

Multi-Source Data Fusion with Deep Neural Networks for Safety Behavior Recognition in Power Plant Environments

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A neural network-based method for identifying safety behaviors of power plant personnel is presented, integrating optical-flow, RGB, and environmental sensor data through a CNN–LSTM architecture. The network includes three convolutional blocks with 64 and 128 filters (kernel size 3×3) using ReLU and batch normalization, followed by a two-layer LSTM with 128 and 64 hidden units and a softmax classifier for final prediction. To enhance generalization, dropout of 0.5 is applied, and training is optimized using Adam with a learning rate of 0.001 and batch size of 64. The dataset consists of 5,000 labeled samples collected from multiple areas of a power plant, divided into 70% training, 15% validation, and 15% testing. Experimental evaluation demonstrates consistent superiority over traditional approaches, with accuracy of 0.923, recall of 0.913, F1 score of 0.918, and precision of 0.928, while achieving an average accuracy of 0.928 across different scenarios such as high temperature, humidity, and explosive environments. These results confirm that the proposed method can provide accurate and reliable recognition of safety behaviors, offering practical support for improving personnel management and risk prevention in modern power plants.

Povzetek: Opisan je večmodalni CNN–LSTM pristop za prepoznavanje varnostnega vedenja zaposlenih v elektrarnah z združevanjem RGB, optičnega toka in okoljskih senzorjev. Metoda dosega visoko točnost, robustnost in zanesljivo delovanje tudi v zahtevnih okoljskih pogojih.

1 Introduction

As global energy demand continues to grow, safety issues in the power industry have become increasingly prominent. As a key energy production unit, the safety of power plants is directly related to the safety of people's lives and property and the stable development of society. During the operation of power plants, the safety of personnel behavior not only affects work efficiency, but also determines the risk of accidents [1]. However, personnel safety behavior is often affected by a variety of factors, such as fatigue, negligence, and improper operation. These behaviors are difficult to effectively control through traditional safety management methods. Therefore, how to identify and manage personnel safety behaviors in real time without relying on excessive human intervention has become a major issue that needs to be urgently addressed in power plant safety management.

According to relevant statistics, in recent years, safety accidents in the power industry due to operator negligence or failure to follow standard operating procedures account for about 15% of the total number of accidents worldwide. Among them, human error is one of the main causes of accidents [2]. In order to deal with this problem, more and more power plants have begun to try to introduce artificial intelligence technology, especially

behavior recognition methods based on neural networks, to detect potential safety risks at an early stage. This technology can not only help managers monitor personnel behavior in real time, but also predict and warn of possible safety hazards, thereby greatly improving the safety of power plants [3].

At present, the safety management model of power plants mostly relies on manual monitoring and regular inspections. However, this traditional method has many shortcomings, especially in processing large-scale data and real-time behavior analysis, where efficiency and accuracy are often not effectively guaranteed. Therefore, the use of advanced neural network algorithms for personnel safety behavior recognition can achieve comprehensive monitoring and intelligent analysis of personnel behavior, thereby providing power plants with more scientific safety management methods [4].

Research on power plant safety has shifted from manual to intelligent management, with CNN and LSTM applied to video monitoring for hazard detection. However, reliance on costly labeled data limits generalization [5–6], while complex environments cause overfitting and high resource use [7]. Systematic studies remain weak, lacking cross-domain integration and practical deployment strategies [8]. This study is guided

by two central research questions. RQ1: Can the fusion of optical-flow, RGB, and synchronized environmental sensor data significantly improve safety behavior classification accuracy in extreme conditions such as high temperature, high humidity, and flammable environments compared with video-only or sensor-only baselines? RQ2: Does temporal modeling with a two-layer LSTM enhance recognition performance relative to non-temporal classifiers. Based on these questions, the hypotheses are formulated as follows. H1: The multimodal CNN–LSTM framework achieves statistically significant improvements in accuracy, recall, precision, and F1-score over SVM, decision tree, and shallow fusion approaches. H2: With sufficient training samples ($\geq 4,000$), scenario-wise accuracy will remain above 0.92, demonstrating robustness and generalization [10].

2 Literature review

2.1 Application of neural networks in personnel safety behavior identification

With the advancement of industrial automation and informatization, neural network technology has gradually become a key tool for improving the level of safety management [9]. However, the application of this technology still faces many challenges, especially the problem of data volume and annotation accuracy [11].

