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ADB Working Paper Series

**EXAMINING THE PERCEPTION OF
WOMEN'S ROLE IN INDIA'S BLUE ECONOMY:
A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW**

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Abstract

The primary objective of this paper is to conduct a systematic literature review on the perceptions and attitudes of women's employment and leadership in India's blue economy. The study uses a systematic literature review to look at studies and reports published from 1 January 2000 to 5 November 2022, to find out how people think and feel about women's participation with regard to employment and leadership in terms of taking decisions in traditionally male-dominated sectors i.e., fishing, marine shipping, and blue economy tourism. The evaluation closes with recommendations for the compilation of baseline inventories to collect gender-disaggregated data to advise policy on which sectors hinder women's participation as well as a new framework to create pathways for women's holistic participation in India's blue economy.

Keywords: blue economy, women's employment, leadership, perceptions, attitudes, India

JEL Classification: J16, J81, Q22, Q26, J71, L83, N25, N75, P25, P46, Z32, F16, H11

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1. INTRODUCTION

Many women choose not to work in sectors where males predominate due to misunderstandings about the nature of women's jobs, patronizing workplace cultures, and preventive organizational traditions and conservative sociocultural norms (Harper et al. 2013). Men still dominate in several professions, including carpentry, engineering, building, driving, amongst many more (ILO 2014). There is no exception in the blue economy (BE) sector because of the above reasons. Through its "Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development" (Juneja et al. 2021) initiative, the United Nations now sees the BE as a crucial component of global sustainability and sustainable development. The goal of the framework for the Decade of Ocean Science for Sustainable Development, which runs from 2021 to 2030, is to guarantee that nations and people may fully benefit from the possibilities and advantages of the BE while improving the conditions for the sustainable development of the ocean. The Sustainable Development Goals' (SDGs) catchphrase, "leave no one behind," calls attention to disadvantaged and marginalized societal groups, including women. According to a report in 2017 by the Department of International Relation and Cooperation (DIRCO), Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA) member states reaffirmed their commitment to advancing gender equality and women's empowerment within this extensive global framework of sustainable development through the 2017 signing of the Jakarta Concord. IORA members also confirmed gender equality and women's empowerment as a cross-cutting subject in the Jakarta Concord (DIRCO 2017). Through the Jakarta Concord, IORA members reaffirmed that the economic empowerment of women is directly related to the region's success (DIRCO 2017). IORA member states especially acknowledged the importance of economic empowerment as the cornerstone for promoting gender equality and as a result, they emphasized the requirement of full and equal involvement of women in the economy, particularly in the blue economy (IORA 2019). The member states also acknowledged the importance of social protection and support for women working in the informal economy, the contribution of women to the peace, security, and stability required for economic growth and development, and the inclusion of women in leadership and women's economic empowerment as necessary components for sustainable economic growth. Furthermore, wage equality may encourage greater investment in children's health and education.

The Indian Ocean is seen as a vital part of the economies, livelihoods, and cultural identities of the states which border or lie within its boundaries. Fisheries and aquaculture, renewable ocean energy, seaports and shipping, offshore hydrocarbons and seabed minerals, marine biotechnology, research and development, and tourism are all key strategic sectors in the development of the blue economy in the Indian Ocean (IORA 2018). India, the most powerful maritime nation in Asia and the Indian Ocean region, has excessively embraced the notion of the blue economy (Chopra 2016). In order to maintain India's "blue" future, the government initiated the *Sagarmala Program* in 2015. By 2021, a draft Blue Economy Policy had been prepared in order to capitalize on the advantages of both conventional and emerging BE industries (Ministry of Earth Sciences 2021). According to the Indian government's Vision of New India 2030, the BE is essential in raising labor force participation, advancing social equity, and ensuring Indian Ocean security (Government of India 2020). According to Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI) report in 2019, the potential of India's BE is projected to be US\$700 billion under the current business, and if socioeconomic restrictions are removed, estimations suggest that India might benefit by as much as US\$1 trillion–2 trillion by 2025. Since 2018, India's development vision

