

Final manuscript - Yushan and Hans Petter

1 **Holistic Human Safety in the Design of Marine Operations Safety**

2 **Abstract**

3 To avoid safety issues, current marine operations safety protocols follow only the work
4 procedures and technical structures of systems that are provided by the operator;
5 regardless, research continues to report safety issues related to cooperative work within
6 marine operational systems. Thus, we use the concept of boundary object to analyze
7 excerpts from a series of field notes and to discuss holistic human safety. We illustrate
8 that human safety is only supported at the individual level of engineering community
9 practices but does not address safety at a cooperative level between marine operations
10 and other operations. At the individual level, human safety issues can be related to
11 technical errors and failures in interaction and communication. This paper presents
12 suggestions on how to make the work practices of marine engineers and marine
13 operators visible within design processes, enabling them to collaborate with
14 engineering designers and human factors engineers in the design of marine operations
15 safety.

16 **1. Introduction**

17 In the maritime domain, research that focuses on the improvement of human safety is
18 typically conducted by engineering designers. These designers use a systematic design
19 approach (Pahl et al., 2007) to analyze and identify work situations from product and system
20 design features. This approach includes a set of theories and methods that can identify
21 essential problems, establish the functional structure of systems, search for solution
22 principles, and combine them (Sadeghi et al., 2016). Marine engineers, engineering
23 designers, and human factors engineers believe that human safety is consequently affected by

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24 technical systems (Kleiner et al., 2015). From this perspective, risks to human safety can be
25 avoided through enhanced technologies and by training operators to follow appropriate work
26 procedures for operations and the technical structures of systems. As an example, most
27 marine engineers understand that human safety is impacted by marine operations. Safety can
28 therefore be ensured by designing work procedures that adhere to national and international
29 regulations (Det norske maskinistforbund, 2013). Marine engineers approach human safety
30 by considering how to make work procedures suitable to every unique marine operation that
31 marine operators encounter. Because it is an attribute that exists within technologies,
32 engineering designers can secure human safety with advanced technologies (Sadeghi et al.,
33 2015). Therefore, human safety can be measured through appropriate experimentation by
34 human factors engineers (Lützhöft, 2004). Human factors engineers believe that human
35 safety risks can be avoided by iterating upon enhanced technologies during design processes
36 and by evaluating the interactions between the operators and interfaces of those technologies.

37 Thus, studies in maritime research have followed these approaches during attempts to
38 solve human safety issues amongst marine operators and marine operational systems within
39 cooperative work environments. These studies have used a variety of methods, such as
40 marine operational systems to enable cooperative work, which have been developed with
41 collective and individual computer systems, alike (Park et al., 2004). However, existing
42 literature (Aas, 2010) has continued to report human error as a causal or contributing factor in
43 60% to 90% of all accidents (Baker and McCafferty, 2005). Of these, approximately 50% of
44 maritime accidents have been the result of human errors that existed outside of the context of
45 technical systems. In addition, Baker and McCafferty (2005) revealed that 30% of marine
46 safety incidents resulted from human failure to avoid accidents during cooperative work.

47 The nature of human safety in marine operations safety is complex (Kongsberg, 2016).
48 Marine operations are highly cooperative and require multiple marine operators to use marine

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49 operational systems within cooperative and socio-technical environments (Hepsø, 1997).
50 When marine operators use marine operational systems, human safety issues do not always
51 arise at the individual level. Rather, these issues can emerge from cooperative work that takes
52 place between marine operators and marine operational systems (Forskningsrådet, 2012). In
53 design research, researchers have argued that when cooperative work is considered to be a
54 part of the social fabric of design, it is often overlooked during the design of cooperative
55 operations technology (Manzini, 2015). As such, we believe that understanding safety in the
56 context of individual engineering work, like the design of safety features for an engineering
57 system to support holistic human safety within cooperative operations, can lead to inadequate
58 engineering work in the maritime domain.

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59 Although many researchers have called for holistic engineering work practices to support
60 in situ work and socio-technical innovations, few studies have focused on methods that can
61 merge social and technological characteristics in order to solve engineering problems. For
62 example, Petersen and Buch (2016) explored how the user-experience approach synthesized
63 engineering practices at a car manufacturer by enabling certain engineering methodologies to
64 work across various engineering organizations. However, their study failed to explain how
65 users could participate in engineering work to make their efforts visible. Rather, Petersen and
66 Buch focused primarily on engineers who estimated car buyer's purchasing requirements so
67 that they could restructure engineering organizations.

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68 By contrast, we argue that in current marine operational systems, the in-situ work practices
69 of marine operators and marine engineers are largely invisible because they are typically
70 unobserved (Star and Strauss, 1999). In order to improve and extend marine operational
71 systems, and to address the ecology of marine operations safety, we intend to make this work
72 visible. To gain this new understanding of human safety in engineering work, we use the
73 concept of boundary object, which according to Star and Griesemer (1989), is robust enough

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74 to allow researchers of design research to collaborate with other engineering practices and to
75 analyze and investigate human safety. As a boundary object, human safety requires marine
76 operators, marine engineers, design researchers, and engineering designers to address the
77 safety operations of every stage of marine operation. This can enable engineering designers
78 and design researchers to shape marine operational systems within the context of marine
79 operators and their cooperative work.

80 In addition, if we treat human safety as a robust feature that permits marine engineers,
81 design engineers, and human factors engineers to practice marine technology at the individual
82 level of their different communities, human safety can be supported through the use of
83 enhanced technical systems (Backalov et al., 2016) and institutional work procedures. In
84 addition, if human safety can be made flexible, it can be supported by enriching the social
85 meaning of engineering practices from a holistic human safety perspective within cooperative
86 work environments, which can in turn allow marine operators to vocalize their opinions about
87 the in- situ cooperative work practices of marine operations to marine engineers and increase
88 their ability to perform efficient work procedures. This paper's definition of holistic human
89 safety therefore refers to good cooperation amongst various engineering communities during
90 the design of marine operations safety protocols that support cooperative marine operators.

91 The paper's research questions include the following: what type of marine operational
92 systems can provide holistic support to human safety; what methods can be used to design
93 these systems; and the involvement of what types of knowledge from the different
94 engineering communities—marine engineering, design research, engineering design, and
95 human factors engineering—can be used to support marine operations safety? In addition, the
96 paper will be structured as follows: section 2 will discuss the definition of the word *safety* and
97 the current understanding of human safety within the maritime domain; section 3 will
98 introduce the empirical setting; section 4 will present the data collection and methods that are

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2 99 used in this paper; and section 5 will use a boundary object to illustrate how marine
3 100 operational systems and human safety are built within field studies.

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5 101 In order to make the work involved in marine operations visible during the design of
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7 102 marine operations safety, the paper will also review the processes that demand cooperation
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9 103 between design researchers and design, maritime, and human factors engineers. Using
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11 104 analyses of earlier field work that was conducted at sea, this paper will argue for the
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13 105 importance of integrating the work of marine operators and marine engineers into common
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15 106 engineering practices, such as designing operational systems and ensuring ecology within
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17 107 marine operations safety. Finally, section 7 will explore methods that can enrich engineering
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19 108 work so that it can support a variety of marine operations. The paper will then conclude that
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21 109 designers and engineers will need to use the outcomes of field work to drive bottom-up socio-
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23 110 technical innovations that can force the evolution of both social and technical practices and
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25 111 support human safety in cooperative work environments, such as marine operations.
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32 33 112 **2. What is safety and human safety in the maritime domain?**

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36 113 Despite the common interest in safety and human safety in the maritime domain, definitions
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38 114 for both remain insufficient. It should therefore be made clear that this paper's position on
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40 115 human safety is different than most engineering studies by comparing with safety and human
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42 116 safety in the maritime domain.

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45 117 According to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA, 2008), safety
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47 118 focuses exclusively on physical rather than functional consequences. In terms of product
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49 119 safety, a product is considered to be safe when it does not result in death, injury, occupational
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51 120 illness, damage to the environment, and damage to, or loss of, equipment or property. By
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53 121 comparison, research related to marine engineering, engineering design, and human factors
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55 122 engineering considers human safety to be a part of the machinery safety process (Khan et al.,
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123 2015), wherein machinery control systems are modeled to guard against predictable safety
124 problems through scheduled testing and integrated engineering design procedures.

