPA, the following formula was used: (days engaged in vigorous-intensity sports × minutes spent × 8) + (days engaged in moderate-intensity sports × minutes spent × 4). Similarly, for OPA₇ was computed using the following formula was used: (days involving vigorous-intensity activities activity at work × minutes spent × 8) + (days involving moderate-intensity activities activity at work × minutes spent × 4) [11].

PhysicalHigh physical activity >was defined as that exceeding 600 MET-min throughout a minutes per week-was categorized as "high," which-<u>.</u> This is equivalent to 150 minminutes of moderate-intensity and 75 minminutes of vigorous-intensity physical activity<u></u> or an equivalent<u>a</u> comparable combination-of the two₁ for <u>both</u> OPA and LTPA-separately. The criterion of 600 MET-min/minutes per week eriteria were obtained was derived from the World

Health Organization recommendations on physical activity for health-<u>included</u>, as outlined in the GPAQ questionnaire guidelines [11].

Dependent variable: work ability variables: WA and health-related productivity loss HRPL

WA was <u>measuredevaluated</u> using the work ability index (WAI) [14,15]. WAI is used], a tool frequently employed in clinical occupational health research. It The WAI has been usedutilized in manynumerous countries, and its demonstrated high reliability is high inwithin the Korean context [16]. The questionnaire used in this study assessed various aspects facets of WA, health status, and mental well-being-It comprised seven _ and was divided into 7 sections with, each containing specific questions related to work abilityWA. Participants ratedwere asked to rate their current work ability, evaluated WA, assess their work abilityWA in relation to job demands, identified presentidentify any existing diseases and diagnoses, estimatedestimate work impairment, reported report any days taken off work because of due to illness, predicted predict their work ability in WA for the next 2 years, and reflected provide reflections on their mental capacities.

To compute the total score, <u>the points from each section were added to certain-summed, with</u> <u>specific</u> items <u>subject to specific considerations</u>. Work demands (e.g., receiving additional consideration. Factors such as work demand, with potential options including physically demanding, mentally demanding, or both-physically and mentally demanding work), were considered. For In terms of current diseases, the scoring system <u>considers incorporated</u> only diagnoses provided confirmed by physicians.

The scores can be <u>summed uptallied</u> to <u>yield a range from a minimum of 7 points andto</u> a maximum of 49 points, with higher scores indicating better <u>work abilityWA</u>. This score can be

used<u>utilized</u> to interpret<u>categorize</u> a participant's WA as poor (7–27 points), moderate (28–36 points), good (37–43 points), or excellent (44–49 points).

HRPL was measured using the Work Productivity and Activity Impairment Questionnaire (WPAI), a general health version. The reliability and validity of thethis questionnaire were tested in a previous studyhad been previously reported [17]. The Korean version is accessible online (http://www.reillyassociates.net/WPAI_Translations), and the translation process was harmonizedstandardized through independent translations, back-translation, and expert reviews. TheThis questionnaire assessedwas designed to evaluate the work relatedimpact of health impactson work productivity and productivitydaily activities. It included six6 questions about employment status, hours of work missed from work because ofdue to health and other reasons, actual working hours, the effecteffects of health problems on work productivity, and the impactinfluence of health issues on regular daily activities. The overall declinedecrease in work productivity, such asincluding absenteeism and presenteeism, was determined bybased on the responses to these questions.

Absenteeism refers to the degree to which workers are absent <u>from work</u>. The productivity loss resulting <u>from</u> associated with absenteeism <u>was</u> determined<u>is</u> calculated by ealeulatingdetermining the percentage of working hours missed because of<u>due to</u> health-related issues within the <u>pastpreceding</u> 7 days. Presenteeism, <u>in contrast</u>, is defined as being <u>physically</u> <u>present</u> at work but experiencing impairment <u>because ofdue to</u> health problems. ProductivityThe productivity loss attributed to presenteeism <u>was determinedis calculated</u> by <u>calculatingdetermining</u> the percentage of working hours lost <u>because ofdue to</u> health problems issues during the same 7-day period. The HRPL, expressed <u>imas a</u> percentage, is <u>calculated</u> by <u>summingadding the percentages of</u> absenteeism and presenteeism <u>percentages</u>. It representsignifies the total percentage of work hours lost due to health-related

absencesabsence and productivity loss over the past 7 days.