has become more defined by the crafting of policies for sustainable BE resource management and inclusive development, with a particular emphasis on the Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectorial Technical and Economic Cooperation (BIMSTEC) and the inclusion of “The Nairobi Statement of Intent on Advancing the Global Sustainable Blue Economy” (World Bank and United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2017; IORA 2019; Mani 2021). India’s strategic positioning in the IORA region could enable the country to reap numerous benefits from the BE of the Indian Ocean Rim through the design of strong and innovative policies, the commitment of institutional energy and financial resources to support the IORA, and the creation of national and regional partnerships with BE institutions, groupings, and countries (UNCTAD 2021; Juneja et.al. 2021; FICCI 2019). However, the benefits of the BE in India’s diverse society are still up for debate because of the country’s complicated socioeconomic inequalities, vulnerabilities related to labor force participation and retention, the occurrence of health shocks and pandemics like COVID-19, and environmental risks and vulnerabilities in some areas (World Bank 2022; IORA 2019).

Even though India’s Indo-Pacific vision of the *SAGAR* spirit stresses the need for integrated and shared gains, there is still a lot to do on a local level to close the socioeconomic gaps between coastal states and union territories and help vulnerable coastal communities build their BE capacities and capabilities so they can benefit from the BE (Juneja et al. 2021). In the gender empowerment domain, particularly the economic empowerment of women, there is a growing desire to give women more opportunities in the BE sectors. However, there are few studies that look at the state of women’s employment and leadership in the BE sectors of India and how people feel about it (Chapman and Mishra 2019; FICCI 2019; IORA 2019). The goal of this paper is to close this gap by looking at a wide range of research on women’s employment and leadership in terms of motivating a group of people or an organization to act toward achieving a common objective in the traditional BE sectors of Indian tourism, fishing, marine transport and shipping.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

