

**WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION IN SENIOR AND
EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN A SOUTH
AFRICAN COAL MINE: A CASE STUDY**

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DECLARATION

I declare that this report is my own, unaided work. I have read the University Policy on Plagiarism and hereby confirm that no plagiarism exists in this report. I also confirm that there is no copying nor is there any copyright infringement. I willingly submit to any investigation in this regard by the School of Mining Engineering and I undertake to abide by the decision of any such investigation.

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ABSTRACT

The study explored the gap between policy and practice in addressing women's representation in senior and executive management position at a coal mine in South Africa. The study was guided by the perspectives of gender, gender relations and gender inequality. The study followed a qualitative approach, which utilised in-depth interviews, observation, and documentary search on exclusively women participants purposively sampled from core mining, middle management, and senior management. The study found, amongst other things, that a toxic masculinity and prejudice that characterizes informal organizational culture is both a source of discrimination when considering leadership roles and scepticism of women leadership at the mine. Multiple societal and cultural roles in the workplace, home and community are a barrier that was observed to the advancement of women, particularly black women, to senior level management positions at the mine that was studied. Socio-economic disadvantage inhibits women, particularly black women in core mining from upgrading their qualifications and skills that would make them more suitable for leadership positions and as a result, the women often do not advance to senior management positions. Low entry level is restrictive to women as it is rare for women in core mining to be promoted up the employment ladder and to develop their academic qualifications and skills in preparation to compete for those leadership and higher positions. The mine should take more active measures to address the discriminatory informal culture at the organisation and more responsibility for the development of women. Mine management could expand its Family Friendly Work Practices (FFWPs) so that women at lower levels of employment have enough time on their hands to develop themselves and devote to career advancement. Government and management are encouraged to revisit the policy and practice to ensure that policy and practice exhibit a consciousness to the seriality of women.

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DEDICATION

My husband SK, thank you for your love and unfailing support Sthandwa sam, you are the best.

Owethu and Prince, for being my biggest WHY.

Aus Maneo, for her love and constant support.

My parents, for being the wind beneath my wings.

The Almighty God, for empowering me to keep on keeping on.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BCEA	Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997
CCMA	Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration
DMRE	Department of Mineral Resources
EEA	Employment Equity Act of 1991
FFWPs	Family Friendly Work Practices
HDSA	Historically Disadvantaged South Africans
ILO	International Labour Organization
LRA	Labour Relations Act of 1995
MPRDA	Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act of 2000
NIA	National Intelligence Agency
NUM	National Union of Mineworkers
PEPUDA	Promotion of Equity and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SASS	South Africa Secret Service
SANDF	South African National Defence Force

1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, mining started in the 19th century and has undergone phases of different government policies. The policies and legislation governing mining activities in the apartheid era encouraged racial and gender discrimination. For example, women were not allowed to work in underground mines. Post-apartheid, policies were changed and efforts to balance racial and gender representation in all spheres of the economy were formulated. This led to legislation that advocated for women's representation in the mining industry (Chamber of Mines, 2010).

In the year 2000, only 3.2 percent of the total mine workforce in South Africa was made up of women. This figure increased to 10.1 percent in 2010 (Chamber of Mines, 2010). The increase was due to the stance of the laws in South Africa and regulations that proscribed discrimination (Chamber of Mines, 2010). The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act of 2002 (MPRDA) was formulated in line with the 1996 South African Constitution to set right the inequalities that was there during the apartheid era (Chamber of Mines, 2010). The MPRDA mandated the creation of a Broad-Based Socio-Economic Empowerment Charter for the South African Mining Industry (Mining Charter), which is an example of regulations that seek to increase the number of women in the mining industry (Chamber of Mines, 2010). The MPRDA and the Mining Charter were designed to oblige employers to:

- a) "Enhance equity in the industry across employment and ownership categories;
- b) Address social impacts associated with mining; and
- c) Enable South Africans, generally, to benefit from the exploitation of mining and mineral resources" (Hermanus, 2003, p 2).

This current study investigated the challenges that are faced by women within the mining industry, which act as barriers to their promotion to senior and executive levels. The research made recommendations on how to increase women's

participation and representation in senior management and executive roles in the mining industry.

1.1 Problem statement

Gender equality policy in South Africa is reinforced by section 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996a) and supported by the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000 (RSA, 2000), the Commission on Gender Equality Act 39 of 1996 (RSA, 1996b) and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (RSA, 1998).

The MPRDA and the Mining Charter, which was revised in 2010 and 2018, mandate the inclusion of Historically Disadvantaged South Africans (HDSA), which includes women. The Department of Mineral Resources and Energy (DMRE) (2004) aspired to have a baseline of 40% of HDSA participation in management positions within five years and to ensure inclusiveness and advancement of women to at least 10% of the total workforce in the mining industry. In the preamble of the 2018 Mining Charter, the DMRE noted that although there were improvements in compliance with the 2010 Mining Charter, there was still a long way to go before the mining industry would be fully transformed. Even though some companies have embraced the Mining Charter, others are compliance-driven only to protect their social license to operate (DMRE, 2018). This then results in women facing career advancement challenges while attempting to progress on the corporate ladder to senior and executive management. The latter brings about the need to understand those challenges whilst focusing on organizational experiences.

1.2 Aim and objectives

This research is aimed at comprehending the significance of seriality and institutional ethnography to the career advancement of women in mining.

The objectives of the study are as follows:

- a) To explore the gap between policy and practice in addressing women's representation in senior and executive management positions;
- b) To assess how variously acquired gender identities have affected black women's advancement to executive management level posts in the mining industry;
- c) To elaborate on the key elements influencing the development of women and these elements affect their desire to hold senior and executive management posts; and
- d) To recommend measures that may be taken to increase representation of women in senior management and executive roles (improvement plan).

1.3 Research motivation

PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2015) and Credit Suisse Research Institute (2014) found that there is a strong correlation between having women in senior and executive management and scoring high on governance, financial, social and environmental metrics. Considering all these positive attributes associated with women in the workplace, it is, therefore, desirable to have more women in senior and executive management. On the other hand, PwC (2015) noted that even though the global mining industry has fewer women on board compared to other major industries, South Africa has a higher percentage of females in executive and senior management positions. This can be credited to the Mining Charter and other South African equality laws.

Even though the South African mining industry has a higher percentage of women on the board of directors and in senior management positions, the percentage is still very low, below 25% (PwC, 2015). This is due to the fact that laws and regulations

that empower equality may only address inequality to a certain extent. More research must therefore be conducted to understand the reasons why men still outnumber women on different levels of management in the mining industry, almost 20 years since the equality laws were enacted in South Africa (PwC, 2015).

1.4 Research scope

This research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the primary factors that impede women from becoming senior or executive managers in the mining industry and how do local and national policies better or worsen these challenges?
2. How can policy and intervention support the advancement of gender equity through transformation in senior and executive management positions in the mining industry?

1.5 Structure of the report

The research report will consist of the following five chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction and presents the research context, explaining the problem statement, research motivation and aims and objectives. Chapter 2 focuses on the review of literature on the current research into the level of women's involvement in the mining industry. Chapter 3 explains the research methodology used in this study. Chapter 4 provides the data presentation, data analysis, and discussion of the results. Chapter 5 is a discussion of the conclusions and recommendations of the research.

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework guiding the study and the existing legal framework regarding women's employment, empowerment, and progression in the mining industry. The chapter also discusses empirical literature under broad themes that mirror the research objectives, which talks to factors fomenting the gap between policy and practice in the advancement of women to senior management and executive positions. Thereafter, variously acquired gender identities of women, and how they affect the advancement to senior management positions are discussed. The chapter also discusses how the negative perceptions of women in leadership affect the desirability of senior management posts for women in mining as well as ways to enhance more women's advancement to senior management positions.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study is anchored on the concepts of seriality and institutional ethnography, which are sociological perspectives of gender, gender relations, and gender inequality. The concept of seriality was made famous by Young (1994), who advocated that the category of "woman" is not a group but a series. In this, the limitations of treating women as a homogenous group rather than the culturally, socially, and economically diverse beings that they are, were interrogated (Young, 1994). Seriality suggests that women are diverse as different communities of women and as individuals (Young, 1994). For example, among women in South Africa (SA), white women and black women may have different aspirations. Furthermore, among black women, women of a certain age or academic level may have different aspirations. According to Lobber (2018), seriality submits that the same individual woman may have different aspirations in different spaces in their life such as at work, in the home, or at church. Therefore, gender relations should be approached from a holistic yet nuanced and meticulous standpoint (Young,

1994).

Institutional ethnography is an approach to gender studies popularized by Smith et al. (2016), who viewed gender inequality from the standpoint of individual daily activities and established societal and institutional structures. Institutional ethnography suggests that daily activities at a micro level conform and reinforce the societal structures that often entrench gender inequality at a macro level (Smith et al., 2016). Therefore, in a mine, the regular interactions between miners on surface and underground reinforce the organisation's notions of women's employability to executive level positions. Smith et al. (2016) argued that persistent conformity to organisational norms at the individual and group level rationalises organisational norms of gender. Therefore, in a mine that does not hire or promote enough women to executive positions, the continued daily participation of women at lower level employment positions rationalises and reinforces the idea that women do not belong or do not aspire to executive level positions (Smith et al., 2016). The approach suggests therefore that only irrational action (irrational only to the established organisational culture) of women actively seeking promotion to executive level posts would break the mould but is often met with resistance level (Smith et al., 2016).

The significance of seriality and institutional ethnography to the career advancement of women in mining is that these approaches may be utilised to explain and bridge the gap between policy and the advancement of women to executive positions level (Smith et al., 2016). Without understanding the nuanced identities, roles, and daily lived experiences of women set against societal structure as well as the motivations behind them, the necessary support for women's career advancement would be impossible to adequately provide enough support to allow them to advance to senior management level positions (Smith et al., 2016). For instance, a suitable work-life balance policy for women that express a desire to further their studies could help mitigate the time constraints that women endure due to the culturally ascribed dual roles as a provider and caregiver for the family.

2.3 Legislation approach to gender transformation in the South African mining sector

A dual approach of policy and training initiatives has been implemented to try and provide greater access to women in the South African mining sector. Gender transformation in the South African mining sector has been the subject of several policy initiatives. According to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2002) cited in Botha (2016), the newly elected democratic government of 1994 instituted several policies such as the MPRDA No. 28 of 2002 in order to address the dilemma of HDSA such as women in the mining sector. Furthermore, the Mining Charter of 2004 was promulgated to prohibit the exclusion of women in mining and to mandate specific demographic targets by 2015.

The MPRDA was introduced with a broad objective of correcting the previous inequalities in the mining sector. The MPRDA empowered the state as the custodian of the country's mineral resources and gave it the power to implement and monitor the Act to redress previous imbalances (Cawood, 2004). The Act required that female representation account for at least 10% of the total workforce in the mining industry by the year 2009 from a mere 2 percent in 2000 (Department of Mineral Resources (DMRE), 2002). The MPRDA gave power to the Mining Minister or the Minister of Mineral Resources to develop a broad-based socio-economic empowerment charter. This Act was also one of the driving forces to get more women in the mining industry as mining companies had to comply to keep their licenses to mine (DMRE, 2002).

2.3.1 The legislative framework

Various articles of legislation that have a bearing on the circumstances of women in the mining sector have been promulgated. The most significant of these are:

2.3.1.1 The Constitution of South Africa (1996)

Mudimba (2017) suggested that the Constitution of South Africa, from a broad perspective, is the ultimate legislative article that guarantees the equality of men and women before the law. Ronchod (2003) asserted that the Bill of Rights is the

highest law of the land and it promotes equality by making provisions for the elimination of discrimination on the bases of gender, sex, race, religion or creed. According to Mudimba (2017), mine-specific legislation, therefore, gain legitimacy from the Constitution.

2.3.1.2 The Mine Health and Safety Act of 1996

According to Ranchod (2003), the Mine Health and Safety Act of 1996 regulates the health and safety standards and procedures that must be observed in the South African mining environment. While all provisions of the Act are relevant to women and their health and safety in the mining workplace, provisions of Section 5(1) and 6(1) are particularly important. Section 5(1) mandates that the employer has a responsibility to ensure that the work environment is such that no employee would be endangering their health and safety in working there, while Section 6(1) mandates that the employer has a responsibility to ensure that adequate protective facilities and equipment are provided to the employee (Mudimba, 2017). Furthermore, Ranchod (2003) stated that Section 6(1) of the Act also mandates that the employer must ensure that protective facilities and equipment are maintained well and stored in a hygienic manner.

2.3.1.3 Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995

According to Zungu (2012), the primary purpose of the Labour Relations Act (LRA) is to give effect to section 23 of the Constitution (1996): To advance and establish social justice, economic development, democratisation of the workplace and labour peace. Zungu (2012) stated that the extractive industries in most African countries usually consist of local elites or international investors, who repeatedly have the scales of bargaining powers leaning in their favour because of their financial capabilities. Swart (2003) suggested that in contrast, their employees, particularly black women, are mostly lowly educated and fall into the vulnerability of settling for below standard working conditions to provide for their families. The LRA forms a balance of power between employers and the trade unions through creating a set of basic individual and collective labour rights (Zungu, 2012).

Inside Mining (2013) suggested that the LRA defends the right to bargain collectively, the right to strike, the freedom of association, the right to protection through legislation such as: The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act of 1993; the Occupational Health and Safety Act of 1993 and the Unemployment Insurance Act of 2001. Inside Mining (2013) stated that the LRA also ensures that employees have a right to be trained through the Skills Development Act of 1998 (Inside Mining, 2013). According to Ranchod (2003), employees who have failed to engage the employer individualistically can accomplish a certain level of negotiating power in matters of common interest such as working conditions and terms of employment through a collective bargaining process. The LRA establishes a minimum of organisational rights for collective bargaining purposes (Ranchod, 2003). Ranchod (2003) stated that the trade unions and employees enjoy the benefits, which are within the boundaries of the law; those benefits are as a result of these rights, and they are trade union representation and access to the workplace. The LRA further controls the manner and circumstances under which a strike and lock out may be conducted, characteristic of a democratized workplace (Ranchod, 2003). Furthermore, the LRA also establishes dispute resolution platform such as the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and Bargaining Councils (Ranchod, 2003).

According to Mudimba (2017), the CCMA can be accessed at no cost, depending on the employees' income earning capacity for matters regarding labour arguments, which fall within its dominion. Bargaining Councils are industry-specific and are normally accessible for free (Mudimba, 2017). Bargaining councils are subject to the rules and regulations of specific sectors (Mudimba, 2017). Therefore, women workers in the mining industry, a sector characterized by gender inequality and labour unrest, can find resource in the provisions of the LRA.

2.3.1.4 The Employment Equity Act of 1998

Swart (2003) evaluated the Employment Equity Act (EEA) and stated that amongst all the South African labour and related legislation applicable in the South African workplace, the EEA is remarkable for its aim to redress the negative fragments of the apartheid regime in the country. Swart (2003) stated that the EEA recognises the income and occupational differences in the national labour market. To reconcile these differences, the EEA encourages fair treatment and equal opportunities through the eradication of unfair discrimination amongst historically disadvantaged citizens such as women, disabled people and black people (Swart, 2003). According to Swart (2003), the EEA also encourages a diverse labour force that largely represents all the people of South Africa. Swart (2003) suggested that in the mining sector, these include women as they were previously not allowed to work in underground operations.

According to Mudimba (2017), Section 5 of the EEA requires that the employer must take steps to encourage equal opportunities in the workplace by ensuring that there is no eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice. Section 6 of the EEA ensures that employees are protected in any employment policy or practice from being directly or indirectly unfairly discriminated against based on gender or racial grounds (Mudimba, 2017). Mudimba (2017) suggested that the harassment of an employee is also regarded as a form of unfair discrimination and is prohibited. Zungu (2012) stated that Section 15 of EEA provides for the implementation of affirmative action measures in the workplace by a chosen employer. Furthermore, the employer has a responsibility to identify and eradicate employment barriers, which unfavourably affect people from designated groups (Zungu, 2012). In this instance, an employer includes the state except for local spheres of government such as the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), the National Intelligence Agency (NIA), and the South Africa Secret Service (SASS) (Zungu, 2012).

2.3.1.5 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997 (BCEA) replaced the Wage Act of 1957 (Mudimba, 2017). Mudimba (2017) asserted that a benchmark to the minimum standards expected in an employment contract regarding the leave days, hours of employment and remuneration is set out in the BCEA. Employees and employers may disagree on terms and conditions of employment that are less favourable to the employee than those contained in the BCEA (Mudimba, 2017). Fundamentally, the provisions of this Act accommodate women inclusion in the mining sector explicitly, if they are implemented accordingly (Mudimba, 2017). According to Ranchod (2003), for female miners in the labour sector, underground work is not the only work they do. Ranchod (2003) stated that they also have domestic chores in their homes that need to be accommodated within their daily lives schedule. Swart (2003) suggested that having legislation such as the BCEA reduces the burden on women tremendously. Swart (2003) argued that although some women may still not be able to understand the pressures of raising families while working shifts, working hours regulation affords them time to accommodate their domestic chores.

