

## Loughborough University Institutional Repository

---

# *Motivation for prevention through design: experiential perspectives and practice*

This item was submitted to Loughborough University's Institutional Repository by the/an author.

**Citation:** GAMBATESE, J.A., ...et al., 2017. Motivation for prevention through design: experiential perspectives and practice. Practice Periodical on Structural Design and Construction, 22(4): 04017017.

### **Additional Information:**

- This paper was accepted for publication in the journal Practice Periodical on Structural Design and Construction and the definitive published version is available at [https://doi.org/10.1061/\(ASCE\)SC.1943-5576.0000335](https://doi.org/10.1061/(ASCE)SC.1943-5576.0000335)

**Metadata Record:** <https://dspace.lboro.ac.uk/2134/27320>

**Version:** Accepted for publication

**Publisher:** ASCE

**Rights:** This work is made available according to the conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International (CC BY-NC-ND 4.0) licence. Full details of this licence are available at: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>

Please cite the published version.

1 **Motivation for Prevention through Design (PtD): Experiential Perspectives and Practice**

2  
3 John A. Gambatese<sup>1</sup>, M.ASCE, Alistair G. Gibb<sup>2</sup>, Charlotte Brace<sup>3</sup>, and Nicholas Tymvios<sup>4</sup>,  
4 A.M.ASCE  
5

6 **ABSTRACT**

7 Studies show that application of the Prevention through Design (PtD) concept with respect to  
8 construction worker safety, while compulsory in some countries, is inconsistent throughout the  
9 United States (US). This paper presents a study that explored the impacts and experiences on a  
10 construction community resulting from PtD implementation in order to benefit those countries  
11 where PtD is predominantly absent. Informed by a comprehensive review of PtD literature and  
12 governing regulations, the researchers conducted a structured, randomized survey of the  
13 construction sector in the United Kingdom where PtD is prevalent. Based on analyses of 228  
14 survey responses, it is clear that PtD is viewed as a positive enhancement to design practice,  
15 project team collaboration, and safety. Those experienced in its application hold it in high regard.  
16 Obstacles to implementing PtD may be present but can be overcome. PtD provides an  
17 opportunity to change the way safety is viewed and practiced in the US to be more inclusive of  
18 the entire project team with active participation consistent with current project team roles and  
19 responsibilities. The research reveals how the construction industry can make this change and the  
20 impacts to be expected. Doing so will create a supportive and participatory safety environment  
21 throughout the design profession.

---

<sup>1</sup> Professor, School of Civil and Construction Engineering, Oregon State University, 101 Kearney Hall, Corvallis, OR 97331; Phone: (541) 737-8913; Email: [john.gambatese@oregonstate.edu](mailto:john.gambatese@oregonstate.edu)

<sup>2</sup> Professor, School of Civil and Building Engineering, Loughborough University, Loughborough, Leicestershire LE11 3TU, United Kingdom; Phone: +44 (0)1509 223097; Email: [a.g.gibb@lboro.ac.uk](mailto:a.g.gibb@lboro.ac.uk)

<sup>3</sup> Associate Director, AECOM; Email: [charlotte.brace@aecom.com](mailto:charlotte.brace@aecom.com)

<sup>4</sup> Assistant Professor, Department of Engineering Technology and Construction Management, UNC-Charlotte, 9201 University City Blvd, Charlotte, NC 28223-0001; Phone: (704) 687-5059; Email: [ntymvios@uncc.edu](mailto:ntymvios@uncc.edu)

22 **Keywords:** Prevention through Design, Construction, Safety, Design

23

## 24 **INTRODUCTION**

25 Much has been written and discussed about Prevention through Design (PtD) as an intervention  
26 to eliminate injuries and fatalities on construction sites. For the US construction industry, PtD is  
27 an intriguing concept; it is both recognized and highly valued by the safety community as a  
28 means to eliminate and reduce risk of injury, yet a change to traditional design practice that some  
29 view as a threatening prospect and impractical to implement. However, PtD's promise and the  
30 desire to further reduce the high number of construction worker injuries and fatalities that occur  
31 on an annual basis (BLS 2013) continue to motivate efforts to study PtD and expand  
32 implementation of PtD across the construction industry.

33         Possessing an understanding of impacts, barriers, enablers, and attitudes towards PtD  
34 implementation can facilitate its acceptance and diffusion. A recent study by Tymvios (2013)  
35 successfully captured the state of practice and sentiment of the US construction industry with  
36 respect to PtD. Based in part on an extensive, nationwide survey of owners, designers, and  
37 constructors, the study revealed that all industry participants acknowledge that design decisions  
38 have an impact on the occupational safety and health (OSH) of construction workers. However,  
39 when considering actually implementing PtD, the findings reveal that fewer architects and  
40 engineers (AEs) agree that designers should participate in such OSH efforts. Additionally, the  
41 AE's perspective is that obstacles to PtD implementation exist in three key areas: legal,  
42 economic, and contractual. Prior research supports the findings of Tymvios with respect to PtD  
43 in the US construction industry (e.g., Gambatese et al. 2005; Hecker et al. 2005; Toole et al.  
44 2016; Behm 2004a).

45           The studies by Tymvios and others provide a strong foundation for which to understand  
46 PtD as it currently exists and is perceived in the US. Given the current limited application of PtD  
47 in the US, of interest as well are the knowledge and experience of construction communities that  
48 have fully integrated PtD into the project delivery process. Gaining an understanding of how PtD  
49 is received and practiced in international communities will facilitate disseminating PtD in the US  
50 and other countries where formal PtD implementation in construction is minimal or lacking.  
51 Examples of widespread PtD implementation exist in various countries and regions around the  
52 world. The European Union, Australia, Singapore, and South Africa, for example, currently have  
53 regulations that mandate the practice of PtD in construction (Aires et al. 2010; Toole et al. 2016).

54           This paper presents a study that explores PtD practice outside the US, specifically in the  
55 United Kingdom, where widespread and sustained implementation of PtD exists. The intent of  
56 the study is to determine the practical impacts and experiences of implementing PtD on the  
57 construction community. Meeting this goal is expected to support development of resources and  
58 efforts to promote PtD diffusion in the US. The UK was selected as the target location for the  
59 study because of its relatively long-term and sustained experience under the Construction  
60 (Design and Management) Regulations that were enacted in 1994 and which prescribe PtD  
61 efforts on construction projects (CDM 1994). A valuable opportunity is present to learn about  
62 PtD implementation from those owners, designers, and health and safety professionals who have  
63 implemented PtD in the UK over the years.

64

## 65   **CURRENT KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE**

66   Examples of PtD implementation in practice exist in some instances across the US construction  
67   industry. Research findings are available that describe PtD tools and resources that have been

68 created, PtD processes that have been developed, and suggestions for how to design for safety  
69 (Hecker et al. 2005; Zou et al. 2008; Istephan 2004; Angelo 2004; Toole et al. 2016; WorkCover  
70 2001; Toole and Gambatese 2008). Researchers have found that the origins of construction  
71 accidents and injuries are often upstream of the construction process and have their roots in  
72 project planning, scheduling, and design activities (Whittington et al. 1992; Suraji et al. 2001).  
73 Based on an investigation of the safety performance in the UK construction industry, a definite  
74 link exists between decisions made during design and the conditions experienced by workers on  
75 the construction site with respect to safety (Jeffrey and Douglas 1994). Trethewy and Atkinson  
76 (2003) found that designers influence, both directly and indirectly, the OSH performance of  
77 construction workers. In a study of a safety in design process implemented for a microchip  
78 fabrication facility, decisions made upstream of the construction phase during design, planning,  
79 scheduling, and material selection likely contributed to the presence of safety hazards during  
80 construction (Hecker et al. 2001). Quantifying the connection between design and construction  
81 worker safety (e.g., determining the percentage of injuries that could have been prevented  
82 through the design) has been attempted, with mixed results (Lorent 1987; Gibb et al. 2004;  
83 Haslam et al. 2003; Behm 2004b, 2005; Smallwood 1996; Churcher and Alwani-Starr 1996;  
84 Driscoll et al. 2004). Szymburski (1997), as represented in a time-safety curve, suggests that  
85 safety should be a primary concern of planners and designers during the early (conceptual and  
86 preliminary) design stages. According to Szymburski, the ability to influence safety in a positive  
87 manner is greatest when the hazards can be eliminated so that they do not appear on the worksite.  
88 It is too late to utilize this ability when safety is not considered until the contractor begins  
89 determining and planning the work operations and worksite conditions.

90 Prevention through design is a recognized best practice in the OSH field and well-known  
91 amongst safety professionals. However, due to the structure and customary practice of the US  
92 construction industry, its implementation within the construction industry is limited (Gambatese  
93 et al. 2005). Formal implementation across the industry is minimal (Toole et al. 2016;  
94 Gambatese et al. 2017). Research has additionally identified specific barriers to implementation  
95 of PtD in the US construction industry that exist at the employee, project, and organizational  
96 levels. These barriers include: designer education and training, professional liability for safety, a  
97 lack of regulatory requirements, an industry culture and structure that separates designers from  
98 involvement in construction worker safety, unavailability of PtD resources/tools, lack of designer  
99 training on how to implement PtD, and budget impacts associated with reviewing and modifying  
100 a design for safety (Gambatese 2003, 2008; Gambatese et al. 2005; Hecker et al. 2005; Hinze  
101 and Wiegand 1992; Toole 2005; Behm 2004a, 2005; Everett and Slocum 1994; Tymvios 2013).