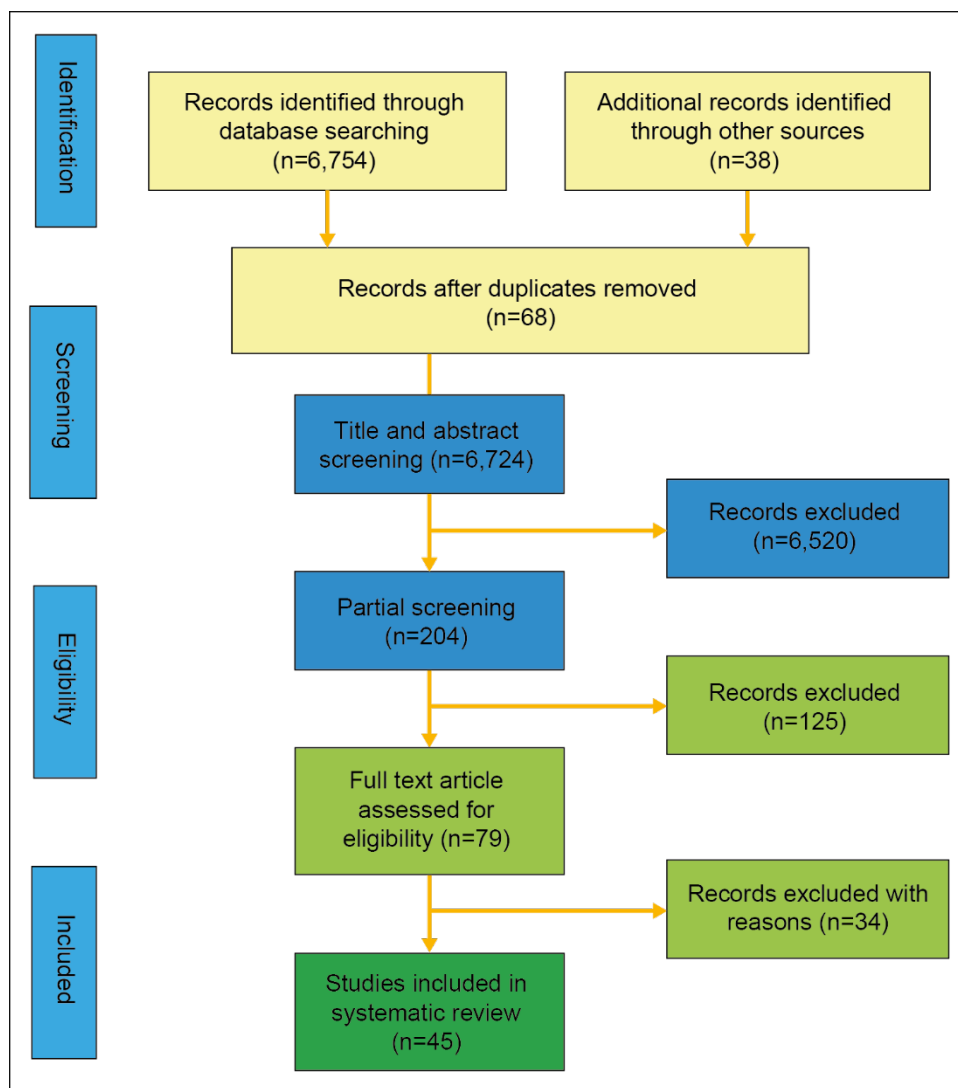
2.1 Search Strategy

All peer-reviewed literature that discussed perspectives and attitudes on women’s employment and leadership in the blue economy was thoroughly evaluated. The database search included journal articles, review papers, and research reports written in English that were published from 1 January 2000 to 5 November 2022. We searched seven electronic databases i.e., ISS, Web of Science, SCOPUS, Econ-Lit, JSTOR, Science Direct, and EBSCO based on their quality and coverage. To make sure that the scope of the article was covered, relevant articles were manually searched on Google Scholar, Research Gate, and the archives of organizations like the World Bank, the Indian Ocean Rim Association (IORA), the Asian Development Bank (ADB), Department of International Relations & Cooperation (DIRCO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), and the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FICCI). The “OR” and “AND” operators were used to search databases using the Boolean search strategy. The search phrase was changed to meet the needs of the database.

2.2 Inclusion Criteria

There were 6,754 articles found in the search, and 38 of them were carefully chosen as being relevant (Figure 1). Once duplicates had been eliminated, we looked at the title and abstract of each article. For the purpose of the review, we partly screened 204 publications. To determine eligibility in accordance with the inclusion criteria, a thorough test screening of 79 papers was conducted. The researchers' input helped to clarify any issues that came up throughout the screening. The following search terms were used: "Blue economy and women" or "Blue economy and women's employment", "Blue economy and women's leadership", "Perceptions towards women's employment", and "Perception towards women's leadership", "women's employment in the tourist, fishing, and shipping areas" etc. Studies were not included in the screening phase as they did not relate to the specified demographic, country, and result of above search terms. In the eligibility phase, articles that did not focus on the aforementioned terms were disqualified.

Figure 1: Flow Diagram Showing the Various Phases of a Systematic Literature



2.3 Data Extraction and Analysis

The objectives, research methods, research questions, and main findings were further data extractions. All duplicates were carefully double-checked in Excel sheets to maintain the review's high standard. Later, each research work was subjected to a thorough examination. In light of the described inclusion and exclusion criteria, 45 research articles were ultimately chosen for evaluation.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Current State of Labor Force Participation in India's Blue Economy