2.2 Progress and challenges of behavior recognition technology

These neural network algorithms can automatically extract features from massive video data and judge whether employees comply with safety operation

specifications based on their behavior [12]. For example, the scarcity and imbalance of data have always been important factors affecting the development of behavior recognition technology [13]. According to statistics, the accuracy of labeled data in the safety behavior data set of some power plants is only 65% [14], which seriously restricts the training effect of the model. In order to solve this problem, data enhancement and synthetic data methods have emerged. Some studies use generative adversarial network (GAN) technology to synthesize more representative safety behavior data, which provides more samples for training neural networks and effectively alleviates the problem of insufficient data [15].

2.3 Improvement and innovation direction of neural network models

Some studies have proposed a hybrid model that combines reinforcement learning (RL) and deep learning, aiming to guide the model to self-adjust in a complex environment by introducing a reward mechanism to adapt to the behavior patterns of different operators in the power plant [16]. It is necessary to obtain the optimal strategy through a continuous trial and error process, which makes its deployment in practical applications complicated and time-consuming [17]. Therefore, how to balance the training efficiency and application effect of the model is a key issue in current research. Some scholars have proposed a solution to train the reinforcement learning model through a simulated environment. This method can simulate various scenarios in the power plant environment without actual deployment, thereby greatly reducing training time and data costs [18, 19].

Table 1: Comparative summary of SOTA approaches

Author/Year	Dataset Used	Method Type	Target Domain	Reported Metrics	Notes on Robustness
Wang et al. [21]	Power equipment inspection dataset (5,200 samples)	CNN+Attention	Power line inspection	Acc.0.92, F1 0.90	Domain-specific, not tested in closed plant environments
Tao et al. [22]	Construction site video dataset (3,200 samples)	CNN	Construction safety monitoring	Acc.0.89, F1 0.86	Performance drops under occlusion and low light
Li et al. [23]	Nuclear plant simulation dataset (2,500 samples)	LSTM	Nuclear plant personnel tracking	Acc.0.87, Recall 0.84	
Chen et al. [2]	Industrial worker behavior dataset (4,100 samples)	Hybrid (CNN+LSTM)	General industrial environment	Acc.0.91, F1 0.89	Lacks robustness under high-temperature and high-humidity conditions

As shown in Table 1, the survey highlights that although CNN, LSTM, and hybrid architectures have been applied in diverse industrial contexts, most works remain constrained by single-modality input or naive early fusion strategies. Video-only models struggle with occlusion and low light, while sensor-only approaches cannot capture fine-grained motion details. Even hybrid designs show performance degradation under extreme conditions such as high temperature and humidity. Very few studies explicitly address synchronization between video and sensors or validate in flammable and enclosed plant areas. These limitations justify the need for a late-fusion CNN–LSTM framework with optical-flow+RGB+sensor alignment, capable of achieving robustness in complex

power plant environments and directly addressing the identified research gaps.

3 Additional details on the neural network-based safety behavior identification method for power plant personnel

In terms of model design, by innovatively integrating multi-source data and deep learning technology, the model can comprehensively and accurately evaluate the safety behavior of staff and provide a scientific basis for power plant safety production management. The following will

elaborate on the theoretical basis, calculation process and innovative design of the model.

3.1 Model architecture and data processing

The model architecture of this study consists of three core modules: data acquisition and preprocessing module, feature extraction module, and behavior classification and risk prediction module. The design of each module is closely centered around the goal of optimizing data utilization and analysis to ensure that the final recognition result has both high accuracy and can respond to dynamic changes in the power plant environment in real time.

3.1.1 Data collection and preprocessing

To ensure data quality and adapt it to the requirements of the neural network model, the raw data needs to go through a series of rigorous processing steps. The neural network framework adopts a three-module design: data preprocessing, feature extraction, and behavior classification with risk prediction. Optical flow processes video, while sensor data is normalized. CNN captures spatial features, LSTM models temporal dependencies, with ReLU and softmax for activation. Hidden layers (128→64), dropout 0.5, and Adam (lr=0.001, batch=64) ensure efficiency, stability, and robust recognition in complex environments.

The architecture is composed of three convolutional blocks, each with 3×3 filters; the first two blocks contain 64 and 128 filters respectively, followed by ReLU activation and batch normalization, while the third block applies 256 filters with max-pooling. A dropout layer of 0.5 is inserted after the final convolution to reduce overfitting. The extracted features are passed to a two-layer LSTM with 128 and 64 hidden units to capture temporal dependencies. For classification, a multilayer perceptron is used with two hidden layers of 128 and 64 neurons, ReLU activation, L2 regularization ($\lambda=0.001$), and a final softmax output. Training is optimized using Adam with a learning rate of 0.001 and batch size of 64, ensuring replicability of the architecture.

