The effect of the Social and Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in selected mining houses in Lephalale

by

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DECLARATION:

I, **Mathews Malegole Masemola,** declare that this mini-dissertation is my own work and the sources that I have used or quoted from have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference. The report is submitted to the University of Limpopo for the Degree of Masters of Business Administration (MBA) and it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university or academic institution in the world.

_____   Date _____

Mr M.M. Masemola (MBA candidate)

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DEDICATION:

This work is dedicated to my late father, Masemola Ntladi Nelson, sereto ke Nape, late grandmother Masemola Makgahlele Tulwane, sereto ke Mogotladi, and my late brother Masemola Donala "Slahla" Maesela, sereto ke Moreko, who tragically died in a car accident this year in 2017. All played a major role in my life and I will always remember them for that. One major lesson that my dad taught me was that hard work pays and commitment always yields results.

Mr M.M. Masemola

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ABSTRACT:

This study looked into the effectiveness of the Social and Labour Plan on addressing the gender equity in selected mining houses in Lephalale. The newly elected democratic government of South Africa introduces numerous strategic policies to open all sectors of economy for all South Africans, but with special emphasis on the historically disadvantaged, which include women and people with disability as part of its economic emancipation policy. Hence the Social and Labour Plan was adopted. The main aim of the study was to investigate the effect of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) in selected mining houses in Lephalale. A qualitative approach was used for this study, and interviews were contacted to collect data and thematic analysis used to analyse the data. It was found that the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) in the mines was not working fully and effectively. Also the research findings included, among others slow implementation of policies, more males than females, white male dominance, and discrimination of women, transformation, where taking place both on race and gender, only at snail pace and the lack of enforcement for implementation of policies such as the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) by the Department of Miners and Resources (DMR). Amongst other revelations were inequality issues, discrimination and nepotism experienced by women. Based on the finding the researcher recommended that mining organisations should review their mining Social Labour Plan (SLP) so that they state very clearly the number of women to be employed by the organisations, and such document once approved by the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR), should be complied to. Furthermore the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR) should commit to an annual review of the Social and Labour Plan Report performance by mining companies, instead of waiting for five years.

ACRONYMS:

BBSEE   Broad-Based Socio Economic Empowerment

CSI   Corporate Social Investment

CSR   Corporate Social Responsibility

DPLG   Department of Provincial and Local Government

EEA   Employment Equity Act

EMP   Environmental Management Plan

GDP   Gross Domestic Products

HDSA   Historically Disadvantaged South African

IDP   Integrated Development Plan

LED   Local Economic Development

LSA   Labour Sending Area

MPRDA   Mineral Petroleum Resources Development Act

MWP   Mine Works Plan

SLP   Social and Labour Plan

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

A Social and Labour Plan (SLP) is a complex, strategic intervention, planning and implementation document. It consists of a variety of targets and strategies to promote socio-economic growth and development, promote employment and the advancement of the social and economic welfare and promote the use of skills and empower Historically Disadvantaged South Africans, in the community and area in which industrial activity (mining and production) is taking place. It clearly defines commitments made by mining or production related businesses in their quest to earn the right to operate in a geographical area, (Sean Schulz, 2012). The Centre for Applied Legal Studies (2016) shows that the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) system is designed to achieve a positive social impact through mandating the allocation of resources and requiring particular actions by role players internal and external to the government.

South Africa is a land endowed with a variety of mineral resources. This variety reflects its long and diverse geological history that dates back millions of years. Kearney, (2012) states that South Africa has a wealth of mineral resources which makes it to be a leader in mining. Mining activities take place across the country including the Limpopo Province which is one of the nine provinces in South Africa. Mines employ a number of people from different races and countries. These individuals that work in the mines are predominantly male, very few women find lucrative positions in the mines. Thus the government has taken the initiatives to regulate the employment issues, amongst other things, in the mining industry through the introduction of the legislation pertaining to the Social and Labour Plan (SLP).

The Mineral Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRD) 28 of 2002 states that mining companies should submit Social and Labour Plans (SLP) which are aligned to the South African legislation, including the Employment Equity Act (EEA). This is because of underrepresentation of women in the mining sector, especially at the managerial level.

In some countries women are denied education, barred from the workplace, and are unable to venture out in public without a male companion (Ingelhart, 2003). There is still much work to be done in mining and in other areas such as education and health. The Global Gender Gap Report (World Economic Forum, 2009) maintains that it will take some time before women around the globe could enjoy the same opportunities as men. Women are still faced with a number of challenges. In many places, most women's lives remain wretched. As stated by the Centre for Applied Legal Studies (2016), South Africa is a country whose historical legacy has produced a high level of income inequality and class differentiation and vast disparities on the grounds of gender and race. Women are still faced with a number of challenges.

Women representation in the mining industry was insignificant before the adoption of the new order mining right adopted in 2004. The 2004 Mining Charter set a target of 10% for representation of women in mining by 2009; however, only 6% representation was achieved. Gender equity is getting much wider attention around the globe, not only in the job market but in politics and every economic sphere. Therefore, the focus of this research will be on, the effect of the Social and Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in selected mining houses in Lephalale.

1.2. Problem statement

Some scholars have observed that increased participation of women in mining is an area that can also be explore further. Makgetla (2004) argues that, decades after the dawn of democracy in South Africa, women continue to have lower income, higher unemployment and less access to assets than men. In South Africa some years back during the apartheid era, the Mines and Works Act of 1911 banned women from

working underground. Women were employed in other capacities on the mines, as nurses, administrative officers or mineral processors (Ralushai, 2003). Thus, mines discriminated against women. The trend of discrimination against women still exist in the mines, but in a subtle way.

Mineral Resources Deputy Minister Godfrey Oliphant stated that "mining companies in South Africa were still not doing enough to empower women in the industry". He further indicated that, many companies grudgingly complied with the Employment Equity Act (EEA), according to Zandile Mavuso, 2015). This was after failure by mining companies to reach the target set by the mining charter in 2002. The mining charter was the result of good working relationship between the South African Government and mining companies. Ralushai (2003), indicates that, people's minds still hold stereotypes that women don't belong in mines, and that women should be at home looking after kids and cooking men's meals. The stereotype poses as a challenge and hence there is underrepresentation of women in managerial positions in the mines. Mines in South Africa are taking time to transform and embrace the capabilities of women in the sector. It has been witnessed on several occasions on the set target of women entering the mining industry.

1.3. Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of the Social Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in selected mining houses in Lephalale.

1.4. Objectives

The objectives of this research will be:

- To investigate whether gender equity in the mining industry is being pursued.
- To determine whether the Social and Labour Plan (SLPs) in the mining houses are focused on addressing gender equity.
- To investigate the level of commitment of the mining houses in addressing gender inequality.

1.5. Research questions

Based on the research problem statement, the following research questions will be examined:

- How is gender equity pursued in the mining industry?
- How focused are the Social and Labour Plans (SLPs) on addressing gender equity?
- What is the level of commitment of the mining houses in addressing gender inequality?

1.6. Motivation / rationale for the study

The Social and Labour Plan is one of the policies that intend to bring inclusion of the Historically Disadvantaged South Africans (HDSA) into the mining industry. However, this is taking place at a snail pace. Therefore, the researcher, being an employee in the mining sector, deemed it necessary to investigate the effect of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) in perusing gender equity. It is therefore against this background that this study envisages to close the knowledge gap in relation to gender equity in the mining sector, as most previous studies in mining focus on the beneficiation of host communities.

1.7. Significance of the study

The study intends to investigate the effect of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) on addressing gender equity in selected mining houses in Lephalale. Gender equality being a thorny issue in South Africa, the study envisages to benefit the policy makers in formulating policies that will alleviate such issues. Again, mining houses will be in a position to benefit from the research through proposed recommendations. The study will further benefit other researchers who are studying related topics as well as mining managers in mining houses when planning for equity targets.

1.8. Definition of concepts

Gender equity: Is the process of allocating resources, programs, and decision making fairly to both males and females without any discrimination on the basis of sex and addressing any imbalances in the benefits available to males and females (Lori Johnstone and Sydney Millar, Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women and Sport and Physical Activity, 2013).

Social and Labour Plan: Is a complex, strategic intervention, planning and implementation document consisting of a variety of targets and strategies to promote socio-economic growth and development, promote employment and the advancement of the social and economic welfare and promote the use of skills and empower Historically Disadvantaged South Africans, in the community and area in which industrial activity takes place (Sean Schulz, 2016).

Historically Disadvantaged South Africans: Means any person, category of persons or community, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination before the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993 (Act No. 200 of 1993) came into operation (Department Mineral Resources, 2010).

Local Economic Development: is a process by which local governments, along with local corporate firms, join forces and resources to enter into new partnership arrangements with each other in order to create jobs and stimulate economic activities (Leigh and Blakely, 2016).

1.9. Short overview of the chapters to come

Chapter 1

This, introductory chapter, presents the problem statement, objectives of the study, as well as definitions of concepts used in the study.

Chapter 2

This chapter concentrates on a review of the literature about Social and Labour Plan, the mining industry, legislation and as well as about experiences of the socio-economic development of the surrounding areas, both internationally and locally.

Chapter 3

The third chapter outlines the research methodology used in the study. It also include the discussion of the sample, the instrument used to gather data, as well as the data gathering method.

Chapter 4

The focus in this chapter is on the analysis and interpretation of the data that has been collected, that is, the presentation of research results.

Chapter 5

The last chapter presents a summary of findings, a discussion thereof, as well as the recommendations.

1.10. Conclusion for the chapter

This chapter outlined the route that was followed by the current study. It therefore served as a framework for all activities that the researcher engaged with. The next chapter will present the literature review relevant to the effect of the Social and Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in selected mining houses.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The legacy of mining in South Africa is one of stark disparity between mineworkers and communities on the one hand, and mining management, financiers and shareholders on the other. Social and Labour Plans (SLPs) are one of the corrective measures chosen by the South African legislature to address this legacy (Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2016). Organisations have various legitimate commitments overseeing altogether every movement in their purviews, including obtainment laws, corporate social responsibility (CSR), ecological laws, labour laws, human rights, wellbeing and security laws, and different controls. Besides organizations are required to accomplish and comply more than simply agreeing to national directions yet to go past their scope.

The Department of Minerals and Energy (2008) expressed that before 1994 the South African mining industry was created without much state direction and depended for the most part on business sectors. . More was done after first democratic election in 1994, were most policies were investigated with less discussions with mining companies. Most of the policies and laws were later changed to be in line with the new constitution of the Republic of South Africa which was adopted, (Marais, 2010).These improvements offered let to the development of the Mineral Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA), which manages social and natural matters in connection to mining. In spite of the fact that women everywhere throughout the world have been included in digging exercises for quite a long time, mining has been viewed as an extremely manly industry because of its vigorously male-ruled workforce and additionally the physicality of mine work (Botha and Cronje, 2015).

2.2. Mining in South Africa and its Inherent Corporate Social Responsibility

The mining business in South Africa is unpredictable. Mining is an enormous worldwide industry. Möhr-Swart (2008), specifies that, the expression "mining" incorporates operations utilizing a huge number of individuals and moving huge amounts of metal and shake every month. Mining is completed in every possible area, from tropical wildernesses to the high cold, from 4000 m above ocean level to very nearly 4000 m beneath the surface. An immense scope of minerals is mined, requiring altogether different extraction and handling operations. Möhr-Swart (2008), states that, South Africa's participation in mining can be traced to the Early Iron Age (300 to 1000 AD) when copper and iron deposits were first mined at Phalaborwa in the history of mining in South Africa. According to these authors, the first humans, in South Africa, to extract natural resources, were the cavemen during the Stone Age. Excavations in the Bomvu ruins in Swaziland date back 40000 years ago and open cast mines discovered near Phalaborwa date to 800 BC.

Baxter (2009) states that the economy as it is, is a direct result of mining. Mining made an overwhelming designing part, produced the wage that constructed South Africa's buyer ventures, and financed the assembling division. The requirements of mining drove the advancement of the nation's modern capital markets and business law, and aroused and capacity to deal with expansive and innovatively complex procedures. Johannesburg, one of the biggest focuses of generation in the southern side of the equator, would not have existed without mining. While the greater part of this is of intrigue for the most part to students of history, the reality, as expressed by Baxter (2009), is that mining gave the minimum amount to mechanical advancement in South Africa.

The successive progression of mining development bears a basic association with the chronicled setting of civilisation. As a standout amongst the most dependable endeavours of humankind, mining and its change interface personally with social progress. It is no fortuitous event that the diverse ages of humankind are associated with minerals and their employments. Surprisingly, even today, the mineral business still impacts our lives (Möhr-Swart, 2008). It incorporates diverse sorts of mining

operations, given the wide range of operations from underground and open cast mining to the preparing of the mineral. Gold mining in the Transvaal gave impetus to the economy of South Africa by circulating huge amounts of new money every year, creating new towns, stimulating the founding of industry and by providing an important and predictable market for the products not only of industry but of agriculture and commerce as well.