India's level of female labor force participation is rising in comparison to nations like Iran, where just 16.8% of women work in the BE sectors (Chapman and Mishra 2019; Chatterjee, Desai, and Reeve 2018; Banu 2016). However, there are disproportionately more men than women working in India's BE industries, with 78.8% men and 27.2% women, and women's participation has fallen to roughly 20% as a consequence of the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown (FICCI 2019: 20; UNCTAD 2021). Fortunately, the risk of losing one's job is going down. According to the World Development Indicators report of 2020, job security is improving even though women in India's BE are more likely to work in dangerous jobs than men (World Bank 2022). In India, the percentage of women in vulnerable work has decreased since 2000 from nearly 90% to roughly 80% (IORA 2019). But this is a modest stride in comparison to contemporaries in Asia (Chapman and Mishra 2019). For instance, strong political, socioeconomic, and environmental inclusive policies in Singapore have helped to reduce the percentage of female vulnerable employment in the BE sector to roughly 10% (IORA 2019).

New pathways in the state of each BE sector are essential because they will aid in documenting the system drivers, impeding perceptions and attitudes towards entry and social inclusion, and potential interventions (Juneja et al. 2021). According to the FICCI report (2019), it is vitally important to give special consideration to the traditional areas, such as fishing and aquaculture, marine transport and shipping, tourism, and recreation, which currently drive India's blue economy. In India, traditional maritime industries such as tourism, fishing, and transportation have received the majority of attention due to their historical integration into the socioeconomic fabric of the majority of women and locals, as well as the fact that they account for the largest share of labor force participation.

3.2 Perceptions and Attitudes towards Women's Employment and Leadership in Blue Economy of India

Women's employment and leadership in the BE field are seen in India as a wicked contradiction that is highly contextualized and multifaceted, with differing opinions from both society and the women themselves and at both micro and macro levels (Chapman and Mishra 2019; Sankaran and Madhav 2011). To put it another way, something that may appear doable in a certain local setting or state in India may not be relevant to another state (Adluri and Subramanyam 2019). The relational and procedural local social structures, processes, and agency must be taken into thought when understanding the views, attitudes, and strategies used to endorse women's employment and leadership in each BE area of business and industry (Koshal,

Rajindar, and Gupta 2010). Studies on women's economic and political empowerment show a strong relationship between employments and how state and community systems influence policies and interventions that can target particularly BE sectors to help transformative capacities and capabilities that support women's participation in leadership and employment as well as decision-making processes (Chatterjee et al. 2018; Banu 2016). In India, a more nuanced understanding of women's socioeconomic empowerment reveals the existence of patriarchal bargains and cooperative community conflicts embedded in sociocultural and economic constructs in each system, and the perceptions and attitudes towards empowerment drivers can clearly be understood by specifically understanding the core factors for such constructs in each system (Pande et al. 2018). Thus, a special emphasis on each sector is necessary to comprehend the perceptions and attitudes towards women's employment and leadership in the BE.

3.3 Perceptions and Attitudes Concerning Women's Leadership and Employment in India's Fisheries Sector of Blue Economy

In India, the marine fishing industry plays a significant role in enhancing social and economic livelihoods, particularly for coastal communities. Comparative research conducted in India showed that women's socioeconomic potential is underutilized (Ogden 2017). According to IORA (2019), 15% of Indian women who are employed as fisherwomen were involved in fish-related activities that help their socioeconomic well-being. A comparable research on the empowerment of fisherwomen in Karnataka in 2016 revealed that while women were involved in all stages of fishing, their usefulness and presence were limited only onshore in tasks such as skinning, drying, curing, processing, salting, and selling seafood (Mahesh et al. 2016).

