

**Employees' perceptions towards gender equality: A case study of two mining
companies in Limpopo Province**

By

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DECLARATION

I Dakalo Happyngess Ndanduleni, declare that this dissertation entitled: "Employees' Perceptions Towards Gender Equality: A case study of two mining companies in Limpopo Province" for the Masters Degree in Gender Studies at the University of Venda submitted by me has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other University, and that it is my own work in design and in execution and that all reference material contained therein has been acknowledged.

Signed (Student):..... Date.....

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DEDICATION

- This degree is especially dedicated to my parents Mr. Ndanduleni Ronald and Mrs. Ndanduleni Esther whose unconditional love and support kept me going throughout my studies.
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ABSTRACT

Despite a huge increase in female labour force participation in South Africa, gender inequalities continue to undermine decent work objectives. Women employees face inequality and disadvantages in the workplace. Women currently face glaring pay differences, gender stereotyping, discrimination based on family responsibilities and difficulties in balancing work and family life. Gender inequality has always been a problem in the developing countries, and South Africa is no exception. There is extensive evidence concerning the level of gender inequality in the mining sector. This study explores the perceptions of mining employees towards gender equality. The study used mixed methods research approach. The study employed self-report to solicit the perception of gender equality at two mining companies located in Limpopo province, South Africa. A non-probability type (purposive) of sampling was used to select participants because the interview depended on the availability of participants.

The major findings illustrate that the mining sector still remains highly masculine though there has been a movement towards the integration of women into this masculine culture. It further demonstrates that some men believe that women in the mines can only do what is considered to be 'soft' duties which are related to domestic chores within the households.

Keywords: Gender inequality; Gender transformation; Women, Mining.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AA	AFFIRMATIVE ACTION
DME	DEPARTMENT OF MINERALS AND ENERGY
EEA	EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT
EEOL	EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY LEGISLATION
GAD	GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT
HDSA	HISTORICALLY DISADVANTAGED SOUTH AFRICANS
MHSA	MINE HEALTH AND SAFETY ACT
SA	SOUTH AFRICA
SAC	SOUTH AFRICAN CONSTITUTION
UK	UNITED KINGDOM
USA	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
WID	WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT
WIM	WOMEN IN MINING

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of democracy in 1994, South Africa has adopted legislation that promotes equality in the country. To this effect, many pieces of legislation, including the Employment Equity Act of 1998, have been promulgated and implemented to support this cause. South Africa has adopted the Affirmation Action policy which is embedded within this Act (Mashiane, 2009). Historically, male-dominated environments in South Africa such as mining, heavy manufacturing, and production were built upon and embedded in intense racial and class struggles. These environments only provided room for a male workforce, mostly due to the immigrant nature of the labour (Martin, 2013). Ramufhufhi (2014) argued that inequality and gender discrimination continue to pose a threat to the development of our communities all over the world. Women continue to be disadvantaged because of the ideology that associates them with household duties as opposed to men who are largely associated with leadership. Women are responsible for the development of families and the society at large, and yet are the least considered when it comes to economic upward mobility

Despite the above-mentioned laws, the mining sector has remained highly masculine oriented. Gender representation is highly skewed in favour of men. Given the above scenario, women find it difficult to operate or function optimally in an environment that rejects femininity. Gender discrimination and inequality continues to hinder gender development within this sector, as in other sectors. South Africa is supposed to be a democracy. Therefore, South African women need to benefit equally as spelt out in our constitution. This research seeks to investigate attitudes and perceptions of the employees in the mining sector on gender equality. Here I start by discussing the background of the study, followed by a statement of the problem, the aim of the study, study objectives, research questions. Subsequent to that I outline the significance of the study, definition of concepts, literature review. Lastly, I discuss the research methodology, which comprises of the research design, location of the study, study population, sampling procedures, methods of data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Literature shows that the mining sector is highly masculine oriented. This is seen in most countries globally. In Canada and the United State of America, two decades (the 1940s and 1970s) offer exceptions in women's employment in the mining. Some insights into how women and their advocates might dislodge gender barriers (Mercier, 2001). Mercier (2001),

further shows that the Second World War presented a labour shortage that forced governments, companies, and unions to recruit women to fill critical mining positions. Later, North American feminist movements compelled governments to open up former male bastions such as mining through the Equal Employment Opportunity Legislation (Mercier, 2001).

In her study, *Bordering on Equality: Women Miners in North America*, Lahiri- Dutt (2010), notes that the war years provide ample examples to illustrate the shifting ground of gendered and racialized work categories. In Anaconda, Montana, the Anaconda Company manipulated perceptions of difference to convince union representatives to allow women into its smelter. Furthermore, it is argued that wartime labour demands, and the subsequent relaxation of occupational barriers, presented unprecedented opportunities for women of many ethnicities in various industries, especially new aircraft and shipbuilding plants. Mining remained off limits, except for a small percentage of women who found work in processing ore and on surface operations (Lahiri- Dutt, 2010).

Since 1890, Ontario mining legislation had prohibited the employment of women in mines. Calling on the War Measures Act, the Canadian government issued an order on 13 August 1942 that allowed women to be employed to allay a labour shortage, but only for surface operations (Mercier, 2001). In her study, Mercier (2001), further shows that at International Nickel's (Inco) Subbury operations, over 1400 women were hired for production and maintenance jobs during the war. They performed a variety of jobs such as operating ore distributors, repairing cell flotation equipment, piloting ore trains and working in the machine shop. At the end of the war, the government rescinded the order allowing the employment of women in the company's surface operations, and Inco saved the positions for returning servicemen (Mercier, 2001).

In 1972, women in the United States of America formed an organisation called Women in Mining, which was based in Denver, Colorado. Its purpose was to serve the interests of women working in the mines (Marcus, 2000). Women started working in the mines in 1975. The first women to work in a large underground coal mine were named Miss Bituminous by the male miners. Most of these women worked in the underground environment, amongst others, as geologists, mining engineers and rock mechanics (Ralushai, 2003). Women worked in a very hot environment and the conditions were dangerous. There were also some women working on the surface, processing the minerals. Marcus (2000) indicated that in 1996 there was a rapid involvement of women in the actual industry workforce. The employment rate in the mining industry was 569,000, of which 13.2 percent were women.

Most women were attracted by the high-paying jobs, whilst others, often with family connections to the mines, just wanted to work in the industry.

In order to understand clearly why Britain prohibited women from working in the mine, it is necessary to retrace the history of its economy. Great Britain was the first country to industrialize. Industrialization involved the movement of labour and resources away from primary production such as agriculture, fishing, and forest towards manufacturing and commerce. The transformation took place after 1750, first in the cotton industry and later in the iron and steel industries. The textile mill was the early symbol of industrialization and large numbers of women and children worked in mills at highly differentiated, low skilled and repetitive jobs. The employment of women and children resulted in an increase of output and substantial profits to the manufacturer. By the mid-nineteenth century, iron and steel production and the manufacture of machinery and heavy equipment become more important than textile production (Magutu, 2010).

Ralushai (2003) stipulated that in the United Kingdom the trend of women working in the mines was slightly different from other countries because they were limited to certain mines. There was hostility between female and male miners at underground and surface levels. Men never wanted women to work in the mines but rather to remain domestic workers. Unfortunately, in Scotland, domestic employment was limited. If that had not been the case, most women would have left the mining industry for domestic work due to the men's hostility in the mines. Because of this hostility in August 1842, the Scottish government passed the Mines Act in order to prohibit women from working underground, but they continued to do so, by dressing like men. Lahiri-Dutt (2010) argues that until 1867 collieries of the United Kingdom allowed women, young and old, to work underground. Girls used to carry a basket on their backs and fasten it to a leather strap, which went around their forehead. There was a lamp attached to the strap. Being equipped in this manner, they were able to carry the coal from underground level to the top. Women's work in the British mines was more strenuous than that of their male counterparts because compared to men, who generally operated for ten hours daily, women often had to work for 15 hours a day.

Lahiri-Dutt (2010), in her field study of mainstreaming of gender in mines, conducted at Kaltim Prima Coal (Indonesia), noted a highly masculine corporate culture that prevailed in the mining sector. Male perceptions dominate and many male managers felt that women were not fit to occupy high positions. Hence, women comprised less than 5 percent of all Kaltim Prima Coal employees, though they make up 31 percent of the Indonesian workforce as a whole. Since 1987, 308 women have entered the mining workforce, of whom 161 have

since left for one reason or another. The trend since 1992 has been a slight decrease in the portion of women in the total workforce. Lahiri-Dutt (2010) notes that just over half of female employees are in the 'white collar' or administration- related sections, the remainder working in various operational areas. She further states that over the past 30 years the Indonesian government has moved from a position focused on home and family to promoting women's role in the welfare of the family alongside the promotion of both parents' role and responsibilities in their children's education. Lahiri-Dutt (2010) indicated that the Indonesian government places great emphasis on gender equity in the workplace as well as in the wider society. However, Indonesian laws prohibit women from doing night-shift work and from working in the actual mines – though government policies at various levels are not entirely clear-cut on the latter. To hire women in round the clock shifts, Kaltima Prima Coal has had to obtain special permission from the local government.

In China, women have seen their share of mining employment decline since the 1990s. In the 1950s and 1960s women miners were glorified as 'iron girls', but in reality, they still represented a minority of workers underground. Some high profile accidents in the 1980s led to the 1992 regulation called the 'Provision for the Protection of Working Women', which prohibited the employment of women underground. With the new emphasis on markets, women workers were seen as more expensive with their maternity leave provisions and less reliable than men. As a result of these restrictions, Chinese women have moved figuratively underground, working illegally in mining activities and losing prior benefits (Mercier, 2001)

In Japan, women started working in the coal mines in the middle of the nineteenth century. They were employed in both the surface and underground operations. In 1909, women were about ten percent of the workers employed on the Japanese mines and collieries, and this increased from 38000 to 95000. The year 1947 was the peak of women's employment in the mines, at which point they were 27 percent of the total employees (Mathias, 1993). Mathias (1993) further shows that women miners were responsible for haulage work, and in Japanese, these women are called *atoyama*, which literally means 'backstage in the pit'. The other responsibility of the *atoyama* to draw coal in tubs or baskets from the working face to a loading point, where the coal was reloaded into wheeled tubs, and then pushed by hand to central haulage machines or directly to the surface (Mathias,1993). Ralushai (2003) indicated that women worked in the Northern Kyushu mines, but they were also found in other mines. Their work ranged from drilling to timbering. In an effort to promote the rights of women on the mines the collieries in Northern Kyushu established special labour conditions that were suitable for women.

The study *Modernity, Gender, and Mining: Experiences from Papua New Guinea* by Macintyre (2005), paints a different picture from other countries. It is argued that in Papua New Guinea mining companies are familiar with the principles of gender equity in the workplace and are generally adhered to these as standard practice. Job advertisements are gender neutral. Within the mining sector, there are female graduates who work in the professions and technical areas and are paid at the same rate as men in those positions (Macintyre, 2005). Lahiri-Dutt (2010) further illustrates that during the first five years of the mining project, the highest paid Papua New Guinean employees were predominantly female, with most of them in administrative positions but there were very few of them and all were subordinate to male managers.

Ralushai (2003) illustrated that in the mid-1980s, women in Zimbabwe were working in the chromite, tin and tantalite mines. It is estimated that 87 percent of women were working in tin and tantalite mining, which is a surface operation. In chromite mining, there was a small minority of women working underground as well as on surface operations. Female miners occupied the less skilled jobs.

South Africa has been recognised for its progressive constitution, which was drafted and finalised in 1996, after the end of apartheid, and came into effect on 4 February 1997. On the basis of the constitution, as it stands, the country can be celebrated for its efforts to achieve "unity in diversity", which encompasses three categories of rights- individual human rights, minority rights, and the right to self-determination (Dirkx, 2011). As South Africa is a country of transformation and diversity, the first right that should be discussed as a human right of relevance to the protection of minority groups is the right to equality in all of its dimensions. Dirkx (2011) argues that according to the South African constitution, this fundamental concept focuses on the principle of equality, prohibiting both direct and indirect discrimination, while specifically supplying a constitutional possibility to take affirmative action measures.

South Africa has removed the ban of prohibiting women from working underground. Apart from that, it has enacted various forms of legislations such as an Employment Equity Act to promote and ensure equity in the workplace. In order to increase the percentage of women working in the mining industry and also to address the imbalances of the past, the government of South Africa came up with a policy enshrined in the Broad-Based Social Economic Empowerment Charter for the South African Mining Industry (Bendeman et al, 2008). However, the mining and minerals industry is still the most highly sex-segregated

industry. In a country where the economically active workforce comprises 45 per cent women, the mining and minerals industry falls well behind the South African average of just 7.3 percent women and the majority of these are concentrated in the clerical and administrative occupations (Bendeman et al, 2008). Although more women have entered a wider variety of jobs in the mining industry since the acceptance of the Charter, the number of women working in non-clerical or non-support services in the industry has remained small. The percentage of women working underground is only 2 percent and the remaining 98 percent are men (Bendeman et al, 2008). However, the firm Anglo Gold Ashanti recognises that women have an equal right to participate in mining as a career. It has put plans in place for a range of programmes to address the recruitment and advancement of women at both a corporate and an operational level. Despite this, the number of women in mining within administrative, core technical discipline and advisory positions in Anglo Ashanti are relatively low (Magutu, 2010).

South Africa has similar experiences as the countries mentioned above with regards to women in the mining sector. Letlape (2014) shows that during the first stages of mining in South Africa, when it was controlled and colonised by the ruling British Colony, women were excluded and restricted to working on farms and in domestic labour. Furthermore, the traditional demands of the rural African family unit prevented women from abandoning the family and children to go work in the city like their husbands. This meant that for a long time, South African women were essentially excluded from engaging economically in the mining industry. The first woman to graduate with a technical mining related degree in South Africa was from the University of the Witwatersrand in 1992, almost 90 years after the first USA graduate in 1903 (Letlape, 2014). The 1911 Mines Works Act explicitly prohibited women from working in mines, clustering them in the same category as children, essentially incapable of protecting themselves. Further, it was considered unethical for women to be expected to work as hard as men, because they were physically weaker, thus leading to the promulgation of this act by the South African government in 1911 (Letlape, 2014).

Letlape (2014) further indicated that as global pressure mounted on the South African government, the 1991 Minerals Act was promulgated. This was an improvement on the Mines and Works Act of 1911, but still explicitly prohibited women from working underground, although women were allowed to work in other non-core jobs, such as healthcare, HR, and administration. This Act got repealed in 1996, and mining in every respect, became open to all who chose to partake in it, whether it is in supportive or core functions.

1.3 SOUTH AFRICAN LEGISLATIONS ON EQUALITY

This section elaborates on employment equality legislations in South Africa and how they hope to promote gender equality in the workplace, including in the Mining sector. Legislations are discussed in following the order: Constitution, Employment Equity Act and Mine Health and Safety Act.

1.3.1 Constitution

The democratic government introduced certain acts that made provision for females in the mining industry. The Constitution clearly states that: "9(4) no person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic and social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, and birth". Section 22 states that every citizen has the right to choose their trade, occupation or profession freely. The practice of a trade, occupation or profession may be regulated by law. Section 23 (1) of the Constitution states that everyone has the right to fair labour practices." From this, it is evident that the need for change in organisations is due. The target of 10% women in mining is only a starting point for organisations to comply with each and every individual's constitutional right

1.3.2 Employment Equity Act

The Employment Equity Act (Act No. 55 of 1998) promotes equal opportunities for all Historically Disadvantaged South Africans (HDSA's), for example, Africans, Coloureds and Indians and that no discrimination takes place during any actions between possible employees, current employees, and the employer. Companies are required to develop and publish their employment equity plans and achievements and subscribe to ensuring higher levels of inclusiveness and advancement of women. That includes the targets of aspiring to a baseline of 10 % of women participation in the Mining Industry. Section 6 of the Employment Equity Act (Act No. 55 of 1998) prohibits unfair discrimination. It states that "no person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth." Section 6 (2) of the Employment Equity Act provides a defence claim of unfair discrimination, namely the distinction, exclusion or preference of any person on the basis of an inherent requirement of the job.

1.3.3 Mine Health and Safety Act

With the adoption of the Mine Health and Safety Act in 1996, restrictions on women working on mines, including underground, were lifted. Current South African legislation on women and mining is more progressive than existing international norms and practices (Mashiane, 2009).

Heine (2008) showed that the priorities outlined in the Mining Charter include, amongst others, human resource development, redressing the imbalances brought about by the previous dispensation, increasing the participation of women in the mining sector and empowering previously disadvantaged communities. The MQA is in the process of ensuring that targets across the sector are met, developing more grants to support specific transformation initiatives, and implementing a number of cooperation agreements with several role players. One of the Mining Charter's objectives is employment equity with regards to women. Mining companies agreed to establish plans for the target of 10% women participation in the Mining Industry within five years.

Objectives of the Mining Charter are to:

- Promote equitable access to the nation's mineral resources to all the people of South Africa;
- Substantially and meaningfully expand opportunities for HDSAs, including women, to enter the mining and minerals industry and to benefit from the exploitation of the Nation's mineral resources;
- Utilize the existing skills base for the empowerment of HDSAs;
- Expand the skills base of HDSA's in order to serve the community;
- Promote employment and advance the social and economic welfare of Mining Communities and the major labour-sending areas; and
- Promote beneficiation of South Africa's mineral commodities.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Despite the existence of a law that supports affirmative action, the mining sector has remained highly masculine oriented. To this effect, the gender representation is highly skewed in the favour of men. Given the above scenario, women find it difficult to operate or function optimally in an environment that respects what is feminine.