According to Madolo (2014), the discovery of these assets enormously affected the political economy of South Africa as it prompted the English expansionism being changed into a forceful, severe and far reaching form of government and racial private enterprise. The disclosure of precious stones and gold changed the scene of South Africa and Southern Africa altogether. Generally, in the nineteenth century, all individuals in South Africa lived of the land. They were generally subsistence ranchers who created all they required. There was impressive exchange between gatherings. Azapagic (2004) discusses that, in the worldwide economy, the mining and minerals part is moderately little however exceptionally assorted, delivering more than 80 mineral products. The significant producers include the USA, Canada, Australia, Russia, Brazil, South Africa, China and the EU, with generation progressively being moved to creating nations.

South Africa, referred to all through the world as a fortune trove, brags a wealth of mineral assets, creating and owing a noteworthy extent of the world's minerals. For a long time, mining has been viewed as the establishment of the South African economy. In spite of the fact that the mining business in South Africa is right now under significant pressure and encounters various difficulties, including rising operational costs, power tax expenses, security related issues and related generation stoppages, poor profitability, work agitation and decreased request both universally and locally, it remains a key contributor to the national economy and advancement of the nation (Botha, and Cronjé, 2015). The presentation of a noteworthy number of women to underground work in South African mines in a general sense challenges routes in which the mining work showcase has worked before (Benya, 2009).

Minerals are basic to regular day to day existence, making up various items we utilize. They are additionally indispensable crude materials in a large number of businesses, including pottery, development, beautifiers, cleansers, drugs, hardware, glass, metal, paint, paper and plastics. Extraction and handling of minerals in any way are related to various reasonable improvement challenges, including different financial, ecological and social issues.

Carrol, (2015), stated that, "corporate social responsibility is a product of the post-world war II period. Given impetus by changes in social consciousness that came to a crescendo in the 1960s, especially the civil rights, women's, consumer's and environmental movements, corporate social responsibility has grown in relevance and stature ever since". Jenkins and Yakovleva, (2006), found out that, in recent years, concerns about the corporate and social responsibility of businesses have become an increasingly high profile issue in many countries and industries, none more so than the mining industry. For mining, one outcome of the corporate and social responsibility agenda is the increasing need for individual companies to justify their existence and document their performance through the disclosure of social and environmental information. The improvement and usage of corporate and social responsibility systems, approaches in organizations are a progressing procedure, (Erasmus et al, 2013). Note that a few organizations are not just measured on the amount they make in their monetary execution, preferably measured on more than their yearly budgetary execution on the off chance that they try to be manageable in the long haul. These organizations has more gigantic power upon the world.

The word administration is gotten from Latin word "gubernare", which means "to direct" (Erasmus et al., 2013). Great administration happens along these lines; basically it is about powerful authority (Bezuidenhout et al., 2014). Roe (2014) shows that, initiative is described by the moral estimations of duty, responsibility, decency and straightforwardness. It is notable that, the fundamental reason for a business is to amplify benefit for its proprietors or partners while keeping up corporate social responsibility. The latter appears to have been received by corporate pioneers, legislators, specialists and researchers. Thoughts related to it are having an impact on

associations, groups and establishments a long way past corporate divisions. Corporate social duty manages how business associations can address fundamental issues without shaming group values (Erasmus et al., 2013).

Corporate social responsibility is characterized as the idea of organizations looking beyond the benefits to themselves in the public arena (Werther and Chandler, 2010). It alludes to an organization connecting itself with moral qualities, straightforwardness, representative relations, consistence with lawful prerequisites and general regard for the groups in which they work. Erasmus et al. (2013) indicate that some publications use the term corporate citizenship, corporate social investment and corporate social responsibility interchangeably. The Socially Responsible Investment (SRI) index series evolved considerably since it was launched in May 2004 (Exchange, 2014). The advent of sustainability initiatives internationally and the king code locally, also saw the index created to foster good corporate citizenship and promote sustainable development.

According to Exchange (2014), the JSE key objectives was to achieve the following:

- Identify those companies listed on the JSE that integrate the principles of the triple bottom line and good governance into their business activities;
- Provide a tool for a broad holistic assessment of company policies and practices against globally aligned and locally relevant corporate responsibility standards;
- Serve as a facilitation vehicle for responsible investment for investors looking for non-financial risk variables to include in investment decisions, as such risks do carry the potential to have significant financial impact;
- Contribute to the development of responsible business practice in South Africa and beyond.

The reality is that corporations exert tremendous power upon the world. The sheer size and influence of corporate entities means there is a need for them to take a more

active role in addressing critical global challenges as individual and collectively. Corporate social responsibility strikes to call for vision and duty from the authority and administration of the organization, as such, the directorate and senior administration group. Branco and Rodrigues, (2006), demonstrated that, most firms take part in corporate social responsibility on the grounds that they think about that as some sort of compliance to them, Interests in socially mindful exercises may have inner advantages by helping a firm to grow new assets and abilities which are connected to be specific to know-how and corporate culture.

Gainer (2010) demonstrates that, in spite of the fact that a set number of partnerships have been supporting social activities, created and kept running by third division associations for a long time, the corporate social responsibility is a comparatively new improvement in two regards: initially, it is an endeavour to build up a complex, powerful, and composed arrangement of thoughts and rules that have boundless applications and will increase general adherence over the corporate segment and in the public eye all around: secondly, it is centred around individual corporate conduct as well as the change of the connection between the entire corporate segment and the state and social segment.

Corporate that take part in corporate social responsibility strike to profit. The outer advantages of corporate social responsibility are identified with its impact on corporate notoriety. Corporate notoriety can be comprehended as a major elusive asset which can be made or exhausted as a result of the choices to connect with or not in social duty exercises and divulgence, (Branco and Rodrigues, 2006). Companies with great corporate social responsibility notoriety stand a decent opportunity to enhance both interior and outside variables. They likewise pull in great representatives or strike to enhance current workers inspiration, duty, confidence and unwaveringness to the firm.

2.2.1. Economic benefits

The commitment of the South African mining industry to world markets is generous, with a critical extent of operations occurring in all the provinces of the nation. In addition, it attracts foreign investment. South Africa has a comparative advantage in the production of mining products. The three major minerals are platinum, coal and iron ore which are controlled by a group of 6 mining companies which materialized from the minerals revolution of the 19th century (Makgetla, 2014). Change of the mining segment is basic in South Africa as it is the foundation of the economy and it informes aggressively the worldwide field. Furthermore, it draws in remote venture. Mining and mineral extraction are central to the South African economy and their strength lay in what is called the Mineral Energy Complex (MEC). The MEC is a concept referring to "the core set of heavy industry along with the powerful vested interests and institutions that have evolved around mineral extraction and processing. It can also denote their interaction as a distinctive system of accumulation whose dynamics and linkages have determined South Africa's pattern of industrialisation" (Ashman and Fine, 2012).

Mining has played a vital role in the economy of South Africa for over 100 years. In 2015 the mining industry contributed R286 billion towards South African Gross Domestic Product (GDP) representing 7.1% of the overall GDP. Mining directly contributed R89.4 billion to fixed investment in 2015, while R3.7 billion in royalties and R12.5 billion in taxes were paid to the South African government in 2015/2016. These funds form part of the government's budget, which is used to improve the infrastructure and lives of South Africans. Mining is a significant contributor to employment in the nation, with 457698 individuals directly employed by the sector in 2015. This represents just over 3% of all employed nationally. In total, these employees earned R116.7 billion, more than the nominal GDP of 52 countries in 2015. In addition, through its employment, the industry adds R10 billion to the fiscus in terms of PAYE (Chamber of Mines South Africa, Mine S.A., 2016).

The mining business had a multi-faceted and double impact on the economy of the nation by turning into the greatest customer of coal, which brought about the Highveld

Coalfields to be created. As an outcome of this, power has been produced in mass for business; and it also brought about other assembling enterprises being created as providers for alternate needs of the mining business.

2.2.2. Social benefits

Mining industries significantly influence the societies within which they operate. Marais (2010) elaborates that, the mining industry has been responsible for causing a lot of negative environmental and social impact at local, regional and global levels. Disruption of river flows, degradation of land and forest resources, negative impact on the livelihoods of local communities near mines and disturbance of traditional lifestyles of indigenous people. Evangelinos and Oku (2006) mention that in some countries such as Greece, in many islands of the Cyclades, the mining industry plays an important role in the local economy, contributing significantly to overall growth. However, it has simultaneously caused many environmental problems and has had adverse impact upon other important economic activities, such as tourism.

Mining companies contribute to communities in many ways including the following:

- Through both direct and indirect job creation, and particularly local recruitment.
- Through small business development and local procurement, including expenditure by employees.
- By providing training and development, bursaries, and learnerships.
- By improving access to healthcare and improving living conditions (water, sanitation, roads).
- Through their corporate social investment and local economic development programmes.
- Through the taxes and levies paid locally.

According to the Chamber of Mines South Africa (2016), in 2016, mining companies spent approximately R2 billion in local and labour sending communities, in line with their agreed Social and Labour Plans. Organizations perceive their part as neighbours, as well as the need to add to the financial improvement and manageability of mining groups and work sending territories.

Table 2.1: Employment equity by 2014

Employment	Targeted	Achieved
TOP MANAGEMENT	40	50.4
SENIOR MANAGEMENT	40	41.9
MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	40	50.9
JUNIOR MANAGEMENT	40	54.0
CORE SKILLS	40	75.5

Source: Chamber of Mines (2016).

2.3. Social and Labour Plan concept in the mining environment

The ultimate source of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) system, the Mineral Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA), is the primary piece of legislation that governs mining in South Africa. The Centre for Applied Legal Studies (2016) views the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) as part of a broader project aimed at addressing the legacy of colonialism and apartheid, reconstructing society along egalitarian lines, and building a sense of common nationhood which commenced with the founding of South Africa's first democratic dispensation in 1994 and which is signified by the term 'transformation'. The Social and Labour Plan is a key component of the new order mining right in South Africa.

Due to the in depth of social injustices and challenges in the mining sector, and the significant wealth of mining companies, it was then decided that the mining sector should assume positive, developmental responsibilities that are ordinarily those of government. It was then that the Social and Labour Plan system resulted. The Mineral

and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA), read with the MPRDA Regulations, requires mining companies to submit a Social and Labour Plan (SLP) for the application for a Mining Right in terms of Section 22(1) of the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act, 2002 (Act No. 28 of 2002). Social and Labour Plans set out how the company intends to share some of the benefits that flow from mining (Department of Mineral Resources, 2010). These include, for example, initiatives for developing the skills of their employees, upgrading local schools and roads, as well as providing housing, water and sanitation in the area. Once a company is awarded a mining right, the Social and Labour Plan they submitted becomes a binding legal document.

As a consequence, the transformation of the mining industry has been a central imperative in constitutional South Africa. The democratically-elected parliament passed the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) in 2002, which vests mineral rights in the state and seeks to use the state's power to grant mineral rights to advance transformation. It does so through promoting greater participation by Historically Disadvantaged Persons (HDP) in the mining industry and by introducing measures to ensure that mineral wealth results in tangible improvement in the lives of workers and communities. The MPRDA objectives that are directly of relevance to the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) system. This is a testament to the extent to which the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) system seeks to advance the objectives of the Act (Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2016).

2.3.1. The objectives of the Social and Labour Plan

- Promote economic growth and mineral and petroleum resources development in the Republic (Section 2 (e) of the (MPRDA);
- Promote employment and advance the social and economic welfare of all South Africans (Section 2 (f) of the MPRDA);
- Ensure that holders of mining or production rights contribute towards the socioeconomic development of the areas in which they are operating as well as the areas from which the majority of the workforce is sourced (Section 2 (i) of the MPRDA, and the Charter); and

- To utilize and expand the existing skills base for the empowerment of HDSA and to serve the community (Department of Minerals Resources, 2010)

While the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Regulations (MPRDA) is the source of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) system, the content of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) objectives, obligations and processes is largely set out in Regulations 40-46 of the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Regulations Act (MPRDA Regulations) and the Department of Minerals Resources (DMR's) Revised Social and Labour Plan Guidelines of October 2010 (Department of Minerals Resources, SLP Guidelines, 2010). The 2010 SLP Guidelines contain significantly more detail than the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Regulations (MPRDA) regarding the content and form of Social and Labour Plan (SLP).

The Department of Minerals Energy, 2008, stated that it is not satisfied with the progress made by mining companies. The majority of communities living close to mining operations have not experienced any significant benefits emanating from the operations. Poverty levels are still extremely high in most of these communities (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2006 and Department of Minerals Resources, 2010). The mining sector has historically been both a central plank of the South African economy and a site of the system of racial wealth and gender inequality. However, the Centre for Applied Legal Studies (2016) indicates that the main legislative framework governing mining Social Labour Plans (SLP) is the National Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), especially sections 152(1)(c), (d), (e) and 153(a) and (b). The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Regulations Act (MPRDA) (Act 28 of 2002) governs and regulates the mining industry, especially its social responsibility. Sections 23 (1)(e), 24(3)(c) and 25(2)(f) of the Act provide for the Social Labour Plan (SLP) guidelines which must be adhered to as well as the Mining Charter requirements in terms of section 100(2)(a). The significance and impact of the social responsibility of the mining companies can be affected significantly by political and legal frameworks (McPhail, 2009 and Evans and Kemp, 2011).