102 One particular barrier that is often cited is the potential for increased exposure to liability  
103 associated with construction worker injuries. In response to advice from their legal counsel,  
104 design professionals often cite the potential for increased liability as a reason for not becoming  
105 involved in construction worker safety in any way, including pursuing PtD thinking in their  
106 designs. (Hinze and Wiegand 1992; Gambatese et al. 2005). Within the industry, insecurity  
107 associated with becoming involved in construction safety to any extent is a product of current  
108 legal and insurance practice in the construction industry (Korman 2001). One of the initial  
109 investigations of the extent to which designers are adopting PtD revealed that the number of  
110 adopters is small due to the liability issue (Coble 1997). Since then, interest in PtD has expanded  
111 (Tymvios 2013). However, in response to its significant perception as a barrier, fear of increased  
112 professional liability resulting from PtD implementation has been explored by numerous

113 researchers to further confirm its presence and expose ways to mitigate the barrier (e.g., Behm  
114 2004; Gambatese 2008; Gambatese et al. 2005; Hecker et al. 2005; Hinze and Wiegand 1992;  
115 Toole 2005).

116 While barriers to PtD exist, its implementation is enabled by a variety of factors and  
117 practices as well. Examples of enablers of PtD include: a designer mindset that includes  
118 construction safety as a design criterion; the availability of PtD design resources and tools;  
119 support for PtD implementation from the project owner/client; the use of integrated project  
120 delivery methods such as design-build and CM-at-risk; and the use of 4-D computer-aided  
121 designs (CAD), the application of building information modeling (BIM) to the design and  
122 construction process, and the use of virtual and augmented reality to assist with visualizing the  
123 design (Hinze 2000; Anderson 2000; Baxendale and Jones 2000; Toole et al. 2016; Ash 2000;  
124 Atkinson and Westfall 2000). Due to the difficulties associated with experimental research in  
125 construction and especially related to PtD, research on enablers, as well as barriers, to date is  
126 primarily founded on observational evaluations and projections supported solely by anecdotal  
127 evidence. Continued efforts are needed to quantitatively confirm the presence or absence of  
128 identified barriers and enablers.

129 Absent legislation mandating the implementation of PtD, voluntary adoption of PtD will  
130 increase through recognition of the impact of its implementation. Companies within the US  
131 construction industry that have implemented PtD to date have recognized and reaped the related  
132 benefits. In a study of PtD implementation on a microchip fabrication facility project, Weinstein  
133 et al. (2005), assessed whether the PtD program implemented had any impact on construction.  
134 During the design of the facility, 26 design changes were made in order to improve safety. The  
135 researchers found that 14 of the 26 design changes (54%) were recognized by trade contractors

136 as benefiting the safety of the workers during construction. It should be noted that it is difficult to  
137 make the connection between a design element and improved OSH; many confounding factors  
138 exist due to the complexity of the construction process, multiple organizations involved, work  
139 site conditions, and human-related factors. Many of these confounding factors contribute to both  
140 the safety of workers and to the cause of injuries. Moreover, other safety control measures are  
141 implemented during construction as well as PtD. The overlapping impacts of multiple safety  
142 control measures implemented simultaneously complicate the connection between design  
143 features and safety performance. Therefore, researchers commonly rely on case studies, surveys,  
144 historical data analysis, and document reviews to expose potential links in support of PtD.

145         Worker safety during other facility lifecycle phases besides construction is important as  
146 well. The OSH of workers who participate in the operations and maintenance phases is expected  
147 to also improve with the implementation of PtD (Gambatese et al. 2005). This additional benefit  
148 is absent with other types of safety controls that are implemented during construction and then  
149 removed at the completion of construction. There is no value to the subsequent lifecycle phases  
150 when the safety measures are only present during construction. In addition to benefitting OSH,  
151 improvements in other project attributes as a result of implementing PtD accrue. Additional  
152 positive impacts to project cost, productivity, quality, and constructability have been realized  
153 (Levitt and Samelson 1993; Hinze 2006; Toole et al. 2006; Lam et al. 2006).

154         The research presented in this paper departs from previous studies of PtD in the US in  
155 that the present research utilizes the knowledge and experience of construction industry  
156 participants who are experienced in PtD implementation. Those involved in the UK construction  
157 industry, an industry that is similar to the US in structure and technological advancement, have  
158 gained insights into PtD, made adjustments in the project delivery process to incorporate PtD,



159 and understand the impacts of PtD to a project. The extensive knowledge and experience  
160 provides a high level of confidence in the results. Additionally, while prior studies have targeted  
161 mostly the input of owners, designers, and constructors, the present research adds  
162 manufacturers/suppliers and health and safety consultants to the populations included in the  
163 study.

164

## 165 **RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODS**

166 In support of continued dissemination of the PtD concept in the US, the goal of the research  
167 study was to investigate the concept following its implementation over a sustained period of  
168 time. Specifically, the researchers were interested in gathering industry-wide data on common  
169 PtD practices across a construction sector that complements that from prior research. To do so,  
170 the researchers aimed at gathering the following information:

- 171 • The types and number of resources typically utilized to implement PtD in practice on  
172 projects
- 173 • The points within the project design phase when project personnel typically address PtD
- 174 • The practices and tools that are commonly used to address safety in a design
- 175 • Personal, project, organization, and industry barriers to PtD implementation
- 176 • Products, processes, and capabilities that enable PtD implementation
- 177 • The extent to which safety and other project properties are impacted, both positively and  
178 negatively, due to PtD implementation and the nature of the impacts

179

180 As noted above, PtD is implemented in a variety of forms in other countries. Perhaps the  
181 most structured and comprehensive implementation occurs in the UK. PtD implementation in the

182 UK was initially driven by the European Union (EU) Temporary or Mobile Construction Sites  
183 Directive of 1992. This directive instructed EU member states to address OSH risks through  
184 duties placed on those who design projects or oversee the design of projects (Anderson 2000). To  
185 meet this requirement, in March 1995 the UK enacted the Construction (Design and  
186 Management) Regulations (CDM) (Legislation 2011). In order to overcome fragmentation and  
187 lack of coordination between parties in the industry, the regulations are designed to bring all who  
188 can have an impact on OSH into the efforts to improve OSH (Hetherington 1995). Overall, the  
189 CDM Regulations are designed to decrease the total amount of OSH risk present on construction  
190 sites through the implementation of effective management of OSH upstream of the construction  
191 activity. For design professionals (e.g., architects and engineers), the Regulations prescribe a  
192 duty to ensure that their designs do not create unnecessary risk to those who will construct and  
193 utilize the design (e.g., construction workers and facility users) (MacKenzie et al. 2000). In 2007,  
194 the UK revised the CDM Regulations, reducing the amount of paperwork required and making  
195 the process more efficient. Subsequently, in April 2015, additional changes to the Regulations  
196 were made to more closely map the Regulations to the original EU Directive (HSE 2015). Based  
197 on the extensive implementation of the CDM Regulations, and therefore extensive experience of  
198 UK project teams with implementing PtD, the researchers selected the UK construction  
199 community as the focus of the present study. The present research was conducted while the 2007  
200 CDM Regulations were still in place. The findings from the study do not take into account the  
201 changes made to the Regulations in 2015.

202 To conduct the research, the researchers elected to deploy a structured, randomized  
203 survey of the UK construction sector. This survey method affords collecting data from a wide  
204 spectrum of the UK construction sector within a short period of time. Additionally, the

205 researchers felt that the research questions posed could be answered through closed-ended  
206 questions contained in an on-line survey.

207         The research design targeted six professional communities for the survey. The target  
208 communities were the following: architects, design engineers, facility owners/developers  
209 (clients), constructors (principal contractors and trade contractors), manufacturers and suppliers,  
210 and H&S consultants. To identify and contact the professionals, the researchers utilized industry  
211 associations that represent each of the targeted communities. The specific industry associations  
212 selected were as follows: Chartered Institute of Building (CIOB), Royal Institute of British  
213 Architects (RIBA), Institution of Civil Engineers (ICE), British Safety Council, Association for  
214 Project Safety (APS), Institution of Structural Engineers (IStructE), Institution of Mechanical  
215 Engineers (IMechE), Chartered Institution of Building Services Engineers (CIBSE), and Royal  
216 Institution of Chartered Surveyors (RICS). Therefore, the target population for the study  
217 consisted of the members of each of the listed industry association. It should be recognized that  
218 there may be overlap between industry association memberships, i.e., a person may be a member  
219 of more than one of the selected associations. However, given the unique focus of each  
220 professional community, the researchers expect that the amount of overlap is negligible.