According to Inside Mining (2013), Section 7 of the Act directs every employer to control working time for each employee as guided in section 9. Inside Mining (2013) stated that where an employee has performed work beyond the legislatively stipulated hours, it is considered as overtime and such employee is entitled to compensation for those hours including public holidays. Swart (2003) stated that the Act further acknowledges night work, that is, any work done between 18:00 hours and 06:00 hours the following day and requires that an employee be compensated for it as well as that transport to and from work be made available. According to Swart (2003), section 25 protects female employees, who are child bearers by allowing them to be awarded at least four consecutive months of maternity leave.

Mudimba (2017) stated that under the provisions of the BCEA, an employee is relieved from work for a period of six weeks after giving birth unless medically

certified fit to do so. Mudimba (2017) stated that similarly, an expecting female employee or nursing mother may not perform work that is hazardous to her health or the child's. Mudimba (2017) argued that effectively, by stating that for six months after the birth of her child, an employee is entitled to alternative employment that is suitable to her on terms and conditions that are not less favourable than her ordinary terms and conditions of employment. Furthermore, an employee who has worked with the same employer for longer than four months and works at least four days a week is entitled to a three days' paid leave period as family responsibility leave provided by the BCEA (Mudimba, 2017).

2.3.1.6 The Promotion of Equity and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000

According to Zungu (2012), the purpose of the Promotion of Equity and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000 (PEPUDA) is to give effect to Section 9 read with Section 23 (1) of the Constitution. Zungu (2012) stated that the PEPUDA prohibits unfair discrimination, hate speech, and harassment to redress historical and social inequalities. Zungu (2012) suggested that the PEPUDA essentially promotes a free and fair South Africa to all citizens. According to Mudimba (2017), in the context of the mining industry, Section 8 is of much relevance with regards to women's inclusion in the labour sector. Mudimba (2017) argued that the PEPUDA prohibits unfair discrimination against any person on the grounds of gender. Mudimba (2017) suggested that the PEPUDA bars any policy or conduct from unfairly limiting women's access to land rights, finance, and other resources. Under this Act, women may not be discriminated against on grounds of pregnancy and their access to social services such as health, education and social security should not be restricted unfairly (Mudimba, 2017). Swart (2003) suggested that the systematic inequality of access to opportunities by women because of sexual division of labour also amounts to unfair discrimination.

Ranchod (2003) made the assessment that based on the above-mentioned provisions; female miners are as equal in any workplace, including the mining

sector, as their male counterparts. Ranchod (2003) argued that they may not be subjected to harassment based on their gender, let alone on any basis. According to Ranchod (2003), considering the historical disadvantage against women, the employer can consider measures that are designed to protect or advance their cause.

2.3.1.7 The Minerals and Petroleum Resources Development Act of 2002

The Minerals and Petroleum Resources Development Act of 2002 (MPRDA) is a significant milestone in the holistic transformation of the South African Mining Sector (Swart (2003)). According to Swart (2003), the MPRDA emphasises the state's commitment to facilitate equitable access to the country's mineral wealth to all South Africans, through the eradication of discrimination. Inside Mining (2013) stated that as a constitutionally confined custodian of the nation's mineral and petroleum resources, the state is empowered under the MPRDA to take measures to redress the historical racial discrimination of apartheid. Furthermore, Inside Mining (2013) asserted that the MPRDA sets out expressly the process and procedures of how the HDSA such as women and communities affected by mining will be accommodated in the distribution of wealth. Mudimba (2017) stated that more so, included in the goals is to expand opportunities substantially and meaningfully for them. Mudimba (2017) argued that ideally, the MPRDA aims to see women inclusion materialising into active participation and for them to inherit from the nation's natural resources. The MPRDA advances the notion that women inclusion should not be merely about the increased number of women joining the industry without actual progress for them (Mudimba, 2017). Therefore Section 2 (f) of the Act aims at promoting employment and advancing the social and economic welfare of all South Africans, including women (Mudimba, 2017).

2.3.1.8 The Broad-Based Socio-Economic Empowerment Charter for the South African Mining Industry of 2002 (Commonly referred to as the Mining Charter)

The Mining Charter is an industry-specific economic empowerment strategy for the

South African mining sector, comprising of eight elements including employment equity (Zungu, 2012). According to Zungu (2012), the Mining Charter was established based on the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act of 2002 (MPRDA). The Mining Charter was introduced by the Department of Minerals and Energy (DME) in 2002 to promote equitable access to the nation's mineral resources to all South Africans (Mudimba, 2017). According to Mudimba (2017), the Mining Charter primarily aims at facilitating the economic inclusion into mining of previously disadvantaged people such as women through the utilisation of the existing skills base. This follows an understanding that an expanded skills base of the HDSA increases employment opportunities and advances the socio-economic welfare of mining communities (Mudimba, 2017).

Mudimba (2017) stated that despite its shortcomings, which have prompted constant controversial amendments over the years, the Mining Charter has been instrumental in guiding mining companies in complying with the MPRDA. According to Mudimba (2017), the latter has been seen particularly with regards to promoting black economic empowerment when applying for the new mine license or converting current paths. According to Mudimba (2017), through the amendments, the government has tried to monitor progress made in as far as the set transformative targets are concerned. This can be observed from the first Mining Charter's 10 percent quota of women inclusion in core mining operations by 2009 and a 40 percent HDSA representation in core and critical skills by 2015 as stipulated in the second Mining Charter (DMRE, 2018). To date, there have been three Mining Charters (DMRE, 2018). The latest charter, which is Mining Charter 3, stipulated the employment equity as presented in Table 2.1 (DMRE, 2018).

Table 2-1: Employment equity stipulated in 2018 mining charter (DMRE, 2018).

Level	% of black people
Board	A minimum of 50% black persons with exercisable voting rights, 20% of which must be black women
Executive/Top Management	A minimum of 50% black persons at the executive director's level as a percentage of all executive directors proportionally represented, 15% of which must be black women
Senior Management	A minimum of 50% black persons proportionally represented, 15% of which must be black women
Middle Management	A minimum of 60% of Black Persons, proportionally represented, 20% of which must be black women

2.3.2 The utility of policy and other initiatives in elevating women in the South African mining sector

Several studies have zeroed in on the gap between policy and practice regarding gender transformation in the South African mining sector. For instance, Badenhorst (2009) and Fourie (2009) stated that while the host of policy initiatives has been prudent and well-intended, there still exists exploitation and marginalisation of women in South African Mines. Botha (2016) found that the risk of exploitation and sexual harassment is high for women appointed in core mining positions because they often work close to men in those core mining roles either underground or at the pit. Benya (2016) also found that gender is the regulator in the underground environment, where masculinity, physical ability, and vocal ability form hierarchies among employees. Therefore, while policy has taken strides to address representation, it has not adequately addressed organisational culture with all its nuances and subtleties (Benya, 2016).

Hakin (2004), as cited in Botha (2016), also found that male colleagues often refuse to provide the necessary support to their new female colleagues, therefore, women at the lower levels of the occupational ladder often lack the informal induction, camaraderie and cooperative teamwork that they need to succeed. Mining Safety (2013) suggested that gender discrimination of that nature, as well as sexual harassment, often affect women's psychological health. Gender discrimination also generates stress-related reactions such as emotional trauma, anxiety, depression, anger, and low self-esteem (Mining Safety, 2013). It also affects the woman's physical health, causing stress-related diseases such as sleep disorders, headaches, stomach problems, and ulcers (Mining Safety, 2013). Mashiane (2009) argued that because black women are historically more socio-economically disadvantaged, they tend to have lower entry points into the mining workplace and therefore, suffer these barriers to career development even more. The inability of the approach to gender transformation in mining in South Africa to adequately acknowledge these nuances often facilitates and ignores the tendency to create gender stereotypes within gender stereotypes (Mashiane, 2009). An example is a stereotype that white women are inherently more capable of leadership than black women (Mashiane, 2009).

2.4 Empirical literature

Several studies have been conducted that have explored some or all this current research's objectives and related themes. These studies are reviewed in this section.

2.4.1 Factors increasing the gap between policy and practice in the advancement of black women to senior management posts in mining

Studies have shown that policy is a prescriptive of an end state but not the transformation process in women's advancement to senior management or executive level positions. Certain targets are made compulsory, and management has the responsibility to enforce quotas in representation, but policy does not make management responsible for developing and grooming women leaders. As such, the gap between policy and practice is made open by several challenges that affect

particularly black women's development and consequent ascension to senior management or executive level positions. These include socio-economic disadvantage, multiple societal roles, male exploitation, disabling institutional culture, entry-level and variously acquired gender identities. Khoza (2012) argued that for as long as policy does not adequately address the challenges obstructing the professional development of black women, there will always be a gap between the targets set by that policy and practice. Policy should comprehensively prescribe specific steps and articulate the employer's responsibility therein, towards the professional development of women (Mashiane, 2009).

2.4.1.1 Socio-economic disadvantage

A vast array of studies has found that women in general are significantly of a more socio-economic disadvantage than men especially black women, which affects their ability to privately upgrade their education and professional qualifications (Mashiane, 2009). Mashiane (2009) conducted a qualitative study on 107 participants at three Platinum Mines to determine the transformational barriers against women's advancement in South African Platinum Mining Companies. Mashiane (2009) found that women in the labour-intensive industry of mining often have a very low entry point and are semi-skilled upon admittance into the workplace. Mashiane (2009) concluded that the few women that are appointed to executive or senior management level posts are often hired externally, and their entry point is often high because they had a sounder economic foundation to attain high qualifications. Mashiane (2009) found that because black women historically have been the most socio-economically disadvantaged, there is a higher likelihood that a senior management female employee is white.

In findings that support those of Mashiane (2009) above, Mlambo (2011) found that because black women often must support the family financially while executing various other societal and cultural roles, they are unable to disperse earnings towards upgrading their qualifications and skills. Mlambo (2011) further asserted that unlike more economically endowed women, most black women often cannot afford to take time away from their many roles by, for example, hiring

childminders, acquiring private transport to limit the time they spend travelling for one place to the other or moving closer to academic institutions. Mlambo (2011) found that the work environment may exacerbate this challenge by offering limited family-friendly practices and on-the-job training.

Part of this study is to determine whether the aforementioned socio-economic disadvantages that are brought about by the policies set limited opportunities for black women, which continue to hinder them to advance to senior management positions or to advance academic and professional qualifications that might result in them being considered for promotions.

2.4.1.2 Multiple societal and cultural roles (workplace, home, and community)

A common finding of most studies particularly pertaining to the obstacles of career development for black women has been that of the multiple roles that they have to play in society, that is, in the workplace, as caregivers in the home and community roles such as church organisers (Benya, 2009). Benya (2009) conducted a qualitative ethnographic study at Impala Platinum in Rustenburg, in the North West Province of South Africa to address the challenges and coping strategies of women in mining. It was found that an African woman's day is stacked with multiple roles that they are expected to fulfil seamlessly, and these often cause them to sacrifice personal aspirations in the workplace (Benya, 2009). Benya (2009) concluded that an African woman does not belong to herself but to the community as a wife, mother, daughter, organiser and employee. Benya (2009) suggested that the cultural imperatives that women are raised from birth with are often entrenched with subordination of personal ambition to the selfless roles of caregiver or nurturer. Therefore, according to Benya (2009), besides the practical challenges such as a lack of time for skills development and knowledge acquisition, womanhood, as socially constructed both consciously and sub-consciously, promotes self-sacrifice and selflessness.

This was supported by Khoza (2012), who found that women in general, particularly in African settings, are brought up to strive for the collective good, whereas men have a significantly more detached and individual identity from the collective. Khoza (2012) argued that even in this modern era, which has become more gender sensitive and conscious, African women do not readily pursue personal ambitions, as they are tied to their multiple socially-constructed societal roles in the home, community, and workplace. This study explores how the multiple cultural and societal roles constructed for women over time constrict their advancement to senior management positions in mining in South Africa.

2.4.1.3 Entry level

According to Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm (2008), studies and data show that more black women enter the mining sector at much lower employment levels than men or women of other races. Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm (2008) are of the view that it is therefore significantly more difficult for black women to advance to senior management or executive level posts as they begin at the base of the employment ladder. Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm (2008) suggested that if gender transformation in South Africa's mining industry is to successfully elevate women to positions of leadership equitably vis-a-vis men, both policy and practice should take into consideration the socio-economic disadvantage of black women. Priority should be given to their entrance into the sector and to taking significant steps to provide training and skills development aimed at advancing and accelerating black women up the employment ladder (Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm, 2008). The Mineral Council of South Africa (2018) reported that there are only 17% of women participating in training initiatives in the South African mining sector.

Nieuwenhuis (2007) conducted a qualitative study to explore the experiences of women in senior positions in South Africa. The study interviewed 14 women in leadership positions across multiple sectors, including mining (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). It was found that, notwithstanding the intersectionality of race, gender, and class, the only variable considered in choosing the sample was gender pertaining to women in senior positions, yet all the women sampled were white women

(Nieuwenhuis, 2007). This led Nieuwenhuis (2007) to conclude that black women tend to be admitted in the organization at a lower level, often at the base of the employment level due to historical socio-economic disadvantage and a more constraining cultural disposition (Nieuwenhuis, 2007).

Some of the legislation and policy that affects women in mining in South Africa attempts to address the historical disadvantage of black people and women in the labour sector in general and the mining industry specifically. However, it seems this legislation has influenced an increase in the proportion of black women taking part in core mining than those that are appointed to senior management. The study has determined that at the setting, there are still policy and action deficiencies that permit the low entry level of black women into the mining sector to be a hindrance to their advancement to senior management positions.

2.4.1.4 Disabling institutional cultures

Literature suggests that often disabling institutional cultures are so dominant that they alienate women from leadership positions and exploit the view that they are begrudgingly appointed to those positions only to satisfy government and industrial policy (Botha, 2016). According to Botha (2016), it is a common feature of most institutional cultures to project tokenism about the appointment of women to leadership positions.

According to Khoza (2012), what is particularly disconcerting about a disabling institutional culture is that it is often unnoticeable but quite consequential. It is expressed informally, for instance, in a prejudicial management that does not invite female managers to a drink at the local bar (Khoza, 2012). It may also manifest in less subtle ways through the absence of female-only management toilets (Khoza, 2012). Khoza (2012) argued that the accumulation of these informal prejudices is a pervasive culture that elbows out women from senior management or simply appoints them as a means to satisfy the regulatory mandates. Khoza (2012) stated that the downstream effect of the latter is that more women view appointment to a boys' club kind of management undesirable and lose the ambition to ascend to these

positions. Khoza (2012) found that as a result, sometimes women prefer to transfer from the mining sector and assume leadership positions in what are perceived as more women-friendly sectors such as education, health or clothing and textile.

Robbins (2009) (cited in Mudimba (2017)), interrogated the harmful melting-pot cultural approach to embracing diversity in the workplace. According to Robbins (2009), most organisations assume that people, including women, from diverse backgrounds would automatically want to assimilate when brought under the same environment. However, it is Robbins' (2009) assessment that the assumption that women will automatically adapt to the way things are in the mining sector and that their male counterparts who have, for years, believed the mining sector is not for women should just accept that now the industry has become open to them is not practical. Mudimba (2017) argued that while some distinguishable changes have been attained, such as an increase in women's representation in core mining or the adequacy of ablution facilities, years' old relational culture is not as easily changed. Language or communication skills, for instance, are very crucial in workplace relations, and in the South African mining sector, the lack of a formal mode of communication has exacerbated sexual harassment (Mudimba, 2017).

Mudimba (2017) found that the language mostly used is Fanakalo, a traditional dialect of isiXhosa and isiZulu, which most women find very vulgar and unacceptable. Mudimba (2017) also found that the lack of clear communication hinders effective functionality within teams as employees lack understanding of each other. Mudimba (2017) also asserted that more so, as people coming from diverse cultural and origination backgrounds, the language used in the mining environment contributes towards communication problems in the workplace. Botha (2016), cited in Mudimba (2017), stated that several South African mining companies acknowledge the communication barrier resulting from the lack of basic entry level education. Coburn (1997) argued that although sexual harassment is not confined to the mining sector, it is however, most prone in male-dominated workplaces. According to Coburn (1997), women's abuse occurs in various areas inter alia physical and verbal, sexually inappropriate comments, and physical

contact. Mudimba (2017) suggested that the collective effect of this pervasive and abusive culture is the disempowerment of women employees, who then gradually lose ambition and aspiration for career development and higher levels of employment.

Kayi (2013) found that the women constantly experienced an alienating culture, and that management and male colleagues did not recognise or acknowledge their worth. Kayi (2013) further found that it was a strong opinion among women in mid-level employment and senior management positions that their institutions did not value the contribution of women particularly in decision-making but rather exploited them as ranches for implementation. Kayi (2013) also found that at the institutions, even if the women had the necessary expertise with which to do the job, the organisational culture was that whispers and undertones among male colleagues and subordinates insinuated that the women were appointed as a token without any qualifications or expertise. However, according to Kayi (2013), women often posed the required skills, knowledge and competence to perform the job at the highest level of efficiency and effectiveness. However, some studies have pointed to a positive change in organizational culture in South Africa. One such study by Klerk (2012) found that 76% of respondents indicated that management supported women and their career aspirations in the workplace. According to Klerk (2012), at the organisation, management had fulfilled its obligation of leading by example and influencing other employees to respect and support women. Klerk (2012) concluded that the data was illustrative of the existence of several programs to address the skills gap between men and women; and women's progression in the organisation was not only tracked but encouraged. Furthermore, Klerk (2012) found that women were involved in decision-making in the organisation and actively involved in the implementation of those decisions.

