



# **Assessment of Occupational Health and Safety for Marine Cage Culture: L-type Matrix Risk Analysis**

# **Mert Minaz1,\***

<sup>1</sup>Department of Aquaculture, Faculty of Fisheries, Recep Tayyip Erdoğan University, Rize, Turkiye.

## **How to Cite**

Minaz, M. (2024). Assessment of Occupational Health and Safety for Marine Cage Culture: L-type Matrix Risk Analysis. *Turkish Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, *24(SI)*, *TRJFAS26642.* https://doi.org/10.4194/TRJFAS26642

## **Article History**

Received 17 August 2024 Accepted 26 October 2024 First Online 31 October 2024

## **Corresponding Author**

E-mail: mert.minaz@erdogan.edu.tr

#### **Keywords**

Risk assessment Occupational injury Engineer Employee Trainee

## **Abstract**

As marine cage aquaculture continues to increase its volume in global protein food production, the demand for workers and labor continues to grow. This increasing demand, coupled with the fact that the industry is already risky in terms of occupational health and safety, makes risk assessment even more critical. The present study was conducted with engineers, trainees, and employees working at five different marine cage aquaculture facilities, as well as academicians from three different universities. As a result of the questionnaire conducted using the L-type 5x5 matrix method, the areas with the highest risk assessment scores (RASs) were identified as net cages (RAS: 9.7±3.3), ports (RAS: 10.0±2.0) and package units-cold storage (RAS: 9.6±3.3). Although no significant differences were observed among the occupational groups, significant variations were noted based on the working area (p>0.05). Notable differences in opinions were observed, particularly between academicians/trainees and engineers/employees. As a result, this study will serve as a guideline for both marine cage aquaculture facilities and all personnel, as well as for future research.

## **Introduction**

Aquaculture industry plays a key role in meeting the demand for protein-rich foods in both marine and freshwater environments depending on the increasing world population (Ahmed et al., 2019; Aydoğan, 2020; Ferdouse et al., 2018; Minaz & Kubilay, 2021). While aquaculture has shown a continuous upward trend over the years, capture production remains at a maximum level due to its potential to damage natural fish stocks (Minaz et al., 2021). It has been previously predicted that capture production will remain around 93 million tons between 2010 and 2030 (World Bank, 2013). On the other hand, production from aquaculture needs to reach 140 million tons by 2050 to meet population needs (Waite et al., 2014). In light of these assumptions, the number of aquaculture facilities worldwide is expected to increase. This growth in aquaculture facilities also implies a rise in employment within these

facilities. In 2005, the number of people directly or indirectly employed in the aquaculture and fisheries sector was 23.4 million (Valderrama et al., 2010). By 2022, this number had risen to 58.5 million, with 20.7 million of these employed in the aquaculture industry (FAO, 2022).

Aquaculture facilities, which are increasingly attracting interest from investors, are in a higher risk group for occupational diseases and injuries, with very few reports addressing this issue (Mert & Ercan, 2015). Because, in addition to general agricultural technologies, personnel working in aquaculture facilities are also exposed to unusual scenarios such as water impoundments, night-time work, and offshore operations (Myers, 2010). Compared to other aquaculture systems, marine aquaculture presents higher risks due to its unique environmental and operational challenges. These include the complexities of offshore operations, exposure to harsh weather

conditions, and the need for specialized equipment and safety measures (Ngajilo & Jeebhay, 2019). For employees in aquaculture facilities—a high-risk profession—there is a limited analysis of occupational safety and health prevention and risk reduction strategies. Consequently, scientific research emphasizes the need for a global commitment to addressing these occupational safety and health concerns (Douglas, 1995; FAO, 2020).