Covariates

Demographic variables; such as age and sex, lifestyle behaviors, <u>such as including</u> alcohol consumption and smoking status, education <u>levels[evel</u>, occupation, <u>working hours worked</u>, income, <u>sleep quality of sleep</u>, and BMI; were considered as covariates, <u>considering – due to</u> their clinical importance and <u>incorporationinclusion</u> in previous studies [7,8,9]. Sleep quality was evaluated using the Insomnia Severity Index (ISI). The ISI), which ranges from 0 to 28 points; <u>Higher scores on the ISI indicate more severe insomnia</u>, with <u>higher scores indicating</u> worse insomnia:0–7 points suggesting no clinically <u>significantmeaningful</u> insomnia, 0–7; 8–14 points; <u>indicating</u> subthreshold insomnia, 8–14; 15–21 points; representing moderate insomnia, 15–21 points; and <u>severe insomnia</u>, 22–28 points <u>denoting severe insomnia [18]</u>.

Statistical analysis

Participants were allocated to groups according to their categorized based on demographic characteristics. The, and the levels of LTPA, OPA, WA, and HRPL levels of were documented for each demographic group were recorded. Considering, Given the absence of evidence forof linear relationships in previous prior studies, a non-parametric regression approach using a generalized additive model (GAM) was usedemployed to visualize illustrate the relationships associations between LTPA and WA, LTPA and HRPL, OPA and WA, and OPA and HRPL. Generalized cross-validation scores and thin-plate regression splines were employed utilized [19]. SexAdjustments were made for factors including sex, age, BMI, education level, alcohol consumption, smoking status, insomnia, occupation, working-hours

worked, and income-were adjusted. Furthermore. Additionally, the relationships between LTPA and WA-and, as well as those between LTPA and HRPL-in, within the high- and low-level OPA groups were visualizedillustrated using the same techniquemethod.

Differences-Linear regression models were employed to investigate the differences in WA and HRPL between the LTPA and OPA groups-were examined using linear regression models. LTPA was used to divide the participants, Participants were divided into high- and low-activity groups based on LTPA, using a cutoff of 600 MET-minminutes/week, and this was treated as a categorical variable. The same procedure was performed usingfollowed for OPA_Low LTPA and low OPA levels were used as reference points in the regression models, LOW, with low OPA and LTPA levels were used as references.reference points. This method testedapproach enabled examination of the mean differences and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) of WA and HRPL according to the levels of LTPA and OPA-levels and, as well as their combinations. Three linear regression models were used to divide the used using hours worked, and income. Covariates When applicable, covariates were appliedincorporated for adjustment as continuous variables, if applicable (e.g.,including age, BMI, working-hours worked, and income), and the set of the set of the set of the set of the applicable (e.g.,including age, BMI, working-hours worked, and income), and the set of the set of the set of the set of the applicable (e.g.,including age, BMI, working-hours worked, and income), and the set of the s

A<u>An analysis</u> stratified <u>analysis according to theby</u> age group was <u>performedconducted</u> to investigate<u>determine</u> whether the results <u>changeddiffered</u> for participants older than 60 years. All statistical analyses were <u>conductedperformed</u> using R version 4.2.2, and two (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). A 2-tailed <u>p-values <value of less than</u> 0.05 were adoptedwas established as the <u>criterionthreshold</u> for statistical significance.

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Results

Table 1 showspresents the levels of physical activity levels offor each demographic subgroup and, as well as the distribution of the participants within each subgroup.these subgroups. Male workers hadexhibited higher levels of LTPA and OPA levels than their female, but there was counterparts. However, no significant differencesex-based disparity was observed in workability WA or HRPL between them. Looking at the, When considering occupation, white _collar workers haddemonstrated the lowest OPA, while _ levels. In contrast, pink _collar and blue _collar workers had gradually increased exhibited progressively higher OPA levels.

Figure 1 depicts<u>illustrates</u> the relationships between LTPA and WA, LTPA and HRPL, OPA and WA, and OPA and HRPL<u>, as determined</u> using the GAM. WA decreased with increasingAs OPA and-increased-with increasing, WA tended to decrease, whereas an increase in LTPA-Conversely, HRPL increased with an increase in OPA and decreased was associated with an increase in LTPAWA. HRPL tended to increase with an increase in OPA, but decreased as LTPA increased.