125 However, safety in the maritime domain includes two additional categories: system safety
126 and human safety (Sadeghi et al., 2016). System safety (Akeel and Bell, 2013) involves the
127 application of engineering and management criteria, principles, and techniques in order to
128 optimize safety within the constraints of time, cost, and operational effectiveness throughout
129 all phases of a system's lifecycle. System safety is to safety as systems engineering is to
130 engineering (Sadeghi et al., 2015). In engineering design, system safety is only addressed to
131 improve engineering design (Sadeghi et al., 2015) and to determine ways in which systems
132 can be used without risk (Rausand and Utne, 2009).

133 Human safety is impacted by system safety (Akeel and Bell, 2013) and is determined by
134 safe human engagement with technology. Human safety is also related to the non-functioning
135 part of a system, or the part of a system that follows certain conditions for a given amount of
136 time. Human factors engineers analyze human safety in terms of systems use and behavior.
137 This approach is different for marine engineers and engineering designers, who understand
138 that human safety is connected to technology and work procedures (Bal et al., 2015). Human
139 factors engineers also look at the issue to optimize routing and scheduling on behalf of
140 workers' health and safety, with a focus on psychosocial factors and musculoskeletal
141 disorders (Lützhöft, 2004). Recent research has determined that since organizational cultures
142 can influence the choices of individuals, safety is also affected by human and organizational
143 factors (Chauvin et al., 2013; International Atomic Energy Agency, 2013). Some of these
144 organizational factors include resource management, organizational climate, organizational
145 process, and statutory requirements. Every one of these factors affects supervisory actions, as
146 well as the conditions and unsafe actions of marine operators. Understanding organizational
147 factors can aid in the protection of human safety at an organizational level. Regardless, the

148 natural cooperation of marine operators within work environments might be dismissed upon
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2 149 investigation of human safety issues from a holistic perspective. As such, this paper aims to
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5 150 illustrate how field work can be used to drive bottom-up social and technical innovations
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7 151 between the work-as-imagined and work-as-done mantras of the maritime domain. In terms
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10 152 of top-down risk management, organizational factors exist outside of the scope of this paper
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12 153 (Det Norske Veritas, 2001; Palola, 2015).

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15 154 By contrast, human safety in the maritime domain is multifaceted. First, safety occurs
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17 155 within the context of marine operations, such as through the resolution of mechanical issues
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19 156 within technical systems (Rausand and Utne, 2009). Second, because human-machine
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22 157 interactions are led by institutions, there are both physical- and software-related
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24 158 consequences to safety (Backalov et al., 2016). Therefore, human safety can be considered to
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27 159 be dependent on the safety of a ship's stability (Backalov et al., 2016). As an example, human
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29 160 safety may be considered to be paramount during investigations of a ship's structural
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32 161 requirements for complete control. Human safety can also be used to measure the probability
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34 162 for select operations, such as navigation and offshore activities, and to test marine operators
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36 163 in the selection of certain criteria, such as loading conditions and wave, vessel, and seaway
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39 164 geometry (Stanton, 2014).

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41 165 In the current maritime domain, human safety involves reliably backing up internal and
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44 166 external devices (Dunn, 2003) to ensure safety within systems development. From this
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46 167 perspective, marine engineers primarily focus on analyzing safety regulations and designing
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49 168 work procedures so that individual marine operators are capable of using technical systems.
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51 169 To some extent, human safety is dismissed within cooperative work. In addition, human
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54 170 factors engineers and engineering designers contribute to human safety in marine operations
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56 171 as a presumptive condition for the enhancement of marine safety. Unfortunately, while these
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59 172 presumptive conditions dominate natural work situations, we believe they are inadequate
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173 because they are limited in their scope of safety precautions. Moreover, a marine operator's
174 primary role is to protect systems by avoiding operational human risk. We argue that human
175 safety should involve performance safety rather than risk prevention (Wachter and Yorio,
176 2014). Human safety does not function in an isolated context that engineers can explain by
177 communicating within their own fields (Faye, 2009).

178 As an engineering field, the current maritime domain involves straightforward problem
179 solving (Faye, 2009) for human safety issues without any in-depth study of the in-situ work
180 practices of end-users (Lurås, 2016). We argue that this type of problem-solving solution
181 does not lead to a better understanding of operator performance within the field of
182 engineering (Kwee-Meier et al., 2016). Rather, it only helps when operations and machines
183 are fit for use in individual work practices. In marine operations, human safety should involve
184 more than individual circumstances. It should instead adopt a holistic view of cooperation
185 amongst domain professionals (Daniellou et al., 2011).

186 Goodwin (1994) argued that professionals are people who have the ability to highlight and
187 respond to the work situations that unfold before them in their fields. These individuals
188 develop knowledge from their work environments, their previous experiences, and the
189 theories that underlie their professional educations (Jung et al., 2010). It is therefore
190 important that engineering practices in the maritime domain relate to the context of human
191 safety (Kwee-Meier et al., 2016) so that the in-situ work practices within cooperative work
192 environments can be visualized. This can bridge the gap between the work-as-imagined and
193 work-as-done mantras of the maritime domain. As an example, several researchers have
194 suggested that performance adjustments to engineering practices are necessary, as most
195 people change their work output to match specific situations. In these cases, performance
196 variability is inevitable, ubiquitous, and necessary in a variety of fields, such as healthcare
197 (Braithwaite et al., 2017; Wears et al., 2014), aviation, and nuclear power (Hollnagel, 1993).

198 Failure to recognize the nature of work practices can lead to oversimplified, incomplete, and
199 outdated knowledge about work circumstances and thus result in the poor performance of
200 certain engineered systems (Braithwaite et al., 2017). As such, the visualization of in-situ
201 work practices within cooperative work environments can support human safety as an
202 explicit, discussable, transferrable, and growable element of engineering work. Engineering
203 communities need to rethink human safety's classification as a boundary object for socio-
204 technical innovation by bringing together the different engineering practices that shape
205 marine operational systems. Engineering communities should also encourage in-situ
206 engineering work by allowing engineers to use the knowledge that is inherent to their
207 individual communities during the overall design of safety operations.

3. The empirical setting: the marine operational systems on a ship's bridge

This paper's empirical setting was the marine operational systems of a ship's bridge (see
Figure 1). The field study was conducted on the bridge of an offshore supply vessel, wherein
operators used marine operational systems to complete offshore tasks.

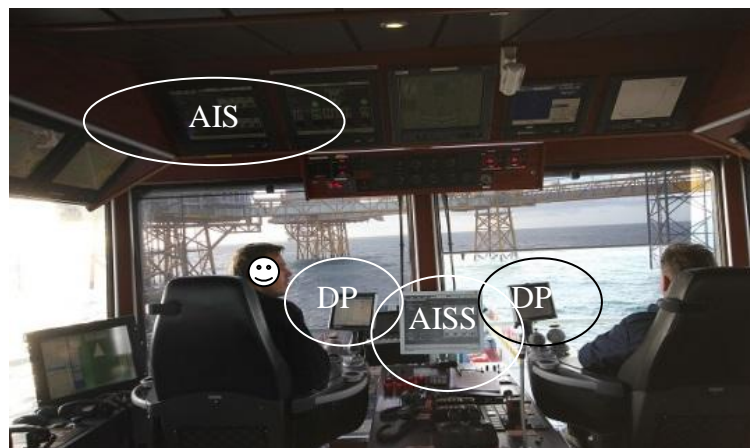


Figure 1: Marine operational systems on the ship's bridge (AIS – automation integrated systems, DP – dynamic positioning systems)

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217 The crew on deck, in addition to the communications that took place between the offshore
218 supply vessel and the oil platform, were also considered to be part of the research area.
219 Information that was useful to the maritime operators were displayed via 18 displays and
220 physical operational levers (see Figure 1). Dynamic positioning systems were placed in two
221 screens in front of the marine operators' chairs. The automatic integrated systems (AIS)
222 included two screens in front of and a screen in between the two marine operators' chairs. We
223 chose AIS and dynamic positioning (DP) systems because we believe that DP systems that
224 are associated with AIS and other marine operational systems represent basic functionality
225 for most simple marine operations and services. AIS are programmed to monitor and provide
226 alerts for the storage of liquid materials in containers that rest under a ship's bridge. These
227 systems significantly increase a ship's reliability (Automation Heinzmann, 2017), detect
228 process malfunctions faster, and reduce operators' intervention-times during marine services
229 (Transportation Research Board, 2003). As an example, marine operators could use AIS to
230 provide drilling-mud and -water to the oil platform while simultaneously establishing the
231 balance of a vessel (Pan, 2016). Thus, this study focuses on the work of two teams of marine
232 operators who used both marine operational systems (AIS and DP systems) every six hours.
233 Each time record included two marine operators who belonged to a single team. Sailors on
234 deck who assisted the marine operators on the ship's bridge were also involved in this study.

