IAMU 2014 Research Project
(No. 20140203)

A CSR awareness program to enhance capacity building in good governance of multi-cultural employees and safe operations – Good Governance of Multi-cultural Safety (PGMS)

By

World Maritime University (WMU)

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Contractor : Cleopatra DOUMBIA-HENRY, President, WMU

Research Coordinator : Lisa L. FROHLDT, WMU

Research Partner : Michael BALDAUF, WMU

Maria PROGOULAKI, University of The Aegean

Thomas PAWLIK, BUAS

Contents

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A CSR awareness program to enhance capacity building in good governance of multi-cultural employees and safe operations – Good Governance of Multi-cultural Safety (PGMS)

Theme: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Shipping

Authors: Dr. Lisa L. FROHOLDT
Assistant Professor, World Maritime University, lf@wmu.se

Dr. Michael BALDAUF
Associate Professor, World Maritime University, mbf@wmu.se

Dr. Maria PROGOULAKI
Maritime HR Consultant, Researcher and Instructor; Adjunct Professor and Research Associate, University of The Aegean, m.progoulaki@aegean.gr

Dr. Thomas PAWLIK
Professor, Dean of Maritime Studies, Bremen University of Applied Science, thomas.pawlik@hs-bremen.de

Abstract Within the project PGMS, Good governance of multi-cultural safety, a preliminary investigation has taken place that sought to tease out existing educational needs and offerings within the field of safety and culture with a focus on the Filipino seafarers. The main thrust of the project was to produce a CBT program in safety and culture as part and parcel of the phenomenon of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and two essential papers and to conduct a field study. One paper provides an analysis of the regulations relating to issues such as safety and culture, and the other provides a review of CSR issues and dealings with multi-cultural human resources in the maritime industry. A Computer Based Training (CBT) program has been drafted based on the analysis of interviews and questionnaires from the field study in the Philippines. The analysis showed that little is offered in cultural awareness for Filipino seafarers, and what is offered comes in the form of a brief familiarization course in connection with embarking on a sea passage. CSR is not a concept that seafarers are aware of, however, they did recognize following explanations of the concept and could inform that they took part in such events. No institution interviewed provided an educational offering combining cultural awareness with safety or of CSR. The CBT program fills therefore an existing gap in the educational offerings to seafarers, and it can be developed to fit other cultures.

Keyword: *computer based training (CBT), corporate social responsibility, safety, culture*

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1. Introduction

1.1 Overall topic and aims

The research project **"**A CSR awareness program to enhance capacity building in good governance of multi-cultural employees and safe operations – Good Governance of Multi-cultural Safety (PGMS)" brings together two recognised IAMU institutions and a private maritime consultant and combines research competencies in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), culture and safety. Under the leadership of WMU the partners contributed to the idea of creating an e-learning program for cultural awareness and safety under the umbrella of CSR. Being cognizant of IMOs document "A concept of a sustainable transportation system", a response to the Beyond Rio + 20, that was presented on World Maritime Day, 2013, in which these issues are raised.

This report is part of the final phase of the project.

1.2 Methodology of work

The main aim of the project is to investigate educational needs for developing a CBT program that can be offered to Filipino seafarers in order to enhance their awareness of the topic of CSR, which is on the rise in the maritime industry, and to optimise awareness for good governance of multi-cultural safety.

In order to create the course, primary and secondary sources were used. Firstly, a field study was conducted that employed three different research methods, case study method, the questionnaire and interview methods. This field study is explained more in-depth in the chapter 2.3 of this report.

A playbook was created as a master version of the CBT program, based on the findings in the field study and the two literature review papers (a 38 paged document that has been sent to IAMU). The CBT program was then manually uploaded to the IAMU website. The program was reviewed, piloted and set up under the IAMU framework.

The two literature review papers that were drawn up that are mentioned above comprise one regulatory review of governance tools, and the other is a review of CSR activities in the maritime industry. These papers were used as learning material in the CBT program and can be used as additional reading sources for the course.

1.3 Research activities

The principle project work in its whole consists of the following work packages:

- WP1: Analysis of relevant International Conventions- hereunder the ISM code and how this can be reflected in CSR strategies regarding multi-cultural leadership.
- WP 2: Conduct review of relevant CSR issues and studies dealing with multicultural human resources in the maritime industry.
- WP 3: Collect and analyse data from questionnaire survey from seafarers, manning agents and shore-based personnel.
- WP 4: The development of a CBT program "Leadership and multi-cultural crew management awareness"
- WP 5: Review and test the CBT program.
- WP 6: Write up report

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(WMU)

After a meeting in Bremen in May 2014, the project was kicked off. Hereafter WP 1 and successively, WP 2 were initiated. Data has been collected and analysed together with the associated partners. The analysis has been used to create a CBT program in safety and culture for Filipino seafarers.

Activity	Time	Venue	Members involved
Kick off meeting	May 20	Bremen	LF, MBF, MP, TP, EL
WP1	May, June	WMU	LF, MBF, TJ
WP2	August	MP	MP
Collect and analyse data	September, November	Manila, Malmö	LF, EL
Research presentation at IEB meeting	October	Australia	LF, MP
Review and test	April	Virtual	WMU, MP
Final report	May	Malmö	WMU

2. Work package deliverables

This section presents the work accomplished in three of the project work packages. WP 1; Analysis of relevant international conventions, WP 2; Review of relevant CSR issues and studies dealing with multi-cultural resources in the maritime industry, and finally WP 3; Collect and analyse data from field study.

2.1 Submission of WP 1: Analysis of International Conventions: Maritime safety and culture as a part of Corporate Social Responsibility. Authors: Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt, Dr. Michael Baldauf and Research assistant Tafsir Johansen.

1. Introduction

Shipping is now considered as one of the most globalized industries in the world economy and the leading means of transport (Ljung 2010; Gekara 2008). However, Moreby (1990) already pointed out a trend in the industry almost 25 years ago, namely; *"A ship might be financed by Swiss and German bank, built in a Japanese shipyard for a company registered in Monrovia yet with the principal living in New York. The ship might be commercially traded from London, technically managed from Hong Kong, manned by a Filipino crew supplied through a crewing agent and fly the Liberian Flag".* Multi-cultural crews are thus not a new phenomenon, since it is strongly related to the spread of the use of "open registries" starting back in the 1980s. This trend is still relevant today.

Shipping companies are currently following another trend for recruiting seafarers comprising multiple nationalities on board ships (Progoulaki and Roe 2011), and approximately 70 - 80 % of world's merchant fleet has multi-cultural crews (Magramo & Gellada 2009; Berg et al. 2013). Multi-cultural crews and cultural awareness have produced a rising worry of the competence of ship crews followed by an uncertainty in regards to safety (Pyne and Koester 2005). For the recruitment of a ship's crew there is no restriction on the cultural composition of the crew that can be applied on board, unless there is a special company policy installed by the shipping companies or assigned recruitment agencies, in order to ensure the best performance of the team on board. Storgärd et al. (2013) examined the relation of crew's multi-culturalism with maritime safety, and found that one of the important factors that must be considered is the number of different nationalities in a crew mix.

Shipping companies are responsible for the safety of their crews, by establishing, controlling and maintaining a safe operations system. However, it is becoming more frequent, that this responsibility is outsourced to recruiting and manning agencies. Progoulaki (2012) noted that as the sources of seagoing labour shifted from the traditional maritime nations to Asia and Eastern Europe, manning agencies (either as subsidiaries of ship management companies or as independent entities) became an integral part of the system and an intermediary between seafarers and shipping companies. Lane (2000) commented that, while there is a hierarchy of preferred nationalities among crew managers, all available nationalities are regarded as potentially employable and, recruitment to ships is organised by a dynamic system of globally trading manning companies. Manning agencies and crewing companies have contributed in reducing the transaction cost to such an extent, that the ship operators, as well as the seafarers themselves, have a dependent and conditional relationship with the agents (Papademetriou et al., 2005).

In recent years, the shipping industry has encountered major changes. Internationalization and the amelioration of technological instruments on board vessels have changed the industry to a great extent. To maintain the level of safety, the crew needs to be trained according to the technological advancements and ongoing, rapid changes. Then again, it is not only the understanding of technology that brings the ship safe to the destination – co-operation, communication and consultation with and

among the people working in all three levels on board i.e. management level, operation level and support level, between ship and shore, must also be ensured. Since the majority of the developing nations have English as a second language, the levels of teaching English in those countries are not developed well enough. In that Ship operators have largely outsourced the recruiting of crews into "crewing agencies" in the third world countries, issues have arisen as to the credibility of some certification of educational needs of the crews on board (Berg et al. 2013). There is also a developed market of falsified certificates which is a common phenomenon in some of aforementioned countries (Berg et al. 2013). This creates a growing challenge in the inspections of maritime educators and a struggle to achieve effective governance of the training of mariners. The international law already exists as regards to safe manning of qualified seafarers, however, this is seemingly disregarded.

The socially responsible shipping company, in this context, is one that works voluntarily and actively to integrate social, economic and environmental concerns in its operation, with a sound balance between the need for operational efficiency, shareholder value and attention to the interests of non-financial shareholders (Det Norske Veritas 2004; Lloyds List 2010). Det Norske Veritas (DNV) proposes a set of activities that shipping companies can perform in order to be socially responsible towards the crew from developed and developing countries. This includes training on cultural awareness and relates to intercultural communication. The conjecture is that when seafarers work together as a team that is when optimum safety and security can be achieved. Training would certainly break the boundaries between them and help them communicate more efficiently. This simultaneously frames the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) aspect of shipping company activities in how they deal with multi-cultural crews. The challenge is that a CSR activity such as cultural awareness training is one activity that is usually not taken into serious consideration by firms whose corporate activities are in a business-to-business level (Progoulaki and Roe 2011). This can be enhanced by operationalised by applying good governance tools which will be unfolded in the coming sections, and by creating a Computer based training program that can provide knowledge that is not otherwise provided.

2. *International Conventions on Safe Manning of Qualified Seafarers*

Training and qualification of seafarers play a significant role in maritime safety and in the protection of the marine environment. In this context, it has become necessary to define a minimum level of training for seafarers on national levels, having regard to training standards agreed at the international level. The shipping market in the period up to 2008 has experienced a big turnover, and with respect to orders for new vessels (CRONOMAR 2010). This upturn has also positively influenced the recruitment market for seafarers. Projections have indicated a need for 27.000 more seafarers for the period until 2015 (International Labour Organisation[1]). The hypothesis is that, most agencies for maritime crewing have a short-term mission looking for short-term recruitment with limited cooperation exists between training institutions and crewing agencies. Moreover, limited cooperation between crewing agencies and ship operators make it difficult to plan for long term employment and

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[1] International Labour Organization, C053 - Officers' Competency Certificates Convention, 1936 (No. 53). Retrieved 13 May 2014 from
http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:55:0::NO::P55_TYPE,P55_LANG,P55_DOCUMENT,P55_NODE:REV,en,C053,%2FDocument

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career development for the individual seafarer. This is where the international standard as regards to ship manning, seafarers' competency and promotion of multicultural human environment is in need of evaluation.

2.1 International Labour Organization no. 53 (1936)

The first endeavour in an international forum is to address a minimum requirement of professional capacity for the captain, navigating and engineer officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships2. The convention entered into force on the 29th of March, 1939 and till date has secured a ratification number of 37 member states. This convention covers most of the management level of a specific vessel and the training aspect has been referred to as a precondition for attaining the "certificate of competency"3. It has been stated in the convention that one must pass an examination organised by the competent authority for the purpose of testing as to whether the person in question possesses the qualifications necessary for performing the duties corresponding to the certificate [Article 4 (1) (c)]. Although the ILO convention establishes a "testing regime" for justifying the capacity of the candidate, from a legal perspective the wordings of Article 4 are ambiguous to the extent that the term "competent authority" has not been well defined. When subsection 1 is read together with subsection 2, it seems that it is the duty of the national laws or regulation that has to determine the "competent authority" who shall organize and supervise such qualifications, but because of the non-binding nature of the convention – it has left a gap in the field of qualified seafarer recruitment.

The Philippines and India are very significant labour supply nations, with many seafarers from these countries enjoying employment opportunities on foreign flag ships operated by international shipping companies4. But there is no specific way of detecting whether the qualification achieved to enjoy the employment opportunities have been obtained via an authentic assessment. The convention, on the other hand provides an enforcement regime for the members of the organization in Article 4 (2) where the members have been advised to issue competency certificates to persons who have not passed the qualification test, but have had sufficient practical experience of the duties corresponding to the certificate in question [Article 4 (3) (a)]. However, positive as Article 4 (3) may be understood, a subtle drawback is observed in point 3 (b) where certificates maybe issued to those who have not passed the qualification examination test and has no record of serious technical error against them.

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[2] International Labour Organization, C053 - Officers' Competency Certificates Convention, 1936 (No. 53). Retrieved 13 May 2014 from
http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:55:0::NO::P55_TYPE,P55_LANG,P55_DOCUMENT,P55_NODE:REV,en,C053,%2FDocument

[3] International Labour Organization, C053 - Officers' Competency Certificates Convention, 1936 (No. 53). Retrieved 13 May 2014 from
http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:55:0::NO::P55_TYPE,P55_LANG,P55_DOCUMENT,P55_NODE:REV,en,C053,%2FDocument

[4] Homepage: International Chamber of Shipping, Number of Nationality of World's Seafarers. London. Retrieved 13 May 2014 from
http://www.ics-shipping.org/shipping-facts/shipping-and-world-trade/number-and-nationality-of-world's-seafarers

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(WMU)

Another significant achievement of the International Labour Organization is Recommendation 137 of 1970 which applies to all training designed to prepare persons to work on board a publicly or privately owned seagoing ship engaged in the transport of cargo or passengers for the purpose of trade, engaged in training or engaged in scientific exploration[5]. In this regard, the national laws or regulations, arbitration awards or collective agreements, as may be appropriate under national conditions, should determine when ships are to be regarded as seagoing ships. Part II embodies the objective of the training which includes maintaining and improving the efficiency of the shipping industry and the professional ability and potential of seafarers, with due regard to the educational needs of the latter and the economic and social interests of the country. This is coupled with ameliorating accident prevention standards on board merchant ships, both at sea and in port, in order to reduce the risk of injury. A significant development of the ILO Recommendation relating to training of seafarers is contemplated in Article 2 (g) which stipulates in assisting them to develop their efficiency. This is in conjunction to potential productivity and job satisfaction which implies that increased efficiency would result in increased job satisfaction. Moreover, the "organization and co-ordination" has been left at the hands of government departments, educational institutions and other bodies which have an intimate knowledge of the vocational training of seafarers, and should be so designed as to meet the operational requirements of the shipping industry, as established in consultation with shipowners' and seafarers' organisations. "Other bodies", in this context, can be interpreted as manning agencies which are responsible for hiring seafarers of developing countries. In light of this analysis, it may be stated that these manning agencies could draw up programmes in order to maintain close contacts between the training institutions and all those concerned so as to keep training in line with the needs of the industry [Article 6 (a)]. These bodies should also ensure that information about available training opportunities is disseminated to all those concerned and co-operate in setting up and operating practical maritime training schemes. Then again, a significant duty of these bodies is to participate in establishing such national certification standards as are appropriate for the various grades and categories of seafarers which are aligned with ILO Convention no. 53 of 1936.

2.2 United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982

The Umbrella Convention i.e. the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982 (UNCLOS) provides the foundation for every state to take measures for ships flying its flag to ensure safety at sea with regard to the manning of ships, labour conditions and the training of crews[6]. This safety at sea in light of proper recruitment of qualified seafarers has to be done parallel to taking into account the applicable instruments [Article 94 (3) (b)]. Paragraph 4(b) specifies that such measures must ensure "that each ship is in the charge of a master and officers who possess appropriate qualifications, in particular in seamanship, navigation, communications and marine engineering, and that the crew is appropriate in qualification and numbers for the type, size, machinery and equipment of the ship". Paragraph 4(c) further requires "that the master, officers and,

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[5] International Labour Organization Recommendation 137 of 1970, R137 - Vocational Training (Seafarers) Recommendation, 1970 (No. 137). Recommendation concerning Vocational Training of Seafarers Adoption: Geneva, 55th ILC session (28 October 1970).

[6] United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982. Retrieved 13 May 2015 from
http://www.un.org/depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/part7.htm

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International Association of Maritime Universities
(WMU)

to the extent appropriate, the crew are fully conversant with and required to observe the applicable international regulations concerning the safety of life at sea, the prevention of collisions, the prevention, reduction and control of marine pollution, and the maintenance of communications by radio". Also in connection with these matters, paragraph 5 states that "each State is required to conform to generally accepted international regulations, procedures and practices and to take any steps which may be necessary to secure their observance". Article 217(2) of UNCLOS extends the scope of article 94(3) to protection of the marine environment[7]. It requires the flag State to ensure that its vessels are prohibited from sailing until they can proceed to sea in compliance with the international rules and standards with regard to manning. Article 21(2) of UNCLOS also provides that the coastal State cannot impose on foreign ships in innocent passage in its territorial sea, the laws and regulations applicable to manning "unless they are giving effect to generally acceptable international rules or standards". Article 211(6) (c) of UNCLOS provides that the additional laws and regulations which the coastal State may adopt for certain areas in the EEZ must not require foreign vessels to observe manning standards other than generally accepted international rules and standards.

