Mine Health and Safety Council

Safety and Security Challenges Impacting on Women in the South African Mining Industry

Draft Final Report

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Executive Summary

Background

The mining industry has been the mainstay of the South African economy for over a century. Internationally, there is a growing movement calling for the right to safe and healthy working conditions to be recognised as a fundamental human right (Hilgert 2013). This call has some merit given the fact that failure to protect the right to a safe and healthy working condition may result in the erosion of other fundamental human rights, such as the right to life, health and the right to dignity. The South African mining industry has made important strides in keeping up with the evolving safety standards; but there is still room for improvement. Historically, the mining industry has attracted a workforce made up of mainly men (Badenhorst 2009; Zungu 2012). However, in the recent past there has been a sturdy flow of women into the industry which came about as a consequence of a regulated process. In light of the fact that the mining industry was the domain of men at the exclusion of women there was a need for some interventions to facilitate access to the industry for women.

Aim

The primary purpose of this project was to develop guidelines to assist the South African mining industry to adopt and implement robust and effective prevention strategies of violence and sexual harassment as important safety and security challenges faced by women in the South African mining industry.

Methodology

As a preliminary step within this project, a review of both local and international predecessor research outcomes was conducted. The purpose of the literature review was to produce outputs from existing research that would enable the understanding and development of effective prevention strategies of violence and sexual harassment as important safety and security challenges faced by women in the South African mining industry. Secondary to this, a quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey was conducted in the mines, using a structured questionnaire and participant observations across three study sites of different commodities, namely, Gold, Platinum and Coal mines. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions were conducted with men and women to deepen the understanding of the nature and circumstances of violence and harassment in the mines. Ethical clearance to conduct the study was obtained prior to the data collection process.

Results

The literature review revealed that workplace violence and sexual harassment is a global public health problem, but the extent of the problem in the South African mining industry is difficult to ascertain due to a dearth in research. A few studies focused on some aspects of violence and sexual harassment in the mines, reported cases of sexual assault and homicide of women miners but, overall, the problem remained largely under-researched. From an international perspective, studies showed that a substantial proportion of working women, especially in those in the heavy duty industries, experience various forms of violence and sexual harassment, and that intimate partner violence often spills over to the workplace. The
review found that women are more at risk from workplace violence than men and the risk is increased in hostile work environments with a high male, such as mining.

A total of 262 participants from the Platinum (98.0%), Gold (1.6%) and Coal (0.4%) sectors were involved in the quantitative survey. Findings showed that working shifts was associated with experiences of physical violence (p=0.037), verbal abuse (p=0.031) and bullying (p=0.012) indicating that those working in shifts were twice more likely to experience physical violence, verbal abuse and being bullied at work. Living at home and commuting to work was also associated with quid pro quo sexual harassment (p=0.008). Years of working experience in the mines were associated with unwanted verbal abuse (p=0.003). Lastly, the place (p=0.001) and time (p=0013) of the incident of violence was related to the perpetrator. Qualitative findings showed that the negative attitudes, harassment and discrimination experienced by women in mining are indeed barriers to women's effective integration in the sector.

**Conclusions**

This study shows that:

- Having more women in mining will have a positive effect on health and safety practices and production.
- Violence and sexual harassment is a recurrent problem for and a threat to the health, safety and security of female workers in the South African mining industry.
- Lack of formal structures, awareness, education and support in the management of violence, abuse and sexual harassment in the mine workplaces in South Africa ensure that most female victims either do not formally report incidents or opt to deal with them themselves.
- Policies and procedures for managing violence and sexual harassment were either non-existent or where they existed were obsolete and ineffective.
- Incidents of violence and sexual harassment did not only affect the victims’ health: they also took sick leave for recovery entailing losses in earnings for themselves as well as their mines.
- Physical violence and sexual harassment at work, particularly in the mines should be recognised as a serious prevalent problem requiring specific regulatory interventions.

**Recommendations**

Effective prevention and management of workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines, warrants the adoption, implementation and monitoring of a robust multi-faceted preventive measures at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of prevention. In addition, prevention strategies should include a combination of workplace policies and procedures based on a sound legislative, regulatory and enforcement framework: good practice requires organisations to emphasise primary prevention by adopting proactive interventions that include raising awareness and training programmes which ensure the participation of men, possibly as champions.
In addition, adoption and implementation of gender-sensitive mining policy and practices will promote safer and healthier workplaces for women in mining. For an example, policies and practices that promote work-family balance for women given their dual roles and societal expectations, and make it equally possible for them to have rewarding careers and be eligible for advancement in the sector should be adopted and implemented.

Lastly, in order to further promote the safety and security of women in mining, the following recommendations are proposed with regards to policy, practice and further research.

Policy

With regards to policy, it is recommended that the mining sector should develop, enforce, and evaluate the code of practice for effective prevention and management of violence and sexual harassment against all mine workers. For that purpose, it is recommended that guidelines developed as the primary output of the current study be used by the regulator to formulate the code of practice for the mining sector and be made available to all key stakeholders in the sector.

Practice

With regards to practice, it is recommended that current policies and procedures on workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines should be reviewed, updated and aligned with evidence-based data from the current study. Furthermore, the mines must adopt the guidelines on prevention of violence and sexual harassment that were developed as the primary output of the current study, for use as a framework to develop their own good practice guides.

Research

Future studies should examine the relationship between gender and safety in mining with a view to developing strategies to improve recruitment, attraction, and retention as well as career advancement of women in the mining industry. It is envisaged that the latter would also significantly contribute to the competitiveness and productivity of the mining sector.
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1.0 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

Historically, the mining industry has attracted a workforce made up of mainly men (Badenhorst 2009; Zungu 2012). In light of the fact that the mining industry was the domain of men at the exclusion of women there was a need for some interventions to facilitate access to the industry for women. In the recent past there has been a sturdy flow of women into the industry which came about as a consequence of a regulated process. In this regard the Scorecard for the Broad Based Socio-Economic Empowerment Charter for the South African Mining Industry (Notice 1639 of 2004) played a pivotal role in that it required companies to publish employment equity plans which reflected among others their targets on promoting the inclusion and advancement of women. The Mining Charter set a five year target to reach a baseline of 10 percent of women participation in the mining industry (see 4.2 of the Mining Charter). There are laws at the workplace that take into account the reproductive abilities of women. The Constitution affords everyone the right to make their own decisions concerning reproduction (Section 12(2)(a). The fact that women work in a labour intensive environment does not make them any less worthy of the protection of the law.

The South African mining industry has also made progress in advancing the rights of women at the workplace, for an example the design and provision of personal protective equipment for women in mining (SIM 10 09 04), is a milestone that the industry has achieved with a view to promote a women friendly culture in the mines.

Despite this progress, the male-dominated culture in the industry continues to exist through implicit, hidden, and subtler forms of biases against women in the workplace, giving rise to challenges such as violence and sexual harassment against women. Hence, the mining industry should continuously make strides in facilitating a gender sensitive environment in order to provide a safer and healthy workplace for both male and female mine workers.

Creating a healthy and safe work environment necessitates an understanding of the safety and security issues impacting on women in mining with a view to promote a women friendly culture in the mines. Thus, the primary purpose of this project was to develop guidelines to assist the South African mining industry to adopt and implement robust and effective prevention strategies of violence and sexual harassment as important safety and security challenges faced by women in the South African mining industry.

The objectives of this study were to:

- Identify and describe the safety and security challenges, issues and barriers for women in the South African mining industry specifically with regards to the:
  - Legislative framework relating to the safety and security of women in mining;
  - Incidence and prevalence of various forms of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women in mining;
  - Risks and contributory factors of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women in mining;
- Consequences of workplace violence and sexual harassment among women in mining WIM
- Recommend preventive strategies and interventions to be implemented to promote the safety and security of women in mining at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of prevention.

1.2 Background

The mining industry has been the mainstay of the South African economy for over a century. Internationally, there is a growing movement calling for the right to safe and healthy working conditions to be recognised as a fundamental human right (Hilgert 2013). This call has some merit, given the fact that failure to protect the right to a safe and healthy working condition may result in the erosion of other fundamental human rights, such as the right to life, health and the rights to dignity. The South African mining industry has made important strides in keeping up with the evolving standards, but there is still room for improvement.

According to the Department of Mineral Resources the number of women in the mining industry has grown to just above 10% across all levels (Annual Report 2013/14). By international standards, South Africa is doing comparatively well in as far as the appointment of women to board level positions in the mining industry is concerned (Matthews 2014). Where there seems to be a shortage, though, is with regard to the skilled labour force.

The inflow of women into the mining industry is a reality which the industry should embrace. If the figures projected by the National Development Plan are anything to go by, the mining workforce will experience an upsurge in the coming years and a greater component of the new workforce will be made up of women. South Africa has made strides in facilitating a gender sensitive environment in the workplace. The mining industry has also made progress in advancing the rights of women at the workplace. However, issues of violence and sexual harassment against women at the workplace are still common and need urgent attention in order to successfully recruit and retain women in the sector.

At the XVIII World Congress on Safety and Health at Work held in Seoul, Korea in 2008, workplace violence was confirmed as a serious threat to the safety of workers in many developed and developing countries. Subsequently, an imbalance between effort and reward may result in a sense of injustice or unfairness in workers, leading to feelings of anger that may be directed against a supervisor or co-worker (OHS World Congress 2008). Other psychosocial hazards such as on-going harassment may also create deep feelings of anger and frustration. The anger may manifest itself in many ways that find expressions in potential violence, including threatening behaviour, emotional or verbal abuse, bullying, harassment or mobbing, assault, suicidal behaviour and recklessness (Cornish 2008).

Notably, workplace violence is of particular importance to women by virtue of being at a disproportionately heightened risk of becoming victims of violence at work (Cornish 2008). While the majority of cases of aggression or violence overall are experienced by men, the rate of exposure to workplace homicide is several times higher for women than men. Also, exposure to mental violence (bullying, sexual harassment) is significantly higher for women than for men (Cornish 2008).
Significantly, the historic societal taboos between genders also play a role in impeding full participation of women in mining. In general, the different roles and behaviours of males and females are shaped and reinforced by gender norms within societies and societal expectations also define appropriate behaviour for women and men. For an example, being male is associated with taking risks, being tough and aggressive, while being female is associated with domestic work and child rearing role (Benya 2009).

Considerably, the promotion of gender equality is viewed as a critical part of violence prevention against women, including sexual harassment, and could be achieved by addressing gender stereotypes that allow men more power and control over women. Thus more research is required to promote gender equality at workplaces (particularly those with a history of male-dominance), and prevent various forms of violence against women at work by challenging stereotypes that give men power over women. This would promote the safety and security of women in the workplace.

Due to the magnitude of the problem of workplace violence and sexual harassment, it is necessary to consider using the law to curb the excesses, particularly aiming the liability threat at the employer as the most effective strategy. Significantly, Section 6 (1) of the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 (EEA) prohibits unfair discrimination in the workplace and Section 6 (3) lists sexual harassment of an employee as a form of unfair discrimination. Employers must create and maintain a working environment in which the dignity of workers is respected and sexual harassment is not acceptable.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of the literature review was to produce outputs from existing research that would enable the understanding and development of effective prevention strategies of violence and sexual harassment as important safety and security challenges faced by women in the South African mining industry. The main objectives of the review were to survey studies on: the extent of violence and sexual harassment against women in mining in South Africa; the methodological framework for the understanding and prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment; the legal framework for regulation and management of violence against women in the mining workplace; the contributory and risk factors for workplace violence and sexual harassment; the consequences of workplace violence and sexual harassment; the strategies women adopt to cope and deal with workplace violence in mining; and the prevention and management of workplace violence and sexual harassment.

2.2 Methods

The method for this literature review involved internet and library search and also included books, scientific articles from journals, newsletters, magazines and newspapers. Both South African and international literature were surveyed to gain a global understanding of the extent of violence and sexual harassment against women at work. Also relevant were the consequences and risk factors, prevention and management strategies used to ensure a
safe and secure work environment for women. Particular focus was made on male-dominated industries such as mining.

2.3 The magnitude of violence and sexual harassment against women in mining

The literature review revealed that workplace violence and in particular violence against women is a global health and safety issue. It is evident in the South African mining industry, yet, scantily researched.

Physical violence is a significant problem across the world, but there is a dearth of epidemiological studies on violence particularly in newly industrialised countries and the developing world including South Africa. According to the WHO (2004), about 520,000 people die annually in the world, from interpersonal violence, most victims and perpetrators being between 15 and 44 years old. Thus very high rates of violence occurring among adolescents and young adults can effectively cancel out most of the achievements of infant and child-health programmes put in place.

Seedat et al (2009b) stated that violence and injuries constitute the second leading cause of death and lost disability-adjusted life years in South Africa and the injury death rate of 157.8 per 100,000 populations is almost twice the global average. Other South African studies are consistent in stating that interpersonal violence is the leading cause of injury in South Africa, the homicide rate being over 7 times the global average (Kramer & Ratele 2012; Ward et al 2012). These researchers state that interpersonal and gender-based violence, which is often sexual and emotional and in several forms, is the principal driver of the high injury death rate; and at least half of female victims of violence are killed by their male intimate partners.

Further, South Africa’s rate of violent events for men of 113 per 100,000 is 8 times the global average of 8.2 per 100,000 (Jewkes et al 2009). In some studies, over 40% of men interviewed reported having been physically violent to a partner and 28% of the men also reported having perpetrated rape (Dunkle et al 2004) while 40-50% of the women interviewed reported having been violence victims (Jewkes et al 2006). Up to 56,000 rapes were reported in South Africa in 2011 and this number is nine times lower than the actual numbers as cases are largely unreported (Dhlamini et al 2012). Violence and sexual abuse against women is prevalent in South African mines as evidenced by the death and rape of a female miner Pinky Mosiane in a Rustenburg mine shaft, six months before the eventful Marakana miners’ strike but there is insufficient attention in research to the problem (Msimang 2013).

Men of the age group 15-26 in rural South Africa were studied by Jewkes et al (2006) and among the respondents 16.3% reported having raped a non-partner or participated in a form of gang rape, while 8.4% had perpetrated sexual violence against an intimate partner. The study also found that 44.3% of men who raped an intimate partner had also raped a non-partner, indicating an overlap between rape of a non-partner and a partner. According to South African researchers Norman et al (2010), interpersonal violence is the second leading cause of healthy years of life lost, after unsafe sex, and this accounts for 1.7 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYS); while in women intimate partner violence accounts for 50% of the total attributable DALYS.
Jewkes (2000) stated that violence against women is widely recognised as a health problem on account of the contribution of its prevalence to the causes of ill-health (homicide, suicide, injuries, and mental health problems). In South Africa, the prevalence of violence abuse is 20-30%. According to Lonmin Plc (2013) mining company in South Africa, gender discrimination and sexual harassment takes place in the mines and affects women’s psychological health by generating stress-related reactions among women including emotional trauma, anxiety, depression, anger, low self-esteem; affects physical health including sleep disorders, headaches, stomach disorders, ulcers, etc.

The State of California Department of Industrial relations (1998) stated that violence in the workplace is a manifestation of a sharp increase in violence in the cities, country and society as a whole. A manifestation of this in South Africa is the increasing violence, particularly sexual harassment, against women in mining. Thus, according to Benya (2013), sexual harassment has grown to frightening levels for women heightened by the report carried on one of the February 2012 Sowetan issues of a woman found dead and raped in a mine shaft. This episode combined with the fact that women are increasingly accepting harassment as their fate shows the magnitude of the problem which needs to be addressed.

**Studies showed that a substantial proportion of working women in other countries especially in heavy duty industry settings, including mining and construction, experience various forms of violence including sexual harassment.**

In the Western Europe, 10% of violent incidents involving women occur at work while the rate is 16% for men, while sexual and non-sexual assaults were found to be more prevalent in Latin-America (Hoel et al 2001). Studies show that young workers and women are most at risk to physical and sexual assault (Chappell & Di Martino 2000). According to the researchers Heise et al (2002), violence against women remains the most pervasive human rights violation in the world and is a profound health problem that has the effect of sapping away their energy, compromising their physical health as well as eroding their self-esteem.

In Australia, it is increasingly being recognised that violence against women is prevalent, serious and preventable given that 55-70% of women who have previously experienced or are presently experiencing male violence are currently employed (Chung et al 2012). It has also been reported that over 60% of Australian women report experiencing some form of violence at work and 75% report experiencing unwanted or unwelcome sexual behaviour (sexual harassment) at work and workplace violence against women has severe consequences for women victims, the workplaces where violence is prevalent and the wider economy (VicHealth 2012).

In the USA, OSHA (1999) recognises violence in the workplace as an occupational health and safety problem that is more prominent in hostile workplaces such as mines and construction sites. For example, female miners in a Minnesota mine testified that they carried knives to work or kept loaded guns within easy reach in their cars because they believed their lives were in danger. A feeling of insecurity creates distractions that can lead to not taking required safety precautions resulting in work-related injuries. OSHA stated that as a form of workplace violence, sexual harassment is a serious workplace problem that can produce stress which, in turn, can pose a danger to the victim and others as a result of the stress induced distraction and fear. Distraction, fear and loss of focus can lead to accidents
and injury and expose others to danger. Statistics in the USA show that female miners had the highest rate of sexual harassment complaints per 100,000 employed women, followed by women in construction. Here, sexual harassment is recognised as an employment opportunity as well as a health and safety issue. Hence, sexual harassment constitutes a violation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination in employment (OSHA 1999).

The problem of workplace violence and harassment has preoccupied research in Europe in the past few years and remains a social issue on account of the ever increasing violence in the society as a whole (EU-OSHA 2010). This report also indicates that the level of acknowledgement of the problem as of great significance is high among EU member states. In 2005, 4% of EU workers reported being subjected to actual physical violence from members of the Public (EU-OSHA 2013). Two per cent (2%) of workers within the European Union reported exposure to sexual harassment; studies in the UK found that 16% and 75% of women at work have been sexually harassed at work, while in Bulgaria 10% of respondents in a study of female employees indicated having received questions of a sexual nature during their employment interviews (European Foundation 2000).

The literature study revealed that intimate partner violence is a global public health problem affecting women and which spills over to the workplace.

Further, intimate partner violence is a global public health problem, and as a risk factor for adverse physical and behavioural health problems among women, may also spill over to the workplace. Chung et al (2012) have stated that intimate partner violence and sexual harassment are the two forms of violence that impact on the workplace. It is behaviour within intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological harm to a partner and is a global epidemic given that the lifetime prevalence of experiencing this type of violence is now estimated to range from 15% and 71% among women worldwide (Gass et al 2011). According to these authors, South Africa has one of the highest rates of intimate partner violence in the world. Research shows that between 25% and 55% of women in South Africa report physical intimate partner violence and 42% of male respondents disclosed that they perpetrated intimate partner violence, and 28% also disclosed rape of a woman or girl (Jewkes & Morerell 2010).

In their nationally representative study, South African researchers Seedat et al (2009a) found a 19% lifetime prevalence of victimisation among female respondents, while a study of physical violence among South African men found that 27.5% reported perpetration of violence on their current or most recent partners (Gupta et al 2008). Literature suggests that there is a nexus between intimate partner violence and workplace violence. Studies in Australia have shown that 55%-70% of women who have previously experienced or are currently experiencing male violence are currently employed and intimate partner violence and sexual harassment impacts on the workplace (Chung et al 2012).

A study conducted by Peek, Asa and Howard (1999) in California showed that about 2% of non-fatal violent injuries on the job were the result of domestic disputes entering into the workplace as other employees who get in the way of the perpetrator or witness the incident may be at risk. In addition, males who have a history of aggression have increased the risk of perpetrating workplace psychological aggression towards co-workers and subordinates and not supervisors (Greenberg & Barling 1999).
The review found that globally women are more at risk from workplace violence than men and the risk is increased in hostile work environments such as mining and construction.

A 2001 Swedish survey found that more women (17%) than men (10%) experienced violence or threats of violence during the last 12 months; while a survey in the Netherlands also showed that women (8.1%) suffered more from physical violence than men (5.7%) (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions 2007). A Danish cohort study found that more women (3.2%) experienced sexual harassment than men (0.5%) and that young women (age group 18-29) were the most vulnerable (Burr 2003). Statistics in the USA show that female miners had the highest rate of sexual harassment complaints per 100,000 employed women, followed by women in construction (OSHA 1999). Thus the global trend is that women are more at risk from workplace violence than men and this risk is increased in particularly hostile work environments such as construction and mining.