45 235 **4. Method**

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236 The work presented here is part of a larger project that examines marine operations. The aim
237 of this project is to criticize the existing design of marine operational systems, move beyond
238 these criticisms of current marine technologies in a constructive manner, and attempt to
239 influence specific features of the creation and implementation of marine operations safety.
240 After receiving approved ethical consent from the Norwegian Centre for Research Data, the

241 study began in the fall of 2013. It is currently nearing completion. It is an empirical
242 workplace study that can be divided into three phases with different but highly interlinked
243 focuses. Since the focuses of many of the activities overlap so that the parts of each phase
244 influence the findings of other phases, it is impossible to distinguish each research activity by
245 phases. Therefore, the three phases are as follows:

- 246 1. The investigation of marine operational systems with a focus on cooperative work within
247 group activities.
- 248 2. The development of a design-based approach to marine operational systems, which in
249 turn supports cooperative work between marine operators and design engineers during the
250 engineering design process.
- 251 3. An investigation in the design of marine operations safety in order to shape a
252 developmental environment for the design of marine operational systems with a focus on
253 safety regulations and the rules of work procedures.

254 While this paper focuses on the third phase, empirical observations from all three parts of
255 the study contribute to its empirical foundation. In the first two phases, the focus was to
256 investigate the problems and challenges in evaluating marine operational systems that
257 became present during research at sea with marine operators. One of the main findings from
258 the first phase was that the evaluation of interactions between marine operators and marine
259 operational systems inadequately represented safety concerns at sea. In addition, the study
260 determined that current design and evaluative methods dismiss the safety issues of marine
261 operators' work practices at the cooperative level. Moreover, phase two used a network-based
262 approach to investigate systems development with a focus on cooperative work during the
263 engineering design process. In other words, the design of marine operational systems that
264 support cooperative safety operations should involve design researchers and engineering

1 265 designers by integrating the in-situ work practices of marine operators into the design of
2 266 engineering systems.
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5 267 The empirical study presented in this paper relates to the first and second phase. It is also
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7 268 comprised of an in-depth analysis of the safety issues related to work practices and is
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9 269 embedded within a larger picture of how marine operations safety is designed. We seek to use
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11 270 a boundary object as an analytical lens. This object exists in various fields of engineering
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13 271 during the design of marine operational systems that account for human safety. By placing
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15 272 each engineering community's practices under this analytical lens, a conceptual framework
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17 273 that uses the work practices of every engineering field in the maritime domain can be
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19 274 organized around the design of marine operational systems and provide knowledge that
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21 275 drives marine operational systems to support marine operations safety.
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27 276 The primary data that this paper uses are comprised of various research activities that
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29 277 contribute to the understanding of marine operators' work practices within marine operational
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31 278 systems. The primary activities include observations of the work practices, informal and
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33 279 formal interviews with marine operators, and analyses of the various artifacts in use. The
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35 280 observations of work practices took place during six sets of offshore trips. Each set of trips
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37 281 included roughly 14 observations that lasted between 7 and 11 days long from January to
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39 282 May in 2015, wherein the primary author of this paper observed the work practices and
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41 283 marine operational systems on the ship's bridge while conducting formal and informal
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43 284 interviews with the marine operators about their work. These observations focused primarily
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45 285 on how marine operators cooperated with each other and used the marine operational systems
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47 286 to monitor tasks that required a certain degree of safety, such as activities that took place
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49 287 above deck. The interviews were conducted when safety issues or unusual operations (e.g.,
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51 288 work outside of planned work procedures) occurred. In this paper, the field notes that were
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53 289 taken during the offshore trips are represented below in the form of a series of vignettes.
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290 These notes can be used to analyze how the consideration of human safety in work practices
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5 292 be used to evaluate how human safety can be identified and managed in every engineering
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7 293 community that uses non-cooperative practices during marine operations. However, human
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10 294 safety requires a cooperative and holistic view of marine operations that enables the
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12 295 incorporation of different engineering communities to design marine operations safety
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14 296 protocols that are suitable to those who conduct field work. The following is an excerpt from
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17 297 the field notes that were taken by this paper's primary author.
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19 298 The first officer and the captain sit in front of the marine operational systems
20 299 interface. The first officer checks all the paper forms before he starts DP
21 300 operations. His colleague, the captain, helps him check the weather information
22 301 using separate office systems. It is clear that these office systems are not part of
23 302 marine operational systems and are located in a different place. The first officer
24 303 notes weather data on his paper forms as the captain speaks out. These paper
25 304 forms are pre-prepared in order to document important information, such as DP
26 305 operations, during marine operations. These are requests from the shipping
27 306 company that concern safety issues. For example, the paper forms need to log
28 307 dates, time, place, weather information, and who is on duty during marine
29 308 operations. In specific paper form, such as the DP checklist form, information
30 309 about sea wave, wind, and engine status also need to be documented. All these
31 310 forms will be sent back to the shipping company time and again.
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36 312 The first officer positions the vessel, approaching the "Bergen" platform
37 313 (Bergen is a pseudonym for the platform's name). After successfully positioning
38 314 the vessel at the correct place, he stops and holds the vessel's position. The
39 315 captain picks up the communication device and dials a number to call Bergen. He
40 316 asks Bergen if the crane operator is ready to help adjust the vessel's position.
41 317 Then he calls to the sailors on deck to check the position of the crane.
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45 319 The crane on the oil platform is too high for the first officer even though the
46 320 crane operator tries to put down a rig. The first officer's sight line is also blocked
47 321 by the frame of the window on the ship's bridge. He has to stand up to observe
48 322 where the crane is because it is difficult for the sailors on deck to accurately
49 323 explain the position of the crane. Simultaneously, he hands over DP operations to
50 324 the captain who can help to hold and adjust the position of the vessel. The captain
51 325 positions the vessel at the right place with the guidance of the first officer and the
52 326 sailor on deck. After DP operations, the first officer prepares to supply Bergen.
53 327 He confirms the work tasks that are documented on the forms from the shipping
54 328 company. Then he orders the sailors on deck and the crane operator on Bergen to
55 329 connect the hose between Bergen and the offshore vessel. After the hose is
56 330 connected, he turns on the service to pump mud type I from the offshore vessel to
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331 Bergen. At the same time, the captain asks Bergen to lower the containers that
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3 334 When lowering the containers, the captain has to guide the sailor on deck to
4 335 position the containers at specific locations. This is because these marine service
5 336 operations also change the balance of the vessel. Mud type I also carries weight.
6 337 Suddenly, Bergen tells the first officer to stop delivery of the mud supplement.
7 338 Instead, Bergen asks for drilling mud type VI and tells the first officer that a
8 339 change form has already been sent to the office systems. This change is not
9 340 planned. The captain, therefore, has to stop guiding the sailors on deck and move
10 341 to the office systems' location. The captain asks the first officer to hold the
11 342 vessel's position and guide the sailors on deck to lower the containers for him.
12 343 The captain turns on the computer and printer to print out the request from
13 344 Bergen for checking and approval.
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15 346 Although he tries to guide the sailors on deck to position the container, he
16 347 fails to communicate with them as his workload at this moment makes
17 348 communication impossible. He cannot hold the vessel, guide the sailors on deck,
18 349 and monitor the marine services all at once. In addition, the marine service
19 350 system has an error—one pump is not working. He is aware that this may cause
20 351 trouble even though he intends to ignore it. Suddenly, both the engine room
21 352 engineers and the chief call the bridge to draw attention to the balance of the
22 353 vessel. The first officer stops the marine services but is only able to maintain the
23 354 position of the vessel and its balance by shifting the mud below deck from one
24 355 side to the other. He does not know how much mud should be shifted, so he
25 356 makes his best estimate [Field notes in 2015].
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33 357 **5. Boundary objects**

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36 358 Star and Griesemer (1989) introduced the concept of boundary object to facilitate knowledge
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38 359 into how various actors who are involved in a task can cooperate on a project in spite of their
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41 360 different backgrounds and varied, often conflicting interests. They gave an example that the
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43 361 work of amateurs, professionals, administrators, and others connected to the museum of
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45 362 Vertebrate Zoology at the University of California, Berkeley had *n*-ways to translate their
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48 363 own knowledge of an object. According to Star and Griesemer, “a boundary object is any
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50 364 object that is part of multiple social worlds and facilitates communication between them; it
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53 365 has a different identity in each social world that it inhabits.” Boundary objects embody a
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55 366 number of perspectives and are used by multiple groups to serve their own purposes and to
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58 367 address their own concerns while facilitating translation and understanding between several
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60 368 groups at the same time. Boundary objects do not equate to agreement but rather to
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3 370 interpretive flexibility (Trompette and Vinck, 2010). As Star and Griesemer (1989) asserted,
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5 371 “boundary objects are objects which are both plastic enough to adapt to local needs and the
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7 372 constraints of the several parties employing them, yet robust enough to maintain a common
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9 373 identity across sites. Like a blackboard, a boundary object ‘sits in the middle’ of a group of
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11 actors with divergent viewpoints.”