Klerk (2012) however noted that protective clothing at the mine was still designed with men in mind and did not cater for the physical and biological differences between men and women. Klerk (2012) further concluded that productive rights at the mine were still contentious with the mine management indifferent to the needs

of pregnant women and negatively disinclined towards maternity leave. Therefore, while Klerk's (2012) study pointed to a positive reformation of social gender-related culture at one mine in South Africa, not all elements of that culture were positive. This study establishes whether the institutional or organisational culture at the study setting has been one in which women advancement to senior management positions is hindered, frowned upon and obstructed.

2.4.1.5 Toxic masculine culture

Botha (2015) conducted a study at three mines in South Africa to determine the extent to which sexual harassment affected women thriving in the workplace. The study was a mixed-method research that collected data from 156 women workers through questionnaires and group interviews (Botha, 2015). Botha (2015) found that women often do not thrive in the workplace because rather than confronting toxic male culture or competing for promotion to leadership roles, they often would rather maintain an inconspicuous presence that avoids the male culture. Most women do not take part in both informal and formal decision-making and therefore, are often overlooked for leadership roles as they are perceived to be of an unremarkable persona that is incompatible with leadership (Botha, 2015).

Mudimba (2017) found that in many cases, male employers are not keen to appoint woman leaders, while male colleagues are also not keen to be led by women leaders. Mudimba (2017) found that the informal perceptions and stereotypes regarding women's character have real consequences to women aspiring for higher positions in the workplace. Mudimba (2017) argued that most staffing decisions are made informally and only endorsed formally. Therefore, it is these informal perceptions that are often based on prejudice that are more dominant in staffing decisions than the more formal guidelines of professional qualifications or performance within the interview, that eventually leads to who the employer appoints (Mudimba, 2017).

While the study by Ramphele (2008) was situated in an institution of higher learning, her findings regarding the male culture in relation to women aspiring and being successful in positions of leadership is helpful to this study. Ramphele (2008)

found that in most institutions of higher learning, women were viewed as subordinates by their male colleagues or peers and treated with condescension by their superiors. Women were only elevated to senior positions as tokens, to show the outside world that equity issues were being taken seriously by the organisation and in compliance with regulations, when in fact these women were not taken seriously at all (Ramphele, 2008). Ramphele (2008) reported that her respondents indicated that male colleagues often disregarded them in decision making processes and showed some complementary posture only when they intended to exploit the woman colleague to share the workload.

According to Ramphele (2008), male exploitation was rife in middle and senior levels of employment and often manifested in male colleagues or superiors reassigning their work to women knowing that women, would go the extra mile. However, Ramphele (2008) added that none of the credit would go to the women but often to the male colleague or superior, therefore while doing most of the work, women get very little of the reward and recognition. Based on the findings by Ramphele (2008), the despondency that this causes often leads to women either leaving the organization or not aspiring to a higher office.

Mashiane (2009) found that the female respondents were of the view that male colleagues and superiors approached the idea of women's advancement in the mine with apprehension and scepticism. According to Mashiane (2009), most of the women were of the view that management had done too little to reform the stereotypical male perceptions and toxic masculine culture. Furthermore, Mashiane (2009) found that in some cases management tends to overpromise equity in order to appease the female employees and then in turn not implement any of the women advancement initiatives promised.

Botha (2016) found that men often are hostile to the idea of a successful woman particularly if that woman is his superior. Botha (2016) argued that this may explain the widespread abuse of women within the mining sector, as it is a way to disempower them and stifle their ambitions. Botha (2016) stated that women that

display leadership qualities and ambitions are often treated with irrationality by most male colleagues and therefore, even in instances where women are fast tracked to address the historical inequalities, the women often are not respected by male subordinates.

In another study, Mlambo (2011) found that toxic male culture was reflected in the informal language that men used. According to Mlambo (2011), the language used by male colleagues in mines was vulgar and particularly derogatory to women as most of the vulgar terms reinforced gender stereotypes in which women were cast as loose and objectified. Mlambo (2011) argued that the challenge this poses to women with leadership aspirations is that they cannot attain enough informal and formal support within groups, in meetings, workers representative bodies, etc. Mlambo (2011) also argued that women are effectively alienated by the harmful male culture that treats women as being inferior.

Ramohai & Marumo (2017) found that sexual harassment is a major problem that women in the mining sector must cope with. Sexual harassment of women has almost become normalised particularly in core mining, where informal and often masculine culture is dominant (Ramohai & Marumo, 2017). Ramohai & Marumo (2017) concluded that sexual harassment diminishes women in the eyes of colleagues and management and tends to demoralise women. The dual effect of this, according to Ramohai & Marumo (2017), is that women are seldom considered as leaders and their own confidence to aspire to leadership positions suffers. This study assesses the extent to which toxic masculine culture may be inhibiting women's advancement to senior management positions.

2.4.1.6 The gender-race tussle

Available literature suggests that both policy and the practice of uplifting women in the mining sector are often muddled up when the issues around race and gender are approached from a strictly political perspective rather than a socio-cultural and economic perspective (Khoza, 2012). Khoza (2012) conducted a qualitative phenomenological study at Lonmin Mining Company to explore the themes around

women's career advancement in the South African mining industry. Through semi-structured interviews, Khoza (2012) established that race was a factor in career development among women. Khoza (2012) found that because of cultural imperatives and historical socio-economic disadvantages, black women were more constricted from advancing to senior management positions.

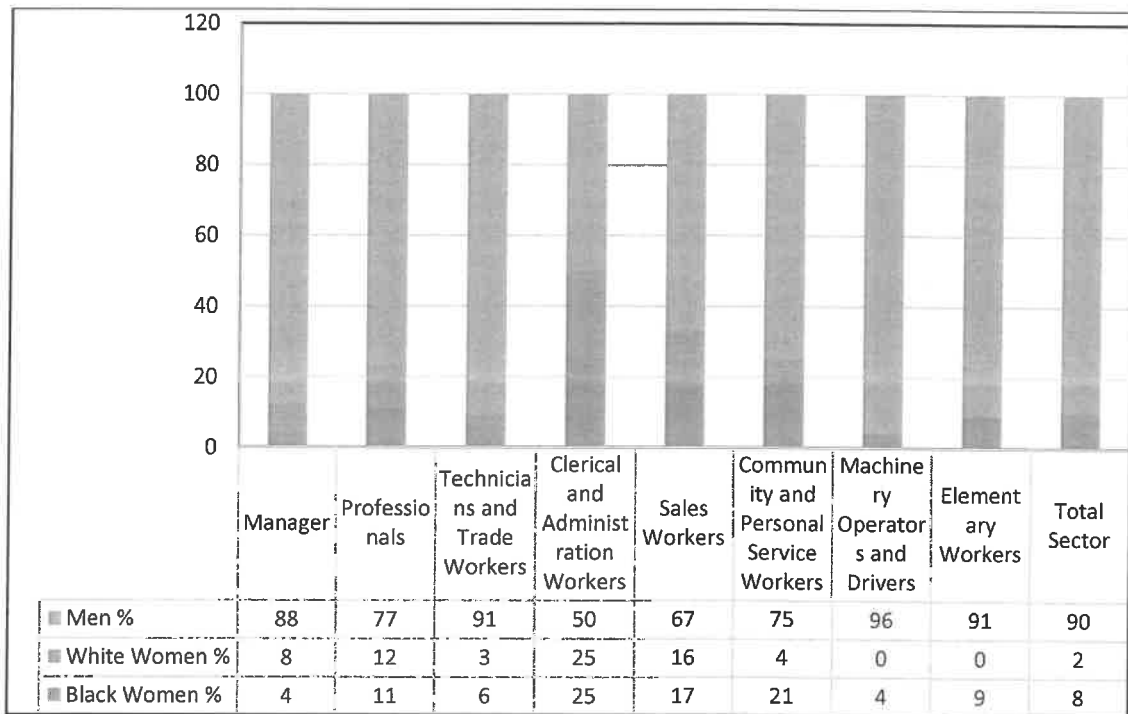


Figure 2-1: Disaggregated women representation in the Mining and mineral sector (Khoza, 2012)

Figure 2.1 illustrates that of the total percentage of women in mining, black women constitute 8%, while white women constitute only 2%. However, as suggested by Khoza (2012), it is imperative to note that of the 125 of women in management positions in the mining sector, the majority (8%) are white and black women constitute only 4%. The data also illustrates that more white women (13%) occupy mining professional positions in the following areas: mining engineering, metallurgy, chemical engineering, geology, rock engineering, ventilation, electrical and mechanical engineering, compared to black women. Figure 2.1 further illustrates that although there seems to be an equal distribution of both white and

black women in clerical, administration and sales roles, black women remain the majority in roles that require manual and hard labour.

According to Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm (2008), the issue of race is an important one in the South African context. Fauconnier & Mathur-Helm (2008) asserted that the shift from the white males, who have traditionally held many forms of power and position to previously disadvantaged groups is a national phenomenon that is applicable to the South African mining industry in general.

Ranchod (2003) stated that in addition to structural gender divisions within the South African mining industry, racial divisions persist in terms of where women are located. According to Ranchod (2003), because apartheid education structurally undereducated black South Africans and privileged white South Africans, there are racial divisions evident in who occupies professional and unskilled positions. Ranchod (2003) suggested that this is reflected in gender breakdowns too. The National Union of Mineworkers (NUM) notes that professional women in mining are likely to be white, while unskilled women in mining are likely to be black (Ranchod, 2003).

According to Higgins (2007), in several respects, attempts to reform the employment landscape in the South African mining organisations have also interrogated the whiteness of institutions. Several legislation articles have therefore mandated that certain quota of employment at all levels of the employment ladder be reserved for black people and women. However, according to Higgins (2007), while the political and legislative ambit has looked to address this institutional culture through numbers in representation, little has been done to address it through cultural reform. Higgins (2007) suggested that there has not been enough acknowledgment of how many formal processes in the workplace favour the culture and historical socio-economic advantage of white people in South Africa.

Ramphele (2008) suggested that gender equality in employment should not only focus on the numbers but also empowerment of historically disadvantaged black women through effective in-service training, facilitation of further education and

provision of work-life balance practices. According to Ramphela (2008), the intersectionality of gender and race should be considered seriously when devising empowerment and gender mainstreaming initiatives. Ramphela (2008) found that because culturally, women are not liberal and are tied to the home, the extended family and the community, these multiple roles and preoccupations should be considered when crafting empowerment initiatives. Simple and tangible initiatives would be to provide childcare facilities or allowances for women so that they are not as restricted by their roles of nurturing as they constantly are (Ramphela, 2008).

2.4.2 The variously acquired gender identities of women in mining and how they affect career advancement

Several studies have shown that women in mining, particularly in the lower levels of the employment ladder create and recreate different gender identities both consciously and unconsciously to fit into or navigate the organisational culture (Benya, 2016). Emerging literature also suggests that these identities also have a bearing on women, particularly black women's career development (Benya, 2016). Benya (2016) found that women acquire or adopt different identities, which they refer to as performances at different spaces within the mining industry. Benya's (2016) study revealed though that while women have entered, endured, exploited, and navigated most of the spaces in the mining industry, they do not seem to have been admitted into the executive level space. According to Benya (2016), femininity is fluid in the mine as gender identities are created and recreated from day-to-day experiences mostly as a means for women to assimilate the masculine culture of the mine. Benya (2016) identified three feminine types, Mafazi, Real Mafazi and Madoda straight, which range in the feminine spectrum from feminine to what Benya (2016) refers to as female manhood. Benya (2016) suggested that because of the multiplicity of roles that women play, these feminine types are unstable and often interrupted. These feminine types also attract different perceptions, attitudes, and reactions from men and other women within the mine but more consequential is that they all are a distant reflection of what management perceives an executive level employee should be. Mashiane (2009) found that

women rarely rise through the ranks from core mining jobs because management cannot reconcile the gender identities that work for women at that lower level with their idea of an executive level employee.

In their study to determine women's prospects for career advancement at a mine in South Africa, Moalusi & Jones (2019) found that in regular activities, women in core mining were marginalised and forced by a culture of male domination to emulate masculinity, therefore, legitimising existing gender barriers. Moalusi & Jones (2019) also found that due to long and unpredictable hours of work, women's time constraints have become more acute as they shuttle between various roles at work and in the home as family caretakers. In such circumstances, career development ceases to be the priority (Moalusi & Jones, 2019). As a result, a survivalist rather than aspirational approach to everyday life is adopted, where women must navigate different roles and performances at different spaces in the home and at work, keeping women in mining at lower levels of the occupational ladder (Moalusi & Jones, 2019). Mashiane (2009) supported this view and suggested that because women are generally perceived as being unable to perform the tasks in the labour intensive environment of the mine, they strive daily to prove that they can pull their weight physically and socially within the masculine culture. As such this daily challenge tends to gradually eclipse career development in the list of priorities. Mashiane (2009) argued that in adapting to the masculine culture, women sometimes shed or hide qualities that may be considered feminine yet are more suited to executive level jobs.

Several studies found that the regular experiences of women in mining strip away their zeal to aspire to a higher office and gradually, force women to accept and conform to the masculine domination in the workplace (Benya, 2016; Botha 2016; Moalusi & Jones, 2019). Botha (2016) found that women are still sexually harassed in the mine and in their endeavour to be accepted into the boy's club are subjected to misogyny and many forms of gender discrimination. This tends to have the effect of waning aspirations of career development (Botha, 2016). In addition, Botha (2016) found that the daily activities within mines are particularly

disadvantageous to the aspirations of black women about promotion to executive level posts. Mashiane (2009) argued that black women are on average more socio-economically disadvantaged than women of other races in South Africa, therefore their entry level in the mining sector tends to be much lower. Subsequently, both the mine and home environment deprive them of the opportunity to further their qualifications (Mashiane, 2009). Likewise, Botha (2016) observed that the mining industry is labour intensive and there often is a limited allowance for work-life balance that would allow black women, who are more culturally bound to the home and to the workplace, to further their education to seek and aid promotion.

According to Tolonen (2015), gender inequality is the most significant impediment for the progress of female employees to the senior management ranks in the mining companies. Gender discrimination is defined by the binding constraints that do not permit the prioritization of the needs of women (Tolonen, 2015). According to Macintyre (2017), insight has been provided into the role of women in mining in developing countries like South Africa. Considering women as equal and capable partners in mining can be a positive step towards development (Macintyre, 2017). A reassertion of the identities of these women is an affirmative step (Macintyre, 2017).

According to Takawira et al. (2014), there are several psychological factors that can impact on the activation of women in this field of work. Among them, the most important and vital factors are self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, which is collectively referred to as the organisational psychology (Takawira et al., 2014). Takawira et al. (2014) highlighted that if organisational psychology in women is not developed, it is difficult for them to excel in their working area. Therefore, organisational psychology is one of the vital factors that can influence the representation of women in managerial posts (Takawira et al., 2014). Furthermore, Takawira et al. (2014) suggested that the increase of resources such as career adaptability, self-efficacy, and career preoccupation will increase the job satisfaction levels among women. This will lead to women actively representing themselves in senior management positions of different sectors (Takawira et al.,

2014).

The variously acquired gender identities of women particularly at the lower levels of the employment ladder within the mining sector have dominated emerging literature and are the central theme of Benya (2016)'s landmark study. In this current study, the significance of these identities and how, as well as why, they are created and recreated in various spaces lies in the way they affect the advancement of women to senior management or executive level positions. What is clear from Benya's (2016) study is that these identities are created out of necessity, both consciously and sub-consciously, mostly in order to fit into the labour-intensive and often informal mine environment. This, according to Mlambo (2011), often stifles the woman's uniqueness, her innovativeness and rather than stand out, she blends as one of the boys. Mlambo (2011) suggested that the gender performances that women create and recreate in order to endure the often intensely masculine mine environment forces them to shade most of the feminine attributes that may have formed part of their leadership competencies. Mlambo (2011) concluded that assimilating into masculine culture consumes time and energy and the burnout dampens ambition in women in a manner that does not occur to men, who must only act naturally and be themselves.

Similarly, Khoza (2012) stated that the spectrum of gender identities for women is vertically fluid, that is across various spaces, and horizontally fluid, along the employment ladder depending on the gender performance that women perceive to be necessary in order to thrive in any given environment or space. According to Khoza (2012), it is assumed that women eventually master the gender performances to navigate and thrive in the various gender spaces at the lower end of the employment ladder. The identities they adapt to fit in are not regarded by peers, male colleagues, management and sometimes the women themselves, to be commensurate with the behaviour expected of a more senior employee (Khoza, 2012). In other words, some of the masculine characteristics that women must adopt to fit into the boy's club as core or artisanal miners are negative attributes when aspiring to higher office (Khoza, 2012). Botha (2016) suggested therefore, after

having nurtured a more assertive, masculine demeanour over time, women are expected to shade much of those attributes that are considered undesirable in a senior manager or executive employee, if they are going to stand a chance of advancement.