2.4 The framework for the understanding and prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment

The framework for the study of violence and sexual harassment against women in South African mining industry relates mainly to definitions in research of workplace violence and sexual harassment and the models used in understanding the contributory or risk factors for violence and the prevention of violence in the workplace.

The literature review did not reveal a uniform definition of workplace violence.

South African researchers, Butchard et al (1998) indicated that the problem of violence remains inadequately defined even though South Africa is one of the most violent countries in the world. According to these authors, the study of violence from a multi-disciplinary perspective includes the criminal justice system (violence as a violation of the law), the social sciences (violence as aggressive behaviour with harmful consequences for the individual, family and community) and the disciplines of public health (the cost of violence in terms of death and disability).

In Europe, the magnitude of physical and psychological violence occur frequently in the workplace; available evidence suggests that some groups may be more vulnerable to violence than others, and that violence and harassment involve complex and dynamic processes in which actions of violence and reactions of victims take place within a concrete social context, making a general concept and definition of workplace violence difficult to attain (Di Martino et al 2003).

The European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (EU-OSHA) report adopted a definition of work-related or workplace violence as referring to all kinds of violent incidents at work, including harassment (bullying, mobbing) and third-party violence such as threats, physical and psychological violence perpetrated by customers, clients or patients receiving goods or services (EU-OSHA 2010). There is bullying when one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from
one or several persons, in a situation where the one at the receiving end has difficulties in defending him/herself against these actions (Einnarsen & Skogstad 1996). According to this study, bullying includes withholding information that may affect someone’s work, attempting to find fault with someone’s work, public humiliation, gossiping and social exclusion or isolation.

The Third European Survey on Working Conditions of 2000 cited in Hoel et al (2001), interviewed 21,500 employees in member countries and 9% reported they had been exposed to bullying. A study in Norway of 7,000 employees showed that 8.6% of respondents had been bullied during the last six months while older employees and people in private sector organisations were at increased risk of being bullied; with bullying being more prevalent in male-dominated workplaces. An internet survey in South Africa conducted by Steinman (2000) cited in Hoel et al (2001), found that 77-78% of respondents had been bullied during their working career.

The general, concept and definition of workplace violence that is finding common acceptance is that provided jointly by the International Labour Office (ILO), World Health Organization (WHO), International Council of Nurses (ICN) and Public Services International (PSI). They define workplace violence as:

“Incidents where staff members are abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances related to their work, including commuting to and from work, involving an explicit or implicit challenge to their safety, well-being or health.”

They further develop the concept by distinguishing between two dimensions of violence at work and including their various forms: physical violence being the use of physical force against another person or group that results in physical, sexual or psychological harm including beating, kicking, slapping, stabbing, shooting, pushing, biting, pinching, assault or attack such as rape; and psychological violence as the intentional use of power against another person or group that can result in harm to physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development of the victim such as abuse, bullying, harassment and threats (ILO/ICN/WHO/PSI 2003). The immediate or long-term consequences of physical violence can be physical as well as psychological (Di Martino et al 2003).

In the EU, distinction is made between harassment related to sex and sexual harassment. Harassment related to sex is defined as unwanted conduct related to the sex of a person with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, and of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment. While sexual harassment is any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that occurs with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment (Di Martino et al 2003).

According to the Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights (1999), a hostile work environment for women is a workplace where unwanted, unwelcomed requests for sexual favours, sexual advances, and jokes of a sexual nature, pornography, constant comments about their appearance, touching and fondling are prevalent. Almost half of the respondents in their survey of Bulgarians reported they experienced comments and hints of a sexual nature involving younger women 18-25 years of age and from remote areas. Up to 35% of
respondents reported they had been subjected to pornography in the workplace. While companies mostly condone this behaviour; there is also no social condemnation of sexual harassment in Bulgaria. It is also not taken seriously by the Government or labour Unions and so the situation has worsened over the years.

The definition of sexual harassment in Bulgaria includes quid pro quo sexual harassment and hostile environment sexual harassment. Surveys and interviews in the country suggest that these forms of sexual harassment are prevalent (Minnesota Advocates for Human Rights 1999), e.g. women must engage in sexual relationships with their bosses to keep their jobs or gain promotion or suffer negative consequences if they refused. Up to 13% of female respondents in this study reported that they suffered adverse consequences for refusing sexual advances by their boss. Hence, quid pro quo sexual harassment usually takes the form of sexual favours for a reward.

The South African Code of Good Practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases has a similar definition but adds sexual favouritism (where a person in a position of power rewards only those who accept his/her sexual advances) as one of the two main forms of sexual harassment (Notice 1367 of 1998).

US researchers have tended to study and understand workplace violence by categorising it into four major types based on the relationship of the perpetrator to the workplace (LeBlanc & Barling 2005). Accordingly, in type I violence (Stranger-initiated workplace violence), the perpetrator has no legitimate relationship with the workplace, for example committing a robbery at a supermarket; while in type II (Client-customer-patient-initiated workplace violence), the perpetrator has a legitimate relationship with the workplace such as a patient attending a clinic and physically assaulting an employee. In type III violence (Insider-initiated workplace violence), the offender is an employee or former employee who may target a co-worker or supervisor for perceived wrongdoing. In Type IV violence (Partner-initiated workplace violence), the offender does not have legitimate relationship with the workplace but has personal relationship with an employee or supervisor of the intended victim in this case.

The authors show that the predictors of workplace violence depend on the category or type. For example, type I violence is linked to characteristics of the employee’s job tasks such as exchanging money with the public and lone work at night; type III violence has been linked to both employee factors such as anger and organisational factors including perceptions of injustice (Douglas & Martinko 2001). LeBlanc and Kelloway (2002) have suggested that this distinction of violence types is important because outcomes for victims may differ depending on the source of the violence. Meadows (1998) indicated that the types of violence are not however mutually exclusive, given that while being at risk of type I violence in a retail outlet, an employee could experience type III incidents as well from co-workers or supervisors.

Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment according to Title VII, Civil Rights Act of 1964 of the US (OSHA 1999). This is similar to the definition of sexual harassment provided in the South African Code of Good Practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases (Notice 1367 of 1998 in terms of S. 203 (2) of the Labour Relations Act, 1995). According to OSHA, forms of sexual harassment encountered in Construction, Mining and
other hostile work environments include subtle forms such as being stared at, pinning up of naked or nearly naked women, unwanted sexual remarks and spreading rumours about women physical contact including being touched in sexual ways, sexual assault and threats of physical harm.

Studies showed that conceptualisation of workplace violence and its forms facilitate the determination of study methods and the prevalence of forms of violence at work.

Writing almost two decades ago, Gelfand et al (1995) indicated that while sexual harassment was a serious social problem in the US significantly impacting individuals, organisations and the general society, research had not resolved the fundamental conceptual issues. Conceptualisation of workplace violence and its various forms enables the determination of appropriate study methods. Hence, physical violence as defined is tangible and easier to quantitatively capture in surveys whereas the various forms of psychological violence are more problematic to quantify. This is especially true for sexual harassment, which is considered a hidden phenomenon is difficult to measure; often requiring face-to-face interviews and qualitative methods (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions 2007). This study indicates that the degree of prevalence of sexual harassment, for example, depends very much on the different types of behaviours included in the concept, e.g. physical passes; proposals of sexual relations, pertinent remarks; dirty jokes. These behaviours are influenced by perceptions derived from cultural norms (Di Martino et al 2003).

In the US, landmark Supreme Court decisions have helped to clarify the definition of sexual harassment. The courts distinguish two general types of sexual harassment: coerced sexual exchange (quid pro quo) and hostile environment behaviours which constitute the definition contained in the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission guidelines (EEOC 1980).

According to Gelfand et al (1995), sexual harassment is a behavioural construct consisting of three related but conceptually distinct and non-overlapping dimensions: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. These categories are required in the classification of any incident as constituting sexual harassment. Thus gender harassment constitutes verbal and non-verbal behaviours which, though not directed towards obtaining sexual favours, do convey hostile and degrading attitudes about women including epithets, slurs, taunts, gestures; distribution or display of obscene or pornographic materials, threatening, intimidating or hostile acts. Unwanted sexual attention comprises verbal and non-verbal behaviour such as repeated, non-reciprocated requests for dates, intrusive utterers, phone calls, touching, grabbing, cornering, gross sexual imposition or assault.

Sexual coercion is quid pro quo sexual harassment as described in S. 4 (d) of the South African Code of Good practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases (Notice 1367 of 1998) and refers to behaviour including bribes and threats (implicit or subdued) that condition some job-related benefit on sexual cooperation. These definitions are important in classifying the cases reported by Benya (2013) in the mines of South Africa, as examples of sexual harassment of women, including inappropriate fondling by men especially supervisors, touching heightened in transport cages, being whistled at, being called sexually suggestive names and crude references to parts of women’s bodies.
Establishing the prevalence of physical and psychological violence requires consideration of the personal experiences of respondents or interviewees during a specified period, e.g. during the last 12 months. The prevalence is surveyed separately for each type of behaviour, e.g. Physical violence, unwanted sexual attention, sexual discrimination or favouritism, depending on the behaviours included in the definition of violence (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions 2007). According to this report, the EU survey for example, on sexual harassment asked two questions relating to prevalence: (a) personal experiences of unwanted sexual attention and (b) awareness of its existence in the workplace.

*Studies showed that the ecological model is appropriate for understanding the causes, risk factors, consequences of interpersonal violence whether in workplaces, neighbourhoods or society and for developing and implementing violence prevention interventions*

The WHO has stated that common causes and cross-cutting risk factors underlie the different forms of interpersonal violence. To reduce all forms of interpersonal violence, there is need to deal with the problem as a whole and address all the common causes and risk factors, laying emphasis on the risk factors that are modifiable and on which policy makers should target interventions. This is best done using the ecological model which explains the causes, consequences and prevention of violence (WHO 2004).

The basis of the ecological model is the evidence that no single factor can explain why some people or groups are at higher risk of interpersonal violence while others are more protected from it. Accordingly, interpersonal violence is the outcome of interaction among multiple factors at the levels of the individual, the relationship, the community and the society (Waters et al 2004; WHO 2004). With regards to workplace violence and sexual harassment, these levels can be categorized into individual, Interrelationship factors, community (workplace), and societal factors. This model is summarised in Figure 2.1 and the risk factors and prevention intervention levels explained below.
Individual level risk factors include demographic characteristics such as age, income and education, psychological and personal disorders, alcohol and drug abuse, a history of violence behaviour.

Relationship level factors include poor parenting practices, family dysfunction, marital conflict concerning gender roles and resources, association with violent friends or delinquent groups or membership in gangs (Jewkes et al 2013).

Community level factors relate to the context in which social relationships occur; for example the workplace, school, and neighbourhood. Factors including poverty, high residential mobility and unemployment, social isolation, the existence of drug trade and weak policies and programmes within institutions increase the risk of interpersonal violence.

Societal level factors create a climate in which interpersonal violence is either discouraged or encouraged. These include economic, social, health and education factors.
policies that maintain or increase economic and social inequalities; social and cultural norms that support the use of violence; availability of means to perpetrate violence such as fire arms and a weak legal system that does not effectively deal with perpetrators.

The levels of interventions as described in the ecological model are summarised from Waters et al (2004):

(1) **Individual level Interventions** include: Adopting approaches to change individual behaviour including pre-school enrichment, social development programmes, vocational training and initiatives to complete schooling (these ensure academic success, manage anger and build skills and control or prevent violence at youth level). Life skills and educational approaches on issues of gender, relationships and power address physical and sexual violence against women. Effective treatment and counselling can reduce the potential for further physical and psychological harm after interpersonal violence has been experienced (Hetty van Emmerick et al 2007).

(2) **Relationship level interventions**: Early childhood parenting programmes, provision of support and advice in home visitations in first 3 years of childhood, family therapy for dysfunctional families, strong mentoring. These approaches have been associated with reductions in child abuse, long-term reductions in violent and delinquent behaviour among young people.

(3) **Community level interventions include**: reducing availability of alcohol; changing institutional settings (schools, workplaces) by means of appropriate policies, guidelines and procedures, provision of training to identify at-risk persons; improving emergency care and access to health services.

(4) **Societal level interventions** include the provision of accurate public information about the causes of interpersonal violence, its risks and preventability; strengthening law enforcement and judicial systems; implementing programmes to reduce poverty and unemployment; improving support for families and reducing access to firearms.

The literature review found that attitudes toward perpetration of violence by men against women shape both perpetration and the responses to violence by women victims and those around them.

It is noteworthy that Australian researchers, such as Flood and Pease (2009), used the ecological model more restrictively to study factors shaping attitudes toward violence against women. They posit that attitudes towards perpetration of violence by men against women shape both perpetration and the responses to the violence by women victims and those around them. Accordingly, factors that contribute to the formation of these attitudes should be considered when developing prevention strategies. In addition, the researchers suggest that for efforts to change or modify attitudes and prevent or reduce violence against women to work, the material conditions as well as institutionalised power relations that underpin violence against women must be addressed.
The researchers indicate that attitudes play a triple role in violence against women, including in the perpetration of violence against women; in community and institutional responses to violence against women and in women’s own responses to victimisation. Attitudes of violence against women are formed by a combination of social processes at multiple levels including gender roles and relations and social differences associated with ethnicity and class. Meanwhile, factors shaping attitudes towards violence against women may be found at individual, organisational, community and societal levels (Flood & Pease 2009):

(a) At individual level, factors include age and development, experiencing or witnessing violence.

(b) At organisational level, factors include participation in violence supportive contexts.

(c) At community level, the factors include participation in informal peer groups and networks.

(d) At societal level, factors include pornography and other media and education campaigns, criminal justice policies.

Women’s attitudes and those of persons around them also shape their responses to acts of violence against them. Thus, according to Flood and Pease (2009), women who condone violence-supportive interpretations of domestic violence or assault are more likely to blame themselves for the assault, less likely to report and more likely to experience long-term negative psychological and emotional effects. In addition, women may not report incidents that meet the legal definition of sexual assault because these incidents may not fit the common stereotypes of real rape. Common stereotypes presuppose that rape must be perpetrated by a stranger, take place outside, a weapon was used and injuries were occasioned.

Women victims may not report violence because of their perceptions of the attitudes around them, e.g. fear of being blamed by family and friends, stigmatised and that the criminal justice system will not provide redress. People (family members, professionals or bystanders) with more violence-supportive and violence-condoning attitudes respond with less empathy and support to victims. They are more likely to attribute blame to the victim, are less likely to report the incident (Flood & Pease 2009).

The literature study revealed that gender orientations also shape the contrasting understandings of violence of men and women.

Gender orientations also shape the contrasting understandings of violence of men and women. South African researchers, Abrahams et al (2006) stated that the most consistent predictor of attitudes supporting the use of violence against women is attitudes toward gender roles or beliefs about appropriate roles for men and women. Other research has shown a consistent relationship between the adherence of men to sexist, patriarchal, and sexually hostile attitudes and their use of violence against women. For example, men who have traditional, rigid and misogynistic gender-role attitudes are more likely to practice marital violence (Heise 1998).
Hence, judgements of violence against women are shaped by norms of gender and sexuality whereby men perceive as legitimate their violence to intimate partners by agreeing with the notion of men’s dominance in the household and intimate partner relationships and that violence is a means of enforcing that male dominance.

**Influence of national culture on job dominance and sexual harassment in the workplace.**

Hofstede ([s.a.]) explored the national culture of South Africa to describe a good overview of the deep drivers of its culture relative to other world cultures. With a high score of 63 on the masculinity-femininity (MAS) dimension, it indicates that South Africa is a masculine society, driven by competition, achievement and success. A low score (feminine) on the dimension means that the dominant values in society are caring for others and quality of life. A feminine society is one where quality of life is the sign of success and standing out from the crowd is not admirable. The fundamental issue here is what motivates people, wanting to be the best (masculine) or liking what you do (feminine). In masculine countries people “live in order to work”; managers, mostly men, are expected to be decisive and assertive.

Every society recognises many occupations as less suitable to females or more suitable to males, but which occupations belong to either gender differs from one society to another. This is most evident in the distribution of men and women over certain professions (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov 2010). Women dominate as doctors in Russia, as dentists in Belgium, and as shopkeepers in parts of West Africa. Men dominate as typists in Pakistan and form a sizable share of nurses in the Netherlands. Female managers are virtually non-existent in Japan but frequent in the Philippines and Thailand. Against this background, Hofstede et al (2010) opine that a society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. Hofstede et al (2010) add that when people grow older, they tend to become more social and less ego-oriented (lower MAS). At the same time, the gap between women’s and men’s MAS values becomes smaller, and at around age forty-five it has closed completely. This is the age at which a woman’s role as a potential child-bearer has generally ended; there is no more biological reason for her values to differ from a man’s (except that men can still beget). Therefore, if women entered male dominant positions (such as in mining), this was mostly after the age of forty-five, when their mother status changed into grandmother status. Unmarried women or women less than 45 are rare in traditional male dominated occupations and are often discriminated against (Hofstede et al 2010).

Hofstede et al (2010) insist that morality or sexual harassment is in the eye of the beholder, not in the act itself. Adding that there is no one best way, neither in social nor in sexual relationships; any solution is the best according to the norms that come with it. In a study of “sexual harassment” in four countries in the 1990s, Hofstede et al (2010) report that Brazilian students of both sexes differed from their colleagues in Australia, the United States, and Germany. They saw sexual harassment less as an abuse of power, less as related to gender
discrimination, and more as a relatively harmless pastime. Brazil in the International Business Machine (IBM) research scored lower on masculinity femininity than the three other countries (49, versus 61, 62, and 66, respectively). Attitudes toward homosexuality are also affected by the degree of masculinity in the culture. In a comparison among Australia, Finland, Ireland, and Sweden, it was found that young homosexuals had more problems accepting their sexual orientation in Ireland and Australia, less in Finland, and least in Sweden. This is the order of the countries on MAS. Homosexuality tends to be felt as a threat to masculine norms and rejected in masculine cultures; this attitude is accompanied by an overestimation of its frequency. In feminine cultures, homosexuality is more often considered a fact of life.

2.5 Legal framework of violence and sexual harassment against women in mining

Some states pass legislation expressly regulating harassment in the workplace while others including South Africa, Estonia, Italy and Spain do so implicitly as a form of sexual discrimination. According to a survey of EU member states, although most member states surveyed have legal tools including legislation, Criminal law, Case Law, Collective agreements and Codes of practice to control and penalise violence and sexual harassment in the workplace, the law is still unclear and lacks simplicity (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform 2004). Research on the legal framework dwells on general aspects of the recognition and protection of women against workplace violence and sexual harassment; provide definition of what constitutes sexual harassment, the procedures for dealing with it and the liability of the employers regarding cases of sexual harassment in the workplace. These aspects of law and policy are examined as they are addressed in research in the section that follows.

The legal framework of sexual harassment in the workplace seeks to resolve issues relating to the definition of what constitutes sexual harassment, liability for sexual harassment and the procedures for handling sexual harassment cases.

As it will be shown later in this report, South Africa has a fragmented approach to the issue/question of sexual harassment at the workplace. The Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment cases provides the applicable definition of sexual harassment and the forms thereof (Notice 1367 of 1998). Accordingly, “sexual harassment is unwanted conduct of a sexual nature and sexual attention becomes sexual harassment if:

(a) The behaviour is persisted in, although a single incident of harassment can constitute sexual harassment; and/or

(b) The recipient has made it clear that the behaviour is considered offensive; and/or

(c) The perpetrator should have known that the behaviour is regarded as unacceptable.”

