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Why not women seafarers? : towards a development strategy for the recruitment and retention of women seafarers in cargo ships with particular reference to the Republic of Korea

So-Hyun Jo
World Maritime University

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The contexts of this dissertation reflect my own personal views, and are not necessarily endorsed by the University

Signature: __________________________

Date: 30, August, 2010

Supervised by: Professor Neil Bellefontaine
World Maritime University

Assessor: Assistant Professor Jan Horck
World Maritime University

Co-assessor: Pamela Tansey
Deputy Director, Technical Cooperation Division,
International Maritime Organization
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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: Why not women seafarers? Towards a development strategy for the recruitment and retention of women seafarers in cargo ships with particular reference to the Republic of Korea

Degree: Master of Science

Women seafarer numbers are increasing in the world’s fleets in the position of officers, ratings and pilots in many types of merchant ships. According to recent study, women represent only 1-2 percent of the 1.25 million seafarers in the world. However, despite increasing women seafarers working onboard are only rising slightly, there are very few studies concerning women seafarers on cargo ships.

The prime objective set for thesis is to identify what are the women seafarers problems and concerns regarding employment on cargo ships. From the cargo ship point of view, the question then is how to provide sufficient solutions for women seafarers in the male-dominated workplace of the ship through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities.

The methodologies of study combine qualitative and quantitative research methods. The progress of research is to conduct a survey by asking a consistent set of key opinion leaders from the Rep. of Korea. Moreover, to evaluate the elements of the result, the research explores the way in which we should consider giving priority to aspects of the problem. Finally, based on the terms of CSR, the author recommends measures to support the needs of women when they are employed aboard the world’s merchant vessels.

KEY WORDS: Women seafarers, Shortage seafarers, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), Gender issues, Discrimination, Sexual harassment, Working Environment.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BIMCO        Baltic and International Maritime Council
CSR          Corporate Social Responsibility
ILO          International Labour Organization
IMO          International Maritime Organization
ISF          International Shipping Federation
ITCP         Organization’s Integrated Technical Co-operation Programme
ITF          International Trade Federation
IWMS         Integration of Women in the Maritime Sector
JITI & NF     Japan International Transport Institute & the Nippon Foundation
KIMFT        Korea Institute of Maritime and Fisheries Technology
KMU          Korea Maritime University
KSWEC        Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center
MET          Maritime Education and Training Institutions
MMU          Mokpo Maritime University
POEA         Philippine overseas Employment Administration
SMU          China’s Shanghai Maritime University
SPSS         Statistical package for the social science
SIRC         Seafarers International Research Centre
VTS          Vessel Traffic Service
WID          Women in Development
UN           United Nations
Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Preamble

In 2000, a woodchip carrier grounded and bottom touched in Bell Bay, Tasmania. When a ship passed near Clay Bay, suddenly the Vessel Traffic Service (VTS) operator called the ship to inform of very poor visibility over the channel due to dense fog in the particular areas. However, unfortunately, it was too late as visibility was almost zero when the ship faced fog near Clay Bay.

As soon as the VTS call was received, the pilot and duty officer obviously were embarrassed to figure a ship’s position out of the radar so quickly. In an instant, the ship ran aground on the buoy of channel with a whole starboard side shell and bottom. Finally, the ship’s damage extended from her starboard bow to the stern side shell and bottom. The worst damage was a hole in the bottom fore peak tank.

“After the accident, I was glassy-eyed from shock. I was timely afraid of being involved in a ship’s accident during my duty time on my first voyage. My heart was great beating and I was in a miserable state from this accident. If possible, I wanted to escape this entire horrible situation and go home. Other reason, It seemed that someone were likely to lash out and press me close. And then, they could prove a taboo from women being onboard a ship, which has solely withstood a traditional male dominated occupation. Because many man believe that women board is a taboo in the shipping world, as it might come a terrible ship disaster or accident of a serious and/or minor nature”

A duty officer recounted these situations and she said,

“No one blamed me the as the direct cause of accident, however, I became a workaholic working on my own, I became rude, straightforward, no makeup, and
try to be masculine since the accident happened. I shaved my head and wore a dirty boiler suit while working as a sign I was part of them. Yes, I tried to not show my feelings and emotions and covered them up. I didn’t apply to take a my vacation during my 18 months onboard the ship due given I was afraid that if I did apply, the company would not employ me anymore’’

Unfortunately, the duty officer is the author of this paper. The author intends to investigate the question as to why a duty officer who is a women seafarer felt scared and tried to exhibit a masculine approach to her workplace instead of accepting her feminine sexuality in this situation. The author intends to investigate the issue of female seafarers and how they are perceived onboard ship and would then like to find sufficient answers leading to the conclusion of this paper.

1.2 Introduction

Women seafarer numbers are increasing in the world’s fleets in the position of officers, ratings and pilots in many types of ship such as cruise ships, bulk carriers and tankers. According to a recent study, Belcher, P., Sampson H., Thomas M., Veiga J., and Zhao M. (2003), women represent only 1-2 percent of the 1.25 million seafarers in the world. Moreover, the study indicates that 94 percent of women are employed on passenger ships\footnote{The study by Belcher et al. (2003) found 94 percent of women are employed on passenger ships. If passenger shipping is divided into cruise and ferry ship types, 68 percent of all the women are employed on ferries and 26 percent on cruise ships.} and 6 percent are employed on cargo ships.

However, despite the slight increase of women seafarers working onboard, there are few studies concerning women seafarers indicating that there has been insufficient progress especially on cargo ships. Kitada (2009b) states that there is very little information
regarding women seafarers in general, including the actual population size. In addition, the author has been researching and investigating these studies regarding women seafarers, however, most of these studies focus on passenger ships or cruise ships, not cargo ships. It is difficult to find relevant studies regarding women seafarers in the world, including in Korea.

The only available statistical analyses regarding to women seafarers are published by Belcher, et al. in 2003\(^2\). In accordance with ILO (2007), it introduced the above mentioned study as more comments highlight a new ILO study as well as describing that the study assesses the overall aspects of a women seafarer’s life; including how many women are employed aboard ships, and then nationality by group.

In the case of Korea, despite women being aboard ship since 1995, all aspects of the study of Korean women seafarers has not sufficiently addressed policies on how to women seafarers onboard. Few existing studies are available so far regarding reality for many women who work onboard on cargo ships. Possibly it is natural that these studies focus on male or overall seafarers rather than women seafarers because women coming onboard in just a few past years as a pioneer step and occupy 1-2 percent among all the seafarers of the world.

However, despite a few studies regarding women seafarers especially on cargo ships, in order to put more women at sea, the author would say that it is necessary to carry out research and address firstly where women seafarers are. In other words, attempting to harness the data and the results of research regarding women seafarers, it might be understood exactly how women seafarers’ world is evolving.

In accordance with my literature review and relevant survey through both questionnaires and in-depth interviews, this study reveals that some women seafarers continue to face discrimination, prejudice and difficulties to work in the male-dominated workplace (Aggrey, 2000) of cargo ships. Even though some women seafarers are employed onboard, most of them tend to transfer their occupation to on shore under shipping enterprises. What are the most significant women seafarer problems on ships? What are the solutions and problems concerning recruitment and retention of a woman seafarer’s occupation? Is not the ship a proper work place for women?

The prime objective set for this thesis is to identify what women seafarers problems are and concerns employment on cargo ships. The cargo ship point of view, the question then is how to provide solutions for women seafarers in the male-dominated workplace of the ship through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities. Therefore, it is worth noting overwhelmingly that to achieve this change dynamic, there is a need for attitudinizing change towards recruiting women as seafarers. Such changes, if implemented, might also attract more women to seafaring as a career. Further, Women are an underutilized and available resource of maritime talent which the shipping sector needs to draw the balance upon to seafarer’s shortfall (ILO, 2007).

Thus, it might be worthwhile to conduct some solutions and policies concerning the recruitment and retention of women into the seafarer labour market in Korea; as well as promote plans for women seafarers in the future.

1.3 Dissertation Methodology

Therefore, to achieve the full objective of this dissertation it is intended to address the main issues surrounding the recruitment and retention of women seafarers in Korea,

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3 See Chapter 7, Corporate Social Responsibility
while providing some analysis of women seafarers' statistics or/and databases. The methodologies of study combine qualitative and quantitative research methods. The progress of research is to conduct a survey by asking some a consistent set of key opinion leaders from the Rep. of Korea. Through telephone and questions, in-depth interviews were used as the major means of research according to individual participant preference. Although the response of questionnaires and data were only collected from a limited number of seafarers, these individuals were carefully selected with the view of considerable experience at sea.

With this result, the author conducted a Frequency Analysis and Cross Tabs Analysis in Chapter 5, ‘Survey’ on respondents of the sample questionnaires through a Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS version 12 for Korean)\(^4\). In addition, the research seeks the best solution among those various elements from the statistical analysis tools in Chapter 6. This step can help to make the right decision of how to find the one that best suits their needs and what support could be provided in order to improve life for women seafarers. Moreover, to evaluate the elements of the result, the research will explore the way in which we should consider giving priority to the aspects of the problem. Finally, based on the terms of CSR in Chapter 7, the author recommends measures to support the needs of women when they are employed aboard the world’s merchant vessels in Chapter 8.

1.4 Woman seafarers’ historiography in the world

According to Belcher et al. (2003), in the post-1945 period women began to appear regularly as crew members aboard cargo ships, most often on Swedish ships as stewardesses, cooks and radio officers. The study reviewed the history of women

\(^4\) Statistical package for the social science (SPSS): computer program used for statistical analysis.
seafarers has existed over long period. In the late 1960s, a significant event was the first women that were recruited as officer cadets and this was mainly in response to the shortfall of male seafarers in Europe. It could be noted these instances may have been seen as pioneering steps, yet the fact remains that companies still preferred to hire male seafarers. From the mid-1980s, the shipping industry lessened this interest in recruiting women because of an overcapacity problem with a new source of male seafarers from Asia and Europe. In the late 1990s, when the industry began to experience more serious difficulties in recruiting men as seafarers, attention did again return to the recruitment of women. Since the late 1990s, there has been a growing interest in training and recruiting women seafarers. This is largely connected to the perceived shortages of officers in the world fleets, including the Republic of Korea.

1.4.1 Participation of women seafarers in Korea

The shipping and maritime industry overall has been dramatically developed since the Korean War in the 1950s. Industrial restructuring has occurred at least five times over the past 30-40 years since the Korean government adopted ‘a strategy of economic development’ in 1964 (Cho, 2002). The Korean government came to the conclusion that a drastic change of policy was necessary to overcome those economic difficulties after the Korean War. Moreover, since then, the Korean government has recognized that the key sector for industrial growth in general was to invest in the maritime industries (Kim, 1999). Consequently, the Korean government paid attention to the importance of developing and investing in shipping and the maritime field for the country’s rapid economic and industrial growth. For these reasons, the Korean government began to concentrate on this growth strategy. They set up industrial facilities; established new ports, larger ship building yards, container terminals, a related logistic infrastructure, as well as wisely investing in shipping companies, shipbuilding businesses, and port & logistics professional education (Ibid).
As a result of these efforts, Korea’s maritime economy and technology grew fast in the 1960s to 1990s. Consequently, with the outcome of the maritime industry’s fast economic and technological growth, the demand for maritime labor increased, at that time, as the Korean government had made efforts to strengthen technical and professional training courses for related merchant work and thus, the number of suppliers who wanted to seek marine jobs was also sufficient. However, the numbers of job seekers did not satisfy the overall demand. The government acknowledged there were still all of these problems to be ironed out, so they began to make an active effort to search for solutions to the problem relevant to the supply of and demand for seafarers.

One of the solutions was to allow female students to enter the Korea College of Maritime Sciences of Korean Maritime University (KMU) that was a male-dominated institution for men until 1991. This new policy was based on changing social trends and the needs to give an opportunity for high quality education to future workers. Further the new government policy wanted to improve and develop gender equality. Consequently, one female student entered the KMU in 1991 and graduated in 1995 as the first woman Navigation Officer (3rd class) in Korea.

1.4.2 Breaking the all male-tradition in the maritime sector

As previously mentioned, the KMU was opened to female students in 1991 and, since then, the five female students graduated from the University in 1995, and contributed by working onboard as deck officers or engineer officers in major shipping companies. The female seafarers have been a significant starting point for women by encouraging and

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5 Korea College of Maritime Sciences of Korean Maritime University is the first national university established by the Korean government in order to advance the country’s development, as well as to train and educates manpower with a variety of skills in maritime industry in Korea. Students who have passed the national exam for the Marine Navigation Officer’s License while attending the class are eligible to acquire the license at the time of graduating from Korea College of Maritime Sciences of Korean Maritime University (source from: http://english.hhu.ac.kr/english/03/01.jsp)
installing confidence in them so they are able to go to sea as equal seafarers in a male dominated environment. They have broken the all-male tradition which was a place perceivably off-limits to females. Unsurprisingly, this of course was considered a significant social issue and came to the forefront in the Korean media. The subject of women seafarers in Korea as well in the global sense is no longer a new one.

Thereafter, female students have continued to graduate from the KMU and also the Mokpo Maritime University (MMU). Currently, the total number of female students is 887 women as identified in Table 1. However, according to this research\(^6\), women who have obtained seafarer-officer license and currently work onboard ship represent no more than approximately 50 women\(^7\) in the specific period time until 2010, 5.6 percent of females having graduated from the Maritime University in Korea accordingly.

### 1.4.3 The Status of Women graduating from the maritime university in Korea

The total number of graduated female students from the Korea College of Maritime Sciences is 464 today according to Table 1. Further female admission was limited to 10 percent of the students entering the Korea College of Maritime Sciences among 400 students total capacity per year under the entrance regulation policy. However, under a more recent entrance regulation policy it has currently admitted up to 15 percent females from the total number of students.

In the case of MMU, it has allowed up to 10 percent female admissions since 1999. The total number of graduated female students is 388 female as identified in Table 1. However, MMU announced in 2008 its plans to enhance the opportunity for admissions of female students based upon a recommendation of the National Human Rights

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\(^6\) This telephone survey included major shipping companies, seafarers manning companies during 21-24 June, 2010.

\(^7\) See chapter 3 ‘The trend of women seafarers’ employment.
Commission of Korea, which supports a progressive increase in female students (Kim, 2008).

Table 1 Status of graduated Maritime University female students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Korea Maritime University</th>
<th>Mokpo Maritime University</th>
<th>Total women students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male students</td>
<td>Women students</td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5443</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Source 2: Mokpo University & Korea Maritime University

Further, there are similar examples of low female participation in global marine and nautical schools or Institutions, where the ratio of male to female students represented is
95:5 in the Netherlands and 96:4 in both Germany and the United Kingdom (Belcher et al., 2003).