It is a tragic situation that global statistics show one worker dies every 15 seconds due to a workplace accident, while approximately 160 workers are exposed to work-related accidents (Mert & Ercan, 2014). Globally, it has been reported that over 2.3 million workers die each year due to workplace accidents and occupational diseases. Additionally, more than 317 million people suffer from work-related accidents. These statistics highlight the severe impact of workplace safety issues and underscore the urgent need for effective prevention and intervention measures across all industries (Kılkıs, 2013). In the aquaculture sector, the mortality rate for workers in Norway is 17 times higher compared to other industries (McGuinness et al., 2013). In the U.S. aquaculture sector, 6.8 non-fatal accidents per 100 workers were reported in 2006 (Cole et al., 2009). On the other hand, in Türkiye, the rates per 100 workers for overall incidents, permanent incapacity, and fatalities are 449.4, 4.7, and 5.7, respectively (Soykan, 2023). Workers in aquaculture facilities are particularly vulnerable to occupational injuries and diseases because of insufficient health and safety management strategies (Marques et al., 2020). The lack of comprehensive safety protocols and risk management practices in these facilities leaves employees exposed to a range of potential hazards, from physical injuries to long-term health issues. This highlights the urgent need for more robust health and safety measures to protect workers in the aquaculture industry. As a result, there remains a significant lack of awareness regarding the occupational comfort and potential risks faced by workers in the aquaculture sector. The aim of this paper is to evaluate the occupational risks that may occur in an integrated marine aquaculture facility. This was achieved by creating case scenarios based on interviews with personnel of various roles and conducting risk assessments according to these scenarios. In addition to addressing existing gaps in the literature, this study holds significant value by raising awareness among industry stakeholders regarding occupational health and safety in marine cage aquaculture. By providing insights into risk assessment and management practices, it aims to foster a safer working environment and promote best practices within the sector. The novelty of this work lies in its comprehensive approach, combining empirical data with theoretical frameworks, thereby offering a unique perspective on the intersection of safety protocols and aquaculture operations. Furthermore, the study introduces innovative risk assessment methodologies, such as the L-Matrix, which have not been extensively applied in this context, enhancing the potential for practical applications and further research in the field.

## **Material and Method**

## **Marine Cage Facility**

This study was conducted in five different integrated marine aquaculture facilities operating in the Southeastern Black Sea. All of these facilities have specialized in the farming of kilogram-sized rainbow trout (Turkish salmon) grown in the Black Sea region, aiming to increase competition with Norwegian salmon in recent years. As a summary of facilities within the standards of Türkiye, net cage facilities have been considered. From the perspective of occupational health and safety risk assessment, the facilities have been divided into different work areas. These are: (1) net cage, (2) boat, (3) dining hall, (4) feed storage, (5) port, (6) general, (7) administrative building, (8) package unit and chill store, (9) net repair and washing unit, and (10) locker room. The risk assessment was conducted both for the entire facility and individual work area.

## **Questionnaire Study and Data Collection**

The questionnaire was developed in collaboration with academic experts and private sector stakeholders. The survey consists of a total of 72 questions and is structured according to a 5-point Likert scale. The questionnaire contains different questions for each work area, with the following number of questions prepared for each: net cage (9), boat (6), dining hall (5), feed storage (10), port (3), general (11), administrative building (16), packaging unit and chill store (5), net repair and washing unit (2), and locker room (5). The questions were presented within a 5x5 matrix (explained in section 2.3) that includes a case scenario and the associated risks. According to expert opinions, the survey has content validity. The internal reliability of the questionnaire is high, as indicated by a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha=0.919).

A total of 9 participants from each facility took part in the questionnaire. These participants were evenly distributed among engineers, trainees, and employees. Additionally, the questionnaire was conducted with 15 participants from three different state universities, specifically from the faculties of fisheries, marine sciences, and the occupational health and safety departments. The four groups surveyed (engineers, academicians, interns, and workers) were selected to assess occupational health and safety risks in marine net cages from different perspectives. Engineers contribute technical knowledge, while academicians offer a scientific viewpoint. Interns represent awareness levels during the training process, and workers are the group directly exposed to on-site risks. This diversity ensures a more comprehensive risk analysis by incorporating input from all levels of expertise. The differing risk perceptions require balancing theoretical knowledge with field experience in practical applications. When academicians' theoretical approaches and engineers' technical solutions are combined with the on-site experiences of workers and interns, safety measures become more effective. This balance enhances the practicality of implementing safety precautions while highlighting the importance of training and awareness programs to address gaps in knowledge and experience among workers and interns. Thus, interviews were conducted with a total of 60 participants. The demographic characteristics of the questionnaire participants are presented in Table 1.