221         A sample size of 200 randomly selected participants from the membership directories of  
222 the industry associations was established for the study. However, e-mail and contact information  
223 was not available from all of the association directories due to data protection and confidentiality  
224 requirements. Consequently, the researchers contacted the association office personnel to request  
225 that the survey be distributed via the association newsletters or placed on industry association  
226 websites. In addition, the researchers included their own personal contacts in the sample,  
227 especially those personnel who work at organizations known to be involved in design and

228 construction. Lastly, the researchers recruited participants at in-person forums/events that  
229 regularly take place at different locations throughout the construction sector. Due to the sampling  
230 process, the researchers are not able to determine the exact response rate for the survey. The size  
231 of some of the targeted groups that received the request for participation is unknown. All  
232 interested participants were allowed to participate in the survey. Other than requiring the  
233 participants to be a member of an identified industry association, the researchers made no  
234 attempt to include or exclude participants.

235         The data collection instrument utilized for the survey was on-line questionnaire. The  
236 questionnaire was organized into several sections related to the following information: (1)  
237 demographic information about the participant, and (2) input related to each of the research  
238 questions listed above. To permit efficient and effective analysis of the survey data, each  
239 question was written to facilitate statistical analyses (e.g., Yes/No and Likert scale). Lastly, to  
240 ensure that the questions were clear and not overly burdensome to answer, a pilot test of the  
241 survey questionnaire was conducted. Five randomly-selected names from the sample were  
242 identified for the pilot test. The survey was distributed to the pilot test participants. Responses  
243 from the pilot test participants, and recommendations solicited from the participants for  
244 improving the questionnaire, were then used to modify the questionnaire prior to its distribution  
245 to the entire sample.

246         The researchers revised the survey questionnaire accordingly, and prepared and placed  
247 the survey on-line for ease of distribution. The on-line survey tool SurveyMonkey was used to  
248 host the survey. To be consistent with the terminology used in the UK, the term “design for  
249 safety” was used in the survey instead of “prevention through design”. The UK researchers  
250 involved in the study indicated that the term design for safety” is more universally understood in

251 the UK construction industry. The researchers also focused the survey solely on worker safety  
252 (as opposed to safety and health) to match the term “design for safety” and minimize  
253 misinterpretation of the responses. Institutional Review Board approval for research with human  
254 subjects was acquired, and then the researchers distributed a link to the on-line survey via e-mail.  
255 In order to enhance internal validity, included in the e-mail was a description of the research and  
256 instructions for completing the questionnaire and submitting a response. Participation in the  
257 survey was voluntary. Reminder e-mails were distributed to participants if they did not respond  
258 within two weeks of receiving the initial request to participate in the survey. Multiple additional  
259 reminder e-mails were sent as needed in order to obtain at least 200 responses.

260

## 261 **RESULTS**

262 The research process generated a total of 258 responses to the questionnaire. In some cases the  
263 questionnaires were incomplete. Incomplete questionnaires were discarded which left 228  
264 responses with complete information that were retained for the analysis. Given the nature of the  
265 questions, simple frequency comparisons and Chi-square inference tests were conducted. The  
266 tests explored PtD practices and experiences, especially with respect to the impacts on project  
267 performance and safety. Both univariate and, when possible given the number of data points  
268 available, multivariate analyses, were conducted. The results of the statistical analyses, along  
269 with content analyses of the responses to open-ended questions, were used to draw conclusions  
270 from the research.

271 The survey participants represent a diverse cross-section of the UK construction  
272 community. Approximately 37% of the 228 respondents work in construction organizations,  
273 while 30% work in organizations that provide primarily engineering services. All of the targeted

274 industry associations are represented. The Institution of Civil Engineers had the majority of  
275 representatives (36%), followed by 30% membership in the Institute of Occupational Safety and  
276 Health, 11% in the Association of Project Safety, 10% in the Chartered Institute of Building, and  
277 8% in the Institution of Structural Engineers. A small portion of the respondents (5%) are  
278 members of the Royal Institute of British Architects. The majority of respondents (24%) indicate  
279 that their current role is as a design engineer. Principal contractors make up 21% of the sample,  
280 and CDM coordinators constitute 15% of the respondents. Only a small number of participants  
281 (4%) are architects. In terms of the size of the companies represented by the survey respondents,  
282 over half of the respondents (54%) work in large organizations with >1,000 employees. The  
283 types of projects most often conducted by the respondent organizations are infrastructure/heavy  
284 rail (42%), industrial (28%), and commercial buildings (27%). Lastly, the number of years of  
285 experience of the respondents ranged widely. Design engineer respondents had a mean of 15  
286 years of experience. Other levels of experience within the respondent pool were (mean values):  
287 11 years as H&S consultant, 10 years as architect, 10 years as principal contractor, and 9 years as  
288 project manager.

289         The survey questionnaire asked respondents to identify the tools and resources that they  
290 utilize for PtD-related efforts. Such tools can vary significantly from simple checklists to 3D/4D  
291 visualization software. Since documenting risk assessments is a required component of the CDM  
292 Regulations, the use of standardized risk assessment forms is used most often (81% of  
293 respondents). These forms are typically developed in-house. Other commonly used tools and  
294 processes are: periodic design reviews (65%) and constructability reviews (53%), which are also  
295 often implemented by organizations in countries where there is no obligation to implement PtD.  
296 Other highly-used tools include: design checklists (54% of respondents), risk matrix (51%), and

297 in-house design guide (48%). Some tools are publicly available through UK organizations and  
298 associations. Those commonly used are: British Standards (76% of respondents), HSE Guidance  
299 – Health and Safety in Construction (74%), and Approved Code of Practice (72%).

300 A question that has been posed by prior researchers aims to assess impacts of PtD on  
301 other project performance criteria besides safety. Other criteria that are commonly tracked are  
302 cost, duration, quality, and productivity. The respondents were asked their opinion about how  
303 PtD impacts project performance related to various criteria, including safety. Almost all of the  
304 respondents believe that PtD has a positive impact on both construction worker safety (87% of  
305 respondents) and end-user safety (87%). Impacts to quality and productivity were perceived to be  
306 mostly positive as well. Sixty-four percent of the 228 respondents believe that PtD increases  
307 construction quality while 32% feel that there is no change. Similarly, 50% of the respondents  
308 indicated that PtD improves worker productivity and 36% stated there was no change. Figure 1  
309 shows the results related to design and construction cost. As shown in the figure, a large  
310 percentage of the respondents believe that PtD leads to increases in design cost, total project  
311 cost, and construction cost. However, many respondents indicated that there are no changes to  
312 these project characteristics when implementing PtD. Lastly, as shown in Figure 2, construction  
313 duration, design duration, and total project duration were identified as not being impacted or  
314 increasing as a result of implementing PtD. One indicator commonly used to measure project  
315 quality is the amount of rework required. The respondents were not asked in the survey about the  
316 impacts of PtD on rework. The researchers, however, believe that the implementation of PtD is  
317 likely negatively correlated to rework, i.e., as the extent of PtD implementation increases, the  
318 amount of rework required decreases.

319

320 < Insert Figure 1 here >

321

322 < Insert Figure 2 here >

323

324 In addition to impacting project performance criteria, the researchers explored the  
325 presence of an impact on the project personnel themselves. Respondents were asked to provide  
326 their perspective of how implementing PtD has impacted each of the major project team  
327 members. For all project team members, the respondents indicated their belief that PtD efforts  
328 have had a positive or very positive impact on the roles of the project team members. Positive  
329 impact was believed to be the greatest for principal contractors; some or very positive impact of  
330 PtD on principal contractors was indicated by 88% of the respondents. Responses regarding the  
331 impact of PtD on other project roles were as follows: positive impact on design engineer's role  
332 (87% of respondents), and positive impact on manufacturer/supplier role (33% of respondents).

333 Similar to that investigated in previous research, the present survey explored whether the  
334 design and construction of projects, e.g., the specific design features and the specific  
335 construction tasks, have changed as a result of implementing PtD along with the extent to which  
336 there has been change. The respondents feel strongly that there has been significant positive  
337 impact from PtD implementation. Regarding impact on design, 59 of the 228 respondents (26%)  
338 indicated very positive impact, while 60% of the respondents stated that there has been some  
339 positive impact. When considering the impact on construction, the results were as follows: 33%  
340 stated very positive impact, and 56% stated some positive impact. It should be noted that the  
341 percentage of respondents indicating no impact amounted to 6% for design and 4% for  
342 construction.