This is supported by Moalusi & Jones (2019), who suggested that often informal perceptions among management and male employees are that the gender identities that women at the lower rungs of the employment table create and recreate are irreconcilable with the stereotypical senior manager. Moalusi & Jones (2019) argued that the attributes that women adopt to thrive in core mining are considered undesirable for a senior management or executive level employee. Moalusi & Jones (2019) suggested that there are various gender stereotypes for each level of the employment ladder and all of them adversely affect the endurance and advancement of women in mining. Moalusi & Jones (2019) stated that the woman in core mining are often imagined as loud, abrasive and more physically adept while a senior manager is imagined as soft spoken, graceful and more intellectually adept. This is not so limiting until it is set against the tendency that men are often given the benefit of the doubt to be able to seamlessly slide into each role, while women are not (Moalusi & Jones, 2019). A woman is more likely to be appointed to a higher position at another mine than at the mine she would have worked for over some time because management would have developed the prejudiced view that her acquired gender identity at lower level is incompatible with the stereotypical traits of a senior manager or executive level employee (Moalusi & Jones, 2019).

Botha (2016) found that apart from the variously acquired gender identities that women adorn, being viewed as undesirable to the stereotype traits expected of a senior manager, these traits also affect the woman's self-perception regarding career development. Women not only create and recreate gender performances in various spaces within the mine environment, but outside the mine (Botha, 2016). These spaces that are external but also influential to the mine environment are the home and community (Botha, 2016). Botha (2016) argued that black women have various socio-cultural roles as caregivers in the home and extended family and

organisers in the community such as at church, bereavement committees etc. Botha (2016) suggested that consequently, all these roles take precedence before women view themselves as leaders in the workplace. According to Botha (2016), due to socially-constructed gender identities, most black women are therefore mothers, wives, organisers and providers before they consider themselves as managers in the workplace. This often wanes the ambition and at times confidence of women to apply for promotion (Botha, 2016). This study explores what the variously acquired gender identities of women are at the study setting and how they have affected women's advancement to senior management positions.

2.4.3 Affected desirability of leadership roles among women in the workplace

Ranchod (2003) was of the view that most women lack adequate role models because often the few women that they encounter that have scaled the ladder into the senior management posts do not appear to be afforded the same respect, voice and value as men. Furthermore, Ranchod (2003) stated that added to the stereotyping, exploitation and aspersions by male colleagues, senior management posts lose their attractiveness to some black women.

2.4.3.1 Perceptions of women in leadership in South Africa's mining sector

According to Women in Mining (UK) (2013), the career advancement of women in management positions in the mining industry in South Africa has been a topic of great interest to researchers. Due to previous inequalities, there is an inadequacy of mentors who can retain women employees in junior management positions and assist with their succession plans (Women in Mining (UK), 2013). Leadership in the mining industry has been defined as the ability for a person to lead a team and has been attached to attributes such as independence, strength and intelligence (Eagly, 2007). The latter mentioned attributes are mostly associated with male counterparts, hence, men have been dominating management positions (Women in Mining (UK), 2013). In recent times, leadership has been something that can be taught and learned. Preferred leadership behaviours have attributes such as relationship skills, emotional intelligence, energy and interpersonal

communication (Eagly, 2007). Northouse (2013) also stated that a good leader is a leader that can adopt different types of leadership styles according to the situation in which they are in. This then shows that the success of a leader does not depend on whether the person is male or female but, on their ability to lead. Therefore, women can also make good leaders (Northouse, 2013).

Table 2.2 shows that the aggregate effect of the negative perceptions of women leaders, the stereotypes cast on them and the obstacles in their lived experiences has been very low representation in the senior management positions within the mining sector as reported by the Mineral Council of South Africa (2018).

Table 2-2: Women in management in South African Mines: Mineral Council of South Africa (2018)

Level of employment	Percentage representation
Top management	16%
Senior management	17%
Skilled and technical professionals	18%

Literature suggests that in most institutions, the masculine culture views women leadership as an undesirable phenomenon. Discourse on women leadership, both formal and informal as well as empirical and theoretical, has often drawn controversial and sometimes extreme views. For instance, Msila & Netshitangani (2017) noted that one excuse that is often used against the participation of women in leadership is that they are usually sensitive and emotional and as such would not be able to perform to the best of their ability in stressful situations. Msila & Netshitangani (2017) proceeded to pose a question based on their personal view on the matter: *True, women are usually very emotional, but does this necessarily have to be a bad thing?* This perception by Msila & Netshitangani (2017) that women are indeed emotional more than men is surprisingly common. It is often justified by subsequent explanations of how this quality of being emotional is an

asset rather than a burden to women in leadership.

Mashiane (2009) found that women leadership in mining is not readily imagined by most men and some women, as the industry is considered to be labour intensive to be managed by a woman. As such Mashiane (2009) argued that significantly higher expectations, scrutiny and critique are placed on the few black women that do attain executive level posts. Botha (2015) argued that this sets up women for failure. Botha (2015) observed that it also deprives black women of role models that inspire them to aspire to higher office. Rather, the negative feedback, aspersions and reaction that women in executive level positions in mining in South Africa receive tend to negatively affect the desirability of these posts for women in the lower levels of the occupational ladder (Botha, 2015).

2.4.3.2 Effects of negative perceptions of women leaders on the career planning and aspiration of lower level women employees

Career planning is a process that should be undertaken by individual employees, as well as the institution (Kayi, 2013). However, according to Chung & Sahgal (2007), owing to constraints to career planning for women, in contrast to their male counterparts, the path to senior management appointments is significantly more unpredictable, harder and steeper. The inconsistent, sometimes informal and unorthodox hoops created for women to jump over in order to acquire senior management posts, complicate career planning (Chung & Sahgal, 2007). Chung & Sahgal (2007) argued that while male employees only must attain requisite skill, knowledge and leadership quality, women also must contend with navigating stereotypes, occasionally appeasing male misconceptions and mimicking masculine tendencies.

Chung & Sahgal (2007) asserted that there are six aspects that influence the advancement of women to senior management positions, namely: aspiration and motivation; career development; exposure to line function in career; proportion of

women in management; success in career; and development for career development. However, Mashiane (2009) argued that because of discrimination and masculine culture, the path to senior management for women is often not so clear cut and straight forward. In addition, Mashiane (2009) argued that the few role models for black women tend to have an opposite effect. Mashiane (2009) stated that black women at the lower level of the ladder often tend to pity rather than admire the ill-treatment and condescension inflicted on women leaders in the mining sector and therefore, their own aspirations wane.

Chung & Sahgal (2007) corroborated this notion that while the career advancement of women is largely influenced by motivation, desire and attitudes, the harsh and unsavoury treatment of women in leadership or those that aspire to leadership tends to negatively affect the aspiration and motivation of other lower level women employees. As such, it is suggested that organisational motivation and aspiration for women advancement should complement that of individual women employees (Chung & Sahgal, 2007). That is to say, the organisational culture at the mine should be one that positively regards women leaders, values their efforts and involvement and encourages women that aspire to leadership (Chung & Sahgal, 2007).

Moalusi & Jones (2019) indicated that often the career objectives of women are mutilated by the lack of a clear path to leadership positions and structures for women's skills development. This often occurs when the appointment of women to positions of leadership is done as tokenism in which they are handpicked as the most "unproblematic" but also satisfying the window-dressing that gives an appearance of equality yet without much substance (Moalusi & Jones, 2019). Moalusi & Jones (2019) also suggested that while women in mining are often exposed to line function particularly in core mining, this experience is often not rewarded with promotion into leadership positions because informal culture dominates the underground and, in such circumstances, women are not taken as natural leaders since masculinity dominates.

Botha (2016) found that many women at the lower or middle level of employment are aware of the added effort and risk that women must endure in order to ascend the employment ladder. While a few are unperturbed by these obstacles that are often cast into the path of women by toxic male culture, a disabling organisational culture and the restrictiveness of the multiple responsibilities conjured by socially-constructed and cultural roles, many women are both psychologically and professionally affected by it and often times, their career advancement aspirations do not materialise because of it (Botha, 2016).

2.4.4 Enhancing more advancement of black women into senior management or executive level positions in mining

Various studies have recommended and identified several ways in which policy may be strengthened to enable, facilitate or stimulate more advancement of black women into senior management or executive level positions in mining. Of these, expanding the responsibilities of the employer, Family Friendly Work Practices (FFWPs), making gender sensitisation education mandatory, and explicit commitment to gender-related ethics, have dominated literature.

2.4.4.1 Expanding the responsibilities of the employer

Subsequent to their study, Moalusi & Jones (2019) recommended that the responsibilities ascribed to the employer should not be limited to ensuring an end state based on a quota system but must also be expanded to include the development of suitable women candidates for promotion to various leadership posts in the organization. As indicated earlier in this chapter, Moalusi & Jones (2019) stated that mandating quota representation ignores the obstacles that inhibit women from being able to be skilled or qualified enough to thrive in those positions. Therefore, this suggests that gender sensitivity training and education programs as well as favourable manpower development leave days must be implicitly stated in policy. Moalusi & Jones (2019) suggested that the employer is also to be mandated to employ a certain mandatory quota from within the organisation to ensure that an

organisational culture in which women are elevated along the employment ladder within the organisation is practised, rather than have the organisation always scouting for skilled women from outside the organisation.

In her study, Mashiane (2009) found that female respondents were of the view that management's support of gender initiatives were only to minimally comply with the regulations of the platinum sector, but it was an area in which most organisations' leadership were not enthusiastic about. It was Mashiane's (2009) conclusion that most mines in the sector were only implementing some regulations because they have been legislated and they have been coerced into committing to the Social Labour Plan of which refusal would harm the mine's corporate image. In the study, the female respondents felt that management at their mines could do so much more to address the obstacles to women's thriving and advancement in the workplace (Mashiane, 2009). In Mashiane (2009)'s evaluation, the platinum sector in South Africa is still to embrace transformation as the national agenda, yet there exists an assumption that the platinum and most of the mining sector in South Africa, is transforming.

Botha (2016) also found that most female respondents indicated that they could climb the corporate ladder faster than before, if given fair opportunity to do so. In the same study, women suspected that often they are used as fronting and that management does not realise what is happening underground (Botha, 2016). Botha (2016) found that it is the perception of women miners that the kind of treatment they receive underground from their male counterparts causes them to wonder if management sees the initiative as a business imperative. According to Botha (2016), women employees are always reminded that they will fail and even though they are aware of the Graduate Development Programme, its implementation has not adequately catered to their career development.

Mashiane (2009) also found that female mine employees feel that mining companies should encourage and provide employment training opportunities for them in the formal mining sector in all areas of work, including underground mining

and blasting, not just in traditional clerical positions. Furthermore, Mashiane (2009) found that the female employees also argue that in order to monitor this, such companies should also provide training and jobs for women in monitoring of the social and environmental impact of mining.

2.4.4.2 Family Friendly Work Practices (FFWPs)

According to Zungu (2012), career development policy must be aimed at stimulating women representation in senior management positions and must be linked to regulations regarding FFWPs. Zungu (2012) stated that for black women, the demanding roles in the home have a near crippling impact on their career development aspirations. These women cannot devote time and resources to additional skills acquisition and sometimes must turn down the added responsibility of senior positions (Zungu, 2012). Zungu (2012) suggested too, that at times, travelling to and from work or having to migrate away from the family to be closer to the mine also takes a toll on women more than it does on men. This is so because women are culturally expected to be primary caregivers or child minders and cannot exclusively outsource that role to nanny's or domestic helpers (Zungu, 2012).

Mudimba (2017) found that the mining industry was epitomised by migrant labour, which had encouraged accommodation for employees since most of them came from afar places. Mudimba (2017) noted that until very recently, because of legislative changes, mine workers were accommodated, and most of them still are, in hostels, which restricts their families from staying with them. Furthermore, Mudimba (2017) found that while the BECA provides that transport for night shift employees be provided between their homes and workplaces, often this transport is unavailable, or women opt to negotiate with male colleagues to swap shifts. Any difficulty met by women miners regarding housing or transport is often perceived as inability, incompetence and weakness (Mudimba, 2017). This, according to Mudimba (2017) is unfairly factored into considerations for promotion and advancement.

Moalusi & Jones (2019) also found that childbearing and child rearing is effectively discouraged in South African mines seeing as childcare facilities are often not provided for and maternity leave is frowned upon and only grudgingly granted because it is a legal requirement. Moalusi & Jones (2019) also concluded that the South African mine scene is a dog-eat-dog world in which the individuals care for themselves and nobody else. Therefore, according to Moalusi & Jones (2019), if women are not strong, they may be forced to leave their jobs as there is often limited support from colleagues and management on top of the social burdens cast by society and culture. Mashiane (2009) found that women mine workers feel that their advancement depends on many other factors such as access to paid maternity leave, family responsibilities, breast feeding and a crèche on site or an alternative location for their babies, as this will enhance their ability to cope with pressures.

However, Mashiane's (2009) study in the Platinum sector also found that other mining houses have obtained commitment from the Unions through certain interventions, such as NUM's negotiated terms, that underground female workers are to be moved to the surface when pregnant. Mashiane (2009) argued that such initiatives not only make the work environment more adaptable but also uplift the morale of women employees, whose reproductive needs would no longer be viewed as a crutch to aspire to higher office. Mlambo (2011) recommended that mining companies should provide reasonable accommodation to women workers when they become pregnant, providing them with the option of appropriate alternative workstations during pregnancy and early motherhood that does not expose them to hazardous substances and dangerous work. Mlambo (2011) also stated that there are events beyond one's control such as planning and starting a family, getting married, being a mother etc., yet male colleagues exploit these to limit the career prospects of women. This study determines whether it is the perception of women workers at the study setting that the enhancement of FFWPs would be a significant intervention measure to enhance their advancement to senior management positions.

2.4.4.3 Making gender sensitisation education mandatory

Mudimba (2017) recommended that the workplace must be made safe and healthy for women particularly in the lower levels of employment, so that they can thrive and compete for promotion on an equal footing as men. Mudimba (2017) argued that gender sensitisation education and specific steps to make the work environment women-friendly must be comprehensively articulated in policy. For instance, according to Mudimba (2017), biologically, women differ from men in so many ways in that they require adequate and quality sanitary facilities and safe and secure changing rooms among other facilities when working underground. Zungu (2012) asserted that save for Anglo-American Gold Mines, which have established and differentiated underground toilet facilities between male and female, most South African mines do not have appropriate or dedicated sanitary facilities for women. Zungu (2012) indicated that female miners are forced to keep their soiled sanitary towels with them when working underground. Zungu (2012) also found that some women suppress the urge to drink water, in order to avoid the need to use unhygienic underground facilities, even though water is essential to avert dehydration from the heat experienced underground.

The aggregate indignity of discrimination and abuse suffered by women at lower levels of the employment ladder act as a psychological and social barrier to women's advancement aspirations and processes (Botha, 2016). Botha (2016) argued that for women to thrive in the workplace, aspire for higher office and be confident enough to acquire skills and education necessary for promotion, toxic and discriminatory organisational culture must be reformed. One way of doing this is to consistently provide gender sensitisation education in the mine (Botha, 2016). Botha (2016) argued that the gender sensitisation education must also consider the race, economy and culture intersectionality within gender issues. This study seeks to determine in the study setting, whether gender sensitisation can be one of the intervention measures that could effectively aid women's career advancement and eventual elevation to senior management or executive level positions.

2.4.4.4 Explicit commitment to gender related ethics

Hill et al. (2016) argued that gender ethics must not be left to the strength of informal organisational culture but must be implicitly written into organisational policy and adhered to. Hill et al. (cited in Mudimba 2017) suggested that addressing gender inequality in the extractive industries demands a fundamental shift within company policy structures. Company policies should include women in the consultation process before the mines come into existence (Hill et al., 2016). This keeps management informed on how to support female employees in the industry (Hill et al., 2016). Mudimba (2017) found that the way women are treated reflects on management's lack of valuable information, which guides the gender policies in the company. The International Labour Organization (ILO) classifies female miners as vulnerable workers, with special occupational health and safety needs, therefore, complimentary legislation such as the BCEA, EEA and LRA are in place to address such issues (Mudimba, 2017). Mudimba (2017) stated that the law requires for instance, that an expecting female employee be relieved of heavy duties or hazardous work and should be assigned at the surface for alternative employment to accommodate the worker and the unborn baby.