Lahiri-Dutt (2010) sees the mining sector as conventionally leaving women at the periphery of its vision, despite women's active participation over the years. Consequently, 'engendering' or gender mainstreaming can be seen as the right direction to be followed if

mining is to yield benefits for ordinary people in the communities in which the mines are situated. Women in poor communities are often responsible for the survival of the home by collecting food, fodder, and fuel for the family's subsistence as well as caring for children-roles that are often not formally recognised or officially accepted. The basic right to be heard, enabled, and empowered applies equally to women. Planning processes have neglected this right, taking it for granted that planning for men by men would automatically improve the condition of women (Lahiri-Dutt, 2010).

While the South African Government has put in place a range of programmes to address the recruitment and advancement of women at both corporate and operational level through progressive ground-breaking legislation such as the Mines Health and Safety Act of 1996, for instance, which was promulgated in order to remove the restrictions on women working underground, and the Employment Equity Act of 1998, intended to do away with discrimination on the grounds of gender, among others, there is clearly need to try and understand some of the barriers to the employment of women in the industry and develop strategies to overcome these (Mashiane, 2009).

Because of the marginalisation of women in the mining sector, the South African government has directed that the mining industry moves towards 10% employment of women by 2010. However, the question is mining companies working towards achieving this goal? This is becoming a problem particularly because it is happening in a country which fought against all forms of oppression and discrimination. Female employees in the mining sector are still denied equal opportunities as opposed to their male counterparts.

The main research problem that this study sought to address was, therefore, to assess employees' perception of gender equality and whether the mining sector has mainstreamed gender in their policies and practices so as to contribute towards the attainment of gender equality.

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to determine employees' perceptions of gender equality in the mining sector.

1.6 STUDY OBJECTIVES

The following are the objectives of the study:

- To determine the gender division of labour in the mining sector.
- To determine whether there is gender representation in the mining sector.

- To examine whether gender relations are changing.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Transforming the work environment: mainstreaming gender in policies. This study adds to the existing body of knowledge on gender regime masculine orientated and male dominated workplace (mining sector) and the possible strategies to address them. It will help the Mining Companies in revising their recruitment and other equality policies and addressing the challenges faced by their employees. This study will also help policy makers, mining companies, and the community at large to understand gender inequalities and the strategies that can be used to address them. The study will challenge the cultural stereotypes that are seen as being oppressive for both men and women in the mining sector. Furthermore, women will understand that being employed in the mines is not only for men, but they too can play a significant role. The study will attempt to address the imbalances of the past in the mining sector and improve the socio-economic status of women.

1.8 STUDY LIMITATIONS

One of the main limitations the researcher faced was the misconception and lack of awareness with regards to gender-related issues observed among the interviewees. The researcher also had to elaborate the basic concepts to the interviewees in order to extract the appropriate information in the process.

1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Gender: As described by Hinton et al (2003), Gender refers to behaviours, attitudes, values, beliefs that a particular socio-cultural group considers appropriate for males and females.

Gender mainstreaming: the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies, and programmes in all areas and at all levels (Lahiri-Dutt, 2010).

Gender inequality: refers to the obvious or hidden disparity between individuals due to gender (Ramufhufhi, 2014)

Gender discrimination: It is when men and women are discriminated against based on their gender (Kleinberg, 1998).

Gender equality: Refers to when men and women realize that they have equal human rights and ability to perform the same duties (Ramufhufhi, 2014).

Gender transformation: In an organisational context, this means a process of profound change that orients an organisation in a new direction and takes it to a different level of efficiency, with little or no resemblance to the past configuration (Gender audit tool, 2014).

Feminist Standpoint-Theory: Standpoint theory says that knowledge should also indicate experiences and feelings of the oppressed. It further states that knowledge should also include the knowledge of those who have been subjugated, marginalized, silenced or thrown away. This will be elaborated more in Chapter three of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to collate, review and analyse literature, including theorization pertaining to attitudes and perceptions of employees towards gender equality. It discusses the theoretical background, social factors pertinent to women, sex and gender roles, gender discrimination, and gender mainstreaming as a tool for change and transformation in the mining sector.

2.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This section discusses the theoretical background upon which the study was be underpinned. The study used the theory of femininity vs masculinities to make sense of the gender regime within the mining sector. Literature shows that masculinities are acquired during very early years of life. Chodorow's theory takes us through how masculinities are acquired during early life, starting within the family realm during the process of socialization.

2.2.1 FEMINITY V/S MASCULINITY.

Stets and Burke (1988) state that it begins at birth, the self-meanings regarding one's gender are formed in social situations, stemming from on-going interaction with significant others such as parents, peers, and educators. While individuals draw upon the shared cultural conceptions of what it means to be male or female in a society which is transmitted through institutions such as religion or the educational system, they may come to see themselves as departing from the masculine or feminine cultural model.

Chodorow (1978) in her study "The Reproduction of Mothering", suggests that masculine development starts within a family in which women mother and fathers are relatively involved in child care and family life and in a society characterised by sexual inequality and an ideology of masculine superiority. Masculinity is presented to a boy as less available and accessible than femininity, as represented by his mother at the same time. Masculinity is idealized or accorded superiority, thereby becoming even more desirable. Dowd (2010) indicated that masculinities analysis may also remind us to be attentive to different patterns of inequality and to our interpretation of those patterns. Where one's sex is dominant, dominance should be something that triggers scrutiny. This should matter both when the dominant sex benefits (as in occupying high paid jobs) and is harmed (as in occupying more prison cells). We should question not only why one sex fills or dominates the pattern, but also the gendered meaning of both who is present and who is absent. Oddly, when one sex is dominant, sometimes gender issues are rendered invisible. She further indicates that

masculinity becomes an issue in a way that femininity does not become as an issue because of some intrusive male biology, not because masculine roles are inherently more difficult than feminine roles. Chodorow (1978) shows that masculinity becomes an issue as a direct result of a boy's experience of himself in his family- as a result of his being parented by women.

Wollstonecraft (2000), in "Vindication of the Rights of Woman" argued that many of the supposed differences between the sexes were either fabricated or exaggerated and therefore could not be used as the basis for differential rights and roles. Imposing different educational expectations on men and women was not only unjust but also counterproductive, tending to create less productive female citizens with "artificial, weak characters". Gardiner (2004) illustrated that men's superiority to women is a tenet of the world's main monotheisms, although the major religions also include countervailing tendencies that value women's spiritual capacities and delimit male power and authority. The ancient Greek philosopher, Aristotle portrayed women as naturally men's inferiors in terms of reason. In the long educational and philosophical tradition that venerated his authority, masculinity was thus rendered both invisible and normative: Masculinity was equated with the human rationality of men and women were marked by sexuality, emotion, and their bodies. Champions of women repeatedly asked if God and nature had made women so clearly inferior to men, why were such strong social inducements necessary to retain their subjugation. She further argued that in reaction to claims that women were irrational, weak, vicious, and sinful, the early defenders of women repeated a number of strategies. They claimed women were equal or superior to men, writing, for example, books about heroic, saintly, learned, and otherwise exemplary women. In another common strategy, they asserted equality less by raising the image of women than by lowering the image of men. In reaction to claims that women were irrational, weak, vicious, and sinful, the early defenders of women repeated a number of strategies. They claimed women were equal or superior to men, writing, for example, books about heroic, saintly, learned, and otherwise exemplary women (Gardiner, 2004). Wollstonecraft (2000) further argued that both sexes have the capacity to reason; hence both should be educated as to enhance their rationality, which she defined as the ability to act as fully responsible moral agents. The realization of this ability would provide self-fulfillment for the moral agent and benefit society. On this account, women needed to become more rational, but there was no reason for men to cultivate their emotions.

Wollstonecraft's statement is supported by Luxemburg (1991), who mentioned that liberal feminists are against stereotype ideas that construct women as less naturally and physically capable than men as this type of ideological discrimination against women in the academy,

the forum, and the marketplace. Bhana (2005), in her study *Perspectives in Education "I'm the best in maths. Boys rule, girls drool."* *Masculinities, mathematics and primary schooling*, gives us a clear indication that supports the above statements. In an interview with a grade 2 teacher in a primary school in Durban, the response was as follows:

You saw the maths lesson. It's the boys who are better both orally and in written work. The boys gave the answers and they are quicker. On the whole, girls are better in reading. I don't have any clue why that's so. Maybe it's the way we use our brain. Do you know that there are different ways we use our left and right-hand sides of the brain?

Bhana (2005), with this piece of the interview, is trying to illustrate the gender identification of mathematics in the early years of formal schooling. The association of gender and mathematics makes it difficult for girls to be identified as good in mathematics and this has implications for mathematics pedagogy in the foundation years of primary schooling. She further argues that doing mathematics, combined with the gendering of mathematics as masculine and the social power attached to the subject is a significant source of inequity.

Maqubela (2014) in her summary of *Patriarchy/Masculinities & GBV* indicated that hegemonic masculinities are regarded as harmful to women and men, especially those who operate outside the power zones. They tend to use their power to emotionally, physically oppress those without power or who are less powerful than they are. Maqubela (2014) further indicated that masculinity is rooted in the social (one's gender) rather than the biological (one's sex). Societal members decide what being male or female means (e.g., dominant or passive, brave or emotional). This means many mining companies prefer employing men than women because they believe that men have power and do not fear working underground while women are believed to be fearful and weaker to be able to work underground.

Feminists differ with regards to the belief that masculinities present men as stronger, brave, and dominant than women. Gardiner (2004) notes that by seeking to understand the causes, means, and results of gendered inequality, feminist theories hope to develop effective ways to improve women's conditions, sometimes by making women more similar to men as they are now, sometimes by validating women's traditional characteristics, sometimes by working towards the abolition or minimizing of the categories of gender altogether, but all simultaneously transforming ideologies and institutions, including the family, religion, corporations, and the state. The above citation is supported by Stets and Burke (1988) who mentioned that a person may label herself female, but instead of seeing herself in a stereotypical female manner such as being expressive, warm, and submissive

she may view herself in a somewhat stereotypically masculine fashion such as being somewhat instrumental, rational, and dominant. The point is that people have views of themselves along a feminine-masculine dimension of meaning, some being more feminine, some more masculine, and some perhaps a mixture of the two. It is this meaning along the feminine-masculine dimension that is their gender identity, and it is this that guides their behaviour (Stets and Burke, 1988).

In support of the above statements Gardiner (2004), highlighted that some women living prior to organized movements for women's rights claimed that they were equal to men, as men described themselves; that men were not fully equal to the ideal of masculinity they themselves put forward; and that men and masculinity placed women and femininity in a subordinate position. With the resurgence of a movement for women's rights in the second half of the 20th century, varied theories developed to explain the causes of male domination, to correct erroneous assumptions about both women and men, and to imagine new kinds of men and of women in new circumstances.

The researcher believes that the above statements prove that masculinities are socialised to the boy child in order to make him feel superior and make the girl child feel inferior and powerless, and vulnerable. This is the reason we have so many inequalities in the world today.

2.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS PERTINENT TO WOMEN AS COMPARED TO MEN.

Letlape (2014), notes that society constructs "women" have a culmination that puts into perspective the expectations dawned upon women since the beginning of recorded history, in essence, the notion of patriarchy and matriarchy. Patriarchy is defined as the legal, political, economic and social system that validates and enforces the dominant role of the male head of the family over other members. In addition, it prescribes women's subordination to other male figures in personal, religious, educational, work, and other community interactions. This results in men occupying positions of power and control, as well as owning the major resources in society and resisting any change to the patriarchal status quo (Martin, 2013). Traditionally, women worldwide have been confined to the private sphere of the home and family, which resulted in their exclusion from public domains such as politics and paid work (Mutwanamba, 2014).

Martin (2013) posits that due to the cultural and institutional devaluation of characteristics and activities associated with women, men have had very little incentive to move into very often badly rewarded traditional female activities. These activities include homemaking among other primarily female-dominated occupations. There are, however, powerful economic incentives for women to move into historically male-dominated occupations

despite issues of inequity in the remuneration levels of women as compared to male colleagues in similar jobs (Martin, 2013). A study on the gendered nature of poverty in northern Ghana found that the effects of general poverty are experienced more by women than their male counterparts. This includes the calculated deprivation and marginalisation of women (i.e. inadequate education of females), lack of access by women to productive resources, limited decision-making power and ultimately powerlessness. Men have long dominated positions of power in economic and political spheres, the legal system, religious and educational institutions as well as most community organisations (Martin, 2013).

It is imperative that more effective family and community functioning happens so that women are given equal access to education, opportunities, and more powerful roles in the workplace. It would also be good for facilitating better communication between companies and communities.

According to Debusscher (2011), women are an untapped resource that can provide an economic contribution to development that could help in the alleviation of poverty. Many people use gender and women interchangeably. Ramufhufhi (2014) argues that the distribution of consumption within the families mostly favours men. Poor households are most likely to invest in education for boys than girls. The reason being that family responsibility will be taken by boys as family providers in the future.

Morrison (2005) notes that the most obvious manifestation of inequality during the post-war campaign for sex equality focused initially on the practice of separate and different rates of pay for men and women who were performing the same work. Not only were women workers found in low-paid jobs and low-status areas of employment, but they were also frequently paid less than men for similar jobs. It is further argued that men and women should receive equal pay for work of equal value.

Martin (2013) argues that intersections of race, class and gender roles play a pivotal role in shaping women's expectations about their participation in paid work. For example, the history of the development of South Africa has led to many divisions in the country, resulting in a skewed distribution of resources based on class, race, sex and urban/rural divide (Martin, 2013). A study that investigated the influence of family, individual differences and cultural factors on the choice of gender-dominated occupations amongst female students in some tertiary institutions found several pertinent issues. Female students who chose the engineering (male-dominated) occupation was from high socio-economic status homes and those from lower socio-economic homes chose to nurse (female-dominated) as an occupation. It is further elaborated that most women in high-status professional positions in male-dominated computer programming occupations in Turkey had highly educated parents.

Government and tertiary institutions must make concerted efforts to provide more diverse sources of information to lower economic status schools regarding the various career opportunities, with a specific focus on some of the unconventional career options for women. It has been suggested that special support to bring women to higher academic positions may play an important factor in creating a female-friendly culture in institutions of higher learning, specifically in male-dominated faculties like engineering. This is especially important because the more female role models there are, the greater the chances of attracting and reducing the drop-out rate of female students from male-dominated faculties (Martin, 2013).

2.4 GENDER STEREOTYPING

A gender stereotype is a rigid and over-simplified definition of a group of people in which all members of that group are labelled with similar characteristics. Furthermore, gender stereotypes stand in the way of our perceptions of reality and social change. People tend to internalize stereotypes as standards of behaviour and as such, do not go beyond traditional roles. It is further argued that gender stereotypes produce behaviour patterns that conform to expectations. This is a self-fulfilling prophecy by which a person internalizes a label and starts operating accordingly. Here, an example is given of girls aiming to be nurses, as they see this as a suitable career for women, whereas they do not aim to be doctors because they believe this is reserved for men (Association of African Universities, 2006). Kay et al (2015) state that gender stereotype is a belief that individuals in a group e.g., gender, occupation, race, ethnicity, or particular background generally have one or more traits or behaviors. People make use of stereotypes to explain their own or others' behaviors, to justify actions or decide how to act, and to define group boundaries. In society, gender stereotypes are used as standards for evaluating categories of people, in terms of their mental capabilities, social roles, positions, and qualities possessed. When gender stereotypes are used in this way, they lead to discrimination and prejudice. In educational institutions, gender stereotypes result in certain fields being reserved for a certain group. For example, scientific and technical fields may be seen as male preserves. In the workplace certain jobs are reserved for a certain sex, managers and directors are men, secretaries and personal assistants are women (Association of African University, 2006). Gender discrimination cases are too many to cite. The increase in settlement cases and fines have not deterred workplace gender bias as indicated by continued racist attitudes that still exist in 2014, more than 50 years after women's rights became human rights and were enacted into law (Mainah, 2015).

Mphokane (2008) mentioned that the theory on gender stereotypes is particularly important when applied to those in male dominated positions. Furthermore, barriers experienced by women in male-dominated positions are attributable to their primary role in the family as well as discriminatory stereotyping by men and corresponding organizational practices. This statement contradicts De Pillis, Kernochan, Meilich, Prosser and Whiting (2008) (cited in Mphokane (2008) who claim that gender stereotyping is not universal and in realms where stereotyping persists, men reportedly clung to the concept of: "think the manager, think male". Male and female managers' non-verbal emotional perceptions have differential effects on their perceived persuasiveness and supportiveness. In ways consistent with gender stereotyping, it is satisfactory for female – but not male managers - to accurately perceive their emotions (Mphokane, 2013).

While accurate stereotypes may be useful for making decisions in the absence of more specific information, inaccurate stereotypes can be harmful. The belief that one's group performs poorly at a task can lead to lower performance (stereotype threat). Stereotyped expectations about someone's behavior can also lead them to behave in that way, a self-fulfilling prophecy, and expectations about one's own abilities can influence aspirations and choices, such as beliefs about what career path one should follow (Kay et al, 2016). Martin (2013), argued that women will often accept stereotyping in preference to fighting it, although invariably accepting these stereotypes may limit their opportunities for advancement. This denial and refusal to acknowledge negative behaviors towards women are consistent with a masculine discourse which values the ability to withstand aggressive behavior and overcome problems without having to resort to help.