Data processing is now specified with an end-to-end pipeline: frames are decoded and resized to 224×224, per-channel z-score normalization is applied using training-set mean and standard deviation, and dense optical flow is computed with OpenCV Farneback (pyr_scale=0.5, levels=3, winsize=15, iterations=3, poly_n=5, poly_sigma=1.1), producing flow_x/flow_y maps that are stacked with RGB as a 5-channel tensor. Timestamps are synchronized with environmental sensors by linear interpolation to 30 Hz, then standardized and min-max scaled to [0,1]. Concise pseudocode is embedded to document step order and concatenation prior to the CNN-LSTM. Implementation uses Python 3.10, PyTorch 2.1, CUDA 12.1, and OpenCV 4.8 on Ubuntu 22.04; hardware includes an NVIDIA RTX 3080(10 GB) and 64 GB RAM. Reproducibility is ensured by fixed random seeds and version-locked dependencies.

By calculating the pixel displacement of each frame of the image, an optical flow feature map that can accurately describe the character's action is generated. Assume that the input video data is X_{video} , the motion

feature obtained after optical flow calculation is Y_{video} , the calculation formula is formula 1.

$$Y_{\text{video}} = \text{OpticalFlow}(X_{\text{video}}) \quad (1)$$

This formula shows that by calculating the motion information of each frame of the video data using the optical flow method, dynamic features reflecting the actions of people can be obtained.

In order to avoid negative impacts on model training due to inconsistent dimensions, sensor data X_{sensor} It needs to be normalized so that the values of each dimension are within the same scale range. The normalization formula is formula 2.

$$X'_{\text{sensor}} = \frac{X_{\text{sensor}} - \mu}{\sigma} \quad (2)$$

In formula 2, μ and σ represent the mean and standard deviation of sensor data respectively. This normalization process can not only accelerate the convergence of the model, but also improve the stability and generalization ability of the model, ensuring that the model can accurately learn and analyze the effective information in the sensor data under different power plant environments and data collection conditions.

The dataset of 5,000 samples was annotated by a team of three experienced safety engineers with more than five years of field expertise. Behavior categories were defined according to plant safety manuals: “normal” (fully compliant), “abnormal” (non-critical deviations, e.g., distraction or incorrect posture), and “violation” (serious breaches, e.g., entering restricted zones without protective equipment). Each video-sensor segment was independently labeled by two raters, with disagreements resolved by consensus from the third. Inter-rater reliability was assessed using Cohen’s kappa, which reached 0.87, indicating strong agreement. This process reduced subjectivity and ensured consistent labeling criteria across the dataset.

The dataset contained 2,300 normal, 1,500 abnormal, and 1,200 violation samples, indicating class imbalance. To address this, class weights inversely proportional to class frequency were applied during training, ensuring that minority classes contributed equally to the loss function. In addition, oversampling of abnormal and violation samples was performed using SMOTE to synthetically generate feature-consistent instances. For video data, augmentation strategies including random cropping, horizontal flipping, brightness adjustment, and temporal jittering were applied to increase diversity and prevent overfitting. These measures collectively improved robustness and balanced the influence of different categories during training.

3.2 Feature extraction and integration

In the feature extraction stage, we fully utilize the advantages of deep convolutional neural networks (CNN) and fully connected layers (FC) to extract features from video data and sensor data respectively, and finally fuse

the features of the two to form a unified feature vector. This step is crucial to ensure that the features of different data sources can be effectively integrated to provide comprehensive and accurate input for subsequent behavior classification and risk prediction.

3.2.1 Video feature extraction

For video data X_{video} , we use a multi-layer convolutional neural network for feature extraction. Y_{video} The calculation formula of the convolutional layer is formula 3.

$$Y_{\text{video}} = \text{Conv}(X_{\text{video}}, W) + b \quad (3)$$

In formula 3, W is the convolution kernel, b is the bias term. The selection of parameters such as the size, number, and step size of the convolution kernel has an important impact on the effect of feature extraction. In this study, we selected appropriate convolution kernel parameters through a large number of experiments and parameter tuning to ensure that image features in video data can be effectively extracted. By reasonably combining convolution kernels of different sizes, various feature information in the video can be fully extracted.