## **L Type Matrix**

The L-type matrix risk assessment is a simple method that presents the relationship between likelihood and consequence for any risk factor (Table 2). The L-type decision matrix offers advantages over other methods such as Fine-Kinney, HAZOP, and FMEA due to its simplicity, speed, and ease of use. Based on likelihood and severity, this method does not require complex calculations, making it ideal for quick and practical risk assessments. While others involve more detailed analyses and require expertise, the L-type decision matrix can be easily applied by participants at all levels. Additionally, it is a cost-effective and time-saving approach, providing flexibility and rapid solutions in dynamic environments like marine net cages, where conditions change frequently. This makes the L-type decision matrix a preferred choice in such settings. The 5x5 L-type decision matrix is an ideal scale for analysts performing individual risk analyses, as it can be applied by a single expert (Özgür, 2021). An L-type matrix analysis was conducted for 72 different case scenarios (SM 1). For each case study, participants rated the likelihood and consequence on a scale from 1 to 5. The likelihood and consequence data from industry experts were multiplied to create the Risk Assessment Score (RAS) (eq. 1). Based on the resulting RAS, the risks were categorized into three groups: low risk (≤8), moderate risk (8 < risk < 15), and extreme risk ( $\geq$ 15) (Güner, 2018).

In the RAS calculation, the likelihood of an event scenario is first determined based on the participant (expert), and then the potential impact of the event is assessed. The scale values for the likelihood parameter are as follows: (1) almost never, (2) very rarely (once a year), (3) occasionally (several times a year), (4) frequently (once a month), and (5) very frequently (once a week, daily). The scale values for the consequence parameter are: (1) no work time loss, first aid required, (2) no workday loss, no lasting effects, (3) minor injury,

**Table 1.** The demographic profiles of the participants in the questionnaire

Groups		Percentage (%)
Occupational group	Academician	25.0
	Engineer	25.0
	Trainee	25.0
	Employee	25.0
Gender	Male	73.3
	Female	26.7
	18-24	23.3
	25-34	18.3
	35-44	31.7
	45-54	15
	55 or above	11.7
	Diploma or below	25.0
Degree	University	25.0
	Postgraduate	8.3
	PhD	41.7

**Table** 2. RAS, likelihood, and consequences scale



short-term treatment, (4) serious injury, long-term treatment, occupational disease, and (5) death, permanent disability.

$$
RAS = likelihood \times consequence
$$
 (eq. 1)

#### **Statistical Analysis**

The RAS values for all case scenarios in each study area are presented as mean ± standard deviation. The normality distribution was checked using the Kruskal-Wallis test. According to this, significant differences between the groups were determined by One-way ANOVA and Tukey tests. The similarity analysis of RAS means among the study areas was determined using the Euclidean distance method. All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS 22 software package for Windows.

## **Results**

Each case scenario, its potential consequences, and prevention recommendations for each work area are presented in detail in SM 1. Significant differences were observed among work areas based on different occupational groups (Table 3). For academicians, the highest risk was significantly found in the package unit and chill store and the net repair and washing unit, while the lowest RAS values was in dining hall, and boat (p<0.01). For engineers, the highest risk levels were observed in the net cage, while the lowest risk was in the net repair and washing unit (p<0.01). For trainees, there were no significant differences in risk among the work areas (p>0.05). For employees, the highest RAS was observed at the port, while the lowest risk was in the dining hall (p<0.01). Finally, regardless of occupational groups, the working areas with the highest risk in the facilities were identified as the net cage, port, and package unit and chill store, while the lowest risk was in the dining hall (Figure 1; p<0.01).

**Table 3.** RAS averages for each occupational group in each working area



Lower cases represent significant differences between processes for each participant.

Capital letters represent significant differences between participants for each process.