12 374 When bringing boundary objects into practice, Bowker and Star (2000) focused on ways
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14 375 in which to classify them according to different communities of practice or social worlds.
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16 376 Certain objects can become naturalized and routinely used by members of a community so
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18 377 that their function becomes transparent and they are taken for granted by members of that
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20 378 community (Bowker and Star, 2000). Boundary objects can therefore be understood as
21
22 379 objects that are not fully naturalized by any one community of practice. Instead, they arise
23
24 380 from situations where “two or more differently naturalized classification systems collide”
25
26 381 (Vederhus and Pan, 2016). Thus, boundary objects aid in the negotiation of areas of overlap
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28 382 between multiple communities and are created from within field studies so that they may
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30 383 build and structure an ecology wherein each community can find its bearings and make
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32 384 headway (Trompette and Vinck, 2010).

33
34 385 Every engineering community understands human safety, and the design of marine
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36 386 operational systems in particular, differently. While human safety is robustly considered by
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38 387 each engineering community, flexibility, as a holistic feature of marine operations safety at
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40 388 large, is frequently misunderstood. For example, the traditional routes for designing safety
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42 389 marine operations (Vederhus and Pan, 2016) involve national and international regulations
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44 390 and the design of work procedures by marine engineers in order to train marine operators
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46 391 according to their experiences (e.g., their personal communications with marine engineers).
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48 392 Following this, engineering designers and human factors engineers work on constructing
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50 393 marine operational systems and their associated equipment so that they may place them
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394 within vessels. Work procedures can change depending on the training processes that are
 395 required to operate marine operational systems. However, while marine operators are trained
 396 to follow these work procedures with regards to safety concerns, they do not provide
 397 feedback on the design of marine operational systems or their application within marine
 398 operation safety during in-situ work practices. Thus, when safety issues or unusual work
 399 procedures present themselves during cooperative work practices, there exists a division
 400 between operators, human factors engineers, marine engineers, and engineering designers and
 401 their ability to cooperate on a specific design. In other words, marine engineers, engineering
 402 designers, and human factors engineers loosely contribute in the design of marine operation
 403 safety and only address safety issues within their individual communities of practice (see
 404 Figure 2).

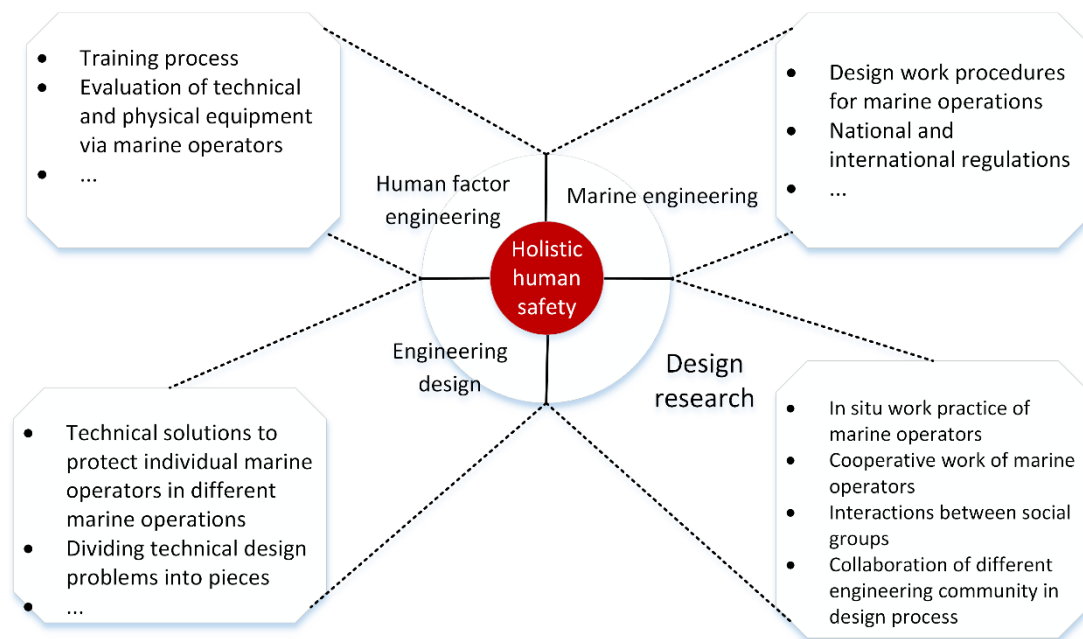


Figure 2: Human safety as a boundary object in marine operations.

408 In addition, the construction processes of marine operational systems follow the traditional
 409 developmental processes of systems engineering (Rigo et al., 2010). These can include the
 410 use of stakeholder wishes and requirements, without considering the in-situ work practices of

1 411 marine operators, by design engineers (Vederhus and Pan, 2016). Following this, design
2 412 engineers write these opinions and desires on small pieces of paper, stick them on a wall, and
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4 413 wait for their approval by human factors engineers. We believe that the in-situ cooperative
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7 414 work practices of marine operators are usually viewed as social factors that can be
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10 415 automatically excluded during developmental processes.

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12 416 It is difficult to bridge the gap between the social and engineering approaches to the
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14 417 developmental process (Dourish, 2006). Human safety does not fall easily into the categories
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17 418 of engineering design, marine engineering, or human factors engineering. Human safety is in
18
19 419 itself an object that can facilitate internal group interactions in a positive way (Trompette and
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21
22 420 Vinck, 2010). The elements of human safety are closely related to the competencies of the
23
24 421 different engineering fields (Trompette and Vinck, 2010). Therefore, human safety is
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27 422 represented in the different engineering communities by the technical errors that present
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29 423 themselves within marine operational systems (Backalov et al., 2016), interaction failures
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32 424 between marine operators and marine operational systems (Stanton, 2014), and
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34 425 communication faults (Pyne and Koester, 2005) that occur during maritime tasks. However,
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37 426 when a boundary object is applied as an analytical tool to evaluate human safety, it is
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39 427 important to note that human safety is also a holistic artifact that requires design researchers
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41 428 to incorporate the approaches of different engineering fields in the design of marine
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44 429 operations safety at large.