The alignment of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) is well defined under the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) guidelines published by the Department of Minerals Resources (DMR) in 2010. The policies of the local municipalities should be aligned with the mining charter targets as set up by the DMR. Currently there seems to be no such alignment except with the legislated requirements, with more emphasis on the MPRDA (Department of Minerals Resources, 2010). If there is no compliance with the MPRDA, the minister, in terms of section 47, has the right to cancel or suspend the mining right of the holder.

The Mining Charter codes and the King reports on corporate governance also assist the compliance with the requirements for community development, and require mining companies to report their performance of their social and environmental responsibilities on yearly basis (Thobatsi, 2014). Read with the right to substantive equality contained in section 9 of the Constitution, the statutory objective of contributing to the socio-economic development of the areas in which they are operating, requires that companies do not perpetuate existing inequalities along the lines of gender (Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2016). The Social and Labour Plan focuses on the following key areas.

2.3.2. Human Resources Development Programme

The primary objective of a human resource development programme is to ensure the availability of mining and production operation specific skills and competencies of the workforce, and skilling of employees for portable skills utilizable by the employees outside the life in the mining or production industries. The following five plans and supporting forms must be submitted: Skills Development Plan, Career Progression (path) Plan, Mentorship Plan, Internship and Bursary Plan and Employment Equity Plan.

2.3.3. Local Economic Development Programme

The primary objective of Local Economic Development (LED) programme is to ensure poverty eradication and community upliftment in the area within which mining or production operations take place and in areas from which the majority of the workforce is being sourced. The LED programme includes sustainable projects which the mine or the production operation will initiate, implement and support financially or otherwise.

2.3.4. Downscaling and Retrenchment Programme

Organizations have to retrench workers from time to time for economic reasons and to remain globally competitive. This is one of the worst things that can happen to a worker and affects his or her whole life. It is therefore important that employers should first make sure that no other viable options are available to achieve operational requirements before considering downscaling of workers.

2.4. Legislation Governing the Formation and Implementation of Social and Labour Plan

It is imperative to look at the current administrative structures of South Africa. Such an investigation would give a wide picture of the lawful premise that made it basic to guarantee that the sanction was a powerful apparatus for change of the mining business and the reasons why security, governmental policy regarding minorities in society and non-segregation were not easily proven wrong in South Africa. Enactment and controls, as components for tending to separate and oversee assorted qualities, build up the procedure authenticity and guarantee its usage is compulsory.

2.4.1. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The core legislative framework governing the country at large and all systems within it include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. It contains the Bill of Rights, one that is regarded as the corner-stone of democracy, as it enshrines the rights of all people and affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. Section 9(4) of the Bill of Rights clearly states: "No person may unfairly discriminate

directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds in terms of subsection (3). The grounds listed in subsection (3) includes race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth. National legislation must be enacted to prevent or prohibit unfair discrimination." The term "person" used in section 9(4) includes both individual people and private businesses. Of particular importance are section 152 (1) (c), which promotes social and economic development, and section (d), which promotes a safe and healthy environment.

2.4.2. The Minerals and Mining Policy of 1998

The Mineral and Mining policy was established to set up the business for the difficulties confronting every single South African as they moved toward the 21st century. This progression was taking into account that the South African mining industry had, since its commencement, been a foundation of South Africa's economy. South Africa released the Minerals and Mining Policy for South Africa in October 1998 which outlined the national resource objectives of the country. Its main objective was 'to develop South Africa's mineral wealth to its full potential and to the maximum benefit of the entire population' (including downstream linkages) and advocated for lower royalty rates and other concessions for firms that engaged in beneficiation (Cawood and Oshokoya, 2013 and Ramantsima, 2016). The Minerals and Mining Policy of South Africa was adopted 1998 to show the course of the new political need of the nation. It attended to some key areas:

- Environmental management, Regional co-operation and governance.
- People issues; addressing health and safety, housing needs, migrant labour, industrial relations and downscaling;
- Business climate and mineral development; addressing continuation of policy conducive to investment;
- Participation in ownership and management; addressing racial and other imbalances in the industry.

The principle target of the Mineral and Mining Policy was the adjustment in responsibility for rights. The strategy was the legitimate premise that introduced another period of mineral and mining law in South Africa. In the same spirit of this strategy, the Minerals and Petroleum Resources Development Act No. 28 of 2002 was established in 2004. The principle component was the vesting of mineral rights to the state.

2.4.3. The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) No 28 of 2002

The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) was passed by the South African Parliament in October 2002 and promulgated on 1 May 2004 (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2004). Later amendments were effected on certain sections of the Act (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2007 and 2009). The objective of the Act as defined is "to make provision for equitable access to and sustainable development of the nations' mineral resources; and to provide for matters connected therewith". Among other preambles, the Act "acknowledges that South Africa's mineral and petroleum resources belong to the nation and that the state is the custodian thereof". It also affirms "the state's obligation to protect the environment for the present and future generations, to ensure ecologically sustainable development of mineral and petroleum resources and to promote local and rural development and the social upliftment of communities affected by mining". The Act makes provision for the development of SLPs which include human resources development plans (HRD), employment equity (EE) plans, local economic development plans (LED), a procurement plan and plans for measuring housing and living conditions and for the management of downscaling and retrenchments.

The Act also prescribes in sections 23 (1)(e), 24(3)(c) and 25(2)(f) that the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) must include a comprehensive stakeholder engagement process which includes the local, district and provincial government as well as Labour Sending Areas (LSAs) and all communities directly or indirectly affected by mining activities. Although the community development section (also known as the Local Economic Development (LED) of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) should be aligned with the

Integrated Development Plan (IDP) document of the district and local municipalities of the host community as per Social and Labour Plan (SLP) guidelines published by Department of Mineral Resources (2010), there is no explicit section in the Act that states this requirement. The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) also grants "old order" mineral rights the opportunity to comply with its provisions and to apply for the conversion of their rights within the period of five years ending 2009. Failure to do so would result in the "old order" mining rights automatically lapsing. Any application for mining rights or for the conversion of "old order" rights in terms of this Act has to be accompanied by a Social Labour Plan (SLP).

As outlined in the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) guideline, Regulation 46, the Local Economic Development (LED) must ensure that the improvement of infrastructure, poverty alleviation and community development in the host community and in the situation from which most of the labour is sourced are being addressed. Section 102 of the MPRDA also provides for an amendment of a mining project through the influence of stakeholder engagement and notification of the minister for approval of the amendment. The mining companies must also ensure that they cooperate in the formulation of Integrated Development Plan (IDPs) and must also work together with the district and local municipalities in the implementation of Social and Labour Plan (SLPs) in areas where they source most of their labour (Department of Minerals and Energy, 2008). In terms of section 47 of the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA), the minister has the right to cancel or suspend the mining right, Social and Labour Plan (SLP), Environmental Management Plan (EMP) and Mine Works Programme (MWP) if the holder does not comply with the conditions of this Act.

Hence, it is important that the Local Economic Development (LED) projects are not confused with the discretionary projects which do not form part of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). These projects are normally referred to as Corporate Social Investment (CSI) initiatives. Chapter two of the Act focuses on the fundamental principles of the Act, starting with the main objectives, while Section 2 (f) focuses on the promotion of employment and the advancement of social and economic welfare

for all South Africans. This section of the Act can be misinterpreted by members of the community and cause some negative social impact (unrests) as seen in some areas, especially recently in the Lephalale Local Municipality, where community members were demanding jobs from mining companies. Section 2 (h) of the Act gives effect to Section 24 of the Constitution by ensuring that the national mineral and petroleum resources are developed in a sustainable and ecologically and socially responsible manner. As mentioned by Marais and Atkinson (2006), the effectiveness of this piece of legislation is that mining companies already plan for closure prior to or during the opening of their operations. Without an approved Social and Labour Plan (SLP), the Department of Mineral Resources will not grant the mining permit or even convert the "old order" mining right to a "new order" right.

2.4.4. Mining Industry Charter

The drafting of the Minerals and Mining Policy for South Africa in 1998 was an indication that the country's mineral wealth was not being shared equally among its citizens (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2004). However, the White Paper was not explicit about SLPs and their integration into the Mining Charter. Over and above the need for compliance with MPRDA, the Mining Charter is another framework regulation which seeks to address historical, social and economic inequalities that exist in the South African mining industry.

One of the major objectives of the Charter in line with the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) is to promote employment and the social and economic welfare (through BEE) of the mining host communities and the main Labour Sending Areas (LSAs) (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2004). The adoption of the Mining Charter Scorecard, which, among other things, evaluates the housing and living conditions, human resources development plans, community development, environmental management, health and safety of the relevant communities, is directly associated with Social and Labour Plans (SLPs) and indicates the commitment of the mining industry to function within the legislative framework of the government (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2004). The Charter also aims at addressing the integrated sustainable LED of the host communities, major LSAs and areas which are under

threat as a result of past or current mining activities. Section 4.4 of the Mining Charter emphasizes the responsibility of both the local government and its stakeholders to cooperate in the formulation of IDPs for the communities where mining is taking place, especially at the host community. However, the challenge with the Charter is that it is not the law in itself as it is published under section 100(2) (a) of MPRDA. This section of the Act states that the Minister must, within six months from the date on which this Act takes effect, develop a broad based socio-economic empowerment charter that will set the framework, targets and time-table for effecting the entry of Historically Disadvantaged South Africans (HDSAs) into the mining industry, and allow such South Africans to benefit from the exploitation of mining and mineral resources. On the other hand, Social and Labour Plans (SLPs) are the mandatory requirements following from the Charter that the DMR uses to ensure that mining companies contribute to the LED of the host communities. The SLP must be aligned with the IDP of the district municipality where the mine is located and there should be financial resources to implement the plans (Department of Minerals and Resources, 2010).

The Amendment of Mining Charter Compliance for the South African Mining and Minerals Industry remains a concern for mining companies in South Africa. As previously discussed, the charter in itself is not a law, hence noncompliance cannot legally result in the cancellation (section 47 of MPRDA) of a mining right. Hence, section 47 of the MPRDA does not refer to noncompliance with the charter. Clause 2.9 of the charter provides that "every mining company must report its level of compliance with the Mining Charter annually, as provided for by section 28(2) (c) of the MPRDA". Clause 1 (A) of the bill (MPRDA) seeks to overcome this enforcement difficulty by extending the definition of "this act" to include not only the charter, but also the Codes of Good Practice for the South African Mineral Industry and the Housing and Living Conditions Standards for the Minerals Industry. In addition, it seems likely that a section 25 (A) will be added to the act, specifically requiring the holder of a mining right to comply with the charter. This would appear to empower the minister to institute the cancellation provisions of section 47 for any noncompliance with the charter, the codes or the standards.

2.4.5. Employment Equity Act

Besides industry culture, laws relating to work and employment in individual countries can play a dual role in hindering gender equity (Lahiri-Dutt, 2013). Section 9(1) provides for the promotion of a society in which diversity of identity is respected and protected. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, stipulates that designated employers implement affirmative action, thereby compelling organizations to eradicate all forms of discrimination in organizational processes and procedures. With such legal measures put in place (Promotion of the Equality Act) acceptance and change within organisations has to be accelerated. Again the Employment Equity Act, Act 55 of 1998 promotes the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy by achieving equity in the workplace, again by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination and implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational and levels in workforce.

2.4.6. King Reports on Corporate Governance

South Africa has been at the bleeding edge of building up corporate administration codes (Bezuidenhout, Van Aardt and Van Aardt, 2014). Corporate administration has been portrayed as just the framework by which organizations are coordinated and controlled (Erasmus, Strydom and Rudansky-Kloppers, 2013). Such administration is portrayed by the moral estimations of duty, responsibility, reasonableness and straightforwardness. All the more particularly, it is worried with the structures and procedures related to administration, basic leadership and control in organizations and associations (Mthanti and Ojah, 2016). The Lord III report gives a more extensive meaning of the duties of organizations, not restricting the degree to the social perspectives as it were. Besides, Erasmus et al. (2013) expound that corporate duty is the obligation of the organization for the effects of its choices and exercises on society and the earth, through straightforward and moral conduct.

The objective of the third King Report (King III, 2009) is to make recommendations on a Code of Practice in terms of the financial and ethical aspects of corporate governance. As with King I and King II, the King Committee endeavoured to be at the forefront of governance internationally and this has again been achieved by focusing on the importance of reporting annually on how companies have positively and negatively affected the economic life of the community in which they operated during the year under review (King III, 2009). In addition, emphasis has been placed on the requirement to report on how the company intends to enhance positive aspects and reduce any possible negative impacts on the economic life of the community in which it will operate in the year ahead (King III, 2009).

The introduction to King III (2009) states that "the third report on corporate governance became necessary because of the new Companies Act" (71 of 2008) "and the recent changes in international governance trends". The philosophy of King III (2009) revolves around leadership, sustainability and corporate citizenship. According to King III (2009), good governance is essentially about effective leadership, which is characterised by the ethical values of responsibility, accountability, fairness, transparency and responsible leaders directing company strategies and operations with a view to achieving sustainable economic, social and environmental performance. On the other hand, corporate citizenship encourages companies to operate in a sustainable manner and sustainability considerations are rooted in the South African Constitution (1996), which is the basic social contract that South Africans have entered into (King, 2009).