Colors represents RAS group. Green: low risk, orange moderate risk



**Figure 1.** General RAS averages of working areas

Significant differences among occupational groups were observed in only five different working areas. While the risk in the dining hall generally falls within the low-risk category for all groups, academicians recorded higher RAS values compared to trainees and employees (p<0.01). General risks and risks in the administrative building were higher for academicians and trainees, but lower for engineers and employees. The RAS value in the net repair and washing unit was significantly higher for academicians and trainees compared to the other two groups (p<0.01). No significant differences were observed among the groups in other working areas (p>0.05). Finally, no significant differences were found among occupational groups, regardless of the working area (Figure 2).

The dendrogram graph grouped the four different occupational groups into two clusters and the ten different working areas into four clusters (Figure 3).



**Figure 2.** General RAS averages of occupational group.



**Figure 3.** Grouping the evaluation criteria by euclidean dendogram graph and heat-map.

Academicians and trainees formed one cluster, while employees and engineers formed another. The distribution of working place clusters was as follows: (1) port and boat, (2) dining hall, (3) administrative building, package unit and chill store, and net repair and washing unit, and (4) others. The heat map summarized the views of all occupational groups for all working areas within the facility. According to this analysis, the areas identified as the highest risk were the package unit and chill store, and the net repair and washing unit, as determined by academicians and trainees. In contrast, the area identified as the lowest risk was the net repair and washing unit according to employees and engineers.

## **Discussion**

National and international authorities have prioritized food safety, food quality, production, sustainability, and environmental impacts in regulatory documents related to aquaculture (Cavalli et al., 2019). In contrast, concerns about worker safety and health are rarely or never mentioned. In the aquaculture industry, workers are exposed to safety, physical, chemical, biological, ergonomic, and psychosocial hazards (Ngajilo & Jeebhay, 2019). In addition to factors such as facility scale and production volume, the species being farmed also affects the degree of hazard (Cole et al., 2009). In Norway, the occupation with the second highest risk group after fishermen is marine cage aquaculture (McGuinness et al., 2013). Ultimately, detailed risk studies in the sector are quite limited and generally focus on case studies involving noise, ergonomic, and chemical hazards (Ngajilo & Jeebhay, 2019). The current study provides a detailed risk assessment targeting different occupational groups working in marine cage aquaculture facilities. Risks are assessed separately for occupational groups and working areas. According to the study, the highest risk scenario for academicians, with a score of 17 (indicating a high-risk group), is the absence of an insulating mat on the electrical panel (S34) across the facility. Additionally, the highest scoring case scenarios affecting the riskiest working areas for academicians include "S63," "S5," "S3," "S67," "S65," and "S4" (RAS > 12). The working areas with the highest risk, as perceived by academicians, are the package unit and chill store, and the net repair and washing unit. Occupational risk is always noteworthy in environments with higher automation and physical hazards (Sandsund et al., 2022). Especially when working in cold environments like the chill store, it is important to consider the ISO 15743:2008 directive (ISO, 2008). Because in cold environments, unprotected, lowintensity, and repetitive work can have a negative impact on muscle function and fatigue (Oksa et al., 2002). However, it has been proven that working in cold environments does not have an adverse effect on personnel once the necessary clothing and equipment are provided (Kluth et al., 2009). The case scenario with the highest RAS for academicians (electric shock "S34") is highly painful and can lead to burns or short-term paralysis (Holen et al., 2018a). In Australia, it has been reported that two out of six fatalities in the aquaculture sector between 2003 and 2013 were caused by electric shock (Lower, 2015). Injuries that lead to the loss of limbs, such as hands or feet, caused by entrapment between rollers in the packaging and net washing unit are considered serious occupational injuries. These data are also provided by the Norwegian Labor and Inspection Authority (Holen et al., 2018a).