According to the study by Belcher et al. (2003), it is observed that the proportion of enrolled female students among MET institutions in 2001 averages 10.8 percent females against the total number of students among 13 MET institutions\(^8\). In fact, its data includes the crucial meaning that the participation of females in MET institutions is at a low level in general. As aforementioned in paragraph 1.4.2, the total number of women seafarers currently employed on cargo ships compared to the total number of female graduated students currently seafarers employed on cargo ships, represents only a few percent. The author raises the question as to how the female work force can be more efficiently utilized in the maritime labor market; is being the main factor to increase employment and ensure women are retained to support an equal gender work environment as discussed in later chapters.

This research explores what estimate the supply and demand for seafarers is in terms of global and national prospects in Chapter 2. Next in Chapter 3, how many women seafarer are employed in worldwide merchant ships by type is classified of ship and average number of seafarers, as well as in the Korea labour market. Also the preference trend of maritime university students regarding seafaring is presented. Further, in Chapter 4, the international effort to develop and improve women’s capacity through IMO’s activities inter alia is considered with a focus focuses on the effort toward women in development by the Technical Cooperation Committee (TC). Consequently, the author has conducted a survey of women who have experience at sea and are current

\(^8\) 13 MET institutions: FNB(Spain), SMU(China), CIAGA(Brazil), ITUMF(Turkey), AMA(Belgium), TUMM(Japan), FMST(Slovenia), ENMM(France), SMS(Sweden), CMU(Romania), SIMA(Denmark), ENIDH(Portugal), GCMS(United Kingdom), Source from Belcher, P., Sampson H., Thomas M., Veiga J., & Zhao M. (2003). Women Seafarers: global employment policies and practices. pp 14, table 5 (Women students enrolled in MET institutions in 2001).
seafarers to identify the problems relating to recruitment and retention of female seafarers in Chapter 5. In Chapter 6, the author analyses the result of questionnaires and in-depth interviews to provide a breakthrough to these problems, as well as the way to improve the work environment surrounding these seafarers lives at sea.

Finally, through the results of the survey and analysis, the author responds answers in Chapter 7 according to previous questions from the beginning of this paper: why a duty officer who is a female seafarer would feel afraid so that she tries to be masculine in her work place instead of accepting her feminine characteristics as in a normal work environment. However, the conclusion focuses on CSR to improve the working environment for women seafarers, in order to recruit and retain them as seafarers.
2.1 The present world commercial fleets

80 percent of world trade is carried by seaborne trade (UNCTAD, 2009). Without reservation, the seaborne trade by commercial fleets is a crucially important factor to transfer high volumes of cargo. Under such circumstances, the number of seafarers is important as contributors that enables us to maritime safety, and prevent pollution keep environment clean.

Before examining the worldwide maritime labour market for seafarers, a review of today’s’ commercial fleet trends is in order. According to Bansal (2009), shipping tonnage increased from 85 million gross tonnages in 1948 to over 685 million gross tonnages by 2007.

A other report, the Review of Maritime Transport by UNCTAD (2009), reported in 2009 that the deadweight tonnage of oil tankers increased by 2.5 percent and that of bulk carriers by 7.0 percent from January 2008 to 2009. The fleet of container ships grew by 17.3 million deadweight, or 11.9 percent. Other specialized types of ships have also indicated high growth rates such as the tonnage of liquefied gas carriers grew by 21.1 percent, and that of offshore supply vessels grew by 9.1 percent. The tonnage on general cargo ships has increased by 7 percent, dry and liquid bulk tonnage by 52 and 48 percent relatively, and containerized tonnage by an impressive 154 percent.

Also according to Jordan (2010), an analysis of global fleet statistics for the International Union of Marine Insurance in 2010, the number of tanker fleets, bulk carrier fleets and container fleet have continued their growth as identified in Figure 1. In addition, Figure 2 describes the combination of all the number of merchant fleets in
order to identify this vividly. Figures indicate the trends of world fleet growth and vessel types.

![Figure 1](image1.png)  ![Figure 2](image2.png)

**Figure 1** Historical development of a number of fleets in the world

**Figure 2** Historical development of a number of fleets in the world- Tanker, Bulk carrier, Containership and Multipurpose Fleet
Overall, the world fleet has only slightly increased nowadays as evidenced in the above data and figures. Meanwhile, the international shipping industry is facing a shortage of seafarers despite the increase in the worldwide fleet, which is a similar phenomenon affecting the Korean maritime labor market. Absolutely, the growing shortage of seafarers has become a hot issue of global concern in recent years.

2.2 Demands for seafarers in the world

2.2.1 Calculation of the demand for seafarers 2010 and 2020

A new study by the Japan International Transport Institute & the Nippon Foundation (JITI & NF) (2010) identified how the unexpected elements of recent history have affected what was previously taken to be a major shortfall in seafarers (Leander, 2010). According to the study of JITI & NF which has been referred to Lloyd’s Register-Fairplay, the total number of world fleets in January 2010 was 35,623 ships as per Table 2.

Table 2  The number of world fleets by ship size (GRT) and ship type in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gross Tonnage</th>
<th>Tanker</th>
<th>Bulk Carrier</th>
<th>Dry Cargo &amp; Passenger</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2,000-4,999</td>
<td>2,432</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>6,185</td>
<td>8,984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000-9,999</td>
<td>1,454</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>4,206</td>
<td>6,034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000-49,999</td>
<td>3,444</td>
<td>6,249</td>
<td>5,976</td>
<td>15,669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,000-99,999</td>
<td>1,436</td>
<td>981</td>
<td>1,461</td>
<td>3,878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000-149,999</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>150,000-1999,999</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200,000 and over</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (%)</td>
<td>9,517(26.7)</td>
<td>8,153(22.9)</td>
<td>17,953(50.4)</td>
<td>35,623(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, according to the JITI & NF (2010) study, it is estimated that the demand for seafarers in the world fleets in 2010 as multiplied by the setting of standard manning numbers of ship type and size with the total number of world fleets is as follows in Table 2 and Table 3. The result of the multiplication of Table 2 and in Table 3 is as identified Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3 Setting of standard manning numbers by ship type and size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ship type</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000-7,999 GT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VLCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LNG Tanker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPG/Chemical/Product Tanker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Tanker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulk Carrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Container</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Dry Cargo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Japan International Transport Institute & the Nippon Foundation (2010).

Therefore, the demand for seafarers in 2010 identified in Table 4 basis on the capacity of ship is 1,093,968 seafarers including the backup ratio of seafarers as 50 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4 An estimated demand for seafarers of the world fleets in 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>2,000-7,999GT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Japan International Transport Institute & the Nippon Foundation (2010).
Further, the study of JITI & NF (2010) shows the 2010 number of seafarers and the demand for seafarers that will be needed in 2020. The demand is calculated considering the legal setting of standard manning numbers by ship type and size as shown in Figure 3. Furthermore between 2010 and 2020 is expected an annual average growth rate of the world fleet of 0.7 percent. It is calculated that there will be 35,623 ships in the world fleet in 2010, and it is estimated that the number of the world fleet will increase up to 38,197 ships by 2020, as identified in Figure 3.

In addition, the demand for seafarers in 2020 was calculated multiplying the values of Table 3 (Setting of standard manning numbers by ship type and size) and the expected annual average growth of the world fleet of 0.7 percent. Therefore, the study of JITI & NF (2010) estimated the demand for seafarers in 2020 to be 445,055 for officers and 648,914 for ratings as identified in Table 5.

According to the study of JITI & NF (2010), it is noticed that the 2000 to 2004 averaged growth rates in the number of the world fleet is 0.8 percent. It is predicted that the figure 0.8 percent will go down to the extent of the decrease in real GDP in the long term perspective. Therefore the study of JITI & NF (2010) the annual average growth rate in number of the world fleet between 2010 and 2020 was set at 0.7 percent. Source from Japan International Transport Institute & The Nippon Foundation. (2010, May).
Table 5  Predicted demands for seafarers in the world fleets in 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2,000-7,999GT</th>
<th>8,000GT and over</th>
<th>Subtotal</th>
<th>Backup (50%)</th>
<th>Total (2020)</th>
<th>Total (2010)</th>
<th>Deficit (A-B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Officer</strong></td>
<td>110,647</td>
<td>207,492</td>
<td>318,139</td>
<td>159,069</td>
<td>477,208</td>
<td>445,055</td>
<td>32,153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rating</strong></td>
<td>138,309</td>
<td>325,554</td>
<td>463,864</td>
<td>231,932</td>
<td>695,795</td>
<td>648,914</td>
<td>46,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>248,956</td>
<td>533,046</td>
<td>782,002</td>
<td>391,001</td>
<td>1,173,004</td>
<td>1,093,968</td>
<td>79,036</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Japan International Transport Institute & the Nippon Foundation. (2010)

For the above Table 5, it is clear that an additional 32,153 Officers in number in 2010 against 2020, and 46,881 Ratings with a deficit of 7.2 percent for both officers and ratings will arise by 2020. This study calculates the demand that includes a modest growth of the global commercial fleet and a minimal effect of cancellations and scrapping coming out of the economic crisis (Leander, 2010).

On the other hand, while the JITI & NF study has identified the prospect of the demand for seafarers in 2010 and 2020, it has not provided for the current seafarers supply. According to the 2005 BIMCO and ISF manpower study, it is estimated that the worldwide supply of seafarers in 2005 was 466,000 officers and 721,000 ratings. At that time, the current estimate of worldwide demand for seafarers was 476,000 officers and 586,000 ratings. Consequently, the 2005 worldwide shortfall of seafarers indicated 10,000 officers or a 2 percent deficit.

Meanwhile, the 2000 BIMCO and ISF manpower study, estimated that the number of officers in the world fleets was 404,000 against a demand for 420,000, which revealed a deficit of 4 percent.
2.3 Current labour conditions of seafarers in Korea

The majority of Korean seafarer employees registered in Korea flag ships is 68.7 percent as identified in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
<th>Flag</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rep. of Korea</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marshall Islands</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hongkong</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Based on the annual seafarers’ statistics by the Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center\(^{10}\) (KSWEP) in 2009, the rate of unemployment of seafarers is gradually increasing, with the number of unemployed seafarers being below 1,500 except in 2006. However, surprisingly, in 2009, the level of unemployment of seafarers peaked dramatically, at 1,743 since 2000 according to Table 7. Table 7 and Figure 4 illustrate the statistics and trends for unemployment of seafarers in today’s Korean labour market.

Taking into account the considerations in the above Table 7, these statistics are a direct example that reflects the labour supply being greater than the demand in the Korean labour market.

\(^{10}\) Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center has been established to promote the welfare of 100,000 seafarers since 1980 under the Seaman Law Article 122. Its main affairs are promotion of welfare, giving jobs and employment information, supporting affairs for seafarers stable employment, Job searching and offers.
maritime labor market. Simply, it indicates that the market trend reflects a slight over
supply of seafarers, which is in contrast to the global trend.

Table 7  Statistics for the unemployment of seafarers per year in Korea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Officer</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sub total</td>
<td>Deck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1,413</td>
<td>696</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1,287</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1,184</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1,463</td>
<td>859</td>
<td>475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1,067</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1,172</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1,692</td>
<td>933</td>
<td>603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1,480</td>
<td>762</td>
<td>429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1,480</td>
<td>931</td>
<td>538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1,743</td>
<td>1,230</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 4  Statistics for the unemployment of seafarers per year in Korea
In addition, according to the study by Hwang (2008a), the supply is slightly higher than the demand which defines that the number of registered employees by company as demonstrated in Table 8. Depending on the statistics; it is clear that the supply is greater than the demand as the trend shows in Table 7 and Figure 4 above.

However, another point that we must ram home constantly is that how many seafarers and shipping companies are registered on KSWEC in reality. Therefore, in general from a practical point view, these statistics might not contain the actual need to seek jobs and seafarers (Ibid). For example, in the case of major shipping companies, they used to put employment needs in the commercial media, recruit from internet sites or in more proactive commercial ways attract seafarers, as well as post job openings according to their own company’s employment policy rather than through the register on KSWEC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>officer</th>
<th>Supply</th>
<th>Demand</th>
<th>Over and Short</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deck Officer</td>
<td>5,058</td>
<td>4,455</td>
<td>603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer Officer</td>
<td>4,350</td>
<td>4,020</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio operator</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deck part</td>
<td>2,604</td>
<td>1,990</td>
<td>614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engine part</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>851</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>2,841</td>
<td>759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13,026</td>
<td>11,333</td>
<td>1,693</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


11 Number of registered job seekers at the Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center
12 Number of registered workers by company at the Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center
From a practical point of view, although the supply and demand for seafarers might coexist compared to the statistics currently available, shipping companies can explain that the sensory level of the maritime labour market has such a disparity between supply and demand. There is still plenty of room in the gap of shortage seafarers in the Korean labour market.

Under the this circumstance of the shortfall of seafarers, the Haesa Information (2007) press release compared the status of available seafarers with the number of increased vessels, which showed that the ships are increasing constantly at 11.4 percent by per year, while the rate of available seafarers declined 4.8 percent over same period in the past 5 years. In comparison with Table 9, the increasing ratio of the number of available seafarers is remarkably smaller than the increasing ratio of the number of merchant vessels.

Table 9  Comparison between status of Merchant Ships and available Seafarers in 2003-2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Status of Merchant Vessel</th>
<th>Available seafarers states</th>
<th>Sub back up ratio</th>
<th>Total Back up ratio %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Gross tonnage</td>
<td>Employed seafarers</td>
<td>Reserved seafarers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>11,460</td>
<td>7,072</td>
<td>732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>12,586</td>
<td>7,362</td>
<td>839</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>13,455</td>
<td>7,638</td>
<td>715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>14,269</td>
<td>7,707</td>
<td>786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>17,850</td>
<td>8,240</td>
<td>792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>786</td>
<td>21,378</td>
<td>8,883</td>
<td>834</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Merchant Vessels only for officer (Ocean-going Korean Flag + Foreign-flag Vessels)
2.4 Prospects for the demand and supply of seafarers in the future

A more detailed project study regarding the prospect of supply and demand for seafarers in 2020 was undertaken by the Korea Maritime Institute for Korea Ship owners’ Association in 2008. This research anticipates a shortfall of supply against demand for seafarers of 1,521 by the year 2010 and of 6,129 by the year 2020 without the various factors which will be observed in the world economy between 2010 and 2020 (Jo, 2008).