King III, unlike King I and King II, applies to all entities regardless of the manner and form of incorporation or establishment and whether in the public, private sectors or non-profit sectors. According to King III, "there is always a link between good governance and compliance with law". While the South African government has made efforts to amend existing environment-related legislation and enact new legislation for better environmental management the question arises if this legislation will support the environmental objectives outlined in the King III report on corporate governance.

2.4.7. The Codes of Good Practice for the South African Minerals Industry

These Codes were developed by the Minister of Minerals and Energy in terms of section 100(1) (b) of the Mineral and Petroleum Development Act No 28 of 2002 which states that the Minister must, within five years from the date on which the Act took effect, develop a code of good practice for the minerals industry in the Republic.

That document is a guideline document on how to complete empowerment in the mining industry. The purpose of the document as set out in the Code's introductory section stipulates the following: "The purpose of this document is to set out administrative principles in order to facilitate the effective implementation of the minerals and mining legislation and enhance the implementation of the Broad-Based Socio-Economic Charter applicable to the mining industry and to give effect to section 100(1) (b) of the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act, 2002 by developing a Code of Good Practice for the minerals industry in the Republic".

These legislative enactments provide the legal basis for transformation in South Africa and warrant being mentioned in the introduction. Other legislative measures promulgated prior to the Charter in an attempt to address transformation were touched on further in the research, for example, Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998 and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, 4 of 2000 among others.

The risk would be too big to undertake a research on transformation without learning from the transformation strategies and lessons from other countries. The issue of transformation affects the political, social and economic aspects of a country. The reward is stability and security. It means stability for future generations. This research has examined and has drawn upon experiences and lessons from other countries that have got similar approaches.

Singh (2017) states that, nations, for example, Malaysia, Joined Conditions of America, Brazil and New Zealand had additionally experienced amending monetary and social uneven characters. These nations needed to receive Confirmation Activity Arrangements to review political, financial and social change to impact a redistribution of riches, annihilation of neediness and rebuilding of society. These nations are like South Africa in that they are likewise home to ethnically diverse groups of individuals. At the end of the day, they additionally have a plural society. The significance of a similar examination was to draw on and gain from the approach embraced by other nations in executing arrangements composed towards social and financial joining of various ethnic groups with the key goal of having indigenous individuals or previously impeded groups of individuals partake in the standard of the economy.

2.5. Gender equity perspectives in the global mining sector

On a global scale, women represent a relatively untapped source of talent in the workplace albeit progress has been made over the last decades; barriers to women's advancement continue to persist (Mihail, 2006). According to Burke (2001), various studies have observed that the trend of women entering the workplace has increased in numbers over decades in all developed and developing countries. Their pursuit of education has shifted to the professions of business management, engineering and computer science. This confirms the level on which women have made great strides in entering management in various professions; however this has not significantly transformed the way in which business perceives women globally (Burke, 2001).

As indicated by Kephart and Schumacher (2005), women have been battling inside a wide range of organisations for an equal role and equivalent regard comparable to their male counterparts for quite a long time. In the South African mining sector, the condition is the same with regards to disparity of sexual orientation. The South African Minerals (Act no. 50 of 1991) restricted women from working underground (Simango, 2006). In 2002, the South African Mining Sanction was established to address the unevenness that existed in the business (AngloGold Ashanti Annual Report to Society, 2007).

Individuals are differentiated through gender. Although race often used to characterise individuals also, gender is more important. Andersson and Gardeström (2013), argue that, although in a general definition of the term, equality means that people receive exactly the same opportunity or outcome, it is about quantity and sameness. Equity on the other hand is about justness and fairness, and that everyone receive the same quality of outcome. Women are subjected to a variety of barriers that determine their organisational experiences, and therefore the achievement of gender equity requires the elimination of patriarchal practices, stereotypes and attitudes that perpetuate their marginalisation. Striving for gender equity within the different industries, especially in mining should not reduce women to being passive victims of the transformation agenda as they operate in difficult conditions also.

Gender matters most in the development of the self-concept, as individuals become attuned to gender differences. Steyn (2014) argues that, it is important to note that gender is best understood as culturally learned beliefs about what it means to be male or female. In everyday life gender differences are objectively observable. In workplaces gender differences are also observable in the choices women make and such differences already exist in the career choices women tend to make. Women usually gravitate towards jobs that reduce inequality, while men prefer jobs that actually accentuate it (Styen, 2014).

It was until 1996, that women in all South African mines were prohibited, by law, from working underground. After the introduction of the Mining Charter this all changed and mining companies started hiring women for various positions. De Klerk (2012) has investigated the perceptions of the working environment of women in the mining activities in order to establish what changes were made to accommodate women. It was found that mining companies have to work hard to change the perception that women are not wanted in the industry, but that a lot has happened since 1996. Again the study found that there is significant resistance towards women working in the core mining industry. Mines are making changes to accommodate women.

As shown by Campbell (2007), the number of women working in the mining industry is expanding. Mining companies uses numerous departments, to strengthen their capabilities, for example, human resources, administration, legal, public and investor relations, finance and audit. Significant advance has been made in pulling in young women to study mining engineering at universities (Campbell, 2007). "The genuine issue the industry is presently finding, is holding its female mining engineering and production staff", (Campbell, 2007). Campbell (2007) states that it is not just other mining organizations that poach the female mining engineering graduates, but organizations in totally different areas of the economy. These organisations offer less physical, more agreeable jobs, with higher pay rates and higher economic well-being and are all the more family friendly.

2.5.1. Gender equity in the South African mining context

The laws validating women's rights as part of society have seen significant changes, but in practice they are quite weak, because in countries, where inequalities still affect the female population, the non-differential recognition of the work of women in the various aspects persists. One of the most common, which is not valued, is the "unpaid work" for women at home, because in most cultures this is simply the duty of the women towards her family (Shastri, 2009). Elborgh-Woytek, Newiak, Kochhar, Fabrizio, Kpodar, Wingender, Clements, and Schwartz (2013) state that "women make up little over half the world population, but their contribution to measured economic activity, growth, and well-being is far below its potential, with serious macroeconomic consequences". While not uncontroversial, there is evidence of a positive impact of women presence on boards and in senior management on companies' performance. Companies employing female mangers, could be better positioned to serve consumer markets dominated by women (Center for Advanced Human Resource Studies, 2011).

Mining associations are confronted with difficulties of implementing and overseeing change in a viable way. Where change arrangements are executed, however, there are neither inward nor outward (from government) checking, assessment and confirmation frameworks (Mxhakaza, 2010). Despite the fact that the Mines and Works Demonstration of 1911, confined women from working underground, a trend of women

in mining has picked up energy all through South Africa. Regardless of a politically sanctioned racial segregation period restriction on women working underground just being lifted in 1996, 15% of all representatives in the mining area are currently female, surpassing the administration's own particular focus of 10% (Organization Staff, 2015). A quarter century prior to that, the main Human Improvement Report in 1990 started with a basic idea: that advancement is about expanding individuals' decisions concentrating comprehensively on the extravagance of human lives as opposed to barely on the lavishness of economies (Human Improvement Report, UNDP, 2015). Joined country provincial Human Advancement Report for SADC contends that women in SADC experience the ill-effects of disproportional levels of destitution contrasted with men (Local Human Improvement Report, 2000). An enticing contention is found in the UN's correct approach, which sets women's and men's equivalent rights, and by expansion women's entitlement to be dealt with similarly in access to training, business compensation and advancement (Sarita, 2001).

In a country such as South Africa, gender is another characteristic that tends to play a very meaningful role in the allocation of jobs. During the undesired apartheid South Africa, workplaces were dominated by men who were segregated according to their race, with whites dominating the management positions and Africans in labour intensive jobs. Benya (2009) claims that, pre-industrial history tells us of the confinement of women to the household, and how women were socialised to care for their families and run their homes while men went out in order to provide for their families. In South Africa, the historically gendered roles played by women and men in the mining industry were quite traditional. Men were breadwinners and entered the public sphere (the mining workplace), while women were responsible for maintaining the family and therefore remained in the domestic sphere, the home (Ranchod, 2001). These gender identities are linked to gender roles that are socially developed and culturally associated with each gender (Schilt and Connell, 2007). There used to be a clear division of labour between men and women, with men doing agricultural work, physical work in the household kraal, woodworking, mining and hunting, and women doing the household construction, child care and household craft and preparing food (Benya, 2009).

Despite all the challenges, according to Doret (2016), women all over the world have been involved in mining activities for centuries. Mining has been considered a very masculine industry, due to its heavily male-dominated workforce as well as the physicality of mining work. The way the mining industry was socially organised imposed unequal social relationships on women and men and led to the subordination of the position of women, both within the mining industry and within the communities outside it (Lahiri-Dutt and Macintyre, 2006). Women are not only dealing with the challenges inherent in the mining lifestyle but also have to contend with a workplace that has been shown to be at times exclusionary of women (Bailey-Kruger, 2012). Women also missed out on the potential benefits gained from the mining industry and income was largely captured by men.

Traditionally, only two areas of the mining industry were open to women. Firstly, they were mainly employed in administrative and supportive positions and secondly, they acted as prostitutes in brothels that sprang up next to mining camps (Singer, 2002, Botha, 2013 & Bilimoria and Lord, 2014). When women first entered the mining industry, they encountered opposition from some male employees, were exposed to crude jokes and harassment, and struggled to be accepted by their male colleagues (Women in Mining Canada, 2010). Women entering the workplace are also often caught in a 'double bind', as they have to do two jobs at once. Women coming from work have to do a 'second shift' at home where they take care of the home and the emotional, physical and psychological needs of their families (Popenoe, Cunningham, Boul, 1998, and Botha, 2013).

Although under-represented in the mining sector, it is evident from recent research conducted in Canada, South Africa and the United Kingdom that there has been a noticeable improvement in gender diversity in mining workforces (Women in Mining Canada 2010; Women in Mining South Africa, 2015; Women in Mining - UK, 2015). However, it is also evident from research conducted recently that women still face a multitude of obstacles in the sector including, among other things, a male-dominated culture, discrimination, resistance by male workers, sexual abuse and harassment, inappropriate personal protective equipment, shift work, inadequate infrastructure

facilities (ablution facilities and change houses isolation), physical incapability and a lack of clear and transparent development opportunities (Badenhorst 2009; Benya 2009; Women in Mining Canada 2010; Australian Human Rights Commission 2013; Botha 2013; Scheepers, 2013; Women in Mining South Africa 2015; Women in Mining – UK, 2015).

Carter,(2014), reported that, Wilhemina Manaso, Mine Manager at BHP Billiton in South Africa shares her experiences in these words: "There are a lot of barriers caused by my gender; as a woman, if you're doing well in a male-dominated industry they think you're having an affair with one of the senior managers. Every time I was promoted, they would say, 'how come you promoted her? Is she having a relationship with you?"

Furthermore, she mentions that "many of the problems women face when pursuing a mining career are those which arise due to women's traditional role as the primary caregiver. It can be very difficult for females to achieve a good work/life balance because of the industry's constraints in terms of flexibility, remote site work and juggling child care with often unsociable hours and expectations of overtime. These problems arise irrespective of the worker's gender, but naturally a higher percentage of women assume the role of primary caregiver, so of course these issues are more visible to them" (Kathie, 2014).

Ahmad and Lahiri-Dutt (2006) and Lahiri-Dutt (2012) note that women and men have well-demarcated gender roles in indigenous communities, so the impact of mining on women and men is not the same. Mining organizations and encompassing mining groups confront men with challenges regarding reasonable social advancement. Working environment, culture and group character can both make solid union and additionally prompt the avoidance of specific gatherings, dismissal of new thoughts and fortify conventional, manly values.

Minerals are basic for human welfare. Notwithstanding, their extraction is related with both open doors and difficulties. Recorded worries around work conditions and the aggressiveness of the mining segment have been supplemented by a developing number of different issues. In "Breaking ore and gender patterns" (Andersson, Fältholm, Abrahamsson, and Lindberg, 2013), which looks at the strategic research and innovation agenda for the mining industry, important links are identified between gender equality, efficient use of resources, attractiveness, innovation, and sustainable growth. Kemp, Keenan, Gronow, and Davidson (2009) describe how one of the world's largest mining companies works to integrate gender considerations at the mining site. Abrahamsson (2014) indicates that, today, the mining industry in Sweden is a typical male-dominated sector. In the major mining companies, 90-95% of the blue-collar workers are men. Similar figures can be found in many other countries, such as India (Lahiri-Dutt 2013) and Australia (Eveline & Booth 2002). An unequal gender order in the organisation hinders gender diversity and affects work conditions in mining dialogue, communication and the mixture/integration of different work experiences and the exchange of different skills/knowledge.

According to the Australian Human Rights Commission (2013), "sex discrimination is when a person is treated less favourably than a person of the opposite sex would be treated in the same or similar circumstances", while "sexual harassment is any unwelcome sexual behaviour which is likely to offend, humiliate or intimidate." The following research demonstrates that sexual discrimination and harassment have shown to impact on both professional and nonprofessional women.

In a landmark study investigating gender issues in mining, Eveline and Booth (2002) have examined the implication of the introduction of the Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) principles at a diamond mine in Western Australia four years after it was introduced nationally. They interviewed 32 females employed in blue collar employment at a single mine in Western Australia. The authors reported that 90% of participants had experienced some form of gender-based discrimination and 66% currently believed they were experiencing discrimination (Eveline and Booth (2002). A high percentage of participants (78%) thought they stood out as a minority in the

workplace and thus, came under greater scrutiny if they had difficulties within the workplace. Moreover, a quarter of the females interviewed desired more support for women; however, they requested that support should occur "unobtrusively" so as not to upset their male co-workers due to the belief that affirmative action threatened their relationships with men.