According to engineers, the case scenario posing the highest risk is "working under the sun for extended periods (S8)". Although the consequences may not be severe, many engineers have assigned a high likelihood score to this scenario. The working area with the highest risk, as anticipated by engineers, is the "net cage". The scenarios of the working area that pose the highest risk are "S5," "S3," "S8," and "S9" (RAS > 12). Working under the sun for extended periods is a physical risk factor (solar radiation) arising from both the duration of work and the working environment (Nogueira et al., 2009; Thorvaldsen et al., 2020). A study conducted in Brazil reported that, based on data from ten different companies, the highest risk was solar radiation associated with prolonged sun exposure (25%) (Gondim et al., 2010). Working in rotating shifts on sunny days, using sun protection creams and equipment, and working in enclosed areas reduce solar radiation to a minimum level (Myers & Durborow, 2012). Net cage work areas are limited in space and have a very low comfort level. In these areas, loss of control and consequently falls are possible outcomes. Such falls are referred to as falling to a lower level rather than the same level (Holen et al., 2018a). Falls are the most frequently reported source of serious injuries in net cages and boats (Mitchell & Lystad, 2019).

The case scenario with the highest RAS for trainees is "the personnel not knowing how to swim (S10)". No differences in risk levels were observed among the working areas for trainees. Other scenarios that present the highest risks include "S5," "S25," "S9," "S63," "S35," "S32," and "S34" (RAS>15). In risk analyses, factors that lead to accidents (such as drowning) are primary considerations for conducting a risk assessment (Ale et al., 2008; Attwood et al., 2006). However, there is insufficient information on the causes of occupational injuries and fatalities in the aquaculture sector in Türkiye (Soykan, 2023). In Norway, drowning has been reported as one of the leading causes of fatalities among fishing fleets (Holen et al., 2018a; McGuinness et al., 2013). A case has been reported in which a staff member drowned during harvesting due to not wearing a life jacket (Myers, 2010). In Australia, two out of three fatal drowning incidents occurred during diving activities (Lower, 2015). Ensuring that personnel going out to sea can swim, receive training if they cannot swim, and wear life jackets when required during work will help mitigate this risk.

Finally, for employees, the most risky case scenario is "the excessive gaps in the floating system of the cage (S2)". While the port is identified as the area with the highest risk, the dining hall, net repair and washing unit, and locker room have the lowest RAS. Other case scenarios with high RAS are "S33," "S25," "S63," and "S62" (RAS>14). In marine net cages, floating is typically provided by circular plastic collars, which have gaps between them. Ships and net cages, which come into contact with seawater, are slippery and pose a high risk of falling (Holen et al., 2018a). An unstable work platform is one of the significant causes of occupational injuries (Windle et al., 2008). Excessive gaps in the cage system can cause employees to fall and result in their limbs, such as feet and hands, getting caught. Therefore, platforms should be constructed to be suitable for walking, and employees should be required to wear non-slip shoes while on the platform.

Regardless of the occupational group, risk assessment among working areas shows that net cage, port, and package unit and chill store have significantly high risks. The overall highest average RAS in the facility causes from wet and slippery floors (S63) in the package unit and chill store. Employees should work in non-slip boots, a sign should be placed for slippery floors, and the floor should be made of non-slip material. This situation has shown a high likelihood and somewhat high consequence for all occupational groups. Similarly, the risk of "using unsuitable slippers/shoes for walking (S4)" has a high average RAS for the net cage working area. Season-appropriate and non-slip shoes should be worn. In the port, falling loads (S31) can lead to tragic situations such as injury or death. One should not stand under the load being transported, and a helmet must be worn at all times. The dendrogram test revealed that academicians and trainees have similar risk perceptions, as do engineers and employees. For example, it is interesting to note that the net repair and washing unit, locker room, and package unit and chill store showed higher average RAS for academic staff and trainees compared to other occupational groups. This is related to professional experience and the perspective of employees, as risks may be overlooked by those with long-term experience in the same job (Pinder et al., 2016). Interviews with experienced personnel in aquaculture facilities support our study's conclusion that inexperience leads to increased anxiety and a heightened focus on safety (Thorvaldsen et al., 2020). Especially during the summer months, there is a noticeable increase in serious injuries due to the participation of young and inexperienced workers compared to the rest of the year (Holen et al., 2018a, 2018b).