![Graph showing the supply and demand of seafarers in the Korean maritime labor market](image)

Source: Jo E. A. Marine powerful led Korea, but supply shortfall of seafarers, 2008
Note: not included the impact of the decreasing worldwide commercial fleets according to the world financial crisis

**Figure 5** Prospect for supply and demand of seafarers in the Korean maritime labor market

Other data is calculated including the impact on the decreasing worldwide commercial fleets according to the current world financial crisis, this study forecasted the deficit of 1,431 by the year 2010, and of 3,188 by the year 2012, and finally of 4,133 by the year 2020 as indicated in the above graph in Figure 5. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, the most up-to-date estimated trend for global seafarer supply and demand is unbalanced. The overall scale of demand for Officers might be higher than predicted in some years, and seafarer demand might be significantly higher than predicted in previous years.
The current estimate suggests a severe shortage of qualified seafarers has created a significant issue in the global maritime market; and further in the Korean maritime labor market. These statistics on the Korean maritime labor market indicate the shortfall of seafarers and the unbalance between the supply and demand for seafarers in the near future. How will the supply of seafarers meet the demand? And what will be impact of such a shortage seafarers in such a market? The answer is undoubtedly an urgent need to recruit and retain more qualified seafarers in order to meet the existing and future demands.

2.5 The impact of the global shortage seafarers

We are able to speculate easily that if the shortfall of seafarers will be more severe than in past years, these problems will influence national competiveness, as well as the global status of ‘Korea Maritime’.

The maritime industry contributes to the advancement of the economy, technology and social labor markets. At this time, Korea is ranked as the seventh largest flag of registration in the world with 1,235 ships\(^{13}\) and 46,623,226 deadweight tonnage,\(^{14}\) as of 1 January 2009 according to UNCTAD\(^{15}\) (2009). In fact, it should be noted again that the Korean Maritime industry creates a higher added value compared to other national businesses.

Nevertheless, in such market conditions, however, the recent safety problems on ships are caused by a shortage of qualified seafarers to manage ship manning properly.

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\(^{13}\) Compiled the number of vessels with national flag and foreign flags.

\(^{14}\) Compiled the deadweight tonnage of vessels with national flag and foreign flags.

“The use of unqualified seafarers onboard is due to a shortfall of seafarers nowadays that has been caused by ship mis-handling and managing improperly and occasional serious disturbances.”

The above statement was made by Kim, the secretary of the Federation of Korean Seafarers’ Unions (Jo, 2008).

According to this research interview the concerned human resources manager for one of Korea’s major shipping companies, said,

“To obtain sufficient seafarers continuously and manage manning without a hitch, we have to employed many foreign seafarers, however, they occasionally make mistakes while onboard.” (Ibid)

2.6 Possible measures to secure the quantity and quality of seafarers

In order to satisfy the supply and demand of qualified seafarers and attract seafarers into the shipping industry, the measures of national policies, as well the global efforts, have recommended secured aspects of improvement of the environment surrounding seafarers, such as wages, more opportunity for training and education, and improved living conditions. All efforts to attract seafarers have indicated such policies will improve the solutions. However, among these solutions, in fact there has as yet been no proactive recommendation respecting the potential value of utilizing more women seafarers. Why is this not a focus of attention?

---

Female seafarers have a sufficient potential ability to be qualified officers in the shipping industry. However, the crucial problem is that they transfer to shore-based jobs sooner than male seafarers who have an obligatory three-year on-board working arrangement according to Korea’s obligation to protect the country.

Why do women seafarers decide to leave work at sea? In fact, most maritime university students have been trained and educated under special programs such as the military over a four year period including one year training onboard. Both female and male students have the same background without distinguishing different sexual issues. Regardless of their background, what makes women hesitate about working at sea?

Therefore, this dissertation attempts to address the problems of women at sea, and will recommend areas where the shipping industry, which is based on CSR, can provide solutions to attract women to stay longer at sea as seafarers.

17 All able-bodied men over 19 of the Republic of Korea are required to serve in the military for 24-27 months. However, the graduated university students have an obligatory to board work instead of serving in the military.
Chapter 3 The trend of women seafarers’ employment

3.1 Current women seafarers’ occupation

Belcher et al. (2003), researched women seafarers and indicated that the participation rate of women in seafaring remains relatively small compared with male seafarers in the world. According to their study, it has been estimated that women represent only 1 to 2 percent of the world’s 1.25 million seafarers and that most of these women are from developed countries. Thus, the largest number of women is found working as hotel staff of passenger ships, particularly on cruise ships and ferries. Unfortunately, there is no official data and an analysis of women seafarers from any global research center or any related and/or involved investigation organization. Therefore, it is worth noting obviously that in order to encourage women to go to sea, it should be understood and recognized how few women seafarers are participating in the maritime world by different ship type and region, country and company. This effort on women seafarers should be continued thereby enabling and encouraging them on a global basis.

3.1.1 Employment of women by ship type and distribution by rank

As shown in the following figures, according to Belcher et al., (2003) based on the SIRC/ILO Survey, it is found that the great majority of the world’s women seafarers (94 percent\(^{18}\)) are employed aboard passenger ships as officers as well as ratings. The 2003’s study above indicated that 68 percent of all the women (3,554) work on ferries, overwhelmingly the highest number, and 26 percent on cruise ships with just small portion of 6 percent on cargo ships.

\(^{18}\) The study divided passenger ships into two sectors: cruise ships and ferry ship types.
Nevertheless, as mentioned in paragraph 3.1, unfortunately, no survey has been conducted regarding the actual population size of women seafarers in the global labour market by any international organization since the SIRC survey was completed in 2003. In addition, in the case of Korea, there is no data on women seafarers respecting occupation on type of ships in such organizations as the KSMWEC and the Ministry of Land, Transportation and Maritime Affairs. Even though it might be difficult to collect data from all the countries where women seafarers have been recorded, this data would obviously be a crucial cornerstone towards identifying the number of women amongst the overall number of seafarers, and ameliorating and providing appropriate support and policies from the industry and community.

In contrast, in the case of the Danish Maritime Authority, seafarers have been recorded in a computerized database since 1 April 1986. It is compulsory for shipping companies to record and manage each time a seafarer is signed on or off a ship under the Danish flag and send a copy to the authorities (Hansen, H.L. & Jensen, J., 1998). Therefore, it is worthwhile noting that a broader global effort is needed to collect data relating to women seafarers in order to recognize how the occupational distribution of women seafarers in the world and on what types of ships.

![Employment of women by ship type and distribution by rank in the world](source.png)

**Figure 6** Employment of women by ship type and distribution by rank in the world
As mentioned above, in the case of Korea, there is no particular existing data regarding women ratings. In general, the route through which women become seafarers is to enroll in the maritime university or Korea Institute of Maritime and Fisheries Technology. After graduation the majority who attain a qualified license might become a 3rd officer or 3rd engineer, not a rating. Consequently, the rate of Korean women officers is remarkably higher than the study by Belcher et al., (2003) based on the SIRC seafarers database which identifies the number of women ratings as higher than women officers in the rest world, as illustrated in Figure 6. According the study by Belcher et al., (2003), it is indicated that 93 percent of ratings originate mostly from ferries and cruise ships, not just cargo ships.

3.2 Current Korean women seafarers’ occupation in the global merchant ship market

In commercial shipping companies, the proportion level of women is extremely low. The author surveyed major Korean shipping companies registered in various parts of the world, through telephone interviews with responsible human resource managers or seafarer manning managers during 21-24 June, 2010. The author found many major shipping companies where women have been present and identified as shown below in Table 10, where roughly 50 are women. Table 10 lists a sample of the companies that employ women in merchant fleets. Furthermore, it identifies the proportion of women seafarers in 1.96 percent against the total of Korean seafarer officers in A-I shipping companies.

---

19 The author selected major shipping companies which most of the graduated maritime university students apply have applied in.
Table 10  Women seafarers employed in shipping companies, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Total number of fleets</th>
<th>Total Korean officer</th>
<th>Women seafarers</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Ocean going Korean Flag</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Ocean going Korean Flag</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Ocean going Korean Flag + Foreign Flag vessels</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Ocean going Korean Flag</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>498</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>455</td>
<td>2553</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : survey by Sohyun Jo, based on Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center, ship and crew research, 2010
Note : Among ocean going Korean Flag and Foreign Flag vessels, collected and listed the companies that have more than 200 in the total number of officers.

The research found that the total number of ships in Korean shipping companies including ocean going Korea Flag and Foreign Flag vessels, are 2,226 ships\(^{20}\), and Korean officers are 9,452 officers\(^{21}\). Amongst the total of 9,452 officers on cargo fleets in Korea, the shipping companies employed 50 women seafarers, 0.52 percent of the total number of seafarers.

Similarly, Belcher et al., (2003) based on the SIRC Survey in 2001, investigated cargo shipping companies registered in various parts of the world and received 37 responses.

\(^{20}\) Source : Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center, ship and crew research, 2010
\(^{21}\) Source : Korea Seafarer’s Welfare & Employment Center, ship and crew research, 2010
from companies. The survey found that the companies employed 212 women seafarers (0.76 percent) among a total of 27,541 seafarers on cargo fleets in the world. In the Philippine case, there were 25 officers of a total 6,619 women in 2006 and the majority were onboard passenger ships or cruise liners. (Nieva, 2008) Surprisingly, according to the Philippine overseas Employment Administration (POEA), the number of Filipino women seafarers rose by 2.7 percent, from 6,436 in 2006 to 6,619 in 2007. Whilst, the number of their male counterparts dropped by 2.6 percent to 216,874 in 2007 from 222,575 in 2006 (Ibid).

In the Korean case, the employment of women seafarers is relatively low compared to the global level. Both of the two samples represent those women who onboard the world merchant fleet is comparatively the lowest participation rate of the total number of seafarers in the world, whereupon women’s participation rate is quite unbalanced and quite unequal compared with male seafarer proportions in general.

This study aims to identify what problems women seafarers face and identify a better solution to improve these situation on cargo ships. For this reason, the author has been trying to research how many women hold an Officer’s license and what grade they have attained, as well as length of experience as officers onboard. However, it is very difficult to collect and classify data into minor categorization groups from the relevant organizations and companies. In general, it seems that the relevant organizations have insufficient data.

3.2.1 The age of women seafarers

According to the study of Belcher et al., (2003) based on the SIRC Survey, the age profiles of seafarers shows that the average age is 33.2 for all seafarers, 35.4 for men and 31.5 for women. However, it is ambiguous to compare these numbers with the average
The age of Korean women seafarers who are employed on cargo ships, because this study included the average age of women employed on cruise, ferry, and cargo ships together.

Furthermore, this research found that the majority of Korean women seafarers are going to sea as officers directly when they graduate from the Maritime University. They then work onboard ships for an average of 2 to 3 years in the merchant ship fleets according to author’s research. Therefore, the study of Belcher et al., (2003) compared with Korean women seafarers, on average we see they are, three or four years younger than in this study, as Figure 7 indicates. In addition, it is assumed that the high intensive distribution of the average age of women seafarers is between 25 and 30 years old.

Source 2: surveyed by Sohyun Jo, 2010

**Figure 7** Age profile of women seafarers (Left) by Belcher et al., (2003) and Careers profile of Korean women seafarers (Right)
3.2.2 Type of ship employing women seafarers

As mentioned in paragraph 3.2 Table 10; women seafarers employed in major shipping companies, it might be assumed what type of ship most women are on board currently. According to such evidence, the majority of women seafarers work on container ships, bulk carriers and car carriers which the author explains in more detail in Chapter 5.

3.3 Preference trend of Maritime University students regarding seafaring

Earlier in this chapter, the author identified the number of female seafarers participating in cargo fleets in Korea. Interestingly, the only available data and analysis are the estimated employment of graduated women students of Mokpo Maritime University (MMU) by Hwang, S.J., IM, N.K & Bae, C.O. (2008).

In the following Figure 9, Hwang S.J et al., (2008) have summarized data from telephone interviews with 138 female graduate students of MMU amongst a total number of 388 female graduates, indicating the current levels of employment of women in the maritime industry from 2002 to 2008. The study indicates that most women are occupying relevant roles on shore in the respective shipping companies and only 8 percent female are onboard ships currently. However, according to this study, the participation in seafaring is gradually increasing compared with previous years, from 4 just under 8 percent. Figure 8, indicates that most women are working in shipping companies (47 percent), in postgraduate studying (12 percent), in ship building yards (11 percent), in the Korea Coast Guard (9 percent).
In addition, Hwang S.J et al., (2008) conducted questionnaires to enrolled females in their first, second and fourth years of MMU during November 1, 2008 to November 15, 2008, regarding their preference of future jobs after graduation from university. Over 36 percent of these females chose a government officer position as their favorite future job as indicated in Figure 9. On the similar numerical value, a job in a shipping company is the 2nd favorite future job, at 31 percent. Surprisingly, 7 percent choose a seafaring job indicating; they would like to be a seafarer after graduating from the maritime university. This may reflect a present trend towards women in seafaring in the shipping industry. Thus, the author would like to explore the reasons for the low preference of seafaring as a future job in the above study.
Chapter 4 Policy and practices of IMO towards female employment

This chapter examines the policy and practices for female employment in the shipping industry focusing on IMO’s activities as the international regulatory body which has become increasingly influential within the maritime industry. The reason for the focus of the author on IMO activities towards women at the global level is in order to focus on several specific issues which surround employment with women as evident in the author’s survey.

4.1 International Maritime Organization

The International Maritime Organization (IMO), as a United Nations (UN) specialized agency, is to promote safe, secure, environmentally sound, efficient and safer shipping. The organization’s body22 aims are to establish a universal and uniform application, such as the highest practicable standards to update existing legislation or develop and adopt new regulations. In summary, IMO’s mission is to foster better ‘safe, secure and efficient shipping on clean oceans.’ (IMO, 2010a; IMO A 26/Res. 1011, 2010).

One of the missions of IMO, the holistic approach to the integration of women into all levels of political, economic and social development, was introduced in 1988 with the approval of the ‘Strategy of the Integration of Women in the Maritime Sector’ as the two priority objectives, in accordance with the UN’s key recommendations on human

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22 IMO’s specialized committees and sub-committees are the focus for the technical, practical work to update existing legislation or develop and adopt new regulations, with meetings attended by maritime experts from Member Governments, together with those from interested intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations. The Organization is organized in an Assembly, a Council and five main Committees and a number of Sub-Committees support the work of the main technical committees. Source from IMO. Retrieved June 16, 2010 from the World Wide Web: http://www.imo.org.
resources development and capacity-building (IMO TC 58/7/1, 2008; IMO TC 47/8, 1999; IMO, 1998). Thus, the whole aspect of development for women became a mainstream element of the Organization’s Integrated Technical Co-operation Programme (ITCP), *inter alia*, under the Technical Co-operation Committee (TC) (Ibid).

In 1988, the IMO launched the Strategy for Women in Development (WID) in order to integrate women into the mainstream maritime sector, as well as to promote the endorsement of gender considerations, throughout its detailed purpose of WID23(Tansey, 2010).