In looking at the socioeconomic factors that contribute to women's lack of power in the fishing industry, Ogden (2017) said clearly that sociocultural norms, as well as economic hurdles and attitudes, prevent women from entering the fishing industry and finding work. Most views and opinions were based on socioeconomic stereotypes and cultural conventions (African Academy of Sciences 2020; Chapman and Mishra 2019; Jahiruddin et al. 2020). According to one research, women's employment is limited in small-scale onshore operations as an outcome of cultural taboos against women in onshore fishing (Ogden 2017). According to a similar research, conducted in Kerala by Shyam and Rajamanickam in 2013, there is a reluctance to challenge male domination in the fish industry because of the perception that women are more successful as housewives. This might be explained by the fact that only certain occupational groups are allowed to employ women in the fishing industry. However, the research conducted in 2013 by Shyam and Rajamanickam showed that the perspective of women's participation in decision-making has changed as a result of their perception as "the unseen drivers" of the offshore fishing industry and value chain. In a 2016 study on perception and adaptation strategies for women in Mumbai's urban fishing village of Versova, it was discovered that women in the Koli household community group who sell fish have increased their income as a result of local communities' encouragement of their sociocultural unity in fisheries, strength, and financial independence (Banti et al. 2016). In other words, coastal communities in India were seeing higher levels of women's employment, leadership, and financial stability in the fisheries sector as unfavorable assumptions about the industry are increasingly disproved (Banti et al. 2016; Ogden 2017).

According to research on women's empowerment in Kerala's clam fishery, there was a low desire among women and society to work in or lead the industry since it was seen as a low-status occupation for educated women (Sathiadhas, Femeena, and Raj 2009). This somewhat accorded with the research by Ogden (2017), which found that the majority of Kerala fisherwomen who gather shells were uneducated and belong to severely disadvantaged groups, which restricted their access to financial aid, insurance, and decision-making opportunities in the fisheries industry. In a 2016 research conducted in Mumbai's urban fishing hamlet of Versova, it was discovered that 67% of the women working as temporary workers in secondary jobs linked to fishery cleaning were uneducated and underprivileged. Additionally, it was shown that illiteracy reduced opportunities to obtain financial and social assistance, including insurance, at the time of the monsoon fish ban, and this raised social unrest among Koli and non-Koli fisherwomen (Banti et al. 2016). The Indo-Norwegian Project of 1953, which came to the conclusion that fisherwomen could only play a minor role beyond providing support services like fish selling and household chores, hindered historical conceptions of and attitudes toward women's involvement in fisheries. In other words, despite the fact that government programs were increasingly including women's work in the fisheries value chain, empowerment studies on fisherwomen showed that there were still negative socioeconomic and traditional perceptions and attitudes toward women's employment and leadership in the fisheries sector, especially in socially conservative communities (FAO 2020; ADB 2013; IORA 2019).

3.4 Perceptions and Attitudes of Women's Employment and Leadership in Maritime Transport and Shipping Industry of India's Blue Economy

According to Chapman and Mishra (2019) and Kitada and Langåker (2016), the marine transport sector's unprecedented investment and expansion have not accelerated with the progress of women's employment and leadership in the industry. Female labor force participation in the maritime sector stands at an estimated 27%–28% compared to over 90% for men, especially on merchant vessels (Ahalya 2020; Lares 2017). Though the number of women seafarers has upgraded to 24,059, representing a 45.8% increase since 2015, the number of certified women seafarers stands at 1.28%, compared to over 90% for men in the maritime sector, especially on merchant ships (International Chamber of Shipping Report 2021). On cruise ships, however, the proportion of women who work has increased to an average of 45%, which is almost the same as the worldwide average of 49%. Despite the advancements, recent research has shown several unfavorable attitudes and views about women in leadership and employment in this industry (International Maritime History Association (IMHA)/International Seafarers' Welfare and Assistance Network (ISWAN) 2016; Bjorn, Nazir, and Overgard 2017).