In addition, the majority of women reported incidents of sexual harassment and struggled to deal with it when it occurred. The participants reported that they felt unable to speak out for fear of being singled out and being exposed to antagonism from some of the men. However, there was no objective data, such as observations to confirm the women's views. Thus, Eveline and Booth (2002) discovered that sexual discrimination and harassment were a major concern for a sample of female blue-collar workers in a coal mine in Western Australia.
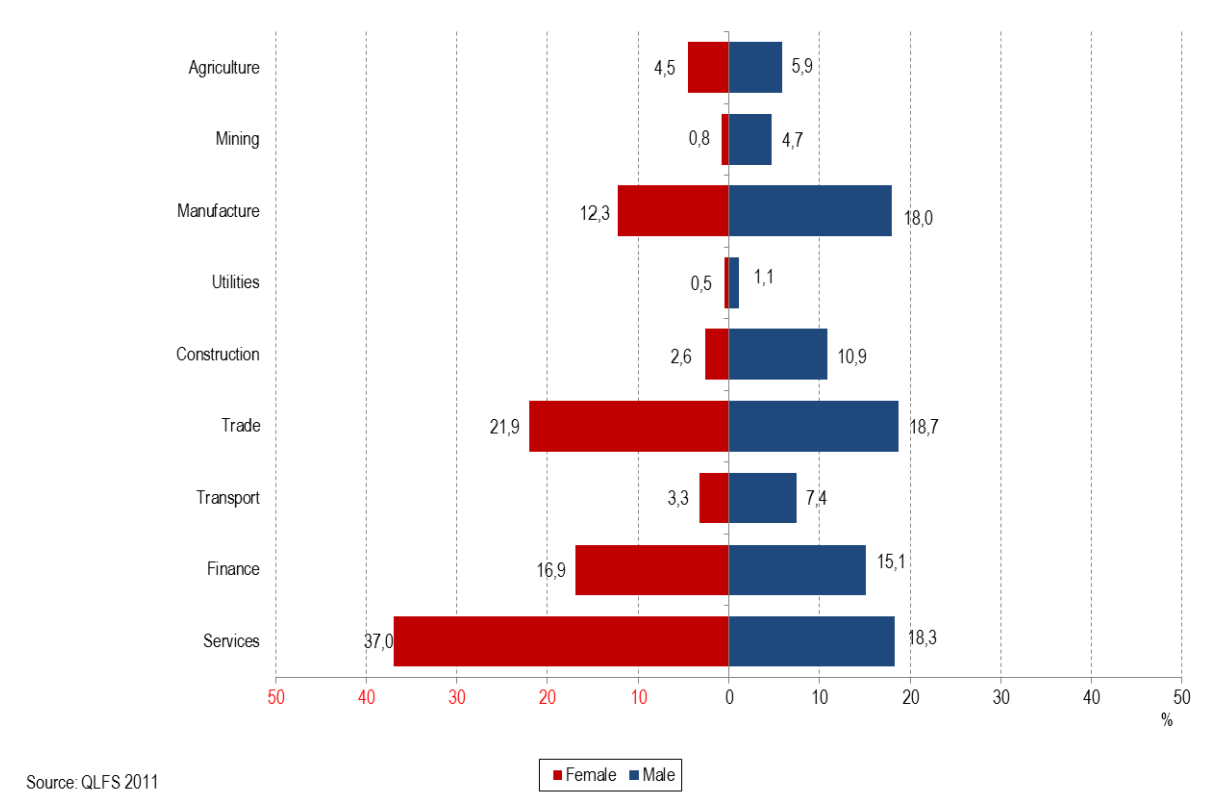

Figure 2.1.: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years employed in the formal sector by industry, 2011. (Source: Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Figure 2.1. Shows that, in the formal sector, over a third (37, 0%) of the women are employed in services, with another (21,9%) in trade and (16,9%) in finance. There is thus relatively less clustering in the formal sector than in the informal sector. Nevertheless nearly three-quarters (75,8%) of the women are found in the top three industries services, trade and finance. Trade (18,7%), services (18,3%) and manufacturing (18,0%) each account for more or less equal proportion of the men employed in the formal sector. As with women, there is relatively less clustering in the formal sector than in the informal sector. The mining industry shows that women represent (0,8%) of the work-force within the sector, while men's participation looks to be far greater than those of women.

Women's participation in the labour force has increased over the past 30 years, mainly due to expanding economic opportunities and equal employment opportunity (EEO) legislation, which has drawn many female workers into the market. Benya, (2016) argues that there are different perceptions about the inclusion of women in mining. Some men are sceptical. Especially traditionally minded men see the inclusion of women as going against traditional norms, which is seen as a challenge to the mining culture. Women are released to mining for different reasons from those of men. Unemployment is the main driver; women have to feed their families and sustain their livelihoods. The growing number of women in the mining industry can be attributed to the advent of democracy in South Africa, which has led to a reduction of the level at which discrimination is openly displayed by members of the general population. The outlawing of unfair procedural and policy discrimination in any form has also been alleviated the degree of discrimination women experience in the work place.

Women struggle to be fully accepted by male co-workers. They are still subjected to discrimination, development opportunities are not clear and transparent, they are constantly exposed to some form of sexual harassment and there is a lack of effective support mechanisms for women working in mines. Campbell (2007) reports that, "[i]n South Africa, across the cultural spectrum, there is still a social expectation that women should have children early, but if they do this, they will have no time to establish themselves professionally and it is not clear whether they will afterwards be

employable in their original speciality." Whittock (2002) emphasises that assumptions related to rules, behaviour, ability and needs of women are still existing within organisations; this being said, it is clear that organisations must prioritise challenges that exist with specific references to gender stereotyping. History was written in 1977, when an international court judgement allowed women to work underground in mining as it was found to be an infringement of human rights to prohibit anyone from performing any kind of work (Alexander, 2007).

Gender discrimination is uncalled for when discussing critical political, business and social charges, in light of the fact that in this general public ladies' investment, when settling on huge and vital choices, is unnerved when contrasted with male interest. While philosophies of human rights, sexual orientation correspondence and the disposal of segregation support most substantial enterprises' business approaches, counter belief systems of sex distinction regularly win by and by (Lahiri-Dutt, 2012). Regardless of changes in governments and arrangements over the globe, women however remain underrepresented at all hierarchal levels, including top administration, while men are five times more prone to progress to Chief Executives Officers (CEO) parts. Women entering work in mining industry lead to a better comprehension of the mining association as a working environment. Working environments are often constrained to offices, as well as field employments, for example, mineral investigation, pits, underground and mineral beneficiation. Regardless of regular conviction of mining as a diversion movement, additionally it carries with it financial advantages, as work, contracts, or the buying of privately delivered merchandise (Sosa and Keenan, 2001). Hinton, Veiga and Beinhoff (2003) say that, the "[m]ining people group far and wide are (sic) different, alterable and unmistakable, they shift from culture to culture, locale to district and mine to mine, and change through the span of time. The ladies inside these groups are additionally heterogeneous and one of a kind; nonetheless, they have a tendency to be occupied with particular parts all through the world".

Mxhakaza (2010) has shown that, in the South Africa mining industry women have been subjected to out-of-line segregation because of their sex, for a huge number of years. Women have a patriarchal framework forced on them, including attributed gendered parts, which mean they are relied upon to satisfy certain parts, for example, the raising of kids and the support of the family unit. Local women, in rural zones are generally required in developing fields and assembling nourishment and water (Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2016). In spite of its financial advantages, mining can likewise adversely affect nearby groups and nature. Key issues related with sex disparity and power transaction can minimize the influence of women and of the customary proprietors of the land where mines operate (Lozeva and Marinova, 2010). Mining action has been a critical driver of fair development and also pay and work in parts of world. Be that as it may, while pay development is a monetary advantage, the high livelihoods related with the mining segment may likewise prompt more noteworthy disparity (Reeson, Measham, and Hosking, 2012). Claire McMaster (Women in Mining South Africa, 2013), says that "the test is not to expand the quantity of ladies in mining because of recorded target setting but since it bodes well and the mining business turns into an awesome place for ladies to work".

The Women and Work Commission (2006) indicts that, women are not considered as being similarly fit to take every necessary step that is common in the space of men on the grounds that they are considered to be sub-par status under patriarchy, as is reflected in every other circle of life. Eftimie, Heller, and Strongman (2009) show that, in a sexual division of work places women in assignments are thought to be fitting for the women's part, for example, instructors, welfare labourers, and in the wellbeing sector. Women are doled out for work parts which are like the household tasks they perform in the home which are thought to be of less esteem (Seekings and Nattrass, 2008). Since the promulgation of the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Regulations Act (MPRDA) in 2002 and the Mining Charter in 2004, the number of women in the industry has significantly increased. Most mines meet or exceed the 10% women in mining target and numerous industry initiatives are underway to make a career in mining more welcoming to female employees and job seekers.

- Representation of women in mining increased from around 11400 in 2002 to around 53000 women in 2015.
- By 2015, representation of women in mining was 18%.

Table 2.2. Percentages of women in the work force by commodity in 2015

% of women in the work force by commodity in 2015	
Gold	11%
PGMs	12%
Diamond	19%
Coal	17%
Cement, lime aggregates and sand	19%

Source: Chamber of mines, (2016)

In the training and development of women in mining, as the industry seeks to encourage the participation of women at all levels, special focus is placed on their training and development. The majority of women employed in the mining industry were skilled in 2015. Mngomezul (2006) states that, "the early mining industry was built on back-breaking labour by poorly paid black men, who were prohibited from rising to skilled and professional posts. By implementing the Skills Development Act, companies will be forced to provide learnerships and this way will provide better qualified individuals". The purpose of the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 (SA, 1998) is to "provide an institutional framework to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies; to develop and improve the skills of the South African workforce; to integrate those strategies within the National Qualifications Framework contemplated in the South African Qualifications Authority Act (Act no. 58 of 1995) (SA, 1995) to provide for learnerships that lead to recognised occupational qualifications; to provide for the financing of skills development by means of a levy-grant scheme and a National Skills Fund; to provide for and regulate employment services; and to provide formatters connected therewith".

2.6. The effects of the Social and Labour Plan on addressing Gender Equity

In 1994, with the appearance of vote based system, a fairly elected government came into power and acquired an opposing legacy: the most developed economy in Africa yet one with major financial issues. The most genuine of these issues were and are high rates of unemployment, miserable neediness in the majority of the population, sharp imbalances in the appropriation of wage, property and opportunities and in addition elevated amounts of wrongdoing and brutality. Black Africans where the ones most affected by these less than desirable trends. The mining industry is committed to addressing legacies of the past and contributing meaningfully to policies, practices and outcomes that reflect the true demographics of the country, and to create an environment that will create a sustainable and prosperous mining industry.

Madolo (2014) indicated that, it is without doubt essential to address past historical imbalances in a plural society for peace and unity to be enjoyed, as failure to do so would result in disenchantment of a section of the population that was disadvantaged previously. The result would be that peace and an economic boom would never be truly achieved. This addressing of imbalances was evidenced by South Africa emerging from its violent history. Further evidence of this addressing of imbalances would be considered in related studies of other countries that embarked on transformation. The researcher could not challenge the numerous ideologies that rendered unfair discrimination to be widely systemic and hegemonic without active and consistent advocacy and comparison.

The post-apartheid South African scenario is one that has redefined the exclusionary construction of apartheid and tried to redress past injustices by reconfiguring these in ways that are more inclusive of the people of South Africa; people, who recognise the injustices of their past, honour those who suffered for injustice and freedom in their land, respect those who have worked to build and develop the country, and believe that South Africa belongs to all that live in it, united in their diversity. It is through their unreserved choice of their delegates, that they receive this constitution as the preeminent Law of the Republic to mend the divisions of the past and set up a general public in light of law based qualities, social equity and crucial human rights; establish

the frameworks for a popularity based and open society in which the administration depends on the will of the general population and each subject is similarly ensured by the law; enhance the personal satisfaction of every one of its nationals and free the capability of every individual and produce a vote based South Africa ready to assume its legitimate position as a sovereign state in the group of countries.Individuals have had the desire for the past to be attended to. People of all races needed to partake in, take an interest in and claim the mining segment and the economy on the loose. With the beginning of a vote based system, the interest for conveyance with respect to the administration turned into a goal. The Constitution stipulated that South Africa not just had a place for every one of the individuals who lived in it, but that it was likewise one in view of the establishment of a law based and comprehensive society. The issues of social equity and basic human rights are imbedded in the Constitution.

The latest report released by the Chamber of Mines (2016) indicates that, until the late 1980s, skilled jobs were denied to black miners. It took 10 years for the proportion of positions skilled by black miners to approach 20%. Since 2004, historically disadvantaged South Africans (HDSAs) in skilled and management positions have risen to between 40% and 75% depending on category. However since 2000, the value of empowerment transactions amounts to R205 billion in 2014 money terms:

- All large mining companies achieved the 26% target of HDSA ownership and meaningful economic participation.
- Meaningful economic participation inclusive of identifiable beneficiaries: Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) entrepreneurs (63%), communities (22%), Employee Share Ownership Plans (ESOPs) (15%).