343           The extent to which a new process or product is diffused within the construction industry  
344 is dependent in part on the obstacles to implementation and the presence of factors that facilitate  
345 implementation. As described above, prior research has identified both barriers and enablers of  
346 PtD implementation. Table 1 shows the percentage of respondents who indicated the extent to  
347 which a factor is a barrier or enabler of PtD implementation for those factors most often cited. As  
348 shown in the table, lack of knowledge and priority given to other project objectives are seen as  
349 barriers by many respondents. In addition, knowledge of construction means and methods,  
350 especially those to be used on the specific project being designed is identified as facilitating PtD  
351 implementation. While knowledge and skills related to PtD were identified as important to its  
352 implementation, the effort to implement PtD was not viewed by a large number of respondents as  
353 a barrier. The magnitude of the effort needed to address construction worker safety was only  
354 viewed as a barrier by 15% of the respondents. The results related to questions about barriers and  
355 enablers expose a need for educating and training designers about PtD and its implementation. In  
356 addition, designer understanding of construction means and methods, and especially related to  
357 the project at hand if possible, is important to PtD implementation. This understanding can come  
358 from the participation during design of personnel who have construction experience, whether the  
359 actual contractor for the project or not. Lastly, the influence provided by the owner/client, and  
360 the culture of the design organization, also play significant roles in PtD. Promoting positive  
361 views of safety and the role of design in safety, both by the owner/client and within the design  
362 organization, will benefit PtD implementation.

363

364

< Insert Table 1 here >

365

366 While conditions may exist that enable PtD implementation, motivation for designers and  
367 project team members to modify a design for safety must also be present. In the UK, this  
368 motivation is present through the CDM Regulations. In other countries that lack similar  
369 regulations, motivation must come from other sources. The survey exposed other motivations for  
370 PtD. As shown in Table 1, enhanced firm reputation was viewed as the greatest motivating  
371 factor, listed as a motivator by 93% of respondents. Other factors that a significant portion of the  
372 respondents listed as motivators were improved construction worker safety (92% of  
373 respondents), and improved facility occupant safety (85%). It is encouraging to see that safety,  
374 both of construction workers and facility occupants, is recognized as a top motivator by the  
375 industry personnel. Cost and schedule are certainly concerns on projects, yet reduced costs and  
376 shorter schedules were identified as motivators by fewer respondents; a result that may be due to  
377 the respondents' concerns about the potential impacts of PtD on cost and schedule as described  
378 above.

379 Without regulations in place, and unclear data regarding return on investment, making a  
380 change in design practice is to a large extent a personal decision. A person's moral perspectives  
381 regarding their role and safety can be a motivator or lack thereof. One survey question asked,  
382 "What is your perspective of Design for Safety?", and provided multiple potential responses  
383 related to personal motivation that the participants could select. In response to this question,  
384 almost all of the respondents (94%) feel that PtD is not just a legislative requirement that they  
385 must abide by, but is a fundamental, "moral" imperative. This large percentage may reflect the  
386 appreciation that industry professionals in the UK have gained for PtD and protecting the safety  
387 of workers. However, self-selection as a participant in the study may be an impacting factor that  
388 affects internal validity. Those who volunteered to participate in the study may inherently have a

389 greater appreciation for safety controls. When generalizing to the population at large, the actual  
390 percentage may be less.

391 In an attempt to control for the impact of the CDM Regulations, one survey question  
392 asked whether the participants would practice PtD if there were no Regulations. In addition,  
393 continuation of designing for safety if the CDM Regulations were abolished was also explored.  
394 The results related to these questions are as follows:

- 395 • 217 of the 228 respondents (95%) stated that they would still practice PtD if there were  
396 no Regulations. Of the 217 respondents, 51% indicated that they would practice PtD in its  
397 current form, while 44% would change how they practice PtD.
- 398 • 221 of the respondents (97%) would still take steps to design for safety if the CDM  
399 Regulations were eliminated in the future; sixty-seven percent would do so as currently  
400 practiced while 30% would modify how it is currently implemented.

401

402 Overall perception of and attitude toward PtD was positive. Only less than 10% of the  
403 respondents felt that the barriers to PtD are so numerous compared to the benefits that it makes  
404 PtD ineffective. Conversely, a large percentage (60%) view PtD as an important aspect of  
405 ensuring the safety of construction workers and should receive greater priority by project teams.  
406 However, this positive result is tempered by a smaller portion of the respondents (27%) who  
407 indicate that they expect the benefits of PtD to offset the effort required to implement it. This  
408 result is consistent with the lack of clarity regarding the impacts of PtD on project cost and  
409 schedule as indicated above.

410

411 **ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

412 Using their experience and judgment, the researchers analyzed the survey responses with respect  
413 to the research questions established for the study. In addition, the analyses aimed to explore  
414 how survey responses related to PtD performance and perspectives correlate to respondent  
415 demographics. Simple frequency statistics (number and percent of responses) were used to  
416 analyze the data with respect to each research question. The results of the analyses along with  
417 discussion of the findings are provided below.

418

#### 419 *Types and Magnitude of Resources Associated with PtD in Practice*

420 Design utilizes human resources to a great extent. As a design intervention, PtD involves design  
421 professionals and is supported by those who have knowledge of both construction safety and  
422 construction means and methods. The survey respondents indicated that general contractors,  
423 design engineers, and CDM coordinators contribute the most to PtD implementation. The extent  
424 of input of each participant may differ based on the company, project, and individual. A person's  
425 attitude, experience, and knowledge impact the extent of their role in PtD. For most of the  
426 companies represented in the survey, in-house staff and constructors provide the greatest amount  
427 of input to PtD in practice. Design consultants external to the organization are utilized less often.  
428 Primarily utilizing in-house staff is an encouraging finding; organizations are willing to take on  
429 their role in PtD rather than subcontract it out. This inclusion of PtD within staff roles may  
430 indicate a view that it is intrinsic to their business and services provided. Involving constructors  
431 is likely needed to incorporate the necessary construction knowledge regarding safety hazards  
432 and construction means and methods. The relative participation of designers and constructors in  
433 practice may not be ideal due to available resources and capabilities. The survey results show,

434 however, that some project team members are viewed as more valuable for PtD implementation  
435 than others.

436

#### 437 *Timing of PtD Efforts*

438 As a design intervention, PtD is envisioned as primarily occurring during the design phase of a  
439 project. PtD's applicability and effectiveness are contingent upon it being implemented at the  
440 appropriate time. Analysis of the survey data reveal that PtD activities occur throughout the  
441 project lifecycle. Initially, PtD activities are undertaken during project planning (preparation)  
442 before detailed design. Eighty-one percent of those respondents who are either partially or fully  
443 involved in PtD conduct the activities during the planning phase. The greatest extent of  
444 implementation occurs during design and pre-construction; 89% and 96% of the respondents  
445 indicated conducting PtD activities in design and pre-construction, respectively. Addressing  
446 safety in the design commonly extends into construction as well, with 90% of the respondents  
447 indicating PtD activities in construction. Due to the nature of the PtD concept and the presence  
448 of the CDM Regulations, it is expected that PtD activities will take place early in the project.  
449 Implementing PtD during construction may be a result of needed design changes, the added  
450 benefit of having construction knowledge on the project, the exposure of hazards not identified  
451 during design, the difficulty of envisioning hazards during design, or other project factors.  
452 Therefore, PtD should also be considered as an integral part of pre-construction and construction  
453 activities in addition to those activities that occur during planning and design.

454

#### 455 *PtD Practices and Tools*

456 Experience implementing PtD has led to the development of processes and tools that facilitate its  
457 implementation and increase its impact. To be effective, the processes and tools implemented  
458 must fulfill basic needs associated with designing for construction safety. One need is for  
459 information about construction means and methods to be implemented and the safety hazards to  
460 which workers will be exposed. Those implementing PtD must have the ability to visualize the  
461 construction operations and identify the corresponding safety hazards. Once the hazards are  
462 identified, an ability to objectively assess the associated risk is imperative. An ability to generate  
463 alternative designs that mitigate the risk is needed as well. Lastly, those implementing PtD  
464 should have the capability of evaluating the feasibility of each identified alternative and then  
465 selecting the best alternative for the project.

466           The survey results reveal that a variety of processes and tools have been developed that  
467 vary in type and format. Risk assessment matrices, design guides and checklists, and databases  
468 of lessons-learned are the most commonly used tools for addressing safety in a design. Survey  
469 respondents indicated that implementation of the tools occurs both formally as part of a planned  
470 design process and informally on an ad-hoc basis. External references are common, especially  
471 those published by government organizations, regulatory bodies, and professional associations.  
472 Computer visualization/simulation software and on-line design resources, while commonly used  
473 for other project activities, are used less often for implementing PtD. Reasons for their lack of  
474 use may include factors related to ownership and operating cost, applicability to the project,  
475 usability, time and effort required to implement, a lack of incentive to vary from current practice,  
476 and other issues.

477

478 *PtD Enablers and Barriers*

479 Efficient and effective implementation of PtD is predicated upon sufficient motivation and  
480 resources. Analysis of the survey responses reveals that the extent of PtD implementation  
481 increases when sufficient resources such as time and funding for design reviews, risk  
482 assessments, and alternative evaluation and selection are present. Design durations must be set to  
483 allow project personnel to work together to review and revise the designs to account for worker  
484 safety. In addition to allowing sufficient time for design personnel to create safe designs,  
485 adequate time needs to be devoted to conducting thorough constructability reviews in order to  
486 permit construction knowledge to be incorporated into the design.