In 1990, the issue of the integration of women in the maritime Sector became a regular item on the agenda of the Technical Co-operation Committee, (IMO TC 58/7/1, 2008) and approved the strategic plan as follow, (IMO TC 47/8, 1999; IMO, 1999)

1. IMO Medium Term Plan for the Integration of Women in the Maritime Sector 1992 to 1996; and

In accordance with IMO TC 47/8 (Women in Development by the Secretariat, 1999), the WID Programme has been subsumed into the ITCP as a cross-sectoral issue which is central to the strengthening of national and regional maritime capacities. The mechanism for implementing the Programme’s objectives is to focus on equal access to training through both mainstream programmes24 and gender – specific projects25.

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23 The purpose of WID is in order to integrate women into mainstream maritime activities; to improve women’s access to maritime training and technology; to increase the percentage of women at the senior management level within the maritime sector; and to promote women’s economic self-reliance, including access to employment.

24 These projects seek to integrate women in mainstream sectoral initiatives of IMO. Integrated projects require gender-sensitive design in order to ensure from the project’s inception that women will be
The organization’s technical co-operation gender activities are structured through the ITCP under a discrete global programme for the Integration of Women in the Maritime Sector (IWMS), supported, since 2001, by the TC Fund. One of the principal objectives of the ITCP is to help improve the human capital of developing countries through training, education and other means of knowledge transfer. Strengthening the ‘human element’, without gender distinction, is a key consideration in delivering IMO’s mandate (IMO TC 58/7/1 paragraph 3, 2008).

IWMS represents the primary vehicle for articulating the UN system-wide commitment to gender equality, in support of the UN Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3 to “promote gender equality and empower women”. The Secretariat has continued to emphasize this aspect of capacity-building through its global programmes for technical co-operation. The policy linkages relating to this issue are reflected also in the Organization’s strategic plan, which addresses gender aspects under Strategic Direction 3 whereby ‘IMO will strengthen its capacity-building programmes’. Further linkages are made through the High-level Action Plan, which includes reference to ‘strengthening the role of women in the maritime sector’ (IMO, TC 60/7, 2010; IMO, TC 60/7/1, 2010; TC 59/10, 2008; TC 58/7/1, 2008).

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25 Women-specific projects represent a phased approach to facilitating the integration of women into the mainstream sectoral development of the maritime industry: they represent an engine for change, through activities which include, inter alia, dedicated fellowship funding for technical training programmes, which, in addition to improving specific maritime skills, are designed to assist women in overcoming attitudinal and environmental constraints and ensure their access to training. Source from IMO TC 47/8 Annex p2.

26 The policy linkages relating to this issue are reflected also in the Organization’s Strategic Plan, which addresses gender aspects under Strategic Direction 3 “IMO will strengthen its capacity-building programmes”. Further linkages are made through the High-Level Action Plan, which makes reference to strengthening the role of women in the maritime sector. Source from (IMO, TC 60/7, 2010; TC 59/10, 2008)
The IWMS gender-specific fellowships are intended to support the access to training opportunities for women in the developing regions, in accordance with the concepts outlined under MDG 3, by facilitating the identification and selection of women for career development opportunities in maritime administrations, ports and maritime training institutes. The training, thus imparted, represents an engine for change which, in addition to improving a region’s maritime capacities, is designed to assist women in overcoming attitudinal and environmental constraints and to facilitate their access to career development (IMO, TC 60/7, 2010).

4.1.1 Limitation of these Programmes

In accordance with the purpose of establishment of regional linkages, the author focuses on this point, as it seems to be not quite to satisfy the scope of the overall course of programmes. This means that the range of the course of a programme is limited to particular courses which focus on maritime transport management, port operations, maritime law, maritime security and so on. This is indicated in Table 11 which show the fellowships provided under the TC Programme during the 2002-2009 period.

Nevertheless, in these circumstances of contributing to international efforts, it has not been a programme sufficient to develop the capacity-building and encourage the self-confidence of women seafarers to go to sea! Nowadays, a growing number of women desire to go to sea, and they decide to work at sea for longer periods. Despite all of the international efforts such as the WID in 1998, supported by the ITCP and IWMS in 2001, and later the campaign ‘Go to Sea’ in 2008 and ‘2010: Year of Seafarers’ in 2010, there are insufficient programmes to encourage the integration of women seafarers into the maritime sector. The author reviews and examines the existing programmes that are focused on women who are working as managers in the maritime shore-based industry and port sectors.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Recipient countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Maritime transport management</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Guyana, Russian Federation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maritime and port management programme</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maritime law short course</td>
<td>Poland, Slovenia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On the job training at MCA, Southampton</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Lithuania, Togo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maritime Security workshop / symposium</td>
<td>Honduras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Study tour on flag State implementation</td>
<td>Haiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>Romania, Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Congo, Lithuania, Togo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>Liberia, Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Benin, Gambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nine month course in international maritime law</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women in Shipping and Trading Association (WISTA) Annual Conference</td>
<td>China, Kenya, Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>Gambia, Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Belize, Cameroon, Philippines, Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>Cambodia, Russian Federation, South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International seminar on port security</td>
<td>Honduras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marine pollution prevention in ports operations On the job training</td>
<td>Cote d’Ivoire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Advanced course on port operations and management</td>
<td>Albania, China, Côte d’Ivoire, Gabon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senior port management programme</td>
<td>South Africa, United Republic of Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Subregional maritime English instructors training course</td>
<td>Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Russian Federation, Ukraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Course on Regional Ocean Governance for Mediterranean and Eastern European countries</td>
<td>Russian Federation, Turkey</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In comparison with the earlier mentioned IMO activities, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the establishment of the UN entity for gender equality and the empowerment of women commonly known as ‘UN Women’ in July 2010 (UN, 2010). The UN has attempted to address such challenges, by becoming a dynamic and strong champion for women and girls, as well as providing them with a powerful voice at the global, regional and local levels (Ibid). Ultimately, this programme will promote gender equality and the empowerment of women on a global level.

In order to be more active in encouraging further development of the women seafarer work force as a human resource, IMO should consider policies to establish and provide sufficient programmes that are more proactive towards the present women seafarers, and also those who want to be recruited into seafarer jobs in the future. Obviously, the principle role of the programme would be to conduct surveys of women on board ships and evaluate the women seafarer work force through monitoring and assessment. Also, this programme should consider practical ways to encourage female employment in the maritime sector by using specifically designed programmes.
Chapter 5 Survey

5.1 Background to the Survey Questionnaire

An overview of the study aims and procedures involved in the project research is shown in Table 13. In addition, a more detailed questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 12</th>
<th>Overview of the project research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Study Aims | • In order to improve a profile of Korean women seafarers  
- Examine the main issues surrounding the recruitment and retention of women seafarers,  
- Discuss the working life of women seafarers,  
- Support a development strategy for recruitment and retention of women seafarers on merchant vessels. |
| Data Collection | • Target group  
- Former seafarers and present seafarers,  
• The data collection was undertaken June and July in 2010,  
• Of the original 51 participants, 26 were successfully contacted, with a response rate of 68 percent,  
• Method: e-mail and telephone interviews. |
| Questionnaire contents | • Personal data and background  
- Age, occupation, type of ship, reason for seafaring, experience of seafarer, rank on ship,  
• Experience at sea  
- Problem with colleagues, difficulty to retain why, how deal with these problems, the areas to be improved, shipping company responsibility, recommend other woman,  
• Miscellaneous comments. |
| Overall response analysis method | • Conduct survey of key opinion leaders,  
• Conduct on frequency analysis on questionnaires of representative sample through SPSS,  
• Consider giving priority to aspects of the problem,  
• Recommend measures to support women seafarers’ needs. |
5.2 Response details

5.2.1 Average age of respondents

Table 13 does not represent the current overall women seafarers’ age profile. As Table 13, shows the rate of distribution of the respondent group’s age of those who have had experience at sea as officers and/or current seafarers. The majority of respondents are of an average age between 30 and 35 years, or 57.8 percent. The mean age of these respondents is 30 according to this analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing values : 0, Mean : 29.69, Median : 31.0, Standard deviation :4.78, Variance : 22.542

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010
5.2.2 Current occupation of respondents

Table 14 The current occupation of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation categorize</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PSCO</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VTS operator</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seafarer</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea Coast Guard</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Officer</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ship Building Yard</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shipping company manager level</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shipping company junior level</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspector or Surveyor</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Master or Doctor degree student</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher or instructor</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looking for employment</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Total 100.0 100.0

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

Among these seafarers, many inspectors and surveyors responded to the questionnaire equaling 15.4 percent of the respondents. Unfortunately, the rate of respondents of current women seafarers was only 7.8 percent. To interpret the low response of current women seafarers, it could be attributed to a hesitation by shipping companies to provide contact lists to the author when the research topic of women seafarers in Korea was
identified. The author concludes that the shipping companies were concerned about what their employees might say that would negatively implicate the companies.

5.2.3 Experiment of cargo ships

5.2.3.1 Type of ship

The majority of women in this research have experience on bulk carriers and container work. According to the author’s results in Figure 15, it is noticeable that women employed on gas carriers represented over 15 percent the same as car carriers, of those employed. However, it is noted that the respondents from gas carriers were cadets, not officers. Actually, there is no record as yet of any history of as Officers or Engineers on oil tanker ships and gas carriers. Not surprisingly, both oil tanker and gas carrier shipping companies are apparently willing to employ women as officers and engineers; however, it seems to be ironic that there is no recorded evidence of their hiring of women.

One comment in the questionnaires, from one ex-seafarer Korean women it was recounted,

“Initially, I applied to one of the big major tanker shipping companies for employment as a 3rd officer. I was to challenge there never have been women onboard tanker ships historically. […] however, I did not choose to embark on that ship. I did not understand that all of them were male, even with a lower grade point average (GPA) than me. Of course, I could was not compared in terms of GPA, however look at all the tanker shipping companies, there are all male, no women at all.”

The author questioned these comments with a human resource manager in a tanker shipping company, and he stated,
“There is no particular reason, we do not think there is a taboo against women. When we hire employees, we should consider who would make an adequate employee in our company the same as for other shipping companies, it should follow quality and the internal system, not be influenced by any particular issues.”

However, the author notes that the above company has no prior history of employing women as officers.

Other tanker shipping company managers stated regarding the employment of women officers in an interview that:

“We feel sorry about the lack of proactive employment of women, but it is true that the tanker shipping world has a conservative view of women. In fact, the ship area of the tanker industry retains conventional views. This point of view may be because they have to handle a dangerous cargo at all times, the responsible crew members could be more sensitive with a woman. That women onboard is a taboo in the shipping world as it might cause a serious disasters or accidents.”

However, the author concludes that these circumstances are not considered to be discouraging given that the history of women onboard is approximately 17 years. The author further concludes that there is sufficient room for improvement by women which is the primary purpose behind this study.

Let us explore more regarding the type of ship of women onboard ships. The general working environment on board ship has not been improved relative to the shore based working environment. In order to close the gap, many shipping companies have been considering a friendlier and a safer safety atmosphere. For example, the S shipping company tries to place women exclusively on new ships on long haul and on older ships on short-sea voyages. Other shipping companies have placed women officers onboard
container ships mostly because they appreciate their meticulousness and detailed performance as well as it being a more acceptable living environment on ships. The shipping companies examined that many women officers on container ships have carried out their performance satisfactorily and with remarkable ability more so than their male colleagues (Kim, 2008a).

5.2.3.2 Rank and careers of women onboard ship

It is surprising to note why women seafarers have had a short period of experience onboard ship when many female graduates went to sea as officers and then, decided to transfer to shore-based jobs or look for alternative employment. To explain this phenomenon the following Table 16, indicates among respondents, 50.6 percent have experience onboard of less than 1 year. The majority already had experience as apparent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of ship</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bulk carrier</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cars carrier</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Container</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas carrier</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LNG carrier</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil Tanker</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training ship</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing values : 0, Mean : 3.62, Median : 3.0, Standard deviation : 2.401, Variance : 5,766

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010
officers and apparent engineers on ships. However, they then later decided to apply for shore-based jobs or other non-seafaring employment.

Table 16  Rank (Left) and career (Right) onboard ship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Less than 1 year</th>
<th>1-3 years</th>
<th>3-5 years</th>
<th>5-8 years</th>
<th>More than 8 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief officer</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd officer</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd officer</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deck officer</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

On the other hand, it seems that most available career data shows from 1 year to 3 years onboard ships. These career periods are much shorter than young males who have to fulfill an obligatory three year on-board work assignment. It is worth noting that the average period onboard ship for women is crucial from a shipping company point of view, because it can be doubted what merits of employment women are on boarding. In common economic sense, it seems that having women on boarding is not an effective and economic means in the long term from a shipping company practical standpoint. However, the author provides a further explanation in Chapter 6.
5.2.4 Main motivation of selecting to be a seafarer

Women are attracted to work at sea for various reasons. Table 17 demonstrates these reasons for choosing a seafaring career. The highest response shows a desire to work in a different seagoing environment, with 53.8 percent of respondents indicating this reason. The 2\textsuperscript{nd} highest response at 34.6 percent indicates a motivation for a special job experience and then to transfer it to a shore-based job in the future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity of travel</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic reason</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer to ashore for future</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire and challenge</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult employment ashore</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Missing values : 0, Mean : 3.42, Median : 4.0, Standard deviation : 0.703, Variance : 0.494

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

In comparison, in the cruise sector, women from developing countries respond to the potential earning opportunity compared to lesser economic opportunities from shore-based jobs (Belcher et al., 2003, Zhao, 2001). This further explains why most Asian women primarily focus on the financial advantages of seafaring. On the contrary, women from developed countries cite the opportunity to travel and “see the world for
“free” as the most significant motivating factor to join the cruise sector; (Belcher et al., 2003) and they were seemingly less motivated by economic reasons such that most developed countries women seafarers noted that ‘money is not my major concern.’ (Zhao, 2001).

In evaluating the above findings of this research, the most significant motivating factor is not to get the opportunity to see other countries such as indicated by women from developed countries, but rather the financial advantage motivation. The following response from an ex-seafarer was Korean women.

“I think that the seafarer officer as a job has to be made more attractive than it is now. Currently, the ships’ officer is not an enviable job with good earnings, compensation or with opportunities to travel overseas any more. There are many other jobs which pay much better earnings than shore-based jobs, and seafarers are not allowed to freely travel to foreign countries as before because of the short berthing times.”

Once again the respondents recount a major motivating reason for choosing seafaring in Korea that is to examine one’s self, satisfies own desire for a different environment and the so-called, ‘challenge’ and ‘spirit of adventure their own way’. Initially, it seems that Korean women desire to be more adventurous and thus go seafaring around the world.