Mashiane (2009) found that women feel that they should be afforded the option to participate in the development and implementation of mining company policies, internal monitoring, evaluation, and verification of systems. The policies and systems will ensure that mine management and other mine employees protect and promote women's rights and equality (Mashiane, 2009). In order to encourage and enforce these policies and systems, the company should put in place accountability, verification and incentive mechanisms (Mashiane, 2009). Furthermore, Mashiane (2009) found that some views are that at national level, companies should encourage the government to develop appropriate capacity, allocate enough resources, and foster the political will necessary to advance women. According to Mashiane (2009), women need this support and while some managers are good at this, they later use it against women. This study investigates whether there is a lack of implicitly stated commitment to gender ethics at the chosen setting and if there

is a lack, whether it is the view of women employees that such an intervention would be implementable.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the theoretical framework guiding the study and the existing legal framework regarding women employment, empowerment and advancement in South Africa. Subsequently, the chapter discussed empirical literature under broad themes that mirror the research objectives. The themes explored included factors fomenting the gap between policy and practice in the advancement of women to senior management positions in the mining sector in South Africa. Various acquired gender identities of women, how they affect the advancement to senior management positions and how the negative perceptions of women in leadership affect the desirability of senior management posts for black women in mining, were also explored. Lastly, the chapter discussed ways to enhance more women's advancement to senior management positions.

3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology that was utilised in this study. In particular, the chapter discusses the interpretivist research paradigm, the qualitative research approach, the phenomenological research design, the population and sample size, the probability and simple random sampling techniques. The chapter also discusses the research instruments which are in-depth interviews, observation and document analysis. Subsequently, the validity and reliability of instruments, the data collection procedure, methods of data presentation, analysis and ethical considerations are discussed.

3.2 Research paradigm

The study utilised the interpretivist research paradigm because of its advantage to a study of this nature, which explores gender relations and how they are interpreted particularly by women. A significant advantage of the interpretivist paradigm as noted by Creswell (2007) is that given the diverse nature of phenomena, interpretivist researchers can conduct these types of research in natural settings by utilising a case study to gain the insider's insights of the research objectives to provide more authentic information related to the object of research. Furthermore, Creswell (2007) suggested that one of the crucial methods of interactive interviews is to allow the researcher to investigate the problem and prompt things that cannot be easily observed, researchers can probe the interviewee's values, thoughts, perceptions, prejudices, views, feelings and perspectives. Therefore, as pointed out by Wellington & Czerwinski (2007), valuable data collected provide researchers with better insights for further action.

3.3 Research approach

The study utilised a qualitative research approach. Mack (2010) argued that qualitative research focuses on the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of people

related to a phenomenon. Qualitative data according to Moore & McCabe (2005) consists of open-ended information that the researcher usually gathers through interviews, focus groups and observations. Advantages of qualitative data according to Creswell (2013) are that the data looks deeper than analysing ranks and counts by recording feelings, attitudes and behaviours such as gender stereotyping, sexual harassment and masculine culture. It creates openness by encouraging participants to elaborate on their responses and it can open new topic areas not initially considered. This study seeks to explore in-depth data on the lived experiences of women in mining, therefore, a qualitative approach is best suited for this study.

3.4 Research design

This study deployed the phenomenological research design. According to Christensen et. al. (2010), the primary objective of phenomenological study is to explicate the meaning, structure and essence of the lived experience of a person or a group of people around a specific phenomenon. This study seeks to determine, interpret, and analyse perceptions derived from the experiences of women in mining on the barriers to advancement to senior management or executive level posts.

3.5 Population and sample

A research population is the summation of all the potential elements, participants or setting from where the data relevant to the study was derived (Creswell, 2013). Yin (2010) suggested that often a target population is found within the same setting such as a geographic location like a mine, school or district or a social group such as women, children, social workers, whose common characteristic make them relevant to the research study. The population of the current study consists of six (6) women in core mining, two (2) graduate women in core mining as part of their training (professionals in training), eight (8) women in middle management and four (4) women in senior management at Coal Mine A. Newman (2011) stated that the size of the sample is determined by the type of research that is going to be conducted, that is, whether it is quantitative or qualitative research. Researchers

have defined different criteria for qualitative and quantitative research, but the common thing is that the criteria depend upon population characteristic, types of data and its accuracy as well as degree of confidence (Newman, 2011).

3.6 Sampling techniques

Sampling is a method of assuming information about a whole from a limited number of units (Newman, 2011). The importance of sampling in any type of research is highlighted by Punch (2008), who stated that researchers cannot study everyone, everywhere, doing everything. Sampling decisions are required not only about which people or which events to observe but also about settings and processes. According to Mack (2010), purposive sampling is the most widely used sampling technique in qualitative and phenomenological study. Ideally, the sample represents the whole population on the characteristics of interest to the study subject (Burns & Grove, 2009). As the researcher intends to adopt purposive sampling, the selected individuals were therefore informed about the research problem, its subject and rationale. Judgement sampling is one of the main types of purposive sampling, it is sampling in which the researcher selects only those participants who can answer the research questions (Creswell, 2007). In this study, judgement sampling was used to select participants that are affected by the barriers faced by women in their advancement to senior management positions and who can articulate the related themes. As such women employees across the employment ladder of a particular mine were purposively sampled.

The study relied on simple random sampling to choose which women in core mining were to be included. This is because it was anticipated that there were significantly more women in core mining than in middle and senior management. Creswell (2007) stipulated that simple random sampling is the easiest probability sampling technique in which every element of the population has an equal chance of being selected.

3.7 Data gathering instruments

This study utilised in-depth interviews, observation and document analysis.

3.7.1 In-depth unstructured interviews

Existing literature suggests that interviews are the research method that is used the most by phenomenologists (Humpherys, 2013). According to Humpherys (2013), in-depth interviews are the common method used by phenomenologists for gaining access to an individual's life. In this case, women in mining are the target interviewees, as it is them who are being hindered from advancing to senior management positions. Interviews were conducted on women mine employees because they are affected by the research problem and can best articulate the related themes.

Advantages of in-depth interviews are stipulated by Blommert & Bulcan (2000) and Moore & McCabe (2005). According to Blommert & Bulcan (2000), in-depth interviews provide relevant in-depth insight from the point of view of knowledgeable and experienced respondents. Moore & McCabe (2005) stated that in-depth interviews are also often useful in augmenting the data derived from quantitative methods such as survey questionnaires with in-depth insight of knowledge respondents.

3.7.2 Observation

Observation is a significant method of data collection in phenomenological research (Saunders et al., 2014). According to Creswell (2013), observation is often deployed as a complementary primary data gathering method in qualitative research that often triangulates interviews or document analysis. In this study, it was overtly observed how women employees at Coal Mine A interact with their male colleagues and management in both formal and informal settings.

3.8 Data collection procedure

The study followed a systematic data collection procedure. Before administering data gathering instruments, a clearance certificate was obtained from the University of the Witwatersrand. The researcher then acquired the informed consent of participants by distributing a consent form. Face to face interviews were conducted at the mine premises and via the internet at times convenient and agreed upon with the participants. Observation and document analysis were conducted at the mine premises over the course of a month.

3.9 Validity and reliability

Validity according to Yin (2010) is the research instruments' ability to gather data or measure the variables it is intended to. In this study, validity was ensured by creating an interview guide and an observation checklist that detailed the factors related to the research objectives and the responses to which participants can answer the research questions. The study also ensured validity by using simple and understandable terms that the participant can easily comprehend.

Reliability refers to the consistency of a research instrument, that is, its ability to produce the same results when deployed in the same setting under the same conditions (Saunders et al., 2014). In this study, reliability was ensured by adhering to the same general questions across all participant categories, that is, rank and file women employees, middle level women employees and senior management women employees. Dooley (2012) suggested that reliability of a research instrument is the extent to which it can capture data from a sample that is as representative of the population as possible. This research also ensured the reliability of the instruments by making sure that the instruments were targeted at the relevant strata, that is, women employees at Coal Mine A.

3.10 Methods of data presentation and analysis

The study analysed data observed in the research by utilising tables and charts that easily capture the different varieties of response rate, number of years that the

participants have been working at the mine, entry level qualification of participants and gender of their immediate supervisor. The study presented the questions asked, the responses from the participants and drew a conclusion from these.

3.11 Triangulation

This study utilised data triangulation, which is also referred to as data sources triangulation. It represents the use of multiple data sources in the same study for validation purposes. According to Denzin (2008), there are three types of data triangulation namely, time, space and person. These types of data triangulation come as the result of the idea that the robustness of data can vary based on the time data were collected, people involved in the data collection process and the setting from which data were collected (Begley, 2006). The study triangulated data from interviews, observation and document analysis.

3.12 Ethical considerations

This study observed several necessary ethical considerations. According to Denzin (2008), the research must protect the anonymity and confidentiality of research participants. In this study, the researcher first obtained all the necessary approvals and permission to conduct research from the University. Informed consent according to Neuman (2011) is a voluntary agreement given by the participant to the researcher after having all the aspects of the research such as the study nature, study subject, purpose and scope, disclosed and explained. All the participants were notified of all the aspects of the research and its nature, purpose, duration and significance, so that they could participate willingly. Denzin (2008) suggested that informed consent can be formally written down on a form, but it is more than a signed form. Consent forms were provided to the participants to formalise the voluntary agreement to participate.

Neuman (2011) added that the purpose of informed consent is to recognise the vital ethical principle of individual personal autonomy. Voluntary provision of data by participants enhances the integrity of the study, as it increases the likelihood that

the data provided is honest and objective (Neuman, 2011). This is particularly important in a study of this nature where participants must feel free to share their perceptions on issues affecting their own work. Anonymity of participants was ensured by not revealing their identities to minimise the risk of victimisation or reprisal, given that the participant may have to be critical of their colleagues or superiors. According to Saunders et al. (2014), it is critical that the participants are afforded anonymity to ensure that they do not suffer occupational, social or legal liabilities and hazards due to them participating in the study. In this study, data is presented in a way that makes identifying data obscure and more generalised. Raw data and research instruments were well handled and not marked in a manner that would reveal the specific identity of the participant.

Raw data and recorded audio were not shared with anyone and were destroyed after being transcribed and analysed. Confidentiality is observed for the same purposes of anonymity, that is, to avoid reprisals and victimisation of participants (Creswell, 2013). Saunders et al. (2014) stated that seeking permission from institutions ensures that those institutions are given the opportunity to protect themselves from any liability that may arise from the study and that the study may lead to an improvement in the institution's own internal system. For this study, permission was given by Coal Mine A's management to conduct the study.

3.13 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology that was used. In particular, the chapter discussed the interpretivist research paradigm, the qualitative research approach, the phenomenological research design, the sample group and sample size, the probability and simple random sampling techniques. Subsequently the chapter discusses the validity and reliability of instruments, the data collection procedure, data presentation methods, data analysis as well as ethical considerations made were discussed.

4 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents, analyses the data and discusses the research findings based on the responses to each research question. The findings are presented in a manner that answers the research questions and categorises them in different broad themes. Primary factors that impede women in becoming senior or executive managers in the mining industry and how variously acquired gender identities have affected black women's advancement to executive management level posts in the mining industry, are elaborated. The impact of national and local policies on the challenges women face in the mining industry and how these policies and intervention can support transformation of gender relations in order to advance gender, are also discussed. Table 4.1 represents the target and actual figures of the responses from each category.

Table 4-1: Response rate

Participants	Targeted responses	Actual responses
Women in core mining	10	8
Women in middle management	10	8
Women in senior management	5	4
Total	25	20

4.2 Data presentation and analysis

The questions asked to the participants are elaborated below as well as their responses and the conclusion derived. A table summary is indicated in Appendix 4

4.2.1 For how long have you been employed at the mine?

Most of the women in core mining indicated that they had less than 5 years of work experience at the mine as shown in Figure 4.1. Since it was discovered later in the study that most of the women at middle management and senior management posts had not been elevated from core mining, it was then assumed that this may be because women in core mining often leave the industry after a few years. Secondary data also indicated that the labour turnover rate of women in core mining was reported at 44% at the mine. Most of the women in middle management and senior management indicated that they had between 5 years and 10 years' worth of work experience at the mine. This may suggest that middle management and senior management level employment, which tends to be more guided by formal encounters as compared to the informal culture of underground work in core mining, may be a more tolerable workspace for women at the mine. However, none of the participants had less than 12 months' work experience at the mine which is satisfactory that the data collected was from a sample that was experienced enough to be aware and likely to articulate the themes of the study well. The number of years at the mine of the participants of this research are shown in Figure 4.1.

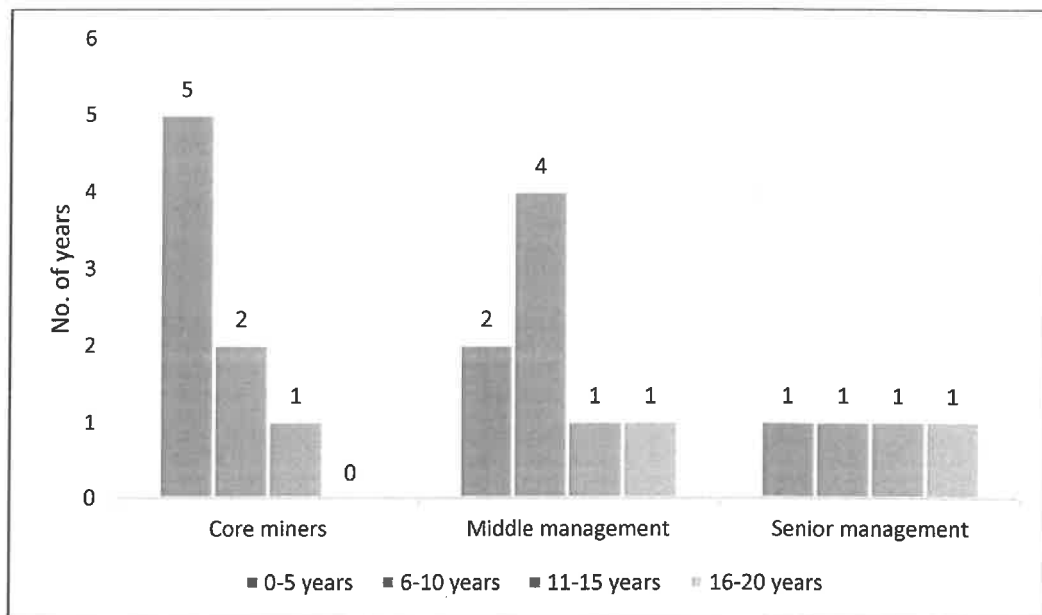


Figure 4-1: Number of years working the mine of participants

4.2.2 What were your entry level qualifications, and have you had the opportunity to upgrade them?

This question was posed to women in core mining and those in middle management to determine whether there was a culture of developing and preparing women for leadership positions within the mine. Most of the participants indicated that they joined their positions with either a national diploma, a degree or a post graduate qualification. Figure 4.2 indicates the entry level of the participants.

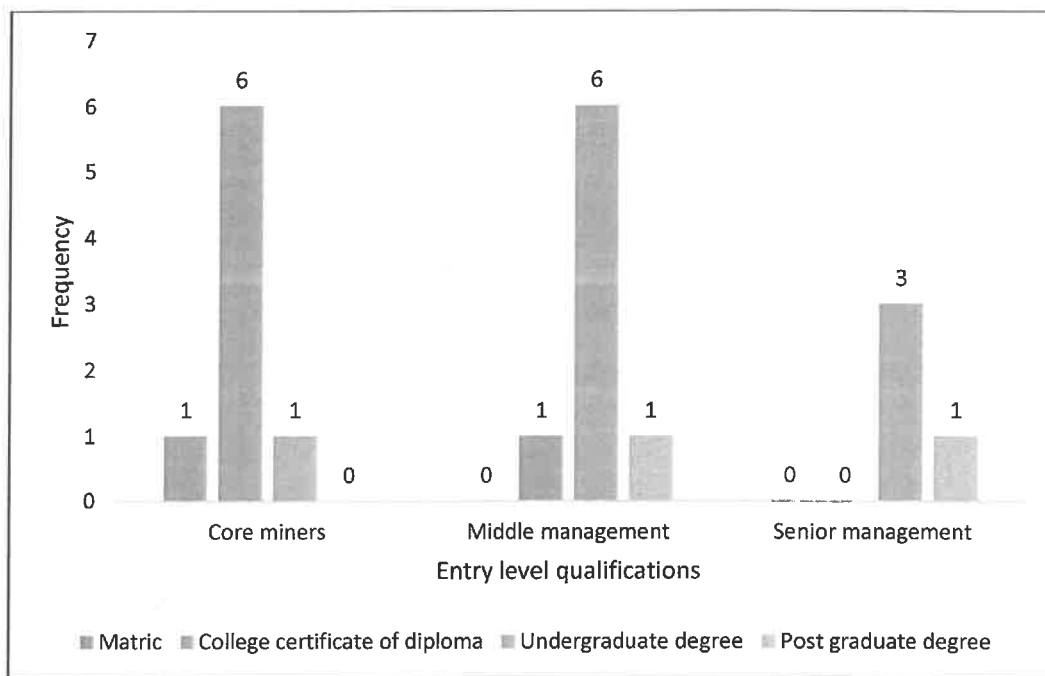


Figure 4-2: Entry level qualifications of participants

Most of the women in core mining indicated that they can only upgrade their skills through courses that are provided by the mine, as those courses are directly linked to core mining practices. Most of them indicated that they had not had the opportunity to privately upgrade their educational qualifications for reasons that ranged from limited finances to limited time. The responses on the other hand, revealed a mix of women that had not upgraded their qualifications and those that had. What was clearer, however, was that the upgrade of these educational qualifications was private and at personal cost and was not facilitated or funded by

the mine as the mine can only sponsor limited number of employees. Getting educational funding from the mine is a subjective process, which results in most women being discouraged to even apply for it. Therefore, the responses indicate that the mine does not generally provide adequate support for women in core mining and middle management to upgrade their educational qualifications that would make them more suitable for higher level positions.