Previous research has shown that psychological and social factors have a role in the unfavorable attitudes and perceptions in the marine industry (Gekara and Sampson 2021). According to Chapman and Mishra (2019), persistent sociocultural norms that favor women working at home over being mobile to work are partially to blame for the widespread hostility against women's employment, particularly aboard commercial ships. The historical interactions and attitudes around having women on board, as well as the psychological relationship with and perception of a certain crew, might, nevertheless, have an impact on this (Belcher et al. 2003). According to a research on women's seafaring careers in Europe, commercial shipowners are more favorable about having women on board due to the fact that women's crews lessen the sense

of isolation felt by their male colleagues (Dragomir and Felicia 2012). In actuality, psychological gender norms with bad personality adaptations impede or boost the acceptability of women working in conventionally male fields, such as the marine shipping industry. According to an article by Suneeti Bala for the *Indian Express* in 2019: “The main hurdle to women’s employment is a negative perception by shipping corporations on women’s experience and abilities in merchant ships, restricting possibilities to engage talented women cadres” (www.indianexpress.org). The Indian government cannot benefit economically as a result of this mentality (Chopra 2016). According to International Monetary Fund (IMF) projections, a rise in female employment may boost India’s GDP by over 27% at a pace comparable to that of males. According to Pande (2018), a significant portion of Indian women would rather work than remain at home when given the chance, despite the fact that societal norms somewhat undermine their desire for outside domestic labor.

In all circumstances, negative sociocultural norms have several dimensions. According to a study conducted in Bangladesh by Jahiruddin and others (2020), rigid patriarchal standards make women’s employment inferior to men’s, and when this is the case, women must be treated as second-class citizens (2020:12). This is supported by a study by Bjorn, Nazir, and Overgard (2017), which found evidence of gender bias in the appraisal of leaders and suggested that workers in the marine sector may have lower expectations of female leaders. According to a report by the *Indian Express* in 2020, only 0.5% of Indian women work in the maritime industry. Although the current seafaring women are ready to assume leadership roles, only a few companies promote women to higher ranks on board, in part because of historical patriarchy in the male-dominated maritime industry (Juneja et al. 2021). However, other studies show that attitudes and views about leadership vary on the kind of fleet, the area, the experience, and the nation’s maritime systems (Gekara and Sampson 2021). According to research conducted in the Republic of Korea (Ahalya 2020), breaking societal conventions boosts women’s prospects of employment on merchant ships and leadership with effective performance.

According to certain research on female seafarers, the fear of hiring women on cruise ships grows because of concerns that doing so would lead to issues over gender relations on board. According to Kitada (2016), sexual harassment aboard commercial ships makes it harder for employers to hire women for long-haul crews than it would be ashore. Theotokas and Tsalichi (2013) carried out research on a Greek-owned fleet in order to put this problem into context. They discovered that roughly 60% of employers are hesitant to hire women because they worry that sexual tensions may affect crew working relationships.

Zhao’s (2002) research on shipboard flirting revealed that the observation was just a “professional form of discrimination” meant to prevent women from entering a field where males predominate. Zhao’s finding is supported by Gekara and Sampson (2021). Belcher and others (2003) noted that there have been fewer instances of sexual harassment among female and male employees working together professionally on cruise and passenger ships.

Studies on gender show that certain attitudes are related to the idea that men should not be treated less favorably than women in positions of authority and management. Gross sexism in women’s leadership aboard ships is highlighted in studies (Gekara and Sampson 2021; Kitada 2021; Lares 2017). In order to assess a leader’s abilities aboard commercial boats, masculinity, tenacity, and drive have remained as essential attributes. Due to this, some female mariners are forced to adopt masculine behaviors including using profanity, dressing like their male friends, and simulating sentiments

and emotions in place of their feminist identity (Gekara and Sampson 2021; Cortis and Cassar 2005).

Regardless of their level of seniority, some co-workers are reluctant to promote women to leadership positions in favor of men who they believe are more equipped to handle the challenging maritime environment (Noorhaslinda and Mohd 2018; Belcher 2003). Similar research conducted in Malaysia by Halimah, Subramaniam, and Nasir (2020) revealed that just 19% of women in Malaysia's marine management sector hold managerial onshore port jobs (2020: 3). Disagreeing with such observations, Beaman and others (2009) conducted a survey in Indian coastal villages on the evaluation of female Pradhan (village council leader positions), and they discovered that unfavorable perceptions of women leaders are caused by fear and a lack of knowledge on women's leadership capabilities (2009: 6). According to the research, villagers' perceptions of the efficacy of female leaders improved as a result of regular exposure to them and the nomination of women to leadership roles. They also became less likely to associate women with domestic work (Beaman 2009).