5.2.5 Experience at sea

5.2.5.1 Experience of facing problems with colleagues

Nearly 32 percent of all respondents had have experience of sexual discrimination with colleagues at sea, as highlighted in Figure 10. Only 13 percent of respondents have in fact not experienced any problems with colleagues. However, the combined similar question with ‘Sexual discrimination’, ‘Sexual harassment’ and ‘Non sexual harassment’
is a higher rate at 50 percent than 16 percent of ‘Intentional ignorance’, 13 percent of ‘None’ and zero percent of ‘Bullying’. It is significant that half of the respondents have experienced problems which are inherently sexual or non-sexual harassment and discrimination.

Figure 10 Experience problem with colleagues

Indeed, for women who faced these problems with colleagues, this research found how they dealt with the problem as indicated in Table 18. It is worth noting how they had overcome or coped with this situation. The majority (nearly 35 percent) of respondents reported that they used to keep it to themselves when they experienced a problem with male colleagues. Also, in order to analyze how women deal with problems with colleagues, this research conducted a Cross Tabs analysis through SPSS between the question of how to deal with problems and the question what problems as shown in Table 19.

---

27 Cross Tabs Analysis is used to record and analyze the relationships between responses on two questions or more categorical variables.
### Table 18  The method of control difficulty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How deal with problem</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
<th>Valid percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keep it to oneself</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share it with family and/or friends</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share it with colleagues and get support from them</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report it to your senior (ie, Captain, chief officer, chief engineer, etc)</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report it to company’s manager</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report it to Seafarers Union</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing values : 0, Mean : 2.62, Median : 3.0, Standard deviation :1.499, Variance : 2.246</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

### Table 19  Result of Cross Tabs analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Keep it</th>
<th>Share *</th>
<th>Share **</th>
<th>Report 1</th>
<th>Report 2</th>
<th>Report 3</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentional ignorance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual discrimination</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non sexual harassment (verbal or physical)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abuse of power</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source : Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

Note *: Share it with family and/or friends, Note **: Share it with colleagues and get support from them
Note 1 Report it to your senior, Note 2: Report it to company’s manager immediately, Note 3: Report it to Seafarers Union.
For instance, among 32 percent of the women who had experienced sexual discrimination with colleagues, 50 percent of the women seem passive to report or share it as they indicated that they preferred to keep it themselves. Moreover, 30 percent of the women tried to share it with colleagues and attain support from them through personal chatting. Another 20 percent of women seem to have a more active tendency to report it to senior officers on the ship. Eventually, based on the above data, the results demonstrated that women behave by keeping problems to themselves or share emotional distress with someone close to them, rather than reporting the incident to senior officers or the company. It seems that women have a passive attitude to taking up issues rather than active attitude such as to report it to the company or seafarers unions.

5.2.5.2 The difficulty to retain women at sea

Nearly 27 percent of all women respondents recognize the biggest difficulty onboard is the loneliness and isolation from family and closer friends as indicated in Table 20. This is absolutely the worst aspect for all seafarers working at sea today, loneliness and living away from family and society, and the difficulties of keeping in touch (Bansal, 2009). The negative impact of isolation from society is a common issue for all seafarers, not only for women (Kitada, 2009a).

Table 20 The difficult elements of seafaring at sea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>The difficult elements of seafaring at sea</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Isolation or loneliness</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sexual discrimination from male colleagues</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Traditional social responsibility for women; marriage, nurturing children</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Specialty of job and physical difficulties related to job</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gender inequality; unequal promotion opportunities</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>other</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey by Jo S.H. 2010
Secondly, as the response from 23.1 percent of women who faced sexual discrimination from male colleagues and thirdly, 15.4 percent of women who responded they had a difficulty with the traditional social role for women such as marriage, and nurturing children.

As the same 15.4 percent, some women find the work difficult onboard whereas, the routine ships’ work seems to be an unsuitable environment for women for instance, irregular ship arrival and departure, being over-worked, the physical hard work, and the hot environment in the engine room. The difficult elements of seafaring are crucial factors to decide what women seafarers need to do to be better seafarers as discussed the problems in Chapter 6. According to this data, this research analyses in depth and finds the solutions they need.

5.2.5.3 Opinion of how to improve and develop working environment

Women seafarers are a minority of entity of seafarers on cargo ships. Women seafarers also transfer shore-based employment more quickly than male seafarers. The focus of this thesis is to understand why women transfer to shore, what difficulties women face in being recruited and retaining a seafaring job. In order for this situation to improve, this research investigates what areas are needed to create a better environment for women. The results of the question are shown in Table 21.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Top priority of area to improve</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Shipping company’s policy and social responsibility (CSR)</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The effort of improvements by self-motivated</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Korea has a social role and responsibility for females</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey by Jo S.H. 2010
Table 21 shows a majority of 53.8 percent of the respondents report that there is a need to improve the shipping company’s policies and insure greater social responsibility towards women seafarers. Therefore, the results show that there needs to be a change in the shipping companies’ policy and put more social responsibility on women. Chapter 6 and 7 of the present paper explore what shipping companies should provide for women seafarers as a suitable working environment along with the improvement of their policy towards.

As aforementioned in paragraph 5.2.5.3, the research found women consider shipping companies should improve their environment to be more suitable for women. Therefore, the author’s research examines what changes are needed to provide sufficient support in terms of shipping companies; these are examined in order of priority.

31 percent of the respondents reported that the top priority is to improve to the shipping companies role of encouraging policies for women’s work at sea. The survey showed that nearly 27 percent of the respondents replied that the granting of medical leave for the menstrual period included the granting through a company’s quality system in an official way as well as establishing a company culture which can make a smooth progress for this approval whenever needed. With regard to these issues, one Korean ex-seafarer woman commented on the need to provide support for the upbringing of children. For example, when a women officer embarks after childbirth, the company should conduct the support the upbringing of the baby (allowance for diapers, formulas, etc.) and allow for the embarkation of a nursery governess. In other words, companies will have to offer proper childcare policies for women to work comfortably after childbirth.

The third highest response, as 15.4 percent of the respondents is the consideration of a female group onboard to support each other. Therefore, the author of this research would
develop a strategy for dealing with improvements in the terms of shipping companies as discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 22 Priority elements for improvement of shipping company

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Top priority elements for improvement</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Encourage policies to work at sea</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Granting of medical leave for menstrual period(^{28})</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Consideration of a female group onboard to support one another</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>2(^{nd}) priority elements for improvement</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pregnancy policy, grantee of maternity leave and reinstatement(^{29})</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Encourage policies to work at sea</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Granting of medical leave for menstrual period</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>3(^{rd}) priority element to improvement</th>
<th>Frequency percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Consideration of a female group onboard to support one another</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Free contact with family and friends through mailing, phone calling, fax etc</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage policies to work at sea</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Granting of medical leave for menstrual period</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage policies to work at sea</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training and education for seafarers</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

5.2.6 Opinion of the seafaring to be recommended to other women

As mentioned in paragraph 5.2.4, the major motivating rationale for choosing seafaring, indicating a 53.8 percent response is ‘being a seafarer is to examine oneself’, satisfy one’s desire for a different environment and a so-called, ‘challenge’. This is so a positive attitude towards the sea and seafarers. However, this study asks whether more women

\(^{28}\) Included grantee through quality system or document in official way for medical leave for menstrual period as well as establish company culture which can make a smooth progress.

\(^{29}\) Included grantee through quality system or document in official way for grantee of maternity leave, reinstatement medical leave as well as establish company culture which can make a smooth progress.
should be encouraged to become seafarers on cargo ships. The findings of the study is a little different gap between 38 percent of respondents who said ‘yes’ and 23 percent of respondents who said ‘No’ as seen in Figure 11. If one combined the answers of ‘No’ and ‘Not sure’ as negative aspects toward seafaring, then a high rate of 61 percent is dominant rather than the answer of ‘Yes’. According to the following Figure 11, why were they affected and changed from positive aspects to either negative or vague aspects toward a seagoing life?

Source: Survey by Jo S.H. 2010

Figure 11 Opinion profile
Chapter 6 What problems do women seafarers face?

Such evidence is telling, and as a result, we need to acknowledge what are the difficulties that female seafarers expect to face when working onboard a cargo ship. Therefore, based on the findings of the questionnaires, this chapter explores what barriers exist and what we need to take into proper account in order to encourage more women seafarers to work onboard for longer periods. The linkage between problems and solutions, an important key factor that explains women seafarers’ feelings and experiences on cargo ship in Korea, now needs to be further considered.

6.1 Isolation or loneliness

Absolutely, the separation from family can be a major concern and the source of how much unhappiness for males as well as for females. In essence, isolation is common for all seafarers, but for a woman the isolation can be more difficult than for a male, especially if you are the sole woman among a male crew during 6 months of more or less continuously boarding (Kitada, 2009a).

In this approach, the majority of women seafarers experience difficulties with the lack of other women onboard to talk and share their feelings. Some women are uncomfortable trying to join a male crew community but also they sometimes feel the need to communicate with someone of the same gender. Often there are feelings of loneliness when there is no one to talk to according to one interview by the journal of Monthly Maritime Korea (Kim, 2008a). As one of ex-seafarer Korean woman put it,
“Sometimes I feel lonely having no one to talk to about anything. I think actually there is only one woman with me to talk to about any kind of subjects, I feel more comfortable without loneliness and isolation from the male community. My loneliness was hard to bear.’

It is natural that people are supposed to show of emotions, a tremendous sense of comradeship between colleagues of the same sex, instead of keeping it to themselves or hiding it as the findings in this research suggest.

Interestingly, the ILO (2007) addresses how to reduce the sense of isolation felt by many seafarers, as expressed in the following,

“A great advantage is that it creates a more normal social environment. This is particularly important because the nature of seafaring life has changed in recent years. There is less time to go ashore and there are people always onboard. Having women as part of the crew can reduce the sense of isolation felt by many seafarers.”

For both women and men seafarers, it can be an appreciative way to be harmonized among fewer seafarers onboard regardless of gender according to recent shipping industry trends such as the so-called ‘normal social environment’. This research paper would not refute that approach, however, as cited; most women seafarers are aware of the need of a same gender group onboard to talk to or even just to chat with. Of course, this need is not a relevant issue with males who have a sufficient same-gender crew onboard.

For this reason, occasionally some shipping companies have managed to put women onboard for significant periods of time being together on the same ship such as 2nd female officer and 3rd female officer. From a shipping company point of view, it seems
not to pool women together on the same ship at all times. However, a few cases are founded in the major companies in Korea.

However, this paper addresses other aspects of isolation or loneliness, so to speak, which might drive other situations such as stated by one European ship owner,

“[…] maybe when they go on a ship they will find somebody, make love and maybe marry and that’s it. Their seagoing career will stop right there. So the circle continues.” (Thomas, 2004)

Another similar example, according to the statement above by a European ship owner, can assume that it might origin from the isolation or loneliness. Therefore, the author would state repeatedly that one of the reasons why women look for a friendship can be reflected somehow from the sensation of isolation experienced on board.

“Women cause problems by looking for love in the workplace, and this will disrupt the workplace and ultimately lead to greater problems.” (Harris, et al., 2004).

Thus, so far no studies have approached this topic and many studies regarding women seafarers do not mention the problem of romance onboard ship. However it seems that one of results of the negative impact of isolation or loneliness is to drive another situation such as romance onboard ship according to many seafarers’ experience.

6.2 Sexual discrimination and sexual harassment

Many national cultures discriminate against females in the working environment (Harris, et al., 2004). Also the shipping industry has been traditionally regarded as a male
preserve and it seems that there is prejudice towards women seafarers (ILO, 2007; Thomas, 2004; Belcher et al., 2003).

Occasionally, the question is why do women continue to demonstrate intent to work at sea when it is so difficult to work with men onboard ship? Women seafarers, indeed have proven they can survive onboard the ship or in the male community, how long they can bear the workplace isolation? Can they work under a difficult environment similar to men? The difference between males and females is from a biological and physical perspective (O’Reilly, and O’Nelly, 2003), no less. These particular questions stem from occupational stereotyping and discrimination.

6.2.1 Sexual discrimination

Thomas (2004) in ‘Get yourself a proper job girlie’ states,

‘‘There are two different types of guys. One type is expecting more because they say ‘women can’t work onboard’. And if you make one mistake they say, ‘Okay I knew it, I knew it. Now you see, she is not able’. And there is the other type, if you take something absolutely normal, like a hammer and you put a nail in something, they say, ‘Oh my god, great! You can do it. I knew it. Fantastic!’ And this is also absolutely typical after a while, because the smallest things you’re doing, they are so, ‘Oh my god. Yes!’

Many man used to be doubtful of women seafarers ability, for example, men try to find out what female colleagues have done completely well or not. From the shipping company perspective, negative attitudes to the employment of women also relate to perception of the feminine gender. As one ex-seafarer women in Korea stated,

“I received a training course at H Merchant Marine, and applied for a scholarship but was rejected. During the interviews, I received many questions about my
feminine look. They wanted to know whether I could bear the workload if I took the job. It seems that they want a big strong man-like woman (for reference, an engineer and a navigator were selected among the female students. The original positions to be filled were for two engineers and five navigators. The remaining positions were filled by male students, although they were inferior candidates the females in terms of GPA and study ratings). I think female officers may work better than males, but most male officers believe that there are certain limits to female capabilities to work at sea. They think that it is dangerous to work with a female officer because women are prone to cause accidents.”

With similar opinions to those expressed above, another ex-seafarer women in Korea recounted sexual discrimination when shipping companies recruit as referenced below,

“Actually, most female students have been working harder and superior to male students in terms of GPA. Most companies say that they do not discriminate against female applicants, but most of them recruit only one female applicant. I heard that a major shipping company employs a female applicant for formality’s sake or for the company’s public image because it is forced to do so. […] Since I experienced discrimination after graduation and I experienced personally how difficult it is to join a male-oriented organization.”

Thus, this conservatism and prejudice attitude have denied to women applicants work opportunities in the shipping industry, even if the woman’s student credentials are higher\(^{30}\) than those of the male students. Employers who held negative views of women seafarers frequently had in common the fact that they had little or no experience employing women seafarers as marine crews.

\(^{30}\) Most female students of the average credit of entrance and graduation of the MMU and the KMU is indicated higher than male student group by per year, source from KMU and MMU.
On the contrary, excessive concern for female officers may have made it more difficult on-board ship. As one ex-seafarer women in Korea stated,

“When I was on a container ship for training, the Captain tried to install another lock to my room door which cannot be opened from the outside once locked. Of course, such a device was against the safety regulations. Such overprotection made me very uneasy. I could not go to a lower deck because I was a woman, and I could not do something, because I was a woman.”

“I now know that I must lock my door before I go to sleep and I check it at least three times. And it’s awful to think that you have to lock yourself away, but it’s a fact of life.” (Belcher et al., 2003).