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46 430 While cooperative work between end users is a factor that has been largely dismissed in
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49 431 day-to-day engineering practices, Manzini (2015) argued that it remains an important issue.
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51 432 To develop socio-technical systems that support cooperative work, experts must co-design
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54 433 these systems using bottom-up processes that combine social and technological innovations.
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56 434 The work of marine operators and marine engineers needs to become visible. Because marine
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59 435 operations are unique and each operation has its own work procedure, they must be
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1 436 represented with field notes so that engineering designers can better understand the in-situ
2 437 work practices of marine operators. In addition, marine engineers should adjust work
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4 438 procedures and make the effort to inform engineering designers about manners of safety.
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7 439 Thus, boundary objects are useful analytical tools that can bring different engineering
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9 440 practices together while illustrating how cooperative operations can be framed as socio-
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11 441 technical systems that support holistic human safety.
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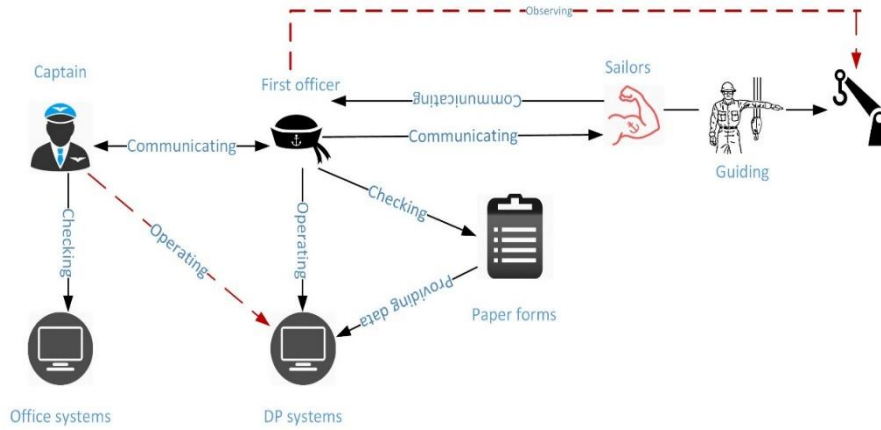
14 442 Below, we use a boundary object to analyze human safety within a series of vignettes,
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16 443 investigating how different engineering practices can contribute to incompatible approaches
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18 444 to safety within cooperative marine operations. We then establish human safety as a boundary
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20 445 object to inform the design of marine operational systems and affirm that these design
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22 446 processes require cooperation between marine engineers, marine operators, engineering
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24 447 designers, and human factors engineers.
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30 448 **6. Human safety issues in cooperative marine operations**

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33 449 DP operations are typically designed by an operator so that they adhere to the work
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35 450 procedures that are necessary to run the DP systems. However, according to the first officer's
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37 451 field work, these work procedures were expanded during the events that we recorded aboard
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39 452 the offshore vessel. DP operations and initial cooperative work involve the captain, the crane
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41 453 operator, and the sailors on deck and are comprised of paper forms, the communication
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43 454 systems, and the DP systems (see Figure 3). When positioning the vessel, the first officer is
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45 455 unable to communicate with the crane operator on the oil platform. It is therefore unsafe for
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47 456 the first officer to hand over his work to the captain, who operates the DP systems directly. In
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49 457 addition, when the captain initiates DP operations, the DP systems lack updated weather
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51 458 information. The captain is also unable to check the office systems since they are in a
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53 459 different location. However, safety issues typically do not arise during this type of field work
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55 460 because the first officer is tasked with observing the crane for the captain. In addition, he
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461 communicates with both the captain and the sailors on deck and checks for current weather
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2 462 data on the captain's behalf.
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23 465 Figure 3: DP operations
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26 466 Once the vessel reached the correct position, the first officer initiated the next marine
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28 467 operation, providing mud type I to the platform. In the meantime, the captain began guiding
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30 468 the sailors on deck to lower the containers. Following this, DP operations were joined with
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32 469 another set of marine service operations (see Figure 4). The captain and first officer
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34 470 participated in both teams and used their knowledge of each operation type to inform the
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36 471 other participants.
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41 472 When the ship received a call from the platform to stop delivering mud type I, operations
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43 473 had to make a change to enable the captain to sign and approve the change forms using the
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45 474 office systems, which were not synchronized with any portable devices at the captain's
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48 475 disposal. Thus, the captain needed to return to his office area to collect the email.
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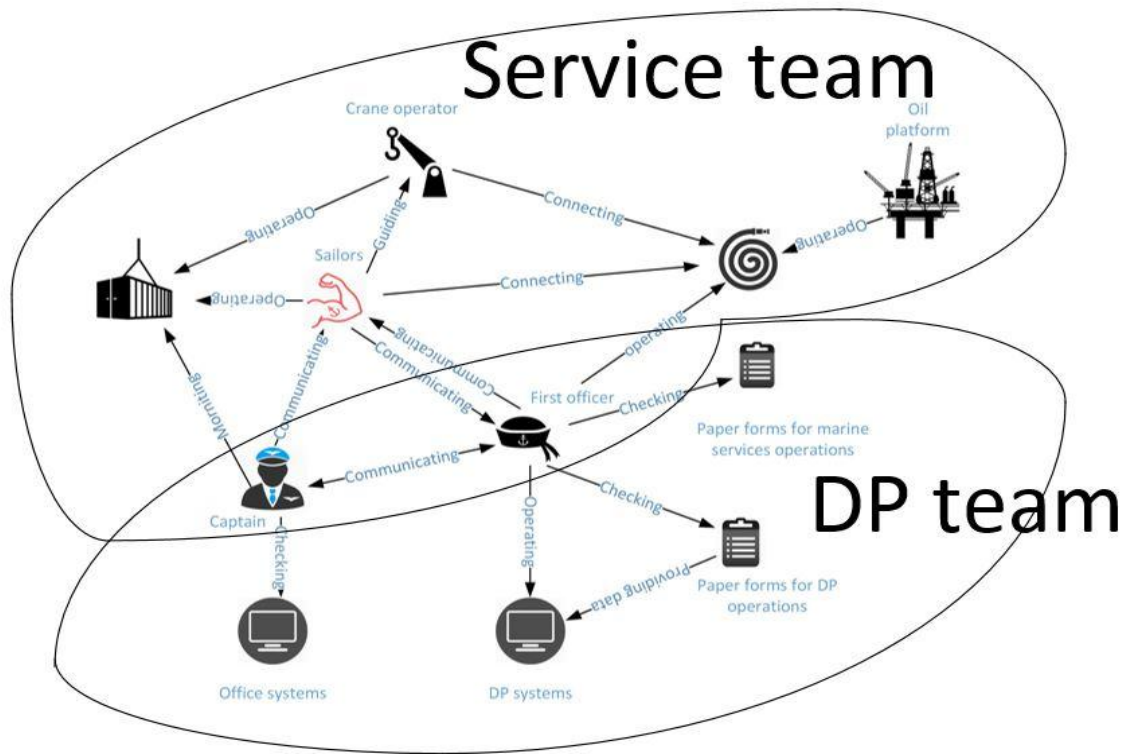


Figure 4: Marine services and DP operations

The first officer maintained the position of the vessel while acquiring the information he needed through the communications systems so that he could continue delivery of mud type I. He was also responsible for maintaining the vessel's balance through both the marine services and the DP systems. When a change request from the oil platform required a change from mud type I to VI, there was a lack of information. A lack of cooperative work between marine operators can raise safety issues that include technical errors, interaction failures, and communication faults. In turn, these can result in the destabilization of the vessel.

The first human safety issue that occurred was a technical error within the marine service systems when one of the pumps stopped working. Nevertheless, the first officer continued his duties until the mud type was changed:

The pump does not work for two days. I have to continue my work even though there is something wrong. For a little work, I do not think it will matter. I do not

491 know what will happen if we have to work with a platform for a long time to
1 492 provide mud.

2 493
3 494 While the first officer was aware of an error, he chose to ignore it. The captain went to the
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6 495 location of the office systems because the first officer was unable to change from one mud
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8 496 type to another without both the captain's and the shipping company's authority. Thus, the
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10 497 work of guiding and monitoring the containers shifted from the captain to the first officer,
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12 498 making the safety situation worse. It was an impossible task because the first officer could
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14 499 not communicate directly with the crane operator to lift the containers. In addition, the first
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16 500 officer and the captain had no information about the weight of the containers. While the crane
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18 501 operator knew this information, limited communication prevented the marine operators from
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21 502 gaining access to this information beforehand.

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25 503 When the captain left the marine service operations to check the office systems, the first
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27 504 officer had no way of updating his work with new information. In addition, he was unable to
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29 505 stop his work on DP or marine services or in his guiding and monitoring of the containers.
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31 506 Therefore, he continued work on these operations until he was no longer able to proceed.
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33 507 This paper's primary author interviewed both the first officer and the captain simultaneously
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35 508 after the shift in work duties that had come as result of the request to change mud type. When
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37 509 asked about the relationship between work capabilities and the safety issue of balancing the
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40 510 vessel, the captain responded as follows:

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45 511 No information can alert us to possible safety issues if I [the captain] leave my
46 512 work to him [the first officer]. Because if I have to get approval from the
47 513 company, I cannot wait for a long time; you know, we have already waited here
48 514 for a day. I need to save time for more operations. I just hand over my work for a
49 515 minute to him [the first officer]. I assume everything is good because this
50 516 imbalance issue does not happen often. This time [the imbalance issue] may be
51 517 because the containers are overweight.