#### **Conclusions**

The current study, incorporating the perspectives of engineers, trainees, and employees working in various marine cage aquaculture facilities, as well as

academicians from different universities and departments, presents a comprehensive risk assessment for an integrated facility. The highest average risks were observed in net cage, port, and package unit and chill store among the 72 different case scenarios. Although no significant differences in average RAS were found among occupational groups regardless of the working area, variations were noted based on job experience and professional perspective. Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that occupational health and safety protocols in marine cage aquaculture facilities include regular training sessions, the integration of advanced risk assessment methods such as the L-type decision matrix, open communication channels, the provision of modern safety equipment, and regular inspections. The study's limitations include a small sample size, the inability to assess long-term effects, and the focus on a specific geographical region. Future research should focus on comparing different risk assessment methods, exploring employee awareness, examining the impact of new technologies, and comparing international practices to identify best approaches.

## **Ethical Statement**

The author declare that the scientific ethical and legal responsibility of this article belongs to the author.

#### **Funding Information**

The authors declare that no funds, grants, or other support were received during the preparation of this manuscript.

## **Author Contribution**

Mert Minaz: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing - Original Draft, Data Curation.

## **Conflict of Interest**

The authors have no relevant financial or nonfinancial interests to disclose.

#### **Acknowledgements**

This study was presented at the 6th National Marine Sciences Conference and has been accepted for publication in the special issue. In this regard, I would like to thank the editorial board of the 6th National Marine Sciences Conference, Rize, Türkiye.

#### **References**

Ahmed, N., Thompson, S., & Glaser, M. (2019). Global Aquaculture Productivity, Environmental Sustainability, and Climate Change Adaptability. *Environmental Management*, *63*(2), 159–172.

https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-018-1117-3

- Ale, B. J. M., Baksteen, H., Bellamy, L. J., Bloemhof, A., Goossens, L., Hale, A., Mud, M. L., Oh, J. I. H., Papazoglou, I. A., Post, J., & Whiston, J. Y. (2008). Quantifying occupational risk: The development of an occupational risk model. *Safety Science*, *46*(2), 176–185. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SSCI.2007.02.001
- Attwood, D., Khan, F., & Veitch, B. (2006). Can We Predict Occupational Accident Frequency? *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, *84*(3), 208–221. https://doi.org/10.1205/PSEP.05113
- Aydoğan, Ö. (2020). Su Ürünleri Sektöründe Karşılaşılan İş Hastalıkları ve Meslek Hastalıkları Occupational Diseases Encountered in Fishery Sector. *Karaelmas Journal of Occupational Health and Safety*, *4*(1), 55–64. https://doi.org/10.33720/kisgd.558324
- Cavalli, L., Jeebhay, M. F., Marques, F., Mitchell, R., Neis, B., Ngajilo, D., & Watterson, A. (2019). Scoping Global Aquaculture Occupational Safety and Health. *Journal of Agromedicine*, *24*(4), 391–404.