Table 2 depictspresents the results of the linear regression models for WA and HRPL according in relation to LTPA and OPA. In the crude model (model 1), the high-LTPA subgroup demonstrated an increase in a higher WA of(mean difference, 1.503-relative to) than the low-LTPA subgroup, and while the high-OPA subgroup demonstrated exhibited a mean difference of --1.203 for WA in WA relativerelation to the low-OPA subgroup. Models 2 and 3, which were adjusted for covariates, also demonstrated higher WA in the high-_LTPA group (mean differences of 1.513 and 1.101 for models 2 and 3, respectively) and lower WA in the low-_OPA group (mean differences of --1.394 and --0.904 for models 2 and 3, respectively). In all models, HRPL was lower in the high-_LTPA group (mean differences of --4.567,--%, -5.019,%, and --3.970% for models 1, 2, and 3, respectively), and while HRPL was higher in the high-_OPA group (mean differences of 6.564%, 7.184%, and 5.931% for models 1, 2, and

3, respectively). All differences were statistically significant.

Figure 2 shows<u>illustrates</u> the relationship between LTPA and WA-and, as well as that between LTPA and HRPL, for the low- and high-OPA groups using a GAM adjusted for all covariates. Regardless of the OPA level, WA <u>increasedwas observed to increase</u> with increasing LTPA. However, HRPL decreased with increasing LTPA only in the low-OPA group. <u>InConversely</u>, in the group with-high-OPA group, HRPL increased as-in tandem with LTPA-increased.

Table 3 presentsdisplays the results of the linear regression models for WA and HRPL according to <u>, based on</u> the combinationvarious combinations of OPA and LTPA subgroups. WA was For all models, the highest <u>WA was observed</u> in the group with low OPA +and high LTPA-group and, while the lowest was seen in the group with high OPA +and low LTPA. These results were statistically significant. In model 3, the group in all models, with statistical significance. The high OPA +and low LTPA group demonstrated exhibited an average of <u>WA</u> that was 2.036 (95% CI₂ 1.280%–2.596%) lower WA than that of the group with low OPA +and high LTPA-group in model 3. <u>c</u> Similarly, in all models with statistical significance, HRPL was the lowest in the group with low OPA +and high LTPA combination, across all models, a finding that was statistically significant. This was followed by the groups with low OPA +and low LTPA, high OPA +and high LTPA, and high OPA +and low LTPA combinations, which demonstrated, in that order. The group with high OPA +and low LTPA exhibited the highest HRPL. TheIn model 3, the group with high OPA +and low LTPA group demonstrated_TTPA showed an average of <u>HRPL</u> that was 8.719% (95% CI₂ 5.513%–11.926%) higher HRPL-than that of the group with low OPA +and high LTPA group in model 3.

A sensitivity analysis was conducted according to age: \leq , with participants divided into those younger than 60 years and \geq those 60 years or older. Table 4 depictspresents the resultsoutcomes of the linear regression models offor WA and HRPL within each age group according to the, categorized by OPA and LTPA subgroups. Figure 3 depictsillustrates the results of the non-parametric regression of LTPA on WA and HRPL within each age group and the OPA subgroup for LTPA. In the group <under_60 years of age group, both linear regression and GAM demonstrated analyses showed trends similar to consistent with those observed in the previous analysis. However, in the group ≥among those 60 years and older, the high-LTPA group, in comparison to the low_LTPA group, did not demonstrate a significant decrease in display significantly lower HRPL in the linear regression model. Nevertheless relative to the low-LTPA participants. In contrast, the high-_OPA group, in comparison with the low OPA group, __demonstrated a significant reduction in WA and an increase in HRPL, even in comparison with the low-OPA group aged ≥, even among those at least 60 years. Additionally old. Furthermore, in the that ≥60-year-old population, the WA of the high-_OPA group was decreased, contrary to which contradicted the trend observed in the younger subgroup, and. As shown in the GAM, HRPL also markedly increased aswith increasing LTPA-increased compared to, which differed from the <pre>pattern observed for the under-60-year age group in GAM.