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54 518 The primary author then asked if they were aware of the weight of those containers and if
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56 519 it was possible to gain access to that information beforehand. Both of them answered no.
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59 520 They only had access to a document that listed basic information about the containers, such
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1 521 as company names. The same applied to the work procedures for marine service operations.

2 522 They were not allowed to update paper forms for marine services due to a number of

3 523 regulations that had been set in place by the oil company. Although the office systems

4 524 received updates, this information was not shared with the first officer. As the captain

5 525 reported:

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12 526 The work plan for marine service operations is revised by the shipping company
13 527 and the oil company. However, the work plan may be revised again during
14 528 marine operations at sea. We have no idea when it will be changed. Also, I cannot
15 529 check it on my operational systems even though I have some screens here [in the
16 530 marine operational area]. When I sit here to work on service operations with the
17 531 first officer, I have to stop from time to time to see if there is a request from the
18 532 oil company This is quite annoying. You already saw, but I have to do it
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22 534 After he had taken responsibility for monitoring and guiding the containers, the first
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24 535 officer knew when he needed to communicate with the sailors on deck. As he was unaware of
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26 536 how much the container weighed, his guidance to the sailors on deck was incomplete. The
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28 537 primary author followed up with questions on this issue by asking the first officer if he had
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30 538 experience in handling two operations at the same time. The purpose of this question was to
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32 539 determine if the first officer lacked experience or if inexperience was even an issue. The first
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34 540 officer said:

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39 541 I have seven years' experience on marine operations, mainly working on the
40 542 bridge. I think this is not the first time I have seen imbalance issues. I
41 543 communicate with the sailors, but I am unable to tell them how to guide the crane
42 544 to place it in a specific place. Do you remember that there is an error in the
43 545 system? That is okay even though it is an error. However, most importantly, I
44 546 lack information about which side of the vessel is light, for example. We have
45 547 different types of muds, and they have different densities. I cannot get this
46 548 information from my DP and service systems. Therefore, I just use my experience
47 549 with the vessel. If the left side is high, then I give instructions to lower the left
48 550 side of the vessel, for example. I guide the sailors using my experience.
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52 552 The sailors on deck confirmed this. The author asked many of the sailors how they
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54 553 communicated with the crane operators on the oil platform about container information. One
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56 554 of those sailors responded:
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555 We have a communication system with the crane operator—gestures. However,
1 556 we do not have any information about the containers. Our work is to guide the
2 557 crane operator to place the container at the right place on deck. Gestures do not
3 558 tell us anything about the weight [of a container].
4 559

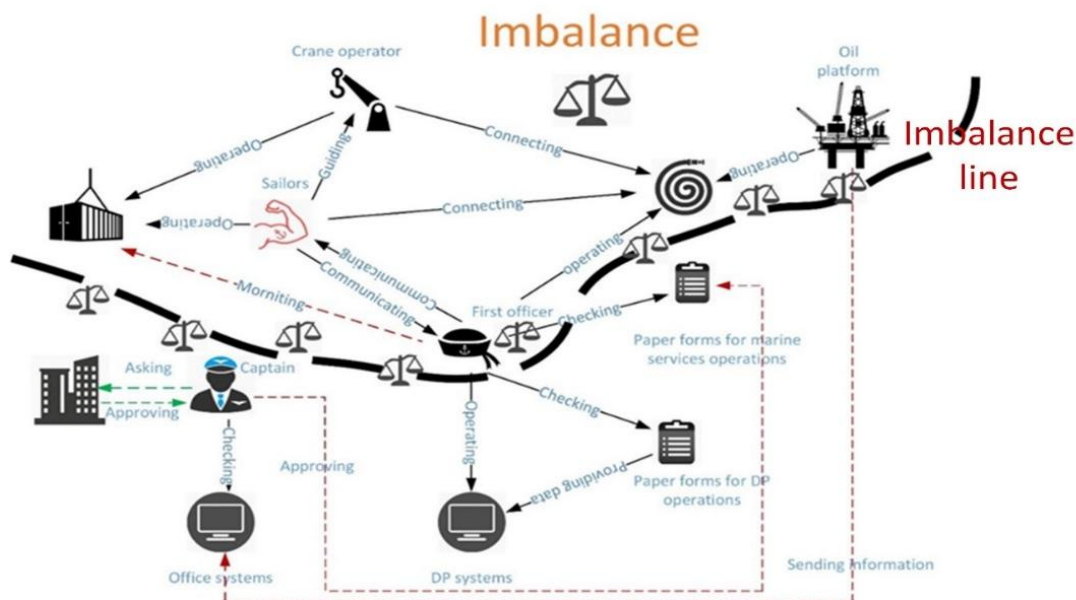
560 The primary author then referred back to the captain and the first officer to inquire about
7
8 561 the correct locations for the containers. The captain said:

10 562 I usually have a pre-planned form marked with different colors. I use that form to
11 563 guide sailors on deck as to where to place a container. However, it is just a paper
12 564 with some colors. It does not help much to balance the vessel. Because it does not
13 565 always match the information regarding what types of mud we have. Those two
14 566 things go hand-in-hand and must work together. That is a mathematical problem.
15 567 Well, it is in my experience.
16 568

19 569 Using the above analysis, we discovered safety issue that can occur during operational
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21 systems cooperation. When two operations focus solely on one piece of a scheduled work
22 570 procedure within marine operational systems, there are fewer safety issues because marine
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24 571 operators are aware of the complexity of marine operations and are trained to react properly
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26 572 to safety issues that occur during marine operations. In the above example, for instance, the
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28 573 first officer would have been able to safely run DP operations and provide mud to the
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30 574 platform. It should be noted that marine operators are trained to perform these solo operations
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32 575 via an interview that is administered on board every two years.
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38 577 However, imbalance issues (see Figure 5) occur when cooperative work fails to proceed
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40 smoothly. While there may be fewer technical errors in marine operational systems, and
41 578 fewer problems when marine operators interact with marine operational systems on an
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43 579 individual basis, human safety problems can arise when these pieces of distinct work are put
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45 580 together. In the above example, for instance, the captain would have been unable to approve
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47 581 the paper forms for marine service operations without permission from the shipping company
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49 582 (see red line in Figure 5). These problems can occur when the oil platform sends a digital
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51 583 request to the vessel (see red line between office systems and the oil platform in Figure 5).
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53 584 This type of request does not appear in the marine operational systems. As a result, the
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586 captain has less opportunity to check it during collaborative DP and marine service
 587 operations. This event also prevents the first officer from monitoring the containers (see red
 588 line in Figure 5). Therefore, according to our disciplinary perspective, there is a broken line
 589 between the cooperative work of the DP and marine service operations. This broken line
 590 indicates the limitations of engineering practices in their ability to adequately support human
 591 safety during the design of marine operational systems. While one may call this holistic
 592 human safety issue a typical event, this paper refers to the phenomenon as an imbalance line
 593 (see Figure 5).



594
 595 Figure 5: Imbalance occurs when a change request is received and the captain leaves to check
 596 and approve it. Red dotted lines indicate missing features in marine operational systems
 597 during human and non-human interactions.
 598

599 Human safety is a dynamic performance process that occurs between marine operators and
 600 marine operational systems. We found that safety issues rarely transpire during individual
 601 work practices because marine engineers, engineering designers, and human factors engineers
 602 are capable of planning marine operations with minimum human safety issues by debugging
 603 technical errors, applying good interaction styles, and preparing informative maritime course
 604 training once a marine operational system has been built. However, safety issues arise within

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605 cooperative marine operations when unusual issues, such as the changes to mud type in the
606 above example, emerge. These issues can impact anything from the work procedures of
607 marine operators to the technical aspects of marine operational systems.

608 Hence, although the first officer hands over his work to the captain, he also plays the role
609 of shift supervisor, coordinating information and communication to the captain (e.g.,
610 observing the crane and communicating with the sailors on deck). If we use the concept of
611 boundary object to analyze these safety issues, we can determine that human safety is a
612 boundary object that is well understood within each engineering community and that every
613 community holds different opinions and engineering standards in their approaches to safety.
614 Regardless, it is doubtful that engineers can solve human safety problems within a
615 cooperative work environment. We see that human safety problems in marine operational
616 systems can be solved individually within each engineering community and that human
617 safety is flexible enough for different engineering practices to effectively develop marine
618 technology for individual marine tasks, such as DP operations. However, human safety is not
619 supported when different marine operational systems come together for cooperative use, as
620 these collaborations lack communication and interaction between sub-tasks and are incapable
621 of producing revisions to the work procedures or engineering design processes of marine
622 operational systems.