https://doi.org/10.1080/1059924X.2019.1655203

- Cole, D. W., Cole, R., Gaydos, S. J., Gray, J., Hyland, G., Jacques, M. L., Powell-Dunford, N., Sawhney, C., & Au, W. W. (2009). Aquaculture: Environmental, toxicological, and health issues. *International Journal of Hygiene and Environmental Health*, *212*(4), 369–377. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijheh.2008.08.003
- Douglas, J. D. M. (1995). Salmon farming: occupational health in a new rural industry. *Occupational Medicine*, *45*(2), 89–92. https://doi.org/10.1093/OCCMED/45.2.89
- FAO. (2020). *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020. Sustainability in action*. https://doi.org/10.4060/ca9229en
- FAO. (2022). *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2022. Towards Blue Transformation*. FAO. https://doi.org/10.4060/CC0461EN
- Ferdouse, F., Løvstad Holdt, S., Smith, R., Murúa, P., & Yang, Z. (2018). The global status of seaweed production, trade and utilization. *FAO Globefish Research Programme*, *124*, 120.
- Gondim, C. P., Morais, M. V., Marques, S. K., & Moura, D. S. (2010). Segurança E Saúde Do Trabalho Na Carcinicultura Do Estado Do Rio Grande Do Norte. *HOLOS*, *4*, 32–46. https://doi.org/10.15628/holos.2010.326
- Güner, E. D. (2018). Environmental risk assessment for biological wastewater treatment plant. *Pamukkale University Journal of Engineering Sciences*, *24*(3), 476– 480. https://doi.org/10.5505/pajes.2017.16023
- Holen, S. M., Utne, I. B., Holmen, I. M., & Aasjord, H. (2018a). Occupational safety in aquaculture – Part 1: Injuries in Norway. *Marine Policy*, *96*, 184–192. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARPOL.2017.08.009
- Holen, S. M., Utne, I. B., Holmen, I. M., & Aasjord, H. (2018b). Occupational safety in aquaculture – Part 2: Fatalities in Norway 1982–2015. *Marine Policy*, *96*, 193–199. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARPOL.2017.08.005
- ISO. (2008). *ISO 15743:2008(en), Ergonomics of the thermal environment — Cold workplaces — Risk assessment and management*.
	- https://www.iso.org/obp/ui/en/#iso:std:38895:en
- Kılkıs, I. (2013). İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği'nde Yeni Dönem: 6331 Sayılı İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunu (İSGK). *"İş,Güç" Endüstri İlişkileri ve İnsan Kaynakları Dergisi*, *15*(1), 17– 41. https://doi.org/10.4026/1303-2860.2013.0217.x
- Kluth, K., Penzkofer, M., & Strasser, H. (2009). Physiological responses of core and skin temperature of two age groups to working in the cold at -3°C and −24°C. *Occupational Ergonomics*, *8*(4), 147–157. https://doi.org/10.3233/OER-2009-0166
- Lower, T. (2015). *Mapping Work Health and Safety risk in the Primary Industries* (Issue 14).
- Marques, F. B., Bettoni, G. N., Santos, B. G. T., Adeoye, A. A., Brito, B. G., Brito, K. C. T., Buketov, K., Cazella, S., Fermino, M. H., Hellebrandt, L., Jeebhay, M., Mitchell, R., Ngajilo, D., Watterson, A., & Cavalli, L. S. (2020). AquaSafe: Aquaculture occupational safety and health in the palm of your hand. *Pesquisa Agropecuária Gaúcha*, *26*(1), 46–54. https://doi.org/10.36812/pag.202026146- 54
- McGuinness, E., Aasjord, H. L., Utne, I. B., & Holmen, I. M. (2013). Fatalities in the Norwegian fishing fleet 1990- 2011. *Safety Science*, *57*, 335–351. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2013.03.009
- Mert, B., & Ercan, P. (2014). Su Ürünleri Sektöründe İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Uygulamalarının Değerlendirilmesi. *TUBAV Bilim Dergisi*, *7*(4), 16–27.
- Mert, B., & Ercan, P. (2015). Occupational health and safety in aquaculture industry. In L. Podofillini, B. Sudret, B. Stojadinovic, E. Zio, & W. Kröger (Eds.), *Safety and Reliability of Complex Engineered Systems* (Issue January 2015, pp. 3277–3280). Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.1201/b19094-431
- Minaz, M., Ak, K., & Kurtoğlu, İ. Z. (2021). Occupational Health and Safety Risk Analysis in Trout Aquaculture Facility. *OHS Academy İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Akademi Dergisi*, *4*(3), 14–21.
- Minaz, M., & Kubilay, A. (2021). Operating parameters affecting biofloc technology: carbon source, carbon/nitrogen ratio, feeding regime, stocking density, salinity, aeration, and microbial community manipulation. *Aquaculture International 2021 29:3*, *29*(3), 1121–1140. https://doi.org/10.1007/S10499-021- 00681-X
- Mitchell, R. J., & Lystad, R. P. (2019). Occupational injury and disease in the Australian aquaculture industry. *Marine Policy*, *99*, 216–222.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARPOL.2018.10.044