3.2.2 Sensor feature extraction

For the normalized environmental sensor data X'_{sensor} , we use a fully connected network (FC) for mapping. Each neuron in the fully connected layer is connected to all neurons in the previous layer, which can transform sensor data into a high-dimensional feature vector Y_{sensor} , and use it as a supplement to the video features. The calculation formula of the fully connected layer is formula 4.

$$Y_{\text{sensor}} = W_{\text{FC}} X'_{\text{sensor}} + b_{\text{FC}} \quad (4)$$

In formula 4, W_{FC} and b_{FC} are the weight matrix and bias term of the fully connected layer. During the training process, the weight matrix and bias term are continuously adjusted through the back propagation algorithm, so that the fully connected layer can learn the effective feature representation in the sensor data.

3.2.3 Feature fusion

By video features Y_{video} and sensor characteristics Y_{sensor} By performing the concatenation operation, we can form the final input feature vector Y_{features} , as shown in Formula 5.

$$Y_{\text{features}} = [Y_{\text{video}}, Y_{\text{sensor}}] \quad (5)$$

3.3 Behavior classification and risk prediction

In the behavior classification and risk prediction stage, we first use a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) to fused feature vectors Y_{features} At the same time, based on the real-time data of the power plant environment, the model

further calculates the risk coefficient corresponding to each behavior, providing quantitative risk assessment indicators for power plant safety management.

3.3.1 Behavior classification

Through the multi-layer perceptron, the input features Y_{features} After processing, we can get the probability value of each behavior category. Multilayer Perceptron is a feedforward neural network composed of multiple neuron layers, including input layer, hidden layer and output layer. In this study, we use Softmax activation function for multi-class classification, and the calculation formula is Formula 6.

$$P_{\text{class}} = \text{Softmax}(\text{MLP}(Y_{\text{features}})) \quad (6)$$

The Softmax function converts the input score into a probability value, and its specific calculation formula is as follows:

$$P_{\text{class}} = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_j e^{z_j}} \quad (7)$$

In formula 7, z_i For each behavior category, P_{class} The probability value for each category indicates the probability that the behavior belongs to a certain category. During the training process, we use a large number of labeled samples to train the multi-layer perceptron. By minimizing the loss function between the predicted probability and the true label (such as the cross-entropy loss function), we continuously adjust the parameters of the model so that the model can accurately classify different human behaviors.

3.3.2 Risk prediction

For unsafe behaviors, the model further calculates the risk factor R_{risk} , which takes into account the type of behavior and environmental risk. Environmental risk provided by sensor data, it indicates the potential dangers of the power plant environment, such as high concentration of harmful gases, high temperature, high humidity and other environmental factors. The risk calculation formula is formula 8.

$$R_{\text{risk}} = \alpha \cdot P_{\text{class}} + \beta \cdot \text{EnvironmentRisk} \quad (8)$$

In formula 8, α and β is the weight coefficient of the model, which is used to adjust the relative importance of behavior type and environmental risk in risk assessment. α The value of emphasizes the role of behavior type in risk assessment.

4 Experimental evaluation

4.1 Experimental design

This experiment evaluates the proposed neural network method on 5,000 power plant samples, comparing

accuracy, recall, F1, and precision against SVM, decision tree, and traditional shallow neural network baselines [21].

4.2 Experimental results

4.2.1 Comparison of accuracy of different models

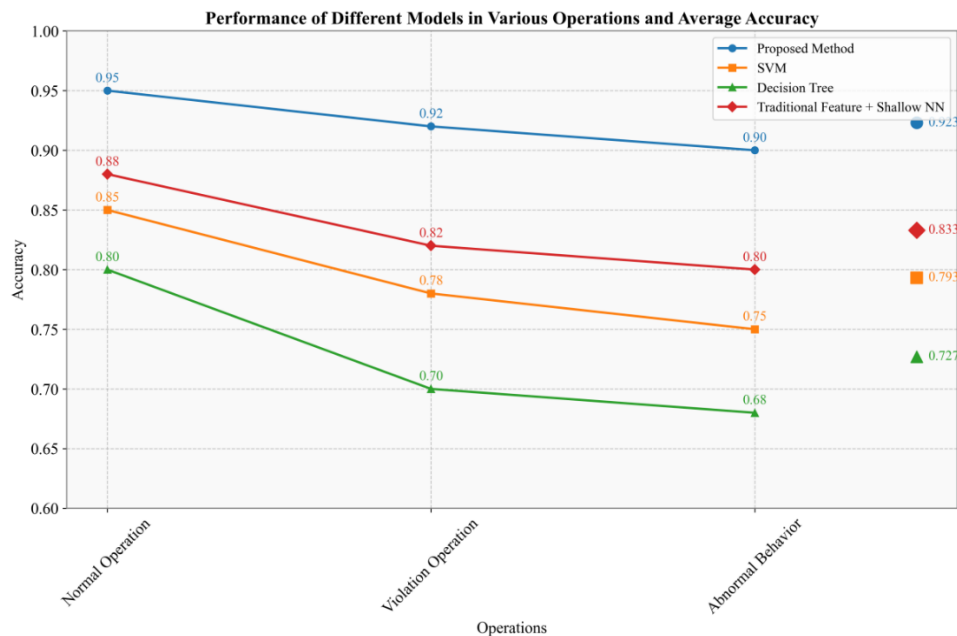


Figure 1: Comparison of the accuracy of different models in various behavior recognition