The above mentioned transactions have yielded the following results:

- 7,1 million HDSAs participated
- R47 billion were paid in dividends
- R116 billion in initial transaction values
- R159 billion net value creation (after debt, including dividends)

2.7. Conclusion for the chapter

The mining industry has made a meaningful socio-economic contribution towards the national economies, and to a very lesser extent towards surrounding communities in which they operate, as illustrated in the reviewed literature. Systems and policies that have been put in place by both the government and the mining industry for protecting and contributing towards the communities around the mines are also evident, especially in South Africa. However, the implementation of these policies by the mines may be attributed to passive compliance in order to avoid penalties by government. Another issue that arises from the literature is the low number of women in mining across the globe, as well as the lack of mechanisms to involve these communities. The next chapter will outline the research methodology used to acquire data.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an explanation of the steps that were followed during the collection of data. The collected data were used to address the research questions posed in chapter one. Thus, the chapter will give a description of the research design, research population, the sampling procedure, as well as the measuring instrument used to collect data and the procedure of administering the instrument.

3.2. Research design

Shuttlewort (2008) defines research as gathering of data, information and facts for the advancement of knowledge. It is a multi-stage process that has a specific order which needs to be followed to ensure that the study is successfully completed. There are three types of methods to conduct a research study which are qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods. The researcher decides on a type of study within these three choices, according to Creswell (2013). However, research design is the type of inquiry adopted within the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods and approaches that provides specific direction for the procedure in a research design. Research paradigms incorporate the fundamental philosophical concepts and values about the nature of reality and scientific pursuit of knowledge (Vithal and Janse, 2012).

Flick (2014) sees research design as a plan for collecting and analysing evidence that will make it possible for the investigator to answer whatever questions he or she has posed. The design of an investigation touches on almost all aspects of the research, from the minute details of data collection to the selection of the technique of data analysis.

Qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Kaijanaho, 2014). The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participants' setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. It was not until the 19th and early 20th centuries, however, that what we now call qualitative research methods were consciously employed in social research (Taylor, Bogdan and DeVault, 2015). Polit and Beck (2010) state that, the goal of most qualitative studies is not to generalize but rather to provide a rich, contextualized understanding of some aspect of human experience through the intensive study of particular cases. Yet, in an environment where evidence for improving practice is held in high esteem, generalization in relation to knowledge claims merits careful attention by both qualitative and quantitative researchers. According to Creswell (2013), strategies of inquiry associated with quantitative research are those that invoke the post-positivist worldview and that originate mainly in psychology. It cannot be characterized by the superiority of certain methods over and above others. Flick (2014) mentions that qualitative research entails a specific understanding of the relation between issue and method.

Quantitative research involves looking at amounts or quantities of one or more variables of interest and it attempts to measure variables in some numerical way (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). It employs the same scientific principles and techniques that have made the modern world what it is, and it offers the tempting idea that its findings have certain 'definiteness' about them, which make it possible for conclusions to be drawn to a specifiable level of probability (Davies and Hughes, 2014). However, generalization, which is an act of reasoning that involves drawing broad inferences from particular observations, is widely acknowledged as a quality standard in quantitative research, but more often controversial in qualitative research (Polit and Beck, 2010).

In qualitative research the researcher is viewed as the essential instrument of data gathering and investigation. The researcher connects with the circumstance, understands the numerous elucidations, as various substances exist in any given setting as both the analyst and the members build their own particular substances. She/he endeavours to gather data in a non-meddling way, subsequently endeavouring to study genuine circumstances as they unfurl actually without foreordained limitations or conditions that control the review or its results.

Table 3.1: Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches,

Orientation	Quantitative	Qualitative
Assumption about the world	A single reality, i.e., can be measured by an instrument.	Multiple realities
Research purpose	Establish relationships between measured variables	Understanding a social situation from participants' perspectives
Research methods and processes	- procedures are established before study begins; - a hypothesis is formulated before research can begin; - deductive in nature.	- flexible, changing strategies; - design emerges as data are collected; - a hypothesis is not needed to begin research; - inductive in nature.
Researcher's role	The researcher is ideally an objective observer who neither participates in nor influences what is being studied.	The researcher participates and becomes immersed in the research/social setting.
Generalisability	Universal context-free generalizations	Detailed context-based generalizations

Source: (Thomas, 2010).

Mixed methods research involves employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods. It is the type of research in which a researcher or a team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). Leedy and Ormrod (2014) indicate that, the trickiest part in mixed research methods is the combining the two methodological methods into a research endeavour in which all aspects substantially contribute to a single, greater whole. Furthermore they mention that qualitative and quantitative methodologies are not necessarily a case of either-or, but rather a case of more or less. In a typical mixed-methods investigation, the researcher must be well versed in most of all of the skills sets (Creswell, Klassen, Plano Clark, and Smith, 2011).

Mixed methods study is the most challenging study a researcher can undertake, because it requires both qualitative and quantitative research skills (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). Simons and Lathlean (2010) indicate that, mixed methods research is about undertaking research where there is an interaction between the different methodological components. However, mixed methods research is not without its own challenges not least because of the additional requirement of expertise to make sure that each and every element of the study is covered in full due to the regard for the principles inherent in the design. Gelling (2014) shows that, when a researcher is using both approaches, he or she can make a significant contribution to existing knowledge and understanding. It is important, however, that researchers adopt this approach for the right reasons and consider the additional challenges faced by mixed methods research.

Research design can include any of the following: case study, action research, causal, cohort, historical, cross-section, longitudinal, observational, descriptive, experimental, exploratory, philosophical, sequential, and etc. Some of the research designs are discussed as follows.

As discussed by Leedy and Ormrod (2014), historical research is looking at a string of seemingly random events; then the historical researcher develops a rational explanation for their sequence, speculates about possible cause and effect relationships among them, and draws inferences about the effects of events on individuals and the society in which they lived. At its main function, historical research deals with the meaning of events, on how they unfolded. Historical research is certainly not the area of historians alone; on the contrary, it can be found in many disciplines such as political science, literature, geography, finance, anthropology and other studies. Furthermore, Thyer (2010) claims that some studies, such as social science, engage in comparative historical research, comparing historical events and process across two or more societies or cultures, with the goal of identifying similarities, differences, and patterns that might possibly reflect cause and effect relationships.

Experimental research design can most convincingly identify cause and effect relationships (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). It addresses questions concerning causality like to what an extent a set of variables, known as the independent variables, does influences other variables, known as dependent variables (Struwig and Stead, 2001). Progress is relative and it is measured by noting the degree of change between what was and what is. Experimental research is often used where there is time priority and consistency in a causal relationship and the magnitude of the correlation is great (Thyer, 2010).

As indicated by Leedy and Ormrod (2014), one possible casual factor is manipulated while controlling all other possible casual factors. It is only through this way that one can determine whether the manipulated factor has a casual effect on the phenomenon studied. The qualitative nature of inquiry is appropriate where little is known about the phenomenon or where the topic needs to be studied in details (Creswell, 2013). A number of past studies have also utilised a phenomenological approach to study the phenomenon of work-life balance by exploring the lived experiences of women (Lewis, 2003; Millward, 2006; Woodward, 2007, Rehman, and Azam Roomi, 2012).

Healy and Devane, (2011) refer to cohort design as a study conducted over a period of time involving members of a population, from which the subjects or representative members come from, and who are united by some commonality or similarity. This design is normally used in the medical sciences but also found in the applied social science. When utilizing a quantitative method, an accomplice examiner makes note of measurable events inside a specific subgroup, joined by same or comparable attributes that are applicable to the exploration of the issue being researched, instead of concentrating on factual events inside the all-inclusive community. By and large it accumulates information utilizing strategies of observation. The use of cohort design is regularly required in light of the fact that a randomized control study might be unethical. Along these lines, this research is typically used to gauge chance elements as it quantifies the potential causes before the event of the results.

According to Bethlehem (1999), cross-sectional designs have three distinctive features which are: no time dimension, a reliance on existing differences rather than change following intervention and groups which are selected based on existing differences rather than through random allocation. The design can just quantify differences between or from among an assortment of individuals, subjects, or phenomena as opposed to a procedure of progress. Along these lines this research can just utilize a moderately passive way to deal with making causal inductions in view of discoveries, since it gives an unmistakable depiction of the results and the qualities related with it at a particular point in time and is concentrating on discovering connections between factors at one particular point in time.

According to Struwig and Stead (2001), descriptive research design attempts to describe something, for example, the demographic characteristics of the users of a given product and the degree to which the product use varies with income, age, sex, etc. Salaria (2012) indicates that, it is concerned not only with the characteristics of individuals but with the characteristics of the whole sample thereof. It provides information useful to the solutions of local issues (problems). Such a survey may be qualitative or quantitative in verbal or numeric form of expression. Such studies are factual and hence supply practical information. This type of research is used to obtain

information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation. It attempts to describe systematically a situation, problem, phenomenon, service or programme, or provides information about, for example, a living condition of a community or describes attitudes towards an issue.

The specific design that the researcher proposes to apply is the descriptive research design. According to Salaria (2012), descriptive research design describes a method of research which concerns itself with the present phenomena in terms of conditions, practices, beliefs, processes, relationships or trends invariably. The researcher wants to analyse selected mining companies in the Lephalale Local Municipality, Waterberg District Municipality, of the Limpopo Province in South Africa to check whether Social and Labour Plans in the mining houses are focused on addressing gender equity; therefore the research will be a descriptive.

3.3 Research paradigm

A paradigm may viewed as a set of basic beliefs or metaphysics that deals with ultimates or first principles (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Wahyuni (2012) defines a research paradigm as a researcher's worldview, belief, or a system of thinking and/or interpretation and thus the behaviour of the research. A paradigm is a theory that guides the way things should be done or are done, or a perception or view, accepted by an individual or a society as a clear example, model, or pattern of how things work in the world. This term was first used by the United States theorist and historian Thomas Kuhn (1922-1996) in his 1962 book "The structure of scientific revolution" to refer to theoretical frameworks within which all scientific thinking and practices operate.

Ontology, epistemology and methodology are three major dimensions of research process according to Terreblanche and Durrheim (1999). According to their view a research paradigm is an all-encompassing system of interrelated practice and thinking that defines the nature of enquiry along these three dimensions. Ontological and

epistemological aspects concern what is commonly referred to as a person's worldview which has significant influence on the perceived relative importance of the aspects of reality (Thomas, 2010). Two conceivable perspectives are: objectivistic and constructivist. These diverse methods for seeing the world have repercussions in most scholarly territories; yet, none of postulations perspectives is thought to be better than the other. Both might be suitable for a few purposes and inadequate or excessively complex for other purposes. Likewise a man may change his/her view contingent upon the circumstance. For instance, this review makes utilization of components from both perspectives and considers them as correlative. Research paradigms can be devided into three philosophically distinct categories as positivism, interpretivism and critical postmodernism (Gephart, 1999). This three-fold classification is considered ideal for this study because these three categories can be used to conveniently place the more specific psychological and sociological theories used in the field.
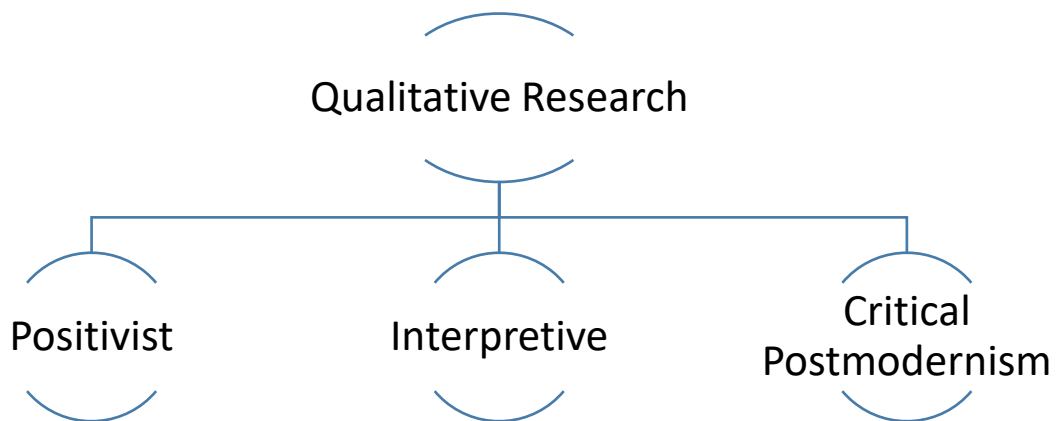

Figure 3.1: Underlying philosophical assumptions. Derived and adopted (Taylor and Medina, 2013).

Taylor and Medina (2013) indicate, that two major research paradigms are the positivist and anti-positivist paradigms. The positivist paradigm strives to investigate, confirm and predict law-like patterns of behaviour, it mostly involves quantitative

methodology, utilising experimental methods involving experimental and control groups and administration of pre- and post-tests to measure gain scores. Positivist is any approach that applies a scientific method to study human action. It should be supported by logical reasoning and empirical data that are self-evident and verifiable (Wahyuni, 2012).