2.3 International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers, 1978

The International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers, 1978 (STCW), as amended, contains a comprehensive set of international regulations with regard to training and certification of personnel[8]. This Convention establishes minimum requirements for training, qualifications and seagoing service for masters and officers and for certain categories of ratings, such as those forming part of a navigational watch or engine-room watch on oil, chemical or liquefied gas tankers and passenger ships[9]. STCW 1978 was revised at the Conference of States Parties held in 1995. The amendments adopted on that occasion addressed the concerns that the STCW Convention was not being uniformly applied and did not impose any strict obligations on Parties regarding implementation; they also generally brought the STCW Convention up to date. One of the major features of the revision involved the adoption of a new STCW Code, to which the whole content of the technical regulations was transferred. Further, enhanced procedures concerning the exercise of Port State control under article X of the STCW 1978 Convention were developed. In addition, the Conference amended chapter I of the STCW Convention, entitled "General Provisions". Accordingly, States Parties must provide information to IMO concerning the implementation of the Convention's requirements. The Maritime Safety Committee (MSC) uses this information to identify Parties that are able to demonstrate that they have given full and complete effect to the Convention. Finally, the amendments also provide for special conditions for the training and qualifications of personnel on board ro-ro passenger ships.

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[7] Implications of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea for the International Maritime Organization, Study by the Secretariat of the International Maritime Organization (IMO), leg/misc.7, 19 January 2012.

[8] *http://www.imo.org/OurWork/HumanElement/TrainingCertification/Pages/STCW-Convention.aspx*

[9] Implications of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea for the International Maritime Organization, Study by the Secretariat of the International Maritime Organization (IMO), leg/misc.7, 19 January 2012.

The STCW Convention was further amended in 1997 to add training requirements for personnel on passenger ships other than ro-ro passenger ships, and in 1998 to add a requirement for masters and deck officers to be capable of detecting damage and corrosion in cargo spaces and ballast tanks. A separate conference running concurrently with the 1995 STCW Conference adopted a new International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Fishing Vessel Personnel. This Convention represents the first attempt to make safety standards mandatory for the crews of fishing vessels. In November 1999, the IMO Assembly adopted resolution A.892(21) on Unlawful Practices Associated with Certificates of Competency and Endorsements. This resolution was intended to highlight the problem of fraudulent certificates issued in relation to the STCW Convention, and to encourage Member States to take action to eliminate the circulation of such certificates. Research was conducted on behalf of IMO to assess the scope of the problem and to identify possible solutions. The results of this research were brought to the attention of the MSC and considered in more detail by the Sub-Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping (STW). In January 2002, the Sub-Committee began to develop a list of actions to be undertaken by the Secretariat on unlawful practices associated with certificates of competence. In 2004, the Sub-Committee completed the list of actions. However, it has still to develop a harmonized format for ancillary certificates providing evidence leading to the award of the certificate of competence. Furthermore, it has yet to develop appropriate anti-fraud training for the personnel responsible for verification based on the established standards for anti-fraud guidelines. Also in November 1999, the IMO Assembly adopted a new resolution A.890(21) on Principles of Safe Manning, which updates and supersedes the resolution on the same subject from 1981 (resolution A.481(XII)). The new resolution is intended to take into account recent developments in the shipping industry, including increased reliance on automated systems and labour-saving devices, and the concern regarding fatigue and other human-element aspects of crew performance. The resolution includes basic principles to be applied in considering the manning levels necessary for safe operation of the ship. Each ship should be issued with a "minimum safe manning document", specifying the minimum safe manning levels for that particular ship. The document can then be produced for inspection during port State control. The resolution includes detailed guidelines for the application of safe manning principles and guidance on the contents of the minimum safe manning document, as well as a model format. Annex I on Principles on Manning and Annex II on Guidelines for the Application of Principles on Manning were amended by Assembly resolution A.955(23). This resolution was revoked by resolution A.1047(27) at the Assembly's twenty-seventh session. The MSC, at its eighty-first session in 2006, adopted amendments to Part A of the STCW Code.

The amendments add new minimum mandatory training and certification requirements for persons to be designated as ship security officers (SSOs). The amendments to the STCW Convention and to parts A and B of the STCW Code include Requirements for the issue of certificates of proficiency for Ship Security Officers; Specifications of minimum standards of proficiency for ship security officers; and Guidance regarding training for Ship Security Officers. Further amendments to part A of the STCW Code add additional training requirements for the launching and recovery of fast rescue boats. The amendments have been prepared in response to reports of injuries to seafarers in numerous incidents involving the launching and recovery of fast rescue boats in adverse weather conditions. The STCW amendments entered into force on 1 January 2008. Bearing in mind that more than 10 years had elapsed since its last major revision, the MSC, in 2007, agreed to undertake a comprehensive review of the STCW Convention so as to take into account new and innovative

training methodologies, including the use of simulators for training, e-learning, and training related to cargoes of liquefied natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas, oil and chemicals carried by tankers, to ensure that it meets the new challenges facing the shipping industry today and in the years to come[10]. The review was completed in 2010. The 2010 Conference of Parties to the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers, 1978, held in Manila, the Philippines, from 21 to 25 June 2010, adopted, by resolutions 1 and 2, amendments to the annex to the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers, 1978; and to the Seafarers' Training, Certification and Watchkeeping Code.

2.4   International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974

The International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974 (SOLAS), in its successive forms, is generally regarded as the most significant treaty of all international treaties concerning the safety of merchant ships[11]. SOLAS presumes a general obligation on flag States to ensure, for the purpose of safety of life at sea, the appropriate manning of the ship. Thus, ships must be provided with an appropriate certificate as evidence of the minimum required safe manning (see regulation V/14). Chapter V identifies specific navigation safety services which are to be supplemented by contracting governments and sets forth provisions of an operational nature applicable in general to all ships on all voyages. This is in contrast to the Convention as a whole, which only pertains to certain classes of ships engaged on international voyages. This Chapter also includes a general obligation for masters to proceed to the assistance of those in distress and for Contracting Governments to ensure that all ships shall be "sufficiently" and "efficiently" manned from a safety point of view [9]. From a legal point of view, the words "sufficiently" and "efficiently" create a nexus between SOLAS and the STCW Convention and finally, the ILO Convention in so far as these conventions function parallel to each other. The principle of safe manning under SOLAS, to a certain extent, mirrors the "Principles of safe manning" as embedded in IMO resolution A. 890(21). The resolution deduces that "safe manning" is a function of the number of qualified and experienced seafarers necessary for the safety of the ship, crew, passengers, cargo and property for the protection of the marine environment and that ability of seafarers to maintain observance of the requirements is also dependent upon conditions relating to training, hours of work and rest, occupational safety, health and hygiene and the proper provision of food.

But SOLAS takes "safe manning" to the next level by incorporating the procedures to establish minimum safe manning under regulation 14, and that it must be followed by "transparency" [Regulation 14 (2)]. Transparency in all its form should be represented by a minimum safe manning document or equivalent as evidence. The respective administration, in this regard, should only approve a proposal for the minimum safe manning level of a ship and should issue a minimum safe manning document if it is fully satisfied that the proposed ship's complement is established in accordance with the principles, recommendations and guidelines contained in the SOLAS

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[10] Implications of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea for the International Maritime Organization, Study by the Secretariat of the International Maritime Organization (IMO), leg/misc.7, 19 January 2012.

[11] Homepage: International Maritime Organization. Retrieved 14 May 2014 from www.imo.org

regulation[12]. It must be adequate in all respects for the safe operation of the ship and for the protection of the marine environment.

2.5 Maritime Labour Convention 2006

The Maritime Labour Convention, 2006 (MLC) is an ILO convention established in 2006 as the fourth pillar that stands parallel to SOLAS, STCW and MARPOL 73/78. MLC embodies current standards of existing international maritime labour conventions and recommendations coupled with the fundamental principles to be found in other international labour conventions. As regards to manning of seafarers, Regulation 2.7 is implemented with the purpose to ensure that seafarers work on board ships with sufficient personnel for the safe, efficient and secure operations of the ship[13]. From a legal viewpoint, Regulation 2.7 deals with the safety aspect of the seafarers as an integral part of "manning level" and reflects taking into account concerns about seafarer fatigue and the particular nature and conditions of the voyage. However, the "qualification" segment is dealt with in Standard A2.7 where each member state is under an obligation to have a sufficient number of seafarers and the so-called "manned crew" shall be adequate in terms of size and qualifications due to ensure the safety and security of the ship and its personnel. This has to be followed by a minimum safe manning document or an equivalent issued by the competent authority. All of this shall be done in order to comply with the standards of the convention. An intrinsic feature that is noticed in the MLC, which is absent in other conventions, is the dispute settlement under Guideline B2.7.1 which enumerates that each member should maintain, or satisfy itself that there is maintained, efficient machinery for the investigation and settlement of complaints or disputes concerning the manning levels on a ship. The hypothesis is that, disputes on board the ship may be seen as an element which may endanger the safety of other crew members and result in unexpected deterrence of the voyage of the ship. Hence, shipowners shall ensure that all ships have a set of on-board complaint procedures for fair, effective and expeditious handling of seafarer complaints alleging breaches of MLC. Then again, since a vessel is a confined working area with a specific number of people, it becomes extremely important to primarily extrapolate the causes that stand to create major differences of opinion between professionals working on ships and enable ways to settle the discrepancies. This would, to a certain extent, help in fostering a better working environment, especially considering the longevity of contracts of the maritime professionals.

2.6 International Safety Management Code

The purpose of the International Safety Management Code (ISM Code), is to provide an international safety standard for the safe management and operation of ships and for pollution prevention[14]. The Code is expressed in broad terms so that it can have a widespread application due

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[12] Lloyd, Michael (2007) The Manning Problem. Discussion paper: Seamanship International. Retrieved 14 May 2013 from
http://www.marinetechpublishing.com/images/PDF/short/ManningProblem-SeamanshipInternational-0807.pdf

[13] Maritime Labour Convention, 2006. International Labour Conference. Retrieved 14 May 2014 from www.ilo.org

[14] International Safety Management Code, 2010. Resolution A.741(18) as amended by MSC.104(73), MSC.179(79), MSC.195(80) and MSC.273(85). Retrieved 14 May 2014 from www.imo.org

to the fact that different levels of management, whether shore-based or at sea, will require varying levels of knowledge and awareness of the items outlined. An important aspect of the ISM Code lies within the definition embodied in Part A where "safety management system" has been strictly determined as a structured and documented system enabling company personnel to implement effectively the company safety and environmental protection policy. The objectives of the Code are transparently incorporated in its "objectives" which is to provide for safe practices in ship operation and a safe working environment and to continuously improve safety management skills of personnel working aboard ships. This can be done by identifying risks to its ships, personnel and the environment, and establish appropriate safeguards. The "safety management system" should guarantee mandatory rules and regulations that applicable codes, guidelines and standards recommended by the Organization, Administrations, classification societies and maritime industry organizations are taken into account. Hence, the ISM Code can be observed with legal flexibility as it has broadened its scope in the "safety management system" by referring to "any" pertinent codes and guidelines that provide a legal structure as regards to establishing a safety and environmental-protection policy. This could in a way be interpreted as comprising recruitment of qualified seafarers that would enhance the overall safety aspect of the voyage. Moreover, the "Safety and Environmental-protection Policy" as incorporated in section 2 can be seen as an "all-embracing" measure which deals with every possible sphere that is connected to the term "safety" including manning of qualified seafarers.

A more direct implication of this item has been consolidated in Section 3 of this review, whereby the Company is responsible for ensuring that "adequate resources" and shore-based support are provided to enable the designated person or persons to carry out their functions. In this context, "adequate resources" would be a definitive inclusion of proper manning with efficient, adequate, capable and skilled seafarers who have received proper training prior to commencing designated duties. Then again, the ISM Code can be identified with an intrinsic feature with provisions that denote that every company is under a duty to designate a person or persons ashore having direct access to the highest level of management. The responsibility and authority of the designated person or persons should include monitoring the safety and pollution-prevention aspects of the operation of each ship and ensuring that adequate resources and shore-based support are applied, as required. This "designated person" entails all the characteristics of a qualified seafarer and thus complements other relevant conventions which highlight the necessary qualifications that would render a candidate to be a skilled personnel. However, the main provisions that deal with manning of qualified seafarers is dealt within the framework of section 6, under "resources and personnel". Under this section, the company should ensure that each ship is manned with qualified, certificated and medically fit seafarers in accordance with national and international requirements. At the same time the company should ensure that all personnel involved in the Company's safety management system have an adequate understanding of relevant rules, regulations, codes and guidelines. This requires that the personnel has relevant education in their field from respective jurisdictions. Moreover, subsection 6.5 indicates that the Company should establish and maintain procedures for identifying any training which may be required in support of the safety management system and ensure that such training is provided for all personnel concerned. This is coupled with the duty to establish procedures by which the ship's personnel receive relevant information on the safety management system in a working language or languages understood by them.

2.7 *International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships 73/78*

The International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL 73/78) is the main international convention covering prevention of pollution of the marine environment by ships from operational or accidental causes[15]. Although MARPOL 73/78 largely deals with vessel-source pollution, it has, however, carefully highlighted the "Minimum manning standards and certification" in section 3 of Annex I. The section inaugurates with an introduction which suggests that the port State inspection of the manning of a foreign ship should be to establish conformity with the flag State's safe manning requirements. The manning requirements under this subsection should complement the international standards with direct reference to SOLAS, ILO Convention no. 53, STCW and IMO Resolution A.481. By this reference, the MARPOL 73/78 scope can be viewed as a convention which demands safe manning with qualified seafarers which is an inevitable factor to help mitigate vessel source pollution.

Another significant aspect of section 3 is "manning control", which states that if a ship is manned in accordance with a safe manning document or equivalent document issued by the flag State, the surveyor should accept that the ship is safely manned unless the document has clearly been issued without regard to the principles contained in the relevant instruments and in the IMO Guidelines for the Application of Principles of Safe Manning. Moreover, if the ship does not carry a safe manning document or equivalent, the port State should request the flag State to specify the required number of crew and its composition and to issue a document as quickly as possible. This is followed by a strict liability regime which may result in detention if non-compliance of relevant conventions is observed whereby the deficiency poses a danger to ship, persons on board or the environment. Thus inspection regarding certificates of competency is dealt with in Section 3 of this Annex. In the exercise of control functions the surveyor, in the light of his or her general impression of the ship, will have to use his or her professional judgment to decide whether the ship shall receive a more detailed inspection (Section 4). All complaints regarding conditions on board should be investigated thoroughly and action taken as deemed necessary by the circumstances. He or she shall also use his or her professional judgment to determine whether the conditions on board give reason and rise to a hazard to the safety or health of the crew which necessitates the rectification of conditions. If necessary the ship shall be detained until appropriate corrective action is taken.

3. *International Conventions on Communication & Multicultural Challenges*

Ship owners are aware of the fact that communication problem and multicultural crew complement may have a costly ending (Horck 2008). On numerous occasions, various sectors of the shipping industry including the port and terminal operators have found that the ship interface communication is cumbersome because of reciprocal mediocre English corresponding to the communication facet and lack of cultural awareness which brings in multicultural challenges. "Communication" can be a drawback emanating from language problems and occur when there has not been a proper screening procedure before a ship is manned. The international codes, guidelines and conventions relating

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[15] International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL), Adoption: 1973 (Convention), 1978 (1978 Protocol), 1997 (Protocol - Annex VI); Entry into force: 2 October 1983 (Annexes I and II). Retrieved 14 May 2014 from www.imo.org

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to "safe manning of qualified seafarers" are overlooked in some sub-standard sectors where the relentless pressure for lower freight rates and higher profits has led to many thousands of seafarers being cheated, abused, exploited and traded (Morris 2002). The hypothesis is that, a crew member not being able to communicate is susceptible to safety risks and may easily become alienated (Horck 2008). Then again, the dilemmas regarding cultural diversity are meant to be reduced with education in cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity training. This is highly absent in most of the manning agencies of developing nations. The notion of culture-consciousness in the maritime field stems from the notion that a multicultural crew who are able to complement each other in their work aboard the ship is likely to be more environmentally safety-conscious and tend to look out after each-other. It is, by now, understood that if courses in cultural awareness do not become mandatory and if ship's crews communication language is not improved, then the relevant conventions will prove to be a travesty. The communication and multicultural challenges are in need of further analysis.