4.2.3 At what level did you join the mine?

This question was posed to women in middle and senior management positions to ascertain whether there is a culture of elevating women from middle management to senior leadership positions within the mine. 100% of the women in middle management indicated that their entry level was middle management, while only one woman in senior management's entry level was middle management. 75% of the women in senior management joined the mine at senior management positions. None of the women had been elevated from core mining. 38% of these women indicated that they joined the mining industry as graduate trainees, which is virtually a middle management entry level and they are in core mining as part of their training requirements.

4.2.4 Is your immediate supervisor male or female?

This question was asked to women in core mining and middle management to establish the proportion of women that had women mentors and role models as this tends to affect the ability and aspirations of women at core mining and middle management to scale up the ladder to senior management positions. It was discovered that 100% of the women in core mining, who participated in the questionnaire had male supervisors as shown in Figure 4.3. 75% of the women in middle management also indicated that their immediate supervisors were male. This combined with secondary data derived from the mine indicates that there is

Thirty eight percent of women in leadership roles in general but also that there are significantly fewer (5%) women leaders in core mining, which makes it immensely difficult to gain promotion up the ladder. To respond to the posed question one participant in core mining had this to say:

“No, women leaders in core mining is a rarity. Underground work is a boys club, even if you prove yourself as a woman, the informal nature of selection is such that male colleagues push each other towards leadership roles and are cynical towards women leaders”.

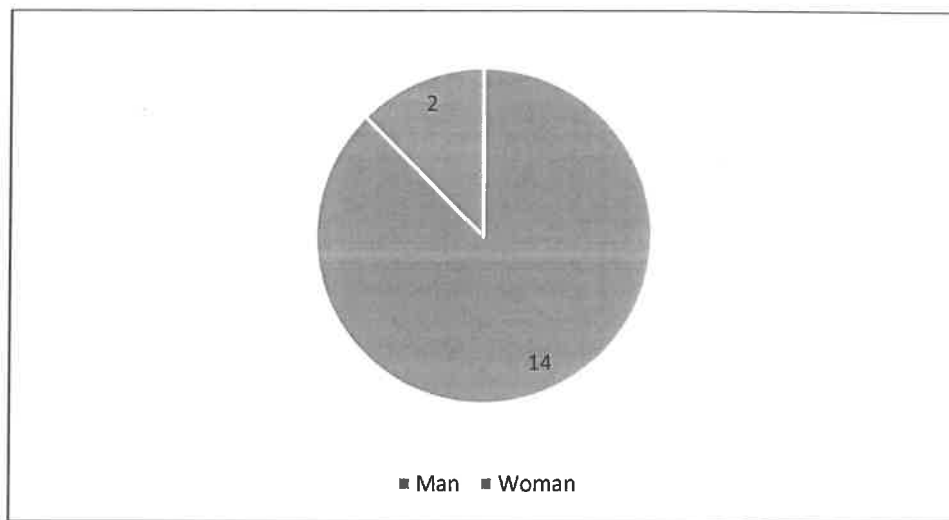


Figure 4-3: Gender of immediate supervisor/superior

Secondary data also showed that even in workers representative bodies, there is only 22% of female representation at the mine. Even though the proportion of women increased slightly up the ladder, the proportion of women leaders remained very low as compared to that of male colleagues.

4.2.5 How have you adapted to the labour-intensive and often male dominated work environment?

This question was asked to women in core mining and middle management to determine if they had to adopt gender performances and consequently, acquire

gender identities they deemed necessary to be able to navigate the masculine culture at the mine and what effect that had on their career advancement prospects. 75% of the women participant, with a 100% in core mining indicated that they had to be more masculine, louder and suppressive of any attribute or emotion that would be construed by male colleagues as too feminine, weak and therefore, not suited to the mine environment. One participant from core mining had this to say:

“The strenuous physical labour is not an issue for me- I can handle that, I was/am prepared for that. It is the intensive emotional labour that is exhausting. The constant navigation on how to speak to certain people, the people management, dealing with various emotions. Vitamin B shots and exercise help a lot”.

Five of the eight women in middle management, who responded also expressed that their gender performances were rather varied as they had to adapt to different cultures dominant in different mine spaces. For instance, some women, indicated that when around some female and male colleagues and subordinates in core mining, they had to be informal, more assertive and exhibit less of the stereotypical feminine traits. However, the same women indicated that they had to be more formal but still firm and more elegant when engaging with superiors in senior management or middle management peers. This, according to the women, is so as to retain respect but also not be deemed as aloof, snappy or the stereotypical “hysterical” female employee. One participant from middle management was quoted as saying:

“It is a daily mind wreck thinking of how to act or conduct ourselves as women in this workplace so that on the one hand we project ourselves as assertive and powerful and on the other hand not seem too bossy or so called “off-putting” because of stereotypes. So depending on the situation in a single day I can be any sort of woman”.

It was however inherent in the responses that more middle management women found it slightly easier to adapt to the male dominated environment than women in core mining as put plainly by one participant in middle management who said:

“It’s easier as a professional as you tend to be given more respect than women in core mining”.

The male dominated environment at the mine forces women to adopt most masculine gender performances and sometimes, women in middle management have to temper this masculinity with some elegance depending on what mine space they are navigating. The data also clearly shows that women in middle management find it slightly easier to adapt to the mine environment than women in core mining even though both sets of women are negatively affected by the male domination.

4.2.6 Do you aspire to an executive level management post? If not, why not?

This was put to women in core mining and middle management to determine whether the mine environment had caused their career aspirations to wane. 63% of the women indicated that they aspired to occupy senior management level posts. However, it was notable that 75% of those who answered in the negative, were women in core mining. This suggests that women in core mining may have been exposed to disheartening gender discrimination more than women in middle management. This was indicated by one participant in core mining who said:

“No, I do not aspire for promotion in the mining sector. In general, I do aspire to scale the employment ladder but in another less male dominated industry”.

Similarly, one participant from middle management had this to say:

“Not anymore. I have also realized with peers the need to give up family and wellbeing for the sake of excelling in senior roles so as a questioner I naturally want to meet inner expectations more than outer expectations”.

The study found that while 63% of the women do aspire to higher or senior managerial level posts, 75% of women in core mining would want their chances of career progression elsewhere away from the male-dominated mining sector.

4.2.7 How does the male-domination of the mine environment affect the prospects of women leadership both formally and informally?

This question was posed to women in core mining and middle management, 38% indicated that male colleagues generally projected a conduct and behaviour that suggests that they do not think that women belong in the mine and therefore, simply treat them like they have to tolerate them as they are not valid colleagues. According to the participants, this has the effect of denying them mentorship and hinders their path to senior management, as selection of leadership roles is heavily influenced by an informal culture at the mine. One participant in core mining was quoted as saying:

“Male dominated environments purposely try to suffocate women, to the point where they quit and leave so they can say they reinforce the notion that the environment was not suited for the position in the first place. Men have a ‘brotherhood’ where they will create a safe space for each other for opportunities and mentorship. The same grace is not extended to women and it never will”.

Concurring with other participants, another participant in core mining had this to say:

“Even if you tough it out and earn your place, there will never be a seat for you at the table- not as an equal. This patriarchal system (at time) breeds women who cannot/do not/purposely don’t create a safe space for the young women who come in after them. We cannot blame them for who they had to become in order to survive a system that was not made for them, they had to assimilate in order to survive. Even if there are those women who do create safe spaces for young women, they are few and far apart. This creates a cycle where young women entering mining are left to fend for themselves as there are no mentors and leaders to guide them - both formally and informally”.

This was supported by a participant from middle management who had this to say:

“Normally men would take preference mostly; a woman will have to work extra hard and put in extra effort to be viewed in the same manner as an average performing male figure”.

Similarly, another participant in middle management said:

"Males are naturally preferred for senior roles. If a woman gets appointed in a senior position, it's usually to fill statistics. Most women in the mine are in administrative roles, which puts men at a competitive advantage to "scoop" the senior roles".

Six of the 16 women who participated indicated that the male-dominated culture at the mine did not affect their prospects at all as was uttered by one participant in middle management who said:

"Personally, I have experienced black males and females on my level and above that support me in my role and forever setting me up for success. So male domination is not a problem"

It was however evident from the data that 63% of the women at the mine are negatively affected by the male-dominated culture, which places them at a disadvantage when informal considerations for leadership roles are being made, as male colleagues support each other and tend to be cynical of women leaders.

4.2.8 Do you feel that women have the same opportunity to develop their skills and knowledge as men, and if not why?

This question was asked to women in core mining and middle management to ascertain whether the mine provided equal opportunities for career development. 67% of the responses was a decisive "no". The same 67% of these participants indicated that both organisational culture and the multiple socially-constructed roles of women meant that they had less support, less time and less funding to develop their educational qualifications and skill base. One such participant from middle management had his to say:

"Not really. Male colleagues will delay your development while they are developing each other".

Another participant, who concurred, said:

"No. A man will always be chosen and prioritized over a woman. It's a system which has been built to drive out women- no one can ever grow without being watered".

Thirty three percent of the participants, however, answered in the affirmative, suggesting that women could as easily upgrade their skills and education as men. It was also notable that this minority group was made up of middle management employees as there is a tendency at the mine to employ women to middle management that already had a bachelor's degree or a related level qualification and, in some cases, even higher qualification. For instance, one participant from middle management had this to say:

"Yes, they do as times have changed, though they will definitely need to push extra hard in order to stand out and be afforded the same opportunity as an average performing man".

Collectively however, the data shows that 67% women feel they do not have the same opportunity to develop their skills as men do at the mine and the reasons generally range from limited consideration and support by the mine to the various gender roles that a woman had to perform at work, at home and in the community.

4.2.9 Do you know any women who have advanced from core mining all the way to executive level within the company? If not, what might be the reasons?

This question was asked to women in core mining and middle management, to ascertain whether there was a culture of elevating women through the ranks from core mining positions. The question also wanted to determine the existence of women role models and the women's mindfulness of the prospect and possibility of scaling the ladder to senior leadership positions. However, 100% of the responses were in the negative as none of the women were aware of any woman that was in an executive level position at the mine that had been elevated gradually from core mining. This was articulated by one participant in core mining who was quoted as saying:

"No. They have not been chosen to fill up said positions, they were not voted into those seats, they were not given the opportunity to take up that space".

It is clear from the data that there is no culture within the mine, of women elevation through the ranks from core mining to executive level posts. This may have the effect of communicating a message to women in core mining that they should not expect to be promoted and may extinguish their enthusiasm at career advancement, if any.

4.2.10 What perception do you think male colleagues have of women leaders?

This question was asked to all participants in core mining, middle management and senior level management to determine whether the perception of male colleagues towards women leadership was one that effectively discourages women leadership at all levels of employment at the mine. Nearly all participants indicated that the perception of male colleagues towards women leaders was negative, cynical and often doubtful of the competency of women to lead. In expressing this view, one participant from core mining said:

“They think that women leaders are emotional and difficult. That they are unnecessarily irate when they demand respect or even give instructions, the same thing their male counterparts would be praised for”.

Another participant in core mining had this to say:

“They don’t take them serious. They don’t think they are competent to do the job. Some even think these women slept their way to the top”.

Another participant in senior management concurred and said:

“Very little respect. They think those women are there to fill statistics. Their inputs and opinions are not taken into consideration. For the woman to be recognized as an equal, she has to work 10 times harder and that’s a sad reality.

Similarly, a participant from middle management had this to say:

“As much as we have made great strides – inclusion/diversity wise.....there’s still the perception that women are of the weaker sex.

For black females and our cultural norms, it's often difficult to challenge the status quo as it comes across as being disrespectful".

Thirty percent of the participants however indicated a positive perception of women leaders from male colleagues, and this was overwhelmingly in the minority. The study finds therefore that a negative, skeptical and doubtful perception of women leadership was adopted by male colleagues at the mine.

4.2.11 What perception do you think management has of women?

This question was put only to women in core mining and those in middle management as it is, they that could give a more objective assessment as they were not in senior management. 16% of the responses indicated that management at the mine appeared to only elevate women to senior management just to comply with the bare minimum of the government mandated quotas. The participants suggested that apart from complying with government policy, management did not project a conduct or tradition that was particularly endorsing of women leadership. Alluding to this view one participant from middle management had this to say:

"It is the same as that of men in general, just more condescending".

This was echoed by another participant in core mining who was quoted as saying:

"That they do not belong in management and are only suited for more 'femme' portfolios like Human Resources".

Similarly, another participant in core mining had this to say:

"I think management is hiring women to be compliant with employment equity act, which stipulate that a company needs to hire a certain percentage of women as well as a certain number of people of colour".

The data therefore leads to the finding that management has a perception of women leaders that only extends to their compliance with the law of quotas but other than that they are not of a positive disposition towards women leadership.

4.2.12 Of the women that are in senior management positions, have any advanced from lower levels of employment or most are employed from outside?

This was asked to core mining and middle management participants for pragmatic reasons. All the participants indicated that 75% of the women in senior management positions were employed from outside as there was no robust culture of elevation from within the mine. The participants suggested that because of the masculine culture at the mine, management probably feels that a woman elevated from within the mine may not command adequate respect from particularly male subordinates as compared to a new face brought in externally. This was concisely articulated by one participant from middle management who said:

"They are mostly hired from outside. The company will "develop" women up to D4 (section manager) level. To go up from there is nearly impossible to put it mildly".

This was re-enforced by a response from a participant in core mining who said:

"Those that I know of have been part of graduate programs, which is not necessarily lower level. I do not know of a woman who started off as an operator, or assistant and climbed to a senior management position; but most men in a senior management position have a rag to riches (assistant to Head of Department) story".

Another participant in core mining said:

"Most are employed from outside and it's because of the politics within the sector that leads to that, I have seen most people act in a position for a year or two (people with relevant papers) only for the company to hire someone from outside".

The data suggests therefore that only as a desire to satisfy government mandated gender quotas, management at the mine hire women to executive level posts mostly from outside the organisation, as there is no broad tradition of elevating women from core mining. This is a hindrance to lower level women's aspiration of advancing to executive level posts at the mine.

4.2.13 What factors in your personal and home life would you say are barriers to your career development?

Sixty two comma five percent of the participants indicated that there was a lack of support structures within and outside the mine for them to develop themselves and become more suitably educated and skilled for executive level posts. 75% of the participants indicated that the multiple societal roles and socio-economic disadvantages that confronted women at the mine were significant barriers. 68.8% of the women also indicated that toxic masculinity, a management that was sometimes aloof to the idea of women elevation and leadership unless it was government-mandated, were all significant hindrances. Many of the participants indicated too that low entry level was particularly inhibiting of black women. This was in part alluded to by one participant from senior management, who was quoted as saying:

"The support structure is often not strong enough...you have to shine your own light; some people are not accepting that a female has the intellectual ability to resolve problems which have been continuing for years. They hold on to the historical knowledge whilst ignoring the new age efficient information".

A participant from core mining indicated that the multiple societal roles she had to play as a woman were particularly inhibiting and shows the need for support and teamwork at home and from the society at large when she said:

"A family, kids to be specific. It is difficulty to study when I get home. When I get home, I am tired from the 9 hours I have spent at work, I still have to cook, bath my son by the time I finish I am exhausted".

Similarly, another participant from middle management also suggested that various gender roles for women tended to delay their career advancement, as sometimes management does provide enough support for these gender roles not to be an obstacle. The participant said:

"I'm simply stuck in the wrong gender...LOL! Women go on maternity leave, stay in hospital with their sick children, take the time off to attend to kids' school matters etc. So that naturally puts men at an advantage. Patriarchy...one of the major enemies to career growth".

Another participant from middle management had this to say:

“Unwillingness to give up family and social time to spend more time at work. I would be more inspired to take a senior role if expectations did not require me to put in overtime. I also don’t have a partner or kids, but I still want my self-care time even if it means having time for the gym”.

It can be deduced from the responses that factors from personal and home life are acting as barriers to the career development of women at the mine. The multiple gender roles they have to perform and the lack of management support result in these roles being an obstacle to career development. Modern literature on gender and the theoretical framework guiding this study argues that there should not have to be a choice between home commitments and career advancement, if support structures are present at work to cater for these multiple commitments.

4.2.14 Do you feel that women have the same opportunity for promotion to executive level management posts as men?

This question was asked to women in core mining and middle management, who were likely to give a more objective assessment of the chances provided for promotion to executive level management posts. An overwhelming majority of responses indicated that women do not have the same opportunity for promotion to executive level management posts as men because the informal culture was that a male candidate was the de facto front runner unless the promotion specifically sought to elevate or appoint a woman to fill government mandated quotas. This was particularly emphasised by one participant in core mining who had this to say:

“No, because such decisions are often made informally and endorsed in the formal protocols. Among ourselves in core mining, often the informal and appointed leaders of our squads are men, so it is nearly impossible to get informal support from the “boys club”.