Researchers base their work on certain philosophical perspectives. It may be based on a single or more paradigm(s), depending on the type of research they are carrying out. Therefore, this research will adopt interpretive paradigm since the researcher will be looking into workers experience in their actual work places. The proposed research approach will be qualitative because interpretive researchers believe that the reality to consist of people's subjective experiences of the external world; thus, they may adopt an inter-subjective epistemology and the ontological belief that reality is socially constructed.

3.4. Study area

Lephalale is located approximately 400 km North West of Johannesburg; the study area is located in the Lephalale Local Municipality of the Waterberg District Municipality, in the Limpopo Provinces of South Africa. The topography of the region is very flat, with very few features. All the rivers crossing the area are non-perennial. The biggest river, the Makolo, passes some distance to the east of the study area, flowing from south to north. The region can be described as typical savannah, with the original vegetation consisting of Mixed Bushveld, with Sweet Bushveld occurring to the east. Although some crop farming took place on some of the farms, cattle farming was the main activity and has, in the recent past been replaced by game farming. Coal mining in the Waterberg commenced in the early 1980's after it was discovered in the 1920's during water drilling on the farm Grootegeluk (Wilson and Anhaeusser, 1998).
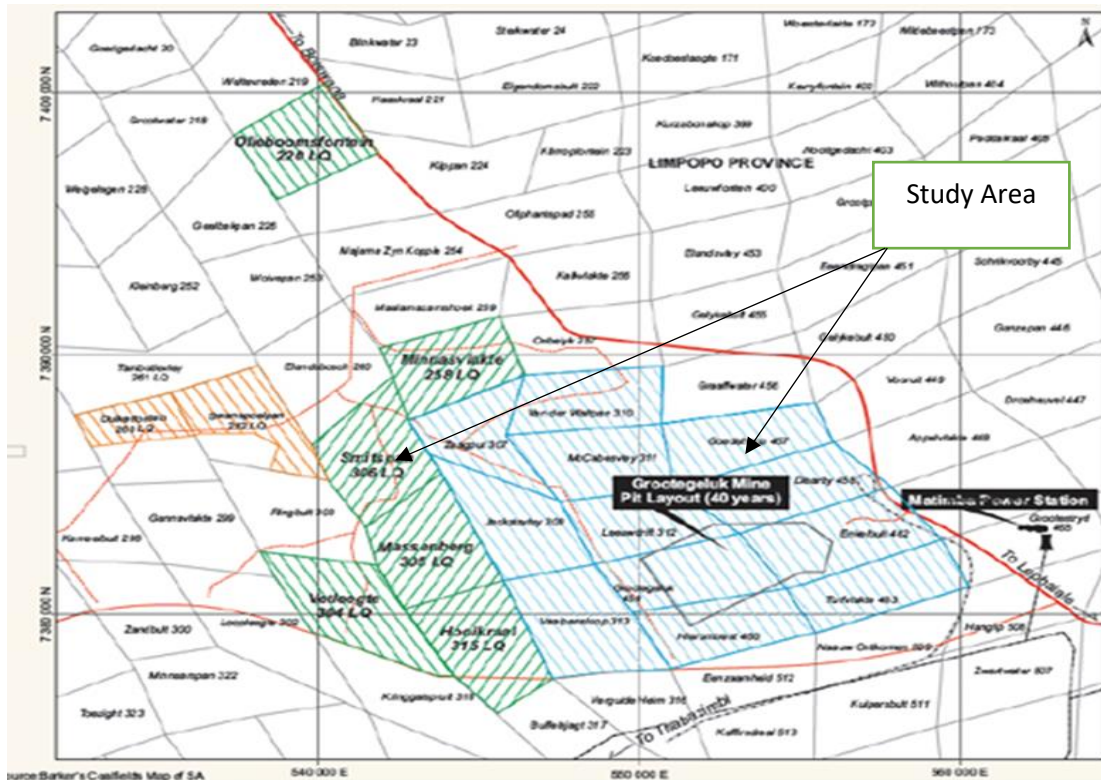
Figure 3.2: Map of the study area. Lephalale.

3.5. Population

Population is defined as the abstract idea of a large group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample; results obtained from this sample are then generalised to the whole population (Neuman, 2011). However, Welman and Kruger (1999) and Robson and McCartan (2016) view a population as the study object which may be in a form of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and the conditions to which they are exposed. The population of the study include Social Labour Plan Officers, Human Resource Managers and women and men working in the mines identified for this study. The total population comprises of over 500 workers.

3.6. Sample, sampling methods and sample size

Neuman (2011) points out that, sample is a small set of cases a researcher selects from a large pool to study and then to generalise to the population. The most important part in sampling is how to select cases from a wider population, which might be too

big to be studied thoroughly or completely so that the research in the end can make meaningful statements that apply to all, not just to the individual participants that took part in the study.

Different sampling designs may be more or less appropriate in different situations (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014). However, when sampling strategies for social research are described, a key distinction is made between probability and nonprobability samples (Ritchie, Lewis and Elam, 2013). Robson and McCartan (2016) point out that probability sampling determines the probability that any element or member of the population will be included in the sample while the probability that any element will be included in a non-probability sample cannot be specified. In simple terms this means that in probability sampling, every part of the population has the potential to be represented in the sample, while in nonprobability the researcher has no way of predicting that each element of the population will be represented in the sample.

Non-probability sampling will be used to select the participants in the study. Leedy and Ormrod (2014) state that purposive sampling is one type of non-probability sampling; it was applied by the researcher in this study as it is appropriate to choose informative participants. The researcher interviewed key personnel with knowledge and experience in the field: Social Labour Plan officers, human resources managers and women and men from the mining company. It is believed that mining companies have Social Labour Plans (SLP) approved by the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR) which state clearly the plans on a Social Labour Plan (SLP). Therefore the sample size of the research is purposively determined by the approved Social and Labour Plans and annual returns as stated in Clause 2.9 of the charter, which provides that "every mining company must report its level of compliance with the Mining Charter annually", as provided for by section 28(2) (c) of the MPRDA. The number of participants (sample) that would take part in the study is twenty (20).

3.7. Data collection

According to Robson and McCartan (2016), a *data collection method* is the technique of gathering research data. This may be done through primary sources such as observation and interviews. In this research primary data has been collected through interviews, and the secondary data through a literature review and analysis of related documents such as the Social Labour Plan reports submitted to the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR). Qualitative data come in a vast array of forms: photos, maps, open-ended interviews observations and documents (Neuman, 2011). This study will apply interviews as a form of data collection. See Annexure A for questionnaires.

3.8. Data analysis

Flick (2014) defines data analysis as the interpretation and classification of linguistic or visual material with the aim to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of making in the material and what is represented in it. Data analysis in this research is quantitative, because the interpretive orientation in the research means that the findings often have greater validity and less artificiality. The process of observing phenomena in natural, real life settings often allows the researcher to develop a more accurate understanding of these phenomena.

Whether the data have been produced for the research through interviews or existing data are used, one can find two basic approaches to analysing them, namely coding and categorizing and investigating data in context (Flick, 2014 According to Braun and Clarke, (2006), thematic analysis is a qualitative analytic method for: identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organises and describes your data set in detail. However, frequently it goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic.. Therefore, thematic analysis will be used to analyse data.

3.9. Ethical considerations

Ethics are formulated to regulate the relations of researchers to the people and fields they intend to study (Flick, 2009). Newsome (2015) defines ethics as considerations of what is right or wrong in the conduct of the research. Research principles indicate that the researcher should avoid harming the participants involved in the process by respecting and taking into account their need and interest. The participants were informed about the confidentiality of their identity, importance of their honest opinion in all the matters raised, that they will remain anonymous, their participation in the study is voluntary and that they could withdraw from participating in the study at any point in time.

3.10. Research limitations

Due to the purposive nature of this study, the sample size of 20 was determined due to limited knowledge on Social and Labour Plan (SLP). Neuman (2011) indicates that two limitations on social research are gate-keepers who control access to data or subjects and control over official statistics. Neuman further mentions that gate-keepers can limit what the researchers can study and may try to protect themselves or their organisation from criticism or embarrassment. They often limit access to subjects or areas which they have a concern for. The selected sample is taken from the mining companies which have approved a Social and Labour Plan (SLP) by the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR). Therefore other attributes for selecting a sample of study might have been omitted in these regard. The number of mining companies and participants might not be enough to allow this study to generalise. This research will therefore suggest that future studies be conducted on those limitations identified.

3.11. Conclusion for the chapter

This chapter presented the methodology as well as the research instrument used to collect data to answer the research questions posed for the current study. The population of this study was medium, and therefore required a census approach due to limited knowledge on Social and Labour Plan (SLP). The questionnaire was used as a method for collecting data. The response rate of the data collection was good and

thus acceptable. The method used for analysing data was clarified, and the results will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This is a qualitative research and the data collected were transcribed, analysed through reviewing of interview notes and findings by means of identifying themes within the interview notes and interpreting them through attaching significant meaning to the identified themes. The primary focus of this study was to look into the effect of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale.

The data collected for this study were analysed by means of a thematic analysis. Silverman (2006) states that, thematic analysis is a flexible research tool that can provide a detailed outline of the content and salient themes within the data. A 'theme' is defined as a recurrent and meaningful reference to a specific subject or idea within a dataset. A thematic analysis seeks to identify such patterns of meaning within a dataset, and to analyse their significance in terms of the research question (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Six phases in conducting a thematic analysis were proposed by Braun and Clark (2006), noting that analysis will require a continual move back and forth between these steps with writing being an integral part of the analysis from the first phase. A thematic analysis is well-suited to the current research question and research aims for several reasons; but mainly, a thematic analysis not only identifies themes, but also provides an understanding of such themes within their wider context (Yardley and Marks, 2004).

4.2. Biographical information (Question 1 of section A, Annexure A)

This section presents a summary of biographical data concerning the respondents' gender and years of experience within the organisation. Individual, face-to-face interviews were conducted with a total of 20 respondents, which include: Social Labour

Plan Officers, Human Resource Managers, Junior and Senior Geologists, Mining Engineers, Artisans, Learner Miners and casual workers.

Biographical Information

Figure 4.1: Gender of the respondents
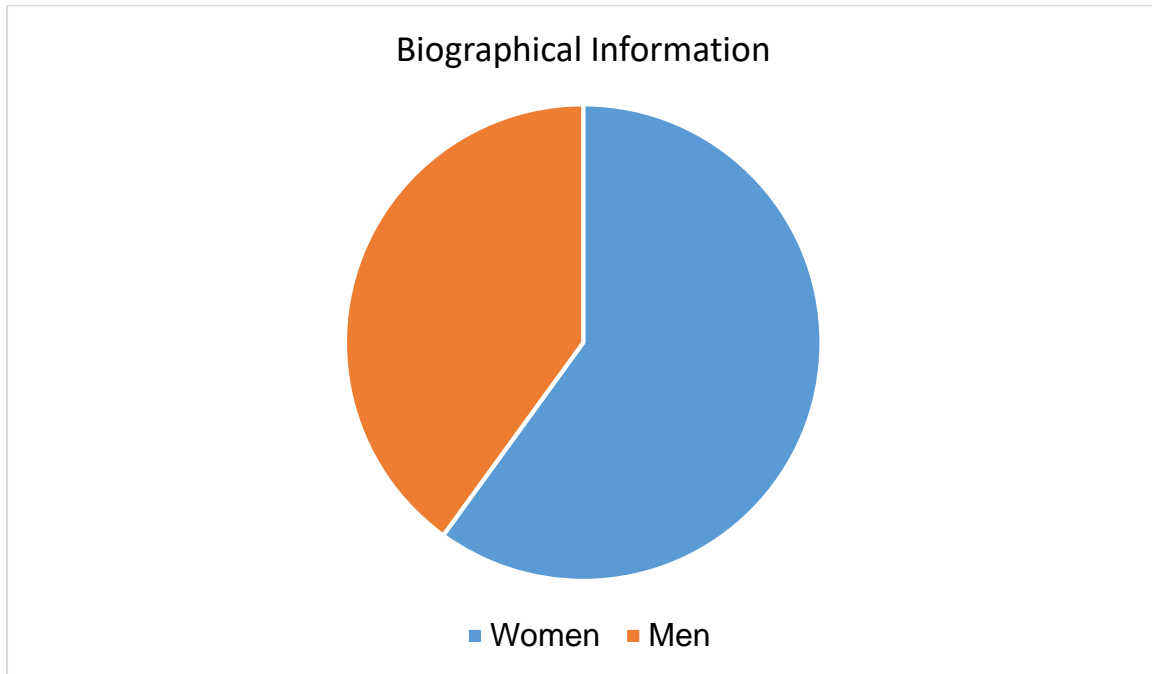
Figure 4.1, is a schematic representation of respondents with 40% of the respondents being males and 60% females. These results illustrate unbalanced gender representation among respondents. The representation was of paramount important as the mining industry is dominated by men with less women. The perceptions of women in terms of addressing gender equity in the selected mining is important.