Discussion

WeIn this study, we explored the associations of OPA and LTPA with WA and HRPL among South Korean workers. An increase in the We found that higher LTPA resulted in an increase in-corresponded to higher WA and a decrease in-lower HRPL. Conversely, an increase inIn contrast, elevated OPA resulted in a was associated with decreased WA and increased HRPL. These findings are consistent results align with the physical activity paradox in the context of as it pertains to HRPL and WA [20,21].

The results offindings from our analysis are comparable to resemble those of earlier previous

studies, although the comparisondrawing direct comparisons may be challenging owing to different working circumstances due to differing work environments and methodologies. Notably, LTPA increases has been shown to increase WA [8,21]; however]. However, workers allocatedassigned to physically demanding tasks demonstrated decreased have exhibited decreases in WA [22,23]. A systematic review of 31 randomized controlled trials and nonrandomized controlled studies investigated examined the effects impact of workplace nutritional and physical activity interventions on employee productivity, work performance, and WA [24]. There have been substantial Substantial reductions in absenteeism, improvements in job performance, increased WA, and increasedimproved productivity have been reported acrossin studies focusing on physical activity interventions (i.e., nonoccupational physical exercise) inwithin the workplace environment or at multiple levels (organizational and individual). Conversely, it has been reported-In contrast, research indicates that workers in teaching hospitals experience a decrease in productivity loss and work limitations associated with mechanical workloads, demonstrating that they have difficulty indicating difficulties in performing activitiestasks during a partportion of their work time [25]. However, owingdue to the lackscarcity of studies on investigating the effects of OPA on HRPL, definitive conclusions cannot be firmdrawn.

The health status of workers might be an important underlyingcondition of employees may serve as a key factor in enhancingimproving sustaining or improving maintainingsustaining WA and productivity in the labor forceworkforce [26]. A person's WA depends on is determined by the balanceequilibrium between their physical or mental resources, and work demands [22]. While LTPA enhances an individual's physical or mental resources and the work demands experienced by that person [22]. While LTPA can bolster an individual's resources, it can reflect may also indicate high levels of work demand, causing the oppositework demands, potentially leading to adverse effects. LikewiseSimilarly, in the context of HRPL,

LTPA could be beneficial to enhance the health levelsstatus of workers, butwhereas OPA could be harmful to health with regardmay be detrimental due to the physical demands of work. ThereforeConsequently, these twotypes of physical activities seemappear to have paradoxicalexert contradictory effects on HRPL.

However, it is noteworthy that Notably, however, LTPA does not always have beneficial effects. Workers aged > yield favorable outcomes. Unlike their younger counterparts, workers over 60 years old did not benefit from experience benefits of increased LTPA in the WA and HRPL, unlike younger workers, categories. This trendpattern was also observedevident in the high-OPA group. This suggests These findings imply that infor older adults, excessive exercise may mitigatereduce work productivity-in-, particularly for those who already perform large amounts of engage in substantial physical activity in the workplace. Althoughat work. While LTPA in older agelater life is beneficial tofor health and decreases reduces the risk of developing various diseases [27], itthis may not be in hold true for those with physically demanding jobs. This finding is consistentobservation aligns with the results findings of previous studies withresearch that incorporated coronary heart disease as an outcome variable [28]. When considering sociodemographic and conventional coronary risk factors were considered, the incidence of coronary events was increased by approximately four times higher 4-fold among workers whose jobs required heavy physical demands and with physically demanding jobs who engagedalso participated in moderate-to-vigorous physical exercise during their leisure time. These results This can be explained by attributed to the fact that the combination of strenuous work and excessive exercise lead toresults in prolonged cardiovascular overload [29]. Furthermore, given On the other hand, Moreover, considering the cross-sectional nature of this these data, it is important to acknowledge the possibility that poor physical condition or work ability could have contributed to lower levels of LTPA.