The forms of sexual harassment and their definitions according to the Code of Good Practice are summarised in table 2.1:
Table 2.1  Forms of sexual harassment as defined by the South African Code of Good Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of sexual harassment</th>
<th>Definition (Section 4 of the Code of Good Practice, Notice 1367 of 1998)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted physical contact</td>
<td>All unwanted physical contact ranging from touching to sexual assault and rape, and includes a strip search by or in the presence of the opposite sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted verbal conduct or behaviour</td>
<td>Verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome innuendoes, suggestions and hints, sexual advances, comments with sexual overtones, sex-related jokes or insults or unwanted graphic comments about a person’s body made in their presence or directed toward them, unwelcome and inappropriate enquiries about a person’s sex life and unwelcome whistling directed at a person or group of persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted non-verbal behaviour</td>
<td>Non-verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome gestures, indecent exposure, and the unwelcome display of sexually explicit pictures and objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quid pro quo sexual harassment (sexual coercion)</td>
<td>Occurs where an owner, employer, supervisor, member of management or co-employee, undertakes or attempts to influence the process of employment, promotion, training, discipline, dismissal, salary increment or other benefit of an employee or job applicant, in exchange for sexual favours (Notice 1367 of 1998; Lipari et al 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual favouritism</td>
<td>Exists where a person who is in a position of authority rewards only those who respond to his/her sexual advances, whilst other deserving employees who do not submit themselves to any sexual advances are denied promotions, merit rating or salary increases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Definitions of sexual harassment in legislation in EU member states are mostly consistent with that provided by the EU Council Directive 2002/73/EC, for example:

S. 7 of the Federal Equal Treaty Act 1993 of Austria explicitly regulates sexual harassment at work by stipulating that:

1. ‘Discrimination based on sex occurs if, in the context of his or her public service employment or training relationship, the public service employee is sexually harassed by the representative of the current employer, or third party and the representative of the employer fails to take the appropriate remedial action.

2. Sexual harassment occurs if conduct of a sexual nature is perpetrated and this conduct is an affront to a person’s dignity; is unwanted by, inappropriate or offensive to the affected person.

3. Creates an intimidating, hostile or humiliating working environment for the affected person or if the person affected refutes or tolerates conduct of a sexual nature.
perpetuated by employer or colleague and this forms the basis for a decision that adversely affects this person’s access to training, employment, further employment, promotion or payment. An identical provision is in The Equal Treatment Act 1979 (S. 2 Part 1a and b) applicable to the Private Sector in Austria.

Some countries like Denmark rely on more general provisions of the Labour Code to regulate work-related sexual harassment. For example, Article 102 of the Labour Code stipulates that the employer must ensure a healthy and safe work environment, organise work so as to allow employees to exercise their rights and fulfil the obligations arising from their employment relationship and provide them with information and guidance necessary for the performance of their work. Article 103 requires employees to cooperate with their employers and co-workers and to carry out their work without endangering the health and safety of others.

Section 14A (7) of the Employment Equity Act 1998 (as amended) of Ireland explicitly regulates sexual harassment in the workplace and defines it as any form of unwanted conduct related to any of the discriminatory grounds' unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, this being conduct which in either case has the purpose of humiliating or offensive environment for that person. The Safety, Health and Welfare at Work Act 1989 of Ireland imposes a duty on employers to ensure that employees are not harmed unreasonably, whether mentally or physically, thus implicitly prohibiting exposure of employees to violence and sexual harassment.

In the UK, The Protection from Harassment Act 1997 explicitly regulates sexual harassment at work, while the Health and Safety at Work Act, 1974 and the Management of Health and Safety at Work Regulations 1999, and impose obligations on the employer to safeguard the health and safety of employees including protection from the risks of violence and sexual harassment.

The review showed that the Constitution of South Africa and applicable pieces of legislation and practice guidelines in the form of Codes of good practice and common law constitute the regulatory framework for workplace violence and sexual harassment.

The Constitution of South Africa of 1996 guarantees equal rights enshrined in the constitution as a Bill of rights. The Constitution entrenches the principle of equal protection under the law and prohibition of discrimination from which legislation on sexual violence and harassment is based as is the practice in most countries (Pellicciotti 1996). Most South African research rely on the constitutional prohibition of unfair labour practices [S. 23 (1)] (Holmes 2007) or prohibition of unfair discrimination [S. 9 (4)] (Benya 2009) as the basis for legislative regulation of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women. However, when the fundamental law was considered as a whole in this review, the following provisions of the Constitution were found to be relevant:

- Section 9 (1). Everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law.
Section 9 (4). No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth.

Section 10. Everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected.

Section 12 (1c). Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, including the right to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources.

Section 12 (2). Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity including the right to security in and control over their body.

Section 22. Every citizen has the right to choose their trade, occupation or profession freely. The practice of a trade, occupation or profession may be regulated by law.

Section 23 (1). Everyone has the right to fair labour practices.

Section 24 (a). Everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being.

Relevant legislation including Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (EEA); Labour Relations Act, No. 66, 1995 as amended (LRA) and Mine Health and Safety Act No. 29 (MHSA) implement or put into effect these constitutional provisions.

Section 6 (1) of the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 (EEA) prohibits unfair discrimination in the workplace and Section 6 (3) lists sexual harassment of an employee as a form of unfair discrimination. Employers must create and maintain a working environment in which the dignity of workers is respected and sexual harassment is not acceptable. A climate must be created and maintained in the workplace in which complainants of sexual harassment do not feel their grievances are ignored or taken lightly or they fear reprisal if they report. Hence, Section 51 of EEA protects employees’ right to bring complaints or participate in proceedings in terms of the Act, for example, the right to report cases of sexual violence or harassment without fear of reprisal and to participate in proceedings and receive feedback.

Chapter 8 of the Labour Relations Act No.66 of 1995 as amended (LRA) stipulates the right of every employee not to be unfairly dismissed and subjected to unfair labour practice. Acts of bullying, quid pro quo harassment, and sexual favouritism can fall under the definition of “unfair labour practice” listed in Section 186 (2) of LRA. Dismissals arising from these acts may be classified as automatically unfair dismissals (S. 187) or constructive dismissal (S. 188) (Holmes 2007).

Due to the magnitude of the problem of workplace violence and sexual harassment, it is necessary to consider using the law to curb the excesses, particularly aiming the liability
threat at the employer as the most effective strategy. The Occupational Health and Safety Laws make employers directly responsible for the safety of the workplace. When injuries or fatalities occur, the OHS inspectors carry out investigations of violations and sanction them and in some cases bring criminal charges against employers. However, this procedure is not so straightforward in cases of psychological violence. In the United States of America, employees suffering emotional injuries should be able to bring actions for redress under the Employment and Equal Opportunity Act against their employer, for example when the employer knew or should have known of harassment incidents and failed to take appropriate action to stop the activity or ensure relief (Brakel 1998). However, in South Africa we do not have a statute equivalent to the Employment and Equal Opportunity Act.

Hence, Section 2 of the Mine Health and Safety Act, No. 29 of 1996 of South Africa stipulates the general duty of the employer to provide a healthy and safe work environment as far as is reasonably practicable and the duty for the employees to take care of their own safety and the safety of others who may be affected by their actions or omissions as well as to cooperate with the employer to ensure health and safety. To provide a healthy and safe work environment requires the employer to identify the hazards inherent in the work, assess the risks to employees and take appropriate measures to prevent or minimise the effects as far as is reasonably practicable. This includes the identification and elimination of personal safety and security problems faced by women in the mines: sexual harassment, females’ safety in cages and underground, security at change houses, ethics in individual security searches and emergency medical treatment (Anglo American 2012).

Zungu (2012) states that while the amended Mine health and Safety Act No. 29 of 1996 requires employers to provide and monitor conditions promoting a culture of health and safety in the mines, it does not make provision for gender differences.

It is worth noting some provisions of the Domestic Violence Act No. 116 of 1998 South Africa which have a bearing on violence in the workplace particularly as concerns sexual assault and support for victims thereof. The Domestic Violence Act No. 116 of 1998 is silent on rape. Rape is defined in section 3 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 2007 (Act No. 32 of 2007) to include marital rape in which a husband can be convicted of the rape of his wife. Further, the Act defines rape as “Any person (“A”) who unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with a complainant (“B”), without the consent of B, is guilty of the offence of rape”. The 2007 Act defines sexual penetration as “sexual penetration” includes any act which causes penetration to any extent whatsoever by:

(a) the genital organs of one person into or beyond the genital organs, anus, or mouth of another person

(b) any other part of the body of one person or, any object, including any part of the body of an animal, into or beyond the genital organs or anus of another person; or

(c) the genital organs of an animal, into or beyond the mouth of another person

However, criticism has been directed toward the definition including the argument that it is too narrow as it relates only to one form of sexual intercourse; reinforces male bias by
construing rape as a sexual act while available evidence is suggestive of rape being an act of violence; and is reflective of the ideology of male proprietary interest in female sexuality (Compendium 1999).

South Africa developed a series of applicable departmental guidelines to stem the arbitrary approach to victims of sexual assault which had the effect of leaving them feeling betrayed by the courts and revictimised. Section 66 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 2007 (Act No. 32 of 2007), provides for “national instructions and directives.” Pursuant to section 66 of the same Act, the extant guideline on the National Instruction on Sexual Offences was published. The guidelines make procedures more precise and systematic and are generally known as National Guidelines for Prosecutors in Sexual Offence cases, 1998. They include:

- South African Police Service-Support to victims of sexual offences.
- Department of Health-Uniform national health guidelines for dealing with survivors of rape and other sexual offences.
- Department of Welfare-Procedural guidelines for social welfare agencies and appropriate NGOs in assisting victims of rape and sexual offences.
- Department of Justice-National guidelines for prosecutors in sexual offence cases.
- Department of Correctional services – National guidelines correctional services.

They provide specific guidance for the specialist prosecutor; consultation with the victim; consultation with accredited health care practitioner; consultation with police; special treatment of and assistance to victims and witnesses; proceedings in camera; proceedings with the use of intermediaries; bail; court proceedings; sentencing and appeal as well as correctional procedures for sexual offenders.

Another important development in South Africa was the creation of specialised courts and procedures to ensure the safety of victims of sexual assault following the establishment of the Wynberg Sexual Offences Court (South Africa) in 1992, where women assessors are used to offset possible male bias and specially trained regional court prosecutors handle the cases. Special police rape specialists have been introduced (Compendium 1999).

The literature review found that Codes of Good Practice were used to provide guidance on the implementation of legislative and regulatory requirements for the management and prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment.

Codes of practice are intended to give meaning in the real world to abstract legislative provisions and are of particular importance where the legislation on which they are based does not explicitly stipulate what constitutes sexual harassment. Even where definitions are provided in legislation, Codes of practice are still important in giving guidance on prevention of sexual harassment and management of cases. These codes may also be used by Industrial tribunals or courts in determining legal issues arising in sexual harassment cases. Thus, in a EU survey, four countries (Austria, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands) reported that their Codes of Practices were legally binding; while codes in the UK and Ireland can be taken into account by tribunals (Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform 2004).
In South Africa, guidelines produced by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) in the form of Codes of good practice are followed by employers. For example, Notice of Code of Good Practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases (Notice 1367 of 1998) at work provides guidance on what constitutes sexual harassment, forms of sexual harassment and the principles for the management of sexual harassment in the workplace and forms the basis of sexual harassment programmes in mines.

The Code of Good Practice for the handling of sexual harassment cases in South Africa recognises that both women and men can be victims of sexual harassment. Hence, women can be guilty of sexual harassment and same-sex harassment is also sexual harassment. However, findings of a survey on South African women showed that 50% reported having been subjected to some form of sexual harassment and 70% of the victims were co-workers and in all reported cases the victim was female while in the majority of cases the perpetrator occupied a position of authority (Holmes 2007).

_The review found that the Judiciary (Common law) plays an important role in enforcing and filling gaps in the legislation regulating violence and sexual harassment._

The role of case law has generally included the implementation of legislation in practice, providing clarity and simplicity to legislation; interpreting legislation which impliedly regulates sexual discrimination and filling in gaps where there is no rule.

South African Jurisprudence has developed and is applying common law principles that the employer owes a duty of care towards its employees, customers and others who may have access to the workplace including the community where they operate; and has vicarious liability for failing to take adequate measures to deal with cases of violence and sexual harassment. For example, in the Media 24 Ltd and another Grobler (2005) 3 All SA 297 (SCA), the Supreme Court of Appeal held that even though the victim (Grobler) had refused to lay a charge or use the company’s grievance procedure and had said that she would deny it if called upon to substantiate the allegations, the employer had an obligation to deal with the matter. Grobler was awarded R776, 814 for general damages, on-going medical expenses, lost income, future loss of earnings, future medical expenses (Maughan 2004; Holmes 2007).

In other jurisdictions, employers have a duty of care towards their employees and therefore employer liability is very important in the prevention and management of sexual harassment in the workplace. The EU Report by the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform (2004) states the practice in countries surveyed. According to the report, twenty of the countries surveyed indicated that an employer could be liable for sexual harassment perpetrated by an employee. In all countries where an employer is liable for sexual harassment by a worker’s superiors, liability also applies in relation to sexual harassment by a worker’s peers. There is variation with regards to sexual harassment perpetrated by a worker’s clients (third parties). In some countries, there is no liability (Cyprus, Denmark, Portugal, Poland and UK). In the UK there is an exception where the employer discriminates against a harassed employee by treating him/her less favourably than she/he would of the opposite sex.
Two precedents in Irish practice are worth noting:

In *A Garage Proprietor v A Worker* (EEO 2/1985) the Labour Tribunal declared that even though the Employment Equity Act of 1977 prohibited discrimination on grounds of sex and marital status and did not expressly deal with sexual harassment, freedom from sexual harassment is a condition of work which an employee of either sex is entitled to expect. The Court accordingly treated any denial of that freedom as discrimination within the terms of the Employment Equality Act of 1977.

Similarly, in *BC v A Health Board* ([1994] ELR 27) the High Court ruled that employers would be liable only for sexual harassment committed within the scope of the harasser’s act thereby exonerating the employer from liability for sexual assaults perpetrated by employees on another employee – a departure from an early decision of the Labour Court which in *A Company v A Worker* [EEO 9/92] ruled that an employer would be liable for failure to protect employees from sexual harassment where the employer had no procedures or inadequate procedures.

In the UK, in *MacDonald v Min of Defence* (2003), the House of Lords ruled that employers may be liable for acts of harassment committed by an employee on a colleague, but will not ordinarily be liable to acts of harassment committed against their third parties.

*The review revealed that labour courts in South Africa play an important role in enforcing legislation and codes of practice relating to sexual harassment at work.*

The Labour Courts in South Africa have also been instrumental in enforcing the Code of good practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases. An example in point is the MZI GAGA v Anglo Platinum Ltd case (The Labour Appeal Court of South Africa Case No. JA 44/10) [2012] 3 BLLR 285 in which the appellant Gaga, Group manager of Human Resources earning R 79,000 per month, prayed the Appeal Court to quash the decision by the Labour Court to uphold his dismissal for sexually harassing his secretary and failed.

*The review found that Trade unions rarely covered violence and sexual harassment in their collective agreements and showed weak commitment to the management and prevention of violence and sexual harassment against women at work.*

The EU Report by the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform (2004) found that there was a low level of coverage of sexual harassment in Collective Agreements (indicating that Trade Unions may not be effective in the prevention and management of sexual harassment in the workplace- a situation similar to that obtaining in South Africa where Benya (2009) in her participant observation study in a South African mine stated that Unions take sexual harassment casually and while she was herself object of sexual harassment from union representatives, the norm in the mines was not to report cases to union representatives as this will lead to victimisation or ridicule.
In relation to policy, the literature review found that only 26% of mining companies were complying with the 10% participation of women workers as prescribed by the Mining Charter, thereby preserving the big male ratio associated with increased risk of physical and psychological violence against women in mining.

The South African Mining Charter envisaged a proportion of 10% of women in mining by the year 2009 but a Mining Charter impact assessment Report found that only 26% of mining companies had complied with the 10% women working in mining. According to the assessment, practically, there was only an average rate of participation of women in mines of 6%, the bulk of the women occupying support duties and less than 1% in core management positions (Department of Mineral Resources 2009). This shows that mining in South Africa is still predominantly a male reserve and the imbalance creates fertile ground for physical and psychological violence against women (Bench Marks Foundation 2013).

2.6 Risk factors for workplace violence and sexual harassment against women in mining

The literature review found that the causes of violence are deep-rooted in the social, cultural and economic fabric of human life and biological and individual factors interact with family, community, cultural and other external factors to create situations where violence occurs.

According to Leblanc and Barling (2005), risk factors for violence include: (1) factors that shape the susceptibility or resistance to violence of the potential victim (age, verbal ability, physical strength, childhood experiences, etc); (2) factors relating to agent of violence (perpetrator, weapon, etc); (3) environmental factors: physical and socio-cultural factors that increase or decrease a person’s threshold for violent behaviour (socio-economic deprivation, defensible space of the built environment). Risk factors for third-party violence include individual characteristics, gender (male), age (young), work experience (little); situational factors; organisational and societal factors (EU-OSHA 2010).

Other studies distinguish Individual, situational, organisational and societal factors that influence levels of violence in the workplace (Di Martino et al 2003; Chappell & Di Martino 2000). However, according to Di Martino et al (2003), most studies on these factors are cross-sectional by design and do not establish causal relationships between the variables and workplace violence. It therefore becomes difficult to consider them strictly as risk factors. But identifying and understanding these factors will provide the scientific basis for prevention and management.

The WHO (2004) states that the ecological model shows shared risk factors for forms of interpersonal violence at four levels which are summarised as follows:

The individual level: personal and biological factors influence the individual’s behaviour and the likelihood of being a victim or perpetrator of violence. These risk factors include having been a victim of child maltreatment, having a psychological/personality disorder, alcohol or drug abuse and a history of violent or aggressive behaviour or having experienced abuse. For example, studies have found that the majority of sexually assaulted women reported heavy alcohol intake preceding the assault; while women and men who endorse rape myths
tend to view assault victims as more likely to be sexually aroused and blame the victims than women and men who do not support such myths (Garcia 1998; Kopper 1996).

With regard to physical violence, the following characteristics of the perpetrator have been identified: being young and male, having a history of violent behaviour; having a troubled childhood; suffering from mental illness; having access to weapons; consumption of alcohol and drug use. In their study of transport workers, Douglas and Martiko (2001) found that individual differences such as trait anger, attitudes towards revenge, self-control, negative affectivity and previous exposure to aggressive culture were predictors of workplace aggression.

For example, in their study of factors associated with non-partner rape perpetration, Jewkes et al (2013) found that personal history of victimisation especially in childhood and alcohol misuse were individual factors associated with non-partner rape by men. Research shows that children who witness or have experienced violence are more likely as adults to adhere to violence-supportive attitudes or perpetrate violence. By way of illustration, there is an association between history of child abuse and men’s physical aggression to an intimate partner. Markowitz (2001) found that witnessing or experiencing violence during childhood has a direct impact on the perpetration of violence against spouses in adulthood (Markowitz 2001 cited Flood & Pease 2009).

Relationship factors: Social relationships with parents, family, friends, intimate partners or peers can influence the risk of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violent behaviour. These include poor parenting practices, marital discord in the home, violent parental conflict, low socioeconomic household status and having friends (peers) that engage in violence. For example, a poor relationship with a parent or persistent domestic discord and violence as well as having violent peers may influence whether a young person engages in or becomes a victim of violence.

Community risk factors: The likelihood of violence can be influenced by the community contexts in which social relationships take place such as neighbourhoods, workplaces and schools. The risk factors include poverty, high crime levels, high unemployment; the existence of local illicit drug and gun trade, population density and mobility, inadequate victim support services and situational factors. For example, poverty was found to be associated with non-partner rape by men (Jewkes et al 2013).

Societal factors influence whether violence is perpetrated or inhibited. These risk factors include a context of rapid social change characterised by economic and social policies that maintain socioeconomic inequalities between people; the availability of weapons; social and cultural norms, for example, those relating to male dominance over females, parental dominance over children, cultural norms which endorse violence as an accepted method of conflict resolution. An analysis of US data suggested that violent crime is closely related to income inequality, social trust and mortality rates excluding homicide (Wilkinson et al 1998).

Rates of violence against women vary with socioeconomic variables. Studies conducted in America and Australia found an association between economic and social disadvantage and higher risks of violence and crime including intimate partner violence (Markowitz 2003; People 2005 cited Flood & Pease 2009). An earlier WHO report (WHO 2002) also states that
some causes of violence are deep-rooted in the social, cultural and economic fabric of human life and that recent research show that biological and individual factors explain some of the predisposition to aggression but often interacting with family, community, cultural and other external factors to create a situation where a violent event occurs.