On the basis of the author’s experience, when I was a 3rd officer on a bulk carrier ship, the Captain attached another inner locking system to my room door to disable the door from being opened from the outside by any key or master key. In addition, the Captain always ensured the author return to cabin during the night handover to the 2nd officer being sure no problems were arising. For the reason, all of the crew called me the ‘Cinderella 3rd officer!!!’ because I had to be back in my cabin before 12 pm more or less, when I had finished my duty especially night duty.

Sexual discrimination continues to exist in today’s maritime industry. One of the biggest impacts of sexual discrimination is found in that there are comparatively less opportunities for employment by women as seafarers. Moreover, from a practical point of view, the efforts of shipping companies to prevent sexual harassment seems to be insufficient to result in a company policy change reflecting a real corporate culture adjustment that may be on the way. Even though women are employed, the existence of sexual discrimination on ships needs to be addressed. These problems and difficulties relative to common life on ships still exist due to a perception gap of sexuality.
One of the negative impacts of sexual discrimination to address is the overprotection of women. It comes from the perception that women are weaker than men, and that they are more prone to accidents or errors than men. It might cause other problems whereby women often get more favorable treatment than men. It may be evident that an overprotection attitude can be more harmful than helpful for women.

We should appreciate the significance of these differences between men and women. Of course, there is a need to recognize the difference of sexuality, however, these differences are biological and physical and not those of qualifications or ability.

6.2.2 Sexual harassment including non sexual harassment

As a result of the author’s survey and in-depth interviews, it is concluded that many women also reported problems with some male colleagues in terms of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is defined as intimidation, bullying or coercion of a sexual nature, or the unwelcome or inappropriate promise of rewards in exchange for sexual favors\(^{31}\). Sexual harassment is a severe and complicated issue facing women since they began to be seafarers on cargo ships as well as on other types of ships. This author’s research found that the majority of women responded that they face this kind of harassment (either sexual or non sexual) onboard and have commonly heard of rumors and gossip involving sexual harassment between female and male seafarers.

One interview with a human resource manager of a shipping company in Korea outlined a recent case of harassment that recently occurred when a 3\(^\text{rd}\) officer came into her cabin after a party with all the crew members; she could not stop screaming when she found a naked Pilipino sailor sitting on the edge of her bed in her cabin.

\(^{31}\) Source from Wikipedia
Over the past few years, in Korea, a trainee deck officer sleeping in her cabin was completely taken aback by a drunken Chief officer who kept a master key. In addition another case, while escorting the pilot towards the navigation bridge from the pilot embarkation area when a ship passed the channel, the pilot approached the 3rd officer and tried to touch her by cornering her in the elevator. It seems that the 3rd officer got stuck in the elevator at that moment.

Other reported experiences of harassment cases by Belcher et al.(2003)is,

“When I got up to go to the bridge to work, he was lying down on his side, I could see him from my door, he was totally naked and was masturbating. […] So it really freaked me out when he turned his head and smiled at me. So I kind of got scared. I started arriving late for my duty watches and I asked my senior officer to come down to escort me up.”

Thomas’s study (2004), deals with the reality of sexual harassment including sexual comments in the guise of humor, persistent sexual invitations and unwanted physical contact; as well as unwanted sexual attention as earlier illustrated. It reported how women are take a number of steps to avoid such indications by locking their cabins at night or attempting to de-feminize their appearance. Such as remarked in the definition by Kitada (2009a), the author analyzes women seafarers’ identity introducing four different categories; negotiators, constructors, maintainers and reproducers. They might even be other identities when women are onboard ship.

In the past decade, there has not been any significant number of studies investigating harassment on ships. It seems that the shipping companies are not likely to be open to negative news in the public either: the female victims tend to hide those incidents to avoid public exposure in a conservative society. So far in Korea, it has been impracticable to visualize those issues to the public.
Also in addition, another female ex-seafarer in Korea stated that when she was interviewed, she remained in the ‘keep silent mode’.

“I have never been taught how to handle maltreatment or sexual harassment of students by taking advantage of performance ratings. I believe that there have been many similar cases which have been covered because such issues may cause trouble for all female officers.”

The effect of sexual harassment of any form on women onboard ship can be considerable and can have a direct influence on their career whereas the ships’ occupational hierarchies concentrates well on their personal well-being (Belcher et al. 2003). Indeed, in order to fully understand the impact of sexual harassment issues of any form on women onboard ship, it is necessary to talk openly, to be open, and to be brave, not just to employers, but also to women seafarers themselves. One objective of this research is to profile sexual harassment on ships so that it can be dealt more effectively.

With more active support to prevent sexual harassment, under Article 13 of the ‘Act on equal employment and support for work-family reconciliation’ and ‘Framework Act on Women’s Development’ in Korean Law, employers should play a primary role in promoting education to ‘Prevent Sexual Harassment in the Workplace’ at least once a

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32 Framework Act on Women’s Development adopted 1995, December 30, last amendment on Act number 8852, 2008, February 29 The purpose of this Act is to promote the equality between men and women in all the areas of politics, economy, society and culture and to facilitate the women’s development by stipulating the fundamental matters with regard to the obligation, etc. of the State and local governments for realizing an idea of equality between men and women under the Constitution of the Republic of Korea. Source form Article 1(purpose) under the ‘Framework Act on Women’s Development’.

33 Article 13 (Education to Prevent Sexual Harassment in the Workplace) under the ‘Act on equal employment and support for work-family reconciliation’; (1) An employer shall conduct education in order to prevent Sexual Harassment in the workplace (hereinafter referred to as the “education to prevent sexual harassment”) and to create a safe working environment for workers (Amended 2007 December, 21).
year,\textsuperscript{34} in order to prevent sexual harassment in the work place and to create a safe working environment. Obviously, the majority of shipping companies conduct educational programs against sexual harassment for employees both on shore and ships at least once a year. Some shipping companies conduct education for newly recruited seafarers in advance of boarding the ship. In general, such training includes illustrations of the unacceptable, unwanted behavior, sexist remarks, sex-related behavior and details of the company’s disciplinary procedures. It seems that employees tend to be very positive about the existence and great importance of such policies.

However, despite the efforts and the existence of such educational training of the shipping company policies, sexual harassment or related sexual issues continue to be reported. The reason is the lack of sufficient educational programs to prevent related sexual issues, not for education for education’s sake.

One of Korean women ex-seafarers interviewee proposed gave her experienced opinion on educational programme in order to prevent sexual harassment and problems relevant sexuality as well as to create a health working environment for both women and man seafarers.

“I believe that there shall be extra educational programs for crew members with the aim to prevent prejudice against female officers and […]”

To be more positive, active and efficient in such education, there is a need to have a more practical approach to education, emphasizing how to live with different genders onboard ships.

\textsuperscript{34} Article 3 (Education to Prevent Sexual Harassment at Work) under the ‘Act on equal employment and support for work-family reconciliation’:

(1) Employers shall, pursuant to Article 13 of the Act, conduct education on preventing sexual harassment at work at least once a year. (Amended by Presidential Decree No. 19366, Feb. 28, 2006)
6.3 The traditional social responsibilities for women

To avoid the cultural stereotypes inherent in conceptions of masculinity and femininity, we operationalize gender identity as gendered preferences for organizational culture in accordance with the study by O’Reilly and O’Nelly in 2003.

This stereotype could be linked to the global expectation of a woman’s role as mother or primary caretaker in the family (Harris, et al., 2004). This common stereotype is as follows: if a woman’s focus is on bearing children, she would subsequently be taking time off, and could not be considered an effective front-line executive. The Harris study looks at a case example in Chile, whereby Chilean marital status can be an important consideration during the hiring process and; it is generally featured at the top of a resume with other essentials such as name, address, and phone number, along with a photograph. A young, married woman with no children can be considered a “risky investment” because the perception is that she will soon have children, leave her job, and the company will have to pay for maternity expenses (Ibid).

Nevertheless, many women who choose to have children still maintain high career aspirations and often get stuck in less challenging or demanding jobs. This is also changing as a number of male partners and husbands of working women are staying home to care for their children (Ibid).

In Korea, the women labour force participation rate has rapidly increased, in 1960, it was 26.8 percent, in 1970, 37.7 percent, in 1980, 36.8 percent, 1990, 47.0 percent and in 1995, 48.3 percent. It reached a high of 49.5 percent in 1997 (Cho, 2002). It is lower than that of major industrialized countries as seen in the following table (Min, 2006).
Table 23 Korea’s female labor market participation rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: the proportion of women in employment to women in working ages who are 15 years and older.

Table 24 Female labour market participation rate by nation in 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women labour force participation rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>76.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD average</td>
<td>60.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: OECD average female labor market participation rate; proportion of women in employment to women in working ages between 15 and 64.

In reality, Korea’s women labour market participation rate is lower than commonly found. Korea still has plenty of room for improvement with regard to discrimination against women in the work place due to the typically traditional view that a woman should be a housewife, despite recent progress promoting gender equality. Especially the typical Korean family still exists in the nucleus of the family-community and demands obedience from women to keep the home, cook and take care of their babies. Therefore a career at sea for a Korean woman is full of obstacles and certainly not very much promoted in comparison with other occupations.

Momoko Kitada (2009b) stated, in the case of women seafarers, that it is more complicate to keep a balance between their sea lives and maintaining a relationship before marriage. In such a circumstance, consequently, many women weigh the pros and cons in their minds which decision would be better for them, and then, most decide to give up their seafaring career.
In the Korean case, there is no record of the number of women seafarers who have married and continued working onboard in cargo ships. Even when married, they transfer to shore based job or leave the ship before they get a baby. Even though Korea has no official data indicating married women, there may be a certain level of social pressure or traditional social needs on a woman transferring to shore-base jobs or staying at home after becoming a mother (Ibid).

Apart from the above state, in Korea, as indicated by the M-Curve, it is possible to see the trend of women in their twenties and thirties who are taking on a lighter role in the work environment when they re-enter the job market after giving birth, compared to the kind of work they used to take on previous to childbirth and nurturing (Jang, 2006). However, also here Korea has no official record regarding re-emerging the seafaring market after giving birth.

Seafaring requires being onboard for several months, in fact that might not satisfy the social role of mother or women. Thus, the social pressure or traditional social responsibility might make her confused when deciding to be away from home or staying at sea when she comes of a marriageable age or before marriage in general (Kitada, 2009b).

Likewise from this, society has to have the common recognition of the importance of the utilization of the women work force. Particularly, when both men and women have a family, they try to accept social responsibility, not only for on women (Min, 2006). This will be the solution to the utilization of a women seafarer work force and the way towards sustainable development.
6.4 Gender inequality and unequal promotion opportunities

Unequal promotion opportunities for women seafarers might be a consequence of sexual discrimination. Many individuals believe those gender-based preferences, whereby individuals may be characterized as stereotypically masculine or feminine, in other words, and a male with a masculine identity or a female with a feminine identity (O’Reilly & O’Neill, 2003). While sex is biologically determined, gender is rather a social construction, a product of socialization and experience (Ibid). Nevertheless, the gender inequality and unequal opportunity for women seafarers is often faced when applying for a job or promote in shipping industry. It seems that there is still considerable resistance in shipping companies to hire and accept women.

When a women applies to a shipping companies in Korea, she faces an unequal opportunity as the following statement shows,

“When I saw many of my female classmates and alumnae giving up embarkations because there are too few opportunities for female officers be employed in a shipping company. For example, when I graduated, the qualifications of female students applying to the H Company were much higher than those of male students. However, despite such good qualifications and a passion for embarkation, only a few female officers were recruited, so many of my remaining friends were forced to choose land-based jobs.”

In addition, four female ex-seafarers in Korea appealed to attain the same opportunities as the male colleagues.

“The opportunities for embarkation shall be offered on equal terms. Although somewhat difficult for now to realize, I would like to express my opinion more freely, it is necessary for companies; not to limit the number of female officers when recruiting.[…]”
“Most companies say that they will not discriminate female applicants, but most of them recruit only one female applicant. I heard that major shipping company employs a female applicant for formality’s sake because it is forced to do so.”

“Actually, except some large shipping companies such as H Merchant Marine, H Shipping or S shipping, there is little change for a woman to embark.”

“However, the economic recession reduced the quota for female students, as all the male students could not get onboard. Shipping companies did not want to provide opportunities for female students as they thought that female students tend to disembark soon. I understand that male students need to get some advantages as they have to complete alternative military duties.”

Such evidence tends to support the argument that the shipping companies have not provided an equal opportunity to join ships or work longer period at sea. Many female ex-seafarers officers found that they were refused opportunities to be recruited as officers or cadets.

However, interestingly here are different points of view towards the issues of promotion of women. The study of Belcher et al., (2003), described that their gender might have advantages in terms of promotion prospects as this statement describes,

“Because there are so few women at sea, companies see that promoting a woman is good for publicity. They can brag about how many women they have at sea.[…] Oslo, I think they think that if they don’t promote her quickly enough, then she could say, ‘well, that is sexist. You are discriminating against me because I am a woman.’ So, if anything, I think it may be a little bit quicker so that they don’t get seen as being sexist and they get seen in a good light because they have got women at sea in positions of rank.”
In fact, many women officers agree that they are not discriminated against in terms of promotion onboard if they are already working in a shipping company. However, many companies are unwilling to recruit women seafarers in the first place (Ibid). In reality, it seems that women do have fewer opportunities to be recruited than men.

6.5 Inadequate accommodations and the environment

The topic of improving the living conditions onboard is not only for women, but also for all of seafarers. Peter Cremers (2010) of the Hong Kong based Anglo-Estern Ship Management Services, emphasizes the importance of the quality of life at sea,

“To make our industry more attractive, the living conditions onboard must be improved to be in line with the expectations of the youngsters. The minimum requirements must be upgraded so that the accommodation onboard feels like a ‘home’ and not a posting to a remote location.” (The Sea, 2010).

Basically, if the shipping industry aspires to attract high quality recruits, the daily conditions and facilities have to improve accordingly. In general, it can be said that ships’ living accommodations are strictly functional or of ergonomic design, not social stimulation (The Sea, 2010). For commercial reasons, it seems that most ships are designed considering economic and efficiency in order to load more cargo, and do not consider how to make seafarers as comfortable as their home accommodation. Many seafarers have to stay and live onboard until disembarkation, often for up to 6 month periods. The ship might be considered a home for seafarers.

On a similar theme, even though women seafarers work on the ships, normally, most women seafarers are engaged in either major shipping companies in which technological large vessels like container vessels, bulk carriers according to the result of
questionnaires in chapter 5. One of the reasons is that vessels have unsuitable facilities for work and living for women seafarers, obviously, some small vessels have only one public/common bath and toilet room, not a private bathroom. Which women can work there for 6 months in such difficult environmental conditions?