The phenomenon of divergent health outcomes wherein LTPA and OPA are associated with LTPA and OPA-differing health outcomes is commonly knowndescribed as the PAphysical activity health paradox [30]. Holtermann et al. postulatedproposed a setseries of hypotheses to elucidate probableclarify the potential underlying mechanisms contributing to the PA healthof this paradox- [6]:-]. The authors suggested that OPA may (a) isbe of too low in-intensity or too long in duration, (b) elevatescause an increase in the 24-bhour heart rate, (c) elevateslead to an elevation in the 24-bhour blood pressure, (d) is-often performed be undertaken without sufficientadequate recovery time, (e) is often frequently be performed withunder conditions of low worker control, and (f) exacerbates inflammation.

Our study, which involved a large database of 5,517 workers-and, was unique in that it exploredits exploration of the physical activity paradox inwithin the context of WA and HRPL. Additionally, we demonstrated We found that the effects of physical activity on the-WA and HRPL wereexhibited both similaristics and different differences. However, because this was a due to the cross-sectional study, nature of this study, we were unable to directly identify causal relationships-could not be directly identified. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to validate. To confirm the causal relationshipassociation between physical activity and its impact on WA and HRPL-to suggest , future longitudinal studies are recommended. This research would aid in the development of appropriate clinical guidelines for OPA and LTPA. Additionally, the Furthermore, we observed a large variance in the OPA and LTPA-was large, and the, with values were not evenly unevenly distributed. Therefore, as the Consequently, the 95% CI of the GAM expanded with increases in OPA and LTPA-increased, the CI of the GAM widened. Additionally, the. The criterion of 600-MET minminutes/week-criterion, used to dividecategorize OPA and LTPA into high/low categorical-variables, was derived from the total physical activity recommended by the World Health Organization [12] and is not necessarily an]. Importantly, however, this does not reflect separate cutoffs established separate

eutoff-for OPA and LTPA. In additionAdditionally, potential <u>confounding</u> factors (e.g., the longevitysuch as duration of work, family responsibilityresponsibilities, and hobbies) may confoundinfluence the associations, but we could not include them in our analytical model because of. However, due to the lack of this information in our survey data. Further, we were unable to incorporate these factors into our analytical model. Future research should be conducted to determine <u>the</u> appropriate <u>levels of</u> OPA and LTPA <u>levels</u>-for <u>maintaining</u> healthy and productive workers.

In conclusion, the resultsfindings of ourthis study suggest that positive correlation between LTPA is positively correlated with WA and and WA, as well as labor productivity, whereas. In contrast, OPA hasappears to have a negative association, implying indicating a paradoxical effect between the twothese types of physical activities. Additionally, inFurthermore, among older adults with high physical demandsphysically demanding jobs, LTPA may be negatively correlated correlate with labor productivity, indicating -. This suggests the need for advice tailored advice according to the individual's work situation and age. For exampleinstance, it is generally advisable recommendable to engageparticipate in LTPA to enhanceimprove WA and prevent HRPL. However, it seems advisable that agingfor older workers within physically demanding jobs should not overly engageroles, it may be prudent to avoid excessive engagement in LTPA during non-workworking hours. We hopeanticipate that follow upfuture studies would generate more will provide additional evidence that can be applied in diverseapplicable to a variety of situations.

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Key Message

Occupational physical activity (OPA), contrary to leisure-time physical activity (LTPA), may have adverse effects on health through a phenomenon known as the physical activity paradox. This study investigated the relationship of OPA and LTPA with work ability (WA) and healthrelated productivity loss (HRPL). The results showed that a high LTPA was associated with increased WA and decreased HRPL. In contrast, a high OPA was associated with decreased WA and increased HRPL.

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Key Summary (Korean)

직업적 신체활동은 여가시간 신체활동과 달리 건강에 악영향을 미칠 수 있다. 이는 신체활동 패러독스로 알려진 현상으로, 본 연구에서는 직업적 신체활동은 여가시간 신체활동가 업무능력(work ability) 및 건강관련 노동생산성손실과의 관계에 대해 직장인 5501 명을 대상으로 조사하였다. 분석 결과, 여가시간 신체활동이 높을수록 업무능력은 좋아지고 건강관련 노동생산성손실은 감소하였다. 그에 반해 직업적 신체활동이 높을수록 업무능력은 낮아지고 건강관련 노동생산성손실은 증가하는 양상을 보였다. 그런데, 직업적 신체부담이 많은 고연령 노동자의 경우, 여가시간 신체활동이 증가하면, 오히려 건강관련 노동생산성손실은 증가할 수 있어, 작업 상황 및 연령에 따른 맞춤형 조언이 필요함을 나타냈다. 후속 연구를 통해 다양한 상황에 적용할 수 있는 근거가 더 많이 제시되기를 기대한다.