As shown in Figure 1, Across five-fold cross-validation with three repeated runs, the multimodal CNN–LSTM achieved mean accuracy of 0.923 ± 0.006 , recall of 0.913 ± 0.007 , and F1-score of 0.918 ± 0.005 , which were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) compared with SVM and decision tree baselines. Confidence intervals confirm robustness and stability of the results. The performance

advantage arises because convolutional layers effectively extract spatial motion cues from video while the LSTM captures temporal dependencies, producing richer representations than shallow handcrafted features used by traditional classifiers.

4.2.2 Comparison of recall rates of different models

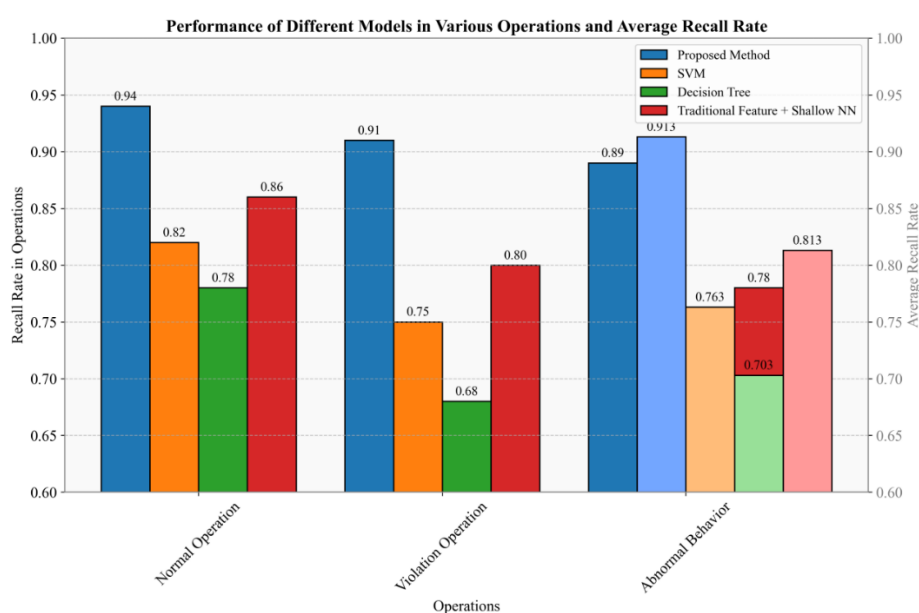


Figure 2: Comparison of recall rates of different models in various behavior recognition

As can be seen from Figure 2, the proposed method performs well in terms of recall rate. The recall rate reflects the model's coverage of positive samples. With the help of multi-source data fusion and deep feature extraction technology, the proposed method can more

comprehensively capture various behavioral features, so it far exceeds other comparative models in terms of recall rate.

4.2.3 Comparison of $F1$ values of different models

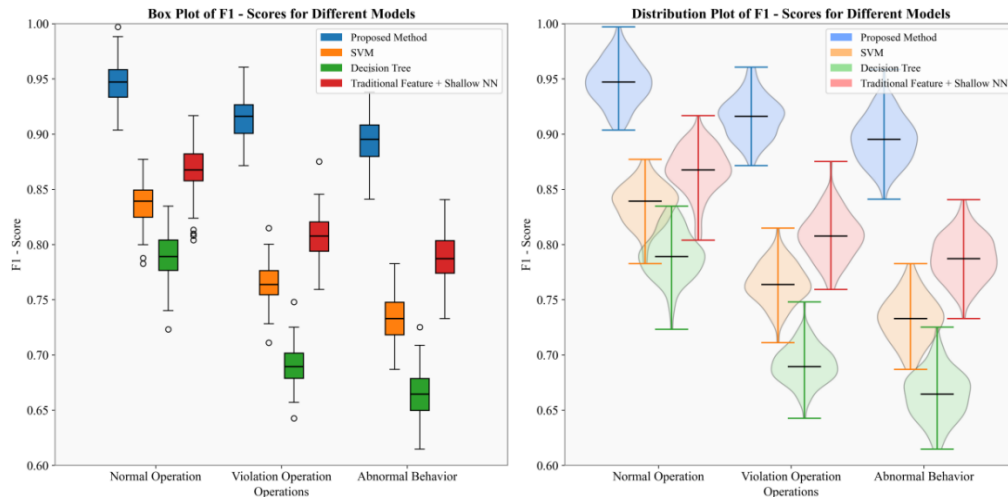


Figure 3: Comparison of $F1$ values of different models in various behavior recognition