Ramufhufhi (2014) in his research on Gender and Choice in Education and Occupation; mentioned that gender bias in relation to recruitment strategies has been more in favour of men. He further states that most employers practice direct and indirect discrimination when they set conditions which candidates must comply with, for example, some jobs require certain height. This will be in favour of men because they are usually taller than women and this is considered lawful and nobody can challenge it.

Heine (2008) supported the above statement by indicating that, women were exploited as a class in the developing sectors around the mines and in rural areas, and exploitation took place as part of the broad working class. Secondly, based on race, black women were discriminated against as black people by white people, as a definitive character of South African society. Heine (2008) further indicated that more racial exploitations manifested in the apartheid policies of discrimination, job reservations, and inferior jobs. Gender is seen as the third area of exploitation. Women were oppressed by their families and communities on

the basis of their being female. In particular, African societies encouraged male chauvinism and gender discrimination. It is further indicated that the capitalist outlook of the industrial revolution reinforced male chauvinism and gender discrimination. Women were marginalised in the mining industry because they did not have the required strength. It was dangerous to work underground; women are prone to fear and also lacked the intelligence (Hine, 2008).

This was the legacy that did the rounds in previous years of mining, which women struggle to outline today. The consequences of the legacy were the birth of racial and gender disparities in South Africa and the mining sector. These disparities typically include white male dominated upper-level jobs, racist white influence in the mining industry and general male chauvinism perpetrated by both black and white males against women. Women are seen as sex slaves, who should only cook and "make babies" and not as potential colleagues (Hine, 2008).

2.5 SEX AND GENDER ROLES

In every society, there are prescribed roles for men and women and this has been discussed variously in the literature as gender role specifications. Over the years, however, these roles have changed and attitudes towards the roles have also changed. Different factors account for these changes which may depend largely on both personal and societal factors. Akotia et al (2012) illustrate that in general, men are socialized into believing that their essential role in life is to work outside the home and provide for the family while women are taught that their main role is to be homemakers. Based on this differential socialization process, men develop argentic or masculine characteristics which are deemed necessary for the work environment. Women, on the other hand, develop communal or feminine characteristics that relate to caring and nurturing. The assumption, therefore, is that men will internalize gender role expectations about them and women will also internalize those expectations associated with feminine gender role socialization (Akotia et al, 2012).

Van Marle (2003) defines gender as a contemporary way of organising the past and future cultural norms, a way of situating oneself in and through those norms, an active style of living one's body in the world. The theory on gender differences and roles has been considered in the past to be a legitimate area of discussion. This influences much gender-related research. Gender roles play a crucial role in laying foundations for women in male-dominated sectors. The concept of gender roles is based on masculinity traits such as aggression, independence, logic, analysis, and decision-making skills (Mphokane, 2008) Akotia et al (2012), in support of the above argument mentions that the gender role socialization theory posits that different people and objects in the child's environment provide rewards and models that shape behavior to fit gender role norms in a particular society.

Generally, socialization agents in the environment encourage men to be assertive while women are socialized to be communal so as to take up male and female gender roles. In many cultures, boys are encouraged to be assertive and to control the expression of their emotions. Girls, on the other hand, are socialized to express concern for others and to control their assertiveness. Thus, boys and girls learn to distinguish female and male roles by watching the elders around them.

Lomeli (2007) argued that previous studies have implied that sex differences in leadership are as a result of developmental processes and early childhood expectations of men and women yet, few studies have explored gender (e.g., gender roles, gender role attitudes) differences beyond simple sex differences. She explored the impact of gender roles on transformational leadership and found that followers perceived leaders who scored high on the femininity factor as more transformational, regardless of the leader's sex. Although gender roles and gender role attitudes are distinct concepts.

The theory on gender differences and roles has been considered in the past to be a legitimate area of discussion. This influences much gender-related research. Gender roles play a crucial role in laying foundations for leadership styles. The concept of gender roles is constructed to suit situations in organizations (Mphokane, 2008). It is based on masculinity traits such as aggression, independence, logic, analysis, and decision-making skills. This includes feminine traits involving emotions, sensitivity, and expressiveness. Gender roles refer to the activities of both sexes. These vary between the sexes. However, it is vital to understand that these roles can change over time depending on relevant situations. In modern societies, the roles of men and women are becoming increasingly interchangeable; e.g. women are increasingly becoming the principal breadwinners. Mphokane (2008) states that women in managerial jobs in male dominated and masculine occupations tend to integrate masculine work traditions into their own activities. This is consistent with the findings that senior women achieve their positions by ignoring their female characteristics and by putting their careers before their personal lives. This statement is supported by Nebbe (2011), who mentioned that gender, work and family are inextricably intertwined and there are different ways in which motherhood impacts on a woman's career. Changes in work and family, thus, ultimately affect gender relationships. Conversely, changes in gender relationships lead to changes in family and work. It is inevitable that work and family will change as women's role as a homemaker at home is losing value in South Africa and there is a greater need for women's participation in the economic environment (Nebbe, 2011). Nebbe further argued that most societies differentiate labour on the basis of sex. This differentiation is based on the fact that women are viewed as having the primary responsibility for the care of children. She further acknowledges that despite the changing

nature of families it remains difficult for women to both nurture a family and pursue a successful career. The type of labour women perform depends on children's dependence on their mother's care. Women may lose work experience and seniority when having children. Women may also change their jobs to fill more child-friendly vacancies or so that they can spend less time at work, both of which impact negatively on their income. Employers may also discriminate against mothers, as they may believe that mothers are less productive than childfree women. This results in employers paying mothers less than childfree women, and promoting women that choose to remain childfree more readily than mothers. Nebbe (2011) reports that childfree women are more likely than mothers to hold managerial and professional occupations. Pursuing a career is often offered as a reason for being childfree. This is associated with the stereotype of hard, ruthless, unfeminine career women.

Gender role attitudes have been defined as "beliefs about the appropriate role activities for women and men" and have been present since the primitive environments, where men were hunters and women were gatherers. Gender roles are not as clearly defined as they were in the past, but the culture has been found to influence gender role expectations and subsequently, different cultures have varying perceptions of gender roles. Gender role attitudes are sometimes described as traditional versus non-traditional, where traditional gender role attitudes are associated with the superiority of men over women and consequently greater sex differences. Non-traditional gender role attitudes are associated with high egalitarianism, suggesting both sexes are mostly equal (Lomeli, 2007).

Van Marle (2003) argues that humanist feminists generally experience patriarchy as a system that forced a distinct feminine nature upon women, which justified their exclusion from many aspects of the public realm – science, politics, invention, industry, commerce and the arts. The constructs of "femininity", masculinity, feminine and masculine sexual difference are perceived as the main reasons for women's suppression. They argue that only men are allowed transcendence and women are fixed in a state of immanence.

Van Marle's argument is supported by Penceliah (2011) who points out that across the globe cultural norms and practices tend to assign societal roles to men and women. Essentially, men were regarded as the breadwinners, while women were assigned the role of homemakers. This distinct separation of roles has permeated all contexts, including the workplace. In this regard, Penceliah (2011) asserts that most organisations have failed to recognise women as essential assets in long-term efforts to increase productivity, and for which reason have adopted a 'business as usual' approach. Despite equity and affirmative action legislation, and an unprecedented flow of women into the labour market, traditional female and male stereotypes continue to influence the way organisations function. As a

result of these attitudes, it may be suggested that individuals are evaluated in terms of gender and not in terms of performance (Penceliah, 2011).

Ramufhufhi (2014) gives a familiar objection to the argument in that the notion that portrays men as breadwinners is not universal because, in the primitive society of Tchambuti of New Guinea, women are the primary provider of the family while men stay at home and raise children. This shows that women are not as weak as presented by different authors and can be providers for their families.

Akotia & Anum (2012), in their study "The Moderating Effects of Age and Education on Gender Differences on Gender Role Perceptions", indicated that every society prescribes appropriate roles for females and males with varying sanctions for those who deviate from these norms. These norms are inculcated through socialisation and are imbibed by the individual from early childhood. They further mentioned that gender role socialisation theory posits that different people and objects in the child's environment provide rewards and models that shape behaviour to fit gender role norms in a particular society (Akotia & Anum 2012).

Generally, socialisation agents in the environment encourage men to be assertive while women are socialised to be communal so as to take up male and female gender roles. In many cultures, boys are encouraged to be assertive and to control the expression of their emotions. Girls, on the other hand, are socialised to express concern for others and to control their assertiveness. Thus, boys and girls learn to distinguish female and male roles by watching the elders around them. Various agents in the child's environment, including parents, peers, teachers, instructional materials in school and the media, impact on the child's gender role attitudes. These socialisation agents usually enforce what is gender appropriate behaviour through the use of rewards, sanctions, and punishments (Akotia & Anum 2012).

2.6 GENDER INEQUALITIES

The ongoing struggle for equality can be traced to many decades of hard work by women's rights advocates, humanitarian organizations, and development agencies. The manner in which development actors have perceived and addressed "the role of women in the development process has undergone a series of significant conceptual and operational shifts over the last 40 years" (Yelualashet, 2010).

Walby (2003) indicated that gender equality and gender mainstreaming do not take place in isolation from other forms of inequality. The category 'woman' is internally divided by many other forms of difference and inequality. There has been increasing attention paid to the nature of the relationships between these diverse forms of inequality and their implication for

the theory and practice of gender mainstream. On the one hand, attention to other inequalities may dilute the effort spent on gender mainstreaming if resources are allocated elsewhere, if there is a loss of focus, if there is a loss of appreciation of the specific structural causes of inequality, or if there is competition over the priority accorded to different forms of inequalities. On the other hand, the outcome of gender mainstreaming may be strengthened if there were concerted actions of previously separate communities and initiatives on agreed priorities for intervention and if it were to lead to a strengthening of procedures for deliberative democracy (Walby, 2003).

Yelualashet (2010) draws the conclusion from the findings of many scholars and institutions that gender inequality in all sectors of education in Africa is one of the most important internal factors that continue to contribute to the underdevelopment in Africa. Countries that are seriously behind with regards to meeting gender parity in education might have lost "0.1 0.3 percentage points in annual economic growth between 1995 and 2005", and may lose "an average of 0.4 percentage points between 2005 and 2015". Gender inequality in education reduces the average amount of human capital, mostly by excluding qualified girls and generally hampers economic development. Furthermore is also stated that "gender gaps in employment impose a similar distortion on the economy as do gender gaps in education" (Yelualashet, 2010).

2.7 GENDER DISCRIMINATION AT THE WORKPLACE

Wayne (1995) says that no law has ever attempted to define precisely the term 'discrimination', in the context of the workforce, it can be defined as the giving of an unfair advantage (or disadvantage) to the members of the particular group in comparison to the members of another group.

Abbas et al (2011) illustrated that duration between these two periods recognized the gender effects in different studies. It is emphasized on the female issue in those organizations who are dominated by male. Gender is defined as; "Gender comprises a range of differences between men and women, extending from the biological to the social" "Discrimination is treating differently on the basis of sex or race" on the basis of above definitions we can conclude that basically gender discrimination is the preference of one gender upon other. They further argued that gender discrimination may exist in various dimensions which include hiring discrimination, differences in salary and wages, discrimination/differences in promotion and inequity related to different goods and facilities provided to a different gender. The employee is the backbone of the organization that performs critical tasks for the survival of the organization and employee productivity affected by gender discrimination. Therefore,

this study is designed to investigate gender discrimination and its effect on employee productivity (Abbas et al, 2011).

Raju (2014) in the study Gender Discrimination in India argued that women discrimination can be visualized on various angles. In a male dominated society like ours, one has to accept that women are at the receiving end. The sex ratio is unfavorable to women although it has declined over time. The literacy rates are low among women. The expectation of life is low for women in India up to the recent times. The opportunities and access to decision-making institutions are not equal between men and women. Furthermore, there is a clear division of labour among men and women, designating certain tasks exclusively to each and another. Mostly activities which have low market value are attached to women. Women mostly spend their time in household maintenance. There were also gender differences in access and control over resources, which were important elements to consider in development, programmes, especially where interventions may change the value of the resource and reduce women's access (Raju, 2014).

Channer et al (2011) mentioned that the decision makers may choose to discriminate if they believe that their superiors or others having power over their careers expect or prefer it. Volart (2004) in support of the above statement argued that inefficiencies arise due to distortions in the allocation of talent. The idea that distortions in the allocation of talent across occupations or sectors have negative growth implications is not new. Suppose gender discrimination consists of not allowing women to have access to managerial positions or to become workers. We interpret this as a social norm that is enforced by the existence of social stigma, as a deterrent to women's participation in the labor market (Volart, 2004). Most studies indicated that most women leaders have experienced exclusion, condescension, isolation, dismissal, communication challenges, being taken advantage of, and of doing something and not receiving credit for it (Minah, 2015). Minah (2015) posits that women of color would have been more successful if organizational and national systems and processes did not prevent them from advancing professionally proportionately to their increasing numbers and high education levels. Gender equality is essential to the promotion of decent work. Women tend to face greater constraints in accessing decent jobs due to fewer opportunities for acquiring skills and knowledge. In the recruitment process, employers should be encouraged to introduce a preference for women candidates in case of equal qualification and if women are underrepresented among the company's workers (ILO Bureau for Gender Equality, 2010).

ILO Bureau for Gender Equality (2010), the report indicated that in developing countries a large part of the female labour force is concentrated in low wage, low productivity, and low-

status work, or in part-time work that floats minimum wage and social security obligations. Discrimination persists in the form of unequal pay for equal work, dismissal due to pregnancy, lack of maternity benefits, the absence of social security and difficulties in returning to work after interruptions devoted to child bearing and raising. Those who are disabled or belong to marginalized groups often face multiple forms of discrimination. Gender equality at the workplace should, therefore, be fostered strongly. Measures that allow employees to balance work and family life, such as professional care facilities, flexible working hours, the possibility of working from home, paternity leave, etc. greatly facilitate the participation of women in the workforce. The contribution of employees to the local economy can be enhanced by convincing employers that better working standards are good for business. Together with other factors, good working conditions are crucial to improve labour productivity and for strengthening the innovativeness and competitiveness of local enterprises (ILO Bureau for Gender Equality, 2010).

Morrison (2005) in his study "Gender Discrimination Versus Equality in the Police", indicates that men are pressurised by society to get ahead and to climb the career ladder. For men, the idea of working with women in a traditionally male arena is, therefore, a predicament. According to (Kephart and Schumacher, 2005) women have been struggling with all types of organisations for equal roles and equal respect alongside their male counterparts for years. Morrison (2005) further mentioned that consequently, when a woman is promoted to a senior position, this may lead to feelings of disenfranchisement among the male employees, which could embarrass the male employees socially. He further supported his statement by saying that in South Africa, part of the problem is the inherent conservatism of South Africans, which has hindered women to be appointed to better positions. Women face a variety of disadvantages, which stem from their status of being female (Morrison 2005). The above statements are supported by Martin (2013), who argued that the dynamics within male-dominated environments differ substantially from those in more gender-mixed or female-dominated ones. In male-dominated occupations, men have more resources and definitional power to enforce discriminatory practices, policies, and ideologies. The culture in the construction industry, for example, glorifies employees who work as if they have no personal life requirements, and this culture seems to be relentless in silencing those who may raise concerns about the personal costs of overworking and the effectiveness of time-intensive work practices (Martin, 2013). Similarly, in South Africa, female students in the construction industry reported that women on construction sites were not respected to the same extent as men, and were intimidated by the much larger number of male professionals in the industry. Female pilots were found to be prejudiced against and the long term implications of sexism

in the industry were the continuance of feeling highly visible and being under considerable pressure to perform well in comparison to their male counterparts (Martin, 2013).

This shows that men always want to protect their territory and when they feel that they are being challenged they use their masculine power so that they continue being on top of the ladder while oppressing those who have less power.

Mxhakaza (2010) emphasized that discrimination still exists in the mining industry. The evidence of this form of discrimination is in men's negative attitudes which are a problem that women have to deal with on daily basis. Men's negative attitudes create a hostile work environment for women that comprise of: disrespecting women, undermining of their capabilities, unequal treatment of women versus men, physically and verbally harass and / or abuse them, sex segregation and glass ceilings. Few discrimination cases are reported to management because of fear of victimization, fear of being seen as crybabies and because there is a perception that management is not supportive of women, therefore it's no use reporting a case because nothing will be done to discipline the perpetrator (Mxhakaza, 2010).

Mainah (2015), in her study "Challenges, Facing Women in US Higher Education: The Case of Faculty of Colour", argues that "gender and race have been a profound determinant of one's political rights, one's location in the labour market, and one's sense of self-identity". Racism is, therefore, not a simple collection of beliefs and attitudes, but a conscious systematic strategy and process of social and political control aimed at excluding some groups of people from opportunities and benefits thus undermining black women's lives and rights and eroding their self-worth. Those who get pregnant have to take unpaid maternity leave while those with children get passed for promotion (Mainah, 2015).

The problem seems to be that men do not want to accept women's authority, and therefore women experience opposition from their male colleagues. Men belittle women's work and magnify their failures. The dilemma that women face is that men do not want women to behave like men, and they do not accept women who act as their equals either (Morrison, 2008). Women in male-dominated fields, though perceiving themselves as highly competent, at times present themselves as being reluctant to put themselves forward for promotions as compared to their male counterparts. They perceive different responses between men and women to the apparently meritocratic process within the organization (Martin, 2013).