Another participant from middle management said:

“No, I do not think so. Women are perceived as homemakers and that limits their chances of promotions compared to men. Most

women who get opportunities for a promotion are those that are unmarried without children”.

One participant however expressed a minority view when she said:

“Yes, you just have to prove yourself”.

The data from the interviews conducted indicates strongly that women do not have the same opportunities for promotion to executive level posts and this was reflected in the document analysis, which revealed that women in the executive level accounted for only 30% while black women were 17%.

In order to determine management and general perception towards women leadership and treatment of female senior managers at the mine, the next set of questions were posed exclusively to the women senior managers at the mine.

4.2.15 Were you in competition with male aspirants for the post?

Only one of the women participants indicated that they were in competition with a male aspirant, which suggests that the rest of the appointments may have been merely to comply with regulations regarding women representation in senior management at the mine. This may be indicative that the mine does not regularly appoint women outside of the government mandates.

4.2.16 If you advanced to senior management from lower levels of employment at the mine, what challenges did you face in your aspiration to a senior position?

A minority of the women were elevated from lower levels to higher levels because, as already established in this study, most of the appointments for women at this level were from outside of the company. However, one-woman participant elevated from a lower level of employment indicated that the challenge she mostly faced was that:

“Often males were preferred at those positions”.

This again suggests that even though the legislation and government initiatives advocates for elevating women, particularly black women to senior leadership positions, there is little enthusiasm by management at the mine to comply.

4.2.17 Did you develop your professional skills and knowledge within the mining industry or prior to joining it?

To determine whether the women that had been appointed to senior management position had been groomed by the industry, participants in senior management positions were asked this question. All the participants indicated that they had indeed earned their qualifications while they were in the mining industry as one of the participants suggested:

“Yes definitely, the mining industry has significantly impacted not only my professional skills and knowledge base but also my emotional intelligent, it also helped build my resilience. I believe I have become more resilient and goal orientated”.

However, some of the participants indicated that this does not imply that the mining industry and mine of current employment was responsible for developing the skills of women as many of the women that are appointed to senior level posts join the mines after graduating from college/university and often as graduate trainees. One participant said:

“Yes, within the mine but not at the expense of the mine. I already had a B-Tech when I joined and have since upgraded those qualifications in my own time”.

The data shows that all the women in senior mining positions at the mine have always been in the mining industry, gained their educational qualifications and skills within the industry but were not always developed by the mine. Their initial qualifications where at their own expense and time.

4.2.18 What challenges have you faced as a woman in a senior management post at a mine?

Most of the women indicated that they experienced discrimination, being looked down upon, condescension and second guessing particularly from male colleagues,

as the challenges that they endured as women in senior management. One participant answered:

"Discrimination, second guessing"

One of the participants indicated, however, that they had not experienced any challenges. However, when the majority responses are considered, it is highly likely that women senior managers are discriminated against at the mine and have to prove themselves more than male managers.

4.2.19 Do you feel pressured to be more proficient in your role than a male colleague? If so, why do you think that is?

All of the participants in senior management indicated in the affirmative, suggesting that they were more strictly scrutinised, and their work more harshly evaluated, and it was their perception that this was because of their gender more than their competence. As one of the participants commented:

"Yes. We are not believed that we're capable of doing this".

Another participant indicated, however, that this initial skepticism often wanes when the women demonstrate their competence when she said:

"Yes, initially, but they tend to change their perceptions once they see us perform".

The data leads to the finding that whether temporary or sustained, women in senior management generally experience discrimination and second guessing at the mine.

4.2.20 Do you feel that your input in meetings and on important decisions is valued the same as that of male colleagues?

It was the perception of most of the participants in senior management that sometimes they were not respected as they should be as senior managers. The participants indicated that while male colleagues maintained some decorum in formal meetings, informally, they were crass and critical of them as women senior managers. This was reflected in part by one participant's response when she said:

“Only in three jobs out of the 20-year career that I felt valued otherwise the respect is not as forthcoming as it should be neither is it befitting my status as a senior manager”.

Another manager had this to say:

“Sometimes when I say something or give an instruction, it must be repeated by a male colleague for it to be carried out”.

The data shows therefore that women in senior management positions at the mine are not afforded the same level of respect as male colleagues that are at the same level.

4.2.21 Do you always feel respected by male subordinates at the mine?

Most of the women indicated that their interaction with male subordinates was limited but, in their view, they do not experience blatant disrespect from subordinates because their positions have real power and can influence disciplinary procedures and even dismissal. One participant had this to say:

“They have no choice. Have never felt blatant disrespect”.

Senior managers therefore do not generally experience disrespect from male subordinates at the mine.

4.2.22 How may the mining industry enhance the prospects of women being promoted to executive level management posts?

A variety of suggestions was offered up by participants on this question that was asked of all participants. The predominant suggestion was that expanding the opportunities for skills development and knowledge acquisition especially at core mining level would significantly elevate women. Another prominent suggestion was that the mine had to deconstruct the toxic masculine and patriarchal culture that dominated informal interactions at the mine. Furthermore, most of the participants suggested that impartial consideration in promotion and a sincere implementation of government policy were also possible solutions, while other participants called for broader work-life balance policies. One participant from middle management indicated that more space must be provided to women to acquire and use their

learned skills in their various jobs and that consideration for promotion must be impartial when she said:

“Evenly distribute the admin roles between men and women. Be intentional about this kind of transformation. Actively expose women to management and executive roles, even if they shadow a few executives. Take women on meaningful courses such as leadership and executive courses. Allow women to implement what they learn from those courses. Make them act in prominent roles. Appoint them in those roles. Have serious and meaningful conversations around gender equality, gender pay gap etc. Involve them in decision-making meetings and consider their voice”.

This was in part supported by another participant from core mining, who simply suggested that masculine and patriarchal cultures had to be deconstructed at the mine when she said:

“We need a just and fair environment, which is free from patriarchy”.

Another participant from senior management indicated that management simply needed to fully implement government policy on the representation of women in senior level management positions in saying:

“Policies are there, just practice what is preached”.

Another participant indicated that there was a need to address the intersectionality between gender and race when she said:

“Closing the racial gender pay gap”.

It is abundantly clear from the data that the participants have an array of possible mitigation measures that may be implemented to combat the barriers they face in their aspiration for advancement to senior level posts.

4.3 Discussion of findings

The next sub sections consist of the major findings and their implications to the research questions:

4.3.1 The primary factors that impede women in becoming senior or executive managers in the mining industry and how do national and local policies ameliorate or exacerbate these challenges

The findings indicate that across all employment levels, there exists a toxic masculinity at the mine that was studied, in which men tend to group together as a boys club that offers no mentorship to women, that neither respects nor values the contribution of women and is generally cynical towards women leadership. The findings also indicated that to gain some acceptance and adapt to the culture in core mining, the women often had to adopt masculine identities that is modelled along that of male colleagues. This is particularly so in spaces such as underground mines, where informal culture is dominant. However, because the mine itself has many spaces such as the surface, boardroom, cafeteria, clinic etc., women find themselves having to adopt various gender performances that would help them better navigate the different spaces in the mine and the cultures dominant in them. This however, ironically, and in the view of male colleagues at least, makes them unsuitable for leadership positions. Therefore, in the informal considerations for elevation up the ladder, women, particularly those in core mining are always in second place to a male aspirant unless the intended promotion is to fulfil government mandated quotas. This corroborates the findings that Mashiane (2009) made in her own study. As was reflected in literature, Mashiane (2009) found that because women are generally perceived to not be able to perform tasks in the labour-intensive environment of the mine, they strive daily to prove that they can pull their weight physically and socially within masculine culture. As such, this daily challenge tends to gradually eclipse career development in the list of priorities. Mashiane (2009) argued that in adapting to masculine culture, women sometimes shed or hide qualities such as empathy and compassion that may be considered feminine yet are more suited to executive level jobs.

The findings show that multiple societal and cultural roles are an immense challenge to the advancement of women to senior positions at the mine particularly for those in core mining. This finding is like that made by Benya (2009), who found

that an African woman's day is stacked with multiple roles that they are expected to fulfil seamlessly, and these often cause them to sacrifice personal aspirations in the workplace. In this current study, it was found that women at all levels of the employment ladder at the mine, constantly must fulfil various socially-constructed gender roles in the home and community and still must compete with men who do not perform so many socio-cultural roles for promotion and recognition at work. This was also alluded to by Benya (2009) when she found that besides the practical challenges such as a lack of time for skills development and knowledge acquisition, womanhood as socially-constructed, both consciously and sub-consciously promote self-sacrifice and selflessness.

The findings indicate that there are limited opportunities for women to develop leadership qualifications and competencies presented by the mine. One of the reasons could be that gender policy places more emphasis on the appointment of women at various levels of employment and little emphasis on the preparation or development of women for various roles including leadership roles within the mining. Therefore, a lot of discretion is left to the internal politics and ethics of the mine to determine how women assume positions of leadership. As such, at this mine, most of the women in middle management and senior management are not elevated along the ladder from core mining, middle management to senior management. Rather, the company mostly hires accomplished women from outside the mine to fill the required quota of women at the mine in order to comply with government-mandated policy on gender equality. Furthermore, a lot of the women in middle management are employed to those jobs as graduate trainees and often the educational training is not an initiative that is driven by the company but a personal initiative of the individual graduate trainee. This implies that the company does not bare much responsibility in training, developing and preparing women, particularly those in core mining, for leadership positions. The company also does not have a clear and defined succession plan.

As discussed above, the findings have shown that both competing family, community and work roles as well as limited motivation exist from the organisation

to train and develop women leaders at the mine. Therefore, black women, who make up most of the women complement in core mining, are at an increased disadvantage economically and culturally. As the data has shown, most of the women in core mining have only upgraded their core mining skills such as CM operator, Roof bolter operator and the Mine Health and Safety Act regulation rep since joining the mine because these are essential to the company. However, none of the women have been able to acquire advanced degrees/qualifications such as the National Diploma in Mining or a BSc in Mining Engineering degree that would place them in a position to be considered for career elevation. One of the reasons recurring in the responses was limited financial resources. This suggests that black women, who are historically and disproportionately at a disadvantage economically, find it harder to scale the ladder than women of other races at the mine, who are often of a financially sound background and enter the mine at the graduate trainee level. Secondary data has also shown that most women of other races at the mine occupy middle and senior management level positions at the mine and attain higher educational qualifications prior to joining the mine. Whereas, most black women's entry level is core mining with matric or national certificates. These low entry level and lesser economic opportunities for educational advancement have led to the limited advancement of black women to senior management positions as in Mashiane's (2009) study. She found that this is one of the reasons that often causes a higher likelihood that a senior management female employee is white because historically, black women have been the most socio-economically disadvantaged, while white women have been on the other end of the socio-economic spectrum. Therefore, the socio-economic disadvantage of black women also feeds into their cultural disadvantage because by the time they are employed at the mine, they are hindered from improving their educational qualifications because culturally, black women have vastly more gender-related responsibilities in the home and community. This was alluded to by Khoza (2012), who argued that even in this modern era, which has become more gender sensitive and conscious, African women do not readily pursue personal ambitions as they are tied to their multiple socially constructed societal roles in the home, community and workplace.

A limited consideration of the intersectionality of race and gender poses a barrier that is often ignored by policy and research for black women, who aspire to senior level posts. Policy ascribes quotas to black people, and other quotas to black women without acknowledging the disproportional disadvantage that black women have compared to black men in the mining sector. This, as secondary data attested to, creates the situation where the mine can satisfy government policy by filling the black quota with black men and the women quota with non-black women. The gender-race struggle also comes in effect in the treatment of women in mid-level and senior management positions in general in the industry, respect would rather be given to a male colleague than a female colleague. This is a psycho-social stereotype that may have been perpetuated by years of an absence of women and black women leaders in the mining industry. This is a finding that is akin to that of Ramphela (2008), who asserted that the intersectionality of gender and race is often not considered seriously when devising empowerment and gender mainstreaming initiatives. Ramphela (2008) also found that because culturally, most black women are not as liberal as white women because they (black women) are tied to the home, the extended family and the community, therefore, these multiple roles and preoccupations should be considered when crafting empowerment initiatives.

4.3.2 How variously acquired gender identities have affected black women's advancement to executive management level posts in the mining industry?

An interesting finding can be made from the responses, particularly of women in core mining regarding the impact of how the variously acquired gender identities have affected black women's advancement to executive management level posts in the mining industry. In trying to adapt and fit in to the mine environment, women in core mining adopt masculine gender performances in informal spaces such as underground to the effect that they unknowingly perpetuate a culture that is aloof to entry level women that join the mine after them. As such, these women, much like the men they mold their gender performance around, do not offer a mentorship or role model relationship to other newly recruited women. Ironically, it is that same

masculine gender identity that women in core mining carve out to adapt to and navigate the various mine spaces, that seems to speak against the women in informal considerations for leadership positions. The data suggests that while women in core mining must develop a thick, resilient personality to tough it out in the labour-intensive underground working areas, that same personality is however also considered, by most male colleagues and superiors, as incompatible with the gracious yet firm and elegant yet resolute demeanour of a leader. It can therefore be inferred that for women in core mining, a catch-22 exists in that adapting often comes with sacrificing their opportunities for advancement, at least in the informal dynamics of the mine environment that dominate culture and inform the formal procedures at the organisation. This is relatable to the findings of Mashiane (2009), who found that women rarely rise through the ranks from core mining jobs because management cannot reconcile the gender identities that work for women at that lower level with their idea of an executive level employee. Similarly, in their study to determine women's prospects for career advancement at a mine in South Africa, Moalusi & Jones (2019) found that in regular activities, women in core mining were marginalised and forced by a culture of male domination to emulate masculinity therefore legitimising existing gender barriers. This is also explained by the institutional ethnography theory of gender which suggests that, unfortunately, by being forced to conform to their various environments, women subconsciously partake in the culture of discrimination in those spaces.

The situation is slightly different for women in middle management and senior management positions. Many of these women are not elevated from core mining therefore they are not exposed to the kind of informal underground culture that would lead them to fashion a masculine gender identity that most women in core mining seemingly do. They are however affected by it. The data shows that most of the women in middle and senior management are employed from outside the organisation and do not often work in core mining before elevation to middle and senior management. Therefore, they do not acquire a masculine gender identity and are often considered by male colleagues to have not been prepared for leadership in

a mine by working in the labour-intensive and mostly informal underground. Even though masculine gender identity is not a formal requirement it becomes part of the informal qualifiers to a leadership position. The findings show that most of these women adopt gender performances that seek to counter this notion, to constantly prove themselves to male colleagues that they are as firm, competent and commanding as their male colleagues. However, as the responses indicate, this creates another challenge. If the women in middle management and senior management appear too tough, they are also labeled irrational, temperamental and not suited to leadership positions. This affects the women's approach to work as they constantly must assume one identity or the other to appease colleagues or superiors and command respect from subordinates in one mine space or the other. It therefore can be surmised that informal and socio-cultural perceptions regarding women in middle and senior management at the organisation are more dominant than formal measures of competency. This tends to negatively affect the perceived suitability for advancement of women in middle management and the perceived proficiency of women in senior management. As a result, when a woman competes with a male colleague for the same senior level position, there is a tendency for management, which is often comprised mostly of men, to be predisposed to hiring the male candidate unless the goal is to fulfil the government mandated gender policy. Women in middle and senior management illustrate the fluidity of femininity that was discovered by Benya (2016) that women acquire or adopt different identities, which she referred to as performances at different spaces within the mining industry. Furthermore, Benya (2016) asserted that femininity is fluid in the mine as gender identities are created and recreated from day-to-day experiences mostly as a means for women to assimilate into the masculine culture of the mine.

4.3.3 How can policy and intervention support transformation of gender relations to advance gender equity in senior and executive management positions in mining companies?

It was clear from the findings that the most popular intervention among women employees at the mine in order to transform gender relations and provide a fairer

path to executive level posts for women at the mine, would be to deconstruct gender discrimination and prejudice. It was evident that women advocated for cultural sensitisation and the deliberate appointment of women leaders particularly within core mining so that the mine population gets used to women leadership beginning at those low levels. Furthermore, the findings indicate that women at the mine were of the view that management must take a more positive work-life balance approach at the mine that would allow women to better navigate their multiple social roles at work, at home and the community without having to sacrifice their career ambitions for any one or more of those roles away from work. This can also be supported by working from home or working flexible routines as seen through the intense lockdown experienced in the country, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The finding is relatable to those of Mudimba (2017) and Botha (2016). As was reflected in literature, Mudimba (2017) recommended that the workplace must be made safe and healthy for women particularly in the lower levels of employment, so that they can thrive and compete for promotion on an equal footing as men. Mudimba (2017) argued that gender sensitisation education and specific steps to make the work environment safe and must be comprehensively articulated in policy. Similarly, Botha (2016) argued that for women to thrive in the workplace, aspire for higher office and be confident enough to acquire skills and education necessary for promotion, toxic and discriminatory organisational culture must be reformed.