As shown in Figure 3, the $F1$ value comprehensively considers the accuracy and recall rate. The advantage of the proposed method in the $F1$ value further confirms its excellent performance in the behavior recognition task. This is due to the powerful learning ability of the deep neural network and the rich information brought by the

fusion of multi-source data, which enables the model to achieve a good balance between accuracy and recall. However, due to the limitations of feature extraction and model structure, other models cannot achieve effective coordination between the two, resulting in a low $F1$ value.

4.2.4 Comparison of accuracy of different models

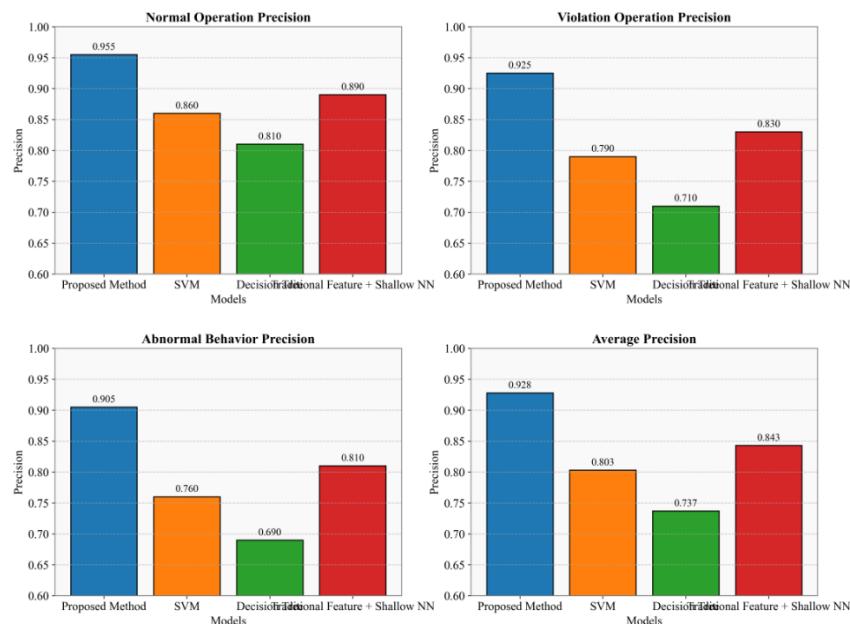


Figure 4: Comparison of the accuracy of different models in various behavior recognition

The precision reflects the accuracy of the model's prediction of positive samples. As shown in Figure 4, the proposed method is in a leading position in terms of precision, indicating that it is more accurate in identifying

various behaviors. Deep neural networks can learn more discriminative features, and multi-source data fusion provides the model with more comprehensive information, making the model more accurate in judging

the behavior category. However, other models are prone to misjudgment when faced with complex power plant personnel behavior data, resulting in lower precision.