3.1 Communication Challenges and the International Regime

Crew communication errors are a contributing factor to major maritime incidents (Malone et al. 2000). Following a maritime incident, the Australian Transport Safety Bureau has stated that the underlying factors to a severely burned seaman on a ship were: complacency, inadequate communication, poor hazard awareness and lack of common sense (Horck 2008). Although "communication" challenges relating to "language" may receive separate attention and maybe judged on the basis of whether a seafarer is able to speak the language needed to commence working, it has sporadically been connected to "intercultural communication" which is a competence needed for working in a multicultural mixture. This, either ways, belongs to the substantial domain of "communication" at large. This "intercultural communication" deduces the ability or competence to separate similarities and differences between the different interpretations as regards to the same document (Horck 2008). While major maritime conventions have not been distinctly clear as to the definition of "communication", the conjecture is that a qualified seafarer with the right training (and certificate as an evidence of that training) shall be able to understand and communicate in the working language - with people of the same culture while being effective in understanding and respecting seafarers who have a different cultural background.

The STCW 95, in Regulation I/4a stresses that "effective communication" must prevail on board at all times. Then again, SOLAS in Chapter V, regulation 14, §3 and §4 requires companies to establish a working language which is to be recorded in the ship's logbook. In this regard, each seafarer shall be required to understand and, where appropriate, give orders and instructions and to report back in that language. If the working language is not an official language of the State whose flag the ship is entitled to fly, all plans and lists required to be posted shall include a translation into the working language. Moreover, the ISM Code stipulates functional requirements for a safety management system whereby every company should define levels of authority and lines of communication between, and amongst, shore and shipboard personnel. The Company should, in this regard, ensure that the ship's personnel are able to communicate effectively in the execution of their duties related to the safety management system (6.7).

The reason for implementation of various codes and regulations originates from the fact that often, the messages sent are not the same as the message received (Froholdt 2008). The ISM Code (02) in Chapters 1.3.3 and 6.7 regulates crew communicative skills and requires that crew communication capability should be extended to more than the bare safety of the ship and its crew. The control and

verification of crew's language skill by the manning institutions of developing nations is not enough. All on board should be competent in the ship's working language, not only for the sake of maintaining work and safety issues, but also to be able to socialise and connect with other crew members (Horck 2008). Loneliness and alienation have been observed as obvious risk factors and may indirectly create a safety risk. Small interactive activities can create a great positive impact on co-operation and has been emphasized by IMO.

3.2 Cultural Factors and Maritime Safety

A seafarer must be trained to demonstrate the ability to communicate effectively and to exchange information in carrying out his/her responsibilities. Modern shipping is a highly international, multicultural and technological industry with strong demands on economic efficiency and profitability. Studies on accidents reveal that the ship crew is the highest risk factor when it comes to maritime safety since 80-90% of maritime accidents are caused by human error (Baylon and Santos 2011; Kujala et al. 2009; Rothblum 2000; Rothblum et al. 2002; Berg et al. 2013). Lu et al.(2012) has stated that the "national culture" regime has a significant importance in explaining the occurrence of human errors on ships. The authors emphasize that dimensions of national culture are related to human failures in ship operations. Lu et al. (2012) applied the theory of cultural dimensions presented by Geert Hofstede. The theory of cultural dimensions suggests that there are cultural dimensions that can affect intercultural cooperation. However, Knudsen and Froholdt (2009) have warned about the usage of Hofstede's dimensions to explain cultural encounters on board ships – culture is much more dynamic than Hofstede's dimensions can provide explanations for. There are obviously advantages and disadvantages with Hofstede's dimensions, which have also been pointed out in many different articles. There is a range of maritime research studies that have looked into how culture influences daily operations, and the management of cross-cultural[16] crewing in maritime companies (Lamvik 2002; Knudsen 2004, 2005/2006; Froholdt 2010; Sampson & Zhao 2003; Kavechi, Lane & Sampson 2002; Lane 2001; Horck 2006). Hofstede's cultural dimensions are seemingly widely used in the maritime industry and in research studies as a way of explaining cross-cultural behaviour (Østreng 2006).

Several authors have focused on Filipinos in their research whereby Grøn and Knudsen (2011) present the concept of social cultural structure on board a ship. When comparing Norwegians with Filipinos, the issue of cultural differences comes up (Berg et al. 2013). Norwegians see work as a value and highlight individualism, whereas a Filipino, originating from a highly collectivistic culture, sees work as a means to support the family and community, which tends to lead to fewer risks from them compared to their northern colleagues (Grøn and Knudsen 2011). Then again, various scholars e.g. Pyne and Koester (2005) present some examples of cultural factors affecting people's working habits. A simple example would be that the word "no" is considered rude in Asian cultures and may pose as a challenge when for example, the pilot is a westerner used to getting straight feedback from mariners (Pyne and Koester 2005; Berg et al. 2013). Hansen et al. (2008) studied the on board occurrence of accidents and illnesses of different nationalities by comparing Filipinos with Danes. They discovered that Filipinos encounter less occupational accidents than Danish seafarers. They also found differences in the physical abilities of the two groups. They draw a conclusion that a seafarer from the Philippines has a higher risk of losing his job due to an

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[16] Cross-cultural is understood as the inter-connection between two or more cultures.

accident and may for that reason be willing to avoid potential risk situations to a greater extent than his Danish colleague.

Some authors have concentrated on the interaction between different national cultures. Theotokas & Progoulaki (2007) studied how well Greek seafarers interact with crews from other nationalities. They found out that for the Greeks, it is more difficult to cooperate with people from cultures with a power distance lower than their own, such as Russians, since they feel that they might question their position and behaviour. The Greeks also had problems with communication, language, customs and religion. The study indicated that mixed crews can be a risk if they are not properly supported. On the other hand, Sampson & Zhao (2003) indicated that working with persons from different kinds of cultures increases safety, as it creates a social distance, tolerance and respect among people from different nationalities and makes it easier to form especially professional relationships on board. Some crew members also stated that a multinational crew increased cultural understanding and tolerance.

Although the term "multicultural" has not been used in major maritime conventions, the IMO has adopted qualification standards for seafarers on merchant ships (Berg et al. 2013). These standards establish the framework for how ships are manned and what kind of qualifications and education is required from seafarers. This would of course entail the necessary knowledge to deal with multicultural colleagues on board the ship and to understand and respond to messages without narrowing oneself down. The instructions for the proper manning of ships are stated in the IMO resolution on the principles of safe manning A.890 (21) (IMO 2000). "Safe manning" embraces every aspect possible that would ensure a maritime voyage is successful in terms of safety from the commencement to the end. It states that there should be enough crew on board a merchant ship to have the capability of maintaining safely the navigation, mooring, environment, fire prevention and fighting, medical care, life-saving equipment and cargo handling of the ship. This would mean working as a team with the adequate capability of understanding each other. While SOLAS is applied for the manning and training of seafarers, STCW is the prime authority on training. The STCW applies to ship-owners, training establishments and national maritime administrations and it concerns merchant ships in domestic or international operations. The convention applies disparate requirements for each position on board a ship. It specifies the amount of seagoing experience a master of a ship has to have, the certificate of education and training and the age of the seafarer and implicitly states that "all officers must have a good command of spoken and written English Senior officers with functions at a managerial level must also speak and write English". This specific standard imposed by STCW is effective in both cases which involve communication with every member on board and at the same time serves the purpose of lessening multicultural gaps.

Fruitful multicultural encounters can happen in cases where the communication aspect of international conventions such as the STCW is maintained and prioritised. Recommendations for standard maritime English have been adopted by the IMO (Berg et al. 2013). The additional training in English is well acknowledged by maritime training facilities, but manning agencies often tend to supply seafarers with working language knowledge that is below the standard required. Where the language barrier is constant, the multicultural gap will remain the same and thus firmly position itself as a risk which to maritime safety and in case of any maritime incident, might be interpreted as "human error".

4. Aspects of Safety Management on board ships with multi-cultural crews

Shipping companies have to take responsibility for safety when they man their vessels. However, often shipping companies give all the power of recruiting personnel to agencies with a focus on cost-effectiveness only. Without repeating results from accident investigations and facts of statistical analysis, already given in the first chapters of this review, it is common sense that human element plays a key role in ensuring safe, efficient and environmentally friendly sea transportation. While several personnel in shore-based and on board based positions contribute to safety, the focus in this review is limited to only personnel on board. Each individual crew member, but moreover the sum of all crew members as a team, are crucial for maritime safety. Each crew has to perform especially in safety-critical situations at their best to ensure safety and in worst cases, to ensure survival in a hazardous event that may lead to sinking and abandoning a ship. Especially in risky and safety-critical situations, multi-cultural crews need to collaborate and cooperate as smoothly as possible without any unnecessary interruption of actions.

The ISM code presented and discussed in chapter 2.6 in this review provides a legal framework and also shall, among others, contribute to the governance of ensuring that a well-qualified and competent crew operates and maintains the ships. Qualification and competencies are clearly defined and need to be confirmed by relevant certificates. However, it is also due to the huge number of required qualifications and certificates that the shipping industry is suffering from its complex regulations. What is really under control is mostly the certificate, expressing that the holder of it has certain competencies or has attended a certain course or training measure. However, it does not control if he or she is actually able to handle systems correctly and knows all the relevant regulations. This situation is at the least unfortunate. However, a better solution is still not developed.

Figure 1: Snapshot of a typical situation on board: a German container vessel during approach to Port of Rotterdam, the bridge team members of the crew come from four different nations (India, Ukraine, The Philippines and Bangladesh) the pilot is Dutch (photo taken during an on board field study ©M. Baldauf)

Moreover, besides professional competencies and knowledge, that at least can be certified in a limited way, another substantial problem with respect to qualification is how teams are assembled (Schroder-Hinrichs et al. 2013; Schroder-Hinrichs 2010; Schroder-Hinrichs et al. 2012). When recruiting a team there is no procedure that shipping companies or an assigned recruitment agency need to apply, that

requires a minimum standard of recruited seafarers from specific countries. Team members with multicultural backgrounds need to complement each other.

Safe operation of a ship during her voyage from port of departure to destination includes firstly avoidance of collisions and groundings, dangerous motions in heavy sea state conditions, avoidance of fires or explosions and any other hazardous event on board. Veiga (2002) coins safety as, "The process of implementation of international and national agreed rules with the objective of minimising the risks to people, property and the environment".

As a very prominent case for a safe team performance in shipping is the work of the bridge team during the final phase of a voyage, when navigating in coastal and inland waters and fairways with pilot advice and support by VTS service. The already multicultural crew on board is added by yet another person, and as depicted in the image above, this can be a person with a different culture altogether. Each team member has to perform her or his task as it might be required according to the company-related and ship-specific ISM rules. Implementation of procedures and instructions according to the requirements of ISM are often related to specific tasks to be performed and to simply record the completion of it (using checklists) accordingly. Even if qualification according to STCW requirements is provided by each individual crew member, communication between the different cultures is and probably cannot be reflected in the code and its implementation in shipping companies. However, it will require other additional efforts and activities in order to avoid misunderstandings and communication failures e.g. by training measures on leadership and communication techniques respectively.

The ISM procedures often contain recommendations. For instance it may be stated that a certain passing distance has to be used when navigating in open sea or in dense traffic. It is often a cultural issue that some mariners follow very strictly and exactly as laid down in the ISM operating instructions (e.g. a mentioned CPA-Limit will be used), while others, with different cultural background apply given recommendation in a rather creative and inconsistent way. Another aspect of ISM is the re-installation or introduction of a safety culture, which also includes handling and management of problem reports and complaints. It is common sense that feedback from mariners either from management level or from ratings is essential for establishing an effective safety management regime on board and ashore. However, it is often explicitly mentioned that when reporting a shortcoming or a problem, this varies according to different cultural backgrounds.

Communication also plays a key role to ensure the effective application of given recommendation, advice or instruction in cases where shore-based services such as SAR or VTS are used. It is important to provide a cooperative working environment and supportive relation between ship and shore teams and persons.

Overall, it can be concluded that ISM is a powerful tool for good governance to ensure a high level of safety, and a multicultural crew is another challenge and requires complementary corporate social responsibility activities to support effective implementation and contribution to maritime safety.

5. Conclusion

The current review gives us an idea how crews contribute to maritime safety. It is noticeable that the international level, referring to qualified, competent, safety management system, communication and language – affects the function of crews a great deal. Under manning of ships, poor management and the safety culture of the company are, among others, factors that affect safety from the crew point of view (Lloyd 2007). However, these safety-factors can easily be shaped up with good governance, proper reporting under the international system and updated safety culture policy implemented by respective shipping companies. The multicultural aspect of safety at sea is a general feature of crews and qualification, communication and cultural values plays an important role. About 70-80 % of world's merchant fleet has multicultural crews (Magramo and Gellada 2009; Berg et al. 2013). Multicultural crews and a possible lack of a general qualification, common language and cultural awareness have produced a rising worry of the competence of ship crews followed by an uncertainty in regards to safety.

Globalization has also lead to major changes in ownerships as shipping companies tend to be more international which could ideally lead to a more organized training of professional crews in all ranks and nationalities (Lane 1997; Berg et al. 2013). The international law is set and the national law determines the basic qualification which a seafarer must have and tested before recruitment. All of this can be complemented with a short training program which is a short revision of the required qualification and a focus on safety and cultural issues. This training would be relevant where the ship is owned by a company in a highly developed low cost labour country and the crew is from a third world nation. Crews from various culture must be able to communicate and language is undoubtedly the greatest facilitator of communication (Horck 2006; Berg et al. 2013). The proper knowledge of a language clearly leads to fewer accidents. Lack of communication has been reported to be common and language problems are mentioned since a declining number of ships have single nationality crews (Lane 1997; Berg et al. 2013). Pyne & Koester (2005) highlight several cases of communication failures in their report whereby these are listed as problems related to different cultures and languages between the crew and the pilot, the crew and the passengers on passenger vessels, and with respect to external communication and Very High Frequency (VHF) communication with other vessels [Horck 2006; Berg et al. 2013). They argue that it is possible to minimize the amount of accidents directly related to poor communication since most of the accidents occur when the level of understanding English is poor.

As a warning example of the lack of cultural understanding in terms of communication, Horck (2006) shows that dealing with cultural issues is also a case of honour: people often have difficulties in admitting that they do not understand what a colleague is saying. A ship is a very different work environment compared to other work places whereby the crew can be separated from their families for long times and the hierarchy on board is often strong and of a vertical nature, which can have a negative impact on the communication among the crew. This may lead to authoritarian relationships where superiors' words are not questioned which can contribute to situations of severe misunderstandings (Berg et al. 2013).

However, the STCW convention has acknowledged the impact of culture on people's ways of communicating and it has been added to the regulations as an issue of training and education (Berg et al. 2013). Unfortunately, many manning agencies or shipping companies of the developing nations are yet to comprehend and fully address this. Introducing more education in cultural awareness as a part of

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maritime education training can certainly provide that "qualification" to the multicultural seafarers and at the same time bridge gaps of cultural diversity and communication. This does have the potential to contribute to the decrease of safety-risks and help provide a working environment on board ships, where everyone can enjoy the camaraderie of each other.

2.2 Submission WP 2: Review of CSR issues and studies dealing with multicultural human resources and safety in the maritime industry. Author: Dr. M. Progoulaki

1. The CSR concept

Today's business field is an expanded, globalised arena that faces continuously changing market conditions which strongly affect the firms. Nowadays it becomes essential for companies to offer something more than products and services; it is important for them to be part of the community, thus, to be socially responsible. Over the past fifty years, there has been a debate surrounding a growing interest in the concept Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (Carroll and Shabana 2010). The debate has sometimes arisen as a response to social, environmental, political or economic issues, involving discussions such as whether a business can or should profit from CSR activities, but has largely been driven by an increasing social awareness of how commercial activities have an impact on the environment. However, much of the discussion about the conceptualisation of CSR has discouraged by Friedman's (1970) argument that CSR caused inappropriate costs for stakeholder funds due to investments in CSR activities that are unrelated to the organisation's core competencies. But decades ago, Bowen (1953, in Carroll 1999) mentioned that a company has the obligation to act within the objectives and values of each society, apart from focusing on its economic viability. Many concepts have come into being during the debate, concepts such as governance, corporate sustainability and political impact, which have been suggested as relevant for organisations to report about and, thus, related to company activities. The debate has also evolved around the important discussion of how to define CSR.

In fact, there is no uniform definition of CSR, which is complicated by the fact that the terms such as public policy and business, society and business are interpreted very differently across the range of theories that are being used in connection with CSR (Dahlsrud 2008). Previous surveys have shown that the existing definitions are often biased towards specific parties and specific interests (Carroll 1999; Van Marrewijk 2003; Dahlsrud 2008). "It seems that the confusion is not so much about how CSR is defined, as about how CSR is socially constructed in a specific context (Dalhsrud 2008: 1).

The meaning of CSR has evolved over the years from what Carroll (1991; 1999) suggested as "the pyramid of CSR", comprising of 4 layers, i.e. economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities. Despite the many definitions, it is agreed that CSR is now a core business issue (Pava and Krausz 1996). Dahlsrud (2008) has found five emerging categories of CSR across the many definitions: The dimensions of stakeholders, social, economic, voluntariness and environment. These categories are also an implicit part of the widely used CSR definition by the European Commission (EC 2001): "A concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholder on a voluntary basis". The EU has revised the definition of CSR that now stands as the responsibility of enterprises for their impacts on society (EC 2011). In this vein, companies are expected to integrate social, environmental, ethical, human rights and consumer concerns into their business operation, in order to maximise the shared value for their stakeholders and the society, and prevent or mitigate the possible negative effects of their operation.