The literature review revealed that men tend to be more violent than women, perpetrate more violence at work than women and that masculine belief of sexual entitlement and male dominance over women were predictors of violence including non-partner rape by men.

There is consistent evidence in research to the effect that males tend to be more violent than females and that males perpetrate more workplace aggression than females (Baron et al 1999; Dupre & Barling 2006; Haines et al 2006 cited Barling et al 2009). In their study, Jewkes et al (2013) found that masculine beliefs of sexual entitlement and male dominance over women were predictors of non-partner rape by male perpetrators. In Africa, women are a socially disadvantaged group on account of dominant male social beliefs of feminism and are thus at greater risk of exposure to sexual harassment at work. Research also shows that disabled employees are more likely to experience sexual harassment than employees without disability (Hunt et al 2007).

With regard to psychological violence, such as sexual harassment, the perpetrator in most cases is male, colleague or supervisor (Di Martino et al 2003) and most harassers tend to read or interpret women's friendly acts in a sexual manner which were not intended as such by the women they harass (Stockdale 1993 cited Di Martino et al 2003). According to Hunt et al (2007), generally perpetrators of sexual harassment are males (in position of power compared with harassed; having low levels of self-control and self-monitoring behaviour, e.g. not considering the effect of their behaviour on others) and socially advantaged groups, usually males in a male dominated society and work setting including mines.

Hence, Seedat et al (2009b) state that in South Africa, almost all perpetrators of violence are men fuelled by the dominant ideals of masculinity expressed in gender hierarchy, demonstrations of toughness, bravery and the need to defend a man's honour, all of which lead to risk-taking behaviours. The situation is compounded by high male youth unemployment, weapon bearing and substance abuse by young men who are then prone to fight for honour and status often resulting in deaths and injuries. In addition, male domination is also reflected in the control of women infused with the idea of male sexual entitlement which results in physical violence to enforce gender hierarchy. For example, rape is often used to punish infidelity, efforts to end a relationship, refusal of sexual advances, or perceived lack of respect for men.

A study by Jewkes et al (2002) found that domestic violence is most strongly related to the status of women in society (woman having no education, violence in her childhood, liberal ideas on her roles), and to men's normative use of violence in conflict situations as part of the exercise of power. In addition, power differences between men and women affect all forms of psychological violence in the workplace (Di Martino et al 2003). Power differentials may manifest formally (e.g. status) or informally (e.g. experience) and sexual harassment may be more likely in organisations with a high disproportion of power between men and
Research indicates that an individual's childhood is important in defining tendencies towards violent behaviour and revictimisation.

The individual's childhood is important in defining tendencies towards violent behaviour. There is consistent evidence in research that confirms that exposure to trauma and violence during childhood can result in revictimisation and intergenerational cycling of violence (Seedat et al 2009b; Coid et al 2001). According to these authors, revictimisation is a recognised occurrence in rape; girls exposed to sexual abuse as young children are at increased risk of being raped again in adulthood and experiencing intimate partner violence as adults. Boys who have been sexually abused in childhood are at increased risk of later becoming sexual abusers, while women who witness violence directed against their mothers might be placed at risk for violent victimisation while boys are at risk of becoming perpetrators. A study on rape among women in the military in USA found that women who had a history of childhood physical and sexual violence or rape were at least twice as likely to experience rape during their military service. There was no association between domestic violence and experiencing rape during service (Sadler et al 2003).

However, a study by Glomb and Liao (2003) also found that rape of an intimate partner and non-partner was strongly associated with:

(a) Ever having been physically violent to a partner
(b) Having had transactional sex with a casual partner
(c) Having more sexual partners
(d) Having more childhood experiences

The review found that workplace violence was associated with peer-related variables or work group aggression.

The results of the study by Glomb and Liao (2003) showed that non-partner rape was associated with peer-related variables including gang membership and peer pressure to have sex; drug use, and being wealthier and relatively more socially advantaged men. These results are supported by a more recent study by Jewkes et al (2013). Glomb and Liao (2003) stated that work group aggression and individual employee aggression could be positively related given that individual employees use information about values, norms, expectations, and behaviour outcome contingencies gathered from others in their environment to guide their own behaviour. Thus individuals who have characteristics similar to those of other members of a work group will be attracted to, selected into and retained by the group. This means that individuals with aggressive tendencies are more likely to be attracted to and selected into a work group with similar aggressive members creating a work group characterised by a relatively homogeneous aggressive behaviour tendencies (Glomb & Liao 2003).

According to Rehm et al (2003) cited in Seedat et al (2009b), South Africa has one of the highest alcohol consumptions in the world per head for all individuals who drink alcohol. Alcohol and drug abuse are major underlying factors of homicides, intimate partner violence,
rape, child abuse and traffic deaths and injuries and as seen elsewhere in this review, will manifest itself in the workplace. Heavy drinking, carrying weapons and readiness to defend honour with a fight are seen as markers of manhood (Jewkes et al 2009). In their study of women revictimisation, Coid et al (2001) found that sexual encounters that are characterised by heavy drinking are more likely to involve sexually violent behaviour than sober encounters.

The literature review found that victims of sexual harassment had common characteristics such as being female and young, single or divorced and having a lower level of education.

Groups most at risk from various types of workplace violence include female workers, workers in the youngest age groups, inexperienced employees, employees in precarious work and employees from ethnic minorities (Hoel et al 2001). Studies show that women are most exposed to sexual harassment in the workplace and are profiled as young, single, divorced, of relatively low levels of education (Hunt et al 2007; VicHealth 2012). Characteristics that can be attributed to the victim of physical violence includes being young, wearing a uniform; personal appearance and behaviour (can be a risk factor or even deter violence depending on the general attitude towards people in uniform or particular groups of uniformed employees); personality and personal attitudes (how victims deal with individual situations or respond to clients and members of the public) (Chappell & Di Martino, 2000; Di Martino et al 2003). Less trained and inexperienced employees are more prone to attack than colleagues who have had better training and experience (Baloch et al 1998). This has relevance to women miners in South Africa who are mainly engaged in support roles and therefore are more vulnerable to sexual violence (Bench Marks Foundation 2013).

The European Commission (1998) investigated sexual harassment in a selected number of member states and found that victims had common characteristics including being female and young (20-40 years old); single or divorced; of lower level education and having short-term long-term tenure at work. For example, the same study found that in Spain victims of sexual harassment had normal physical appearance and on average had been on their job for more than ten years; whereas in Great Britain victims of most cases of sexual harassment taken to the industrial tribunal had been working for their current employer for less than a year.

The literature review revealed that some work situations such as lone work, work at night, handling cash or work in hostile environments such as underground mines appear associated with an increased risk of violence.

Some work situations such as lone work, work at night, handling cash or work in hostile environments such as underground mines appear associated with an increased risk of violence (Chappell & Di Martino 2000; Hoel et al 2001). Working in occupations with an unequal sex ratio such as the male dominated mining industry in South Africa may be related to an increased risk of sexual violence and harassment. The European Commission (1998) survey of sexual harassment in EU member countries found that incidents of sexual harassment were more common in male-dominated jobs as opposed to gender-balanced or female-dominated jobs.
The literature review found a paucity of studies investigating the effects of extended work shifts on the health and safety of female workers. A few studies showed some risk of exposure to violence and influence on reproductive outcomes as well as an increased risk of musculoskeletal disorders and fatigue when women combined long work hours with domestic tasks.

Most studies show how overtime and work shifts affect male workers, but little is known about the influence on the health and safety of women at work. A report by Statistics Canada (2002) showed that women spend more of their time tending the home and taking care of children and therefore extended work shifts will take away the time they have left for sleep and recovery from the wear and tear of work. Benya (2013) stated that female mine workers in South Africa who stay at home and go to work have practically two shifts of work daily consisting of that at the mine and the domestic work. She added that these women spend more time commuting to work than they spend with their family, leaving home by 3:30 in the morning with a one way journey taking close to two hours. They are exposed to injuries from transport accidents and physical violence including sexual assault or rape given the high crime rates in the country. Studies have found that late evening and early morning are high risk periods for rape when employees are isolated from co-workers and the public (Sadler et al 2003; Alexander et al 1994).

Further, a study conducted by Fredriksson et al (1999) cited in Caruso et al (2004) provided support for the existence of an increased risk for musculoskeletal disorders when long hours of work were combined with additional domestic tasks. In their study of the effects of work shifts on nurses, Lipscomb et al (2002) found that working 12 or more hours per shift was associated with an increased risk of back pain in nurses when compared with 8-hour shift.

Although little is known about the impact of overtime and extended work shifts in pregnant women, prenatal and neonatal mortality and morbidity including fertility rates, some research has suggested an influence of long hours of work on reproductive health outcomes. For example, Tuntiseranee et al (1998) cited in Caruso et al (2004) reported an association between long hours of work and sub-fecundity.

The literature review revealed that organisational culture created by management style and methods are important in establishing a hostile work environment and hence a culture of violence in the workplace.

Factors at the level of the organisation or workplace influencing levels of violence at work include leadership and management styles, poor work organisation (task overload, uneven distribution of work, long hours of work or shifts), poor management of change (restructuring and redundancies, introduction of new technology, etc) and the culture and climate in the workplace (Di Martino et al 2003; Cassitto et al 2003). According to Cassitto et al (2003), a culture of discipline, intolerance and discriminatory management creates a climate of fear, distrust, excessive competition and awe. In the absence of rules relating to social behaviour, certain persons may consider themselves authorised to use abusive behaviours. Manifestations of intimate partner violence in the workplace include disruption of work, stalking and on-the-job harassment (Swanberg et al 2006 cited Barling et al 2009). Organisational predictors of violence at work also include organisational injustice. Dupre and Barling (2006) and Greenberg and Barling (1999) have linked procedural and interpersonal
justice with workplace aggression while abusive supervision, poor leadership and stressors such as role ambiguity, conflict, and task overload can predict the perpetration of workplace violence (Barling et al 2009).

New management methods may establish horizontal lines of directions without clear definition of roles combined with insufficient instructions and inadequate information leaving scope for abuse of power, for example during individual performance appraisals, and can divide employees and potentially generate suspicion and a negative atmosphere. These conditions create situations where forms of violence such as bullying and sexual harassment may ensue. In the same vein, Salin (2003) examined enabling structures, incentives and triggering circumstances in the workplace which constitute the antecedents of workplace bullying and stated that enabling structures consist of power imbalances, low perceived costs, dissatisfaction and frustration; incentives include internal competition, reward systems and expected benefits; and triggering circumstances comprise downsizing and restructuring, organisational changes and changes in the composition of the work group. These factors interact as antecedents of workplace bullying.

Negative culture and climate brings disharmony within work groups and increases risk of threats and fear of becoming a victim of violence have been found in such situations and particularly where there is little or no support from co-workers (Cole & Grubb, 1997 cited in Di Martino et al 2003). In their study on workplace bullying, Cassitto et al (2003) indicate that the nature of work organisation can increase or inhibit bullying behaviours in the workplace. For example, chronic understaffing, fatigue and feeling that it is impossible to change things in the organisation and the resulting tension could be vented on colleagues, family and friends. In addition, badly defined tasks or disorganised work without established limits of behaviour allow superiors and some co-workers to take advantage of the situation and intimidate or dominate others.

The culture of the team or organisation may be a risk factor for violence and is key to understanding how and why sexual harassment occurs in some places and not others (Hunt et al 2007; Baillien et al 2009). The culture of the organisation can make it possible for individual employees to be treated abusively or with disrespect. For example, negative acts are associated with a hostile work environment (O'Moore et al 2003), low support of employees by management, strong tendencies towards conformism, high competition among employees, bad communication and lack of policy to deal with aggression (Einarse 1999; Rayner, Hoel & Cooper 2002).

According to a study by Baillien et al (2009), norms and values in the organisation are the strongest predictors of workplace violence and bullying and the same factors including gender ratio are the strongest predictors of workplace sexual harassment. An organisation’s response to sexual harassment can have a negative or positive impact on the organisation as a whole. There might be a culture of sexual harassment in the organisation if individuals believe that the problem is not being tackled. If the climate of disrespect within an organisation worsens, certain inappropriate behaviour will be taken for granted, leading to the creation of an "incivility spiral"; discourteous behaviour becomes routine and regarded as normal by employees and employers (Hunt et al 2007).
Organisational culture develops through hierarchical and managerial power which is the structure of the organisation. Thus, organisational structure can predict workplace violence (Baillien et al 2009). A strong hierarchy or high power differences between various layers within the organisation is related to negative acts and two types of leadership style are associated with harassment and bullying: an authoritarian style where there is limited consultation with staff, and laissez faire style where management fails to lead or intervene in workplace behaviour (Einarsen et al 1999; Hoel & Cooper 2000; O'Moore et al 2003). O'Moore (2000) found that a majority of people who had experienced sexual harassment in the Republic of Ireland had worked in organisations that were managed in an authoritarian manner.

Einarsen et al (1994) stated that if a manager fails to intervene where bullying or harassment has taken place, employees may be led to believe that such behaviour is acceptable; also sexual harassment may be seen as the norm in the organisation (Di Martino et al 2003). Similarly, in their study of risk factors for work related violence in a health care organisation, Findorff et al (2007) found that a higher frequency of patient contact resulted in increased physical and non-physical violence, whereas supervisor support resulted in decreased odds of physical and non-physical violence.

A Dutch research on the impact of organisational culture on the incidents of unwanted sexual behaviour, found that employees who assessed their work culture and climate as positive also reported less unwanted sexual behaviour; while those who believed their unit had a positive attitude towards equal treatment of men and women reported fewer negative behaviours (Timmerman & Bajema 2000 cited Di Martino et al 2003).

Both authoritarian and laissez-faire styles of management were found to be associated with workplace bullying and harassment. For example, an Irish study conducted by O'Moore, (2000) cited in Di Martino et al (2003) found that a significantly greater number of victims of harassment reported they worked in units or organisations managed in an authoritarian manner than those who were not harassed. Further, excessive hierarchy and multiplicity of chains of direction (as occurs in healthcare where nurses are subordinate to doctors, nursing ranks as well as the administration) can create confusion that is a breeding ground for intimidation and derision (Cassitto et al 2003).

A hostile work environment is associated with increased risk of violence against women employees. A hostile work environment is determined by factors including the behaviours of immediate supervisors and management while women who report a hostile work environment have approximately six-fold greater odds of rape (Sadler et al 2003). For example, in this study, women reported a five-fold increase in rape when the workplace became sexualised or officers engaged in quid pro quo behaviours by allowing or initiating demeaning comments or gestures towards females. In addition, male workers are more likely to engage in sexual harassment behaviours if they perceive that management is unwilling to address sexual harassment complaints or simply condone it (Warren et al 1999). Thus, work environments which allow inappropriate sexual conduct, even the most subtle forms, can increase women’s risk of rape.
The review found that the physical work environment is associated with increased risk of aggression and violent behaviour.

The physical work environment is also associated with increased risk of acts of aggression and violent behaviour. In this regard, Anderson et al (1996) stated that work in noisy, hot or cold or cramped conditions has been found to be associated with increased feelings and attitudes of hostility. These conditions prevail in the underground mines where women work in South Africa. In a cross-sectional survey of health and safety challenges faced by women in selected South African mines, Zungu (2012) found that more than 90% of respondents reported that underground sanitary and change facilities underground were not distinguished by gender. This would also include cleaning by males; all of which create a safety and security issue for women that could manifest in the form of violence and sexual harassment.

The review found that rapid economic and social change, high levels of economic inequality; unemployment and poverty, social norms and beliefs increase general levels of violence which also manifests in the workplace. Social norms and values predict violence as well as responses of victims of violence and those surrounding them.

Research shows that the rates of violence are increased in societies with high levels of economic inequality, high unemployment and poverty. Countries with high levels of violent crime may have increased levels of violence in the workplace (Chappell & Di Martino 2000). Where there has been rapid economic and social change, there is more likely to be increased levels of workplace violence (Sheehan 1999 cited in Di Martino 2003; Seedat et al 2009b). Some of these factors can combine to increase the level of violence.

Societal norms and values may also be a predictor of whether women will report violence or indeed sexual harassment (e.g. beliefs about masculine sexual rights; women not fit to work in male-dominated jobs, etc.); South African researchers, Ward et al (2012) and WHO (2004) distinguish two categories of cultural and social norms determining attitudes towards violence, particularly violence against women:

- Violence is deemed legitimate by higher-status individuals especially men against lower status individuals including children and women.
- The general attitude in society towards violence considers it as a legitimate means of dispute or conflict resolution.

Hence social norms can shape the behaviour of possible perpetrators of violence or the behaviour of others present in situations conducive to violence. In societies where domestic violence is largely tolerated, there may be a higher tolerance towards sexual harassment in the workplace (Hunt et al 2007).

According to Peacock (2002), a South African researcher, cultural practices enforce social control and regulate both individual and collective identities and behaviour patterns. Culture may foster competition, interpersonal hostility and fear of failure among members of a group, thereby also fostering anti-social behaviour. Thus, membership of a group, e.g. peer group, can be integrated into a person’s identity and may be of criminogenic value if the individual
places his/her needs subordinate to that of the reference group, especially in an environment characterised by a high level of crime such as South Africa.

In addition, other South African researchers, Seedat et al (2009b) stated that Patriarchal social norms mould the constructs of masculinity and sanction the use of violence by men to discipline and control female partners and is socially acceptable if the violence is seen as not severe. Additionally, poverty and inequality, unemployment, alcohol and drug abuse, carrying of firearms all contribute to the burden of violence in South Africa (Jewkes et al 2009; Chung et al 2012). These authors show that income inequality, low economic development, and high levels of gender inequality are strong positive predictors of rates of violence such as homicides and major assaults. Income inequality and unemployment particularly male youth unemployment has been found to be a consistent correlate of homicides and major assaults (Wilkinson et al 1998 cited in Seedat et al 2009b; Gawryszewsky & Costa 2005 cited in Seedat et al 2009b).

However, some researchers indicate that in developing countries religious and cultural beliefs deter women from working so that the experience of workplace physical and sexual harassment is not likely to be taken as a serious problem (Hoel et al 2001).

2.7 Consequences of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women in mining

The literature review revealed that the consequences of the various forms of workplace violence can include effects on the individual, the organisation and society.

According to the WHO (2002), it is difficult to obtain precise estimates of the cost of violence but it could amount to billions of US dollars in annual healthcare expenditures worldwide and billions more for national economies in terms of lost work days, law enforcement and lost investment; let alone the fact that the human cost in pain and grief cannot be calculated. Schat and Kelloway (2003) stated that workplace violence is associated with negative effects both at the personal and organisational levels. Sexual assault can have disabling and chronic physical and psychological effects on the victim including post-traumatic disorders that may continue even 9 months after the event (Sochting et al 2004).

Overall, violence causes injury, increases women’s long-term risk of health problems such as chronic pain, physical disability, drug and alcohol abuse and depression; while women with a history of physical and sexual abuse are also at risk for unintended pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases as well as adverse outcomes for the pregnancies (Heise et al 2002). The WHO (2002) report further indicates that the various forms of violence against women, children and the elderly can result in physical, psychological and social problems that do not necessarily lead to injury, disability or death but the consequences can be immediate, latent, or lasting for years following the initial abuse. Further, sexual harassment is one of the most damaging barriers to women’s career success and satisfaction (Willness et al 2007).

Barling et al (1996) suggested that there are gender differences in the psychological experience of sexual harassment between women and men, with women more affected as they report higher levels of sexual harassment than men and feel more threatened than men by inappropriate behaviours perpetrated by male supervisors, co-workers or subordinates at
work. In addition, the magnitude of the consequences of violence may vary according to the setting. Thus, a nurses' study in the United States showed consequences were greater for non-physical (psychological) violence than the physical form of violence in the hospital or health care setting (Gerberich et al 2004). A case-control study conducted in a hospital setting in Denmark showed that exposure to occupational violence is associated with significantly increased relative risk of depression and stress disorders in both women and men with the latter having a slightly higher effect (Wieclaw et al 2006).

The review revealed that workplace violence affects the mental and physical health of victims and entail material and social losses to them.