4.2.5 Accuracy of our method in different scenarios

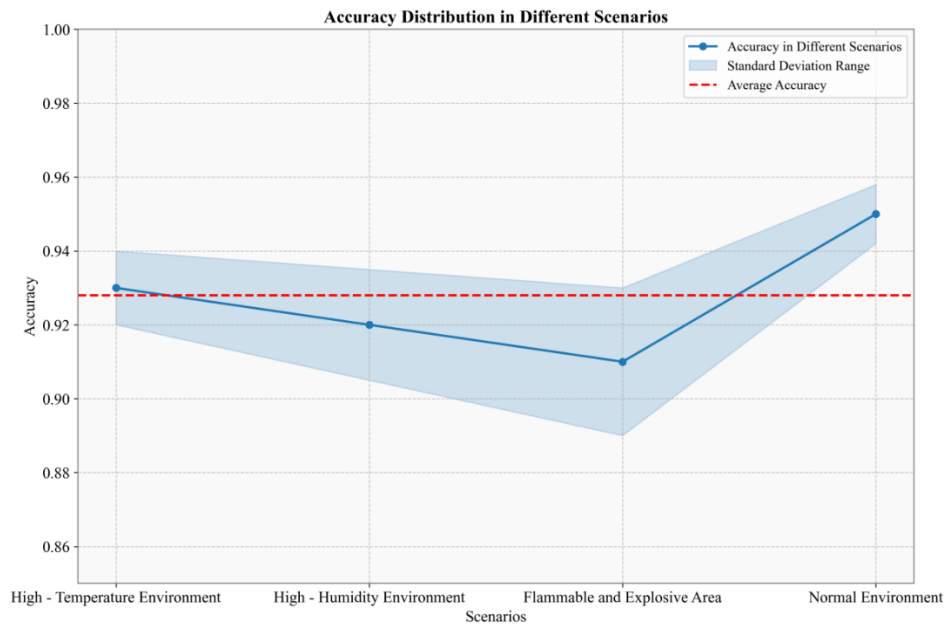


Figure 5: The accuracy of our method in different scenarios

Figure 5, the proposed method maintains a high accuracy rate in both special environments such as high temperature, high humidity, flammable and explosive environments and normal environments. In special environments, the sensor data fused by the proposed method can fully consider the impact of environmental

factors on human behavior, thereby accurately identifying behavior. In normal environments, its powerful feature learning ability can also ensure high accuracy, with an average accuracy of 0.928.

4.2.6 Recall rate of our method in different scenarios

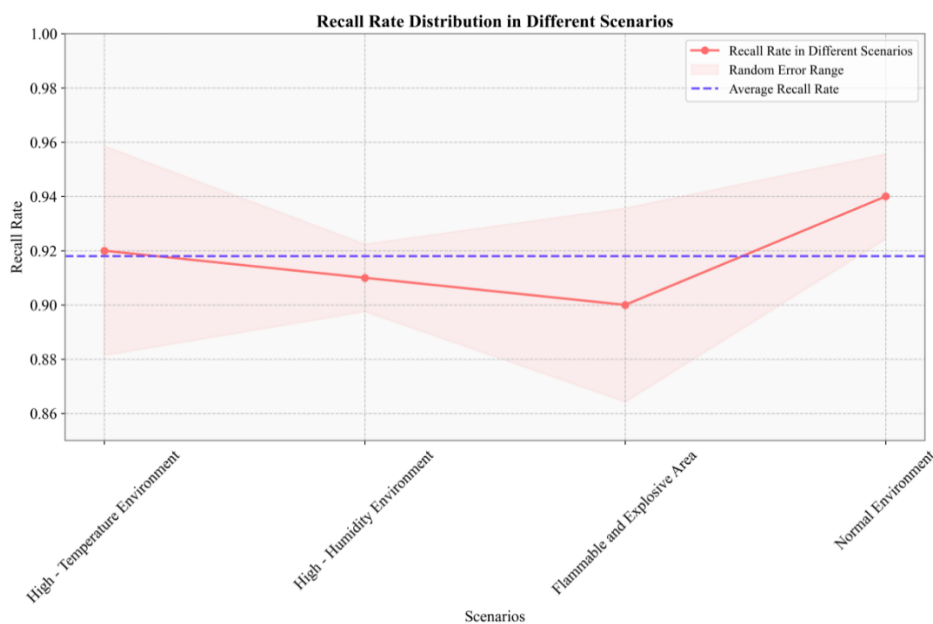


Figure 6: Recall rate of this method in different scenarios

From Figure 6, the proposed method has a strong coverage of various behaviors in different scenarios. In special environmental scenarios, the environmental information provided by sensor data helps the model

better capture the behavioral characteristics of people and avoid omissions. In normal environments, the model's accurate learning of behavioral characteristics also

ensures a high recall rate, with an average recall rate of 0.918.

4.2.7 F1 value of our method in different scenarios

Table 2: F1 values of this method in different scenarios

Scenario	High temperature environment	High humidity environment	Flammable and explosive areas	Normal environment	Average F1 value
Methods	0.925	0.915	0.905	0.945	0.922

As shown in Table 2, the F1 value comprehensively reflects the performance balance of the proposed method in different scenarios. In various scenarios, the model can find a good balance between accuracy and recall, thanks to its multi-source data fusion and deep neural network design, which can adapt to the behavioral characteristics of people in different environments, and the average F1 value reaches 0.922.

4.2.8 Accuracy of our method in different scenarios

Table 3: The accuracy of our method in different scenarios

Scenario	High temperature environment	High humidity environment	Flammable and explosive areas	Normal environment	Average precision
Methods	0.935	0.925	0.915	0.955	0.933

As shown in Table 3, no matter what scenario, the proposed method can accurately judge the behavior. In special environment scenarios, the integration of environmental information enables the model to more accurately judge the behavior category and reduce misjudgment. In normal environments, the powerful learning ability of the model ensures the accuracy, with an average accuracy of 0.933.