Sorsa (2010 cited in Kunnaala *et al.* 2013: 62) discusses the dual view of the term "responsibility", according to which it can be seen as an internal tool for the company's management, in order to improve the company's operations and therefore the company's financial performance. Moreover, a demand for responsibility can stem from outside the company, for example from stakeholders and legislation. The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2005) defines CSR as a "continuing commitment by businesses 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 the society at large" (World Business Council for Sustainable Development 2005: 3).

The term 'corporate social responsibility' has different meanings to different industry sectors, due to the different stakeholders involved. In some organisations CSR is considered to mean compliance to the social norms and philanthropy, although some large companies are now placing CSR in a more strategic framework (Lockwood 2004). The level of quality of the produced products and offered services, concern about the employees' health and safety, protection of the environment from the production of goods are usually less taken into serious consideration by firms whose corporate activities are in a business-to-business level, unless there is a certain legislative framework protecting the afore mentioned.

Whether CSR is equivalent with a financial benefit is still debated amongst researchers. There are studies that show a positive connection between CSR and some values in corporate performance, such as the study by Pava and Krausz (1996) which shows a positive connection between CSR and financial performance (Greening and Turban 2000; Holmes and Watts 2000).

2. *CSR in the shipping industry*

The concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is therefore a relatively new phenomenon in the history of development of modern globally industrialised capitalism (Pawlik et al. 2012). It seems that the concept is developing as a medium to tend to negative repercussions of market mechanism in a globalised world and redress the value of social justice and equity, while promoting sustainable growth. In the shipping industry, CSR activities are on the rise. This is in part due to support from larger companies, but also in part due to the support from the International Labour Organisation (ILO), especially through its InFocus Initiative on CSR (ILO, 2006a). There are various international CSR initiatives promoted by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and by the United Nations (UN). The UN Global Compact (United Nations 2010) is the largest voluntary CSR initiative promoted directly by the UN. The United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development was held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 2012, and its outcome document entitled "The future we want" was adopted in which the political commitment to sustainable development was renewed. It is recognised that the active participation of the private sector is critical to achieving sustainable development and the private sector is invited to explore this with due reference to business practices, such as those endorsed by the United Nations Global Compact. Further guidance is provided by ISO 26000 "Guidance on Corporate Social Responsibility" which states "the aim of the social responsibility is to contribute to sustainable development". Following the above outcome, The International Maritime Organisation (IMO) has selected "Sustainable Development: IMOs contribution beyond Rio+20" as the World Maritime Day theme for 2013.

Shipping, and in particular bulk shipping, is a sector of business-to-business commercial relations, where shipping companies' services are produced to satisfy the derived demand for the transport of cargoes (Willingale 1998). This feature led to the focus of such companies on strategies of reducing the operational cost for the sake of competitiveness, instead of implementing marketing strategies for enhancing the profile of the company in the society and the individual customers. Because of the

companies' need to survive the changing market conditions over the years, the key strategic approaches of running "open registries"- known as "flags of convenience" (Metaxas 1985) and employing low cost labour has created negative externalities to the industry. Examples of such negative externalities, include loss of lives at sea, damage to the marine environment and maritime fraud contributed to the creation of a bad reputation and negative public image of the shipping industry (Fafaliou *et al.* 2006). Goss (2008) also notes that the effects of competition in shipping from the view of social responsibility, include externalities involved in maritime safety and pollution, as well as seafarers' treatment.

Yliskylä-Peuralahti and Gritsenko (2014) examine the CSR policies in the maritime context from the controversy of public binding ruling versus private voluntary actions. The authors believe that while public regulation based on international maritime conventions is universal in scope; however is problematic in the implementation stage. The proactive role of policy in the maritime safety area was earlier examined by Psaraftis (2002), while its relation to developing a safety culture in the industry was discussed by Veiga (2002). On the other hand, private regulation in shipping can complement the public regulation, but is partial in its scope both thematically and geographically, and it relies on actors' commitment (Yliskylä-Peuralahti and Gritsenko 2014: 251).

The introduction of the term 'triple bottom line' in the 1990s has enhanced the development of the concept of CSR and the need for business to account to a constituency beyond its shareholders.

Figure 2. A triple-bottom line for business
Source: DNV (2004)

Figure 2 above provides a triple-bottom line sustainability diagramme for companies to manage its activities. Although shipping companies tend to focus on these agendas individually, if the terms and concepts of CSR initiatives are analysed in more detail, it becomes obvious that a number of ship-focused elements already exist in the maritime sector:

- In 1994, Tor Christian Mathiesen, former DNV Chairman, published about safety culture in the maritime sector and addressed a number of issues that would be covered by CSR concepts today (Veiga, 2002). The discussions about safety culture on board ships are often synonymous with discussions about CSR, however, with a somewhat reduced focus.
- The introduction of the ISM Code and the Human Element vision in IMO recognise the influence of organisational factors on ship safety, and their implementation in the context of developing nations is relevant.

- The Maritime Labour Convention (MLC), 2006 highlights issues specifically in relation to the working and living conditions on board ships. Although these issues are not specifically mentioning CSR, there is a strong relationship with the social aspects of CSR.
- Several initiatives have been taken that addresses more holistically the environmental aspects in the maritime industry, such as the Sustainable Shipping Initiative[i], the Blue Angel Logo[ii], the Clean Shipping Index[iii] or the ISO 14001[iv], etc.

The initiatives mentioned above are only a few examples for developments in the maritime sector under a CSR framework. The central problem of all these initiatives is that they focus on single items only.

Previous research in the topic of CSR in shipping examined the strategies, actions and programmes mainly from the shipping companies' viewpoint. More specifically, Fafaliou *et al.* (2006) focused on short sea shipping companies located in Greece in order to examine and identify the management's level of awareness in social responsibility and explore managers' attitudes and perceptions towards the potential contribution of CSR to the successful operation and performance of their companies. Fafaliou *et al.* outlined the three approaches to the matter of the shipping companies' behaviour towards CSR. The first approach is the "adverse" one to the notion of CSR, according to which the so-called 'substandard' ship managers operate; the latter represent a minority in the maritime business arena (OECD 1996; 2001). These are the cases of companies who operate at the lowest cost, often by avoiding compliance with the international legislation. The second approach is the "typical" behaviour, practised by the majority of shipping companies who operate in a way that profits are gained, whilst conforming to the international regulatory framework. Finally, the "supportive" behaviour is the one performed by the minority of the firms that move beyond compliance with legislation and conventions, either by complying with non-regulatory standards (e.g. ISO) or by setting their own high quality standards. The size of the company seems to play an important role in performing a "supportive" behaviour. Lu *et al.* (2009) found that large shipping companies' perception of CSR and performance were higher than those of small companies, in Taiwan, while the study indicated that implementing CSR has a positive effect on financial performance.

The project on "Sustainable Knowledge Platform for the European Maritime and Logistics Industry-SKEMA" examined -among others- EU's CSR policy in the maritime context, with a comparative study of the ten largest non-shipping companies and the ten largest shipping companies in Denmark (Skovgaard 2011). The paper concluded that there is a need for further research in the area of CSR and Shipping. The project on "Corporate Social Responsibility in Shipping Companies in the Baltic Sea-CAFE" (Arat, 2011) dealt with the content of CSR and how shipping companies around the Baltic Sea use CSR in their marketing strategy and their advertising via their official websites. The project on "The European Academic and Industry Network for Innovative Maritime Training, Education and R&D- KNOWME" examined the best practices of maritime stakeholders related to CSR and sustainable development (Theotokas *et al.* 2013). The goal was to map the applied best practices and imprint the relevant perceptions and views of the maritime stakeholders, as the receivers of the impacts generated from CSR activities. One of the CSR clusters that the survey examined was the human resources' content, and more specifically the following aspects (as defined by Theotokas *et al.* 2013):
- Diversity management, deriving from the need to manage the differences among seafarers that stem from the employment of multicultural crew;

- Gender quality, referring mainly onboard, due to the low percentage of female seagoing labour worldwidely (ITF website), but also ashore;
- Professional and personal development, i.e. career making in seafaring through training and development, promotions and opportunities to work ashore in the shipping industry;
- Health and safety of personnel, including policies concerning the health and safety of crew;
- Welfare of personnel, referring to applied policies that focus on the human resources' job satisfaction, motivation and loyalty;
- Working conditions, referring to the working conditions onboard, and especially to the appropriate environment, working hours and equality;
- Training, and lifelong education in particular;
- Communication and participation of personnel to decision making process, where participative management is the management style where employees or employee representatives are involved at various levels of decision making in an organisation;
- Communication opportunities with family, which is related to the opportunity to use technology for communicating with the family while being onboard;
- Provision of welfare services and entertainment material onboard, which is mandatory due to the recently implemented Maritime Labour Convention [MLC] (ILO, 2006b);
- Cultural awareness training, and
- Crew and family assistance unit.

Being socially responsible can be explained as "seeking to avoid, or at least trying to minimise, the external cost created from one's activities, which affects society in a negative way" (Progoulaki and Roe 2011: 8). The main areas in which a company's CSR policy can be developed comprise the protection of environment, the increase of energy efficiency, fair business practice, protection and development of the company's human resources and the community involved, and safety (Zadek 2004). Theotokas *et al.* (2013) extends the objectives of CSR in shipping in order to include also the welfare of the crew and shore-based staff, the safety of crew onboard, the relation with their clients, and business ethics. The key performance areas of CSR in shipping include CSR governance, social responsibility, environmental responsibility, ocean responsibility (Coady and Strandberg 2012). The areas related to the topic of this project are depicted in the following table 1. Quartey and Puplampu (2012, cited in Ellis and Sampson 2013: 92) suggest that companies need also to consider employees' health and safety, work related stress, working hours, work-life balance, and general well-being when drawing their CSR strategies. Employees' well-being needs to be a priority for every organisation, since the offered stability might affect employees' behaviour and attitudes, as well as organisational productivity in turn (Tehrani *et al.* 2007; Rasulzada,2007, cited in Progoulaki *et al.* 2013a).

Table 1. Key Performance Areas (KPAs) of Corporate Social Responsibility Governance and Social Responsibility in shipping

Area	Aspects and impacts
CSR governance	
Governance and Management Systems	- Corporate governance - CSR governance and management - Transparency and disclosure - Stakeholder engagement

	- Sustainable procurement
Ethical Business Practices	- Anti-corruption and bribery
	- Human rights
	- Sensitive regions
	- Container content
Social responsibility	
Employee Well-being	- Health and Safety
	- Training and education
	- Diversity and equity
	- Family welfare
	- Labour and living conditions, wages and benefits
	- Responsible downsizing and closure
Security	- Ship, cargo and personnel security
Local Socio-Economic Development	- Community involvement
	- Local socio-economic development
	- Local hiring
	- Local sourcing
Community impacts	- Congestion
	- Displacement
	- Noise, dust, odors and luminous pollution
Disaster relief	- Humanitarian aid
	- Infrastructure rebuilding
	- Environmental clean-up and rehabilitation
Inclusive trade	- Trade access for under-served and vulnerable markets, producers and regions

The major conclusion was that the CSR concept in the shipping industry could be better served when the factors of human resources and environment are combined for the maximisation of a company's performance to all levels of responsibility.

3. CSR in crewing and the relation to safety

A focus on CSR strategies concerning maritime human resources and in particular multicultural crew (Progoulaki and Roe 2011) showed that managing multicultural human resources in a socially responsible manner requires socially acceptable behaviour towards seagoing labour from all the industrial actors, i.e. stakeholders including shipping companies, employees, customers, suppliers, shareholders, NGOs, local community, investors and authorities (as defined by DNV 2004). In this vein, and considering the problems of maritime governance in relation to CSR, Roe (2013: 40) commented that "shipping presents some serious challenges in attempting to accommodate corporate social responsibilities. Maritime policy-making is essentially static and it will be a task in itself to introduce increased agility regardless of policy aims in themselves. […] Current policies are far from

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adaptive but remain prescriptive and narrow, focusing on limited stakeholders with constrained ambitions."

Multicultural crew is not a new phenomenon, since it is strongly related to the spread of the use of "open registries" starting back in the 1980s. Nowadays the shipping industry is very much familiar with the existence of multicultural crew. However the problems that may arise due to the linguistic and cultural differences have not been dealt with a unanimous and effective manner. More than a decade ago, DNV (2004) proposed a set of activities that shipping companies could perform in order to be socially responsible towards the crew from developed and developing countries. Some of the proposed activities include: working with a safety health and environmental conscience, provision of optimal communication with relatives and the outside world, welfare and recreational services on the vessel, and training on cultural awareness. Many of these suggestions have been examined later from other organisations (e.g. the ILO through the Maritime Labour Convention- MLC 2006) and researchers.

Storgärd *et al.* (2013: 129) considered the intercultural cooperation, communication and language skills as the most important issues that contribute to maritime safety in the case of multicultural crews. The results of their survey showed that more training in understanding other cultures is needed; a proposal which has also been acknowledged and highlighted in previous research (DNV 2004; Progoulaki 2008; 2011; Parsons et al. 2010; 2011; Progoulaki et al. 2013b,c).

Storgärd et al. (2013) examined the relation of crew's multiculturalism with maritime safety, and found that one of the important factors that has to be considered is the number of different nationalities in a crew mix. Although there is evidence that team cohesion can be negatively affected by the large number of different nationalities onboard (MARCOM Project 1999; Kahveci and Sampson 2001; Badawi and Halawa 2003; Sampson and Zhao 2003; Sampson 2003; Thomas et al. 2003; Pyne and Koester 2005; Theotokas and Progoulaki 2007) there is also the chance that team cohesion can be enhanced when more than 4 nationalities are mixed, due to the collapse of stereotypes and the absence of national grouping onboard (Kahveci et al. 2002). Either one way or another, the concern that shipping companies show in the decision of the employed crew mix can be considered an essential part of the social aspect of their CSR strategy. Progoulaki and Roe (2011) underlined that the important duty of the shipping company engaging in CSR is to create a social responsibility culture among its personnel.

4.   *The role of manning agents and the MLC in CSR*

The latest available report on the world supply and demand of seafarers (BIMCO/ISF, 2010) showed significant increases in seafarer supply especially in China, India and the Philippines, as well as in several European nations. Progoulaki (2012) noted that as the sources of seagoing labour shifted from the traditional maritime nations to Asia and Eastern Europe, manning agencies (either as subsidiaries of ship management companies or as independent entities) became an integral part of the system and an intermediary between seafarers and shipping companies. Lane (2000) commented that, while there is a hierarchy of preferred nationalities among crew managers, all available nationalities are regarded as potentially employable and, recruitment to ships is organised by a dynamic system of globally trading manning companies.

Manning agencies and crewing companies have contributed in reducing the transaction cost in such an extent, that the ship operators, as well as the seafarers themselves, have a dependent and conditional relationship with the agents (Papademetriou et al. 2005). The ILO was concerned on the difficulties that seafarers may face when they search for a job on ships that fly flags other than those of their own countries, because of the risks stemming from "the possibility that the shipowner is not able to fulfill

its responsibilities, and the unfair practices that may be used by some recruitment services" (ILO 2012: 12). Nowadays, the recruitment system and network is an essential part of the global maritime labour market; such is the scale of labour needs that manning agencies have become a powerful source of labour market stability (ILO 2001; 2002). As mentioned in OECD (1996) survey, the problematic and, in many cases, illegal operation of several manning agencies is admitted to be part of the clouded and dark side of shipping. Recognising the issue, Progoulaki and Roe (2011: 15) underlined the importance of manning agencies being supervised and prohibited from using means, mechanisms or lists intended to prevent or deter seafarers from gaining employment.

The role of the manning agencies and crewing companies has been addressed in the MLC (ILO, 2006b), under the newly defined term of "recruitment and placement service [RPS]" providers. MLC's Standard A1.4 focuses on developing a system of licensing or certification or other form of regulation for regulating private seafarer RPS which shall include at least the following (Progoulaki 2012):

- Supervision and control that regulated requirements are fulfilled by RPS providers;
- Prohibition of "blacklisting" or use of other lists or mechanisms that are intended to prevent or deter seafarers from gaining employment for which they are qualified;
- Free-of-charge use of the offered by RPS services to all seafarers;
- Ensurance by the RPS, as far as practicable, that the shipowner has the means to protect seafarers from being stranded in a foreign port;
- Establishment of a system of protection, by way of insurance or an equivalent appropriate measure, to compensate seafarers for monetary loss that they may incur as a result of the failure of an RPS or the relevant shipowner under the Seafarers' Employment Agreements [SEA] to meet its obligations;
- Development and maintenance of an up-to-date register of all seafarers recruited or placed through the RPS;
- Verification that seafarers are informed of their rights and duties under their employment agreements prior to or in the process of engagement. Also, seafarers shall receive a copy of the employment agreements, along with examining it before and after they are signed on a vessel.
- Examination of any complaint concerning the RPS and/or the shipowner's activity.