One human resource manager in a shipping company during a telephone interview, underlined the issue of inadequate ships living spaces for females. Even where the shipping companies suffered in the supply of qualified seafarers, there is no room to employ women seafarers as alternative employees. The company added that it is not efficient given their limited budgets because they would have to consider providing new facilities or modifying facilities and the accommodation onboard their ships tended to be satisfying the minimum requirements according to the International rules.

“I know that most women who graduate from maritime universities are smart and qualified as officers. However, if we consider hiring women, we have to seriously consider all aspects that will affect what we have to do for them, such as inadequate facilities, the likelihood of problems relating to sexuality, or […] So, to reduce the chance of the probability of the problem, we hire stupid men rather than smart women.”

6.6 Relatively low social recognition

Whenever the author recounted a seafarers life, the most heard words is that ‘oh, you’re lucky, you must be able to eat raw fish easily whenever you want’ when I introduced myself to people as ‘a seafarer’. It means that most Koreans have preconceptions, misconceptions and stereotypes about ‘seafarers’ in terms of s merchant ships. One common misbelief is that there is a nebulous concept regarding merchant ship’s such as there is no line between a merchant vessel and a fishing vessel. Therefore, people can
think seafarers always try to catch fish at sea, casting a net into the rough sea, and fighting the rough sea on rolling ships under heavy weather. This is one simple imagine about of seafaring is in Korea.

A similar case of one of the interviewees from a Korean women ex-seafarer who has experience of less than 2 years onboard a car carrier,

“I said I am an officer on a cargo ship. However, they tried to say something a few seconds later as the majority of them could not recognize what women officers do on such ships. And then, most of them said, sure, ‘oh, great! Great you’ but they looked at me with sympathy. Or others say, ‘you are a really strong person more than a man, how is sea life and can you bear the hard work, for example the fishing?”

One other example of widespread ignorance and prejudice of seafaring is expressed in the following statement from a group interview by Kim (2008a).

“[…] just unsatisfied with ignorance of seafaring in general. Whenever I identify my job as seafarer, most of them replied and asked me how much fishes catch or how often I eat a raw fish due to their ignorance and misunderstanding of the different between merchant ship and a fishing boat.[…] comparatively low seafaring and shipping company awareness in common.”

“Yes, I absolutely agree with that. It might say that the shipping company should consider seriously the low awareness of seafaring relatively in common. They have to raise their brand name value as a shipping company and also correspondently let all the people know the seafaring. […] There seems to be a lack of any active effort to inform the public who seafarers are and what we do. […] if shipping companies take a positive attitude to inform then, it can help
people to change stereotype of the awareness, but also might raise our self esteem as seafarers.”

The above two examples from former women seafarers reflect the one side of reality of seafaring on cargo ships in Korea. To reduce the wrong social recognition, the company might not only contribute to give right information and a positive image of shipping to the public, but also improve the image of seafaring as a professional global occupation.

6.7 Job dissatisfaction

One may consider job satisfaction in terms of salary. One thing is clear from the research findings is that the salary is not the sole motivating factor in sustaining a career at sea. Obviously there is a need to look at a number of areas such as whether seafarers feel satisfied or dissatisfied with their job, it is difficult to define just one or two reason why. However, the subject of this paragraph might be connected with the working environment, which is referred to as, a ‘special job environment relative to shore-based jobs’, not in terms of their own tasks on ship. For example, job dissatisfaction can be caused by gender issues, relatively low social recognition, isolation, family opposition toward seafaring, limitation of allowed shore leave, crew size and overworked.

In accordance with Seo and Kim’s study on ‘A preliminary study on the stress perception and ways to cope with stress for seafarers’ (2005), is describes that the percentage of satisfied seafarers with a job is equal to 28.5 and the percentage of dissatisfied respondents is equal to 71.5. Surprisingly, this ratio of dissatisfaction respondent is a much higher percentage than 11.6 percent as indicated in the research by

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35 In many countries, seafarers are not allowed shore leave according to the ISPS Code.
Lim j.K. (1992),\textsuperscript{36} and 25.8 percent in the research by KIMFT (1998).\textsuperscript{37} The important point is that the ratio of job dissatisfaction has taken a sudden turn for the worse, and has rapidly increased in recent.

The impact of job dissatisfaction may affect transfers to shore-based jobs. Thus, as mentioned earlier, all aspects of job dissatisfaction can have a great ripple effect on each other elements as being formed and not only on a single particular issue.

\textsuperscript{36} See for ‘ A study on seafaring activity and job satisfaction’ by Lim J.K in 1992
\textsuperscript{37} See for ‘ A study on safe operation and measures against oil carrier in near Korea coast’ by Korea Institute and Maritime Fisheries Technology in 1998
Chapter 7 Corporate Social Responsibility

7.1 The shipping industry through CSR activities

The concept of ‘Corporate Social Responsibility’ (CSR) has become a major aspect of aspect of corporate strategic planning and policy in recent years because of expanding international markets and growing economic globalization business (Verena, 2010; Fafaliou, et al, 2002). This powerful concept creates the wider society’s awareness of social and environmental needs as well as the companies have to face challenge of business alliances and stakeholders to establish CRS in the mainstream of their business practices and policy making (Fafaliou, et al., 2002). CSR, recognizes the crucial role of business, for example, the company manager has to include in their concerns how market value is generated and perceived, the role of corporate reputation and the role of management (Ibid) itself as well to consider the close link between stakeholders and employees, customers, stockholders, collaborators, local community and non-governmental organizations (Kim, 2009).

Nevertheless, in fact, the term CSR, is not a well-established term yet and is not very much in use among private and public Korean companies (Ibid). Whilst the discussion and debate of CSR has been wide ranging among many developed countries such as Europe and USA, contrarily, in the case of Korea, there has not yet been enough consideration and study regarding CSR in both practically and theatrically so far (Ibid).

This chapter attempts to be a first step forward towards exploring the definition of the CSR concept and the new paradigm of CSR from a human element perspective that focus on employees. Subsequent sections of this chapter focus on the role of CSR toward seafarers especially on women seafarers. From the shopping company point of view, there is a need to face the challenges better in the social and working environment
in accordance with the results of the questionnaires and interviews. This research found that there are considerable factors to improve company policies particularly on the support systems for women and the social environment in order to provide more opportunities for women to go to sea. Therefore, the conclusions of the analysis and issues based on the above research results would highlight the need for women seafarers.

7.2 Definition of CSR

The European Commission has offered a definition of CSR, in 2001 as follows;

“Most definitions of corporate social responsibility describe it as a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis.’

The Norwegian Shipowner’s Association, who voluntarily adopted CSR commented that CSR is ‘the willing inclusion by businesses of social and environmental concerns in the commercial activities and their relations with their stakeholders.’ (Bohler, K. L. (2008).

Furthermore, the European Commission (2001) briefly provides a clear statement of the role of CSR in changing global market environment as described below;

“As companies face the challenges of a changing environment in the context of globalization and in particular the internal market, they are increasingly aware that corporate social responsibility can be of direct economic value. Although the prime responsibility of a company is generating profits, companies can at the same time contribute to social and environmental objectives, through integrating corporate social responsibility as a strategic investment into their core business strategy, their management instruments and their operations.” (EU, 2001)

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39 See Bohler, K.L. ‘CSR strategy focus top management commitment.’ 2008
Among the various roles of CSR, Beckman (2010) analyzes the importance of CSR as follows,

“The continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families, as well as of the local community and society at large.’

Beckman (2010) emphasize employee loyalty as one of the most crucial roles of CSR in helping in the recruitment of new staff and retention of employees. Also supporting the above idea, the Nautical Institute (2004), states,

‘A quality company also invests in its people, by providing them with a safe and secure working environment, decent living conditions and fair terms of employment, and by promoting a Company Culture though the communication and empowerment.’

Specifically, there is a correlation between the concept of CSR and the employee element. Fafaliou et al. (2002), demonstrate by explaining that stakeholders may be both internal (e.g. employees) and external to an enterprise (e.g. customers, suppliers, shareholders, financial institutions, the local community). In summary, the internal social responsibility of an enterprise is considered as the basis for and an integral part of its external responsible activity. The areas in which internal CSR is implemented incorporates respect for employees’ rights (e.g. assurance of fair and prompt payment, support of employees’ balance of work and family time, respect of their leisure time), security and even improvement of health and safety conditions, training, etc. The direct beneficiaries of CSR internal responsibility are the corporations’ human resources (Ibid).

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40 See reference, Beckman, R.C ‘Successful cases of CSR Activities. The problem of the global shortage of seafarers and the role of the shipping industry through CRS activities’ during the conference by Japan International Transport Institute & The Nippon Foundation, 2010.
Overall, CSR is expected to take a proactive approach to sustainable development (EU, 2001)

7.3 Corporate social responsibility: Internal dimension

Accordingly, the European Commission (2001)\textsuperscript{41} defined CSR as composed of both internal and external dimensions. The former, as mentioned, may be employees, while the latter may be customers, suppliers, shareholders, financial institutions, and the local community according Fafaliou’s study (2001). Of course, the theory of CSR relies on being systematic and developing employees to suit to new eras, and the new paradigm concept of CSR encompasses the practical use and contribution to social evolution through innovative changes in the 21\textsuperscript{st} century.

As Kim (2009) declared, CSR evolved into a more practical stage from a controversial stage at the end of the 20\textsuperscript{th} century. As the result of innovation to the CSR theory, it has been broadened to include the overall responsibility such as the legal, economic, political, social, cultural, artistic and that concrete social responsibility and accountability have been systematized (Ibid). In addition, its main stakeholders are namely the employees, customers, stockholders, collaborators, local community and non government organizations. Amongst the stakeholders above, the protection of the rights and interests of employees, have been established as follows;

(1) salary, promotion of equity, (2) stability and continuity of employment efforts (3) efforts to create jobs (4) women employees, minority groups (a multi culture families) of elimination of discrimination (5) drug and alcohol addiction,

protection from sexually transmitted diseases (6) education, training, strengthening (technical improvements, capacity building, strengthening retraining) (7) effort to provide communication channels with employees (Kim, 2009).

In addition, CSR describes what specifics subjects would be satisfied employees through the company’s social responsibility as shown in Table 25, according to Kim’s theory (2009).

**Table 25 Satisfaction with employees through company ability**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>object</th>
<th>The detailed company social responsibility and contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>Suitable employment system for newly graduated school or university students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consider employment for older workers, physical or financial handicapped person,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keep control or balance between gender, academic achievement, age etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Establish and implement the welfare programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Establish the welfare fund and efficient operation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operate nursery or day care centers for married women workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational support for children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support to form personal property through employee stock ownership association, individual retirement account etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial support for marriage and death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Severance payment system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support for pension, pension plan and industrial accident compensation insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual expense management for consumer’s cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temporary support for dismissed an employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


7.4 Corporate social responsibility in shipping companies

Around 90 percent of world trade (UNCTAD, 2009) is carried by the international seaborne trade. Seaborne trade continues to expand, bringing benefits and goods for
consumers across the world through competitive costs. There is growing efficiency of the shipping industry as new modern technology transport infrastructure and increased economic liberalization occurs, and the prospects for the shipping industries further will be more growth gradually strengthening this industry. Shipping company services are produced to satisfy the delivery of various cargoes on time, secure and safely according their contracts with their customers. Primarily, how to properly handle cargoes and safe transport is the main objective of a shipping company’s goals. In short, it seems that most shippers emphasize this objective of a company’s goals rather than how to deal with their employees by providing a good working environment.

However, the reason for the existence of company seems to be changing to innovate to survive in the competitive environment of the shipping market. The trend and strategy of a Quality Company is to change and innovate and adapt control mechanisms that will be better for all of the elements, including the human element which is a current trend as described Figure 12.

![Figure 12 New paradigm of CSR](image)


Figure 12 New paradigm of CSR

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In Figure 12, the centric business management theory suggests that the reason for the existence of a company was to maximize profits as a value of an enterprises’ existence. However, the 21st century business needs to shift the paradigm to the ‘Copernican theory’ management from the ‘geocentric theory’ management. Simply, a new paradigm of CSR from the Copernican theory is recommended so that a company should wrap its planet and turn around. This means, that both shipping companies and employees including all stakeholders are in a win-win situation.

It is evident that in order to survive in the competitive shipping market, companies have not only to attempt to improve the control mechanisms such as the safety and quality standards of shipping operations, but also need to create a healthy work environment for employees and to address stakeholder’s needs. If shipping companies adopt an effective CSR policy, it will not only improve the image of the shipping industry, it will indirectly assist in the recruitment and retention of seafarers (Beckman, 2010). In addition, it is inherent that stakeholder relationships and long-term value-oriented company strategies, rather than short-term trading to pursue a relationship (Lee, 2010).

This paper, as already mentioned, focuses on seafarers and especially women seafarers. Therefore, the author addresses the strategy to survive together, from both the company and the female seafarers’ perspective through the results of the questionnaires and interviews in the following paragraph. Therefore, what are the strategies and challenges of CSR that arise from seafarers, especially for women seafarers, to get an opportunity to have longer onboard careers, and to retain seafarers? This paper explores the needs and expectations of seafarers towards their company activities, what will be the established institutional frameworks of CSR. The focus of this research discussion has been on how approaches attract seafarers and are established according to CSR activity.
Chapter 8 Conclusion and recommendations

Before drawing any conclusions, the top priority for shipping companies should obviously be to regard seafarers as one of the important stakeholder elements in any company, not just a cost element in economic terms (Monthly Maritime Korea, 2008). In shortly, there is needs to be an awareness of seafarers as contributors in accomplishing a high quality seaborne trade service across the world, that is qualified professionals who enjoy a rich work experience. Another crucial point is how effectively a manager or decision maker in a shipping company can encourage and instill pride in seafarers. Therefore, current the problems which surround today seafarers will be solved when shipping companies change their perception towards seafarers first of all, not just because they are employees. Shipping company should consider that seafarers are as one of business partners as well as one other stakeholders. Therefore, the author recommends what ultimate strategies need to be created to make a working environment focusing on women seafarers as a priority.

8.1 Strategic expansion of women seafarers

8.1.1 Support and motivation to go to sea

The author believes that shipping companies have been already prepared to listen to women seafarers attentively as to the support they require on board ship. Today, shipping companies should be capable of contributing to the development of a corporate culture in the more proactive and practical way. To achieve the ultimate corporate culture, it must be borne in mind that the key point is to motivate and encourage women seafarers as well as establish a vision of a seafarers job (Hwang, 2008b).
Shipping companies are recommended to explore the possibility of a new job-version for the woman seafarer which they would be the best professional career in maritime field as well as they would be a high quality human resources.

Therefore, shipping companies need to take a view a long-term perspective and make a drastic investment (Ibid) in women seafarers within future-oriented thinking. In order to acknowledge how to motive women seafarers within shipping company, this research advocates a more practical approach as described in the following paragraphs of this chapter.