487         Knowledge of safety requirements and the conditions that workers need to work safely  
488 also enables PtD implementation. Lacking such knowledge, safe designs cannot be created.  
489 Supplementing knowledge about safety is the need for those creating the design to know the  
490 means and methods of construction, and how to create safe designs to accommodate the planned  
491 construction operations. All of this knowledge is needed in order to utilize safety measures that  
492 are higher on the hierarchy of controls (Manuele 1997) and associated with PtD. When this  
493 knowledge is in place, the effort needed to address worker safety in the design phase decreases,  
494 which is another enabler identified by the survey respondents, and a design that is safer and more  
495 accommodating of the construction effort results.

496         Obstacles to PtD implementation are present. Barriers commonly cited by the survey  
497 respondents include: inadequate design time, insufficient design for safety knowledge and skills,  
498 a lack of knowledge of construction means and methods, and other project performance criteria  
499 (e.g., cost, schedule, and productivity) given higher priority. It is important to note that the  
500 barriers cited are simply obstacles that limit effective PtD implementation but do not prevent its  
501 implementation. While no regulations exist in the US to mandate PtD implementation, it is

502 implemented by some firms successfully. Effective and comprehensive implementation is  
503 affected by the barriers. Diffusion of the PtD concept, application in practice, and effectiveness  
504 resulting from its application will improve with the barriers eliminated.

505

#### 506 *Impacts of PtD Implementation*

507 An important finding from the survey is that the respondents recognize that PtD has a positive  
508 impact on construction worker and end-user safety. Improving safety is the main goal.  
509 Recognition that safety is improved also creates a positive view of PtD as opposed to just another  
510 part of the design process that has questionable benefit. The respondents indicate that secondary  
511 benefits accrue as well, including improved quality of the work and higher construction  
512 productivity. These secondhand positive impacts perhaps encourage designers to think critically  
513 about how their designs impact the whole project.

514         The survey data reveal that PtD also affects the resources input into a project. Additional  
515 design reviews, risk assessments, reviews for constructability, and design changes to improve  
516 safety require more time and cost for the design. When the contractor is involved in the process,  
517 construction costs increase as well. While initial costs may increase, those surveyed perceive a  
518 long-term positive impact. Enhanced productivity, better work quality (less re-work), lower  
519 insurance costs due to improved safety, and greater efficiencies during facility operation and  
520 maintenance are all expected. These benefits ultimately offset the initial costs and time of  
521 implementation.

522         PtD is also credited with having a positive effect on the attitude and professionalism of  
523 project team members. Survey respondents report that, as a result of implementing a PtD  
524 process, there is greater consideration of the needs and limitations of all members of the project



525 team. Designer appreciation for the safety of construction workers is also said to increase. These  
526 are both positive changes that are encouraging for the industry. When designers increase their  
527 understanding of construction site hazards and the important role that they can play in  
528 eliminating the hazards, the whole project benefits as well as the design profession. Survey  
529 respondents report greater collaboration, improved communication, and a spirit of working  
530 together.

531

### 532 *Additional Impacts*

533 The researchers conducted statistical analyses of the survey results to explore whether particular  
534 responses are connected to respondent characteristics. Understanding the perspectives of PtD  
535 based on demographic qualities of the respondents can help in identifying diffusion strategies in  
536 the US. Given the nature of the survey data, Chi-square tests were conducted. Of particular  
537 interest in the analysis is the attitude of the respondents towards PtD and the perceived impact on  
538 project performance criteria. As dependent variables, the analyses focused on responses related  
539 to the following items of interest:

- 540 • Impact of PtD on performance criteria;
- 541 • Impact of PtD on project team roles;
- 542 • Impact of PtD on design and construction;
- 543 • Impact of CDM legislation on PtD; and
- 544 • Attitude toward PtD (aggregate of responses from more than one question).

545

546 Utilizing the responses related to respondent demographic information, the researchers  
547 conducted Chi-squared odds ratio tests to determine the odds in which one distribution of

548 respondents is different than another. For categorical variables, the Chi-squared test was used to  
549 determine the odds that one respondent distribution (e.g., those who are “involved in PtD”) was  
550 more or less likely to provide a specific response (e.g., design costs increase) than another  
551 respondent distribution. For each test, a p-value is calculated to determine the possibility that the  
552 test result is due to chance. The p-value is an indication of the level of confidence that the odds  
553 ratio is different than 1.0, with a ratio of 1.0 indicating that they have the same odds. The lower  
554 and upper bounds of the 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio are also calculated to provide  
555 another indication of the strength of the test results. Confidence intervals in which an odds ratio  
556 of 1.0 is not within the lower and upper bounds indicate a greater level of confidence that the test  
557 result is not due to chance. For survey response variables such as number of years of experience  
558 (i.e., quantitative variables), the researchers performed ordered contingency Chi-squared tests.  
559 The ordered contingency test reveals whether the dependent variable varies with respect to the  
560 magnitude of the independent variable. For this test, a one-sided p-value is similarly calculated to  
561 indicate the possibility that the observed variation is due to chance.

562         The dependent variables studied are divided into two categories – personal and  
563 organization – based on whether the variable represents a condition that exists at the individual  
564 employee level or as part of the organization as a whole. In some cases the variable investigated  
565 was aggregated from multiple similar questions to provide greater confidence in the results.  
566 Those dependent variables at the personal level that were explored are: years of work experience;  
567 extent of involvement in PtD (aggregate); timing of involvement in projects; role on project  
568 team; and project performance criteria priority. Dependent variables at the organizational level  
569 that were explored include: industry sector; type of organization; organizational capabilities; and  
570 size of organization (# of employees). Summary descriptions of the results of the Chi-squared

571 tests are provided below for those comparisons in which there is at least suggestive evidence of  
572 an association between the variables (one-sided p-value < 0.05), and in which the 95%  
573 confidence interval for the odds ratio does not include 1.0.

574

#### 575 *Number of Years and Type of Work Experience*

576 Working in the construction industry provides a perspective of the industry that is not available  
577 to those who work in other industries. In addition, a greater number of years of experience can  
578 provide industry personnel with a more detailed and comprehensive view of the industry.

579 Therefore, it was hypothesized that those with more years of experience have a different view of  
580 PtD than those with fewer years of experience. The results related to years of experience are as  
581 follows:

- 582 • No statistically significant relationship was found between the respondent's number of  
583 years of work experience (in any discipline) and the respondent's attitude towards PtD  
584 and perception of how PtD impacts project team member roles, design, and construction.
- 585 • The perception of the impact of PtD on project performance related to cost, duration,  
586 quality, etc. was found to correlate to the number of years of work experience for various  
587 disciplines:
  - 588 ○ Those without architectural experience are more likely to perceive PtD as leading  
589 to increases in design cost, construction duration, and total project duration.
  - 590 ○ Design engineers who possess any amount of work experience are more likely to  
591 indicate that construction cost and total project cost increase.
  - 592 ○ Those with any amount of construction experience are more likely to indicate a  
593 decrease in construction duration.

594                   ○ Subcontractors who possess low (<5 years) or medium (5-10 years) amounts of  
595                   experience are more likely to indicate an increase in worker productivity.

596

597 *Magnitude and Duration of Respondent Involvement*

598 Several survey questions were asked related to the respondent's extent of involvement in PtD.

599 The responses to these questions were combined into an aggregate variable reflecting the type of  
600 involvement in PtD, extent to which PtD is part of the respondent's role, and the amount of time  
601 which the respondent has worked with the CDM Regulations. Both magnitude and duration of  
602 involvement in PtD are included in the aggregate variable. The Chi-squared tests revealed the  
603 following results:

- 604           • Greater involvement in PtD results in a more positive attitude towards PtD and a better  
605           understanding of the impacts of PtD.
- 606           • Respondents are more likely to have an opinion that construction duration, construction  
607           safety, and end-user safety improve as the respondent level of involvement in PtD is  
608           greater.
- 609           • Respondents are more likely to recognize positive impacts to team member roles  
610           (specifically the owner/client, manufacturer/supplier, principal contractor, and  
611           subcontractors) if they are more highly involved in PtD (have regular PtD involvement,  
612           PtD is all or part of their project role, and have 3 or more years of experience working  
613           with the CDM Regulations).
- 614           • Respondents are more likely to exhibit a positive perspective regarding the impacts to  
615           design and to construction from PtD if they are more highly involved in PtD.

616 The results related to the aggregate variable representing the extent of involvement in PtD  
617 suggest that after initial involvement occurs, appreciation for PtD and its benefits is present. In  
618 addition, this appreciation increases as involvement in PtD increases. Therefore, getting over the  
619 initial hurdle is imperative for PtD diffusion to occur. After this initial hurdle is overcome,  
620 diffusion is likely to occur at an increasing rate.