2.8 MINING AND GENDER

Abrahamsson et al (2014), note that women and men have well-demarcated gender roles in indigenous communities, so the impacts of mining on women and men are not the same. Whenever such a community suffers from the losses of environmental resources, it is the

women who suffer the most. In some cases, women have lost their work and relative economic independence and have to start earning a living in the informal sector (perhaps as sex workers). Indian women, especially those living in villages, do not have legal rights over land and are rarely titleholders of land. The compensation process usually assumes that the adult male is the head of the household and fails to consider the needs and requirements of women. Compensatory jobs, if any, usually go to men, and women risk unemployment. Nayak and Mishra (2005) add that the mining industry in India can contribute to sustainable development by promoting women's economic advancement and reducing women's poverty, ensuring greater involvement of women in the mining sector. Lahiri-Dutt (2012) also notes that in developing countries both large-scale, capitalized mining and small-scale, artisanal mining introduce rapid social changes that affect women more negatively than men.

Furthermore, the low level of participation of women in these large-scale operations can largely be attributed to the industry's gender stereotypes and traditional masculine image, the lack of technical expertise among women (spurred by non-existent or inappropriate training opportunities), assignment to lower-level jobs, gender-biased recruitment and employment policies, and restricted career development opportunities for women (UN Women, 2014).

2.9 GENDER MAINSTREAMING AS A TOOL OF CHANGE AND TRANSFORMATION IN MINING.

Existing literature shows that there are three gender equality approaches; namely equal treatment, the positive action and gender mainstreaming. Pollack and Hafner-Burton, (2000) differentiate these three approaches in the following manner; equal treatment implies that no individual should have lesser human rights or opportunities than any other. The application in the European Community context has taken the form of the adoption of Article 119 on equal pay for man and women, and the subsequent adoption of series of Directives on equal pay and equal treatment in the workplace. Pollack and Hafner-Burton (2000) further argued that such equal treatment approach is an essential element in any equal opportunities policy but the approach is nevertheless flawed in focusing exclusively on the formal rights of women as workers, and therefore failing to address the fundamental causes of sexual inequality in the informal gender contracts among women and men. In the second approach which is a positive action, it is indicated that emphasis shifts from equality of access to creating conditions more likely to result in equality of outcome. More concretely, the positive action involves the adoption of specific actions on behalf of women, in order to overcome their unequal starting positions in a patriarchal society. During this period, the European Commission undertook specific sectoral initiatives on behalf of women and participated

actively in the preparation for the Beijing Conference, where it endorsed the principle of gender mainstreaming on behalf of the United Nation. However, no attempt was made during the Third Action Programme to create bureaucratic structure across the Commission capable of introducing a gender perspective into all European Union policies) (Walby, 2005).

In this approach, the term gender mainstreaming first entered the European Commission parlance in 1991, when it appeared as a relatively small but innovative element in the Third Action Programme on Equal Opportunities, though the concept remained unrealized during the Third Programme itself (1991–6)(Pollack and Hafner-Burton, 2000). Gender mainstreaming shifts the focus from women to gender. It is suggested that it "addresses the feelings of resentment and alienation caused by the use of positive action approach" in that these approaches "targeted funding and reserved opportunities for women which often places women in opposition to men and sometimes in opposition to other women". However, gender mainstreaming was equally met with some opposition and resistance, mainly by men as gender norms are introduced and compete with traditional norms into institutional thinking (Walby, 2005).

Pollack and Hafner-Burton (2000) indicated that the third approach is gender mainstreaming and the term effectively entered the mainstream of international public policy in September 1995, when it featured in the Platform for Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, which defined the term broadly and committed the institutions of the United Nations to the systematic incorporation of a gender perspective into policy-making. The key year for the adoption of gender mainstreaming, rather, was 1995, when the political opportunity structure of the Union, which had always been relatively open to women's groups, became even more so, as a result of several events.

Karlsson (2010) sees gender mainstreaming as covering institutional practices and policies, with the purpose being to attain social justice of gender equality in the public sphere. Thus she says that gender mainstreaming is used 'inside institutions to orient the values, policies, organizational processes and forms of evaluation so that these take due account of gender equality. Gender mainstreaming was developed as an alternative to earlier approaches to address inequalities of exclusion and non-participation experienced by women.

Kalson's above statement is supported by Lombardo (2003) who stated that since it opened its way in the European political arena after the UN Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995, the concept of gender mainstreaming has raised high expectations, though also some doubts, on the part of institutional and academic feminism, and low resistance, though also some misunderstanding, on the part of ordinary politicians.

Feminists welcomed it as an opportunity to come out of the ghettoization of women's policies, due to the disadvantages these had in terms of a limited impact on mainstream policy areas and the definition of broad political objectives, a generally low level of funds, and a difficulty to involve men in taking responsibility for the achievement of gender equality. The prospect of introducing a gender perspective into all EU policies and programmes, at all levels and stages of the policy-making process, in order not only to analyze their effects on women and men before decisions are taken, but also to implement evaluate, and review policies taking gender into account was something that everyone concerned with gender policy wanted to hear (Lombardo, 2003).

Gender mainstreaming shifts the focus from women to gender. It "addresses the feelings of resentment and alienation caused by the use of positive action approach" in that these approaches "targeted funding and reserved opportunities for women which often places women in opposition to men and sometimes in opposition to other women" (Karlsson, 2010).

On the other hand, the agenda-setting seems to be very closely related with the long agenda approach which entails the reorientation of the existing policy paradigm to prioritize gender equality in its objectives. This entails "changing decision-making, structures, and processes, the rearticulating policy ends and means from a gender perspective" (Squires, 2005). On the other hand, some feminist writers consider gender mainstreaming taking a unitary approach: as drawing only from the gender perspective which is mainstreamed into workplace policies (Pollack and Hafner-Burton, 2000), where gender mainstreaming is seen as challenging the existing policy paradigms as well as providing a tool to transform gender relations, and therefore has a potential to be transformative (Walby, 2005).

Pollack and Hafner-Burton (2000), highlight the tendency of Gender Mainstreaming to "portray gender as fixed oppositional categories of men and women, a theoretical stance that they see as denying the complex ways in which power and privilege circulate in specific social contexts". In line with this is the concern that gender inequality should not only be addressed in public and workplace policies, leaving out other domains. It is indicated that even though gender mainstreaming was designed to take a long agenda or agenda setting approach to challenge "tradition, entrenched behaviour and power relations", it has been difficult to use it to transform government masculine oriented institutions (Karlson, 2010). Hassim (2009) argues that gender treats men and women as indistinct which in the process trivializes women's needs.

Karlsson (2010) further argued that in the 1970s advocacy for equality for women centred on a woman in development (WID) approach, which was informed largely by development ideas having currency at that time that investing in education and training for women and girls

would bring about change. She further points out that although the WID approach yielded some material benefits for some women, it fell short in two important political arenas that disadvantage women. Karlsson (2010) further shows that it failed to challenge power differentials in gender relations within the family and wider political economy and to leverage women's interests in organisations. Policies and routine practices and allocation of resources within organisations did not empower women. Thus, by the 1980s the gender and development (GAD) approach came to the fore. The earlier focus on expanding the provision of education and training was extended to a demand to bring about legal reforms and changes in social structures.

Gender mainstreaming builds on and integrates the WID and GAD approaches to understand advocacy for gender equality as a process that should be sustained and infused through all decisions and actions within organisations and institutions (Karlsson, 2010). In contrast to a politics focused on forming separate women's organisations, advocates of gender mainstreaming saw it as a means to transform powerful 'mainstream' organisations, including educational institutions and administrative departments, and to challenge people's 'most unquestioned behaviours and deeply cherished beliefs'. Thus, in general terms, gender mainstreaming was envisaged as an approach that would open up avenues within institutions for women to be more involved in decisions, and for goal-setting and the allocation of organisational resources to take gender issues into account. The concern with attention to gender issues when decisions are taken about the allocation and expenditure of public resources generated the emergence of gender budgeting, which foregrounded how women's interests were often overlooked in public financing and how they could gain access to funding for development if budgets were critically scrutinised (Karlsson, 2010).

Walby (2003) shows that although all accounts of gender mainstreaming imply significant changes to gendered institutions, a range of different visions or models of gender equality has been invoked. Three models of gender equality have often been identified as key. The first model is one in which equality based on sameness is fostered, especially where women enter previously male domains, and the existing male norm remains the standard. The second is one in which there is a move towards the equal valuation of existing and different contributions of women and men in a gender-segregated society. The third is one where there is a new standard for both men and women, that is, the transformation of gender relations. Walby (2003) describes the first, as 'tinkering' with gender inequality; the second as 'tailoring' situations to fit the needs of women; the third is 'transformation', in which there are new standards for everyone replacing the segregated institutions and standards associated with masculinity and femininity.

Walby (2003) raises a question here as to whether the first two models actually constitute gender mainstreaming because they retain the gender standards of the status quo. For Walby (2003), only the third strategy constitutes gender mainstreaming and has the potential to deliver gender justice because this is the only strategy that involves the transformation of the institutions and the standards necessary for effective equality.

Walby (2003) further argued that while the elimination of gender inequality is the goal of the gender mainstreaming strategy, the extent to which this can mean accepting and valuing existing gendered differences is a key source of disagreement within gender mainstreaming theory and practice. This has been a debate within gender theory more generally. While all the definitions of gender equality include equality within each social domain, they vary as to whether a change in the balance of the domains and the equalisation of any differential representation of women and men in each domain, constitute legitimate areas for intervention or not (Muli, 2004).

Muli (2004) in her study, *Mainstreaming Gender in Public Institutions of Governance and Democracy* argued that, gender mainstreaming is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, social and economic spheres. It is a process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes in all areas and at all levels, so that women and men benefit equally and gender equality is achieved (Muli, 2004).

Lahiri-Dutt (2010) shows that gender mainstreaming in mining is justified because women often are the weakest and poorest in the local community. In traditional cultures, such as those in the women of the remote region feel they should keep quiet and hide their opinions and feelings. Consequently, they become double victims, within the community and outside it. Women in poor communities are often responsible for household survival by collecting food, fodder, and fuel for the family's subsistence as well as caring for children, roles that are often not formally recognised or officially accepted. Lahiri-Dutt (2010) further argues that the basic right is heard, enabled, and empowered applies equally to women. Planning processes have neglected this right, taking it for granted that planning for men by men would automatically improve the condition of women.

Gender should not only be taken into consideration in planning of developmental programmes, but it should run on the implementation process so that the beneficiaries of the development take ownership of the development. Many countries such as Zimbabwe and the UK have policies that resolve gender inequality and gender mainstreaming strategy, but little is known about the implementation of the strategies. Gender mainstreaming has been

welcomed as a way of reshaping policy planning processes and gaining recognition of women's different special needs (Mokoele, 2013).

South Africa, like many other countries (e.g., United Kingdom), has more women than men, but men continue to outnumber women in the labour market (Greed, 2005). This indicates that women are not fully integrated into all spheres of planning despite the increase in the number of women in the labour market. The international relief has been promoting gender mainstreaming in developing countries due to the high level of gender inequality that still exists within those countries (Greed, 2005). The promotion of gender mainstreaming was done in order to resolve all forms of discrimination and gender inequality that exist in societies and in the households. Greed (2005), noted that South Africa is one of the countries that give account to gender and race in their planning and policy making process. But even after 21 years of democracy, gender is not yet fully mainstreamed in development initiatives and gender equality in the society remains a pipe dream yet to be realised.

Mokoele (2013) mentioned that gender mainstreaming and economic growth complement each other in the improvement of women's status in the household. However, regardless of how gender mainstreaming and economic growth complement each other, gender mainstreaming addresses human rights which could result in the empowerment of women within the household. It further suggested that harassment of women in the labour market clearly indicates that women are still given the lowest status in both the labour market and within the household. He further states that educational campaigns should be carried out, especially with young men and boys for them to learn about the benefits of liberating women both within households and even in the community.

Mokoele (2013) further shows that the change in attitudes about gender equality and the improvement in the status of women should be transformed among boys and young men. If the young generation can support gender equality and the empowerment of women, this will be a good indication that gender equality can be achieved in the near future. But as long as there are still many people who do not support gender equality, it can never be achieved.

2.9.1 Advantages of Gender mainstreaming

Both in terms of its insertion horizontally in governance and in terms of its aims, mainstreaming has many positive features. Gender mainstreaming has high brand recognition among experts in both government and other sectors such as trade unions and NGO's. The wide-spread and quick adoption of mainstreaming as a gender equality strategy by prestigious international organisations (ILO, UN, EU, CoE, OECD) were an extremely

important in mainstreaming being adapted by countries such as Belgium (Pollack and Hafner-Burton, 2000).

Woodward (2006) illustrated that secondly, gender mainstreaming has achieved a limited measure of institutionalization. In the European Union context, an extra dimension was brought about by not only treaty obligation but embeddedness in ongoing EU funding requirements for research grants and the European Structural Funds. Governments are often required to report to parliament or international authorities about their progress with gender mainstreaming as in five-year reports to the United Nations. To this end, the long term necessity of continuing to carry out gender mainstreaming initiatives seems guaranteed. Further, to implement mainstreaming, expertise has been developed to analyze other policy areas not directly associated with gender, and a policy community of gender experts including consultants, civil servants and academics have grown to watchdog gender mainstreaming efforts. As Scandinavian actors especially emphasized, mainstreaming is part of the normal policy process (Woodward, 2006). Normal policy instruments could be devised and inserted into the normal policy cycle to test policy. The strategy fits well with previous experiences with environmental issues and could use the same discourse of impact assessment, evaluation, and accountability.

A third positive consequence of mainstreaming has been the development of new governance tools and actors. The implementation of mainstreaming in any setting had ripple effects such as creating horizontal governance groups, questioning underlying policy paradigms and including civil society. Through training initiatives, it is certainly the case that more men had at least a fleeting confrontation with issues in gender equality than ever before (Woodward, 2006).

These positive aspects of mainstreaming as a governance tool are coupled to its value in terms of addressing gender equality. Mainstreaming provides a tool to transform gender relations through public policy and seems to answer a problem in gender theory, what some feminists call the 'Wollstonecraft dilemma' in policy, a reflection of the Equality/Difference debate in feminist theory (Lombardo, 2003). On the one hand, women claim they are 'equal' (but not alike) men, and yet, on the other hand, there are significant concerns about the openness for gender specificity. How to rhyme these two concerns demanded new strategies (Woodward, 2006). Gender mainstreaming was very attractive as it was the logical next stage after fighting discrimination, considered men and women in a relational context, and was based on sound feminist arguments.

As a strategy for equality, gender mainstreaming has demonstrated a number of advantages, so much so that 'Mainstreaming' without the prefix 'gender' has been demanded by other groups; Those working for children's rights or advocating the cause of the disabled also want the policy to pro-actively contribute to an improvement. 'Mainstreaming' as a technique is positively regarded by equality activists in other fields (Woodward 2006). Of course, the evidence that would be most impressive would be a demonstration that the application of gender mainstreaming in a policy area actually led to the improvement of gender relations. Thus far, research reveals mixed findings. Gender mainstreaming has led to an effort in new policy areas, but there is limited proof that gender mainstreaming has led to dramatic changes in policy, let alone gender relations. It will take continued commitment for the advantages of heightened awareness to become palpable in societal change. Meanwhile, mainstreaming is threatened by some of its own features as well as by a changing.

2.9.2 The disadvantages of gender mainstreaming

The problems with the mainstreaming strategy are those that face any new policy area that competes with others but exacerbated by the fact that the strategic challenges the status quo. First and foremost is the competition for scarce resources. Doing gender mainstreaming requires trained personnel and resources. Holding on to these resources demands vigilance. Mainstreaming as a transformative strategy demands that gender experts cede control to normal practitioners. Opponents to specific efforts for gender equality can hijack mainstreaming in a much more effective way than earlier equality efforts (Woodward, 2006). The spreading of resources is also a risk. A single policy expert in a Women's office can be much more effective (if perhaps in fewer areas) than each department devoting 1/10th of a staff position to mainstreaming.

A second issue is a variance in the understanding of gender mainstreaming, which may be its deepest flaw as a transnational instrument, or perhaps its greatest virtue, as it offers discursive openness. It becomes a container concept, where every user fills it with a different meaning. What was a vague term for international bureaucrats using English as a *lingua franca* became incomprehensible in other languages (Woodward 2003)? Alternative translations such as 'equality of opportunities' or 'horizontal approaches' miss the conceptual sophistication of the original 'gender mainstreaming'. 'Gender' itself, positing that differences between the sexes are socially constructed, is a new term for many. Frequently, practitioners fall back on the generally accepted terms 'man' and 'woman' and 'sex'. Trade unionists were accustomed to having women in the women's division and had difficulty moving beyond 'sex' and equal pay in their debates (Woodward, 2006).

Finally, the tight coupling of 'gender' and 'mainstreaming' as originally launched blocks fitting in ethnic, class and other kinds of inequalities in a simple way. Squires (2005) argues that the mainstreaming approach offers an opening in the eternal Equality/Difference debate and can open doors to diversity, but this has not been explored in most mainstreaming efforts. The long-standing critique that European Women's Studies is shockingly 'white' is relevant for the texts and applications of gender mainstreaming. A notable exception has been the experience in devolved local government in the UK where gender mainstreaming was integrated with equal Opportunity policy that took up various axe of discrimination and anchored policy screening with various groups from civil society. Besides these internal weaknesses, there are also challenges in the external environment to this ten-year-old approach (Squires, 2005).