4.2.1. Number of years' experience in the organisation

Table 4.1: Number of years' experience in the organisation

Number of years' experience in the organisation	Number	Percentage (%)
0 - 5	2	10
6 - 8	8	40
9 -12	6	30
13 -15	2	10
15+	2	10
Total	**20**	**100**

Table 4.1 above indicates that the majority of respondents (90%) has worked more than 5 years within the mining industry and some have got even 15 years and more. This implies that the majority of the respondents has got adequate work experience to participate in the study and give informed responses.

4.3. Opinions on gender equity

This part presents the opinions on gender equity within the mining industry in the Lephalale area.

4.3.1. Understanding of gender equity (Question 1 of section B, Annexure A)

The study wanted to first find out the opinions on the respondents regarding their understanding on gender equity within their organisations. The mining industry is perceived to have slow progress in empowering women in mining. The majority of the respondents had some clue of what gender equity was all about, although they defined it differently. All had a common understanding on what gender equity entails.

4.3.2. Importance of gender equity in their organisations (Question 2 of section B, Annexure A)

Almost all respondents (90%) agreed that gender equity is important in their organisations; furthermore, they stated that there is a need for gender equity in the mining industry, especially in their organisations so that the previously disadvantaged gender could be given a chance in all spheres of the organisations. Nevertheless, 10% of the respondents felt that the organisations were sugar coating the importance of gender equity as it was moving at a snail pace. Men still dominate or are given first preference at graduate programmes offered, from which, at a later stage, they are being absorbed permanently by the organisations.

One respondent answered as follows:

"Due to high nepotism in the organisations, policies such as gender equity turns out to be decorations on the wall corridors meaning there are never or less implemented".

4.3.3. How is your organisation doing in terms of empowering women? (Question 3 of section B, Annexure A)

100% of the respondents were not sure about the percentage or number of women in their organisation. But the majority confirmed that their organisation was striving to balance the equation on gender. Furthermore they mentioned that there were lower numbers of women in upper level posts than in lower or non-managerial positions.

4.3.4. What are the main challenges of addressing gender equity in this organisation? (Question 4 of section B, Annexure A)

Transformation and mind-set were amongst the challenges that were raised by the respondents in their organisation. Although some touched on aspects of education and family responsibility towards slow changes in gender equity.

One of the respondents said:

"Some of the tasks would be difficult to execute being pregnant, which makes it difficult for women to choose between having kids and work".

As stated by Hoobler, Wayne and Lemmon (2009), organisational policies tend to enable women to have more family responsibility leaves such as maternity leave which leads to less working hours than their male counterparts. As further elaborated, family responsibilities are at conflict with the manager's ideal expectation of performance. This implies that allthough all are affected by family responsibility, men tend to be more favoured.

4.3.5. How is transformation taking place at this organisation? (Question 5 of section B, Annexure A)

All respondents agreed that transformation is indeed taking place. Most stated different policies that guide their organisation in realising the transformational target. The organisations are being guided by the governmental policies like the Mining Charter and internal policies that they develop. There are transformational superintendents and social labour officers which oversee that transformation is taking place and targets are met.

One of the respondents mentioned that:

"She [is] a product of transformation. I joined the organisation as a learner miner for two years. Later promoted to a miner after being developed by the mine".

4.3.6. Is a Social and Labour Plan necessary to address gender equity? (Question 6 of section B, Annexure A)

The majority of the respondents find the Social and Labour Plan to be necessary, as it is legally binding upon execution of a mining right by organisations with the Department of Mineral Resources. Again about 60% of them mentioned the Mining Charter on women in mining and gender equity. Some went further to say that organisations state very clearly the number of jobs to be created by the organisation both direct and indirect, and it can be stated very clear on how many positions are

going to be held by women. Companies should be held liable for non-compliance, if they are found lagging behind and have their licence suspended.

40 % stood out against the majority that due to non-auditing or poor monitoring by the Department of Mineral Resources, companies do as they please. Someone even gave an example of the number of local school kids to be given opportunities.

4.3.7. How can the Social and Labour Plan contribute to gender equity? (Question 7 of section B, Annexure A)

All agreed that the Social and Labour plan can contribute to gender equity through enforcement by the Department of Mineral Resources. If it is implemented as stated during the application, gender equity could be accomplished. Again, they indicated that the government, through its Department of Mineral Resources has the power to summon all the non-compliant companies.

The majority felt that Social Labour Plan Officers should report directly to the department rather than the organisations, and that their reports should be subjected to third party review to authenticate the results stated in those reports. This would help in making progress on the stated target as organisations know they are subjected to penalties or even possible shut down by the department.

4.3.8. Do you have policies and targets for employment equity in this organisation? (Question 8 of section B, Annexure A)

100% of the respondents agreed that there are policies in their organisations but could not give the exact number. Furthermore they indicated that policies such as Affirmative Action or the Employment Equity Act are amongst the policies that they apply in their organisation. While on the other hand some are not regarded as policies, they contribute towards the improvement of the representation of women through a women in mining organisation that women counterparts join voluntarily.

Movements that are mobilised by women have the capacity to be used as transformative instruments.

4.3.9. How committed is your organisation to empowering women? (Question 9 of section B, Annexure A)

Mixed feelings around this area were expressed as some indicated that "women are encouraged to apply for every position advertised" and some of these even state that only female candidates should apply. Others agreed further by saying developmental positions are offered to women in areas that the organisation feels are male dominated. These are positions such as:

- Artisans
- Specialist
- Managers and superintendents

All these position where previously held by men due to their vast experience in mining. And some felt that nepotism and corruption where hindering progress in empowering women.

One respondent went even further and said:

"She was over-looked on a position that I qualified [for], both through educational qualification and experience. It was given to someone that I trained and found me here in the company. I have lodged [a] complaint with the human resource manager. I'm not against the person that got the job, but [against] the manner in which the process was handled".

4.3.10. Would you say the leadership of this organisation is transformational? (Question 10 of section B, Annexure A)

The majority agrees that their organisational structure is very transparent in such a way that women held even senior positions. Even though a minority indicated that it is moving at a snail pace, the organisations are trying their best to be transformational.

But there also was a minority that disagreed with the statement of the organisation being transformational. The stated that looking at the executive team on the website one would think the organisation had transformed; however, down the stream blacks are still being undermined and overlooked.

4.3.11.   What mechanisms does this organisation have in place to identify and address equity gaps in managerial positions? (Question 11 of section B, Annexure A)

Most of the participants felt that training of graduates and women, which have been in the mining industry with little education, is important. Furthermore they indicated that after they have been trained they must be given opportunity in various positions to grow.

However one of the respondents mentioned that:

"Once they are trained and they are qualified, most seeks new challenges somewhere else, even if the company can give them restrict of trade that keep them with the company for quite number of years agreed. Once their contract elapses they are resigning".

This concurs with Walden and Thoms' (2007) finding that once women have achieved their higher education and qualify for higher positions within the organisations, they have a desire to follow entrepreneurship or go solo even to the extent of owning their own companies.

5. Findings

The effectiveness of the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) in the mines cannot be not fully claimed. Some respondents went so far as to give suggestions and additional information that they felt was relevant and needed to be brought up in the study. The majority felt that they still have to submit to their white male counterpart as they dominate the senior and executive positions and white females where given preference to their African female counterparts. It was also indicated that nepotism,

sexual abuse and racism kills the morale of women in pursuing higher positions within the organisation, even though the company stands against that.

Allocation of funds for training took the centre-stage, as some of the respondents indicated that they are eager to learn or further their studies but in most cases are discouraged due to lack of funding or that sometimes it is allocated to a few only. The following findings were made:

- More males than females
- White male dominance
- Discrimination of women
- Transformation, if taking place both on race and gender, at snail pace only.

6. Conclusion for the chapter

This chapter has provided an analysis of the data collected from responses to the questionnaire. A presentation of the research results was given in the form of graphs and tables, accompanied by a description of the information in those graphs and tables.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter spells out the conclusions and recommendations of the study as stated by the findings expressed in the previous chapter. This chapter aims to indicate the procedures taken to improve gender equity in mining operations in Lephalale area. The discovery of the study is that despite sustained actions by the mining organisations and by government interventions, gender equity in mining organisation in the Lephalale area is still a pipe dream; empirical data indicates that women representation in mining is unacceptably low.

5.2. Summary of the results

Below is a summary of the results derived from the data captured in the previous chapter.

- There are still more men than women in mining, even though the government encourages gender equity.
- Workers feel that gender equity could be achieved through a Social Labour Plan, if it can be enforced and managed.
- There are less women in in managerial positions, although policies and laws favour them.
- Lot of challenges were encountered in addressing gender equity.
- Transformation is taking place, but at a snail pace.
- The Social Labour Plan was found to be necessary in addressing gender imbalances in the mining operations.
- Policies and women organisations are there to support employment equity.
- Organisations were found to be committed to empowering women.

- Mixed feelings were expressed on whether an organisation was transformational.

5.3. Conclusion

The study manged to outline the effect of a Social Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses. All research objectives and research questions of the study were answered. The literature review managed to bring to the light the challenges and the progress made by women in mining, and also the views of different scholars on gender equity, Social Labour Plans and the legal framework of how the Social and Labour Plan (SLP) can be effective in achieving gender equity. The positivist paradigm indicated the direction which the study took in its design and research methodology. A qualitative method was used in the study.

Through the study it was found that there are various factors that make mining companies not to achieve gender equity targets in their organisations. These include nepotism, corruption and non-compliance as a few of the stumbling blocks. It was found that the government was not enforcing it or was not pursuing companies for non-compliance. Nevertheless, most respondents felt that if the government could enforce and audit mining companies on the Social Labour Plan as a legally binding document, this could accelerate the achievement of targets set by the Mining Charter and by mining companies.

It has been found that legislation and policies that are available to empower women in mining are being implemented but not very effectively. Lots of work still needs to be done in making sure that women are trained, promoted and given fair opportunities, like men are. The mining organisation in the Lephalale area are still dominated by men, despite women having entered the industry at a rapid rate. This implies that the majority of managerial and executive positions are still being held by men.

Women organisation such as women in mining and the workers unions have gained tremendous momentum in ensuring that women gain recognition within the industry and in unblocking the opportunities for them. Furthermore, it was emphasised that, should the Social Labour Plan be monitored by independent social labour officers from the Department of Mineral Resources and be made public, this would encourage a lot of women to participate in mining industry.

5.4. Recommendations

Based on the conclusion stated, it can then be recommended that mining organisation in the Lephalale area should do the following:

Mining organisations should review their mining Social Labour Plan (SLP) so that they state very clearly the number of women to be employed by the organisations, and such document, once approved by the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR), should be complied upon. Furthermore, the Department of Mineral Resources (DMR) should commit to an annual review of the Social and Labour Plan Report performance by mining companies instead of waiting for five years. In order to achieve the set target, as mining industry is a technical know-how industry, enough training should be provided to graduates and new entering employees to be equipped enough with the skill and knowledge for possible future opportunities. Though this study managed to cover certain aspects, the effect of the Social Labour Plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale, further studies are needed to focus on exploring possible effective implementation by mining organisation and areas that might be lagging behind.

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INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

The effect of social labour plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale.

Dear Participant

Thank you for availing yourself. This is the MBA study that is geared towards investigating the effect of social labour plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale. Therefore, your honest opinion in the matters raised is all that is required from you. Therefore, there are no wrong or right answers.

Please be informed that your identity will remain anonymous and that your participation in the study is voluntary. You are also free to withdraw from participating in this study at any point in time.

Thanking you

Mr Mathews Masemola

INFORMATION WORTH NOTING:

This interview will last for about ±15 minutes at most. You are requested to answer all the questions to the best of your knowledge.

SECTION A

Kindly provide the following biographical information to the researcher;

Biographical information

1. Gender

Male	Female

2. Race

African	White	Indian	Coloured	Asian

3. Age in years

21-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 and above

4. Highest qualification

Matric	Diploma	Degree	Honours	Masters and above

5. Position at work

Non manager	Junior manager	Manager	Senior manager	Executive manager

6. Experience in managerial position

None	1-5	6-7	8-10	Above 10

SECTION B

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

1. What is your understanding of gender equity?

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2. How important is gender equity in this organisation?

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3. In your opinion how is your organisation doing in terms of empowering women?

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4. What are the main challenges of addressing gender equity in this organisation?

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5. Explain how transformation is taking place at this organisation?

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6.   Is social labour plan necessary to address gender equity? Elaborate.

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7.   How can social labour plan contribute to gender equity?

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8.   Do you have policies and targets for employment equity in this organisation?
       Elaborate.

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9.   How committed is your organisation in empowering women?

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10.   Would you say the leadership of this organisation is transformational?

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11.   What mechanisms does this organisation have in place to identify and
       address equity gaps in managerial positions?

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This signifies the end of this interview. Thank you for your time. You are free to share any additional information.

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CONSENT FORM

Name of the Researcher	Mr Mathews Masemola
Title of the study	The effect of social labour plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale.

Dear Participant

You are hereby requested to give your consent to participate in the study. If you are willing kindly complete the form below.

Kindly note that the information that you will provide, will be treated with confidentiality and for the study purposes only. You will also not be named in any written work arising from the study. Should you require further clarity, you are free to discuss your concerns with the researcher.

I, _____ , give my consent to participate in the study titled: "The effect of social labour plan on addressing gender equity in the selected mining houses in Lephalale". I am aware that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time.

Signature_____ Date_____