Barling et al (1996) also proposed a model of the consequences of sexual harassment as relates to the individual according to which experiencing sexual harassment event(s) can lead to a work-related negative mood for the victim that manifests in symptoms such as depression, anxiety, sleep disorders, headache, digestive problems, etc. (psychosomatic health complaints); intentions to seek transfer or just quit the job (turnover intentions) and sour relationships with supervisors, co-workers, friends, family members (interpersonal dissatisfaction).

Researchers Hoel et al (2001) used the social ecological model in their examination of the effects of violence in the workplace. Accordingly, violence at the level of the individual affects the mental and physical health, acting as a stressor on the individual with adverse outcomes including mental illness, coronary heart disease, certain types of cancer and physical and psychological complaints such as psychosomatic symptoms, migraine, stomach ulcers and allergies.

For example, exposure to workplace bullying was found to be associated with anxiety and aggression and high levels of stress, insomnia, melancholy and apathy including concentration problems, insecurity and lack of initiative (Quine 1999). The outcomes of sexual harassment are similar to those of bullying. Victims of sexual harassment may suffer from depression and anxiety. A violent event can result in post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Witnessing an event may result in fear of future violent incidents with the negative effects as if being personally assaulted (Hoel et al 2001). During the landmark sexual harassment Grobler case in the Cape High Court in South Africa, the court received evidence of Grobler’s diagnosis with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) as a result of 7 months of sexual harassment by a male employee (Maughan 2004).

According to Hoel et al (2001), the effects of various forms of violence on the individual can, in addition, be behavioural as well as attitudinal. Hence, exposure to violence leads to poor concentration and diminishing self-confidence and a tendency towards personal withdrawal often leading to social isolation. Victims are also sceptical to any help offered rendering treatment difficult (Brady 1999 cited Hoel et al 2001). Typical outcomes of resulting stress are a reduction in job-satisfaction and commitment to the organisation, unsafe behaviour and increased propensity for accidents and poor lifestyle habits such as increased smoking and alcohol consumption and less attention to good diet.

Bullying affects the social relationships at work and outside work. Repeated exposure could cause the victim to be obsessed with their grievance and this may in turn irritate others who
may see the victims as responsible for their predicaments. Bullying affects the victim’s self-confidence and self-efficacy and is manifested in all aspects of life including family, friends, social relations and the work environment (Cassitto et al 2003; Shane & Ellsberg 2012). According to these researchers, the direct impact on the victim is that of becoming confused, less efficient, with high levels of fear, shame and embarrassment, thus negatively impacting on work as well as interpersonal relations. These researchers state that sexual harassment can also have an impact on a person who observes someone experience sexual harassment including negative effect on their attitude towards work and psychosomatic problems. Other employees may have negative effects such as decreased job satisfaction, poorer physical health if employees believe sexual harassment is not being tackled in the organisation.

The outcomes of bullying are similar to those of sexual harassment since sexual harassment can lead to loss of concentration and deterioration of relationships (Barling et al 1996 cited in Hoel et al 2001) and female victims are more likely to experience strained relationships with male colleagues.

Victims may leave their job and may find it difficult or be unwilling to get fresh employment. A single incident can affect pay and future career prospects of severely affected victim who may have difficulty in rehabilitation and return to work. Victims may terminate their employment followed by lengthy litigation process against the organisation. Handing down judgement in the Grobler case in the Cape High Court in 2004, Justice Henrie Nel said: Samuel’s sexual harassment had changed Grobler from a vivacious and friendly person “into an emotional wreck, whose role as a family woman and mother was destroyed” as she was now unable to work (Maughan 2004). Hence, the home and private life of victims can also be strained (Earnshaw & Davidson 1994 cited Hoel 2001; Cassitto et al 2003).

Third-party violence can cause health and safety effects to the victim in the form of physical (bruising, wounds, and death), psychological (anxiety, fear, sleeping problems, post-traumatic stress disorder) and economic losses to the victim due to long-term sick leave and displacement from working life; impact on the organisation including lower job satisfaction and productivity of victims and other workers, increased sickness absence, higher turnover and insurance premiums; indirect impact on families and friends of the victims (EU-OSHA, 2010).

The literature review found that workplace violence in all its forms has reproductive health effects on women victims.

Research in North America has shown that physically and sexually abused women are three times more likely to suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) than non-abused women (Shane & Ellsberg 2012). Physical and sexual abuse limits women’s sexual and reproductive autonomy, for example, women who have been sexually abused are much more likely to use family planning clandestinely (Garcia-Moreno et al 2005), while survivors of sexual abuse are more likely to practise high risk sexual behaviours, experience unintended pregnancies as well as suffer from sexual dysfunction than women who have not suffered sexual abuse (Heise et al 1999). South African researchers, Norman et al (2010) have also indicated that survivors of violence have an increased risk of suffering from psychological and behavioural problems including depression, alcohol abuse, anxiety, suicidal behaviour, reproductive health problems and sexually transmitted diseases. They
suggest that women who experience multiple types of abuse are at higher risk of depressive symptoms and other mental disorders when compared to women who experience only one type of abuse.

Intimate partner abuse which occurs during pregnancy is a much more significant risk factor for pregnancy complications than hypertension and diabetes, the risk factors for which pregnant women are routinely screened (Gazmararian et al 1996). A study conducted in Nicaragua found a significant association between infant and child mortality and violence during pregnancy (Asling-Monemi et al 2003). According to Shane and Ellsberg (2012), studies indicate a significant association between low birth weight and abuse during pregnancy and abuse is also indirectly associated with factors such as smoking, alcohol and drug abuse and sexually transmitted infections which are known to contribute to low birth weight.

The literature review revealed that workplace violence has an impact on the material and financial stability of women who experience it and considerable economic costs for the organisation.

Violence also has negative impact on the material and financial stability of women who experience it including considerable economic costs for the organisation where they work and society as a whole. In Australia, the full cost of violence against women is unknown but intimate partner violence alone cost the Australian economy approximately $13.6 billion during 2008-2009 and by 2021-2022 will cost the Australian economy $15.6 billion annually of which $456 million will be borne by employers (VicHealth 2012). Thus, sexual harassment as a form of violence in the workplace can have a negative impact on the organisation including damage to business performance due to low employee morale and productivity; damage to reputation and public image; high cost of litigation insurance and compensation claims and increase in employee turnover in particular females and the resulting recruitment and training costs (Cooper et al 1996; Hunt et al 2007; VicHealth 2012; Cassitto et al 2003).

For example three cases were reported in South Africa in which the employers paid substantial compensation to victims of sexual harassment (Holmes 2007; Maugha 2004):

- In Grobler & Media 24 Ltd, the company paid R 776,814 for general damages, ongoing medical expenses, lost income, future loss of earnings, future medical expenses.
- In Ntsano & Real Security, the employee who earned R1000 per month was awarded R77,000 for general damages and future medical expenses.
- In UNISA & Orr, the organisation paid R1.1 million in legal and settlement costs.

Similar consequences are associated with workplace bullying. According to Cassitto et al (2003), the consequences of bullying to the organisation can be severe and may include additional retirement costs, disability, sickness absenteeism and increase in insurance premiums, repeated transfers and staff turnover, the costs of training new staff, damage to the company image, decrease in individual and group productivity and product quality, reduced employee motivation, job satisfaction and creativity; increase of the number of
persons unfit for work, decrease in competitiveness and a reduction in the number of clients
due to tarnished image and interpersonal climate deterioration.

A study by Emmerik et al (2007) found that individual employees who had experienced
threats of violence were less committed to the organisation and less dedicated to their job
than unexposed workers. The study also found that unsafe climate at group level in the
organisation marked by cumulated experiences of threats of violence was associated with
individual commitment to the organisation and dedication to their job. In a hostile
environment, team members may become reluctant to invest in commitment even when they
are not victims of violence themselves. This emphasises the need for group-based
interventions to prevent and reduce the effects of workplace violence on individuals.

_The review showed that workplace violence has an impact on society as a whole in the_
_form of increased medical costs for treatment of victims and their dependence on_
welfare; loss of tax-base, human resources and contribution to the productivity of the_
_overall economy._

The effects on society of workplace violence include increased medical costs to deal with
physical and psychological violence that result in long-term hospitalisation and mental
breakdown. Where victims retire on grounds of ill-health, they may subsequently depend on
welfare and entailing loss of breadwinner for the family. According to Hoel et al (2001),
losses in productivity in organisations due to the consequences of workplace violence,
negatively impact on the overall levels of productivity country-wide. Productive workers and
skills are lost and this also implies loss of tax-base and consumers, thus impacting the
overall economy. Further, workplace violence impacts the family and friends, particularly
where a victim is incapacitated and requires care and support to cope. This has the potential
to break down relationships.

In relation to a specific form of psychological violence such as bullying, Cassitto et al (2003)
stated that workplace bullying increases pressure on social welfare through increases in
benefits and welfare costs resulting from premature retirement of victims; high costs of
disability and unemployment and loss of human resources; healthcare costs due to
hospitalisation and treatment and potential loss of productive workers.

2.8 Resistance and coping strategies adopted by women to deal with workplace
violence

_The literature review found that women use various resistance and coping measures
to deal with workplace violence._

A literature review by Ullman (1997) found that sexual assault victims use various resistance
strategies including forceful physical resistance e.g. wrestling, punching, kicking, biting,
scratching, using a weapon, executing martial arts, etc.); non-forceful physical resistance
(pulling away, fleeing, shielding oneself); forceful verbal resistance (yelling, screaming,
threatening); non-forceful verbal resistance (pleading, talking, reasoning, begging, crying);
physiological resistance (urinating, defecating, vomiting); and trickery (conning the offender).
Forceful physical resistance, forceful verbal resistance and fleeing are the strategies that
have been found to be most effective (Sochting et al 2004).
Research indicates that coping strategies to deal with violence and sexual harassment in the workplace may be either self-focused (not involving the perpetrator) or perpetrator-focused addressing the initiator directly (Hunt et al 2007). According to these researchers,

Self-focused coping responses include:

- Avoidance or denial and is most frequently used though least effective for ending harassment: avoiding the perpetrator; transferring or resigning from job; ignoring the behaviour; going along with the behaviour, treating the behaviour as a joke and blaming self.
- Social coping – not effective for ending harassment, but may assist target in coping with negative consequences of harassment: bringing along a friend when perpetrator is present; discussing the problem with sympathetic colleagues and medical and/or emotional counselling.

Perpetrator-focused coping responses include:

- Confrontation/negotiation (this strategy is not frequently used but is very effective in ending harassment) and include: asking or telling perpetrator to stop; threatening the perpetrator and disciplining the perpetrator if in a position to do so. In a nested case control study in Minnesota (USA), Nachreiner et al (2007) found that cases were more likely than controls to report experiences of violence. Cases also reported a higher level of work stress and perceived that assault was an expected part of the job.
- Advocacy seeking (this strategy is also not often used but very effective in ending sexual harassment) and includes: reporting to the supervisor or other internal official body or outside body; asking another person e.g. a friend to intervene; seeking legal remedies through the court system.

In a survey of sexual harassment in the workplace in Slovenia, Trbanc (2008) identified various strategies adopted by victims to cope with experiences of sexual harassment:

- Victims of sexual harassment most frequently reacted with a joke (44% of harassed women and 53% of harassed men); women felt embarrassed; did not say anything or avoided the perpetrator.
- 46% of female victims did not tell anyone about incident(s), the most frequent reason given was that the victim felt reporting or telling someone will not change anything and the victim hoped it would all end quickly.
- Victims that did tell someone about the incident(s) most often confided in co-workers, friends and family. Only 8% of the female victims confided in a male superior, with only 5% confiding in a female superior.
- Only 3% of female victims who told someone about the harassment turned to the trade union for protection and support; while only 0.5% reported to the Labour Inspectorate. No victims reported their experience to the police.
Some studies highlight the strategies that women in the South African mining industry adopt to deal with their experiences of the various forms of violence in the workplace. Benya (2013) stated that in cases of sexual harassment, women are less inclined to report. They weigh the cost of reporting if they were harassed by people in high position as reporting even to the union may lead to victimisation, being blamed or being told they provoked men or “were asking for it” by using make-up or wearing a work suit considered by men as tight or revealing.

2.9 Prevention and management of violence against women in mining

The literature review found that strategies for the management and prevention of all forms of workplace violence should include measures at individual, organisational and societal levels and should address primary, secondary and tertiary prevention.

In managing violence, primary prevention should be prioritised in order to prevent violence before it occurs. The most effective strategies for primary prevention of various forms of violence against women should be guided by research on the determinants or risk factors of the violence as well as evidence of the effectiveness of specific interventions (Flood 2007).

The report from a South African Conference on sexual violence (SVRI FORUM 2009) suggested that the primary prevention approach is useful in promoting social change, respect, gender equality and addresses power imbalances, child sexual abuse and other driving factors behind sexual violence. This approach requires recognising the neurological, physiological and psychological characteristics of the individual as shaped by environmental and social factors in the community and society (Seedat et al 2009). Initiatives for the prevention and management of violence should include actions at Government policy, individual and organisational levels (EU-OSHA 2010).

In their study to investigate the moderating effects of organisational support on individual and organisational outcomes, Schat and Kelloway (2003) found that the two types of organisational support (instrumental and informational support) significantly moderated the effects of workplace violence on the emotional well-being, somatic health as well as the job-related affect of victims and those who vicariously experience violence. Instrumental support consists of support given by co-workers, supervisors and management to victims and those who witness violence; while informational support consists of whether those who experienced violence had received training on how to deal with aggression or threatening events at work.

The results of this study have implications for the development of interventions relating to workplace violence, for example, that introducing or improving informational support e.g. training may be successful in preventing workplace violence (primary prevention); while strengthening instrumental support from co-workers, supervisors and management will reduce the effects of violence on the victims, others who vicariously experience events and the organisation after violence has occurred (secondary prevention).

In their cross-sectional study of the relationship between childhood sexual and physical abuse and risk of revictimisation in women, Coid et al (2001) showed that childhood abuse is independently associated with adult abuse and trauma or revictimisation in adulthood. The
researchers confirmed that experiencing abuse does not occur in isolation: women who had had unwanted sexual intercourse in childhood were more likely to experience other forms of sexual activity and this also increased the risk of being physically abused. Less severe experiences of childhood abuse were associated with similar forms of abusive experience in adulthood. For example, unwanted sexual activities were associated with rape, sexual assault and other trauma in adulthood; while severe childhood experiences of unwanted sexual intercourse and being severely beaten on more than one occasion were associated with both sexual and physical abuse in adulthood.

The results of this study suggest that mine and community health services can develop interventions to prevent and reduce violence against women at three levels: Identifying girls and young women who have experienced childhood abuse and are thus at risk of abuse in adulthood and providing information, training and raising awareness to prevent revictimisation (primary prevention); Identifying women with history of childhood abuse who present with fresh cases or have experienced revictimisation to provide comprehensive psychological therapy at secondary and tertiary levels to prevent further abuse.

According to Sochting et al (2004), most rape prevention programmes seek to change beliefs and attitudes assumed to increase the likelihood of men perpetrating sexual violence and of women failing to take adequate precautions. Educational programmes such as provision of information on the prevalence of sexual violence, debunking rape myths, discussion of sex role stereotypical behaviours, are used to effect change in beliefs and attitudes, while self-defence programmes dwell on increasing the woman’s preparedness for threat of violence. The authors suggest that self-defence may be effective in increasing self-efficacy and reducing anxiety and depression.

Research also shows that alcohol use, attitudes and beliefs, assertiveness and communication as well as ability to detect danger cues are risk factors for sexual assault. In relation to this, studies have found that the majority of sexually assaulted women reported heavy alcohol intake preceding the assault; while women and men who endorse rape myths tend to view assault victims as more likely to be sexually aroused and blame the victims than women and men who do not support such myths (Garcia 1998; Kopper 1996). Sochting et al (2004) suggest that educating women about alcohol consumption and including ways of consolidating new, adaptive beliefs in prevention programmes can be the most important measure to prevent sexual assault against them.

The literature review found that interventions to prevent workplace violence against women will be more effective if men were included in all prevention strategies.

Interventions for violent men mostly involve psycho-educational and cognitive-behavioural techniques in combination with a pro-feminist theory of domestic violence to educate men that their violence is designed to dominate women (Geffner & Rosenbaum 2001; Rosenbaum & Leisring 2001 cited in Kim de la Harpe 2009). In this study, Kim de la Harpe (2009) found that women did not see the cause of domestic violence as attributable to larger societal structures or patriarchal ideology but rather to the individual characteristics and childhood hardships of the batterer. Female partners felt that the batterer needed psychological help since the abuse was rooted in his childhood.
Beyond the psychological complex, Seedat et al (2009b) observe that despite the injury burden, South Africa has not prioritised and built a culture of safety as a human right that is inalienable as other rights and this can be done by legislation, introducing policies and structures rendering injury prevention mandatory and institutionalising safety practices. Thus interventions against violence would include services for victims and criminal justice measures; primary prevention (Efforts of NGOs and other social organisations, government policy initiatives, and secondary prevention services which are being provided by many NGOs but Government has not sufficiently acted in concert with its recognition of violence and injury as public health problems).

Flood (2007) stated three reasons to explain the need to include men in any strategy to prevent all forms of violence against women:

(1) It is men who largely perpetrate the violence. Most men may not be violent and do seek consensual sexual relationships but the perpetrator is usually a male when a female has been subjected to physical or sexual violence. Men must therefore take responsibility for preventing violence against women.

(2) Beliefs in masculinity, male dominance and sexual entitlement are instrumental in shaping attitudes toward violence against women.

Research has shown that men are more likely to perpetrate or condone violence against women if they have hostile and negative sexual attitudes towards women and identify with traditional images of masculinity and male privilege (Flood & Peas, 2006; Flood 2007; Heise 1998). Young men become members of peer groups that encourage and legitimate violence against women, a predictor for women abuse. This research has suggested that violence against women is higher in cultures where manhood is defined in terms of dominance, toughness, entitlement to power and honour. In these societies chauvinistic violence is accepted as a means of settling interpersonal disputes and enforcing male dominance.

(3) Violence is a concern for both women and men and therefore men have a stake in ending violence against women and should be involved in any strategy for primary prevention (Flood 2007).

Flood’s framework for integrating men in preventing violence against women is also derived from the model of primary, secondary and tertiary prevention. Primary prevention strategies are directed at reducing the likelihood of males perpetrating violence against women; Secondary prevention strategies are directed towards men who are at risk of perpetrating violence by supporting them to reduce opportunities for violence, and tertiary prevention focuses on programmes directed at perpetrators. Based on this model, the researcher suggested a six-level model of intervention to prevent violence against women directed principally at men. The key points to be noted follow while the six-level model is summarised in Table 2.2.

- Male-dominated peer cultures and relations in organisations encourage violence-supportive attitudes that predict violence against women and create a hostile environment for them. Effective interventions should strive to introduce and reinforce
respectable and zero tolerance to violence cultures. These can be built into workplace and community education programmes.

- Strategies of community engagement and mobilisation are central in changing social norms, gender roles and power relations which shape attitudes toward and feed into violence. Changing the social and community conditions that breed violence including poverty eradication programmes for youth employment e.g. vocational training to acquire new skills; providing affordable housing, improving access to health care and social welfare services.

- Local campaigns can be used to change men’s perceptions about other men’s agreement with violence-supportive and sexist norms. Campaigns can be a useful tool to undermine men’s conformity to sexist peer norms and increase their willingness to intervene when faced with violent incidents.

- Journalists can be encouraged to report intimate partner violence in appropriate ways; teaching critical viewing and thinking skills to improve young persons’ ability to ignore or resist anti-social messages and reduce the negative impact of portrayals of violence (Flood & Pease 2006).