623 **7. From vignette analysis to suggestions for the safe design of marine operational** 624 **systems**

625 7.1 Visualizing in-situ work practices

626 When a captain hands his work over to the first officer, the office systems should synchronize
627 the DP systems with real-time weather data. This is important for the first officer so that he
628 may keep the DP operations as safe as possible, which in turn can impact the success of the

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629 marine service operations. The sailors on deck who guide crane operations should have an
630 open communication channel with the crane operator. In addition, this channel should be
631 available to the first officer and the crane operator so that they may safely pump mud. It
632 would also help the first officer to learn how to shift mud inside the vessel so that he can
633 maintain balance during marine service operations. Furthermore, paper-based forms should
634 be updated to ensure that new and correct information is provided to both the captain and the
635 first officer. In the case that this paper explored, this would have allowed the captain to have
636 checked and approved the change request without increasing the workload of the first officer.

637 Marine service systems should provide information about a vessel's balance status, or at
638 least reveal to the first officer the amount of mud that needs to be shifted from a certain
639 container to another in order to balance the vessel. If human safety is related to the internal
640 relationship between marine operators and marine operational systems at the individual level,
641 then holistic human safety is related to the external relationship between various marine tasks
642 at the cooperative work level. As an example, when the DP system expands to become
643 integrated with marine service operations, the first officer becomes involved with the internal
644 human safety of DP operations. In addition, he is simultaneously involved in marine service
645 operations with the captain and other crew members, such as the sailors on deck. This
646 expanded role can result in minor safety issues as the first officer may become overwhelmed
647 by these additional duties. A technical error in the marine service systems may not be a DP
648 operations' issue. However, as this internal error can interfere with cooperative work
649 performance, it will also not be an isolated error.

650 This paper's primary author examined the internal relationship between marine operators
651 and marine operational systems and the external relationship between various marine tasks at
652 the cooperative level with the marine operators by asking them, "How do you understand the
653 role of human safety in cooperative marine operations?" They answered as follows:

654 First officer: If I could have real-time information regarding my operations, both
1 655 DP operations and marine service operations, I could manage both operations
2 656 safely. I also need a clear communication channel between the crane operator and
3 657 myself, between the sailors on deck and myself. In that case, I could confirm the
4 658 information that I need to do my work. I think that is very important. Thus,
5 659 safety, for me means I can successfully operate those computer systems internally
6 660 and deal with my colleagues. Then I can exchange information and communicate
7 661 with others for cooperation.
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11 663 Sailors on deck: We think communication is very important. We need to
12 664 know who we are talking to and what information we need to pass on. We also
13 665 need to know the work plan in order to position the containers in the right places
14 666 if this is changed. We may not need to know how the crane operator works, but
15 667 we want to make our own work better and show safety to others.
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18 669 Captain: I think it is important to have good interactions with information
19 670 between different working groups. If I can approve the change request
20 671 immediately here rather than trotting back and forth, and if I can also control the
21 672 DP systems with correct information, then I think it is will be safer and more
22 673 effective for the safety of everyone. I also think not all information needs to come
23 674 to me to process and control because I am also on my own operation and I have to
24 675 focus on my work. With good technical systems, skilled crews, and great
25 676 communication systems for exchanging information, I believe we would have
26 677 good safety.
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30 679 Safety in cooperative marine operations is understood by marine operators as the material
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33 680 they use that surrounds them as they cooperate with others. In their opinion, they need to use
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35 681 the correct resources rather than be issued orders to properly complete tasks. In their
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38 682 understanding, human safety is a process that occurs in both the technical and human
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40 683 domains. To a create a safe and cooperative environment for their operations and each other,
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43 684 they focus on technical problems and adapt to their own and the technical system's
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45 685 performances. As the first officer noted:
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47 686 Our team, for example, the captain and I [the first officer], may not be familiar
48 687 with others in most operations in a year. Hence, human safety in my
49 688 understanding is how your work can cooperate with others and their
50 689 environments safely.
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53 691 While this statement is speaking on behalf of marine operators, it also confirms that the
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56 692 tools and systems they use play a part in cooperative work. Marine operators are experts in
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58 693 their field. As a result, marine operational systems should provide solo operations for
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694 cooperative work operations but also allow for autonomous relationships to form between
695 different operations' cooperators. This understanding creates a space where human safety is
696 robust enough to enable different engineering communities to work on an operation
697 according to their own standards and internal relationships (see inside the circles, red lines,
698 and mutual ways (shared practices between different engineering communities) in Figure 6).
699 (Lampland and Star, 2009). It should also be flexible enough to produce a holistic
700 understanding of the external relationships (Burman, 2004) that exist within cooperative
701 marine operations (see the broken black line in Figure 6).

702 As an example, sailors need to communicate both verbally with crane operators and with
703 gestures (see red line in Figure 5). Crane operators also need to communicate with the oil
704 platform in order to assist the first officer, who can then obtain information regarding the
705 services he is working on (see red line in Figure 5). In addition, the captain should be able to
706 approve marine service operation forms digitally and without the need to relocate to a
707 separate location. The shipping company should also be able to access the office systems on
708 the ship's bridge and approve requests sent by the captain. In other words, office systems
709 should not be isolated from marine operational systems. Rather, office systems should be
710 improved to assist both the captain and the first officer in their working positions of the
711 marine operational area. In sum, human safety should be transferred from a high level of
712 cooperative operations to marine service operations, DP operations, and office operations as
713 three individual digital environments (see three circles in Figure 6) with their own marine
714 operators and operational systems.