Tables

		Leisure-time physical activity	Occupational physical activity	Work ability	Health-related productivity los
	Total	MET-min/week	MET-min/week		(%)
	n (%)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
Overall	5501	788.02 (1307.31)	369.75 (1451.91)	37.64 (5.43)	29.26 (25.89)
Sex					
Male	3000 (54.5)	912.53 (1408.06)	507.51 (1724.66)	37.96 (5.44)	29.11 (25.72)
Female	2501 (45.5)	638.67 (1157.86)	204.52 (1009.69)	37.26 (5.41)	29.45 (26.10)
Age (years)					
20–39	2117 (38.5)	854.87 (1323.99)	330.75 (1387.83)	37.38 (5.50)	32.84 (26.53)
40-49	1306 (23.7)	746.81 (1278.98)	384.34 (1402.52)	38.01 (5.40)	25.62 (24.69)
50-59	1393 (25.3)	622.91 (1060.65)	377.91 (1523.36)	37.10 (5.23)	31.33 (26.17)
60+	685 (12.5)	980.00 (1654.68)	445.08 (1597.04)	38.72 (5.48)	21.68 (23.13)
Education Level			-		
≤-12 years of education	859 (15.6)	793.82 (1452.15)	555.40 (2008.20)	37.79 (5.47)	26.62 (25.28)
>-12 years of education	4642 (84.4)	786.94 (1278.88)	335.40 (1321.02)	37.61 (5.43)	29.75 (25.98)
Occupation			6 X		
White <u>c</u> Collar	3718 (67.6)	790.72 (1275.14)	200.54 (845.57)	37.80 (5.28)	29.48 (25.93)
Pink- <u>-c</u> Collar	720 (13.1)	803.10 (1408.90)	592.55 (1962.71)	36.93 (5.91)	30.60 (26.04)
Blue <u>c</u> Collar	1063 (19.3)	768.34 (1347.48)	810.70 (2340.58)	37.58 (5.60)	27.61 (25.59)
Alcohol		(λ		
Low	4643 (84.4)	795.19 (1322.39)	360.88 (1389.02)	37.61 (5.46)	29.52 (25.96)
High	858 (15.6)	749.23 (1222.49)	417.76 (1753.73)	37.80 (5.31)	27.89 (25.50)
Smoking					
Never	2995 (54.5)	756.35 (1256.62)	263.64 (1160.49)	37.87 (5.26)	28.86 (25.67)
Ever <u>s</u> 8moker	2506 (45.6)	825.86 (1364.82)	496.58 (1728.94)	37.37 (5.62)	29.75 (26.16)
Insomnia		N			
No	4314 (78.4)	810.64 (1333.73)	455.23 (1782.08)	38.58 (4.99)	25.24 (24.38)
Yes	1187 (21.6)	705.80 (1203.38)	346.24 (1346.23)	34.21 (5.59)	43.89 (25.97)
BMI (kg/m ²)		K			
<-25	3696 (67.2)	788.08 (1313.52)	359.32 (1430.72)	37.80 (5.40)	29.14 (25.89)
≥-25	1805 (32.8)	787.90 (1294.87)	391.13 (1494.53)	37.31 (5.49)	29.53 (25.90)
Working <u>H</u> Hours work (hours/week)	ed				
<-40 h	1144 (20.8)	822.02 (1316.23)	370.12 (1434.79)	37.65 (5.46)	29.37 (25.76)
40-52	3606 (65.6)	784.47 (1305.13)	308.96 (1168.91)	37.77 (5.36)	28.28 (25.62)
≥-52	751 (13.7)	753.25 (1304.73)	661.12 (2377.23)	37.01 (5.71)	33.85 (26.93)
Income (KRW)*					
<-2,500,000	1926 (35.0)	685.09 (1220.82)	354.66 (1498.88)	36.98 (5.61)	29.48 (26.24)
<-5,000,000	2981 (54.2)	825.98 (1334.65)	386.27 (1488.67)	37.82 (5.31)	29.46 (25.79)
≥-5,000,000	594 (10.8)	931.26 (1413.99)	355.80 (1057.70)	38.88 (5.19)	27.59 (25.25)