621

### 622 *Timing of Respondent Involvement*

623 As mentioned previously, the timing in which PtD efforts occur is important to the success of  
624 being able to modify a design for safety. The Chi-squared tests revealed that those who are  
625 involved in the planning/preparation stage are more likely to indicate increases in design cost and  
626 construction duration due to PtD implementation. This result is expected given the intimate  
627 knowledge that these individuals have about planning and design compared to those who do not  
628 participate in the planning and design stages. The statistical test results also reveal that planners  
629 and designers (i.e., those not involved in the construction stage) are more likely to respond that  
630 there are increases in design and construction cost as a result of implementing PtD, and that there  
631 is no change in the quality of the work. Involvement in construction creates a different  
632 perspective of PtD; respondents who are involved in the construction process to any extent are  
633 more likely to indicate an increase in construction quality and a decrease in total project cost.  
634 Lastly, a somewhat surprising result was found regarding those who have regular involvement in  
635 both design and pre-construction: they are more likely to possess a positive or very positive  
636 attitude towards PtD than those who are not involved in both stages. Pre-construction often  
637 involves interaction with constructors, especially on how to improve the project to meet

638 construction needs. This interaction, which is often collaborative and forward-looking in nature,  
639 coupled with knowledge of the design, may positively affect attitude towards PtD.

640

#### 641 *Respondent Role and Discipline*

642 As described above, previous research suggests that a person's role on projects impacts his/her  
643 perspective of PtD. Involvement in the architecture role on a project stood out in terms of  
644 perspective of PtD. A negative or poor attitude towards PtD was found to more likely exist with  
645 those who participate in the architect's role on projects. This result was also consistent with those  
646 who participate in both the architect's or engineer's role. On the other hand, a positive or very  
647 positive view of PtD is more likely to be held by those who participate in the principal contractor  
648 role on projects. The difference in the extent to which perception of, and attitude towards, PtD is  
649 based on participant role is clear. As found in previous research, those involved in the  
650 construction operations are more enthusiastic and supportive of PtD than those involved in other  
651 phases of a project. In addition, those in design roles perceive PtD as requiring additional  
652 construction cost and time. This finding brings greater attention to the need to address the  
653 attitude of designers towards PtD given that the design is the primary focus of the PtD concept.

654

#### 655 *Priority of Safety Compared to Other Project Performance Criteria*

656 Safety is just one of multiple priorities optimized on a project. As PtD aims to improve safety,  
657 the regard to which safety is held compared to other project performance criteria (e.g., cost,  
658 schedule, quality) can impact the level of acceptance and implementation of PtD. Designing for  
659 construction safety as an outcome may not be viewed as favorably if construction worker safety  
660 is held as a lower in priority than other criteria. When evaluating the respondent's attitude

661 towards PtD with respect to the level of priority placed on different project criteria (safety, cost,  
662 duration, quality, aesthetics, and productivity), the statistical analyses reveal the following:

- 663 • Those respondents, regardless of project role, who place aesthetics lower as a priority  
664 (predominantly engineers and constructors) are more likely to have a positive or very  
665 positive attitude towards PtD.
- 666 • The attitude towards PtD becomes more positive and supportive as the level of priority  
667 given to construction worker safety increases.

668

#### 669 *Industry Sector of Respondent Organization*

670 Industry sectors within construction have different safety performance. Power generation and  
671 petro-chemical sectors, for example, are commonly found to have better construction safety  
672 performance than other sectors due to their heightened focus on safety throughout the entire  
673 facility lifecycle and significant operational ramifications of industrial accidents. Less of a focus  
674 on construction safety is typically found in other industry sectors due to the nature of the work  
675 and demographics of the organizations in the other sectors. In addition, in the industrial sector,  
676 engineer-procure-construct (EPC) firms are employed to a greater extent, possibly leading to  
677 greater designer-constructor collaboration and therefore improved safety. The statistical analyses  
678 reveal that respondents employed in the industrial sector are more likely to state that there is an  
679 increase in construction duration, total project duration, and construction quality as a result of  
680 implementing PtD. For those respondents involved in the commercial buildings sector, there is a  
681 greater likelihood that they perceive PtD as leading to better construction quality.

682

#### 683 *Discipline of Respondent Organization*

684 Closely related to the respondent's role and timing in which they are involved in PtD is the  
685 discipline of the respondent's organization. Organizational culture can have a significant impact  
686 on worker attitudes and performance. Statistical analysis of the survey data show that there is a  
687 greater likelihood that those who work in design engineering firms will indicate that PtD  
688 increases the duration of construction on a project. With regards to the owner's role on a project,  
689 a positive impact to the owner's role is more likely the perspective of those who do not work in a  
690 design firm, and those who work in a construction firm. In addition, employment in a  
691 construction firm correlates to a more likely response of a positive or very positive attitude  
692 towards PtD. Consistent with previous research that indicates less acceptance of PtD from the  
693 design community, those who work in an architecture or engineering firm were found to be more  
694 likely to view PtD negatively or with a poor attitude.

695

#### 696 *Capabilities and Services provided by the Respondent's Organization*

697 Construction industry organizations provide a variety of services to clients and have different  
698 capabilities. Some services are provided with in-house staff, and may or may not be used on  
699 construction projects depending on their availability and the nature of the projects. When  
700 architectural design is present within the respondent's organization, the respondent is more likely  
701 to state that implementing PtD results in increased construction cost, greater total project cost,  
702 and enhancements to the architect's role on a project. In firms with owner/developer capabilities,  
703 the respondents are more likely to state that there is a positive impact on the facility  
704 owner/developer role as a result of implementing PtD. On the construction side, there is a greater  
705 likelihood that those in organizations with principal contractor responsibilities will indicate an  
706 increase in design cost. Lastly, with regard to having subcontracting capabilities in-house, there



707 is a greater likelihood that employees of such firms will indicate that PtD implementation results  
708 in higher worker productivity. Contrastingly, without subcontractor capabilities present in-house,  
709 the respondents are more likely to indicate that the roles of the architect, engineer, and material  
710 manufacturer/supplier are positively impacted.

711

#### 712 *Number of Employees in Organization*

713 The size of an organization may impact the level of available resources and organizational  
714 capabilities, as well as the safety culture within the organization. Advantages with respect to PtD  
715 may be present within a larger organization compared to a smaller organization. Larger  
716 organizations may have sufficient resources to implement and promote PtD within its employee  
717 base while at the same time meeting other competing performance criteria. The impact of  
718 organization size on construction safety performance is evident in safety performance statistics in  
719 the US (CPWR 2013). The statistical analyses of the survey data reveal that a respondent is more  
720 likely to indicate that PtD leads to a decrease in construction duration as the size of the  
721 organization increases. With respect to construction quality, when an organization has 10 or  
722 more employees, the respondent is more likely to indicate that PtD implementation results in  
723 improved quality of the work. Lastly, for large organizations (greater than 500 employees), the  
724 respondents in these organizations are more likely to state that there is an increase in  
725 construction worker safety as a result of implementing PtD.

726

## 727 **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

728 Preventing construction worker injuries and fatalities through the design of a facility is of interest  
729 as employers look for additional means to improve safety for their workers. Knowledge and

730 understanding of the PtD concept, practices, and tools, and likely impacts of its implementation  
731 are prerequisites for widespread diffusion and acceptance of the concept in the construction  
732 industry. When PtD is implemented, the present study revealed the resulting safety perception,  
733 role, and culture outcomes at the individual, organizational, and industry levels. These findings  
734 provide industry professionals with further guidance and understanding of PtD that facilitate its  
735 implementation. To assist with implementing PtD in practice, the study also revealed design  
736 processes and products that have been developed and which are commonly used. The resources  
737 and tools identified could be further developed for industry-wide use.

738         An important organizational requirement for deciding whether to implement any new  
739 process or tool is to have a clear understanding of the return on investment of implementation.  
740 Of primary importance is the outcome and recognition that implementing PtD leads to lower risk  
741 on construction work sites and an expected reduction in construction worker injuries and  
742 fatalities. This outcome is realized for end-users as well. The results of the present study suggest  
743 that PtD has an effect on not only the safety of construction workers but also on other costs and  
744 benefits of construction projects. Those participating in the study, characterized by intimate  
745 involvement in the construction industry and a high level of experience implementing PtD,  
746 indicate that implementing PtD either does not change or increases design cost and duration.  
747 However, clarity regarding PtD impacts on construction cost and duration is not present, and  
748 likely dependent on factors specific to each project or organization. There is a clear trend,  
749 however, that those involved in PtD implementation recognize secondary benefits associated  
750 with improved work quality, worker productivity, project team collaboration, and  
751 constructability of the design. It can be concluded that, overall, the physical and operational

752 aspects of both design and construction are impacted positively as a result of implementing PtD  
753 in practice.