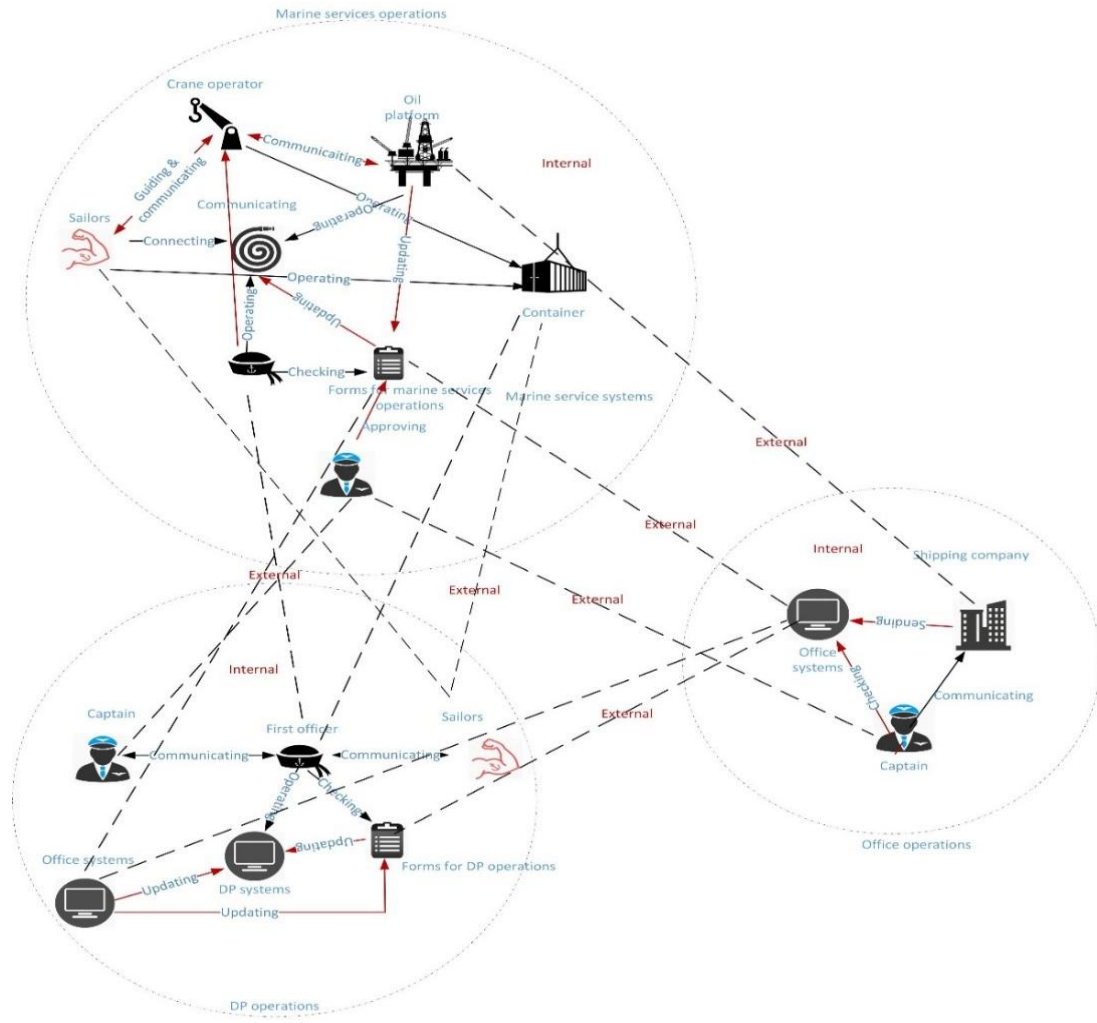


Figure 6: Marine operational systems for internal and external relationships

8. Integrating engineering communities' practices in the support of marine operations safety design

Through our analysis, marine operations safety may no longer require engineering designers and human factors engineers to prepare marine operational systems, nor for marine engineers to train marine operators in work procedures that adhere to the rules for different marine tasks that are covered by marine operational systems. In situ work enables the use of field work as an engineering practice. Its usage can remind maritime engineers that pre-planned work procedures may not be suitable for professional marine operators. Work procedures should be

1 725 revised to match the in situ cooperative work of marine operators who are involved in marine
2 726 operational systems. Design researchers should engage in cooperative work environments
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4 727 and observe and interview marine operators to better understand what constitutes cooperative
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7 728 work and how cooperative safety can be formed for every marine task. By reshaping
8
9 729 operation systems to support safe and cooperative work, this activity can aid in the design of
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11 730 marine operational systems so that they better support holistic human safety. This type of
12
13 731 research could also help in the identification of improvements that can be made to the
14
15 732 individual engineering community's practices and technical equipment, decreasing the rate of
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17 733 technical errors, interaction failures, and communication faults. Finally, these steps could
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19 734 allow researchers to better support individual work practices within operational systems.
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24 735 It is worth noting that the design of marine operations safety is an iterative process. For
25
26 736 instance, field studies can aid in the development of knowledge about marine operators' in-
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28 737 situ work practices prior to the establishment of a unique cooperative work environment. The
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30 738 in-situ work practices of operators can reveal problems that exist within current cooperative
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32 739 work environments. They can also lead to better design in the positioning of new functions,
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34 740 new operators, and new work procedures.
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39 741 The design of cooperative work environments requires engineering communities to
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41 742 transfer more than their design and engineering activities. Design research and engineering
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43 743 studies must work together to form a more holistic understanding of human safety and work
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45 744 practices. Practices in the engineering communities could benefit from a richer discussion
46
47 745 about the stabilization of socio-technical systems by encouraging design researchers,
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49 746 engineering designers, human factors engineers, and marine engineers to collaborate in the
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51 747 production of socio-technical innovations that can improve cooperative work.
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56 748 Supporting human safety in the practices of engineering communities requires the creation
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58 749 of a boundary object (Ellinas et al., 2016). Researchers have supported the value of enabling
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1 750 engineering communities to share their practices with other communities (Petersen and Buch,
2 751 2016). This can be achieved by applying knowledge (Buch, 2016) that exists outside of the
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4 752 current ecology of engineering work. The primary author of this paper is an advocate of
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7 753 Schmidt's (2011) paper, which asserted that collaborative engineering communities should
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9 754 enable socio-technical innovations from the bottom-up so that they involve professionals in
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11 755 the field and make their performances visible during the developmental processes of socio-
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13 756 technical systems. In addition, collaborative engineering communities could successfully
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15 757 cooperate with other research fields in an effort to bring about new ideas and encourage other
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17 758 organizations to share information across boundaries that exist between the engineering
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19 759 communities. Engineering work requires a considerable amount of reporting from the field, in
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21 760 addition to the formation of relationships that are based on negotiations for maneuverability
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23 761 between different engineering communities. Field work can shed light on the development of
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25 762 technical systems that support cooperative work practices, which can improve human safety.
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31 If human safety is considered to be a part of the greater picture of engineering community
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33 764 practices that incorporate both individual and cooperative work, traditional engineering in the
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35 765 maritime domain may change during the design of systems that support cooperative work.
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37 766 Design researchers observe in-situ work practices to make cooperative work visible. These
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39 767 work practices are solidly embodied by the performances of marine operators and can offer
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41 768 non-technical knowledge to marine engineers who typically do not address them in their
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43 769 work. As Vinck (2014) asserted, "field work can emphasize the importance of the dynamics
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45 770 of interaction and exchange between actors, the production and circulation of multiple
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47 771 intermediary objects, and the building of the compromises between actor professionals with
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49 772 varying viewpoints." In summary, actors become connected through the definition of
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51 773 problems, the integration of knowledge, and the search for solutions and their
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53 774 implementation. The practices of engineering communities include reports about daily work
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1 775 tasks. These reports refer to the ways in which people make use of their work skills and share
2 776 their perspectives by pointing out details. Engineering community practices thus involve the
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4 777 collective knowledge of multiple actors so that they may benefit from both tacit- and formal-
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7 778 types of knowledge.
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10 779 In sum, when design researchers engage in field work, they are able to map out problems
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12 780 related to technical issues and work procedures through observations and interviews. On the
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14 781 one hand, these efforts can inform marine engineers to modify their work procedures so that
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17 782 they align with the in-situ cooperative work practices of marine operators who are attempting
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19 783 to address safety concerns. These endeavors can also compel marine engineers to take part in
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22 784 the development of marine operations safety rather than isolating them from the process as
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24 785 these work procedures are created. As mentioned, work procedures are dynamically related to
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27 786 the in-situ work practices of marine operators. It is therefore important that marine engineers
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29 787 be involved in marine operations safety design so that the in-situ work practices of marine
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32 788 operators and the work procedures of marine engineers each contribute to the design of
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34 789 marine operational systems for engineering designers and human factors engineers. On the
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36 790 other hand, these efforts can influence engineering designers and human factors engineers to
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39 791 make changes to marine operational systems that better support cooperative safety practices,
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41 792 and which are based on field work and new working procedures rather than the development
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44 793 of operational systems that only support the work of individual operators, amongst marine
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46 794 operators.
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49 795 Marine operational systems support marine operations safety. It is therefore vital that
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51 796 marine operational systems are designed to consider the in-situ work practices of marine
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53 797 operators. By observing the in-situ work practices of marine operators and collecting
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56 798 knowledge from marine engineers and design researchers, marine operational systems can
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58 799 adopt a holistic approach to human safety for the engineering practices of design and human
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1 800 factors engineers. Cooperation between these different actors (design researchers, marine
2 801 engineers, engineering designers, human factors engineers, and marine operators) involves
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4 802 the occurrence of multiple activities at specific times and places. According to Suchman
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7 803 (2000), these times and places are interwoven with the network or relationship that actors
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9 804 strive to connect. As boundary objects are created from within field study, the process of
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11 805 conducting field studies reveals that human safety is comprised of the actors who are
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13 806 involved, the systems and equipment that are used, and the way that cooperative work is
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15 807 carried out.
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21 808 **9. Conclusions**

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23 809 In order to adopt a holistic view of human safety in the design of marine operations, this
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25 810 paper employed boundary object to analyze the concept. By evaluating a series of vignettes,
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27 811 the paper determined that human safety can be identified and supported within each
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29 812 engineering community's practices. However, human safety does not address the in-situ work
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31 813 practices of cooperative marine operators who perform marine operations. Indeed, there is a
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33 814 gap that exists between marine operators, marine engineers, engineering designers, and
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35 815 human factors engineers during the design of marine operational systems that are built to
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37 816 support holistic human safety within cooperative marine operations. Thus, we promoted the
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39 817 collaboration between design researchers who engage in field work and marine operators who
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41 818 promote human safety. We then used this partnership as a boundary object, wherein marine
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43 819 engineers, design researchers, marine operators, engineering designers, and human factors
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45 820 engineers could cooperate in the design of holistic marine operations safety. In this manner,
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47 821 human safety can be designed by using the work procedures and in-situ work practices of
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49 822 marine operators to inform the design of marine operational systems that support safety
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51 823 within cooperative operations.
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