BMI_2: body mass index; SD_2: standard deviation; KRW, Korean won. *-Net monthly salary_

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Table 2. Mean difference and 95% confidence interval of work ability and health-related productivity loss according to occupational and leisure_-time physical activity

Vork <u>a</u> Ability]	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3
Leisuret T ime	Low	reference		reference		reference	
pPhysical aActivity	High	1.503	(1.199, 1.808)	1.513	(1.209, 1.817)	1.101	(0.824, 1.377)
Occupational	Low	reference		reference		reference	
pPhysical aActivity							
pr hjolear <u>a</u> rleathdy	High	1.203	(1.618,0.788)	<u>-</u> -1.394	(1.810,0.977)	0.904	(1.286,0.523)
Health- <u>r</u> Related pProductiv			(<u>1.618,0.788)</u> Model 1		(1.810,0.977) Model 2	0.904	(<u></u> 1.286, <u></u> 0.523) Model 3
Iealth- <u>r</u> Related pProductiv						0.904	
Iealth- <u>r</u> Related pProductiv %)	vity <u>l</u> Loss					_	
Iealth- <u>r</u> Related pProductiv %) Leisure <u>-t</u> Time	vity <u>I</u> Loss Low	reference	Model 1	reference	Model 2	reference	Model 3

Estimated using by linear regression and contrast compared to the reference (low leisure-time or low occupational physical activity). Model 1 was the crude model; m

Model 2 was adjusted for sex and age; and m

Model 3 was adjusted for sex, age, body mass index, education level, alcohol consumption, smoking status, insomnia, occupation, working hours worked, and income.

Table 3. Mean difference and 95% confidence interval of work ability and health-related productivity loss within each subgroup for occupational and leisure--time physical activity

Work <u>a</u> Ability (<u>o</u> Occupational <u>p</u> Physical <u>a</u> Activity, <u>l</u> Leisure <u>-t</u> -Time <u>p</u> Physical <u>a</u> Activity)	1	Model 1	Ν	Model 2	Ν	Aodel 3
(Low, High)	reference		reference		reference	
(Low, Low)	<u>-</u> -1.549	(<u>1.879</u> , <u></u> 1.220)	<u> </u>	(<u>1.883</u> , <u></u> 1.226)	<u>-</u> -1.120	(<u>1.418</u> , <u></u> 0.821)
(High, High)	<u> </u>	(<u>1.833</u> , <u></u> 0.799)	<u>-</u> 1.496	(<u>2.013</u> , <u></u> 0.979)	0.952	(<u>1.422</u> , <u></u> 0.482)
(High, Low)	<u>-</u> -2.548	(<u></u> 3.270, <u>-</u> - 1.827)	 2.763	(<u></u> 3.483, <u>-</u> - 2.043)	<u>-</u> 1.938	(<u>2.596</u> , <u></u> 1.280)
Health- <u>r</u> Related pProductivity Loss (%) (oOccupational pPhysical aActivity, Leisure-t-Time pPhysical aActivity)	1	Model 1	Ν	Model 2	Ν	Aodel 3
(Low, High)	reference		reference		reference	
(Low, Low)	5.016	(3.441, 6.592)	5.492	(3.931, 7.053)	4.310	(2.855, 5.765)
(High, High)	7.670	(5.197, 10.142)	8.340	(5.887, 10.793)	6.766	(4.474, 9.058)
(High, Low)	9.583	(6.132, 13.034)	10.576	(7.159, 13.993)	8.719	(5.513, 11.926

Estimated usingby linear regression and contrast compared to the reference (low occupational and high leisure-time physical activity). Model 1 was the crude model;

mModel 2 was adjusted for sex and age; and m Model 3 was adjusted for sex, age, body mass index, education level, alcohol consumption, smoking status, insomnia, occupation, working hours worked, and income. Epulo anead

Table 4. Mean difference and 95% confidence interval of work ability and health-related productivity loss according to the level of within each leisure_-time and occupational physical activity subgroups for different by age groups.