754           One of the unique aspects of PtD as a construction safety management tool, and which  
755 remains a highlight of PtD when applied to construction worker safety, is the positive and long-  
756 term impact that PtD has on operations and maintenance safety also. Other common construction  
757 safety interventions are only present during the construction stage and thus provide little or no  
758 benefit to the users and maintainers of the facility later in its lifecycle. The practice of  
759 implementing PtD for construction worker safety provides longitudinal benefits by helping to  
760 lower safety risk during use and maintenance of the facility. In addition, the lessons learned  
761 during the design of one project can be re-used to benefit subsequent projects. While it may not  
762 be explicitly evident, PtD implementation should decrease the need for implementing safety  
763 measures during construction and other downstream phases. “Add-on” safety measures needed  
764 during construction may not be required as a result of implementing PtD; construction site safety  
765 hazards are eliminated before the construction operations begin. It is expected that this outcome  
766 ultimately results in lower construction cost and shorter construction duration. The construction  
767 professionals who participated in the study suggest this outcome through their experience  
768 implementing PtD. The long-term positive impacts to project cost and duration are also expected  
769 based on the nature of PtD and principles of risk management and cost engineering. It is  
770 recognized that for an organization to realize such benefits in practice, its implementation of PtD  
771 would likely need to be optimal, involve a highly integrated and collaborative project team, and  
772 be supported by effective design tools and practices. Given the unique nature of most  
773 construction projects and fragmentation of the industry, measuring this benefit is especially  
774 difficult. When any modification is made to the design, it is unlikely that there exists an accurate

775 initial cost associated without the enhanced design change present that can act as a baseline to  
776 measure any variation.

777         Design process tools have been developed by organizations to facilitate and optimize PtD  
778 implementation. Examples of PtD-related tools are design checklists, risk assessment forms, and  
779 lessons-learned databases. The process of designing for construction safety typically involves  
780 multiple design and construction personnel integrating these tools within design and  
781 constructability reviews during the planning and design phases of a project. Hazard identification  
782 and risk assessment is performed through “safety constructability” reviews. Such reviews utilize  
783 input from the designer, constructor, and end-user. The outcome is a modified design and design  
784 documents. The physical features of the design account for the safety needs of workers who  
785 construct the designs. When the safety risk cannot be eliminated, the design documents include  
786 hazard and safety information to alert the constructor of safety hazards to expect during  
787 construction and to communicate suggestions for safety measures to be taken or regulations to  
788 follow.

789         Explicit impacts resulting from implementing PtD are difficult to pinpoint. Those  
790 involved in PtD implementation, however, broadly recognize positive impacts to the project  
791 team, and especially the design profession. Attitude toward and acceptance of PtD varies  
792 depending on an individual’s role within a project team and professional discipline. Those  
793 involved in and responsible for construction of a project almost universally feel that the benefits  
794 resulting from PtD implementation outweigh the costs. The study reveals that those who purely  
795 provide design services, e.g., consulting architects and engineers, regard PtD less favorably. The  
796 efforts to increase diffusion of PtD in the construction industry must recognize this result as a  
797 key hurdle. With a primary if not the central role associated with project planning and design,

798 architects and engineers are critical participants in implementing the PtD concept. Therefore, a  
799 foundational component of any effort to further expand PtD in the US must positively affect how  
800 designers perceive and accept PtD and facilitate their implementation of PtD. Examples of ways  
801 to possibly change designer attitude and behavior include mandating PtD implementation  
802 through design contracts, expanding PtD within professional liability insurance coverage,  
803 incorporating PtD for construction safety into design codes, and enhancing designer education to  
804 include PtD.

805           The PtD experience in the US to date is mixed; some individuals, firms, and  
806 organizations have embraced and integrated PtD in their culture and practice while others have  
807 rejected it as an unreasonable approach that is potentially detrimental to current design practice.  
808 As a result, PtD is not embraced by the US design profession as a whole. Based on the present  
809 and previous research, there exists a pre-occupation with third-party liability and the barriers  
810 associated with PtD implementation. However, such viewpoints, whether they exist with respect  
811 to PtD or any other safety concept and practice, are detrimental to creating safe work  
812 environments and improving worker safety. Too much of a focus on barriers and preventing  
813 negative outcomes inhibits taking active, positive, and needed involvement (Hummerdal 2015).  
814 The identified barriers are not insurmountable. Changing the way safety is viewed to be more  
815 inclusive of the entire project team, with active participation consistent with the current roles, is  
816 needed. For the design profession or any other profession, current common practice is not  
817 necessarily synonymous with prudent practice (*Eastern Transportation Co. v. Northern Barge*  
818 *Corp.*, 60 F.2d 737). It is time for the industry to change and wholeheartedly support PtD, to  
819 truly place safety paramount in design practice, and to actively participate in order to create a  
820 supportive and participatory safety environment throughout the design profession.

821 Further research is needed to explore the impacts of PtD in various settings and under  
822 different regulatory requirements. As a next step, an investigation of PtD in other EU countries,  
823 Australia, Singapore, and South Africa where PtD is currently regulated and implemented would  
824 provide additional insights into the expected impacts of greater implementation here in the US.

825

## 826 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

827 This research was sponsored by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health  
828 (NIOSH) as part of its national PtD initiative. The authors would like to thank NIOSH and those  
829 who participated in the survey. The research benefitted tremendously from their input, and the  
830 authors sincerely appreciate the time, effort, and support given by all involved.

831

## 832 **REFERENCES**

- 833 Aires, D.M., Gamez, C.R., and Gibb, A. (2010). "Prevention through design: The effect of  
834 European Directives on construction workplace accidents." *Safety Science*, 48(2), 248-  
835 258.
- 836 Anderson, J. (2000). Finding the right legislative framework for guiding designers on their health  
837 and safety responsibilities. *Proc. of the Designing for Safety and Health Conference*,  
838 sponsored by C.I.B. Working Commission W99 and the European Construction Institute  
839 (ECI), London, England, June 26-27, 2000. ECI Pub. TF005/4, 143-150.
- 840 Angelo, W. F. (2004). "Design-builder builds safety into total jobsite approach." *Engineering*  
841 *News-Record*, June 28.
- 842 Ash, R. (2000). CDM and design: Where are we now and where should we go? – A personal  
843 view. *Proc. of the Designing for Safety and Health Conference*, sponsored by C.I.B.

844 Working Commission W99 and the European Construction Institute (ECI), London,  
845 England, June 26-27, 2000. ECI Pub. TF005/4, 151-158.

846 Atkinson, A., and Westall, R. (2010). "The relationship between integrated design and  
847 construction and safety on construction projects." *Const. Mgmt. and Econ.*, 28(9), 1007-  
848 1017.

849 Baxendale, T. and Jones, O. (2000). Construction design and management safety regulations in  
850 practice – Progress on implementation. *International Journal of Proj. Mgmt.*, 18, 33-40.

851 Behm, M. (2004a). "Legal and Ethical Issues in Designing for Construction Worker Safety." In:  
852 Hecker, S., Gambatese, J., and Weinstein, M. (Eds.). *Designing for Safety and Health in*  
853 *Const.: Proc. from a Res. and Prac. Symp.*, Sept. 15-16, Portland, OR, pp. 165-177.

854 Behm, M. (2004b). "Establishing the Link between Construction Fatalities and Disabling Injuries  
855 and the Design for Construction Safety Concept." PhD dissertation, Department of Public  
856 Health, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR.

857 Behm, M. (2005). Linking construction fatalities to the design for construction safety concept.  
858 *Safety Science*, 43, 589-611.

859 BLS (2013). "Census of Fatal Occupational Injuries Charts, 1992-2013." U.S. Department of  
860 Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

861 CDM (1994). *Construction (Design and Management) Regulations*, SI 1994/3140 HMSO.

862 Churcher, D.W. and Alwani-Starr, G.M. (1996). "Incorporating construction health and safety  
863 into the design process". *Proc. of the First International Conf. of CIB Working*  
864 *Commission 99: International Conf. on Implementation of Safety and Health on*  
865 *Construction Sites*, Lisbon, Portugal, Sept. 4-7, 1996. Rotterdam: Balkema.

866 Coble, R. (1997). "Knowing Your Role in Construction Safety to Avoid Litigation." *Journal of*  
867 *the American Institute of Constructors*, AIC, 21(3), 25-28.

868 Driscoll, T., Harrison, J.E., and Bradley, C. (2004). *National Occupational Health and Safety*  
869 *Commission: The role of design issues in work-related injuries in Australia 1997-2002*.  
870 National Occupational Health and Safety Commission, Canberra.

871 Everett, J.G. and Slocum, A.H. (1994). "Automation and Robotics Opportunities: Construction  
872 versus Manufacturing." *Journal of Constr. Engrg. and Mgmt.*, ASCE, 120(2), 443-452.

873 Gambatese, J.A. (2003). "Safety Emphasis in University Engineering and Construction  
874 Programs." Special Issue on "Construction Safety Education and Training – A Global  
875 Perspective", Ed.: Hinze, J., *International e-Journal of Construction*, University of  
876 Florida, M.E. Rinker School of Building Construction, May 2003.

877 Gambatese, J.A. (2008). "Research Issues in Prevention through Design." *J. of Safety Res.*,  
878 Special Issue on Prev. through Design, Elsevier and Nat. Safety Council, 39(2), 153-156.

879 Gambatese, J., Behm, M., and Hinze, J. (2005). "Viability of Designing for Construction Worker  
880 Safety." *Journal of Constr. Engineering and Management*, ASCE, 131(9), 1029-1036.