8.1.2 Create consideration for equal opportunities

Definitely, the number of women seafarers is a minority in the shipping industry throughout the world. However, it is evident that many women desire to attain a job at sea. Despite the rising numbers of applications for positions on board ship in recent years, it has been hard to open an ‘employment’ door in this competitive job market.

Gender equality is the basis of civilized, human rights and a developed society. Also the issues regarding gender equality in the maritime industry are now being raised universally. Giving more opportunities to women seems to be a pretty trite slogan but, as a matter of fact, such opportunities are not given equally to women in the shipping industry. Consequently, although there are established as high quality policies for employment, they are not often focused on women seafarers.

It is obvious that there is a diversity of reasons for shipping companies if they hesitate to willingly hire women. However, if they seldom offer the same opportunity, how do women prove they have the qualification and ability to do a seafaring job? The shipping company should establish an employment equality policy and encourage the hiring of women on a similar basis to men (Aggrey, 2000).
8.1.3 Training and education for understanding and harmonizing with females

Many shipping companies seek to create a workplace environment that is inspiring and develops diverse talent in order to carry out the performance of ship operations in an effective way. A key component in this system focuses on improving the ways to verify knowledge and the skill mastery of the ship’s crew such as maneuvering, cargo handling, ship handling simulator, job familiar course, support on-the-job training and E-learning. The majority of shipping companies have developed a uniform set of training and educational programs, and practical material for seafarers in order to effectively improve their skills, namely, ‘best tailored training’.

The more proactive shipping companies have established their own training and education centers and hire their own training instructors to enhance the skills of seafarers. It seems that shipping companies and training institutions are shifting gears from doing only what is required, to doing what is right to improve the skills seafarers and the overall safety at sea. More detailed training programmes of the ship, should include the drills to be carried out over regular periods, in accordance with the International regulations such as SOLAS, MARPOL, STCW 78/95.

However, shipping companies need to provide a gender familiarization programme to be harmonized with females. Even the employed seafarers prior to embarkation on ships are provided with familiarization training according to STCW before being assigned to particular duties, which does not involve gender issues. In general, it includes particulars of ship, type of cargoes, main ship sailing routes and other relevant basic information to provide for a safe and efficient performance. However, the author would recommend that the most significant thing to understand the gender issues would be a shift in the male seafarer’s awareness through the gender familiarization programme. The gender familiarization programmer should contain elements from the basic gender issues of how to create balance and harmony between different genders in the work environment in
order to reduce the potential for sexual discrimination against females, cultivate the
ship’s communal culture, as well as create a gender friendly working environment.

Also it is important that the programme should include an acceptance of the ship’s
hierarchy when women are established in senior positions. Although infrequent, there
still exists the problem of male seafarers who are unable to take orders from women
(Belcher, et al., 2003)

8.1.4 Establish a sex harassment policy and control

Special education programmes regarding sexual harassment are commonly conducted in
the industry in accordance with national regulations. This education is under the Article
13 of the ‘Act on Equal employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation’ and
the ‘Framework Act on Women’s Development’. Under Korean Law, the employer
should conduct education to ‘Prevent Sexual Harassment in the Workplace’ at least a
once year, in order to prevent sexual harassment in the work place.

Such education is often done prior to new employees joining a ship or at the
commencement of a sea voyage. In general, the training includes illustrations of

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42 Framework Act on Women’s Development adopted 1995, December 30, last amendment on Act
number 8852, 2008, February 29 The purpose of this Act is to promote the equality between men and
women in all the areas of politics, economy, society and culture and to facilitate the women’s
development by stipulating the fundamental matters with regard to the obligation, etc. of the State and
local governments for realizing an idea of equality between men and women under the Constitution of
the Republic of Korea. Source form Article 1(purpose) under the ‘Framework Act on Women’s
Development’

43 Article 13 (Education to Prevent Sexual Harassment in the Workplace) under the ‘Act on equal
employment and support for work-family reconciliation’;
(1) An employer shall conduct education in order to prevent Sexual Harassment in the workplace
(hereinafter referred to as the “education to prevent sexual harassment”) and to create a safe working
environment for workers. (Amended 2007 December, 21)

44 Article 3 (Education to Prevent Sexual Harassment at Work) under the ‘Act on equal employment and
support for work-family reconciliation’;
(1) Employers shall, pursuant to Article 13 of the Act, conduct education on preventing sexual
harassment at work at least once a year. (Amended by Presidential Decree No. 19366, Feb. 28, 2006)
unacceptable, unwanted behavior, sexist remarks, sex-related behavior and details of company disciplinary procedures. It seems that employees tend to be very positive about the existence and high profile of such policies.

Obviously, the majority of shipping companies conduct education on sexual harassment for employees both shore-based and onboard ship at least once a year. Some shipping companies conduct education for new seafarers prior to embarkation.

However, this research indicates that small and medium sized shipping companies have routinely provided a sexual harassment procedure under company policy as a matter of form. Even though, these companies have a sexual harassment policy according to a quality system, it seems these policies are not sufficient to prevent the problem.

In order to guarantee a safer shipboard environment, the author would suggest that shipping companies need to install formal grievance procedures, whereby employees are invited to air their grievances which relate to sex discrimination, sexual harassment or abuse of power and other aspects relating to sexual behavior. It should incorporate disciplinary action measures, follow-up measures, and assure the confidentiality of employees and identify the designated persons who deal with such enquiries relating to those issues. It should carry out the role as the reception window when women want to report their problems.

8.1.5 Establishment of specific policies for women seafarers

Shipping companies should establish diversified welfare programmes for women such as the granting of medical leave for menstrual periods, pregnancy policy, granting of maternity leave and reinstatement of employment. Such a menstrual leave is stated under the Article 83 (Menstruation Holiday) of the ‘Act on Seafarers’ under Korea Law,

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45 Article 83 (Menstruation Holiday): The shipowner shall grant a female seafarer one day of menstruation
where women seafarers are entitled to one day of menstrual leave every month. However, with a ship’s special duty working environment and the rotation of duty time between three duty officers per day, it is not easy to request and receive menstrual leave without adequate notice (Lee, 1999).

This research indicates that most respondents want to establish company policies for women. For example, when a female officer embarks after childbirth, the company will have to support the upbringing of the baby (allowance for diapers, formulas, etc.) and to allow the embarkation of a nursery governess. In other words, companies should consider offering proper welfare policies for women to work comfortably after childbirth.

The above examples of menstrual leave are far from the present situation in Korea according this research data; however, within a future-oriented policy, shipping companies should attempt to provide a proactive welfare programme to guarantee women that they would be treated with a better working environment.

Also, the most important message is that it is essential to create a corporate culture in which women can request access to the above programmes without any concerns the companies would not accept such requests.

8.1.6 Females working together

The author’s research demonstrates that most women officers feel the impacts of isolation or loneliness as they are the only females on board ship. The majority of

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46 Act on Seafarers adopted 1962, January 10, last amendment on Act number 9851, 2009, December 29

The purpose of this Act is to prescribe the duties, services, standard of labor conditions, occupational security, and education and training for seafarers so as to keep the orders on the vessel, to secure and improve seafarer’s basic life, and also to promote seafarers’ qualities. Source form Article 1(purpose) under the ‘Act on Seafarers’

47 This research found that there are no records of women who that re-enter shipping companies as seafarers after childbirth.
women expressed difficulties with the lack of other women onboard to talk to and share their feelings. To solve these problems, the author would suggest that shipping companies should attempt to put more than one woman onboard for voyages of significant periods (Kitada, 2009a; Kim, 200848; Kim, 2008a49).

The author agrees with Kitada (2009a) who has recommended that to increase the number of women seafarers there is a need to change the mentality and create a better working environment for both men and women. Also her study quotes a ‘critical mass theory’ to emphasis the number of women seafarers, indicating that there should be at least three women in a crew of ten persons on a ship.

To put more women together onboard ship may be difficult from practical points of view, nevertheless, it is important that shipping companies attempt to implement the placement of women together on board the same ship.

8.1.7 Creation of a family-friendly company and social culture

Major shipping companies provide, an ‘On Board Ship with Family’ Programme within the regular company’s policy. This has been evaluated as a positive effect and that it can provide emotional stability for the seafarers and greatly inspire and motivate seafarers towards ship performance (Kim, 2008b50). For example, the K shipping company took the step with the ‘On Board Ship with Family’ Programme’ in 1975, and the programme has expanded for seafarers who have a minimum experience onboard ship of at least 2 years, and includes wives or husbands and children, up to a maximum of 3 persons per seafarer. The programme has been limited to ship voyages, ship sailing routines and some types of ships due to safety and security reasons.

49 See reference, Kim K.M (2008a)
50 See reference, Kim K.M. (2008b)
Nevertheless, many seafarers have undertaken the programme with their families and actually the users who applied for this programme is increasing within shipping companies (Ibid).

The ‘On Board Ship with Family’ Programme is one of the solutions for seafarers who can be far away from their families for a long period time, and feel isolated and lonely under the special ship circumstances. However, it is limited according to a company’s policy to those who have enough careers and a limited family size. Surprisingly, the majority of women seafarers are single. Therefore, the author would recommend the programme to be applied broader and more flexibly, for example, the programme would be open to parents, fiancés, etc and encourage family members to visit the ship when at berth.

Another solution to encourage seafarers to choose a sea career is to make communications available by Babsal (2009). The author would recommend that the shipping companies provide communication tools to allow seafarers to instantly contact their families, friends and loved ones. To attract young people to go to sea, shipping companies should make full use of the advancement in scientific technology such as the internet. They are aware that such technology is available on board ships as a communication tool that is virtually free; therefore, seafarers using this technology will no longer feel they are alone in the center of the ocean anymore.

8.2 Concluding statement

Amartya Kumar Sen, an eminent Indian economist who won the Nobel Prize in Economic Science for his contribution to work on welfare economics in 1998, has stated, (Song, 2006):
“Nothing is more important in economic development than women’s participation.”

Seafarers, have been playing a key human resource role in the maritime industry. Therefore, at this point of time, the employment of seafarers and welfare programmes within shipping companies are significant factors towards encouraging seafarers, as well as shipping companies to view seafarer employment from a long-term perspective and make a greater investment in women as seafarers.

Inter alia, how we could efficiently utilize the female work force in the maritime labor market is a major factor to increase the number of women seafarers. The integration of women in the seafarer career is not possible without support from international organizations and national governments alone or by any individual efforts. Company cooperation is the most crucial factor (Min, 2006) as it creates jobs as well as a better working environment.

When shipping companies remove discrimination against women, hire people on their performance and attempt to enhance the organizational culture and institutions to set up gender-neutral workplaces, the integration of women seafarers as a resource could bring about visible results (Ibid). This will be an effective solution to better utilize Korea’s women seafarers and the way forward to sustainable development.

Who can forecast the sea of the future? The present research concludes that women seafarers also greatly contribute to keeping the maritime environment and oceans safer and clean in the future. The Deputy of TC in IMO, Tansey (2010) in a recent address stated that, women had little chance to do this at present. Obviously, the author further emphasizes stating that, ‘women seafarers must be expected and they will respond as key actors in the maritime field in the near future.’
REFERENCES


APPENDIX

Appendix 1 Questionnaire

A. Profile of the seafarer

1. How old are you?

2. What is your occupation currently?

- PSCO
- VTS operator
- Seafarer
- Korea Coast Guard
- Government officer
- Ship building yard
- Shipping company manager
- Shipping company junior
- Inspector or surveyor
- Teacher or instructor
- University master or doctor degree student
- Looking for employment
- Homemaker
- other

3. What kinds of ship did you serve mostly?

- Container
- Bulk carrier
- Gas carrier
- LNG carrier
- Oil Tanker
- Cars carrier
- Training ship
- Others

4. What was main reason you work at sea before? (please, tick one box only)
1. For the opportunity to see other countries
2. To earn more money
3. To other special job experience and then transfer to a shore based for the further
4. To examine myself and satisfy my desire for a different environment
5. Couldn’t find other job ashore
6. Other (please write in )

5. How long had you been worked at sea? Or have you been worked at sea?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than 1 year</th>
<th>1 – 3 years</th>
<th>3 – 5 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5 – 8 years</th>
<th>More than 8 years</th>
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<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. What is your last rank (position) when you on board ship?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Master</th>
<th>Chief officer</th>
<th>2(^{nd}) officer</th>
<th>3(^{rd}) officer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief engineer</td>
<td>1(^{st}) engineer</td>
<td>2(^{nd}) engineer</td>
<td>3(^{rd}) engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio officer</td>
<td>Apparent officer</td>
<td>Apparent Engineer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Experience at sea

7. Had you have any of the following problems with your colleagues? (please, tick all box if you have)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Intentional ignorance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bullying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sexual discrimination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Non sexual harassment : verbal or physical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Abuse of power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sexual harassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Other (please write in )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Which of the following difficulty to retain had you ever felt on seafarers’ job?
You can answer in order of priority from no. 1 to no. 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Difficulty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sexual discrimination from male colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Non-sexual harassment from male colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sexual harassment from male colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gender inequality; unequal promotion opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Isolation or loneliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Inadequate accommodations for female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Demands to change to a shore based job from family and/or fiancé; opposition to a seafarers job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Relatively low social recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Could not feel pride and confidence in your job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Traditional social responsibility for women; marriage, nurturing children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Specialty of job and physical difficulty related to job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Other (please write in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. When you had a problem at sea, how did you deal with this?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Keep it to yourself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Share it with family and/or friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Share it with colleagues and get support from them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Report it to your senior (ie, Captain, chief officer, chief engineer, etc)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Report it to company’s manager immediately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Report it to Seafarers Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Other (please write in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. To solve those problems and difficulties, what areas do you think should be improved and developed for woman seafarers? You can answer in order of priority from no. 1 to no. 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No special requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The effort of improvements by self-motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Seafarer Union’s proactive support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Korea has a social role and responsibility for females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Shipping company’s policy and social responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>International organization’s multilateral effort and investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Other (please write in)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. According to Question No. 10 ‘Shipping company’s policy and social responsibility’, women point of view, what changes are need to provide sufficient support from shipping company when you are onboard? You can answer in order of priority from no. 1 to no.5.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>No special requirement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Free contact with family and/friends through mailing, phone calling, fax etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Grantee of medical leave for menstrual period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pregnancy policy, grantee of maternity leave and reinstatement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Encourage policies to work at sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Welfare policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Adequate accommodation facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Consideration for female group onboard to support one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Training and education for seafarers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Other (please write in )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Would you like to recommend other woman to do same job as you?

Yes [ ] No [ ] I am not sure, don’t know [ ]

13. Do you have any further comments?