k <u>a</u> Ability		Ag	e <-60 years	Age ≥-60 years		
Leisure <u>-t</u> -Time <u>p</u> Physical	Low	reference		reference		
<u>a</u> Activity	High	1.104	(0.808, 1.399)	1.150	(0.332, 1.969)	
Occupational pPhysical	Low	reference		reference		
<u>a</u> Activity	High	<u> </u>	(1.202,0.375)	<u> </u>	(2.570,0.540)	
Health- <u>r</u> Related pProductivity <u>1</u> 4	-oss (%)	Ag	e <-60 years	Ag	e ≥-60 years	
Health- <u>r</u> Related <u>pP</u> roductivity <u>1</u> Leisure-t T ime <u>pP</u> hysical	eoss (%) Low	Ag	e <-60 years	Ag	e ≥-60 years	
			e <-60 years (5.737,2.815)	reference	e ≥-60 years (<u>-</u> -5.497, 1.539)	
Leisure <u>-t</u> -Time <u>p</u> Physical	Low	reference		reference		

Estimated by the<u>via</u> linear regression and <u>contrast compared</u> to <u>the</u> reference (low leisure_-time physical activity). <u>The m</u>Adodel was adjusted <u>forby</u> sex, age, body mass index, education level, alcohol consumption, smoking history, insomnia, occupation, <u>working</u> hours <u>worked</u>, and income.

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Figures

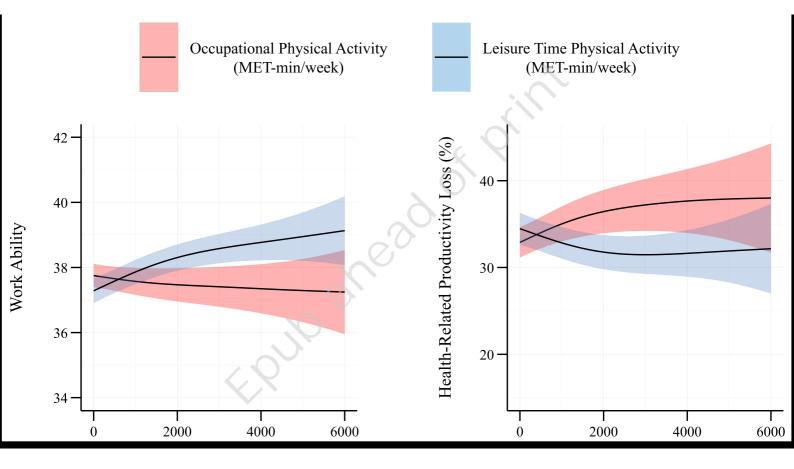
Figure 1. Generalized additive model of work ability and health-related productivity loss according to occupational and leisure_time physical activity.

Figure 2. Generalized additive model of leisure_time physical activity <u>according</u> to work ability and health-related productivity loss within each occupational physical activity subgroup.

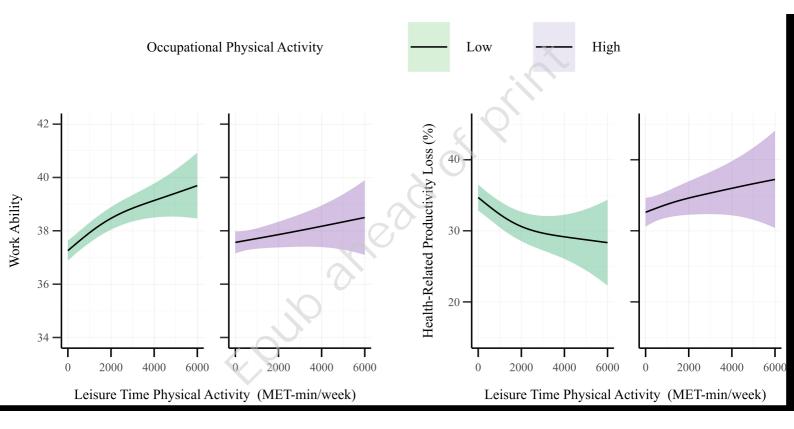
Figure 3. -Generalized additive model of leisure_-time physical activity within each occupational physical activity subgroup for differentby age groups.

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