881 Gibb, A., Haslam, R., Hide, S., and Gyi, D. (2004). "The role of design in accident causality." In:  
882 *Designing for Safety and Health in Construction*, Hecker, S., Gambatese, J., and  
883 Weinstein, M. (Eds.). University of Oregon Press, Eugene, OR, 11-21.

884 Haslam, R., Hide, S., Gibb, A., Gyi, D., Atkinson, S., Pavitt, T., Duff, R., and Suraji, A. (2003).  
885 *Causal Factors in Construction Accidents*. Health and Safety Executive, RR 156.

886 Hecker, S., Gibbons, B., and Barsotti, A. (2001). Making ergonomic changes in construction:  
887 worksite training and task interventions. In: *Applied Ergonomics*; Alexander, D. and  
888 Rouborn, R. (Eds.). Taylor & Francis, London, 162-189.



889 Hecker, S., Gambatese, J., and Weinstein, M. (2005). "Designing for Worker Safety: Moving the  
890 Construction Safety Process Upstream." *Professional Safety*, Journal of the American  
891 Society of Safety Engineers (ASSE), 50(9), 32-44.

892 Hetherington, T. (1995). "Why Involve Design Professionals in Construction Safety." *Structural*  
893 *Survey*, 13(1), pp. 5-6.

894 Hinze, J. (2000). "Designing for the Life Cycle Safety of Facilities." *Proceedings of the*  
895 *Designing for Safety and Health Conference*, sponsored by C.I.B. Working Commission  
896 W99 and the European Construction Institute (ECI), London, England, June 26-27, 2000.  
897 ECI Pub. TF005/4, 121-128.

898 Hinze, J. W. (2006). *Construction Safety*. Pearson Education, Inc., FL.

899 Hinze, J. and Wiegand, F. (1992). "Role of Designers in Construction Worker Safety." *Journal*  
900 *of Construction Engineering and Management*, ASCE 118(4), 677-684.

901 HSE (2015). *The Construction (Design and Management) Regulations 2015*. Health and Safety  
902 Executive, <http://www.hse.gov.uk/construction/cdm/2015/index.htm>, April 2015.

903 Hummerdal, D. (2015). "Love Safety." Safety Differently: Innovative and critical safety  
904 thinking, <http://www.safetydifferently.com/love-safety/>, May 14, 2015.

905 Istephan, T. (2004). "Collaboration, total design, and integration of safety and health in design –  
906 Project case studies." In: Hecker, S., Gambatese, J., and Weinstein, M. (Eds.), *Designing*  
907 *for Safety and Health in Construction: Proceedings from a Research and Practice*  
908 *Symposium*, September 15–16, Portland, Oregon, USA. Eugene, OR: UO Press, 264-279.

909 Jeffrey, J. and Douglas, I. (1994). Safety performance of the United Kingdom construction  
910 industry. In: *Proc. of the Fifth Annual Rinker International Conf. Focusing on Constr.*  
911 *Safety and Loss Control*, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, Oct. 12-14, 1994.

912 Korman, R. (2001). "Wanted: New Ideas. Panel ponders ways to end accidents and health  
913 hazards." *Engineering News-Record*, McGraw-Hill, December 31, 2001, pp. 26-29.

914 Lam, P.T.I., Wong, F.W.H., and Chan, A.P.C. (2006). "Contributions of designers to improving  
915 buildability and constructability." *Design Studies*, 27(4), 457-479.

916 Legislation (2011). "The Construction (Design and Management) Regulations 2007."  
917 Legislation.gov.uk, <http://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukxi/2007/320/contents/made>, July  
918 2011.

919 Levitt, R.E. and Samelson, N.M. (1993). *Construction Safety Management*. John Wiley & Sons,  
920 New York, NY.

921 Lorent, P. (1987). *Les conditions de travail dans l'industrie de la construction, productivité,*  
922 *conditions de travail, qualité concertée et totale*. CNAC, Brussels.

923 MacKenzie, J., Gibb, A.G., and Bouchlaghem, N.M. (2000). "Communication: The Key to  
924 Designing Safely." *Proceedings of the Designing for Safety and Health Conference*,  
925 sponsored by C.I.B. Working Commission W99 and the European Construction Institute  
926 (ECI), London, England, June 26-27, 2000. ECI Pub. TF005/4, pp. 77-84.

927 Manuele, F.A. (1997). *On the Practice of Safety*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc. New York, NY.

928 Smallwood, J.J. (1996). "The influence of designers on occupational safety and health." In: *Proc.*  
929 *of the First International Conf. of CIB Working Commission W99, Implementation of*  
930 *Safety and Health on Constr. Sites*, Lisbon, Portugal, September 4-7, 1996, pp. 203-213.

931 Suraji, A., Duff, A.R., and Peckitt, S.J. (2001). "Development of causal model of construction  
932 accident causation." *Journal of Constr. Engrg. and Mgmt.*, ASCE, 127(4), 337-344.

933 Szymberski, R. (1997). "Construction Project Safety Planning." *TAPPI Journal*, 80(11), 69-74.

934 Toole, T.M. (2005). "Increasing Engineers' Role in Construction Safety: Opportunities and  
935 Barriers." *Journal of Prof. Issues in Engrg. Educ. and Practice*, ASCE, 131(3), 199-207.

936 Toole, T.M. and Gambatese, J.A. (2008). "The Trajectories of Prevention through Design in  
937 Construction." *Journal of Safety Research, Special Issue on Prevention through Design*,  
938 Elsevier and National Safety Council, 39, 225-230.

939 Toole, T.M., Hervol, N., and Hallowell, M. (2006). "Designing for Construction Worker Safety."  
940 Proceedings of the 2006 North American Steel Construction Conference, American  
941 Institute of Steel Construction (AISC), San Antonio, TX, February 8-11, 2006.

942 Toole, T.M., Gambatese, J.A., and Abowitz, D.A. (2016). "Owners' Role in Facilitating  
943 Prevention through Design." *Journal of Professional Issues in Engineering Education  
944 and Practice*, ASCE, 142, 04016012, DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)IE.1943-5541.0000295.

945 Gambatese, J.A., Toole, T.M., and Abowitz, D.A. (2017). "Owner Perceptions of Barriers to  
946 Prevention through Design Diffusion." *Journal of Construction Engineering and  
947 Management*, ASCE, 04017016, DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)CO.1943-7862.0001296.

948 Trethewy, R., and Atkinson, M. (2003). Enhanced Safety, Health, and Environmental Outcomes  
949 through Improved Design. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety, Australia and  
950 New Zealand*, 19 (5), 465-475.

951 Tymvios, N. (2013). "Direction, Method, and Model for Implementing Design for Construction  
952 Worker Safety in the US." PhD Dissertation, Oregon State University, July 2013,  
953 <https://ir.library.oregonstate.edu/xmlui/handle/1957/41056>.

954 Weinstein, M., Gambatese, J., and Hecker, S. (2005). "Can Design Improve Construction Safety:  
955 Assessing the Impact of a Collaborative Safety-in-Design Process." *Journal of  
956 Construction Engineering and Management*, ASCE, 131(10), 1125-1134.

957 Whittington, D., Livingstone, A., and Lucas, D. A., (1992). “Research into management,  
958 organizational and human factors in the construction industry.” *HSE Contract Research*  
959 *Rep. No. 45/1992*, HMSO, London.

960 WorkCover (2001). “CHAIR Safety in Design Tool.” WorkCover, New South Wales,  
961 [http://www.workcover.nsw.gov.au/formspublications/publications/Documents/chair\\_saf](http://www.workcover.nsw.gov.au/formspublications/publications/Documents/chair_safety_in_design_tool_0976.pdf)  
962 [ty\\_in\\_design\\_tool\\_0976.pdf](http://www.workcover.nsw.gov.au/formspublications/publications/Documents/chair_safety_in_design_tool_0976.pdf).

963 Zou, P.X.W., Redman, S., and Windon, S. (2008). “Case Studies on Risk and Opportunity at  
964 Design Stage of Building Projects in Australia: Focus on Safety.” *Architectural Engrg.*  
965 *and Design Management*, Earthscan, [www.earthscanjournals.com](http://www.earthscanjournals.com), 4, 221-238.

966

967

**Table 1.** Factors that Impede or Facilitate PtD Implementation (n=228)

<b>Type of Impact</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>% of Respondents</b>
Barriers	Designer lacking requisite knowledge and skills	65%
	Other project objectives given higher priority by project owner/client	60%
	Construction means and methods not known during design	54%
	Other project objectives given higher priority by designer	52%
Enablers	Designer has requisite knowledge and skills	68%
	Adequate time available for designer to consider safety in design	61%
	Construction safety given as high a priority as other project objectives	57%
	Construction means and methods are known during design	55%
Motivations	Enhanced firm reputation	93%
	Improved construction worker safety	92%
	Improved facility occupant safety	85%
	Recognition from owner/client	84%
	Reduced project costs	53%
	Shorter project schedules	47%