Related to the respect of seafarers' rights with regard to working and living conditions, avoidance of abuse and financial exploitation, access to medical care, freedom of association and other provisions of the MLC, is also the concept of welfare. Seafarer's welfare may include a wide range of notions, such as (Progoulaki et al. 2013a): (a) the well-being and health of the individual seafarer, the level of job satisfaction and the well-being of his/her family, (b) crew welfare while being onboard and at ports, health and safety of the crew, and (c) welfare of the society, which is strongly related to the corporate social responsibility and the well-being of the societies affected by the shipping operation (as discussed earlier and by Progoulaki and Roe 2011). Especially in the case of seafarers, the quality of working conditions and work-life balance are crucial for the effective and ships' safe operation. Progoulaki et al. (2013a) stressed the fact that the ship is simultaneously a working and living environment, thus making seafaring a profession with particular patterns and needs. Since the ship is an independent unit of working environment having various stressful factors (Theotokas 2011; Carotenuto et al. 2012; 2013), it needs to embody all the necessary services and facilities in order for the seafarers to work productively under a culture of safety, health and well-being.

Taking into consideration the CSR concept in shipping that has been analysed herein, and in particular its HR aspect which includes concern about the labour and living conditions, safety of crew and crew's welfare and wellbeing, one shall note that the MLC has set the minimum standards for health, well-being and safety of crew, thus focusing on improving and developing the seafarers' living and

working conditions. The mandatory requirements posed by the MLC create a new base for the shipping companies that behave in an adverse, typical or supportive way (as defined by Fafaliou et al. 2006).

5. *Conclusion- Benefits of CSR in shipping*

The last few years CSR policies seem to be increasing in the shipping sector because shipping companies strive to be transparent and accountable and to go beyond the rules and regulations. They are starting to realise that CSR operations do not always inflict higher operating costs, but more likely will reduce the costs and even limit them (Etsy and Winston, 2006 cited in Kunnaala et al. 2013: 62). The socially responsible shipping company is the one that is working actively to integrate social and environmental concerns in its operation, and which finds a sound balance between the need for operational efficiency, shareholder value and attention to the interests of non-financial shareholders (DNV, 2004). Although studies conducted within the maritime context are limited, however, Drobetz et al. (2012) claim that corporate governance has an influence on financial performance when considering the unique conditions that exist in the shipping.

It is believed that CSR can contribute to a company's business performance by the reduction of cost and risk, maximisation of profit and competitive advantage, enhancement of reputation and value creation from synergies among stakeholders. However, it is important to note that the CSR strategies can be seen as a rather holistic strategic approach. Carroll (1999) mentioned that CSR can be perceived as a long-run profit maximisation tool. In relation to this, the EU suggested that in order for enterprises to "maximise the creation of shared value, they are encouraged to adopt a long-term, strategic approach to CSR, and to explore the opportunities for developing innovative products, services and business models that contribute to societal wellbeing and lead to higher quality and more productive jobs" (EC 2011: 6). Shipping companies would benefit from a focus on obtaining long term profits rather than quick short term profits, which are often easy to get by violating standards and regulations. These long term profits should not only be monetary profits, but also social benefits and environmental benefits, which are often challenging to measure and can only be seen after a while (Grewal and Darlow 2007, cited in Kunnaala et al. 2013: 62). The major benefits for a shipping company deriving from the application of CSR strategy are (DNV 2004): improvement of reputation and brand, raise of the attractiveness of the company as employer, strengthening the loyalty of employees and, increase of risk management capabilities. Thus, CSR can improve the social, environmental and economic factors of shipping and, through them, enhance the quality of shipping (Kunnaala et al. 2013).

2.3 Submission of WP 3: Collect and analyse data from field study. Author: Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt. Assistance in the field by Research Associate Enrico Lobrigio.

The target of the research was manning agencies in India, Indonesia and The Philippines; seafarers, ship's officers and shore based personnel, as described in the approved project proposal. This was based on the fact that these countries are very involved in the recruitment of competitive seafaring labour force for the world fleet. The multi-cultural aspect and the impact that this can have on watchkeeping and safety standards on board has not been adequately investigated (Leander 2010). Furthermore, the need for more cultural awareness training has been made apparent in previous IAMU projects (Parsons et al., 2010; 2011), and in one of the initial proposals for CSR in shipping companies (DNV 2004). The rationale is that a skilled multi-cultural crew working under a verified safety management system (ISM code 1.4) helps a company provide a safe and efficient transport service.

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This rationale is supported in the International Labour Organisation's Maritime Labour Convention 2006 highlights the importance of different cultural and religious backgrounds, which must be taken into account in relation to the welfare, health and accommodation of seafarers.

In order to understand the knowledge needs of seafarers in relation to the topic, it is important not only to obtain knowledge about perceptions of how CSR, safety and culture concepts are understood, but also gain more insight into users' perception of, and attitude towards CBT programs. This knowledge is important for the development of the CBT program.

2.3.1 Methodology

The hypothesis of the project partners was that there is good CSR awareness among Asian countries based on the conclusions by Baskin (2006), and the CSR activities that prevail, would be of philanthropic character (Carroll 1991;1999), possibly in the form of environment relief programs (Chapple and Moon 2005) and an appropriate governance of safety training. However, it was uncertain as to whether, if any, culture awareness training was offered to seafarers. To investigate this hypothesis, the qualitative method was used in the form of interviews and three perception questionnaires; one for companies, one for public administrations, the third for seafarers. The interview as a method was selected in order to acquire more in-depth knowledge from the respondents. Finally, the timespan available for the field study was rather small, which would not allow time to conduct as many interviews as needed to conduct a full knowledge needs analysis, and the questionnaires could be distributed fairly quickly. The questionnaires served as an interview guide for the interviews that were conducted (Kvale 1996). Questionnaires were selected as a method with the aim of retrieving answers from a relatively large group of maritime professionals in the short time available.

It was important that the perception questionnaires were not too long in order ensure a high return rate of responses, and they was designed to contain a combination of open and closed questions (Gillham 2000). The closed questions involve the response to an option of predefined answers which can be quantified. Closed questions are also much easier to respond to and require less time from the respondents than open questions. Open questions were also used in order to allow the respondents to answer in their own words (Kruuse 2001). They can be used to control the closed questions and allow for new and more nuanced responses. Scaled questions were also used, where the respondents were asked to rate their responses in order to measure specific variables (Kruuse 2001).

In May, 2014, the partners began to contact manning agencies in the three countries in order to plan the data collection. However, a project partner in the group withdrew from the project making it difficult to withhold the contacts. Another project partner had an employee from The Philippines who agreed to assist in gaining access to manning agencies in Manila. This work contained a search within project partners' network groups for contacts to in the Philippines, using the purposeful sampling method to select the appropriate respondents for the field study. This method was is relevant, as it was important to include not only shipowners, but also find different sized manning companies, and both privately owned and third party agencies, to whom manning had been outsourced by shipping companies (Patton 2002). Seafarers and ship officers would be recruited a seafarers' center, a Seafarers Trust, seafarers and ship officers in waiting areas in manning agencies in Manila at the agencies we interviewed, from the waiting area at the Maritime Administration building MARINA, and in a park in Manila called Lunetta Park. This park was visited by both seafarers, ship officers and manning agencies. However, despite the success in acquiring respondents in Manila, it was not possible for the project partners to obtain sufficient contacts in

India or Indonesia within the timeframe of the project. It was therefore decided to use The Philippines as a case study for a CBT program.

The single case study is devoted to detail and relevant to use when conducting perception analyses in studies within the disciplines of education (Flyvbjerg 2001). Case studies focus on the unique aspects of the object under investigation, and can produce exactly the kind of context-dependent knowledge that research studies of learning processes show is necessary in order to provide opportunities for learners to develop their knowledge. This method is relevant and can be necessary in order to test the user acceptability of a CBT program in a fairly new educational curriculum such as CSR.

The above mentioned work culminated in a finalized program for a field study in Manila to visit 9 manning agencies, 4 educational institutions, 2 public institutions, 2 private centers for seafarers and Lunetta Park. The purposeful sampling method ensured the acquisition of different sized companies, shipowners and third part manning agencies. The work consisted of contacting the agencies by e-mail. Some replied, and some did not, and some agencies were contacted several times. The final program is not inserted in this report due to the wish from participants to remain anonymous.

It can be noted that a pilot study was not carried out, in part due to the small timeframe of the study, and also due to the fact that there was experience to draw on from within the project group, from partners who had engaged in CSR perception surveys in other projects within the past year.

It was not a given, as to whether the seafarers that would be interviewed or would respond to the questionnaire would have sufficient English language skills. However, the questionnaires were written in English and the interviews were conducted in English, and one of the accompanying project partners was a Filipino national, and could therefore assist in any language questions.

The questionnaires differ in the way the questions are designed, i.e. seafarers were asked whether they attended any computer based programs or e-learning in the past, i.e. manning agencies were asked whether they believed seafarers were motivated to take such courses. Manning agencies were also asked whether they offered such courses in-house or outsourced. The design of the questionnaires for the agencies sought to identify how companies took steps to accommodate safety and cultural awareness training and their implementation of socially responsible behavior. The questionnaires can be viewed in this report, chapter 2.3.4.

The questionnaires were drafted by the two project partners who were travelling to Manila, reviewed by a third partner, and conclusively revised a final time in accordance with the project proposal.

Two of the project partners travelled to Manila to collect the data from the 19th September to the 27th September, in 2014.

2.3.2 The data collection and analysis

The data collection was extracted from 15 settings. Representatives from 8 manning agencies, 3 educational institutions, 1 Public Administration, 5 seafarers were interviewed. 65 questionnaires were also received from seafarers. The original program included an additional manning agency and educational institution, but the respondents cancelled the interview due to other engagements. The seafarers' centers were not visited, as it was deemed more beneficial to visit Lunetta Park only, due to the fact that it was Seafarers Week in Manila at the time, and there were many events taking place at the Park. The seafarers were asked whether they would like to answer the questionnaire, hereby ensuring informed consent for all respondents that took place in the study (Denzin and Lincoln 2011). Many seafarers did not want to take part in the study.

The interviews were not recorded by an explicit wish of the respondents. The interviews were therefore conducted by one of the partners, whilst the other partner functioned as a secretary and manually wrote down the answers to the questions. The recorder was not used when interviewing seafarers as they felt uncomfortable about the recorder, and this was the case in the company waiting rooms, the Lunetta Park and the MARINA waiting area.

The data was analysed in several tempi. Firstly all closed question responses were quantified.

As mentioned previously, the questionnaires provided the opportunity for open comments. These comments were contrasted to the findings in the closed question responses. Then the open question responses were categorised into themes;

- Open comments from companies and seafarers: CSR,
- Open comments all respondents: CBT and Culture and safety training
- Open comments all respondents: Maritime education and training.

This report does not allow for all comments, however, some of them are included here (5 randomly selected comments are included per table). The open comments in the individual categorized themes are first presented and then followed by an analysis. This section is then concluded by a final analysis bringing all of the data together.

Table 1: Open comments companies & seafarers: CSR
Comments from companies
- We try to make the CSR close to the seafarers, let them take part in it, their wives take part, sometimes the seafarers contribute with money.   - Seafarers can see CSR practised here, but there are just no fancy papers.   - We have a seafarer center, we do environmental clean-ups. CSR is about empowering the individual seafarer and the team to sustain themselves. The seafarers take part in soup kitchens.   - We don't do CSR, it's the responsibility of the principal (the shipowner)   - CSR should be regulated
Comments from seafarers
- If shipping companies know all about the safety of the environment and awareness of the crew would make shipping companies address CSR.   - If manning agencies knew more about their crew they would be encouraged to address CSR.   - If shipping companies were given more guidance they would address CSR more.   - I don't know what CSR is   - Companies implement thoroughly the rules covering CSR.

The open comments range from CSR as a big-ticket issue "in Asia", where seafarers and their families take active part in soup kitchen activities, distributing soup to the poor, and donating money of their own to CSR events, to some seafarers not knowing what CSR is. Manning agencies did not address CSR and expressed that CSR is addressed if the shipowners request this. One comment from a seafarer was that if manning agencies knew more about the crew they actually manage, they would engage in CSR.

The conclusions of the study were that while CSR is known by shipping companies, it is not known or implemented by the manning agencies. Many seafarers did not know what CSR is. However, when CSR activities were mentioned to seafarers, they recognized them, and some took part in such in their shipping company. Although CSR is big in Manila, in the form of environment relief, soup kitchens, family services and other programs, the CSR activities that exist in the companies that were interviewed, is predominantly of philanthropic character (Carroll1991; 1999). It can be noted

that the manning agencies do not see the necessity to be socially responsible, and that this is left as a matter for the shipowner to address and decide whether it is necessary for the agencies to engage in.

Table 2: Open comments all respondents: CBT programs & culture & safety training
• Seafarers are more inclined to take a CBT course, yes your course is overdue. The course is timely and the structure enables the seafarer to be with his family • Most crews have their own laptop and they all have smart phones • The internet is still expensive out here to have at home. But there are internet cafes. • Has to be free of charge or they won't do it • Do the course bilingual
Comments about culture and safety training
• This is a very timely course. • Companies should address safety behaviour and right conduct. • Regions are also culturally different, and there are many regions in Philippines. We had one cook who wouldn't work with a guy from another region. • We don't teach culture but we do experience culture problems. There are culture problems also between the regions. • We will only offer something on culture if the owner (shipowner) wants it.

Not very many of the educational institutions interviewed offered CBT programs, and two companies expressed that Filipino seafarers IT skills were not very good, especially the older seafarers. This data was in direct contrast to the responses given by the seafarers. Here the seafarers replied that a majority of 67% have taken computer-based programs before, and 67,7 % of the seafarer respondents informed that they have access to internet, despite the comments from companies that wifi access was expensive in the Philippines. Whether the seafarers take CBT programs from other educational institutions than the ones that were interviewed in this study is not known. However, clearly, it could be the case, and despite this, there is a possibility to create CBT programs for Filipino seafarers.

It was clear from the data, that if the course was offered for free, the seafarers would take the course, but not if they had to pay. A predominant amount of the seafarers that answered the questionnaire did not have a personal computer, however, almost all seafarers had a smart phone. One of the companies expressed the novelty of applications for training on smart phones, as this was a device many seafarers possessed. The mention of educational applications by a company was therefore viewed to be a possibility. It was therefore deducted that if the course was to be used as an educational offering, the best fit for Filipino seafarers, would be to build an application for a smartphone that could enable them to take the course via their phone. A CBT program was then created, for uploading in the IAMU framework as an application for a smart phone.

Table 3: Responses regarding received training in safety

Safety training

- 72% yes
- 12% no
- 16% nothing to add
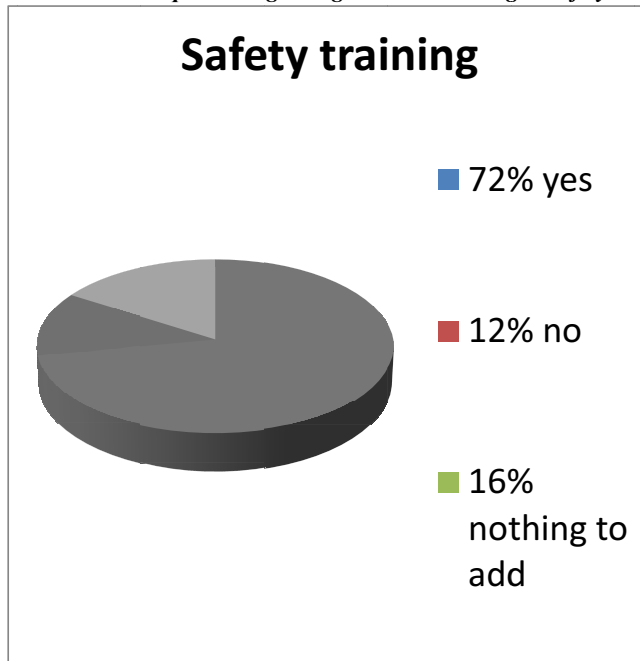
72% of the seafarer respondents replied that they have received training in safety, which was surprisingly close to the amount of the responses to training received in culture (see below). In the open comments, seafarers expressed a need to learn more about safety and safety performance. They did this three times more than a need to learn about culture.