The findings further indicated that it is a popular opinion among women workers at the mine that management must take on more responsibility for the development of women and their preparation for leadership roles. It was established in the study that most of the women in core mining have only upgraded the core skills related to their specific tasks in core mining. None of the women have been provided the opportunity to acquire required national diplomas, degrees, leadership and managerial education and skills. The later would be beneficial for the mine and act as a good tool for succession planning, so it will be critical that the mine funds those trainings. The women indicated that management had to change this because often the women had to use their own finances, time and other resources to develop

themselves. However, often, because of their multiple socially constructed roles they could not further develop themselves. These findings echo those of Moalusi & Jones (2019), who, subsequent to their own findings, recommended that the responsibilities ascribed to the employer should not be limited to ensuring an end state based on a quota system but must also be expanded to include the development of suitable women candidates for promotion to various leadership posts in the organisation. According to Moalusi & Jones (2019), merely mandating quota representation ignores the obstacles that inhibit women from being able to be skilled or qualified enough to thrive in those positions. Therefore, this suggests that gender-sensitivity training and education programs as well as favourable manpower development leave must be implicitly stated in the mine procedures.

It was also surmised from the findings that the deconstruction of gender discrimination and the informal culture at the mine advocated for by women employees at the mine would also warrant the deepening of gender ethics, which should be written into the regulations of the mine to make transgression punishable. It was inferred from the findings that women employees at the mine felt that gender sensitivity was often left to individual discretion and the message that was put out to the mine population was that gender equality was negotiable. However, the strengthening of gender ethics and rules at the mine would help change mindsets and modify behaviour. This was suggested by Hill et al. (2016), who argued that gender ethics must not be left to the strength of informal organisational culture but must be implicitly written into organizational policy and adhered to. Hill et al. (2016) (cited in Mudimba (2017)) suggested that a fundamental shift within company policy structures is required to address gender inequality in the extractive industries. According to Hill et al. (2016), company policies should include women in the consultation process before the mines come into existence.

The findings also indicated that the women in middle and senior management emphasised that there was a need to better comply with existing procedures as there was an abundance of policies in South Africa that facilitate and instruct the elevation of women to leadership positions including executive level posts. The

women also indicated, however, that management must stop viewing policy and government mandated quotas as either a burden or the minimum requirement because this perception has the tendency to inform organisational culture. It was inferred from the findings that women workers are of the view that when management has a negative perception of women leaders, it does not only affect the informal selection of leaders but also affects the ambition and aspiration of women leaders. It was further surmised from the findings that one of the ways women felt that management could actively encourage and facilitate the career advancement of women was to expand the FFWPs offered at the mine such as providing childcare allowance or services for every level of employment. Similarly, this was advocated for by Zungu (2012) that career development policies must be aimed at stimulating women representation in senior management positions and must be linked to regulations regarding FFWPs. Zungu (2012) asserted that for black women in particular, the demanding roles in the home have a near crippling impact on their career development aspirations as they often cannot devote time and resources to additional skills acquisition and sometimes must turn down the added responsibility of senior positions. This is due to the fear that such senior positions could result in spending more time away from the home and their socially constructed role of nurturer. Zungu (2012) further suggested that at times, travelling to and from work or having to migrate away from the family to be closer to the mine also takes a toll on women more than it does on men. This is particularly relevant for black women, who often cannot afford to or are culturally not expected to hire child minders or domestic help to tend to the needs of the home (Zungu, 2012).

The findings also indicate that another intervention and consideration that women workers at the mine strongly believe in is that both policy and practice must be cognisant of the intersectionality of race and gender and ensure that they do not view women as a single collective. The theory of seriality on which this study is partly based indicates that treating women as a single block has often led to both conscious and sub-conscious discrimination of many groups of women historically and in contemporary society. In this case, it was established that black women who

occupy most of the jobs in core mining are a minority even among women senior managers at the mine. It was also established that due to the historical socio-economic disadvantages and socio-cultural dynamics of their gender roles, black women had to fight both race and gender related obstacles in their career development. Therefore, it was the view of the women workers at the mine that both government and management policy and practice must also seek to deliberately close gaps among women of different races when it came to the elevation of women to senior management positions. These findings are similar to those of Ramphele (2008), who suggested that gender equality in employment should not only focus on the numbers but also empowerment of especially the historically disadvantaged black women through effective in-service training, facilitation of further education and provision of work-life balance practices. Ramphele (2008) also found that the intersectionality of gender and race should be considered seriously when devising empowerment and gender mainstreaming initiatives.

4.4 Chapter summary

The foregoing chapter presented, and analysed data as well discussed research findings based on the responses to each research question. The discussion of findings was performed in a manner that answers the research questions and was categorised under different broad themes. The primary factors that impede women in becoming senior or executive managers in the mining industry and how national and local policies better or worsen these challenges, were discussed. Furthermore, how variously acquired gender identities have affected black women's advancement to executive management level posts and how policy and intervention can support transformation of gender relations in order to advance gender equity in senior and executive management positions, were also discussed.

5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary to the study. The chapter also lists the carefully considered conclusions that were arrived at against the backdrop of findings made. The chapter further lays out the preferred recommendations that if implemented would enhance the advancement of women to senior levels posts at the mine that was studied. Subsequently, the chapter then suggests areas requiring further research that were identified during the current study.

5.2 Conclusions

The study reached the following conclusions:

- a) A toxic masculinity and prejudice that characterise informal organisational culture is both a source of discrimination when considering leadership roles and skepticism of women leadership at the mine. This acts as a barrier to women's advancement to executive level positions.
- b) Multiple societal and cultural roles in the workplace, home and community are a barrier to the elevation of women, particularly black women, to senior level management posts at the mine that was studied.
- c) Socio economic disadvantage inhibits women, particularly black women in core mining, from upgrading their qualifications and skills that would make them more suitable for leadership positions and therefore, women often do not advance to senior management positions.
- d) It is rare for women in core mining to be promoted up the employment ladder and develop their academic qualifications and skills in preparation to compete for leadership posts. While they are also restricted, it is slightly easier for women whose entry level is middle management to eventually reach senior management posts.
- e) Management and male colleagues have a cynical and skeptical view of women leadership, which may be one of the reasons why there is no

enthusiasm to elevate women to senior level posts beyond the government mandated quotas.

- f) The gender-race intersectionality has the effect of limiting the opportunities of black women from advancing to senior management positions. Policies do not treat gender and race as intersections, for black women, that must be considered together in considering quotas for women in senior level positions.
- g) Women are forced to adopt a masculine gender identity in core mining to conform to the informal culture. Ironically, while this enables them to adapt to the core mining space, it is often considered incompatible with management persona and therefore acts as a barrier to advancement to executive level posts. This seems to be one of the reasons why none of the women in senior management rise from core mining, a few are elevated from middle management, and most are appointed from outside the organisation.
- h) Women at the mine in all levels, especially in middle and senior management levels generally must adopt to various gender identities and performances within and outside the mine. This is done in order to satisfy and navigate the many perceptions, attitudes and spaces that ascribe many different roles for women. The different roles are such as the underground workplaces, the boardroom, the cafeteria, the home, church. The latter tends to affect their desire, devotion and aspiration to career advancement at the mine. Without robust support systems, it is daunting for these women to be able to develop themselves in preparation for elevation to leadership roles at work.

5.3 Recommendations

In view of the conclusions made the study recommends that:

- a) The mine takes more active measures to address discriminatory informal culture at the organisation through such means as sensitisation workshops, appointing women leaders in core mining and expanding gender ethics written into the organisation's rules and regulations.
- b) Management is encouraged to not treat government mandated quotas of women that are appointed to executive level posts as a minimum or a burden and must aim for a culture with 50:50 representation of both genders at the highest level.
- c) Management needs to take on more responsibility for the development of women that expands their managerial and leadership education and skills by providing financial and logistical support and sanctioning manpower development leave.
- d) Management could expand its FFWPs so that women at lower levels of employment have enough time on their hands to develop themselves and devote to career advancement, so as to mitigate the barrier the women, particularly black women, face in trying to advance their careers because of the multiple socially constructed gender roles they play.
- e) Both government and management are encouraged to revisit the policy and practice gap to reform it in such a way that black women do not carry the double burden of having to fend off race and gender discrimination. Policy and practice must exhibit a consciousness to the seriality of women.
- f) Interventions such as sensitisation workshops, compelling gender ethics by writing them into company rules and regulations and appointing women leaders from core mining roles, should be implemented to enhance the career advancement of women. This will deconstruct the informal culture, which considers women as not being suited to the mine environment.

5.4 Areas for further study

It is recommended that further study into the impact that work-life balance policies in the mining industry have on the wellbeing of women employees. It was in conducting current research that a large portion of the challenges faced by women

seemed to revolve around the conflict between family life and work life, yet it seemed there was no acknowledgement of this by management. It appears that there is a lack of adequate consideration of FFWPs in the South African mining sector as work-life balance policies are not adequately implemented. It is unclear how this has impacted on the physical, psychological, social and emotional well-being of women employees.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet

UNIVERSITY OF THE
WITWATERSRAND,
JOHANNESBURG



Dear Madam

My name is Thusani Mudau and I am a master's student in Mineral Economics at the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg. As part of my studies, I have to undertake a research project, and I am investigating women's representation in senior management positions in the South African Mining industry. This research aims to focus on women representation in senior management positions in the South African mining industry by determining the following:

- a) The gap between policy and practice in addressing women representation in senior and executive management positions;
- b) Assessing how variously acquired gender identities have affected women's advancement to executive management level posts in the mining industry.
- c) Determining whether negative perceptions of women in leadership have affected the desirability of executive level posts for women in mining and,
- d) Recommending measures that may be taken to increase the number of women representations in senior management and executive roles (improvement plan).

As part of this project, I would like to invite you to take part in an interview. The interview will take place between within the month of September 2020 and should be not more than an hour. The following are the options of the interview; one on one, via a telephone conversation or via an internet conversation such as using Microsoft teams. The date, time and format of the interview will be as advised by

you in our prior conversation. In light of COVID 19, should you opt for the one on one interview, all necessary precaution to ensure our health and safety as set out by the World health Organisation and our South African government shall be taken into consideration. The interview will involve a specific set of questions relating to the representation of women in senior and executive management positions. Through your permission, the interview will also be recorded using a cell phone or a laptop.

You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this research, and there are no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. You may withdraw at any time during the interview or not answer any question if you do not want to. The interview will be completely confidential and the information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. I will be using a pseudonym (false name) to represent your participation in my final research report. If you experience any distress or discomfort at any point in this process you are more than welcomed to stop the process.

If you have any questions while conducting the interview or afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This study will be written up as a research report which will be available online through the university library website. If you wish to receive a summary of this report, I will be happy to send it to you. If you have any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

Thusani Mudau

Researcher:

Thusani Mudau. 0505982g@students.wits.ac.za .060 571 8482

Supervisor:

Professor Bekir Genc. Bekir.Genc@wits.ac.za . 011 717 7423

Appendix 2: Consent form

WOMAN REPRESENTATION IN SENIOR MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY

Thusani Mudau

I Voluntarily agree to participate in this research project. The research has been explained to me and I understand what my participation will involve. I understand that if ever the need arises, I can withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any question without any consequences of any kind.

(Please circle the relevant option below)

I agree to participate in this interview YES NO

I agree that my participation will remain anonymous
(This will be done by changing my name and disguising any
details I provide which may reveal my identity or
the identity of people I speak about.) YES NO

I agree that the researcher may use anonymous quotes
in her research report YES NO

I agree that the interview will be audio recorded YES NO

I agree that the information I provide may be used
anonymously by other researchers following this study YES NO

I understand that at anytime during this interview I can choose
to withdraw YES NO

I understand that I will not receive any direct benefits from
participating in this research YES NO

I understand that under freedom of information legalization
I am entitled to access the information I have provided at any
time while it is in storage as specified above. YES NO

Participant

..... (signature)

..... (name of participant)

..... (date)

Researcher

..... (signature)

..... (name of Researcher)

..... (date)

Appendix 3: Interview Questions

Interview guide for a black woman in core mining

1. For how long have you worked in core mining?
2. What were your entry level qualifications, and have you had the opportunity to upgrade them?
3. Is your immediate supervisor male or female?
4. How have you adapted to the labour intensive and often male dominated work environment?
5. Do you aspire to an executive level management post? If not, why not?
6. How does the male domination of the mine environment affect the prospects of women leadership both formally and informally?
7. Do you feel that women have the same opportunity to develop their skills and knowledge as men, and if not why?
8. Do you know any women who have advanced from core mining all the way to executive level within the company? If not, what might be the reasons?
9. What perception do you think male colleagues have of women leaders?
10. What perception do you think management has of women?
11. Of the women that are in senior management positions, have any advanced from lower levels of employment or most are employed from outside?
12. What factors in your personal and home life would you say are barriers to your career development?
13. Do you feel that women have the same opportunity for promotion to executive level management posts as men?
14. How may the mining industry enhance the prospects of women being promoted to executive level management posts?

Interview guide for a black woman in middle management

1. For how long have you worked in middle management position?
2. What was your level of employment on entry at your company?
3. What were your entry level qualifications, and have you had the opportunity to upgrade them?
4. Is your immediate supervisor male or female?
5. How have you adapted to the labour intensive and often male dominated work environment?
6. Do you aspire to an executive level management post? If not, why not?
7. How does the male domination of the mine environment affect the prospects of women leadership both formally and informally?
8. Do you feel that women have the same opportunity to develop their skills and knowledge as men, and if not why?
9. Do you know any women who have advanced from core mining all the way to executive level within the company? If not, what might be the reasons?
10. What perception do you think male colleagues and subordinates have of women leaders?
11. What perception do you think management has of women leaders?
12. Of the women that are in senior management positions, have any advanced from lower levels of employment or most are employed from outside?
13. Do you feel that women have the same opportunity for promotion to executive level management posts as men?
14. What factors in your personal and home life would you say are barriers to your career development?
15. How may the mining industry enhance the prospects of women being promoted to executive level management posts?

Interview guide for a black woman in a senior management position

1. For how long have you been in senior management?
2. At what employment level did you enter the mining industry?
3. Where you in competition with male aspirants for the post?

4. If you advanced to senior management from lower levels of employment at the mine what challenges did you face in your aspiration to a senior position?
5. Did you develop your professional skills and knowledge within the mining industry or prior to joining it?
6. What challenges have you faced as a woman in a senior management post at a mine?
7. Do you feel pressured to be more proficient in your role than a male colleague? If so, why do you think that is?
8. Do you feel that your input in meetings and on important decisions is valued the same as that of male colleagues?
9. Do you always feel respected by male subordinates at the mine?
10. Would you say that the challenges that are faced by women in senior management may deter other women from aspiring to senior management posts in the mining industry?
11. What are the perceptions of male colleagues and subordinates of women leadership at the mine?
12. What would you say are the causes for so few women advancing to executive level managerial posts regardless of supportive policy in the mining industry?
13. How would you say the identities that women assume in the mining spaces affect their career development?
14. How do the roles of women in their family and community affect their career development in the mining industry?
15. How may the mining industry enhance the prospects of women being promoted to executive level management posts?

Appendix 4: Summary of Interview Questions and responses

Questions	Response Group		
	Core Mining	Middle management	Senior management
For how long have you been employed at the mine?	x	x	x
What were your entry level qualifications, and have you had the opportunity to upgrade them?	x	x	
At what level did you join the mine?		x	x
Is your immediate supervisor male or female?	x	x	
How have you adapted to the labour intensive and often male dominated work environment?	x	x	
Do you aspire to an executive level management post? If not, why not?	x	x	
How does the male domination of the mine environment affect the prospects of women leadership both formally and informally?	x	x	
Do you feel that women have the same opportunity to develop their skills and knowledge as men, and if not why?	x	x	
Do you know any women who have advanced from core mining all the way to executive level within the company? If not, what might be the reasons?	x	x	
What perception do you think male colleagues have of women leaders	x	x	x
What perception do you think management has of women?	x	x	
Of the women that are in senior management positions, have any advanced from lower levels of employment or most are employed from outside?	x	x	
What factors in your personal and home life would you say are barriers to your career development?	x	x	x

Do you feel that women have the same opportunity for promotion to executive level management posts as men?	x	x	
Were you in competition with male aspirants for the post?	x	x	x
If you advanced to senior management from lower levels of employment at the mine, what challenges did you face in your aspiration to a senior position?		x	x
Did you develop your professional skills and knowledge within the mining industry or prior to joining it?			x
What challenges have you faced as a woman in a senior management post at a mine?	x	x	x
Do you feel pressured to be more proficient in your role than a male colleague? If so, why do you think that is?			x
Do you feel that your input in meetings and on important decisions is valued the same as that of male colleagues?			x
Do you always feel respected by male subordinates at the mine?	x	x	x
How may the mining industry enhance the prospects of women being promoted to executive level management posts?	x	x	x