- Myers, M. L. (2010). Review of Occupational Hazards Associated With Aquaculture. *Journal of Agromedicine*, *15*(4), 412–426.
	- https://doi.org/10.1080/1059924X.2010.512854
- Myers, M. L., & Durborow, R. M. (2012). Aquacultural Safety and Health. In E. Carvalho (Ed.), *Health and Environment in Aquaculture* (pp. 385–400). InTech. https://doi.org/10.5772/29258
- Ngajilo, D., & Jeebhay, M. F. (2019). Occupational injuries and diseases in aquaculture – A review of literature. *Aquaculture*, *507*, 40–55.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.AQUACULTURE.2019.03.053

Nogueira, F. N. A., Rigotto, R. M., & Teixeira, A. C. de A. (2009). O agronegócio do camarão: processo de trabalho e riscos à saúde dos trabalhadores no município de Aracati/Ceará. *Revista Brasileira de Saúde Ocupacional*, *34*(119), 40–50.

https://doi.org/10.1590/S0303-76572009000100005

Oksa, J., Ducharmeand, M. B., & Rintamäki, H. (2002). Combined effect of repetitive work and cold on muscle function and fatigue. *Journal of Applied Physiology*, *92*(1), 354–361.

https://doi.org/10.1152/JAPPL.2002.92.1.354/ASSET/I MAGES/LARGE/DG0121245005.JPEG

Özgür, C. (2021). Dezenfeksiyon ünitesi risk analizi: içme suyu arıtma tesisi. *Ömer Halisdemir Üniversitesi Mühendislik Bilimleri Dergisi*, *10*(1), 16–22.

https://doi.org/10.28948/ngumuh.741014

- Pinder, J., Gibb, A., Dainty, A., Jones, W., Fray, M., Hartley, R., Cheyne, A., Finneran, A., Glover, J., Haslam, R., Morgan, J., Waterson, P., Gosling, E. Y., Bust, P., & Pink, S. (2016). Occupational safety and health and smaller organisations: research challenges and opportunities. *Policy and Practice in Health and Safety*, *14*(1), 34–49. https://doi.org/10.1080/14773996.2016.1239357
- Sandsund, M., Wiggen, Ø., Holmen, I. M., & Thorvaldsen, T. (2022). Work strain and thermophysiological responses in Norwegian fish farming — a field study. *Industrial Health*, *60*(1), 79–85.

https://doi.org/10.2486/INDHEALTH.2020-0259

Soykan, O. (2023). Occupational Health and Safety in the Turkish Fisheries and Aquaculture; a Statistical Evaluation on a Neglected Industry. *Safety and Health at Work*, *14*(3), 295–302.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SHAW.2023.07.004

Thorvaldsen, T., Kongsvik, T., Holmen, I. M., Størkersen, K., Salomonsen, C., Sandsund, M., & Bjelland, H. V. (2020). Occupational health, safety and work environments in Norwegian fish farming - employee perspective. *Aquaculture*, *524*, 735238.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.AQUACULTURE.2020.735238

- Valderrama, D., Hishamunda, N., & Zhou, X. (2010). Estimating Employment in World Aquaculture. *FAO Aquaculture Newsletter*, 24–25.
- Waite, R., Beveridge, M., Brummett, R., Castine, S., Chaiyawannakarn, N., Kaushik, S., Mungkung, R., Nawapakpilai, S., & Phillips, M. (2014). *Improving Productivity and Environmental Performance of Aquaculture*. http://www.worldresourcesreport.org.
- Windle, M. J. S., Neis, B., Bornstein, S., Binkley, M., & Navarro, P. (2008). Fishing occupational health and safety: A comparison of regulatory regimes and safety outcomes in six countries. *Marine Policy*, *32*(4), 701–710. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.MARPOL.2007.12.003
- World Bank. (2013). *Fish to 2030: Prospects for Fisheries and Aquaculture.* www.worldbank.org

## **S U P P L E M E N T A R Y M A T E R I A L S**



# **Turkish Journal of FISHERIES** and **AQUATIC SCIENCES**

## **Supplementary Table 1.** Case scenarios, potential risks and recommended preventions



*Turkish Journal of Fisheries & Aquatic Sciences TRJFAS26642*



*Turkish Journal of Fisheries & Aquatic Sciences TRJFAS26642*



*Turkish Journal of Fisheries & Aquatic Sciences TRJFAS26642*