Table 4: Responses regarding received training in cultural awareness

Culture training

- 66.1% yes
- 26.1% no
- 7.8% nothing to add
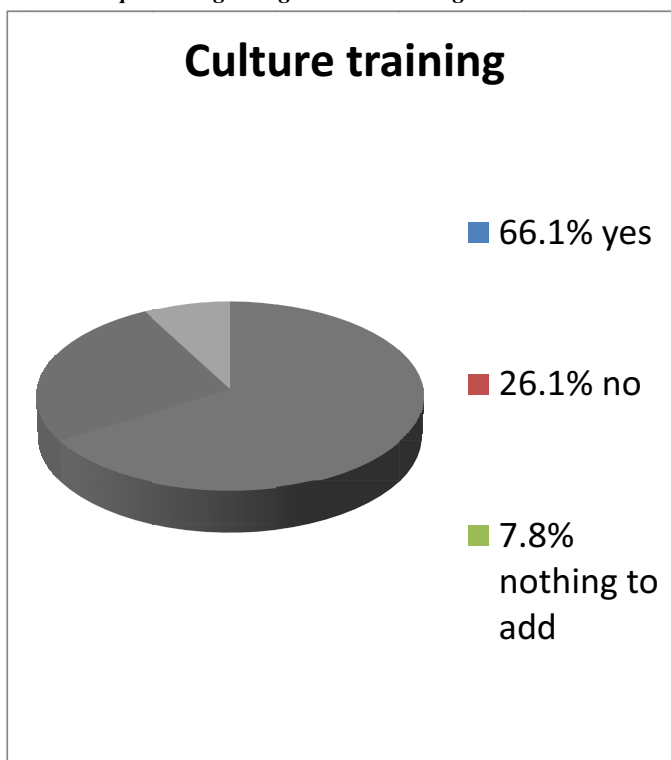
Cultural awareness training has been offered to 66,1 % of the respondents, and 26,1 % had never received any training. None of the companies interviewed offered training to seafarers that contained safety and culture in a combined course, nor did any of the companies offer training in CSR. Some companies offered a brief cultural awareness introduction to life at sea, as part of a familiarization course offered to seafarers before embarking on a sea voyage. Contrasting responses from both interviews and questionnaires, it is evident that more than half of the respondents replied that they receive training in cultural awareness, yet this training is only brief introduction courses that could need support in the form of a more substantial educational offering.

Table 5: Open comments all respondents: Maritime education and training
• Educational institutions are strong-we feel they are protected so we don't think it will improve
• Training should be run by governments, not private institutions. They are crooks
• Seafarers are spending so much of their earnings, employers should pay for education
• There is a cloud over education in the Philippines
• We will only offer culture education if the owner wants it

The data shows how the seafarers complained about the educational system in Manila, and the prices that seafarers had to pay to take courses. The seafarers expressed how they felt exploited by the educational system, and how this system can seemingly be allowed to demand high prices for educational offerings. It was clear, that if the course was not endorsed by an authority, then the seafarers would be reluctant to take the course. After being contacted, MARINA, the national maritime authority offered to provide a letter of endorsement to the course. It can be noted here that EMSA was conducting an investigation of the educational sector in Manila, and were due to arrive

in Manila a few days after the field study ended, and the tension about this investigation was aired by some respondents.

Table 6 : Open comments from all respondents describing Filipino culture
• Easy to adapt, are flexible and open-minded
• Patience is a Filipinos greatest virtue, waiting for education, for certification, for a job
• Eating is a social event for him
• Family is important
• Reprimands are personal

The contribution of various descriptions from all respondents about attributes of the Filipino culture was not part of the questionnaire, but open comments that respondents voluntarily provided. These comments are used in the CBT program in a condensed form.

The following comments from respondents are used in the CBT program created in this project: suggesting free of charge and open access for seafarers, Colour usage in the CBT program design, possibilities for user-interaction to optimise user engagement, voice-overs to provide connectedness to users, videos to portray practical examples, an application to a smartphone, bilingual components, the opportunity for users to download the course when wifi is available and work with the content offline in order to reduce wifi costs. A playbook comprising 38 pages was then created on the basis of these suggestions and the two literature reviews, as the content of the CBT program. This playbook has been made available to IAMU. The CBT program was then manually uploaded to the IAMU website.

2.3.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings show that CSR is not understood as a concept in itself, but when examples of CSR related activities are presented to respondents, the majority of respondents recognise them, and many of them take part in various CSR activities in their company. CSR is not part of a curriculum in any training program in the companies that were interviewed. Although CSR is big in Manila, in the form of environment relief, soup kitchens, family services and other programs, the CSR activities that exist in the companies that were interviewed, is predominantly of philanthropic character (Carroll1991; 1999). It can be noted that the manning agencies do not see the necessity to be socially responsible, and that this is left as a matter for the shipowner to address and decide whether it is necessary for the agencies to engage in. Cultural awareness training is quite sparse, if it is included, it is only inserted in pre-boarding introduction courses of approximately two hours. One company mentioned the novelty in combining safety and culture in an educational offering. There were 10 explicit comments from seafarers about the relevance and need for more safety training. The CBT program will therefore be filling a gap and an expressed need in relation to existing educational offerings for Filipino seafarers.

This project offering will be providing something new for Filipino seafarers, in that it will be offered for free, and they would experience the benefits of having open access to education. Although small in scope, this study shows the unique phenomena that can be captured by using a context-dependent method such as the case study, hereby enabling the content of the course to be specifically tailored to the Filipino context. The framework established here can be used to create other forms of e-learning activities that are suited to other cultures as case studies, provided in the IAMU framework. This can be accomplished by soliciting the questionnaire and conducting interviews in other countries. The analysis can, as in this study, be used to adapt the CBT program

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to meet the knowledge needs of the respective country, and could be contrasted to the results presented in the above. In addition, it could be advised that the questionnaire included an inquiry as to perceived cultural attributes of the respective country.

2.3.4 Questionnaires
Here follows the questionnaires used for the three different categories of respondents.

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HOCHSCHULE BREMEN
UNIVERSITY OF APPLIED SCIENCES

Perception survey-seafarer

The World Maritime University is conducting a survey on the educational needs of seafarers in relation to Culture and Safety in the maritime industry. A crew that is culturally competent performs better, is more safe and has less accidents-
We are doing this together with Bremen University of Applied Sciences and a private Consultant, Dr. Maria Progoulaki from Greece.
The project is funded by the International Association of Maritime Universities (IAME).

Your answers will provide us with vital knowledge needs to consider when creating this course. Your answers will be anonymous and will not be traced back to you.

Please submit your response by 6th October, 2014 to Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt (lf@wmu.se).

If you would like to provide comments explaining your answers or additional feedback for us, feel free to use the comment boxes.
Thank you for participating in this survey; it should only take about 15 minutes to provide us with your feedback.

If you have any questions or would like further information, please contact Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt lf@wmu.se, +4640356375 or Research Associate Enrico Lobrigo enrico.lobrigo@hs-bremen.de

General information

1	What is your position in your company? Please tick the relevant box	
	Management level/ senior officer	
	Junior officer	
	Rating	
	Cadet	
	Others (hotel and restaurant staff, shop attendant, etc)	

	Not currently employed	
2	What is your highest level of education?	
	High school education	
	College/university	
	Other education?	
	Please write which education or training programs you have attended and in which school or training centre.	
3	Did you and/or your family pay for your marine education?	
	Myself	
	Family	
	Subsidised by a shipping company	
	Subsidised by a manning agency	
	Other (please define)	
4	Please tick the appropriate age box	
	< 25	
	26-35	
	36-45	
	46-55	
	56-65	
	>66	
5	Please tick the appropriate gender	
	Female	
	Male	
Education and training in relation to safety and culture		**Please answer with yes or no**
6	Have you attended any e-learning or computer based programs in the past?	
7	Do you have access to broadband or internet?	
	If yes, please tick the following means you have access to:	
	Mobile phone	
	Personal computer at home	
	Personal computer at work	
	Computer in an internet café	
	Other (Please define)	
8	Are you offered training in culture issues?	
9	Are you offered training in safety issues?	
Comments		

Self-evaluation questions		Please tick the appropriate box
12	Do you feel that you lack any training? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Yes	
	No	
	Don't know	
13	How would you rate your knowledge about safety? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Expert knowledge	
	Satisfactory knowledge	
	Beginner knowledge	
14	How would you rate your knowledge about culture and how this affects team performance? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Expert knowledge	
	Satisfactory knowledge	
	Beginner knowledge	
Comments:		

Questions about Corporate Social Responsibility

16	What does the term Corporate Social Responsibility, also called CSR, mean to you?	
17	If your company or organisation has Corporate Social Responsibility guidelines or a policy, please write the most important parts in your opinion.	
18	Which of the following words are relevant to Corporate Social Responsibility, as you understand it? Underline the relevant words, and if you have others please add these. Ethics? Environmental impact? Politics, Human rights? Company image? Following laws, Innovation, Safety? Performance measurement?	
19	What do you think would encourage shipping companies to address CSR?	
	What do you think would encourage manning agencies/crewing companies to address CSR?	

| 20 | Is there anything that you would like to add in relation to:

Education and training in relation to culture?

Education and training in relation to safety?

Self-evaluation on level of training?

Corporate Social Responsibility? |
|---|---|

Thank you for your participation!

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Perception survey-company

The World Maritime University is conducting a survey on the educational needs of seafarers in relation to Corporate Social Responsibility, Culture and Safety in the maritime industry.
We are doing this together with Bremen University of Applied Sciences and a private Consultant, Dr. Maria Progoulaki from Greece.
The project is funded by the International Association of Maritime Universities (IAME).

Your answers will provide us with vital knowledge needs to consider when creating this course.
Your answers will be anonymous and will not be traced back to you.

Please submit your response by 30th September, 2014 to Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt (lf@wmu.se).

If you would like to provide comments explaining your answers or additional feedback for us, feel free to use the box at the end of the survey.
Thank you for participating in this survey; it should only take about 15 minutes to provide us with your feedback.

If you have any questions or would like further information, please contact Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt lf@wmu.se, +4640356375 or Research Associate Enrico Lobrigo enrico.lobrigo@hs-bremen.de

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General information		
1	What is your position in your company? Please tick the relevant box	
	Management level/ senior	
	Junior	
	Other, please define	
2	How many employees are there in your company?	
	Sea-based	
	Shore-based	
3	What is your highest level of education?	
	High school education	
	College/university	
	Other education?	
	Please write which education or training programs you have attended and in which school or training centre.	
4	Do you have a marine education? If so, which institution do you graduate from?	
5	Did you and/or your family pay for your marine education?	
	Myself	
	Family	
	Subsidised by a shipping company	
	Subsidised by a manning agency	
	Other (please define)	
6	Please tick the appropriate age box	
	< 25	
	26-35	
	36-45	
	46-55	
	56-65	
	>66	
7	Please tick the appropriate gender	
	Female	
	Male	
Education and training in relation to safety and culture		**Please answer with yes or no**
8	Do you offer training for your seafarers?	
	In safety?	
	In cultural issues?	
	In Corporate Social Responsibility?	
9	Is your education free of charge?	
10	Do you believe that education costs can make it difficult for seafarers to	

	take training courses?	
11	Do you offer any e-learning or computer based programs?	
12	Do your seafarers/students have access to broadband or internet?	
13	If yes, please tick the following means:	
	Mobile phone	
	Personal computer at home	
	Personal computer at work	
	Computer in an internet café	
	Other (Please define)	
14	In your opinion, do you think seafarers are motivated to take e-learning courses in culture issues?	
15	In your opinion, do you think seafarers are motivated to take e-learning courses in safety issues?	
16	Is the training that you offer provided by your company in-house?	
17	Is the training that your offer provided by a collaborating training centre?	
Comments		

Self-evaluation questions		**Please tick the appropriate box**
18	Do you feel that you lack any training? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Yes	
	No	
	Don't know	
19	How would you rate your knowledge about safety? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Expert knowledge	
	Satisfactory knowledge	
	Beginner knowledge	
20	How would you rate your knowledge about culture and how this affects team performance? Please tick the appropriate box	
	Expert knowledge	
	Satisfactory knowledge	
	Beginner knowledge	
Comments:		

Questions about Corporate Social Responsibility	
21	What does the term Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) mean to you?
22	If your company or organisation has CSR guidelines or a CSR policy, please write the most important parts in your opinion.

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23	Which of the following words are relevant to CSR, as you understand it? Underline the relevant words, and if you have others please add these. Ethics? Environmental impact? Politics, Human rights? Company image? Following laws, Innovation, Safety? Performance measurement?
24	What do you think would encourage shipping companies to address CSR?
25	What do you think would encourage seafarers to be interested in CSR?
26	Is there anything that you would like to add? In relation to: Education and training in relation to culture Education and training in relation to safety Self-evaluation on level of training Corporate Social Responsibility

Thank you for your participation!

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Perception survey-authority

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Please submit your response by 30th September, 2014 to Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt (lf@wmu.se).

If you would like to provide comments explaining your answers or additional feedback for us, feel free to use the box at the end of the survey.
Thank you for participating in this survey; it should only take about 15 minutes to provide us with your feedback.

If you have any questions or would like further information, please contact Project Manager Dr. Lisa L. Froholdt lf@wmu.se, +4640356375 or Research Associate Enrico Lobrigo enrico.lobrigo@hs-bremen.de

Introduction		
1	What is your position in your company?	
	Management/senior officer	
	Middle management	
	Other:	
2	Do you have seafaring experience?	
3	Do you have a marine education?	
Questions about education		
4	Have you identified any knowledge gaps in relation to culture that you think could be part of a training program?	
5	Have you identified any knowledge gaps in relation to safety that you think could be part of a training program?	
6	What do you think would enhance the design of a training program in culture?	
7	What do you think would enhance the design of a training program in safety?	
8	What is your perception of seafarers' access to internet or broadband?	
9	What is your opinion of attendance of Filipino seafarers in participating in a Computer based program in culture and safety issues?	

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	Comments:	

Questions about Corporate Social Responsibility		
10	What does the term Corporate social responsibility mean to you?
11	If your company or organisation has CSR guidelines or a CSR policy, please write the most important parts in your opinion.
12	Which of the following words are relevant to CSR, as you understand it? Underline the relevant words, and if you have others please add these. Ethics? Environmental impact? Politics, Human rights? Company image? Following laws, Innovation, Safety? Performance measurement?
13	What do you think would encourage companies to address CSR?
14	What do you think would encourage manning and crewing agencies to address CSR?
15	Is there anything that you would like to add? Education and training in relation to culture Education and training in relation to safety Self-evaluation on level of training

Thank you for your participation

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ⁱ http://ssi2040.org/

ⁱⁱ https://www.blauer-engel.de/en/products/business/ship-operation-197

ⁱⁱⁱ http://www.cleanshippingindex.com/

^{iv} http://www.iso.org/iso/home/standards/management-standards/iso14000.htm

appendix

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PROJECT PGMS
CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY:
SAFETY & CULTURE

Main author: L. L. Froholdt

Contributing authors: Dr. Michael Baldauf, Dr. Maria Progoulaki, Ph.D. fellow Enrico Lobrigo

Contributing speakers: Anonymous Filipino nationals

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WORLD MARITIME UNIVERSITY

Established under the auspices of the International Maritime Organization
a specialized agency of the United Nations

HOCHSCHULE BREMEN
UNIVERSITY OF APPLIED SCIENCES

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WMU PGMS Project Office

World Maritime University

Tel: **+ 44 40356375**
e-mail: **lf@wmu.se**
Web: **www.wmu.se**

Date:

Module Contents

2

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Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): Safety & Culture

Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a way in which companies give consideration to the impact of their operations on society and affirm their principles and values both in their own internal methods and processes and in their interaction with other actors. CSR is a voluntary, enterprise-driven initiative and refers to activities that are considered to exceed compliance with the law[1]. For example what a shipping company does to avoid CO2 emissions, or what a manning agency does to educate the seafarers that it employs.

CSR activities in the shipping industry are increasing. Although shipping is lagging behind other industries, the recent increase in companies addressing CSR is in part due to support from larger companies, such as;

- Magsaysay -link to :, http://www.magsaysay.com.ph/index.php/content/landing/64
- STENA -link to: http://www.stena-drilling.com/social-responsibility and
- Maersk -link to: http://www.maersk.com/en/the-maersk-group/sustainability

It is furthermore supported by the International Labour Organization (ILO) in the form of the MLC 2006 Convention[2] and its InFocus initiative on CSR (ILO, 2006).

This course will give you an idea of the CSR and the impact of culture on the safety of crews on board as elements of CSR. The aim of this course is that participants become aware of cultural diversity and are able to use this knowledge to contribute positively to a safe and efficient work environment on board. A well trained crew is a safe crew.

Cultural diversity is a reality on ships today and has been for many years. It is essential that seafarers with different cultural backgrounds can work together in order to avoid conflicts and incidents that could, ultimately, compromise safety on board.

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[1] http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/GB/295/GB.295_MNE_2_1_engl.pdf
[2] http://www.ilo.org/global/standards/maritime-labour-convention/lang--en/index.htm

3

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The general objective of this course is to enhance your cultural awareness.   Upon completion of this module you will:

➢ Have an idea of what CSR is

➢ Understand that our behaviour is motivated by our beliefs, values and cultural awareness;

➢ Understand the customs of other cultures;

➢ Understand the aspects of cultural awareness among shipping crews

➢ Recognize how differences in culture can have an impact on safety on board

➢ Be able to solve conflicts found in cultural diverse crews

Course Duration
0,5 ECTS

12 - 15 hours

4

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1. Getting a handle on what Corporate Social Responsibility is

There are various international Corporate Social Responsibility (hereafter CSR) initiatives that are promoted by a range of Non-governmental organisations (hereafter NGOs) and by the United Nations (hereafter UN). For example, the UN Global Compact (United Nations, 2010) is the largest voluntary CSR initiative and is promoted directly by the UN. It is recognised that the active participation of the private sector is critical to achieving sustainable development. The private sector is invited to explore this with due reference to business practices, such as those endorsed by the UN Global Compact. Further guidance is provided by ISO 26000 "Guidance on Corporate Social Responsibility" which states that "the aim of the social responsibility is to contribute to sustainable development". Following the above outcome, The International Maritime Organisation (IMO) selected "Sustainable Development: IMOs contribution beyond Rio+20" as the World Maritime Day theme for 2013. But how can we understand CSR?