Government can pass regulations on the media to regulate from films and television portrayal of violence, sexual violence or coercion in pornographic materials. Of particular importance is the regulation of portrayals of violence in children’s television and internet pornography.
Table 2.2: Six-level Model of interventions directed at men to prevent violence against women (Flood 2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 1: Strengthening male capacity to avoid or prevent violence against women</th>
<th>Level 2: Promoting community education on violence against women</th>
<th>Level 3: Improving capacity of support workforce and organisations</th>
<th>Level 4: Strategies to engage and mobilise the community</th>
<th>Level 5: Changing organisational practices and cultures impacting on community norms</th>
<th>Level 6: Strategies to influence policies and legislation</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Providing quality child care</td>
<td>• Peer education and mentoring (face-to-face education groups programmes)</td>
<td>• Training Police and staff to respond to intimate partner violence</td>
<td>• Raise awareness of the problem of intimate partner violence</td>
<td>• Encourage media outlets to restrict violence-supportive representations and content</td>
<td>• Using law and policies to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Home visiting programmes</td>
<td>• Communication and social networking programmes e.g. Soul City in South Africa (WHO 2002)</td>
<td>• Develop coordinated community responses</td>
<td>• Establish social norms that make violence unacceptable through events, networks, workshops.</td>
<td>• Adopt workplace policies that enforce egalitarian relationships</td>
<td>• Establish and implement national programmes to eliminate intimate partner violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Intensive clinical work with battered women and their young children</td>
<td>• Develop procedures for proper management of abuse</td>
<td>• Develop network of male leaders to champion cause</td>
<td>• Integrate materials on violence against women in curricula of social workers, judges, police, priests</td>
<td>• Influence regulating and reducing the availability of alcohol and drugs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Encourage parental involvement in early education of children</td>
<td>• Sensitise health care providers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Determine media content, e.g. in advertising, pornography in audio video media and internet</td>
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**Strategies directed at adolescents and young adults:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strategies directed at adolescents and young adults:</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Mentoring programmes</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Premarital relationship education</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Welfare-to-work strategies</td>
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<td>• Education on equitable attitudes</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Strategies directed at adolescents and young adults:</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Social norms campaigns</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Strategies directed at adolescents and young adults:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Develop resources and technical assistance to increase workforce organisational capacity to prevent workplace violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Introduce positive constructs of identity as alternatives to socially recognised norms of manhood and male dominance associated with violence and inequality</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strategies directed at adolescents and young adults:</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Influence regulating and reducing the availability of alcohol and drugs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Determine media content, e.g. in advertising, pornography in audio video media and internet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 1</strong>: Strengthening male capacity to avoid or prevent violence against women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Strategies directed at parental and adult supervision:  
- Targeting adolescent social networks interventions  
- Responsible parenthood programmes |  
- Media literacy  
- Media Regulation |  
- Changing social and community conditions that breed violence  
- Ensuring accountability of services (police, health care, social welfare) to community needs | | |  
- Restricting gun ownership and use |
Some research has focused on formulating good practice guides in violence prevention and management commonly adopted by workplaces.

A legal consultant for Gold Fields South Africa has recommended a strategy in managing sexual harassment that includes: development and implementation of a sexual harassment policy; on-going education of managers and employees; putting in place grievance procedures and provision of counselling and support (Holmes 2007).

According to the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2003), prevention is the best tool to eliminate sexual harassment in the workplace and the best way is to tell all employees that sexual harassment will not be tolerated and introduce mechanisms that ensure that the organisation’s culture supports this. Generally, the management of sexual harassment in the workplace involves three levels:

1. **Prevention** including checking organisational culture, developing and implementing sexual harassment policy, training and raising awareness, monitoring and evaluating the programme for review.

2. **Responding** to sexual harassment complaints when they occur, including initiating complaints procedures, using coping strategies to deal with sexual harassment, maintaining confidentiality and protecting victims from victimisation.

3. **Follow-up measures** in the aftermath of the investigation including rehabilitation and reintegration of victims and others affected together with perpetrator by providing counselling and support. This stage also entails the examination of the underlying causes of the event and reviewing policies and procedures (Hunt et al 2007).

These three levels correspond with primary prevention, secondary prevention and tertiary prevention adopted by other researchers (Hunt et al 2007; VicHealth 2012).

Similarly, Glomb and Liao (2003) indicated that groups in the workplace influence individual behaviour through multiple mechanisms and therefore require a multipronged approach to reduction and prevention of workplace violence. For example, Management can take preventive measures such as enforcing zero-tolerance of all forms of violence in the workplace with disciplinary consequences for perpetrators to dismantle aggressive tendencies in aggressive groups. An aggression reduction strategy can include a selection procedure in which aggression-prone individuals are screened out of the workforce.

The Canadian author French (2008) states that a credible violence management programme should comprise the following elements:

1. A comprehensive policy, which is the cornerstone to any programme to prevent and manage workplace violence. The Policy should define workplace violence in precise terms; state the organisation’s zero tolerance for all acts of violence; the scope of application (employees, management, contractors, customers and members of the public); responsibilities and accountabilities of all stakeholders; the procedures to report and prevent incidents; procedures for investigating and resolving complaints; outlining the consequences of violations; reinforcing organisation’s commitment to
violence prevention and training of employees; commitment of management to inform employees of potential risks and support and protect victims of violence; cross-reference to other specific policies such as sexual harassment policy.

(2) Design and implementation of a protocol to assess the potential for all forms of violence in the organisation.

(3) Developing procedures and resources to adequately investigate reported incidents of all forms of violence at work.

(4) Establishing a critical incident management plan.

(5) Developing and delivering training and educational programmes on all forms of workplace violence to support the overall policy.

(6) Developing a referral roster of community resources, e.g. police, legal advice, health care services, in addition to the organisation’s employees’ assistance programme (EAP) to be used when incidents occur.

(7) Establishing a victim support plan and assigning responsibilities for its operation when incidents occur.

The author does not include the important element to evaluate and review the programme regularly.

In their guide for workplace violence prevention, the Minnesota Department of Labour and Industry (no date) suggested that in planning workplace safety and health issues, it is necessary to consider the organisation’s culture, history, size, industry and workforce. The guide proposes a strategy to prevent violence at work summarised below:

- Develop effective policies to protect employees from violence and harassment at work.
- Establish effective procedures for handling grievances.
- Train supervisors and employees on what constitutes violent behaviour, the consequences and conflict resolution methods; how to recognise signs and symptoms of potentially violent employee including sensitive signs of possible abuse among employees. E.g. frequent absences, depression, slow work, etc.
- Foster a supportive, harmonious work environment by a culture of mutual respect through open communication, involvement and consultation of employees, recognition of good work and leading by example and showing visible management commitment.
- Set up employee assistance programme to provide counselling on family, marital and financial issue and to victims and perpetrators of all forms of violence where possible.
- Implementing physical security programmes that protect employees such as providing full-time or after-hours security guards, CCTV monitoring, emergency warning systems, appropriate PPE, etc.
- Provide job counselling for employees who have been laid off or dismissed.
• Ensure proper management of change by consulting with and involving employees in decision-making processes to reduce job insecurity and stress among employees.

However, to be effective, the performance of these programmes must be measured regularly through audits and annual review (Minor 1995; Mayhew 2000; Department of Labour 2009).

OSHA (1999) suggested the following additional strategies for the prevention and management of sexual harassment in the workplace:

• Use of gender neutral communication materials such as videos, posters and pictures; these materials should include examples of female workers to promote an integrated workplace.
• Use of gender neutral language in standards and training documents.
• Provision of sexual harassment prevention training as part of the health and safety training programmes.
• Reinforcing the role of inspectors by ensuring that they are able to interview a representative sample of women on the site to obtain a broad, non-gender-based perspective on the health and safety concerns of all workers. Inspectors can use a specially developed checklist for questioning both employers and employees.

The literature review found that prevention of bullying at work requires changing cultural change of individual values, attitudes, verbal expressions and ways of interacting.

Cassitto et al (2003) state that prevention of workplace bullying implies bringing about cultural change of individual values, attitudes, verbal expressions and ways of interacting which take a long time to achieve and, therefore, multiple strategies are required. They propose primary, secondary and tertiary level strategies for the prevention of workplace bullying:

(1) Primary prevention

Primary prevention includes strategies such as provision of adequate information to workers, training managers and staff in conflict resolution, and raising awareness and developing anti-bullying policy. Other measures include the provision of guidelines and codes of ethical behaviour that encourage zero tolerance towards violence in any form. The guidelines should show the nature and extent of the problem in the workplace and its effects on health and quality of life of the affected and on work. Also, terms prohibiting bullying can be included in the employment contracts.

(2) Secondary prevention

Secondary prevention consists of strategies to deal with events when they occur. For example, appointing a confidant to listen to complaints or a mediator generally not to assign blame but to bring the parties together to understand each other, encourage them to sort out the problem and continue work in a good climate and with greater respect.
(3) **Tertiary prevention**

Tertiary prevention comprises measures to ensure affected workers recover their health and dignity including:

- Early diagnosis of health effects to help reduce the consequences of workplace bullying for the individual, family and social network.
- Introducing groups to raise consciousness and bring together people who have experienced workplace violence and harassment in different situations to share experiences and if necessary modify their own behaviour.
- Passing legislation: the law should take into account local habits and cultures by encouraging preventive measures that reduce workplace bullying; protect those workers who engage in self-help to address bullying in their workplace; provide incentives to those employers who respond promptly, fairly and effectively to events of bullying; provide relief such as compensation damages, reinstatement where applicable to victims and punish bullies and the employers who allow them to abuse their co-workers.

**2.10 Conclusions**

The literature review revealed that violence and sexual harassment against women is a global public health problem. As such, it remains one of the most important safety and security issues affecting women in the South African mining industry but has not been adequately researched. This made it difficult to obtain a specific estimate of the extent of the problem.

The review found that violence against women in mining is related to the male-orientated workplace designs such as ablution facilities and transport cages, long hours of work and shift work, and attitudes towards gender and sexuality all influencing workplace violence and sexual harassment. Individual attitudes and workplace physical conditions foster fertile ground for violence and sexual harassment.

Experiencing childhood violence, alcohol and drug misuse, cultural beliefs of masculine dominance of women in interpersonal relationships and male sexual entitlements; negative workplace cultures, social and economic inequalities, poverty and unemployment were all found to be factors significantly associated with increased risk of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women.

In particular, cultural beliefs shaped attitudes toward gender and sexuality which in turn shape attitudes toward perpetration of violence against women as well as the responses to such violence of victims and those surrounding them.

The review found that successful management and prevention strategies are based on an interaction of the multiple contributory or risk factors for violence and sexual harassment and combine workplace policies and procedures based on a sound legislative, regulatory and enforcement framework together with interventions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.
Successful interventions are based on researched information as well as tried and evaluated strategies, while good practice is for organisations to emphasise primary prevention by adopting proactive interventions including raising awareness and training while ensuring the participation of men, possibly as champions.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Study design, sample and sites

A quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey was conducted by means of a structured questionnaire and participant observations across three purposively sampled mines of different commodities, namely, Gold, Platinum and Coal mines. Furthermore, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions were also conducted with both men and women to deepen the understanding of the nature and circumstances of violence and harassment in the mines. Strongman et al (2004) used this method in their investigation of the negative and positive impacts of mining on women in Papua New Guinea.

3.2 Ethical considerations

Ethical clearance approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa prior to collecting data (Appendix C). Permissions to conduct the study was requested and obtained from mine management of the sites that participated in the study. A written informed consent was obtained from each participant prior to collecting data, after providing detailed information about the purpose and scope of the project. Confidentiality and anonymity of data obtained was highly maintained throughout the study.

3.3 Data management and analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using SPSS version 21.0 and data summarised using descriptive measures for continuous variables and percentages for categorical variables. Qualitative data were analyzed by means of thematic content analysis and coded using the NVivo version 9 software.

3.4 Limitations of the study

The major limitations of this study are twofold: (1) The findings are based on participants’ self-reported experiences of violence and sexual harassment in the mines and could not be verified with official statistics of the reported incidents from the study sites as it was either not available or access to such data was not granted to the researchers. (2) The largest proportion of participants in this study was from the Platinum sector, due to the difficulties experienced in accessing participants from Coal and Gold sectors. The latter might result in shortcomings in terms of generalizability of findings.
4.0 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

A total of 262 participants, 246 (98.0%) from the Platinum, 9 (1.6%) from Gold and 1 (0.4%) from Coal mining sectors, completed the questionnaire, as shown in figure 4.1.

![Figure 4.1: Type of mine currently employed](image)

4.1 Socio-demographic data

4.1.1 Gender distribution

An analysis of the socio-demographic data showed that the majority of participants (79%) were females compared to males (21.0%) as displayed in figure 4.2.

![Figure 4.2: Gender distribution of the participants](image)
4.1.2 Age distribution

The participants’ age group distribution, as displayed in figure 4.3, showed that most of them (71.2%) were below the age of 40 years, compared to those over 40 years (28.1%). Further analysis per gender revealed that the majority of female participants (76.7%) were less than 40 years while most males (48.8%) were 40 years and above.

![Figure 4.3: Age distribution of the participants](image)

4.1.3 Marital status

As illustrated in figure 4.4, slightly over half of the participants were single, followed by those who were married (38.4%).

![Figure 4.4: Distribution of marital status of the participants](image)
4.1.4 Level of education

Figure 4.5 shows the highest levels of education among participants. Here, over two thirds (63.4%) obtained a secondary level of education, while others obtained post matric qualifications from a technikon (22.4%) and university (7.7%).

![Figure 4.5: Participants’ highest level of education](image)

4.1.5 Reasons for working in the mines

As displayed in figure 4.6, the participants’ main reasons for working in the mines include the lack of job opportunities (31.0%), being a breadwinner (30.0%) and better than being unemployed (16.5%). Single parenthood (11.5%) and lack of formal qualifications (10.5%) were other reasons mentioned by participants for working in the mines.

![Figure 4.6: Participants’ reasons for working in the mines](image)
4.1.6 Job categories

Figure 4.7 shows that the majority (75.0%) of the participants were employed as general workers. Notably, 50.0% were employed as skilled workers compared to equal proportions (25.0%) that were semi-skilled and unskilled. The majority (88.4%) reported that they lived at home and commuted to work.

Figure 4.7: Participants’ job categories and place of residence
4.1.7 Years of working experience in the mines

The majority of the participants (81.4%) had between one and ten years working experience in the mines. However, male workers had more years of experience in the mines as 66% had more than five years; while 69.2% of female workers had five or less years of working experience in the mines, as displayed in figure 4.8. With regards to placement in the mines, it was found that more male mine workers (89.8%) were working underground compared to female mine workers (67.5%). Almost all of the participants (95.7%) were working full time. Furthermore, more males worked in shifts (53.8%) compared to females (35.7%) and predominantly worked between 6pm and 7am as reported by (39.3% males) and (41.4% females).

Figure 4.8: Years of working experience in the mines
More than two-thirds (72.4%) of the participants were working underground compared to 22.8% on the surface as displayed in figure 4.9; and 95.7% worked on a full time basis. The majority (81.4%) reported working experience of between one and ten years. More than half (60.1%) did not work in shifts. Those who work in shifts (40.6%) worked between 6 pm and 7 am.

Figure 4.9: Work section, nature of employment and shift work
4.1.9 Levels of pay among mine workers

As illustrated in figure 4.10, the majority of the participants (77.8%) indicated that mine workers do not receive equal pay for the same job level/category, and 41.3% reported that some female workers were receiving more pay than others. Further analysis per gender revealed that more females (81.8%) compared to males (62.7%) reported that mine workers do not receive equal payments for the same job level/category, and 45.1% females compared to males (24.5%) highlighted that some female workers were receiving more pay than others.

Figure 4.10: Participants’ responses regarding pay levels
4.2 Types of violence in the mines reported by participants

4.2.1 Physical violence

4.2.1.1 Level of being worried about physical violence in the mines

As shown in figure 4.11, the participants’ overall responses on the level of worry about violence in the mines revealed that more than half (55.3%) of the participants (50% males, 56.0% females) reported they were very worried (35.9%) or worried (19.4%); compared to 26.6% who were not worried at all about the level of violence in their respective mines.

![Figure 4.11: Level of being worried about violence in the mines](image-url)
4.2.2 Types and circumstances of physical violence experienced by participants in the mines

As shown in figure 4.12, more than a fifth (22.9%) of the participants reported as having been physically attacked when on duty in the mines. Of those, (58.5%) experienced physical assault without a weapon, compared to 14.6% who were physically attacked with a weapon. Furthermore, (19.5%) reported sexual assault without a weapon, while 7.3% were sexually assaulted with a weapon. Almost half (49%) considered their experiences of attack as usual and/or accepted incidents of physical violence in their mines.

![Figure 4.12: Nature and circumstances of physical violence in the mines](image)

4.2.3 Prevalence of physical violence in the mines per gender

Further analysis per gender indicated that more males (29.6%) compared to females (20.7%) were physically attacked in one or more ways in the mines, as presented in table 4.1. The analysis also revealed that more males (63.7%) were physically assaulted with a weapon, whereas 69% female workers experienced physical assault without a weapon. Comparatively, more than half of the female workers (60.0%) compared to 16.7% male workers considered physical attacks to be typical or usual incidents of violence in the mines. With regards to the perpetrator, 55.6% of male workers reported to have been attacked by members of the public while 29.7% of female workers were attacked by their co-workers.
Table 4.1: Distribution of experiences of physical violence per gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Participants’ gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the last 12 months, have you been physically attacked in one or more ways in your workplace?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16 (29.6%)</td>
<td>42 (20.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>38 (70.4%)</td>
<td>161 (79.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>54 (100.0%)</td>
<td>203 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes, how would you describe this incident?</td>
<td>Sexual assault with a weapon</td>
<td>2 (18.2%)</td>
<td>1 (3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sexual assault without a weapon</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>7 (24.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical assault with a weapon</td>
<td>5 (45.5%)</td>
<td>1 (3.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical assault without a weapon</td>
<td>4 (36.4%)</td>
<td>20 (69.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>11 (100.0%)</td>
<td>29 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you consider this to be a typical or usual incident of violence in your workplace?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2 (16.7%)</td>
<td>21 (60.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>10 (83.3%)</td>
<td>14 (40.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 (100.0%)</td>
<td>35 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who attacked you?</td>
<td>Patient/client/customer</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
<td>2 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Worker from another department</td>
<td>2 (22.2%)</td>
<td>5 (13.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management/supervisor</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
<td>6 (16.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Partner/ex-partner</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>3 (8.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team leader</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>7 (18.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-worker</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>11 (29.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Member of the public</td>
<td>5 (55.6%)</td>
<td>3 (8.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>9 (100.0%)</td>
<td>37 (100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.4 Perpetrators of physical violence

As illustrated in figure 4.13, 22.9% of the participants confirmed that their co-workers were perpetrators of the experienced physical violence, followed by their team leaders (18.8%) and members of the public (16.7%) when commuting to and from work. Furthermore, equal proportions (14.6%) reported being physically attacked by mine workers outside their work stations and management/supervisor. Markedly, 6.3% were attacked at work by their intimate partners and customers/clients (6.3%).

Figure 4.13: Perpetrators of physical violence
4.2.5 Place, time and days of occurrence of incidences of violence

As displayed in figure 4.14, approximately half (47.8%) of the participants reported that incidences of violence occurred at their own sections of the mines, followed by 39.1% who experienced incidents of violence on their way to and from work. The analysis further showed that 46.4% of the incidences occurred between 07h00 am and 13h00 pm. Notably, more than a quarter (28.6%) of the incidences of violence in the mines occurred on a Friday, followed by occurrences on a Thursday (16.7%).

Figure 4.14: Place, time and days of occurrence of incidences of violence
Participants were asked about their reactions following experiences of physical violence in the mines. The analysis showed that about a fourth (23.8%) took no action while 38.1% informed their perpetrators to stop acts of physical violence. Furthermore, 9.5% of the participants reported the matter to a senior colleague in contrast to 7.1% who reported to their friends/families as shown in figure 4.15. Other reactions reported by participants included reporting the matter verbally, completing incident/accident reports, seeking assistance from their associations, trying to defend themselves or pretending as if the incident did not take place, as described in figure 4.15.

Figure 4.15: Participants’ reaction to physical violence in the mines
4.2.6.1 Perceptions on prevention of physical violence in the mines and injuries sustained

As shown in figure 4.16, the majority of the participants (75.9%) felt that incidences of physical violence in the mines are preventable as compared to a small proportion (24.1%) who attested the opposite.

Participants were asked further if they sustained injuries following incidents of physical violence in the mines. An overwhelming majority (83.0%) reported they did not sustain any injuries, while 17.0% indicated the opposite. And of those who were injured, a third (33.3%) indicated they required and received formal medical treatment for injuries sustained, as illustrated in figure 4.16.