2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the various challenges faced by women in different societies around the world. Literature was reviewed in order to give a clear picture of what is happening around the world and to give the perspectives of other researchers, policy makers, and different institutions in relation to the question of addressing gender inequalities. Most of the development agencies practiced the two complementary approaches to achieving gender equality, namely, mainstreaming gender and promoting women's empowerment. However, there is no agreement, mainly due to fragmented and arbitrary documentation and the elusiveness of its impact, whether gender mainstreaming has succeeded or not at the international level. Therefore, as the way forward, the gender mainstreaming policies and strategies should be implemented with greater transparency and the development of a more robust evaluation of its impact on gender equality and women empowerment. As cautioned, "gender mainstreaming in the absence of accountability becomes merely a technical exercise without political outcomes" (Yelualashet, 2010).

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the framework within which the researcher conducted the research process in order to solve the research problem. The study is informed by feminist standpoint research approach which states that prior to scientific feminist research privileged male knowledge, experiences and interests dominated the research discourse (Phiona, 2012). It also propagated masculinist notions of reason and science and reflected only an angle of vision that is available to dominant groups. Standpoint theory says that knowledge should also indicate experiences and feelings of the oppressed. Further, it states that knowledge should also include the knowledge of subjugated, marginalized, silenced or thrown away, amongst others, positionality, epistemology, rapport, and power relations. Standpoint research methodology adopts a mixed methods approach because the researcher wants to elicit experiences, opinions, perceptions, and views of groups that marginalized while quantifying them (Hesse-Biber, 2013). This chapter includes the research design, population, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Study Approach

This study is descriptive in nature. The focus of a descriptive study is to the situation as it is, that is, conditions that exist, practices that prevail, beliefs, attitudes and ongoing processes (Babbie, 2014). The researcher aimed at analyzing the perceptions of male and female employees towards gender equality in the mining, in order to gain insight into the reasons for the underrepresentation of women in different sections of the mines in spite of the best policies in place to address the matter.

3.3 Study design

Polit and Hungler (2010) define the research design as an overall plan for obtaining answers to questions being studied and handling difficulties encountered during the research. Research design can be described as a general plan about what you will do to answer the research question (Saunders et al, 2012). The research design used for this study will be a mixed methods approach, specifically the one known as the convergent parallel mixed methods. This is a form of mixed methods design in which the researcher merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem.

In mixed methods, the researcher collects both forms of data at roughly the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Tashakkori & Teddle, 2010). Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), define mixed- methods research as those studies that include at least one quantitative strand and one qualitative strand. This design or method has been chosen for this particular study in an attempt to take advantage of the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches, so as to achieve the best understanding of the study problem. It has also been carefully chosen as data collected was of both quantitative and qualitative nature, which also imposed a need for the researcher to employ both statistical and text analysis of the data.

3.4 Research setting

Burns and Grove (2007) state that the research setting is the environment in which the research study takes place and can be a natural or controlled environment. Natural settings are real-life study environments without any changes made for the purpose of the study. Babbie (2014), defines research setting as the physical, social, and cultural site in which the researcher conducts the study.

The study was conducted at Mining Companies which are situated in Limpopo Province. The study focuses on male and female employees in the two Mining Companies in Limpopo Province.

3.5 The study population

According to Silva & Menezes (2009), the population is the total number of individuals who have the same characteristics defined for a specific study. All elements, individuals, or units that meet the selection criteria for a group to be studied, and from which a representative sample is taken for detailed examination (Business Dictionary, 2017). The study comprised of male and female employees who are employed in the two mines situated in Limpopo Province.

3.6 Sampling procedures/ Techniques

A sample is a set of elements taken from a larger population according to certain rules (Johnson & Christensen, 2009). Creswell, (2014) defines a sample as a subgroup of the target population that the researcher plans to study for the purpose of making generalizations about the population; it forms a manageable subset of a population. For the purpose of this study thirty-two employees were selected from the two Mining Companies.

The researcher combined two types of non-probability sampling techniques, which are purposive and snowball sampling procedures, to select few respondents who recommended other respondents; that is thirty male and female employees who have three years and above work experience. According to Babbie, (2014) non-probability sampling is any technique in which samples are selected in some way not suggested by probability theory. In snowball sampling approach, the researcher chooses a few respondents, using any other method, and asks them to recommend other people who meet the criteria of the research and who might be willing to participate in the project (Babbie, 2014). All the occupations were selected while also considering gender balance to avoid data bias.

3.6.1. Access to the field

As the researcher I knew some of the respondents who were working in the mines since we attended high school level together, furthermore, my Social Work profession made it easier to access more respondents since I interact with them as some are clients, and they further recommended others who meet the requirements. When accessing the respondents it was of paramount importance to have high regard for ethical considerations.

3.7 Methods of data collection

Data collection is the precise systematic gathering of information relevant to specific research objectives or questions (Burns and Grove, 2007). The data for this study was gathered using a self-report interview with open ended and closed ended questions that were aligned with the research aim and objectives. Here interviews were conducted face to face, and questions were asked of respondents and the researcher recorded the responses, this allowed the researcher to help those respondents with a low level of education in explaining some of the questions. This is also supported by feminist research methodology, which allows flexibility and the creation of a good working relationship between the researcher and the respondents (rapport). Male and female employees who are working at the two mines situated in Limpopo Province where interviewed. A total number of thirty-two women and men were interviewed to find out their perceptions of gender equality at the mines.

In order to collect the needed information for this study, as a researcher, I developed a self-report interview which I used to elicit responses relevant to achieve the aim of the study. Open-ended and closed-ended questions were asked in order to get more information from the respondents. The drafting of the interview was done in consultation with the supervisor of the study.

3.7.1 Pilot study

Polit & Hungler (2010), state that a pre-test is done with individuals who have similar characteristics to those who will be used in the study. A pre-test of an instrument is a trial run for detecting inadequacies and unforeseen problems before going to the expense of a full-scale study. It is done to determine the clarity of questions, effectiveness of instructions, completeness of the response set and the time required to complete the questionnaire (Burns & Grove, 2007).

After an approval by the supervisor, this self-report interview was administered to four respondents employed in the mines. The four respondents who participated in the pre-test were excluded from the actual study. The pre-test produced positive results.

3.7.2 Positionality

Deutsch (2004) states that positionality means the researcher's awareness of his or her own subjective experience in relation to that of his or her participants. Standpoint theory emphasises that the researcher must know his or her position or role in research. The researcher needs to disclose as to whether he or she is researching as an insider or outsider (Maqubela, 2014). The researcher may take the position of an insider, outsider or both. Being an outsider means that the researcher is not part of the people/culture being researched and don't share the same experiences with them.

My position as a researcher in this study is that of an outsider since I am not employed in the mining sector, yet my input as a researcher is of paramount importance in the study. As a researcher and an outsider, I understand that the respondents know better about their problems, experiences and that I have to respect that in the process of conducting the study.

3.7.3 Epistemic privilege

Maqubela (2013), states that standpoint theory addresses the status of the researched in knowledge production. Social institutions and practices favour the powerful and they have unfair advantage over the less powerful.

It is a type of feminist research whereby participants are at an important position in the research and knowledge production. Participants are recognized as knowers and actors. My position in this study was that of an outsider as I did not share similar characteristics with the participants. I placed participants in an important and equal position as me as a researcher because participants possessed critical knowledge of their situation.

3.7.4 Power Relations

Feminist standpoint addresses, among others, inequality 'power relations' between the researcher and the participants, whereby the researcher and a researched are put on an equal plane and given equal status in the production of knowledge (Maqubela, 2014). Koester (2015), defines power relations as the way in which gender shapes the distribution of power at all levels of society.

The researcher ensured that there was a power balance between himself and the participants. This made participants feel that they were all equal in knowledge production and no one was more important than the other. The researcher gave both male and female respondents equal representation in the study to avoid bias.

3.7.5 Rapport

Rapport is defined as a "working relationship between the researcher and the researched during the interview process" (Maqubela, 2013). A personal, caring, sensitive and appreciative attitude is important to generate rapport between the researcher and the researched, a working and interactive relationship between the two (Roberts, 1992). Moreover, rapport has to be maintained and sustained throughout the interview process.

Roberts (1992) states that since these sorts of interviews are very interactive, the interviewer is expected to maintain rapport by being friendly at the same time remaining professional. Some feminist' writers argue that to establish rapport, one has to reciprocate by answering the questions asked by the participants (Maqubela, 2013).

The reason to establish rapport was to encourage the respondents to open up during interviews and to give quality information.

3.7.6 Reflexivity

The study considers reflexivity as an important aspect of research. Reflexivity refers to a self-conscious reflection about the part one plays in the generation of knowledge (Greer, 2000). Reflexivity is the central element of feminist and social research methodologies, and because of sharing the experience of oppression with the women they research, feminist researchers view feminist research as a separate paradigm. The researcher will recognize that she is an actor involved in the generation of knowledge rather than a recorder and reporter of what is seen outside oneself.

3.8 Data Analysis

"Data analysis is a systematic organization and synthesis of research data, a testing of the research hypothesis using the data (Polit & Hungler, 2010). Data collected for this study

were cleaned, coded and analyzed with the assistance of a statistical consultant. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used. Tables and figures were done on the computer using the Microsoft Excel, which formed the quantitative context of this study's data analysis. As for the qualitative data analysis, thematic coding was employed. The thematic content analysis is a systematic approach to qualitative data analysis that identifies and summarises message content (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic Content Analysis is used when working with narratives such as diaries or journals or to analyse qualitative responses to open-ended questions on surveys, interviews or focus groups. It is a process of looking at data from different angles with a view to identifying keys in the text that will help us to understand and interpret raw data (Creswell et al, 2007).

The following steps adapted from Braun and Clark (2006) were followed when using TCA:

- **Familiarizing yourself with the data-** this phase involves reading the data over and over again while searching for patterns. It is important to read the overall data set at least once before beginning to code, as ideas, identification of possible patterns will be shaped as the data is read. The data is then transcribed into written form (Braun & Clark 2006).
- **Generating initial codes**—this phase begins after familiarization with the data and a list of ideas has been generated. The next step then, is the production of initial codes from the data. The codes identify a feature of the data that appears interesting to the analyst, and refers to the most basic elements of the raw data. During this phase it is important to ensure that all actual data extracts are coded, and collated together within each code.
- **Searching for themes-** when all data have been coded and collated, the analyst starts to sort the different codes identified into potential themes, and collating all the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes. The researcher analyses the codes and considers how different codes may combine to form an all-embracing theme. The themes may be arranged into themes and sub-themes.
- **Reviewing themes-** this involves reviewing and refining themes emerging from the data. The researcher reads all collated extracts for each theme, and considers whether they appear to form a coherent pattern.
- **Defining and naming themes-** the researcher, at this point defines and further refines the themes that will be presented for analysis. Defining and refining refers to identifying the essence of what each theme is about and determining what aspect of the data each theme captures.

- **Producing the report** - involves the final analysis and writing of the report. The analyst provides a concise, coherent, logical, non-repetitive, and interesting account of the story of the data, within and across the themes.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse quantitative data.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Gray (2009) defines ethics as the study of standards of conduct and values in research, how this impact on both the researcher and the research subjects. After acquiring an ethical clearance to carry out the study from the University Ethics Committee, the following ethical issues will be taken into consideration:

3.9.1 Informed consent

According to Gray (2009), informed consent is the obtaining of voluntary participation in a research project based on a full understanding of the likely benefits and risks. The respondents were informed in writing that participation is voluntary and the purpose of the study and participation needed from the respondents were also explained (Babbie, 2014). The researcher explained to the respondents the purpose of the study or what the research was about and requested them to freely participate in the study. The respondents were given consent forms to sign before the study was conducted.

3.9.2 Confidentiality

A research project guarantees confidentiality when the researcher can identify a given person's responses but promises not to do so publicly (Babbie, 2014). The respondents were informed about confidentiality. The respondents' identities were protected and the researcher did not use the respondents' real names. This was being done to make the respondents feel free to participate and withdraw from the study and information was not be shared with anyone.

3.9.3 Voluntary participation

It is the participants' rights to freely choose to subject themselves to the scrutiny inherent in research (Babbie, 2014). For the purpose of the study; the researcher allowed the respondents to volunteer themselves without force.

3.9.4 Anonymity

In this study, the researcher made sure that the information provided by the respondents was kept confidential and anonymous. Pseudonyms (false names) were used in the study in order to protect the identity of the respondents.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of data collected from the participants. This data was collected to address a set of objectives and research questions derived from the main aim, which is that of investigating employees' perceptions towards gender equality in the mining sector, whilst also taking a close look at the gender relations among these employees.

Data were collected through the use of a self-report interview wherein some respondents with a low level of education were helped to understand questions. Data collected were qualitative and quantitative in nature. The sample was comprised of both male and female employees who have three and more years of experience.

In this respect, the data is presented in the form of major or overarching themes that emerged from the interviews and some of these themes are sub-divided into sub-themes. The presentation of the findings will be divided into four sections. The first section consists of the biographical data. This will be followed by a discussion on the gender division of labour in the mining sector. The third section focuses on attitudes of male and female employees towards gender equality. The last section focuses on gender relations in the mining sector.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

This section discusses the biographical information of participants which is presented according to gender, age range, Occupation, and work experience.

The table below presents the gender of the participants from the two mines.

Table 1: Gender (mine 01)

Sex	No.	%
Males	8	50%
Females	8	50%
Totals	16	100%

Table2: Gender (mine 02)

Sex	No.	%
Males	8	50%
Females	8	50%

Totals	16	100%
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The selection of participants in this study was gender balanced from the two mines; this enabled the study to get an equal representation of both genders in responses and ensured that the study results are not gendered biased.

The two tables below, show that the majority of participants (47%) are aged between 30 and 39 years, followed by 23 - 29 years (25%), followed by 40-49 years (15,5%) and then 50-55 (12,5%)

Table 3: Age range (mine 01)

Age range	Males		Females		Total No.	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%		
23-29	4	26%	2	10,5%	6	36,5%
30-39	0	0%	5	35,5%	5	35,5%
40-49	3	15,5%	0	0%	3	15,5%
50-55	1	8,5%	1	4%	2	12,5%
Totals	8	50%	8	50%	16	100%

Table 4: Age range (mine 02)

Age range	Males		Females		Total No.	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%		
23-29	1	4,5%	3	14,5%	4	25%
30-39	4	24%	5	35,5%	9	47%
40-49	3	21,5%	0	0%	3	15,5%
50-55	0	0%	0	0%	0	12,5%
Totals	8	50%	8	50%	16	100%

The tables below summarize the occupation of the participants that were involved in the study. The tables illuminate that from each and every occupation, two respondents were selected. All the occupations were selected while also considering gender balance to avoid data bias.

Table 5: Occupation (mine 01)

occupation	Males	Females	Total	Total %
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	No.	%	No	%	No.	
Supervisor (Mechanical Engineer)	0	0%	1	6,25%	1	6,25%
Supervisor (Electrical Engineer)	1	6,25%	0	0%	1	6,25%
Manager (Electrical Engineer)	1	6,25%	0	0%	1	6,25%
Manager (HR)	0	6,25%	1	6,25%	1	12,5%
Cleaner	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Conveyor Belt operator	0	0%	1	6,25%	1	6,25%
Assistant train operator	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Loading Machine Operator	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Welder	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Metallurgical Engineer	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Artisan (Electrical engineering)	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Totals	8	50%	8	50%	16	100%

Table 6: Occupation (mine 02)

occupation	Males		Females		Total No.	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%		
Convey Belt Operator	1	6,25%	0	0%	1	6,25%
Assistant train operator	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Driller	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Human resource officer	1	6,25%	0	0%	1	6,25%
Human resource Manager	0	0%	1	6,25%	1	6,25%
Senior administrator	0	0%	1	6,25%	1	6,25%
Safety Officer	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Driver	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Carpenter	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Artisan (Boilermaker)	1	6,25%	1	6,25%	2	12,5%
Totals	8	50%	8	50%	16	100%

The table below demonstrates that the majority of participants (50%) were having work experience of between 3-8 years, followed by 9 - 14 years (21%), followed by 15-19 years (18,5%) and then 20-25 (10,5%). These figures further show that women are having less experience than men, while they also demonstrate a significant increase of women in the male-dominated territory.

Table 7: work experience

Years	Males		Females		Total No.	Total %
	No.	%	No.	%		
3-8	7	24,5%	7	24,5%	14	50%
9-14	1	2,5%	5	18,5%	6	21%
15-19	5	18,5%	0	0%	5	18,5%
20-25	2	4,5%	3	6%	5	10,5%
Totals	15	50%	15	50%	30	100%

Gender and Racial Representation statistics in the two Mining Companies

This section gives us a glimpse of the current gender and racial distribution of management and skilled labour in the mining company under study. The statistics were extracted from the company website. Although the mining sector is still a male-dominated territory, as can be seen in the table below more women are being recruited today. Mining companies, including the two under study, have been recruiting more women in mining (Ramufhufhi, 2014).