The introduction of the term 'triple bottom line' in the 1990s has enhanced the development of the concept of CSR and the need for business to be accountable beyond its shareholders.

Figure 1: A triple-bottom line for business (Source: DNV, 2004)

Figure 1 above provides a triple-bottom line sustainability diagram for shipping companies to manage their activities. Although shipping companies tend to focus on these agendas individually, if the terms and concepts of CSR initiatives are analyzed in more detail, it becomes obvious that a number of ship-focused elements already exist in the maritime sector:

- In 1994, Tor Christian Mathiesen, former DNV Chairman, published a paper about safety culture in the maritime sector and addressed a number of issues that would be covered by

5

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CSR concepts today (Veiga, 2002). The discussions about safety culture on board ships are often synonymous with discussions about CSR, however, with a somewhat reduced focus.

- The introduction of the ISM Code and the Human Element vision in IMO recognise the influence of organisational factors on ship safety, and their implementation in the context of developing nations is relevant.

- The Maritime Labour Convention (MLC), 2006 highlights issues specifically in relation to the working and living conditions on board ships. Although these issues are not specifically mentioning CSR, there is a strong relationship with the social aspects of CSR.

- Several initiatives have been taken that address more holistically the environmental aspects in the maritime industry, such as the Sustainable Shipping Initiative[3], the Blue Angel Logo[4], the Clean Shipping Index[5] or the ISO 14001[6], etc.

The initiatives mentioned above are only a few examples of developments in the maritime sector under a CSR framework. However, these initiatives focus on single items only. As of today no comprehensive guidelines have been established for benchmarking purposes, or for the CSR performance of shipping companies.

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[3] http://ssi2040.org/
[4] https://www.blauer-engel.de/en/products/business/ship-operation-197
[5] http://www.cleanshippingindex.com/
[6] http://www.cleanshippingindex.com/

6

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Image: Seafarers at work

Source: European Maritime Development Center

For shipping companies, the CSR concept can be seen as synonymous with good business or a tool, that they can use to act responsibly and proactively in all three areas of: (1) Economic sustainability, (2) Social sustainability, and (3) Environmental and Ocean sustainability.

CSR activities in the maritime industry are both evolving and transforming market conditions. There are now new demands from regulators, customers, investors, NGOs in regards to energy, climate change, pollution, waste, hazards, spills and sustainable supply chain management. These new demands are in turn transforming market conditions by creating new challenges, such as requirements for Ecosystem-based management[7] and Ocean Governance[8].

Whether CSR is producing financial benefits is still debated amongst researchers. For instance, Pava and Krausz (1996) show a positive connection between CSR and financial performance and Ruf et al. (2001) show a relation between CSR and growth in sales and return on sales. This means that it is possible to achieve economic advantages for a company if it decides to engage in CSR activities. However, Lee and Faff (2009) claim that there is a negative relation between profit rate and the amount of information about CSR activities posted. Maritime studies on the triple

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[7]Ecosystem-based management (EBM) is an environmental management approach that recognizes the full array of interactions within an ecosystem, including humans (Leslie & McLeod 2007).
[8]de Marffy, A. (2004). Ocean governance: A process in the right direction for the effective management of the oceans. Ocean Yearbook, 18, 162-192.

7

bottom line are limited, however, Drobetz et al. (2012) claim that corporate governance has an influence on financial performance when considering the unique conditions that exist in the shipping.

But how are maritime companies working with CSR? Check the website of NORDEN, a Danish shipping company, NORDEN at the link: https://www.ds-norden.com/ - if you look across the screen to the right, you can see the 7th fan is CSR. Here you can see how the company works with a broad range of topics covering all CSR pegs, CO_2 efficiency, vessel safety, employee conditions, transparency, environmental management, anti-corruption, responsible supply chain. You can also watch their cartoon movie about how they work with CSR, and here is the link: https://www.ds-norden.com/csr/CSRinNORDEN/csrfilm/

These are just some of the developments of CSR activities, which by no means covers the full scope of initiatives and developments in CSR in the maritime industry[9].

> ### *Question Box 1 a:*
>
> **What is CSR? Search for and name some CSR initiatives in the maritime industry.**

1.1 CSR in the Philippines

CSR is a big topic in the Philippines. Recently, a study was conducted in the capital city of the Philippines in order to find out what Filipino maritime companies are actually doing in respect to CSR. Different companies were interviewed, such as Shipping companies, crew and manning companies, privately owned and third party companies, and here are some of the things that they said:

***THE FOLLOWING BOXES WILL HAVE VOICE OVERS

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[9] Fafaliou I, Lekakou, M. and Theotokas I. (2006). Is the European shipping industry aware of corporate social responsibility? The case of the Greek owned short sea shipping companies. Maritime policy 30 (4): 412-419.

8

Interview company
"There is hard competition, so we need to treat our seafarers well in order to retain the good ones. So CSR ' is good".

Interview company
"CSR is integrated into the company's operation. It is not treated as a distinct area from operation. Seafarers are well trained on how to be safe and how to take care of the environment".

Interview company
"We are working for a sustainable maritime industry".

Interview company
"Active citizenship-that's what we have. CSR is about empowering the individual seafarer and the team to sustain themselves".

There are some companies that are encouraging seafarers to take part in various CSR activities, such as participating in soup kitchens for the homeless and poor; this is a CSR activity of a more philanthropic view. Some companies have CSR integrated into the company's operation and not treated as a distinct section. Seafarers are trained on how to be safe and how to take care of the environment – these are treated to be normal parts of safe operation stemming from international legislation, and should not be confused with a CSR initiative. CSR is a way that maritime companies can choose to pay back to the community.

9

Some of the CSR initiatives that we saw from the study include: monetary management courses to seafarers and their families, in order to help them make good use of their salary, soup kitchens for the homeless and the poor, building houses for the homeless, providing scholarships, promoting livelihood programs, donations, partnering with local schools and sharing experiences that assist in effective teaching for the students, disaster relief packages, donations to typhoon victims, and the establishment of a social foundation.

Interview company
"CSR is about seafarer's welfare and that of their families, and that it is important that there is top management commitment in order to encourage shipping companies to address CSR".

These activities do predominantly fall under the social peg of CSR, although one company informed that they teach seafarers to take care of the environment, which is a second peg, but none of the companies interviewed discussed the economic peg of CSR.

Visit the website of MAGSAYSAY, a Philippine company, at the link http://www.magsaysay.com.ph/ - check across the screen to the right, where you can see CSR as the third box that leads to information about savings and donation programs. However, Magsaysay's official website also has a box above the CSR called corporate governance, where a range of CSR issues are listed, such as Quality management, health and safety, environmental management, security and sexual harassment as areas that Magsaysay places focus.

Question Box 1 b:
If you look at the different areas of CSR in the cases of the maritime companies NORDEN and MAGSAYSAY have chosen to focus on, where do you see similarities and differences?

1.2 Concluding on CSR

The last few years CSR policies seem to be increasing in the shipping sector because shipping companies strive to be transparent and accountable and to go beyond the rules and regulations. They are starting to realise that CSR operations do not always inflict

10

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higher operating costs, but more likely will reduce the costs and even limit them (Etsy and Winston, 2006 cited in Kunnaala *et al.*, 2013: 62). The socially responsible shipping company is one that is working actively to integrate social and environmental concerns in its operation, and which finds a sound balance between the need for operational efficiency, shareholder value and attention to the interests of non-financial shareholders (DNV, 2004). Although studies conducted within the maritime context are limited, however, Drobetz *et al.* (2012) claim that corporate governance has an influence on financial performance when considering the unique conditions that exist in the shipping.

It is believed that CSR can contribute to a company's business performance by the reduction of cost and risk, maximisation of profit and competitive advantage, enhancement of reputation and value creation from synergies among stakeholders. However, it is important to note that the CSR strategies can be seen as a rather holistic strategic approach. Carroll (1999) mentioned that CSR can be perceived as a long-run profit maximisation tool. Shipping companies would benefit from a focus on obtaining long term profits rather than quick short term profits, which are often easy to get by violating standards and regulations.

These long term profits should not only be monetary profits, but also social benefits and environmental benefits, which are often challenging to measure and can only be seen after a while (Grewal and Darlow 2007, cited in Kunnaala et al. 2013: 62). The major benefits for a shipping company deriving from the application of CSR strategy are (DNV 2004): improvement of reputation and brand, raise of the attractiveness of the company as employer, strengthening the loyalty of employees and, increase of risk management capabilities. Thus, CSR can improve the social, environmental and economic factors of shipping and, through them, enhance the quality of shipping (Kunnaala et al. 2013).

The course will now move to focus more specifically on the social peg of CSR, and tap into tools for good governance that can be used to enhance education and safety, and develop awareness of the impacts of culture on safety on board.

2. Understanding what safety is

The human element plays a key role in ensuring safe, efficient and environmentally friendly sea

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transportation. About 70 - 80 % of world's merchant fleet has multicultural crews (Magramo & Gellada 2009; Berg et al. 2013).

Insert video crew on deck

Multicultural crew is not a new phenomenon, since it is strongly related to the spread of the use of "open registries" starting back in the 1980s. Multicultural crews, common language and cultural awareness have produced a rising worry of the competence of ship crews followed by an uncertainty in regards to safety. The multicultural aspect of safety at sea is a general feature of crews, while communication and cultural values play an important role.

Figure 1: Snapshot of a typical situation on board: a German container vessel during approach to Port of Rotterdam, the bridge team members of the crew come from four different nations (India, Ukraine, the Philippines and Bangladesh) and the pilot is Dutch (photo taken during an on board field study ©M. Baldauf)

For the recruitment of a ship's crew there is no restriction on the cultural composition of the crew that can be applied on board, unless there is a special company policy installed by the shipping companies or assigned recruitment agencies, in order to ensure the best performance of the team on board. Storgärd *et al.* (2013) examined the relation of crew's multiculturalism with maritime safety, and found that one of the important factors that must be considered is the number of different nationalities in a crew mix. Team members with multicultural backgrounds need to complement each other in order to ensure safety on board. Before we proceed, we need to clarify what safety means.

12

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Veiga (2002)
Safety is the process of implementation of international and national agreed rules with the objective of minimising the risks to people, property and the environment".

According to Veiga (2002), safety is how a seafarer actually performs the company policies and procures and-follows the uses the international and national rules in order to reduce risks to people, property and the planet. Thus it is of major importance that seafarers know and understand the meaning of these rules and that they can work in an environment that supports and enables them to minimise risk.

The safe operation of a ship during her voyage from a port of departure to that of a destination includes firstly avoidance of collisions and groundings, dangerous motions in heavy sea state conditions, avoidance of fires or explosions and any other hazardous event on board. As a very prominent case for team performance in shipping is the work of the bridge team during the final phase of a voyage, when navigating in coastal and inland waters and fairways with pilot advice and support by Vessel Traffic Service areas. The cultural diversity of the crew on board might be amplified by the joining of a pilot. Each team member has to perform his/her task as it is required according to the company-related and ship-specific International Safety Management rules.

Shipping companies are responsible for the safety of their crews, by establishing, controlling and maintaining a safe operations system. However, it is becoming more frequent, that this responsibility is outsourced to recruiting and manning agencies. Progoulaki (2012) noted that as the sources of seagoing labour shifted from the traditional maritime nations to Asia and Eastern Europe, manning agencies (either as subsidiaries of ship management companies or as independent entities) became an integral part of the system and an intermediary between seafarers and shipping companies. Lane (2000) commented that, while there is a hierarchy of preferred nationalities among crew managers, all available nationalities are regarded as potentially employable and, recruitment to ships is organised by a dynamic system of globally trading

13

manning companies. Manning agencies and crewing companies have contributed in reducing the transaction cost in such an extent, that the ship operators, as well as the seafarers themselves, have a dependent and conditional relationship with the agents (Papademetriou et al., 2005).

The Philippines is a very significant labour supply nation for the global fleet, as past maritime manpower reports confirm (BIMCO/ISF 2000; 2005; 2010). It is important to note that Filipino seafarers are mainly employed to foreign fleets in the international maritime industry, in comparison to the Chinese for instance, who although more in numbers, are mainly employed in the state-owned fleet (Progoulaki et al., 2008). For this reason, Filipino seafarers are considered as a highly "cosmopolitan" seafaring nation, whose experience in multi-nationality crew is significant to be shared. Further, the training and certification requirements stemming from the STCW apply to all seafarers world widely. So, each individual crew member has a responsibility to educate him or herself adequately, and must perform at their best in safety-critical situations in order to ensure the safety of all on board. The team as a whole is crucial for the safety of all crew members, as this team cohesion is crucial in the dynamic working conditions on board.

2.1 Good governance tools

The International Maritime Organisation (hereafter IMO) is one of the important international regulatory bodies for the maritime industry and is responsible for drawing up many of the available tools for assisting Member States in exercising good governance.   In 1948 an international conference in Geneva adopted a convention formally establishing IMO (the original name was the Inter-Governmental Maritime Consultative Organisation, or IMCO, but the name was changed in 1982, to IMO).
The IMO Convention entered into force in 1958 and the new Organization met for the first time the following year.

14

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IMO
Is the United Nations specialized agency with responsibility for the safety and security of shipping and the prevention of marine pollution by ships.
Further information: www.imo.org

One of the tools for good governance is the Umbrella Convention i.e. the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982 (UNCLOS) which provides the foundation for every State to take measures for ships flying its flag to ensure safety at sea with regard to the manning of ships, labour conditions and the training of crews[10]. This safety at sea in light of proper recruitment of qualified seafarers has to be done in parallel to taking into account the applicable instruments [Article 94 (3) (b)]. Paragraph 4(b) specifies that such measures must ensure "that each ship is in the charge of a master and officers who possess appropriate qualifications, in particular in seamanship, navigation, communications and marine engineering, and that the crew is appropriate in qualification and numbers for the type, size, machinery and equipment of the ship".

Paragraph 4(c) further requires "that the master, officers and, to the extent appropriate, the crew are fully conversant with and required to observe the applicable international regulations concerning the safety of life at sea, the prevention of collisions, the prevention, reduction and control of marine pollution, and the maintenance of communications by radio". Also in connection with these matters, paragraph 5 mentions that "each State is required to conform to generally accepted international regulations, procedures and practices and to take any steps which may be necessary to secure their observance". It requires the flag State to ensure that its vessels are

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[10] United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea, 1982. Retrieved 13 May 2014 from

http://www.un.org/depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/part7.htm

15

prohibited from sailing until they can proceed to sea in compliance with the international rules and standards with regard to manning[11].

UNCLOS
Provides the foundation for every state to take measures for ships flying its flag to ensure safety at sea with regard to the manning of ships, labour conditions and the training of crews.   *Further information:*   *www.un.org/depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/UNCLOS-TOC.htm*

Another tool is the International Safety Management Code (ISM Code), aimed at providing an international safety standard for the safe management and operation of ships and for pollution prevention[12]. An important aspect of the ISM Code lies within the definition embodied in Part A where "safety management system" has been determined as a structured and documented system enabling company personnel to implement effectively the company safety and environmental protection policy. The objectives of the Code are to provide for safe practices in ship operation and a safe working environment and to continuously improve safety management skills of personnel working aboard ships by identifying risks to its ships, personnel and the environment and establish appropriate safeguards.

The ISM code provides a legal framework and contributes to ensure that a well-qualified and competent crew is operating and maintaining the ships. Qualification and competencies are clearly defined and need to be confirmed by appropriate certificates.

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[11] Implications of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea for the International Maritime Organization, Study by the Secretariat of the International Maritime Organization (IMO), leg/misc.7, 19 January 2012.
[12] International Safety Management Code, 2010. Resolution A.741(18) as amended by MSC.104(73), MSC.179(79), MSC.195(80) and MSC.273(85). Retrieved 14 May 2014 from

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16

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ISM code
Aimed at providing an international safety standard for the safe management and operation of ships and for pollution prevention.
Further information:
http://www.imo.org/OurWork/HumanElement/SafetyManagement/Pages/ISMCode.aspx

The final governance tool presented here is The International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers, 1978 (STCW), as amended. This convention contains a comprehensive set of international regulations with regard to training and certification of personnel. This Convention establishes minimum requirements for training, qualifications and seagoing service for masters and officers and for certain categories of ratings, such as those forming part of a navigational watch or engine-room watch on oil, chemical or liquefied gas tankers and passenger ships[13] [7]. STCW was adopted in 1978 by conference at the International Maritime Organization (IMO) in London, and entered into force in 1984.