Figure 4.16: Perceptions on prevention of violence and injuries sustained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you think the incident could have been prevented?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>75.9%</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Were you injured as a result of the incident?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If yes, did you require formal treatment for the injuries?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.6.2  Effects/consequences of physical violence in the mines

As shown in figure 4.17, the experiences of physical violence in the mines resulted in more than a third (40.3%) of the participants reportedly encountering moderate to extremely frequent disturbing memories, thoughts or images of the incidence of the violent attack. Furthermore, a third (33.2%) reported to have moderately or extremely avoided thoughts of or talking about the incidence. 34.6% also reported to have avoided feelings related to the incidence of violent attack. However, 50% confirmed being 'super-alert' or watchful, vigilant and on guard. Additionally, 42.8% felt like everything they did was a big effort.

Figure 4.17: Effects/consequences of physical violence in the mines
4.2.6.3 Absenteeism (sick leave) due to physical violence

Figure 4.18 shows that more than a third (40.4%) of the victims of physical violence in the mines reportedly took sick leave following their being attacked. Among them, 43.3% took one day off from work, followed by those who took one week (23.3%) and between 2-3 weeks (13.3%). Remarkably, 10.0% of the participants reported that they were absent from work for as long as 7-8 months following the incidence of violence in the mines.

**Figure 4.18: Frequency of sick leave due to physical violence**
4.2.6.4  Management and outcomes of incidents of physical violence in the mines

Participants were asked if interventions were taken by their employers to deal with reported incidences of physical violence in the mines. Half of them (50%) mentioned that investigations (action) were taken to ascertain the causes of the attack. Of the 50%, most mentioned that actions were taken by the mine management (34.5%), union representatives (31%), the police (20.7%), mining community groups (10.3%) and their associations (3.4%). Regarding outcomes of investigations for physical violence, 34% indicated that perpetrators received verbal warnings compared to 23.4% who confirmed that no punishment was given to perpetrators. Also, 10.6% pointed out that perpetrators were reported to the local police, however only 2.1% were prosecuted. Sadly, 23.4% of the participants stated that they did not know about the consequences to the perpetrator, as shown in figure 4.19.

![Figure 4.19: Management and outcomes of incidents of physical violence in the mines](image-url)
4.2.6.5 Individual, institutional and systematic responses to physical violence

Institutional responses to physical violence in the mines

More than a quarter of the participants who experienced physical violence in the mines reported that their supervisors or mine management provided them with opportunities to deal with their experiences of the attack by reporting the incidences of violence. Of that quarter of participants, 42.5% mentioned that they were referred for counselling, while 30.0% were given opportunities to speak about the incidents. As shown in table 4.2, there were no measures taken to deal with the effects of physical violence as reported by 27.5% of the participants.

Table 4.2: Institutional responses to physical violence in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did your employer or supervisor offer to provide you with?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to speak about it</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opportunity to report was provided</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.7 Participants’ level of satisfaction regarding the management of physical violence in the mines

As shown in figure 4.20, over half (53.8%) of the participants were dissatisfied with the manner in which reported incidents of violence were dealt with in their mines as compared to the 35.9% who were satisfied.

Figure 4.20: Satisfaction level regarding the management of physical violence in the mines
4.2.8 Reasons for not reporting incidents of physical violence in the mines

Participants who did not report incidences of physical violence felt it was not important enough to report (18.8%); another 18.8% took care of the problem themselves, while 9.4% thought that it was useless to report because they would not be believed, (9.4%) feared being regarded as ‘troublemakers’ and the other (9.4%) did not know where to report, as shown in figure 4.21. Other reasons given by participants included the fear of retaliation from the perpetrator (3.1%), fear of losing the job (3.1%) and feelings of guilt (3.1%).

Figure 4.21: Reasons for not reporting incidences of physical violence in the mines
4.2.9 Witnessing and reporting incidents of physical violence in the mines

As shown in table 4.3, 27.8% of the participants confirmed witnessing incidents of physical violence in the mines during the past 12 months and of these 44.7% witnessed them once, while 31.6% witnessed between violence 2 - 4 times. Remarkably, equal proportions (7.9%) witnessed incidents of physical violence several times a month and on a daily basis. With regards to reporting incidents of violence in the mines, only 20.4% confirmed having reported the incidents (either as witnessed or experienced) in the last 12 months and of these participants who had reported the incidents, 36.3% mentioned they were disciplined for reporting such an incident of violence in the mines, as shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Witnessing and reporting incidents of physical violence in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In the last 12 months, have you witnessed incidents of physical violence in your workplace?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>72.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If yes, how often has this occurred in the last 12 months?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Once</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 times</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 times</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Several times a month</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About once a week</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you reported an incident of workplace physical violence (witnessed) in the last 12 months?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If yes, have you been disciplined for reporting an incident of workplace violence?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Psychological violence in the mines

4.3.1 Verbal abuse

4.3.1.1 Incidents of verbal abuse in the mines

As shown in figure 4.22, (44.1%) of the participants reported experiencing verbal abuse in the mines during the past 12 months, compared to 55.9% who did not experience verbal abuse. Of those who experienced verbal abuse, about two-thirds (63.3%) mentioned that they had experienced it sometimes, while 13.7% experienced verbal abuse all the time. When asked about the perpetrator of verbal abuse, 36.6% mentioned their management/supervisors, followed by co-worker (25.6%) and team leader (20.7%) respectively. A further, 11.0% mentioned workers from other departments and their partners/ex-partners (3.7%) as perpetrators of verbal abuse in the mines.

![Figure 4.22: Incidences and perpetrators of verbal abuse in the mines](image-url)
4.3.2 Frequency, place and participants’ reaction to verbal abuse in the mines

According to figure 4.23, the majority (75.8%) of the participants considered verbal abuse to be habitual incidents in the mines with the highest (81.1%) occurring in participants’ own mining units. When asked about their reactions to verbal abuse, more than a quarter (26.2%) of the participants reported to have not taken any action, 32.1% told the perpetrator to stop, and 11.9% reported the incidents to their senior colleagues. Only 2.4% reported incidents of verbal abuse orally.

Figure 4.23: Frequency, place and participants’ reaction to verbal abuse
4.3.3 Level of being worried about verbal abuse in the mines

4.3.3.1 Effects/consequences of verbal abuse

Participants were asked if they experienced psychological symptoms following incidents of verbal abuse in the mines. Almost half of the participants (49.1%) reported being moderate to extremely bothered by repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts or images of the verbal abuse following the incidents. 49.6% were moderate to extremely avoiding thinking or talking about incidents of verbal abuse and 48.5% were avoiding having feelings related to incidents of verbal abuse, as shown in figure 4.24. Furthermore, 80% of the participants reported being 'super-alert' or watchful and on guard, and 58.1% felt like everything they did was a big effort.

Figure 4.24: Effects/consequences of verbal abuse
4.3.3.2 Institutional response to incidents of verbal abuse in the mines

Participants were asked if they thought incidents of verbal abuse in the mines were avoidable and the majority (83.7%) indicated that they could have been prevented, compared to a small proportion who reported the opposite, as shown in figure 4.25. Regarding action taken to investigate incidents, more than half (57.8%) mentioned that action was taken to identify the cause(s) of the incidence compared to 34.4% who indicated that no action was taken and 7.8% who did not know if any action was taken. A total of 41.7% reported that the mine management/employer conducted the investigations, while 37.5% indicated that action was undertaken by their union representatives and only 10.4% reported that action was taken by the local police department, as shown in figure 4.25.

Figure 4.25: Institutional response to incidents of verbal abuse in the mines
4.3.3.3 Consequences for perpetrators of verbal abuse

Regarding the consequences for perpetrators of verbal abuse, 37.9% of the participants reported that there were no repercussions for perpetrators, while 32.8% reported that verbal warnings were issued to their perpetrators. In addition, 5.2% stated that they were reported to the police department and only one aggressor was prosecuted, as shown in figure 4.26. In contrast, 17.2% of the participants indicated not knowing if there were any repercussions for perpetrators.

![Figure 4.26: Consequences for perpetrators of verbal abuse](image)

4.3.3.4 Interventions for victims of verbal abuse in the mines

As shown in table 4.4, half (50.0%) of the victims of verbal abuse in the mines mentioned that their mine management or their supervisors offered them an opportunity to speak to them about their experiences of verbal abuse at work, while 20.7% reported they were offered an opportunity to report them following the relevant structures in the mines. Furthermore, 29.3% reported that they were offered by their employers to undergo counselling services following incidents of verbal abuse.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did your employer or supervisor offer to provide you with:</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to speak about it</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to report it</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>58</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4: Interventions for victims of verbal abuse
4.3.3.5 Participants' level of satisfaction on the handling incidents of verbal abuse in the mines

As shown in figure 4.27, more than a third (40.8%) of the participants who reported incidents of verbal abuse in the mines, confirmed their dissatisfaction with the manner in which incidents were handled, compared to 39.4% who were satisfied. Notably, a small proportion of 19.7% reported that they were neutral about their levels of satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

Figure 4.27: Participants' level of satisfaction on the handling incidents of verbal abuse
4.3.3.6 Participants’ reasons for non-reporting of incidents of verbal abuse

As shown in figure 4.28, 45.3% of the participants who did not report incidences of verbal abuse in the mines, mentioned that they took care of the problem themselves, and, 22.6% indicated they did not know how to report them, while 15.1% indicated that it was not important enough to report. Remarkably, 5.7% stated that they did not think any action would be taken by the mines, while equal proportions of 3.8% felt ashamed to report and that they would not be believed by their employers. The other reasons for not reporting the incidents included fears of losing the job and retaliation from the perpetrator.

Figure 4.28: Reasons for non-reporting of incidents of verbal abuse
4.4 Incidence of bullying in the mines

As shown in figure 4.29 the analysis indicated that more than a third (36.1%) of the participants experienced bullying in the mines during the past 12 months, compared to 63.9% who indicated the opposite.

Figure 4.29: Incidence of bullying in the mines
4.4.1 Frequency and perpetrators of bullying in the mines

The analysis showed that half of the participants (50.0%) experienced bullying sometimes during their employment in the mines, while 17.7% experienced it regularly. Regarding the perpetrator of bullying, 30.5% of the participants mentioned their mine management/supervisors, followed by their co-workers (28.8%) and team leaders (22.0%), respectively. Some of the participants mentioned workers from other departments (10.2%), their ex-partners, and/or clients/patients (3.4%) and members of the community on their way to work (1.7%), as shown in figure 4.30.

![Figure 4.30: Last time you were bullied in your workplace](image)

| Think of the last time you were bullied in your workplace. Who bullied you? |
|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
|                 | Patient/client/customer | Worker from another department | Management/supervisor | Partner/ex-partner | Team leader | Co-worker | Member of the public |
| Series 1        | 3.4%   | 10.2%  | 30.5%  | 3.4%   | 22.0%    | 28.8%    | 1.7%    |

4.4.2 Frequency and location of incidents of bullying in the mines

As shown in table 4.5, the majority (75.4%) of participants considered bullying in the mines to be typical incidents (81.4%), which often occur in their own sections of the mines, (10.2%) on their way to work or home and (8.5%) in-house health facilities.

| Table 4.5: Frequency and location of incidents of bullying in the mines |
|-------------------------------------------------|--------|-------|
| Do you consider this to be a typical incident of bullying in your workplace? | Frequency | Percent |
| Yes                                             | 49     | 75.4  |
| No                                              | 16     | 24.6  |
| Where did the incident take place?              |        |       |
| Inside health facility                          | 5      | 8.5   |
| Your own mine unit                              | 48     | 81.4  |
| Outside (on way to work or home)                | 6      | 10.2  |
| Total                                           | 59     | 100.0 |
4.4.3 Reaction to incidence of bullying in the mines

The participants’ reaction to incidents of bullying in the mines included, trying to stop the perpetrator (32.7%), taking no action (29.1%), and reporting to a senior colleague (14.5%) or a colleague (10.9%). Other reactions included being transferred to another department upon request (3.6%) and seeking assistance from union representatives (3.6%), as shown in figure 4.31.

![Figure 4.31: Participants' reactions to incidents of bullying](image)

Figure 4.31: Participants' reactions to incidents of bullying
4.4.4 Effects/consequences of bullying in the mines

Since the time of being bullied at work, more than half (58.6%) of them were moderate to extremely bothered by repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts or images of the incidence. 39.4% were moderate to extremely avoiding to think or talk about the incidence, 44.3% were avoiding having feelings related to the incidence, 53.7% being 'super-alert' or watchful and on guard, and 61.9% felt like everything they did was a big effort, as illustrated in figure 4.32.

![Figure 4.32: Effects/consequences of bullying in the mines](image)

4.4.5 Prevention of bullying in the mines

As shown in table 4.6, the majority of the participants (82.1%) felt that incidents of bullying experienced in the mines could have been prevented, compared to a small proportion (17.9%) who reported the opposite.

Table 4.6: Participants’ views on prevention of bullying in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you think the incident of bullying could have been prevented?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>82.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.6 Measures taken to deal with bullying in the mines

Just over a third of the participants (35.1%) who experienced bullying in the mines confirmed that action was taken to investigate incidents of bullying. More than half (53.3%) mentioned that their management/employer took the action, while 23.3% indicated that union representatives took the action. Regarding the consequences for perpetrators of bullying, it was reported by 46.7% of the participants that verbal warnings were issued compared to and 33.3% who did not get any kind of punishment, as shown in figure 4.33.

![Figure 4.33: Measures taken to deal with bullying in the mines](image)

4.4.7 Interventions for victims of bullying in the mines

As shown in table 4.7, (40.5%) of the victims of bullying mentioned that their mine management or supervisors offered them an opportunity to speak to them about their experiences, while 37.8% were offered counselling services. Furthermore, 21.6% were encouraged to report the incidents of the experienced bullying.

Table 4.7: Interventions for victims of verbal abuse

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did your employer or supervisor offer to provide you with?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to speak about it</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to report it</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.8  Participants’ level of satisfaction on handling incidents of bullying

About half (48.1%) of the participants were dissatisfied with the manner in which incidents of bullying were dealt with in their mines. This is followed by those who were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied as illustrated in figure 4.34.

Figure 4.34: Participants’ level of satisfaction on handling incidents of bullying
4.4.9 Participants’ reasons for non-reporting of incidents of bullying

The analysis showed that most participants (37.5%) stated that they did not know how to report, (32.5%) did not take care of the problem themselves, and 17.5% indicated that it was not important enough to report, as shown in figure 4.35. Other reasons provided by participants included perceptions that nothing will be done (5.0%) and fear of being taken as a troublemaker (2.5%).

Figure 4.35: Reasons for non-reporting of incidents of bullying
4.4.10 Prevalence of verbal abuse in the mines

The analysis showed that the prevalence of verbal abuse in the studied mines is high as 37.8% of the participants were verbally abused during the past 12 months. In addition, more than half (59.3%) mentioned that they were sometimes verbally abused, 15.3% indicated that they were subjected to verbal abuse at all times, while 25.4% experienced it once, as shown in figure 4.36. When asked who verbally abused them, 35.8% mentioned their co-workers followed by management/supervisors (28.3%) and team leaders (15.1%).

Figure 4.36: Prevalence of verbal abuse in the mines
4.5 Unwanted verbal conduct and harassment in the mines

With regard to participants who experienced or witnessed sexual harassment in the mines, 61.4% mentioned that they were touched inappropriately, 25.0% reported of unwanted kisses and 9.1% reported experiences of unwanted embraces (9.1%). Among those who reported experiences of unwanted verbal conduct at work, 43.5% pointed out that these related to inappropriate enquiries about their sexual lifestyle and 32.6% confirmed having been exposed to pornographic jokes, as shown in figure 4.37.

Figure 4.37: Unwanted verbal conduct and harassment in the mines
4.6 Unwanted non-verbal conduct in the mines

With regards to incidents of unwanted non-verbal conduct, 42.2% of the participants mentioned that they experienced being stared at, followed by (37.8%) who received unwelcomed gestures, (13.3%) being exposed to pornographic pictures and (6.7%) witnessing indecent exposure, as shown in figure 4.38.

![Nature of unwanted non-verbal conduct](image)

**Figure 4.38: Nature of unwanted non-verbal conduct**
4.6.1 **Participants’ reaction to unwanted non-verbal conduct**

When asked about their reactions to incidents of unwanted verbal conduct at work, 38.8% of the participants pointed out that they told the perpetrator to stop, 28.6% did not take any action and 14.3% told their colleagues about the incident, as shown in figure 4.39.

![Figure 4.39: Participants’ reaction to unwanted non-verbal conduct](image)
4.7 Prevalence of Quid Pro Quo sexual harassment in the mines

As shown in figure 4.40, more than half (54.3%) of the female participants reported having received an invitation to date with a promise of hiring/promotion, 28.6% were asked to have sexual relations with their supervisors upon threats for their current jobs and 17.1% were asked to have sexual relations with their supervisor without being threatened but promised a salary increase and/or promotion.

Figure 4.40: Prevalence of quid pro quo sexual harassment
4.7.1 Participants’ reaction to quid pro quo sexual harassment

When asked about their reaction to sexual harassment in the mines, 30.4% pointed out that they told the perpetrator to stop, and 28.3% of the respondents did not take any action, compared to 4.3 who reported the incident orally. Other reactions included telling a colleague (10.9%), friends/family (8.7%) about the incident, being transferred to another position upon request (6.5%) and seeking counselling services voluntarily (6.5%), as shown in figure 4.41.

Figure 4.41: Participants’ reactions to quid pro quo sexual harassment
4.7.2 Institutional responses to quid pro quo sexual harassment

As shown in figure 4.42, an overwhelming 80.4% of the participants stated that investigations of reported incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment were conducted mostly by mine management (36.0%), union representatives (36.0%), and associations (12.0%) as well as by mine community groups (8.0%) and by the police (8.0%).

![Figure 4.42: Institutional responses to quid pro quo sexual harassment](image-url)
4.7.3 Consequences for perpetrators of quid pro quo sexual harassment

Table 4.8 shows that about half (45.2%) of the participants reported that no punishments were given to perpetrators, consequently 43.9% mentioned that perpetrators had no consequences, compared to 22.9% who did not know the outcomes or kind of punishment for the perpetrators. Furthermore, 19.5% mentioned that perpetrators were issued with verbal warnings, 4.9% reported to the police and prosecuted. About half (43.5%) indicated that they were offered counselling by their supervisors or employers and 39.1% reported that they were offered an opportunity to speak about the incident (17.4%) and report it.

**Table 4.8: Consequences of perpetrators of quid pro quo sexual harassment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Was there any punishment for perpetrators of quid pro quo sexual harassment?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only minimal Penalties</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What form of punishment was given to perpetrators?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal warning issued</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care discontinued if patient</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported to police</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressor prosecuted</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did your employer or supervisor offer to provide you with the following services?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to speak about it</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to report it</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.7.4 Participants’ level of satisfaction on handling incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment

About three-quarters (63.2%) of the participants were dissatisfied with the manner in which the incident was handled, compared to a smaller proportion (26.3%) who were satisfied as shown in figure 4.43.

Figure 4.43: Participants’ level of satisfaction on handling incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment
4.7.5 Reasons for not reporting incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment

Reasons given by those who did not report or talked about the incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment included that it was not important enough (28.1%); another 28.1% mentioned that they took care of the problem themselves, and 18.8% did not know how to report. Other reasons reported by participants include being ashamed and perceptions that nothing would be done as shown in figure 4.44. Equal proportion of 3.1% reported fears of retaliation from the aggressor and of losing their jobs/promotion opportunities, as shown in figure 4.44.

![Figure 4.44: Reasons for not reporting incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment](image-url)
4.7.6 Management reactions to reporting incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment

As shown in figure 4.45, most of the participants (42.1%) who reported incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment, highlighted that they were ignored, 15.8% mentioned that other workers unkindly gossiped about them, and (15.8%) noted that they were denied opportunities for training just as (15.8%) were deprived of the opportunity for promotion. Finally, 10.5% of the participants stated astoundingly that they were blamed for the incidents.

Figure 4.45: Reactions to reporting incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment
4.7.7 Participants’ awareness of laws on prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment

As illustrated in figure 4.46, about two-thirds (66.5%) of the participants were aware of the relevant laws that are designed to protect workers from workplace violence and sexual harassment. Of these, 74.7% positively confirmed that employers had developed and implemented specific policies, which related to prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment in their mines, compared to a smaller proportion (25.3%) who reported the opposite.