According to other studies, the disparate economic and business returns and profits that shipping companies prioritize, as well as the residential use of maritime fleets, are associated with negative perceptions of women in the workplace and in leadership roles. These factors may also be related to socioeconomic attitudes and structural barriers in the maritime industry (Gekara and Sampson 2021; IORA 2019; Theotakas and Tsalichi 2013; Zhao 2002). A study of European maritime fleets found that management prefer male personnel because of minimal risks associated with paying for maternity vacations, which are widespread in most institutional policy frameworks and legislation (Cortis and Cassar 2005). Employers frequently show reluctance to hire women cadets or qualified seafarers, in part due to the false perception that women work at sea for a shorter amount of time than men (IMHA/ISWAN 2016). This was revealed by a global online survey of 595 women seafarers conducted in 2015 in 54 countries (Gekara and Sampson 2021; Belcher et al. 2003). Inflexible work hours and arrangements, as well as traditional marine fleet mobility arrangements that do not do anything to encourage the recruitment of women, are further examples of how discrimination against women is becoming more prevalent (Mostafa 2003; Kitada and Langåker 2016; Adluri and Subramanyam 2019; Chopra 2016). The recruitment of women seafarers, hiring practices, evaluation procedures, chances of promotion, and in-service skilling continue to be influenced by indirect libelous and discriminatory beliefs and attitudes (ADB 2013). Glass ceilings are created for women's advancement in the maritime leadership domain and the economic advantages that can be leveraged, because there are still few management and leadership positions for women, and because they are less politically connected and less integrated into maritime networks (Chapman and Mishra 2019; IORA 2019).

3.5 Perceptions and Attitudes towards Women's Leadership and Employment in Tourism Industry of India's Blue Economy

Reports and research on employment in the tourist industry show favorable impressions and attitudes with regard to women's work and leadership, particularly on cruise ships, in marketing, in historic and recreational lodgings, and in hotels (Kitada 2016). According to research conducted by Kumari (2014) in India, the majority of urban and coastal tourism operators think that women are more effective than men in providing tourist services in urban areas, particularly in the areas of volunteering, care, tour guiding, and hotel and culinary services. This finding somewhat accords with a

study conducted in popular tourist destinations in Asia, which statistically shows that 60% of those employed by tourism businesses are women (Banu 2016). Historical views on work have focused on women's efforts in service industries, which are consistently seen as a soft path that requires feminine skills (Koshal, Rajindar, and Gupta. 2010; Chatterjee, Desai, and Reeve 2018).

However, opinions and attitudes indicate a gender bias in the ownership of tour operators and hospitality enterprises, with more male-owned and managed tourist businesses (Juneja et al. 2021). As per survey in 2015, men thought they performed better in administration than women, which solidified the idea of male supremacy in leadership (Pande et al. 2018). According to a study by Cortis and Cassar (2005), socioeconomic stereotypes force women to be underrepresented in managerial positions since males are more often seen as the role models for effective company leadership. This mindset may help to explain why the study on gendered roles in society came to the conclusion that the majority of jobs held by women are deceptive because they involve legislative officials, administrative officials, and managers who are concentrated primarily at the lower and middle levels of management, necessitating the creation of new employment frameworks (Koshal, Rajindar, and Gupta 2010).