The Convention was significantly amended in 1995, and latest in 2010. The STCW convention has acknowledged the impact of culture on people's ways of communicating and it has been added to the regulations as an issue of training and education (Berg et al. 2013). Unfortunately, many manning agencies or shipping companies of the developing nations are yet to comprehend and fully address this. Introducing more education in cultural awareness as a part of maritime education training can certainly provide that "qualification" to the multicultural seafarers and at the same time bridge gaps of cultural diversity and communication. This should ultimately decrease safety-risks and help provide a working environment on board ships, where everyone can enjoy the camaraderie of each other.

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[13] Implications of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea for the International Maritime Organization, Study by the Secretariat of the International Maritime Organization (IMO), leg/misc.7, 19 January 2012.

17

STCW convention
This Convention establishes minimum requirements for training, qualifications and seagoing service for masters and officers and for certain categories of ratings.   *Further information:*   *http://www.imo.org/OurWork/HumanElement/TrainingCertification/Pages/STCW-Convention.aspx*

Overall, it can be concluded that the UNCLOS, ISM, STCW conventions mentioned here are just some of the available tools for good governance to ensure a high level of safety, and a multicultural crew is a challenge that requires complementary corporate social responsibility activities to support an effective implementation and contribution to maritime safety.

3. Understanding what culture is

The concept of culture has been defined in many ways by researchers and academics in different fields of research, and it can be difficult to decide which definition to choose, when trying to understand the concept of culture.

In 1952, the American anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn collected all of the definitions of culture that existed at the time, and arrived at 164 different definitions! Since then, we have seen many new definitions of the culture concept, from many different perspectives.

Culture includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (Tylor, 1924 p.1).

Culture is reflected outwardly in such things as to how people behave, what they eat, how they dress, the tools they use and the values and ideas they hold and express.

18

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Insert video crew in mess

3.1 Understanding culture

Culture is the beliefs and values that we have learnt and are inherited; it is these values and beliefs that guide the way we think and how we act. One of the major scientists in this field, is the widely known Geert Hofstede[14] and his approach to culture.

3.1.1 National culture

Based on a large research study that took place in IBMs daughter companies in over 40 countries, the Dutch social scientist, Geert Hofstede, created the following definition of culture derived;

"*the collective programming of the mind"* (Hofstede 1981: 4-6).

Hofstede (1990) defines culture as a kind of mental programming that is established in early childhood. This programming consists of patterns of behavior, such as thinking and feeling, and these patterns manifest in an individual's mental programming, as values, symbols and rituals. These values, symbols and rituals all influence the way an individual acts. Hofstede also calls this mental programming, 'collective', due to his assumption that the programming is a characteristic of a specific group.

According to Hofstede, the culture concept is practical and can be applied to any cultural encounter you may have, be this an upcoming meeting with a colleague or a business associate from another country than you own. Imagine you are going to meet a new business client from a potential subsidiary company from China. How do you prepare for this meeting? And how do you prepare for the possible cultural differences in order to ensure a positive outcome?

To look for answers to these questions, you can see the attached video files below, where Hofstede in person, briefly explains the different cultural dimensions.

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[14]After a degree in Mechanical engineering in 1953, Hofstede worked as a plant manager and from 1965-1971, he founded and managed the Personnel research department of IBM Europe. In 1967 he obtained a Ph.D.[14] in social science, and today he is employed as an Emeritus Professor of Cultural Anthropology at Maastricht University.

More reading on Hofstede's cultural dimensions: Hofstede, G. (1981). Cultures and organizations. Software of the mind. London. Profile Books.

19

The cultural dimensions are:

1. Power distance index (PDI)

Description: This dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. The fundamental issue here is how a society handles inequalities among people. People in societies exhibiting a large degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low power distance, people strive to equalise the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.

Video:

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jU2gp3QjnNU&feature=related

2. Uncertainty avoidance index (UAI)

Description: The uncertainty avoidance dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. The fundamental issue here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? Countries exhibiting strong UAI maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. Weak UAI societies maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

Video: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Rr9ugZ6wa50&feature=related

3. Individualism and collectivism index (IDI)

Description: The high side of this dimension, called individualism, can be defined as a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Its opposite, collectivism, represents a preference for a tightly-knit framework in society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. A

20

society's position on this dimension is reflected in whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "we."

Video: http://www.youtube.com/watch?NR=1&v=R-SE-VYfXl4

4. Masculinity and femininity index (MAS)

Description: The masculinity side of this dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. Society at large is more competitive. Its opposite, femininity, stands for a preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. Society at large is more consensus-oriented. In the business context Masculinity versus Femininity is sometimes also related to as "tough versus gender" cultures.

Video: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uSHeIBtj9gs&feature=related

Two new dimensions have been developed after this study by other researchers, namely, Long-term/Short term orientation and Indulgence.

3.2. Task

Please visit the website of Geert Hofstede at: http://www.geert-hofstede.com/

Here you can click on the country you come from and compare this with the cultural programming of another country. As you can see the chart below will appear, showing the score for respectively, for the Philippines and Greek.

21

Greece
in comparison with Philippines
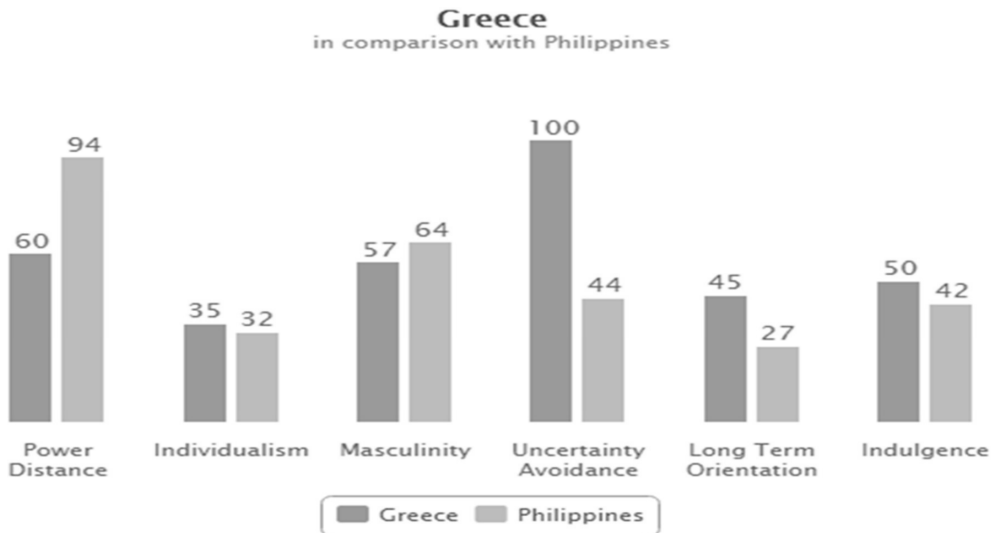
What does this graphical description of Greek and Philippine scores tell you about what to expect, just looking at the first four Hofstede cultural dimensions?

Do you agree with the scores provided for the Greek and Filipino national cultures? The website also holds a GPS link that can be used on a cell phone, hereby providing a solution to a cultural encounter that is close at hand. Here is the link: http://geert-hofstede.com/mobile-apps.html

Let us now proceed with the next section.

3.3 Maritime studies of culture

This course has presented you with the different ways of understanding the concept of culture.

If we look at the maritime industry, there is a range of maritime research studies that have looked into how culture influences daily operations, and the management of cross-cultural[15] crewing in maritime companies (Lamvik 2002; Knudsen 2004, 2005/2006; Sampson & Zhao 2003; Kavechi, Lane & Sampson 2002; Lane 2001; Horck 2005). Hofstede's cultural dimensions are seemingly

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[15] Cross-cultural is understood as the inter-connection between two or more cultures.

22

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widely used in the maritime industry and in research studies as a way of explaining cross-cultural behaviour (Østreng 2006).

Studying a Norwegian cross-cultural crew, Østreng shows how Hofstede's cultural dimensions influences attitudes about what is the best crew composition. Østreng found that these attitudes created a 'we' and 'them' attitude, where the 'we' culture, was the culture that was the most important. This contributes to what is called ethnocentrism[16].

***this box must first show the answer after the student has tapped in his or her answer.

Question box 3 a:
What is ethnocentrism? **A:** Ethnocentrism is when one views one's own culture to be the 'right' culture, and use this as a way of measuring other cultures.

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[16] Ethnocentrism is judging another culture solely by the values and standards of one's own culture.

23

Lane (2001) conducted a study on crewing patterns and concluded that cross-cultural crews work extremely well and that there is no reason why they should be regarded as inferior to crews that consist of one culture only. This conclusion however, is linked to the fact that cross-cultural crews work best if the shipping company, in which they are employed, supplies personnel with language and communication training.

Lane (2001)
A study of crewing patterns – cross-cultural crews work best if offered language and communication training.

Knudsen's (2004) study was on working and leisure relations between Danes and Filipinos on Danish ships. In her study Filipinos and Danes enjoyed working in mixed crew compositions of more than four nationalities, since there would not be majorities and minorities of cultures and therefore nobody to claim ownership of the shipboard culture (Knudsen 2004).

Knudsen (2000)
A study of Danish and Filipino seafarers – a varied picture, ranging from very negative to positive.

In another study where Knudsen (2000) investigated nationality between Danish and Filipino seafarers, her Danish informants had a varied opinion of what it is like to work with other nationalities.

These opinions varied from a very negative opinion of all foreigners, to an opinion where foreigners were seen as people having just as different seafaring competencies as Danish seamen do and that they would prefer to work with Filipino privates than Danes. Knudsen (2005/2006) also concluded, that Danes tend to have stereotype descriptions of their foreign co-workers.

24

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***the answer to the question should first appear after the student has tapped in an answer.

> ### *Question box 3 b:*
>
> **What is stereotyping?**
>
> **A:** Stereotyping is a simplified generalization or view of reality that is not necessarily true or wrong.

Kahveci, Lane and Sampson's (2002) study shows that stereotyping does decline between different groups of nationalities when they have contact with each other on a regular basis.

Kahveci, Lane & Sampson (2002)
Stereotyping does decline when cross-cultural crews are together on a regular basis.

McKay's study of Filipino seafarers in cross-cultural crews points at problematic issues however, the explanations of these problems are contradictory to the explanations that Hofstede provides in his cultural dimension theory. McKay explains cross-cultural interaction as dynamic and changing, and not stable as Hofstede argues.

McKay (2007)
Culture is dynamic and not stable.

Progoulaki (2008) claimed that Hofstede's cultural dimensions are a useful tool in understanding the concept of culture, however the scores per nationality have several restrictions and would be rather used as tendencies and not as generalised data, especially in the maritime industry where there is a strong professional culture.

25

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Progoulaki (2008)
Cultural dimensions are useful, but the scores have restrictions.

Progoulaki is not the only maritime researcher who has found complications in Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions, even though it is broadly accepted in the maritime industry (Østreng 2006). Sampson (2000) claims that "*the application of indexes such as Hofstede"s „Power Differential Index" (…) has been inadequate in unpacking the complexities associated with the operation of multinational crews*". Sampson warns that Hofstede's theory can end in reinforcing stereotypes (Sampson 2000), and Moreby (1990), Knudsen (2004) and Østreng (2006) have also expressed similar concerns. Finally, Froholdt (2008; 2010) has investigated how cross-cultural navigators communicate with each other on a Very High Frequency radio, and the analyses show that culture is not always relevant in cross-cultural interaction.

Question box 3c:
So what do you think about these studies? Do you find some usefulness in them that you can use to strengthen your cultural awareness skills?

3.4. Task

Please revisit the website of Geert Hofstede at: http://www.geert-hofstede.com/

On your left hand side, is a box that reads: "Compare your home culture with your host culture >>>".

26

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Click on your own home country and choose a host country, possibly a culture representing some of your own crew members. How do find the scores for your own home country? Do you fit into the score for your own national culture?

In the study conducted in the Philippines that was mentioned earlier in the course, where shipping companies were interviewed in order to find out about their CSR activities, seafarers were interviewed about how they understood their own culture.

Filipino culture

A Filipino is known for his adaptability, his language skills-he has a good level of maritime English, loyalty and duty. Filipinos are good at co-existing with other cultures, but not good in interacting with them.

Filipino culture

If someone says clear the table, Filipinos will clear the whole table, others will take the glasses. Filipinos will do things without being asked.

Filipino culture

A Filipino is hospitable, flexible, adaptable, he is proud, and he smiles, even in adversity. A Filipino will extend help if needed.

27

Maybe some of these descriptions are suitable to describe a Filipino seafarer! Compare them to you own understanding, remembering that cultural awareness is about being aware of other cultures, but also about being aware of one's own culture. You can read more about cultural awareness in section 3.6.

There are obviously advantages and disadvantages with Hofstede's dimensions, which have also been pointed out in many different articles. Read the article by Knudsen and Froholdt (2009) for a discussion of these criticisms. Here is the reference to the article:

Knudsen, F. & Froholdt L. L., 2009. The consequences of "Culture's Consequences": A critical approach to culture as a collective programming applied to cross-cultural crews. *WMU Journal of Maritime Affairs*, Vol. 8, No. 2.: 105-121.

3.5   *Cultural diversity*

Viewing cultural diversity as an opportunity, and not a barrier, is a necessity for seafarers, in order to ensure that the daily work runs smoothly and efficiently. However this is easier said than done. This is due to the fact that cultural diversity involves a personal willingness to adapt and possibly change for the individual seafarer (Schneider and Barsoux 2003).

Global companies in the maritime industry are in strong need of seafarers that have the ability and the curiosity to both adapt to a culturally diverse crew on board and be willing to show respect of other cultures. With the constant increase in communication and information technology together with the fact that the industry is global, maritime companies need seafarers with 'a global mindset', in order to ensure company interests and earnings; what is now identified as cross-cultural competency (Parsons, Potoker, Progoulaki & Batiduan 2010; Progoulaki 2010; Progoulaki, Theotokas & Iakovaki 2012).

Schneider and Barsoux (2003) identify the following competencies as vital when engaging in a culturally diverse environment:

- Interpersonal skills,

28

- Language abilities,

- Motivation to interact with diverse cultures,

- Tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity,

- Flexibility,

- Patience and respect,

- Cultural empathy,

- Strong sense of self, and finally,

- A good sense of humor.

3.6 Cultural awareness

Cultural Awareness involves the ability of becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. It is about showing respect to others.

Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in a different ways. Misunderstandings arise when one uses their own meanings to make sense of other's reality.

Cultural Awareness- as being cognizant, observant and conscious of similarities and differences among and between cultural groups (Goode 2001, cited in Curricula Enhancement Module Series[17]).

Test your cultural agility!

Try and test your own cross-cultural skills and use this to see where your resources are and where you can improve. On a scale 0-5 how would you rate your skills?

When you finished rating all 13 skills, you can add up the scale scores and arrive at an estimate of your cultural agility.

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[17] http://www.nccccurricula.info/modules.html

	The Cultural Agility Test – how agile are you?	0	1	2	3	4	5
1.	I know my own culture in terms of assumptions and values						
2.	I can identify the behaviour of other cultures – and I know what to look for						
3.	I am capable of talking to people about their assumptions and values in regards to their culture						
4.	I am aware of how time can affect the work environment						
5.	I am aware of how the attitude to change can vary from culture to culture						
6.	I can understand that individual, national and corporate culture can influence the relationship amongst employees						
7.	I can make myself understood in a cross-cultural encounter						
8.	I have experience in a cross-cultural work environment						
9.	I am capable of using 'best practice' from past experiences and applying it to a current situation						
10.	I am curious about cross-cultural similarities and differences						
11.	I can quickly assess a cross-cultural encounter and know whom, when, where and how						
12.	I have personal experiences of cross-cultural						

30

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	encounters that had a negative turnout due to cultural differences						
13.	I believe that more knowledge about cross-cultural diversity can improve outcomes in the workplace.						
	Score subtotal of each column						
	Score total of all columns						

Source: Adapted after Froholdt and Kragesand Hansen 2011

How did you score in the agility test?

The preferred level of cross-cultural agility is a score over 30. Although you might get a score of 30, there can still be areas where you have room to improve your cultural agility skills – check and see for yourself!

The reason for introducing such an agility test is to encourage an awareness of the necessity of cross-cultural training. You might not personally have the need to 'move' or shift your assumptions and values, but you will come across individuals that do. Let's take a look at your comprehension on how you can understand how you can use your cultural agility by looking at awareness levels.

4. Course summary

Upon completion of this course, you will have an idea of how you can understand CSR and the impact of culture on the safety of crews on board, as elements of CSR.

You have been presented with the latest knowledge about CSR in the maritime industry, with examples from a study conducted in the Philippines. You were also given links to some good practices of maritime companies in CSR issues.

In the section on safety, the concept of safety was defined and three different governance tools were briefly explained, UNCLOS, ISM and STCW.

The concept of culture can seem difficult to grasp, and there are many different definitions, as Kroeber and Kluckhorn (1952) have pointed out. Some of these definitions have been presented to

31

you and given the various tasks and tools, and we hope that you achieve an awareness of your own cultural agility.

5. Further reading

- Hofstede, G. (1981). *Cultures and organizations. Software of the mind*. London. Profile Books, page 3-19. These pages unfold Hofstede's definition of culture.

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35

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36

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37

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