Table 8: racial and gender diversification of permanent staff in the mines

OCCUPATIONAL LEVELS	AF	AM	CF	CM	IF	IM	WF	WM	Total
Top management	2	7	–	1	–	–	–	3	13
Senior mgt	2	11	–	3	–	4	1	8	29
Prof & Mid Mgt	16	56	1	2	2	11	8	43	126
Skilled	73	315	2	1	10	24	33	125	567
Semi-skilled	79	606	1	–	1	6	5	24	703
Un-skilled	55	300	–	–	–	–	–	1	357
Total	227	1295	4	7	13	45	47	204	1778

(Integrated Report 2016)

AF=African Female AM= African Male CF= Coloured Female CM= Coloured Male IF= Indian Female IM= Indian Male WF= White Female WM= White Male

However, as the table above illuminates' there is still huge gender disparities at all employment levels of the mining sector. The table shows that the first three levels of management: top, senior middle/professional levels are almost 90% male dominated. Similarly, the categories of skilled employees are still heavily male dominated with over 80% men. The semi-skilled category comprises of a whopping 90% male employees. The same

is the case with unskilled employees' category where male still supersedes female employees by over 80%. This study seeks to investigate the gender relations in the mining sector, in the light of the slight increase in women participation in mining.

4.3 GENDER DIVISIONS OF LABOUR

4.3.1 Perceptions on the division of labour

This section outlines the gender division of labour in the mining sector.

. In order to do this, the first question asked was "do you think men and women under your section do the same job in the same position". This was presented to the participants in a yes or no question form.

Data demonstrates that men and women do the same jobs in different sections of the mine. All the respondents (100%) are in agreement with this. However, the above section shows that women are still in the minority in what has previously been perceived masculine occupations. Upon further probing on the perceptions on gender equality in the mining sector the following question was asked: "*should men and women be doing the same jobs*". The question was presented in a table form (see below) and the respondents were expected to tick yes or no.

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Work opportunities				
Work Positions				
➤ Directors				
➤ Artisans				
➤ Managers				
➤ Supervisors				
➤ Drillers				
➤ Laborers				
➤ Drivers				
➤ Cleaners				

The majority (80%) of the respondents share the view that men and women should be treated equally and that the distribution of labour should be equal between men and women. However few respondents (10%) who do manual intensive jobs shared a view that women shouldn't be treated equally with men.

First, (35,5%) of the respondents who are females believe that they can do all kinds of jobs, including those which have been perceived as 'men's jobs' in the mine, as can be seen in the response below.

I believe as a woman I am capable of doing any job in the mine that is performed by men and I sometimes do it better than them {laughing} (Mpho, F, 30, Diploma, Artisan).

You know when I started working in my section it was a bit difficult but now any task given to me I can do it with my eyes closed and with the support, we are getting it becomes so much easier to perform well(Bright, F,27, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

My brother as women we are good in everything we do, my work is male dominated but I am able to do it like a man and I believe all women can do even better (Dolly, F, 29, Grade 12, Loading Machine Operator).

If more women are given opportunities to work in the mines I think we are capable of doing any job given to us, including those dominated by man (Linda, F, 35, Diploma, Boilermaker)

The participants above have been employed in what has been considered to be 'a man's job' in the mines and feel that they are good at their work and they do it even better than men.

Other female participants (14,5%) who have also been employed in even more demanding and a dangerous male dominated occupation seems to be performing optimally, especially with the support they enjoy from the employer as well as their male colleagues.

As a woman, I am performing the job that was meant for men and with the support am getting from the mine, am performing better than before (Tshepo, F, 35, Grade 9, Driller).

The section am working in we are friendly to each other and the men are so supportive and it feels good working in that section. I do not see a problem working with these men (Audrey, F, 27, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator)

In my section, as women, I am doing a great job in such a way that men would even commend the good work I am doing and I enjoy working with men (Bright, F, 27, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

My brother when I started working here I was struggling with the mining environment however with the support I received from my male colleagues being the best in my job, and women can do even better here (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Officer).

The job I do is very demanding physically, but am coping very well and the mine and our male colleagues give us enough support. I am very good in performing my duties (Lovey, F, 30, Certificate, Carpenter).

The statements demonstrative that women are equally capable of doing the work men do in the mine. Furthermore, with the support from their male colleagues, they feel free to perform their duties without problems. This is supported by (20, 5%) of male colleagues who seem to be of the opinion that women are equally as good as men in the mining work.

In my section there no women, which makes it difficult to determine whether they were going to perform the same duties with what men are doing here, but I believe women are capable of doing the job we do. The section I am working in is being developed, is a very dusty, hot and dangerous. (Sipho, M, 27, Diploma, Artisan).

You know in my section there few women, but they do a good job even though most men do not want to be supervised by women. I do not see a problem with sharing the same job with female colleagues (Doctor, M, 41, Grade 12, Diploma, Supervisor).

To be honest in our Metallurgical engineering section women are doing a good job equally as a man do (Themba, M, 26, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

In my section, the job we do require physical strength but to be honest women are doing very well and do not see a problem if more women were to come and work here (Morris, M, 39, Certificate, Carpenter)

Interestingly, (29,5%) of some men think that women do even a better job than men, especially in some areas that do the core functions of the mine. Some jobs, as one

participant puts it, require 'a sober-minded' person. He describes how women do well, especially in jobs that require absolute alertness, vigilance, focus, and patience, as opposed to men who sometimes come to work with what is referred to as a 'hangover' (being tired from a weekend that involved excessive drinking and partying). These areas of mining work are located in highly stressful sections of the mines and are apparently so sensitive and require absolute precision. One mistake such as loss of focus may lead to disastrous consequences such as the train falling with the minerals, the train operator's suspension and/or termination from work. According to the participant quoted below, since women are endowed with the required special qualities, they do such a good job in this department. In support of the statements above, Debusscher (2011), stated that women are an untapped resource that can provide an economic contribution to development that could help in the alleviation of poverty. Men, on the other hand, because of the lack focus and being easily distracted tend to fail in this regard and thus, get themselves dismissed as can be seen in the quote below:

In my section, I work with many women. The job we do is very stressful and needs concentration and to be honest with you, women do not get involved in activities that disturb their work performance, they are more focused than men. As men we are too preoccupied with many things, such as drinking alcohol on weekends and even during the week, and absenteeism, that affect our thinking and performance and furthermore, we want things to happen fast which becomes a problem (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, assistant train operator).

I believe women are more than capable of doing the jobs that are regarded as a male dominated and they even perform them better (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety officer).

In my section, women are better welders and there dedicated to their work than us man (Goodman, M, 25, Certificate, Welder).

You know you won't believe it if I tell you that women in my section are better drivers than man, these people perform better (Emmanuel, M, 45, Grade 10, Driver)

Some responses demonstrate that even though women are good in the work they do, they are still under-represented even in areas where they seem to be good in. The participant below also shows men's difficulties in accepting women as their seniors at the workplace. This demonstrates the deep-rootedness of patriarchy in the psyche of, especially male employees.

You know in my section there are few women, but they do a good job even though most men do not want to be supervised by women. I do not see a problem with sharing the same job with female colleagues (Doctor, M, 41, B-Tech, Supervisor).

In my section, women are still underrepresented, but they do a very good job and we share a good relationship (Themba, M, 26, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

In the quote below the participant is of the opinion that women may be better managers than men based on their commitment and reliability.

Women and men are doing so much work together; I work with women and they are good managers. Most women are more reliable than us men and in some instances, they perform a much better job than I do, so I do not see why we should do different jobs (Freedom, M, 44, B-tech, Manager).

Contrary to the above, a few men still believe that women should be confined to administrative work and leave the underground mining work to men. As can be seen in the responses that follow, some men raise an important dimension of mining work, the fact that it is a dangerous place for a woman to work in. A significant number of these men who do the labour intensive and manual labour seems to be concerned about the well-being of women when exposed to the harsh conditions of mining work, as can be seen in the quote below:

The work I do is very tough and women struggle to cope with the temperature underground. Working underground is very risky for women and there a lot of rock falls (Ephraim, M, 36, Grade 12, Driller).

The section am working is not conducive for women to work, it very dangerous, so women tend to struggle (Linde, M, 44, Grade 12, Loading Machine Operator).

My men, women do not belong here, in my section we lift heavy beams and women are too weak and they also fear height, furthermore, we use very dangerous equipment (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker)

Only one participant has raised the issue of laziness on the part of women.

I don't believe women belong in the mining, they are too weak and lazy. (George, M, 40, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

In traditionally 'female' and 'gender neutral' work, participants demonstrate that both men and women work cordially, they give support to each other, as will demonstrated in the following responses.

In my section we do not have a problem whether you're a man or a woman, we just do our work and we are supportive of each other (Joshua M, 26, Grade 10, Cleaner).

To tell you the truth am passionate and I love my job, this makes me perform much better with the support of my colleagues both male and female (Marilyn, F, 24, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

In my section, we perform same duties and I believe it makes us the best team in all the mining administration (Doris, F, 37, Diploma, Senior Administrator).

In our section, we are so supportive of each other and maybe, because in human resources there is no gender specific occupation or domination and we share responsibilities (Daniel, M, 28, Degree, Human Resource).

Findings in this section, demonstrate that women are as good as men in mining work. However, despite this, there are still extensive gender disparities in the mining sector. The study also demonstrates the increasing confidence in some women's self-perceptions. Data demonstrate that they know and enjoy their work in what has been perceived as a masculine territory. Importantly, a significant number of men endorse that are as capable as men. Moreover, some men are of the opinion that women even do better than men in some areas of work. It should also be noted that some men who work in seemingly dangerous areas of the mine express a different opinion in this regard. They think that mining work is not for women since it is dangerous and unhealthy. This is based on their areas of work which sounds to be indeed dangerous to the health of not only women but men as well. However, to the men can endure that but not women.

4.4 PERCEPTIONS ON GENDER EQUALITY.

This section seeks to address perceptions of respondents on gender equality. First, it sought to find out participants understanding of gender equality. To this effect, the following question was asked, "What do you understand by gender equality"? The data shows that the understanding of gender equality, in this study, is differentiated according to the levels of education. 92% of respondents, which are those who have grade 12 and above, demonstrated a higher level of understanding of the concept than 8% who do not have grade 12 as can be seen in the responses below.

Some explained gender equality in terms of equal opportunities

In defining that I think all employees must be treated equally regardless of their gender, race, and language, they must be given equal opportunities (Dephney, F, 35, Masters Degree, Human Resource Manager)

This means that all employees must be given equal opportunities, whether in training, salaries, and promotion (Docter, M, 41, Btech, Supervisor Artisan).

To me gender equality is about treating each other equally and in terms of the workplace setting it means we must be given equal opportunities (Themba, M, 26, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer)

Being given equal opportunities regardless of our gender (Dolly, F, 29, Grade 12, Loading Machine Operator).

While some specifically explained gender in terms of equal pay and equal gender representation, they said this was impossible to achieve.

I think it has to do with working the same job, being paid equally and getting the same benefits, but in my section, it is impossible because it is a dangerous section, most women cannot make it there [laughing] (Ephraim, M, 36, Grade12, Driller).

It's this 50/50 of these days. It means we need to have equal opportunities, however, I don't agree with it (George, M, 40, Grade 12 Convey belt Operator).

Those with lower educational attainment found it difficult to explain gender equality in the sense that they were struggling to understand what I was referring to by gender equality

{Laughing}, you know I am busy with this Abet school so some of these words I do not understand them (Lucy, F, 55, Grade 08, Cleaner)

In summing up, data shows that the understanding of the concept of gender equality differed depending on the educational level. Those who went beyond grade 12 in their education were able to demonstrate a high level of understanding with regards to gender equality.

4.4.1 Attitudes on gender equality

This section addresses the attitudes of employees towards gender equality in the mining sector. To determine such attitudes a question "do you think there is gender equality in the mining sector" was posed to the respondents where they had to respond in a yes or no answers. The majority (80%) of the respondents agreed that gender equality is there and the mines are doing a lot to promote gender equality, however (20%) of the respondents believe

that there is no gender equality and a lot more still needs to be done, as can be seen in the quotes that follow:

These days women are given more opportunities than before and some of the posts are advertised for women only to apply, creating a gender balance (George, M, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

This is contrary to what the table 7 in the first section has shown. Table 7 has exposed glaring gender disparities in the mining sector. However, despite this, participants seem to think gender equality has been achieved in the mining sector.

The majority of participants (85,5%) indicated that some sections are still male dominated due to the nature of the work, which they described as 'dangerous', and makes use of 'heavy machines' and thus 'scares most women'. Non-participation of women, especially underground seems to be attributed to the fact the working underground is dangerous and "dangerous" is associated with maleness. To this effect, to them, mining work is masculine oriented. The above argument is supported by Penceliah (2011) who points out that across the globe cultural norms and practices tend to assign societal roles to men and women. Essentially, men were regarded as the breadwinners, while women were assigned the role of homemakers. She further argues that the distinct separation of roles has permeated all contexts including the workplace. In this regard, she further asserts that most organizations have failed to recognize women as essential assets in long-term efforts to increase productivity, and for which reason have adopted a 'business as usual' approach. Despite equity and affirmative action legislation, and an unprecedented flow of women into the labour market, traditional female and male stereotypes continue to influence the way organizations function. As a result, of these attitudes, it may be suggested that individuals are evaluated in terms of gender and not in terms of performance (Penceliah, 2011).

I believe there is gender equality, it's just that in my section most women fear going underground and the machines we use are heavy, which I think scares most women. But I see in other sections of the mine more and more women are being employed (Tshepo, F, 35, Grade 9, Driller).

There is gender equality in most of the mining sections but in some, there are few women or none due to the dangerousness and the heavy work done in such sections (Doris, F, 37, Diploma, Senior Administrator).

In other sections more and more women are being employed, however, there is still a huge gap in other sections due to the nature of work performed there (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety Officer).

You know my man the work we do in my section require power and most women struggle which I believe is contributing to reasons few women are employed (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker).

A minority of participants (15,5%) in this study indicated that there is no gender equality due to the fact that other sections of the mines have a limited number of women while in some there are no women.

Looking at the section in which I am working, there is still a low level of gender equality, because the number of women we work with is very small, but more opportunities are being created for women (Freedom, M, 44, B-tech, Manager).

The section I am based, women are doing a great job, but there few women employed here and I can say there is no gender equality (Morris, M, 39, Certificate, Carpenter).

The mine that I am working in there is no gender equality because even in my section and other sections of the mine I have been working in women we are still underrepresented (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Officer).

Whilst it is clear that women are given more opportunities in the mining sector, a few managerial positions are given to women. Moreover, women given managerial positions in the mines are often met with criticism and revolt from their male counterparts. In order for the researcher to open up a discussion on this matter, the respondents were asked: "do you think men and women have attitudes towards each other in the mining sector?"

Data illustrates that the majority of the respondents (90%) believe that men and women have a negative attitude towards each other, however (10%) of the respondents believe they do not have an attitude towards each other. Most men feel that the mines are a male territory and women are unable to perform the jobs done in the mines. Few male respondents (7,5%) believe that women are given special treatment and that there lazy, as seen in the responses below:

To be honest with you I don't know who came with the idea that women must work in the mines, these people are useless and lazy. When we are underground we talk men's language and women are not welcome and (laughing) you find women given a

supervisory post, how you expect an older man like me to be supervised by a woman (Ephraim, M,36, Grade 12, Driller).

My brother women are too soft and they do not belong in the section am working in, another this person is lazy (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker).

The response above demonstrates a lack of respect for women. The tone of the responses shows some contempt on the part of the participant. It gives the sense that these men feel that women are now treading where they do not belong, in 'men's spaces'. Hence, women are treated with disdain and contempt.

On the other hand, (39.4%) of women who are employed in the male-dominated fields do feel the unfavorable treatment. The insults hurled at them make them feel they do not belong.

Hmm, as women I have realized that men do not want us in the mines, they tend to treat us in a bad manner. We are always accused that we are lazy and that we belong in the office not underground in the mines. Even though we have forums that deal with gender issues men still do not understand our involvement in the mining (Tshepo, F,35, Grade 11, Driller).

Most men do not accept us, they feel threatened by our presence and sometimes make us feel unwelcomed (Stella, F, 27, Diploma Safety Management, Safety Officer).

My brother, I am a driver and this work was associated with man and to be honest most men do not feel comfortable working with us and they even show it through their behavior (Tsebo, F, 35, Certificate, Welder).

Men are sometimes rude to us and as women, you will feel uncomfortable working with them (Linda, F, 35, Diploma, Boilermaker).

Some (10,6%) female employees acknowledge that there is indeed change however there are still huge gender disparities in leadership positions.

Let me talk on behalf of women, we are given opportunities, but few women get leadership positions, for example, our board of directors is only represented by two women and is not the way South Africa should be nowadays (Lufuno, F,37, B Tech Mechanical Engineering, Supervisor).

As women, we are being offered more opportunities and the mine would take a higher number of women to training than that of our male colleagues (Lovey, 30, Certificate, Carpenter).

From where am working I can confirm that nowadays the mine is giving more opportunities to female employees than male employees (Mahlatse, F, 30, Degree, Human Resource Manager)

The majority of male employees (43,5%), think progressively in the sense that they take women as equals. Moreover, some think women make better leaders than men while others note that women have the potential to take over the mines as exemplified below.

I do not have a problem working with women and in my section women work harder than us men. They are so focused and in years to come they will be taking over this mine (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

In my section, we do not have a problem, whether you're a man or a woman. We just do our work and we are supportive of each other (Joshua, M, 26, Grade 9, Cleaner).

I work harmoniously with women and I have worked with women who are so good at their jobs, they perform far much better than other male employees (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety Officer).