According to the International Labor Organization (ILO), there are just two women in India who hold administrative and management positions for every 100 economically active men (Chapman and Mishra 2019). According to Kumari (2014) and Ogden (2017), men thought they made better business leaders in industries connected to tourism. However, when pointing to the financial gains made by women through employment and leadership in the sector, there are favorable views since men do not see women working in the tourist industry as a danger (UNWTO 2021). As per research, both men and women firmly believed that better pay for women would improve workplace conflicts, gender bias in leadership positions, and other issues.

In the tourist industry, there sexism is also found in hiring practices. Although 46% of respondents agreed that women work for the same amount of time as men, a research on the views of the sort of labor offered to women in the tourism industry shows that the employment given contains basic activities that need men, including driving tourist vans (Kumari 2014). According to sociological research on leadership and employment in the tourist industry, sexist views have changed, and women's mental and physical independence has improved. For instance, research in Malta found that female leadership and employment in service sectors reduce societal prejudices and low female self-esteem that hinder women's employment (Cortis and Cassar 2005). According to a comparison research among India's urban working class, 59% of urban employed women in leadership are more independent than males (Kumari 2014).

More jobs and capability of working women to make decisions about money, society, and politics boosts their self-esteem, confidence, and drive to do better at work (ADB 2013). In reality, 52% of women believe that most tourist companies are devoted to using the abilities of women whereas, just approximately 20% of women believe that the corporate sector is prepared to embrace women in important management roles (Kumari 2014). In other words, the various perceptions and attitudes toward women working and leading in the tourism industry are primarily a result of the reluctance of some societies to alter gender roles and norms as well as the resistance of some communities to incorporate the skills, experiences, and knowledge of women (IORA 2019). There has been a pronounced rise in socioeconomic benefits at the home, community, and national levels in nations where women have taken the lead, such as the Republic of Korea, Greece, and Sweden (Gekara and Sampson 2021; FICCI 2019).

4. CONCLUSION

Despite increasing studies on the BE and its potential benefits for global development, not much is known about how to think and design specific pathways and systems for the holistic inclusion and participation of vulnerable people, communities, and women in order to get rid of historical barriers to inclusive employment and participation. So, this review and analysis of published literature has revealed a number of important issues. The importance of investment in promoting India's traditional blue economy sectors—fishing, tourism, and maritime shipping and transport—is rising (Mani 2021). However, since investment levels are uneven, there may not be equal possibilities for everyone to profit from the blue economy (FICCI 2019). Despite a rise in the number of qualified women seafaring officers, studies show that unfavorable views regarding women working as on board crew are still common in the maritime industry. Positive attitudes and perceptions about female leaders and workers are positively skewed in the service industry and on leisure cruises in touristic states and port towns.

The fishing industry has historically employed women both internationally and in India (Ogden 2017). The study of the review articles and various reports reveals conflicting perspectives about women's participation in the fishing industry (Chapman and Mishra 2019). Women have generally been included as onshore employees in jobs like fish selling and cleaning, with less involvement in direct fishing operations, mostly because of sociocultural taboos, conventions, and preferences (Ogden 2017). Due to societal perceptions regarding women's abilities and expertise in cleaning clams, women have been directly hired in the extraction of clams in intertidal zones like Kerala and Karnataka. Locals have a male perspective of leadership, believing that men are more effective leaders than women. But this could be influenced by one's degree of literacy, exposure, and knowledge (Sathiadhas, Femeena, and Raj 2009). States with high literacy rates, like Kerala, have seen increasing acceptance and participation of women's groups and leaders in mainstream leadership, with positive effects (Chapman and Mishra 2019; Beaman et al. 2009).

The study demonstrates that society is gradually beginning to appreciate the advantages of women's expertise and work in traditional blue economy areas, which are more than previously thought (Beaman, et al. 2009). For instance, the introduction of female role models in the marine shipping business has enticed local communities to promote more women in mainstream leadership and employment (Chapman and Mishra 2019). Thus, perceptions and attitudes regarding women's employment and leadership may be biased due to historical ignorance of women's abilities, the diversity of India's sociopolitical systems, and the gradual disintegration of societal structures.

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