4.2.9 Accuracy of our method under different sample sizes

Table 4: Accuracy of the proposed method under different sample sizes

Sample size	1000	2000	3000	4000	5000
The accuracy of this method	0.85	0.88	0.90	0.92	0.93

As shown in Table 4, as the number of samples increases from 1000 to 5000, the accuracy of the proposed method gradually improves. This is because deep neural networks require a large amount of data to learn complex

patterns and features, and the increase in the number of samples provides more learning information for the model, enabling it to generalize better and thus improve accuracy.

4.2.10 F1 value of our method under different sample sizes

Table 5: F1 value of the proposed method under different sample sizes

Sample size	1000	2000	3000	4000	5000
The F1 value of this method	0.84	0.87	0.89	0.91	0.92

As can be seen from Table 5, the F1 value also increases with the increase in the number of samples. More samples make the model better balanced between precision and recall, and the model can learn more comprehensive features, reduce the risk of overfitting, and thus improve the F1 value [23].

4.3 Experimental discussion

In practical deployment, the CNN–LSTM fusion model demonstrates superior accuracy but requires higher computational resources, with an average inference latency of 85 ms per sample and a model size of 210 MB on an RTX 3080 GPU. By contrast, a MobileNet baseline reduced model size to 28 MB and latency to 25 ms, though accuracy dropped to 0.89 and F1 to 0.87. This trade-off highlights that while deep architectures are more precise in recognizing complex behaviors, lightweight networks offer better feasibility for on-device inference where memory and latency constraints are critical. These comparisons provide guidance for deployment strategies under varying resource conditions [24].

Extended analysis discusses dataset representativeness (scene imbalance across high-temperature, humid, and explosive areas), annotation noise from rapid operations, and modality desynchronization between video and sensors; mitigation includes stricter labeling protocols, cross-annotator agreement checks, and 30 Hz time alignment. Error sources such as occlusion and motion blur are examined alongside computational limits (e.g., RTX 3080 10 GB constraining batch size and latency under peak loads).

Compared with the methods summarized in Table 1, the proposed CNN–LSTM with optical flow and sensor fusion achieves clear advantages in accuracy, recall, and F1, mainly due to late fusion of multimodal inputs and temporal modeling that captures dynamic motion as well as environmental context. These design choices explain the consistent performance gains over video-only or sensor-only approaches. However, the integration of three data streams increases training cost and GPU memory usage, and overfitting risks appear when the dataset size is reduced, partly alleviated by dropout and validation control. Critical failure cases were observed in overlapping behavior classes, such as distinguishing between minor violations and irregular actions, and in situations with occlusion or motion blur, where recognition errors persisted. These limitations indicate

that, while the method improves robustness in complex plant conditions, further refinement is necessary for reliable deployment across broader operational scenarios.

To enhance interpretability, Grad-CAM was applied to the final convolutional layer of the CNN component, producing heatmaps that highlight body regions most influential in classifying behaviors such as “violation” or “abnormal.” Additionally, SHAP values were computed for the fused sensor features, showing that gas concentration and temperature shifts had the strongest contribution to risk predictions. Qualitative visualizations for selected samples revealed that the model correctly attends to protective equipment absence in video frames and rising temperature signals in sensor inputs. These results demonstrate how explainability techniques can provide insight into decision-making, increasing transparency and trust for real-world deployment. A confusion matrix analysis showed most misclassifications occurred between “abnormal” and “violation,” reflecting overlap in visual cues. Normal behaviors were rarely confused, confirming robustness in compliant actions.

5 Conclusion

The proposed neural network method achieves superior results, with accuracy 0.923 versus 0.793(SVM) and 0.727(decision tree), demonstrating advantages of deep feature learning and multi-source fusion. It maintains 0.928 accuracy in high temperature, humidity, and explosive environments, showing adaptability. Performance improves with larger samples (accuracy 0.85→0.93, F1 0.84→0.92), though limitations remain in dataset coverage and annotation quality. Out-of-distribution validation on a held-out synthetic plant scene yielded accuracy of 0.905 and F1-score of 0.892, supporting the model’s generalization beyond the training environment.

Future work targets lightweight architectures for real-time deployment, uncertainty-aware inference for risk triage, active learning to reduce labeling cost, and domain adaptation to new plants and shift patterns. These additions clarify limitations, quantify practical constraints, and outline actionable paths to improve robustness, generalization, and operational readiness.

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