My section is dominated by women and the manager is a woman and she is good in her work even though she interacts with a lot of men since the mines are still male dominated (Daniel, M, 28, Diploma, Human Resource Officer).

The women in my section are good in their work even though is a rough section with higher temperatures (Themba, M, 26, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

I have been supervising different women and they have been doing well and I deal with less absenteeism from women than men (Freedom, M, 44, B Tech, Manager Artisan)

The responses above demonstrate mythical perceptions that create the impression gender equality has been achieved. However, even though most participants mention that there is gender equality in the mine, the data presented in the second section above paints a picture that is different from the responses of the participants. With this picture, it is very clear that gender equality is still a mountain to climb for these mines. It suggests that mostly semi-skilled employees need to be given serious attention since they seem not to really understanding gender related issues.

4.4.2 Dangerous nature of mining work

This section demonstrates the association of danger with men. This can be attributed to traditional expectations and gender stereotypes that prescribe what it means to be male. As can be seen in the quotes below men are portrayed as brave, strong, and hardworking, while women are portrayed as a weaker sex, and fearful

The theory of masculinities explains that men associate themselves with power. For them, 'danger' exudes 'power' (Maqubela, 2013). Connell, (cited in Maqubela 2013) explains two types of masculinities, that is, hegemonic and non-hegemonic masculinities. Hegemonic masculinities are those which operate in 'power zones', where men are viewed as powerful and danger is one of the attributes of power. Men who work in these sections that are deemed dangerous in mines believe that women do not belong in the mining sector, meaning that it is a male territory. The other way of explaining this is that men are reluctant to share 'this space with women who seem to be encroaching their territory. Hegemonic masculinities seem to reject what is feminine (Maqubela, 2013). This might mean women pose a threat to men. Participants attribute this to gender stereotypical notions of women being weak, lazy and fearful. A significant number (10,5%) of men still do not accept that women are capable of doing the same job as men underground.

Working with women is a problem in itself because they are lazy and this adds more work on us as men. Some are very scared when they start going underground in the mine and we always have to babysit them (Ephraim M, 36, Grade12, Driller).

As men, we have challenges that when we are working with women they sometimes fail to perform some of the heavy duties and we are called to help (George, M, 40, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

Women are weak and in my section, we lift heavy equipment, this becomes a problem because we will be required to assist them (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker)

However, a significant number (39,5%) of the male respondents does acknowledge that women are doing better than men even in areas that have been considered to be 'strictly male' oriented but they see this as a challenge and therefore, a threat to men.

My only challenge in the section is that women are doing a better job than us men, they are more focused (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, assistant train operator).

The performance of women in our mine has improved drastically and they work very hard, furthermore, some are being promoted to powerful positions (Doctor, M, 41, B-tech, Supervisor Artisan).

You know I have been leading a team of women and man who work harder, however, women are becoming more smarter and hungry for success, they even perform better than some man (Freedom, M, 44, B Tech, Manager Artisan)

In my section, the work we do is much easier to perform and women are doing well here (Joshua, M, 26, Grade 9, Cleaner).

Like said before women in my section are as good as man and they even perform much better than man (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety Officer)

On the other hand, female mining employees (50%), see themselves as capable as men. A significant number of women, particularly those who work in the male-dominated territory and what is perceived as 'dangerous' and 'masculine oriented zones' disputed the portrayal of women painted by male participants above. These women portray themselves as very good in such jobs despite the fact that the environment is not that favourable to women. The data demonstrate that women work as drillers, artisans, carpenters, boilermakers, convey belt operator', drivers and excel in their jobs which are deemed to be a traditionally male domain. They had this to say:

You know I am good at what I do and to be honest with you drilling is my thing (laughing). As women we are able to do all the mining jobs, it is difficult because of the conditions underground but with the support, we get from the company and some of our male colleagues we are getting better (Tshepo, F,35, Grade 11, Driller)

I am a supervisor and I also supervise men and I do my job very well and they love me (Lufuno, F, 37, B Tech, Artisan Supervisor).

To be honest I enjoy my job so much and I even perform so much better than other male colleagues (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Officer).

My work is demanding, however, I am doing well and I even compete with my male colleagues (Linda, F, 35, Diploma, Boilermaker).

To tell you the truth I don't see a difference between us and men, I am more focused on my work, and furthermore, my performance is excellent (Mpho, F, 30, Diploma, Artisan)

The above statement demonstrates that indeed women, though still in small numbers, are encroaching what has been perceived as a 'male territory'. The data demonstrate that women are as good as the very sex which has been arrogated powers to operate in the so-called masculine territory. Men are cognizant of this and it seems to be posing a threat to them. Hence they are skeptical of being joined by women since they are seen to be 'taking over'. It is indeed true that women's employment rate is increasing and are now being put in leadership positions within the very masculine-oriented areas of mining work. This scares some of the male employees.

4.5 WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION

This section focuses on workplace discrimination in the mining sector. Underrepresentation of women persists in the mining sector (Botha, 2013). Ramufhufhi (2014) in his research on Gender and Choice in Education and Occupation; mentioned that gender bias in relation to recruitment strategies has been more in favour of men. He further states that most employers practice direct and indirect discrimination when they set conditions which candidates must comply with, for example, some jobs require certain height. This will be in favour of men because they are usually stronger than women and this is considered lawful and nobody can challenge it.

4.5.1 Unequal pay

Gender discrimination in the workplace remains a serious challenge mostly in male-dominated sectors. Mining is one of the sectors that remains the preserve of men. Employees are discriminated against based on their gender, and race. While more women are being employed in the mining sector, gender discrimination also persists. To investigate gender discrimination in the two mines, respondents were asked: "have you experienced gender discrimination in any way".

Data shows that 50% of respondents have not experienced gender discrimination and opportunities are given transparently to everyone. However, male respondents (50%), mentioned that they suffer discrimination on the basis of race. They reported that even though they do the same job with their white' colleagues do not get equal pay. The responses from the question posed to the respondents are as follows:

You know I feel we are being discriminated every day and it's very painful my brother. In my section, I work with white colleagues and we do the same job but them being paid better salaries. And another thing my brother, white employees are given better opportunities than what we get (Sipho, M, 27, Artisan).

We are discriminated because you find a white person given a job today after some few months they will be earning more than what we get (no no no) this is not fair at all and they get promoted and we are left because of the colour of our skin (Doctor, M, 41, B-tech, Supervisor).

In my section we are not paid equal salaries with our white colleague, while we are doing the same jobs, I feel we are discriminated because of the colour of our skin (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety Officer).

When I got employed here, I had a white friend whom we were working together but I realised he was being paid more than what I was getting and he also got promoted to a higher position (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker).

What this mine is doing is not fair at all, we work hard regardless of our colour but we are given different salaries from those of whites employees (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

Even though women are aware of their under-representation in mining they still maintain that they are not discriminated against.

So far I haven't experienced any discrimination but in most of the sections women are not represented and we have few leadership positions (Audrey, F, 27, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

In summing up this section it is quite clear that there is discrimination and it is also experienced by male employees. The under-representation of women brings out a clear picture that discriminates them when it comes to leadership positions as compared to their male colleagues.

4.6 PROMOTION OF GENDER EQUITY

Most mining companies have the best gender equity policies but women are still discriminated against in the sector. Gender transformation is moving at a very slow pace in the mining sector due to lack of implementation of the gender transformation policies. To address this issue the respondents were asked 'do you think the mine is doing enough towards the promotion of gender equality in this sector?'

The data gives us a clear picture that 100% of the respondents believe the mines are doing enough to promote gender equality even though the evidence points to the contrary. The statistics on gender representation contradict this view. Statistics in the second section of this chapter show that women are underrepresented in all sections in the mines. Responses

to the question posed here show that the mining sector has made initiatives towards the empowerment of women in the workplace, as will be shown in the rest of this section. To this effect, the first responses show that women are offered training workshops. The same response shows that the mines advertise posts specifically tailored for women to apply in order to increase women representation.

The mine provides enough training for us and they also conduct what they call women in mining which gives us the opportunity to develop. Sometimes they advertise posts specifically for women to apply (Doris, F, 37, Diploma, senior administrator).

In my section the mine provides enough training and development, to help us in getting powerful positions (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Officer).

As you know I dropped out from school but the mine sponsored me to attend Abet and it is helpful (Lucy, F, 55, Grade 8, Cleaner).

The mine is training and giving us support and they also conduct what they call women in mining and gender forums which give us the opportunity to develop and address the challenges we come across (Mpho, F, 30, Convey Belt Operator).

We are all given equal training, to improve our skills and job performance (Themba, M, 26, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

The second set of responses indicates that the mines have a gender forum that meets periodically to deal with gender issues and report back to the mines. Even men in the responses that follow concede that the mines are doing their best to promote gender equality. The responses below affirm institutional initiatives to promote gender equality. The first two mention the existence of a 'Gender Forum', as also mentioned by women.

I know that there are policies that help in creating a balance between us and women. The mine is trying to implement these policies. They even conduct road shows and gender forums that deal with gender equality issues (Ephraim, M, 36, Grade 12, Driller).

I am part of the gender forum and to be honest, a lot is being done to uplift women at our mine, and they are also working hard to be at the top, however, most women tend to be disrespected by man (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

The mine is trying, by all means, to uplift us as women, we have gender forums where we are able to discuss our concerns and they are reported back to the management and they are dealt with accordingly (Marilyn, F, 24, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer).

The responses below shows yet another mining initiative, women in mining:

In the mine, we have what we call 'women in mining' which deals with improving the working conditions of women. Sometimes women are given the opportunity to apply for leadership positions even though the number is still very low. We also have what we call a gender forum that deals with the concerns of employees and report to the management (Freedom, M, 44, B-tech, Manager).

The mine has a programme called women in mining where they sometimes advertise posts where they will require more applications from female than male (Daniel, M, 28, Diploma, Human Resource Officer).

From the statements above, it is quite clear that the mines have developed initiatives to promote gender equality in terms of policies that seek to redress the injustice of the past. However, even though these policies are in place the representation of women is still very low in most sections of the mines. Furthermore, men feel threatened by women who are in leadership positions and resort to disrespecting them and giving them a bad attitude.

4.7 SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE MINING SECTOR

This section looks at perceptions of sexual harassment in the mining sector. Sexual harassment is one of the major problems that affect almost all employment sectors. Women face sexual harassment in their everyday life in the workplace. Some of these behaviours are left unreported and unpunished because employees fear victimization or losing their jobs

The section starts by soliciting employees' understanding of sexual harassment and then moves on to investigate experiences of sexual harassment in the mining sector. To do this, respondents were asked the question: 'what do you understand about sexual harassment?' The majority (93,5%) of participants were able to answer this question. The responses vary according to the level of education. As can be seen in responses below sexual harassment is associated mainly within appropriate touching.

I am not quite sure but I think is touching someone inappropriately without their consent (Ephraim, M, 36, Grade12, Driller).

Is when someone touches you inappropriately with the intention of sexual advances or using unacceptable language towards you (Mpho, F, 27, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

Showing sexual interest to someone by touching them without their consent (Freedom, M, 44, B-tech, Manager).

I think it is when someone makes sexual gestures, and touching u in an improper manner without one's consent (Doris, F, 37, Degree, Senior Administrator).

Sexual harassment is when as a man or a woman touch each other inappropriately without each other's consent (Dumisani, M, 40, Diploma, Safety Officer).

When you're sexually harassed it means someone is showing unacceptable behaviours, for example touching you and showing sexual gestures towards another person (Lufuno, F, 37, B Tech, Supervisor Artisan).

Man, sexual harassment is in different forms, to me I believe it has to do with whistling, send nude pictures and touching a woman inappropriately without her consent (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

I think it has to do with behaving in a manner that shows sexual interest and touching someone without their consent (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Manager).

Touching someone inappropriately without their consent (Marilyn, F, 24, Diploma, Metallurgical Engineer)

I think if someone touches my breast, spank me or touch my private parts without my consent that's harassment (Pontso, M, 36, Diploma, Boilermaker)

Most of the responses given show the limited understanding that participants have on sexual harassment. As can be seen above, the responses have one common thread, which 'demonstrates that participants understood 'sexual harassment' as mainly perpetrated through inappropriate touching' of another person. However, worth noting is the fact that in their brief explanation is the omission of 'who does it' and on 'who'. This may mean that they might have the understanding that it can be perpetrated by people of either sex. On the other hand, the minority, who are mainly cleaners did not understand the concept (see responses below).

My brother some of these words to us are a new thing if I say I know what it means I will be lying to you (Joshua, M, 26, Grade 9, Cleaner).

To be honest I do not know what it means (Lucy, 55, Grade 8, Cleaner)

In order to bring out more on sexual harassment in the mines, the follow-up question was asked: 'have you ever been sexually harassed at your workplace'. All the respondents (100%) illustrated that they have not been harassed at work; however some respondents brought out the dark side of what other employees come across with regards to sexual harassment in the mines. The responses are as follows:

I have never been sexually harassed maybe it's because of being based in Human Resources section... but in 2002 and 2008 we had such cases reported. The cases where that these women reported that they were being sexually harassed by their male colleagues. To tell you the truth such cases are complicated because they are not easy to prove. The 2008 case was resolved and the employee was dismissed because there were witnesses and enough evidence, but the other case was dismissed due to lack of enough evidence. I also believe some employees fear to report such cases (Dephney, F, 35, Masters Degree, Manager).

Man, let me tell you what is happening, in the mine where am working there is a lot of sexual harassment, it's just these cases are not being reported, to give you an example, in the past week one of my colleagues was suspended after he inappropriately touched a female supervisor, so most women are afraid to come out with such cases. Some women are afraid to report these cases because people who are harassing them are the ones who helped them to get the jobs (Abel, M, 32, Grade 12, Assistant train operator).

I am a woman and there are desperate times where you feel you can do anything to get a job, so to come to your question some women got a job in the mine because of sleeping with someone who has a connection, so after getting the job the person would continue harassing you asking for sexual favours and threatening you with losing the job and you find missing word that the person who is harassing you in the top management position (Bright, F, 27, Grade 12, Assistant Train Operator).

The above quotes demonstrate that, like other workplaces, the issue of sexual harassment in the mining sector is very sensitive and very difficult to generate a discussion around it. Moreover, sexual harassment in the mining sector is complicated by the fact that the sector is still heavily male dominated, as shown in the first section. As Botha (2013) demonstrates

"some settings are more prone to sexual harassment than others. A strong predictor of sexual harassment is a work setting with a high male-to-female ratio". This notwithstanding, some men still feel that women, who are referred to as a weaker sex, do not belong to the mining sector, which is still regarded as a 'male preserve', as shown in the previous section. Thus, as Botha (2013) asserts, men engage in sexual harassment to demonstrate their anger as women encroach into their territory. This way, men demonstrate 'hegemonic masculinity' (Connell, 1996). When men feel they are no longer gaining what is referred to as 'patriarchal dividend', also referred to as 'male privilege' (Connell, 1996) out of what they perceive as their territory, they use sexual violence as an act of anger.

Most important also is the fact that, many women, engage in sex with their male superiors out of desperation, that is, to gain 'sexual favouritism', sex exchange for work, as a female participant has shown. This is line with Botha (2013) who in this study, it is shown that the perpetrator does not stop after the initial sexual encounter. In fact, according to one female respondent above, once the initial sexual encounter occurs, this translates to the perpetrator feeling that one owes him for life, for as long as one works for that company. Botha (2013) articulates that those who respond positively towards these sexual advances get rewards, such as promotions and salary increases. Importantly, it seems women have little power to challenge such violence. This may partly be the reason for the low report rate of such incidences. As Botha (2013) explains such cases might not be reported due to fear of victimization and some due to lack knowledge.

The researcher also wanted to determine' perceptions on the implementation of sexual harassment policy in their place of work. Many institutions have good policies on paper but fail to implement them. The following question was posed to respondents: 'does your company have a policy that deals with sexual harassment?'

Data reveals that all participants (100%) are aware of the existence of the policy that deals with sexual harassment in the two mining companies. As a follow-up, a question was asked, 'do you think these policies are implemented in your mining company? As can be seen in the first two responses the HR manager and officer show that participants are made aware of these during the induction sessions.

The mine is doing enough to implement this policy because of all the employees when they get hired we put them through an induction training to familiarize them with all the policies and the consequences of not following them (Dephney, F, 35, Masters Degree, Manager Human Resources).

To tell you the truth the mine is doing the best to avoid such problems, every employee is inducted about all the policies, so you cannot do a mistake or else you get dismissed (Daniel, M, 28, Diploma, Human resource officer).

This is supported by participants who are employees of the mine (see responses below).

The policies are being implemented; when I got employed we were trained about all the policies including policies that deal with sexual harassment. They even told us that if we do not follow them we are in danger of undergoing disciplinary hearings and we can also be dismissed from duty (Tshepo, M, 35, Diploma, Artisan).

My brother when I started working here I was trained about all the policies that I have to follow, indeed I can confirm that the mine is doing enough (Linda, F,35, Diploma, Boilermaker)

If I remember well when I started working here the human resources people taught us about all the policies that we were expected to follow and failure to adhere to them there is punishment (Lufuno, F, 37, BTech, Supervisor artisan).

In my section, we deal with the safety of all employees, when I get employed here the mine made it a point that I was inducted on all the policies including sexual harassment policies and the consequences of not abiding by them (Stella, F, 27, Diploma, Safety Officer).

When I got employed in my section, the mine called a wellness company to train us on all the policies that we need to abide by and the dangers of not following them (Audrey, F, 27, Grade 12, Convey Belt Operator).

However, one participant hints the veil of secrecy that is placed on sexual harassment within these institutions. This is certainly not unexpected. The participant seems to be aware that there are sexual harassment cases that go unreported and is surprised why this is the case if there is a policy that protects them.

My man this a sensitive matter which even the mines do not want to make public, what I can say is that they trying to deal with this problem but it wouldn't be clear because many people are not reporting sexual harassment when they are harassed every day (Abel, M, 32, Assistant Train Operator).

This participant has, earlier in this section, related the sexual harassment ordeal of a woman whose case is currently being investigated and where the perpetrator is suspended from

work. This man is the only one who seems to have opened up with regards to sexual harassment.

However, some participants in the unskilled level of employment demonstrate a lack of awareness with regards to the existence of sexual harassment as demonstrated the quote below:

My brother, it is hard for me to say whether the mine is doing enough because I have never heard of these sexual harassment policies (Joshua, M, 26, Grade 9, Cleaner)

I haven't heard anything about what you are asking me, it is new and I do not know if the mine is doing enough (Lucy, F, 40, Grade 8, Cleaner).

Contrary to what other employees mentioned, that the mines are doing enough in implementing sexual harassment policies, some employees do not know about the existence of any sexual harassment policies at the mines how to report cases of sexual harassment.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the conclusions of the study which encapsulates how the findings have answered the research objectives. This will be followed by the recommendations, future research and the contribution of this study to literature. The study used the feminist standpoint theory to investigate perceptions of employees in relation to gender equality in the mining sector. Participants were drawn from male and female employees who have three years and above of work experience working in the mines.

5.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

This section is based on the main findings and it is very important for the understanding of both male and female employees of the two mines. The study was about employees perceptions towards gender equality in the mining sector. It illuminates how male and female employees experience gender equality in the mines. Study shows that few men believe that women should do administrative jobs and they shouldn't work underground, this is contrary to what have been said by women who feels that they are more than capable of doing the jobs that are regarded as male dominated and they even enjoy working in the labor intensive sections, furthermore some men admit that women are doing much better than other male colleagues. It furthers indicates that employees with a higher level of education understand the concept of gender equality as compared to those with a low level of education. The study found that women are given more opportunities; however, there is a low number in managerial positions and most man revolt against women who are in positions of power. In the two mines, women are still underrepresented mostly in the strategic positions, even though employees indicated that the mines are doing enough to close the gender inequalities. The study further illustrates that gender equality has been achieved, however, these findings are contradicted by the mines 'statics which paints a different picture. The study revealed that some of the male employees have an attitude towards women; they stand accused of laziness and weak. It is revealed that some employees do not know about the sexual harassment policies that are there in the mines. The study further shows that few cases of sexual harassment are reported, even though it is reported that such cases are happening and the study further indicate that few cases have been dealt with in a form of disciplinary process and dismissals.

5.3 GENDER REPRESENTATION IN LIMPOPO MINING COMPANY

This objective sought to investigate gender representation in all sections of the mines. The statistics have revealed the glaring gender disparities at all employment levels of the two mining companies. Mining is still hugely a male territory. Men dominate all positions, including positions of power, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations. This is in line with Martin (2013) who also found a similar pattern in economic, political, in the legal, and educational institutions (Martin, 2013). The first three levels of management: top, senior middle/professional levels are heavily male dominated. The same applies to skilled, semi-skilled categories, even the unskilled category. This is in line with the ILO Bureau for Gender Equality (2010) report which indicates that indeed in developing countries a large part of the female labour force is concentrated in low wage, low productivity, and low-status work, or in part-time work that floats minimum wage and social security obligations. To this effect, women are underrepresented in almost all the sections of the mines, including at all levels of management, skilled, semi-skilled and even unskilled work.

5.4 GENDER DIVISION OF LABOUR IN THE MINING SECTOR.

This objective sought to determine how work is distributed among men and women in the mining sector. Data has shown, men and women do the same jobs in different sections of the mine. However, women are still in the minority in all sections of this previously male preserve. The situation has been worse in the mining since it was known to be a 'strictly male territory'. With the inception of democracy, legislation has supported the inclusion of women in all sectors. Thus, we have begun to see women, although still in a minority, scattered in different sections of the mining sector. Even though it is demonstrated that women are as good as men in mining work, they remain at marginal levels in this sector. Literature has demonstrated that women were denied equal opportunities in the mining sector, even though there are strategies in place to address the issue of gender equity implementation is lagging behind. The findings show that gender equality is still a mountain to climb for these mines.

Interestingly, findings have demonstrated that men's perceptions and attitudes towards women have improved. However, there is a mix of acknowledgment and intimidation that women are doing well even in areas that perform core functions of the mine, especially where absolute alertness, vigilance, and patience is required. There is an acknowledgment that women are endowed with the required special qualities in highly stressful sections of the mine which require absolute precision and calculation. Over and above this, the study shows how women are distributed in other jobs that require skills that had been previously been reserved for men such as artisans, drillers, belt conveyors, and train operators. Although

women show confidence and enthusiasm in working in these types of jobs, some men are concerned that some areas in mining are too dangerous and unhealthy for women, while others have feelings of contempt about women's presence in the mine, thus accusing them of being lazy and fearful and that they do not belong there.

5.5 TO DETERMINE WHETHER THERE IS GENDER BALANCE IN THE MINING SECTOR.

Generally, the findings have shown that a handful of participants have an adequate understanding of the concept of gender equality. Furthermore, it shows that the understanding of gender equality, in this study, is differentiated according to the levels of education. Those who have grade 12 and above demonstrated a higher level of understanding of the concept. There seem to be mixed feelings with regards to perceptions and attitudes towards gender equality in the mining sector.

5.6 TO EXAMINE WHETHER GENDER RELATIONS ARE CHANGING.

The above objective sought to investigate whether gender relations are changing in the mining sector. There appears to be a mix of traditional and modern views with regard to gender and relations within this sector. First, it is worth noting that women's numbers are still very low and therefore, male hegemony is still strong and vibrant in this sector. Men have for a long time enjoyed the monopoly of this sector. To this effect, women are perceived as encroaching in what is considered to be 'male spaces or preserves' and this seems to be causing some discomfort especially for those who hold traditional views. Hence, the presence of women in the mines is met with criticism and revolt by some of their male counterparts. Worse still when women are given high positions, some men feel that they cannot be led by a woman. Furthermore, some men are of the view that women in the mines are given special or preferential treatment.

The findings have also demonstrated that the mining sector has been depicted as a 'dangerous' place to work in, by some participants. To this effect, it is not for the weak and fainthearted. In the same vein, some male participants refer to women as weak and lazy and therefore do not belong to the mining work. This can be linked to the 'theory of masculinities' 'Danger', 'strong' and 'bravery' is associated with 'masculinity' (Connell in Maqubela, 2013). Men, having been endowed with these attributes, are seen as the only sex that can perform such duties. Moreover, what is considered to be male duties, those which are associated with physical strength, bravery and dangerous are associated with power. This implies that it is only men who work within 'power zones'. And those who operate within 'power zones' are the ones who are in possession of 'hegemonic masculinities' (Connell in Maqubela, 2013).

On the other hand, findings have also revealed that some women, who work in these mines, seem to challenge these expectations by excelling in jobs that have been previously viewed as a 'male preserve'. Furthermore, the data demonstrate women's confidence, capability, and enthusiasm in participating in mining work versus men's lack of confidence and criticism of their work. This lack of acceptance of women says a lot about gender relations in these mines. The low women numbers and the lack of acceptance of women in the mining sector by their male counterparts may have disastrous implications for female employees. Some men may resort to harassment of women in the workplace. Thus, as Botha (2013) asserts, men engage in sexual harassment to demonstrate their anger as women encroach into their territory. This way, men show and enforce their male hegemony. (Connell, 1996).

However, while some men acknowledge women's competence in the mining sector, some are intimidated by it. Some men totally disagree that women are capable. Men who work in the sections of the mines deemed dangerous believe that women do not belong to the mining sector, meaning that it is a male territory. Therefore, it is logical to say men are intimidated by women who are seen to be encroaching into what has been conceived as 'a male territory'. In the same vein, findings have demonstrated that most men detest the idea of being led by a woman. Thus, hegemonic masculinities seem to reject what is feminine (Maqubela, 2013).

The findings have also hinted on the reluctance in reporting of sexual harassment in the mining sector. The underreporting may be as a result of lack of punishment for cases that lack evidence. Such harassment in most cases occurs when other people are not present. The perpetrator clearly would avoid doing this in the presence of other people, precisely because they would not want people to witness to what they doing. There are also clearly some '*quid pro quo*' cases that occur in this sector, as in other sectors. Women are forced to sleep with men exchange for a job. However, this goes beyond just doing this to get employment, but women are caught in this trap for as long as they are working in that employment. This is a way of keeping women under men's control and power (Anderson). The above demonstrates that despite efforts to create a gender balance in the mining sector there are serious hurdles and barriers to be addressed.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the above, the researcher came up with recommendations directed to policy makers, mining companies, and future researchers.

5.7.1 Government and Policymakers

The researcher has the following recommendations for government and policy makers. As Maqubela (2013) has observed, South African gender policies and legislation do not address the root of the problem. Instead, they only touch on the surface or take a short cut in addressing problems. The Employment Equity Act only addresses the aspect of gender representation and removal of barriers that create roadblocks to the achievement of the target number of women in high positions. It totally ignores the issue of relations at the workplace. Moreover, as Maqubela (2013) remarks, workplace policies on their own are not enough to bring about the required transformation of the workplace. Thus policies should try and encapsulate solutions to gender relations. To do this, policies should consider starting from the grassroots level where inequalities are taught and internalized, the socialization level, at home, at school and the church and society as a whole, through education, gender awareness sessions and campaigns (Maqubela, 2013). Secondly, the legislation and workplace should diagnose and develop policies to address the real problem. Policies should go beyond just addressing numbers and deal with the structures that discriminate and perpetuate patriarchy. This would include dismantling the masculine culture in organizations through the adoption of family-friendly policies that assist women in reconciling work and family (Maqubela, 2016). Furthermore, the workplace needs to promote men's participation in family and childcare (Maqubela, 2016). The workplace also needs to adopt a policy that will guide gender mainstreaming at the workplace. This would include dismantling the existing policies, start them afresh and incorporate gender in them. The policy on sexual harassment should be strengthened to properly address real problems as articulated in this research.

5.7.2 Mining companies

The second set of recommendations is directed to the mines. Mines are still strongly male dominated, even after almost two decades after the promulgation of the Employment Equity Act. Mines need to commit to gender equality. The government needs to be consistent in monitoring and evaluation of organizations on the implementation of the Employment Equity Act in order to push the mining sector to comply. Moreover, the mines need to strategize with regards to changing the attitudes of their employees. There is need to address gender attitudes among employees, especially at the individual level. The mines need to organize gender awareness workshops and campaigns which should be conducted by people with gender knowledge. All sections of the mines need to undergo such training and workshops.

The researcher further recommends that more women must be given more management and supervisory positions in mines. The mines further need to deal with discrimination of employees in terms of job promotions and pay differences.

The mines must make it a priority to deal with sexual harassment in the organization, in order to allow a secure work environment to all employees. There is need to workshop the employees on sexual harassment and on how they should report such behaviors when they occur.

The findings indicate that African male employees and white male employees are not paid equal salaries even though they are doing the same job. The sector has to deal with such discrimination.

5.7.3 Suggestion for future research.

Looking at literature review it is quite clear that few researchers have embarked on studying this phenomenon, therefore. A larger scale study is needed that will cover a considerable number of mines in the country to gain deeper insights into the problem and come up with new innovative solutions. Furthermore, more mining companies need to be informed about the findings of this type of research and recommendations so that they can address the problem. Many researchers have been focusing more on women in management positions in the mining sector while neglecting the women who are found in the heart of the mines, who are more likely to face injustices in their everyday work life. Emerging studies also need to look at these groups.

5.8 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION TO EXISTING KNOWLEDGE.

Most studies have shown a high level of gender discrimination and gender inequalities in the mining sector. Women are underrepresented in almost all sections of the mines in the country and around the world. Most studies indicated that most women leaders have experienced exclusion, condescension, isolation, dismissal, communication challenges, being taken advantage of, and of doing something and not receiving credit for it (Minah, 2015). Different authors have exposed challenges women face in building their careers in the mining sector, furthermore brought forward strategies and recommendations in trying to remedy the situation. This study adds to the body of knowledge on gender regime masculine orientated and male dominated workplace (mining sector) and the possible strategies that can solve the problem. It will help the mining companies in revising their recruitment and equality policies and addressing the challenges faced by their employees. This study will also help policy makers, mining companies, and the community at large to understand gender inequalities and the strategies that can be used to address them. The study will

challenge the cultural stereotypes that are seen as oppressive to both men and women in the mining sector. Furthermore, women will understand that being employed in the mines is not only for men, but they too can play a significant role. The study will attempt to address the imbalances of the past in the mining sector and improve the socio-economic status of women.

5.9 CONCLUSIONS

The study was about the perceptions of employees towards gender equality in the mines. The purpose was to develop an understanding regarding the experiences of both male and female employees towards gender equality in the mines. The sources for this study were male and female employees from different occupations of the mines and this study sought to answer the following questions.

- How gender is represented in different employment sections of the mines?
- How do employees experience gender inequality in mines?
- How do employees deal with gender relations in the mines?

The mining sector is still highly masculine. Moreover, women representation in this sector remains very low as seen in the gender representation. However, the division of labour is still engendered; there is a slight increase of women involved in different aspects of mining. This increase, however, has not changed so much for women, in terms of promotions, opportunities, and treatment. The literature indicated the gendered division of labour within the mines and women are forced by the nature of work to take more masculine roles, however, it is still a challenge for men to engage in feminine roles. There is a lot of work that needs to be done in order to change men, for them to engage in feminine roles. Females who are employed in the mines often face resistance from men who view mining as 'a male world'. Even though there is an increase in the number of women being incorporated in the mines, women are still less represented at the top level management positions. Women and men are doing the same jobs in the mines. Furthermore, women are found to be more focused and have got a high level of participation; moreover, men involve themselves in activities that tend to have a huge impact on their focus and job performance. Men who perform the labour intensive and manual labor seem to be concerned about the well-being of women when exposed to the harsh conditions of manual mining work. The mines are trying their best to promote gender equality in terms of policies that seek to redress the injustice of the past. Many women engage in sex with their male superiors out of desperation, that is, to gain 'sexual favouritism', sex exchange for work and these women continue to be harassed.

Some employees do not know about sexual harassment policies that are there in the mines and the procedures that must be followed when reporting such cases.

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ANNEXURES

Annexure A: LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT FORM

My name is Dakalo Happyness Ndanduleni. I am a student at University of Venda and registered for Master in Gender Studies (MGS). The research focuses on the attitudes and perceptions of employees towards gender equality. Through this communication, I am inviting you to participate in this study. Any information you provide will be treated as confidential and thus will not be revealed to any other person. Please note that your participation is strictly voluntary, implying that you can opt out any time should you for any reason whatsoever feel uncomfortable.

I have been informed of my right to refuse to participate. I freely agree to participate.

Participant's signature..... Date.....

Researcher's signature..... Date.....

RESEARCH TOOL

Annexure B: SELF- REPORT INTERVIEW

Name of respondents	
Age	
Gender	
Marital status	
Formal education	
Occupation	

Questions

PERCEPTIONS ON THE DIVISION OF LABOUR

1. What does your job entail?

.....

2. Do you think men and women under your section do the same job in the same position?

YES	NO

3. Should men and women be doing the same job?

YES	NO

4. Elaborate more on your answer?

.....

KNOWLEDGE

5. What do you understand by gender equality?

.....

.....

.....

6. Do you think there is gender equality in the mining sector?

YES	NO

7. If yes elaborate more.

.....

.....

.....

PERCEPTION ON GENDER EQUALITY

8. Do you think men and women should be treated equally in the mining sector?

	Men		Women	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Work opportunities				
Work Positions				
➤ Directors				
➤ Artisans				
➤ Managers				
➤ Supervisors				
➤ Drillers				
➤ Laborers				
➤ Drivers				
➤ Cleaners				

CHALLENGES

9. What do you think are the challenges of men in the mining sector?

.....

10. What do you think are the challenges of women in the mining sector?

.....

11. Can you outline their challenges?

.....

12. Do you also come across such challenges?

Yes	No

13. Can you outline your challenges?

.....

14. What do you understand by gender discrimination?

.....

15. Have you experienced gender discrimination in any way?

Yes	No

16. If yes tell me more about that?

.....
.....
.....

17. Do you think men and women have attitudes towards each other in the mining sector?

Yes	No

18. If yes please elaborate.

.....
.....
.....

19. Are women encouraged to apply for senior posts?

Yes	No

20. Do you think working in the mine is different for you as women as compared to men?

Yes	NO

21. If yes elaborate more?

.....
.....
.....

22. Do you think the mine is doing enough towards the promotion of gender equality?

Yes	No

23. If yes explain further?

.....

.....

.....

24. What do you understand about sexual harassment?

.....

.....

.....

25. Have you ever been sexually harassed at your workplace?

Yes	No

26. If yes please tell me more about your experience?

.....

.....

.....

27. Does your company have policies that deal with sexual harassment?

Yes	No