![Figure 4.46: Participants’ awareness of laws on prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment](image_url)
4.8 Availability and effectiveness of security measures for prevention of violence and harassment in the mines

Participants were asked to describe the security measures that have been implemented in their mines to guard against violence and harassment. About a third (30.7%) mentioned the availability of guards, alarms, two-way radios, etc., 18.2% mentioned that training sessions, where anti-violence and anti-harassment videos were shown were established (18.2%) and 6.6% pointed that they reduced periods of lone work, as shown in table 4.9. Notably, 13.1% reported that there were no security measures in place to prevent workplace violence and harassment in their mines. When asked about the effectiveness of existing security measures, an overwhelming majority (90.5%) gave a positive response compared to 9.4% who mentioned the opposite, as shown in table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Availability and effectiveness of security measures in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What measures deal with workplace violence exists in your workplace?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Security measures (Guards, alarms, two way radios, etc.)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved surroundings (lighting, noise, heat)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient screening to record and be aware of</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of violence</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures, transport, medication</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed shifts</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special equipment or clothing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced period of working alone</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource development (career advancement, rewards for achievements)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To what extent do you think these measures have been helpful in your mine/work station?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do you think these measures have been helpful in your mine/work station?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little extent</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.8.1 Accessibility of workplace violence and harassment policies and procedures in the mines

Figure 4.47 shows that the majority of the participants (72.4%) confirmed that policies forbidding sexual harassment and zero tolerance to violence in the mines were accessible at their duty stations, compared to a small proportion who indicated the opposite (27.6%). Furthermore, 39% mentioned that procedures forbidding sexual harassment and promoting zero tolerance to violence were largely accessible at the mine administration (80.2%), and at their duty stations (69.6%), compared to 19.8% and 30.4% who, respectively, stated the opposite. Additionally, about half (45.5%) mentioned that complaints about sexual harassment were not taken seriously no matter who filed them with the mine administration and at the duty stations (56.6%).
### 4.8.2 Measures for reporting and investigation of complaints of sexual harassment

As shown in table 4.10, 71.8% of the participants confirmed the availability of a specific office or person at the administration or duty post with authority to deal with complaints of sexual harassment and provide feedback to victims. 69.4% of the participants also confirmed the availability of advice helplines that assist workers in reporting incidents of sexual harassment at the duty stations.

**Table 4.10: Measures for reporting and investigation of complaints of sexual harassment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>There is a specific office or person with authority at the administration or your duty post that receives and investigates complaints of sexual harassment and provides feedback to victims</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>167</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>There is an advice help line available at your section to report harassment complaints</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>180</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.8.3 Training on sexual harassment in the mines

With regards to all workers required to attend formal sexual harassment training in the mines, 58.1% of the participants confirmed the statement while 42.0% did not know that attending the training is a requirement at the mines as well as 47.9% of participants at duty stations not knowing. Equal proportions of 41.2% reported negatively about the availability of selected officers to attend formal sexual harassment training at the mines as well as duty stations, as shown in figure 4.48.

![Figure 4.48: Training on sexual harassment in the mines](image)
4.8.4  **Perceptions on effects of training on sexual harassment**

With regards to training on sexual harassment provided by the mines, the majority (83.1%) of the participants reported positively that it provides a good understanding of what words and actions are considered as sexual harassment practices and should not be tolerated. 61.4% mentioned that training taught workers that sexual harassment makes it difficult for victims and other workers to perform their duties efficiently, 78.7% mentioned that training gave workers useful tools for dealing with sexual harassment at work, 85.4% said that training made them feel that it is safe to complain about unwanted sexual attention, and 82.9% indicated that training provides information about policies, procedures, and consequences of sexual harassment, as displayed in figure 4.49.

![Figure 4.49: Perception on effects of training on sexual harassment](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think the incident could have been prevented?</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were you injured as a result of the incident?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes, did you require formal treatment for the injuries?</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.8.5 Perceptions on effectiveness of training and interventions on sexual harassment

When asked about the effectiveness of training received on sexual harassment, one third (34.3%) of the participants indicated that it was not effective at all, compared to 65.8% who thought it was effective as presented in table 4.11. Only half (50.0%) of the participants mentioned that their management or leadership made honest and reasonable efforts to prevent and control workplace violence and sexual harassment. Furthermore, 51.7% of the participants highlighted that senior managers were making the most effort, followed by their immediate supervisors and team leaders (37.6%).

Table 4.11: Perceptions on effectiveness of training on sexual harassment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In your opinion, is sexual harassment training at the mine effective?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all effective</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slightly effective</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very effective</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is your management or leadership making honest and reasonable efforts to prevent and control workplace violence and sexual harassment?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who do you think is making the most effort?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediate supervisor or team leader</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior leadership of the mine</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.9 Perceptions on modelling a respectful behaviour

Participants were asked to rate the overall behavior of the mine leadership’s efforts in demonstrating their respect to all mine workers. As displayed in table 4.12, 80.9% gave a positive response while 19.1% reported the opposite. Furthermore, 28.5% of the participants felt leaders at the duty stations consistently model respectful behavior to both male and female personnel.

Table 4.12: Perceptions on modelling respectful behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leaders consistently model respectful behaviour to both male and female workers in the mine</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>53.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>178</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leaders consistently model respectful behavior to both male and female personnel at your duty station</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>179</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.10 Perceptions on male supervisors’ handling of female issues

Over half of the participants (59.6%) reported that male supervisors in their work stations always ask for females to deal with female workers’ issues at work, in contrast to more than a third (40.4%) who mentioned that male supervisors or team leaders did the opposite.

Table 4.13: Perceptions on male supervisors’ handling of female issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do male supervisors or team leaders always ask female officers to &quot;deal with problems&quot; involving female subordinates in your mine?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small extent</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large extent</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>183</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.11 Perceptions on sexual harassment as a challenge for the mines

As displayed in table 4.14, about half (44.1%) of the participants reported that sexual harassment has been much of a problem at the mines where they worked over the past four years; and 62.4% regarded sexual harassment as much of a problem at all or most of the mines in South Africa over the past four years.

Table 4.14: Perceptions on sexual harassment as a challenge for the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your assessment of sexual harassment as a problem at the mine and where you worked over the past four years?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Much of a problem</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About the same</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less of a problem</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your assessment of sexual harassment as a problem at all or most of the mines in South Africa over the past four years?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Much of a problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About the same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less of a problem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.12 Associations of workplace violence, sexual harassment and other categorical variables

Further analysis was done to find variables that were associated with the outcome variables, such as experience of physical violence, psychological violence, workplace bullying, and sexual harassment in the workplace. It was found that the experience of physical violence was significantly associated with working whether it is shift or not (OR = 1.87), as shown in table 4.15. This indicates that those working in shifts were twice more likely to experience physical violence than those who do not work in shifts. Results also showed that there was a significant association between the place of incidence and perpetrator (p<0.05), time of incidence and place of incidence (p<0.05).

Furthermore, a significant association was revealed between living at home and commuting to work with quid pro sexual harassment (p=0.008) and types of verbal abuse were associated with the place of incidence (p=0.031), as displayed in table 4.15. Results indicated significant association between working in shift and experience of bullying (OR = 2.14) which means working in shift had 2.14 times more chances of being bullied compared to those were not working in shifts. Verbal abuse was significantly associated with working in shift or not. Those working in shifts were almost twice more likely to experience verbal abuse then those not working in shift (OR = 1.95).
Table 4.15: Associations of workplace violence, sexual harassment and other categorical variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Association between working in shifts and experience of physical violence</th>
<th>In the last 12 months, have you been physically attacked in one or more ways indicated above in your workplace?</th>
<th>(X^2) value</th>
<th>(P) value</th>
<th>Odds Ratio (OR) (95% Confidence Interval of OR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you work in shifts?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. Association between the perpetrator and place of incidence</th>
<th>Where did the incident take place?</th>
<th>(X^2) value</th>
<th>(P) value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inside health facility</td>
<td>Your own mine unit</td>
<td>Outside (on way to work or home)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who attacked you?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient/client/customer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker from another department</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management/supervisor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner/ex-partner</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team leader</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-worker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Member of the public</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C. Association between time of incident and place of incident</th>
<th>Where did the incident take place?</th>
<th>(X^2) value</th>
<th>(P) value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inside health facility</td>
<td>Your own mine unit</td>
<td>Outside (on way to work or home)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At what time did the incident occur?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700 - 1300</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1300 - 1800</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800 - 2400</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2400 - 700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't remember</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D. Association between working in shifts and experience of being bullied</th>
<th>In the last 12 months, have you been bullied in your workplace?</th>
<th>(X^2) value</th>
<th>(P) value</th>
<th>Odds Ratio (OR) (95% Confidence Interval of OR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you work in shifts?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you live at home and commute to work?</th>
<th>It was Quid Pro Quo sexual harassment:</th>
<th>(X^2) value</th>
<th>(P) value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asked to have sex with supervisor</td>
<td>Asked to have sex with supervisor upon threat</td>
<td>Invited to date with promise of hiring/promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### E. Association between Years have you worked in the mining industry was significantly associated with experience of unwanted verbal conduct ($X^2 = 14.25, p = 0.003$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many years have you worked in the mining industry?</th>
<th>It was unwanted non-verbal conduct:</th>
<th>$X^2$ value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 5 years</td>
<td>Stared at 18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exposed to pornographic pictures 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unwelcome gestures 7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indecent exposure 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six years or more</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.25</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In the last 12 months, have you been verbally abused in your workplace?</th>
<th>$X^2$ value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>Odds Ratio (OR) (95% Confidence Interval of OR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>1.95 (1.05; 3.62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where did the incident take place?</th>
<th>Invited on a date on the job 2</th>
<th>Exposed to pornographic jokes 0</th>
<th>Inappropriate enquiries about a person's sex life 0</th>
<th>$X^2$ value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inside health facility</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13.92</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your own mine unit</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside (on way to work or home)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other location</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.0 QUALITATIVE RESULTS

#### 5.1 Data analysis and findings

For the qualitative component of the study, each of the in-depth interviews (IDIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) transcripts were analysed by means of thematic content analysis in order to identify significant statements. The coding of all transcripts was done using the NVivo version 9 software.

#### 5.2 Results

##### 5.2.1 Characteristics of the qualitative sample

Sixty (66) women participated in five focus group discussions (FGDs). The mean age of the women was 35 years and their age ranged from 21 to 49 years old. Out of 66 women, 28 were married, 37 were single and one (1) participant did not give her age. Some women had various qualifications and others had exited school during various grades in secondary schools. The educational levels showed that the lowest level was grade six (6). Others had FET N-level qualifications, Certificate courses, Diplomas, Bachelor of Technology and university degrees. The data shows that 25 women were skilled workers while 41 were
unskilled workers. Women generally worked day shift (duty) with only seven of them working night shift.

Twelve IDIs were conducted with male mine workers. Out of the twelve IDIs, two were with male supervisors and nine with underground personnel. One small group discussion with three men was also conducted. Nine (9) female participants were involved in FGDs. Pseudonyms were used in the writing of the report to maintain anonymity and the confidentiality of the individual participants' responses. Thirteen (13) men participated in the in-depth interviews. Three (3) of the interviewed men were mining supervisors and the rest were underground mine workers. The age range of the men was 18 to 57 years of age. The male interviewees' work experience in the mining industry ranged from 2 to 38 years.

5.2.2 Qualitative themes on participants’ experiences and perceptions

Findings on experiences and perceptions of both men and women working in the mining industry are reported in table 5.1 in accordance with the following ten (10) themes that emerged from the analysed data:

Table 5.1: Qualitative themes on participants’ experiences and perceptions of safety and security in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Context of women working in mining</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Male perceptions on working with women in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Women’s views about working with men in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Women adapting to the mining environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Forms of workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mine workers’ views about violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Experiences of violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Perceived reasons for violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Reporting incidents violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Perceptions on available interventions for dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.2.1 Theme 1: Context of women working in mining

This theme showed that women who participated in the qualitative survey worked day shifts but there are some who work nights shift. Women worked in various areas of the mining environment including underground, the ground area, in laboratories and in offices. The context of working in the mines describes the working conditions that women work under and their interactions with their male counterparts. Analysed data showed that working underground involves enduring warm to hot, wet and dusty environments, and exposure to consistent noise from blasting. Furthermore, there are different workstations and laboratories at the refineries and most of the work is done on the surface.
A 23-year-old male participant at a refinery painted a picture of the work environment as follows:

“… We also have a woman and the temperature is between 45-50 degrees Celsius, so it's hectic and you off load about 100-110 tons in that temperature and the shovel that's used is 5-10 kg by itself and the tray itself is 2.5 kg and its content so you find that it's 5 kg so it's 7.5 kg or 5 kg at a 45-50 degrees fire, when you approach that thing it's very hot and you just have to approach it full face which does not control that fire because it's just a plastic …”

The analysis showed that there are male behaviors that are not conducive for work that men portray towards the women. Some men tend to regard women as sexual partners rather than colleagues as captured in the following quotation from a 50-years-old male production team leader:

“… I think it's a good welcoming more than even men because like I said some of them they welcome them as co-workers and some as their future wives, you understand … Some are welcomed as their own sort of entertainment … So, they've got that soft welcome unlike other men …”

5.2.2.2 Theme 2: Male perceptions on working with women in the mines

For this theme, the analysis showed that male mine workers felt that mining work is not suitable for women because of the hard manual labour involved. Other men felt that women are not prepared to work hard and hence when they work with them they are overworked. Some men feel empathetic while others reported being irritated by women in their work stations. The male participants' views on working with women are captured in the following quotations and excerpts:

- A 50-year-old male production team leader commented:

  “… Where I am working females are suffering. They are because this work is very hard even for us. The stubbing is very difficult and heavy and is not suitable for females. They are just trying because they cannot work like we do. The space is as short as a table, so it is not easy for them. You kneel for about 8 hours every day …”

- A 26-year-old male general worker who felt that underground work is not suitable for the women said:

  “… The violence is happening because they are working at places that are very difficult even for us males, they must work as unskilled labourers like loading the ‘stuff’ and loading production with a shovel. I have realised that they are not suitable for this kind of job … “
“… Sometimes we just let it go because it will be as if we have something against females you see? We are just persevering as males even if it’s painful. We are oppressed and obliged to help them. We are too oppressed …”

5.2.2.3 Theme 3: Women’s views about working with men in the mines

The analysis under this theme showed that some women felt that they are supposed to respect men as the head of the family even at the workplace. Some women reported that some men were kind to them, while other women felt that there is some intolerance of women among the male mine workers. Some of the responses on this theme from a 36-year-old female production foreman stated:

“… Firstly I will say on my part of that concern the only key that I learned working with man is like to, first of all to respect despite that I am a leader, I am more superior than them, doesn’t mean that I must not disrespect them. They are like head of families that’s the first thing not like I am not using 50/50 equality to them. They are like men and I respect them and I know that they are somebody’s husband so they need that respect especially men when you start disrespecting men, I think it’s an irritating part that I don’t like and I know my people, you must know your people very well. I know that there are different people from different backgrounds and I try to understand them, and I think it’s working wonderful …”

- A 35-years-old process manager who worked for 6 years in the mine commented:

“… You know the attitudes of males in the mine environment, I think this will take a long time for men to accept or tolerate females in the mining environment, because most of the time we can say; if I can give you an example in the boardroom men are the only ones who like to talk alone they don’t want us to say our own opinion …”

- A 26-years-old female operator remarked:

“… To me it is a great experience but I feel isolated and I still feel discriminated especially because men are still not valuing women underground, they don’t accept women in the mine …”

- A 41-years-old loco operator described:

“… It is harder for women at the mines because of stigmas and some men refuse to work with women because of old superstitions …”

- A 33-years-old general worker stated:

“… We are still being undermined. We have to constantly prove ourselves. We are always reminded that this is a 50/50 country so we must show our 50% so that the men can show theirs. And whenever we need help they remind us that this is 50/50.
So we always have to prove ourselves that we are tough and that we can do the job. And they remind us of that whenever we need help ...”

5.2.2.4 Theme 4: Women adapting to the mining environment

An analysis for this theme showed that women in mining felt pessimistic about being accepted in the male dominated environment; hence they felt that they should adapt and behave like men in the mines in order to adapt. They also resorted to matching their male counterparts by using vulgar language, bullying and fighting back. Being polite and compliant was a tactic used by some women to gain acceptance and support from the male mine workers. Women in this study reported that they adapted to their situation and had to become tough, sometimes vicious, and vengeful to the acts of sexual harassment in the mines.

- A 39-year-old Engineering Project Administrator said:

“... One reason that makes us to adapt is because we did not come here as women but we came as workers. So that makes us to be able to pass a group of men with a smile and no fear. What can cause conflict between us and men is mostly from our approach as women, poor communication. If you respect each other and confront issues politely, it makes life easy. Another thing if you consider yourself to be a worker not a woman, especially when they are lifting something like this table you should also try to lift so that a man can see that you are trying even though you don’t have much energy as him ...”

Some described their ways of behaving in the mines as “being like men” as noted in a 32-year-old Loco operator’s statement:

“... You become like them, you act like them ... If they say voetsek, you say it back that is how you really adapt here ...”

Statements that formed a general consensus, among focus group discussion participants, on how women adapted in the mining environment are captured below:

“... If a man gives in 100%, you have to give in 120% to prove yourself, so it’s quiet difficult in our field of work ... yes, if they are walking and dragging their feet, you can’t do that as a woman, you need to be upright ...”

5.2.2.5 Theme 5: Forms of workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines

The analysis for this theme revealed contrasting reports concerning violence between men and women. What women considered as violent and sexual harassment was disputed by men as normal behavior. Women reported various forms of violence including physical violence, verbal abuse, bullying, unwanted physical contact, unwanted verbal conduct, unwanted non-verbal behaviour, Quid pro quo harassment (sexual coercion) and sexual favouritisms. Women reported that when some supervisors and managers were denied sexual favours for promotion or task shifts by women, they then resorted to allocating them heavy duties and denied them promotion.
A 29-year-old single woman who worked in a mine for 3 years as a Vent Assistant said the following:

“… Basically it is not about confidence but it is the whole issue of how they see you as a woman because you can even hear that they even forget that you are a woman but in this case they go to a point of teasing you that you going to fall pregnant again …”

A 39-year-old woman who was a general worker with four years’ experience remarked:

“… They demand sexual favours. This is when men make you work very hard so that you can ask for their help. They say they will only help you if you help them sexually …”

A 32-year-old general worker with 5 years working experience said:

“… Like in the cash (lift), one lady was pushed between two men. Then she felt something hard behind her but she couldn’t turn because they were packed …”

On the contrary, men did not acknowledge being involved in or observing any acts of violence or sexual harassment in the mines. They reported being in a predicament of interacting with women in mining regarding work activities since most of their actions were perceived by women as violent or harassing. This sense of predicament also existed among male supervisors. Men felt that no matter how they expressed their dissatisfaction about non-performance, the women would feel violated and harassed.

Findings show that when equal pay-equal work principle is applied women interpreted it as punitive measures used to make them realise that they are not cut for a job in the mines. Exchanging and demanding sexual favours with regard to work allocation was also presented as a main problem but the reasoning behind the acts of sexual favour was contrasting between men and women participants.

Men’s perspectives on the issue of sexual favours were that women consented and sometimes offered sexual favours in order that they get lighter jobs and promotion.

Men also reported that some women reported false sexual harassment when a supervisor did not conform to their requests for light duties. Both men and women had a consensus that there were some instances where there were consensual sexual relationships between men and women and when the relationships got sour the women then reported it as sexual harassment.

5.2.2.6 Theme 6: Mine workers’ views about violence and sexual harassment in the mines

The analysis for this theme showed that both men and women in mining have the same understanding of what constitutes violence and harassment. They described it as being touched in a manner that is uncomfortable, calling each other names and using vulgar
language. In some instances both women and men felt that the use of vulgar language is normal in the mining industry and hence all people have to “get used to.” Most women reported some acts of harassment that have sexual connotations as intolerable. Women’s views were that men understood their acts as perpetrators of sexual harassment but chose to be ignorant. Women also reported that they know the implications/consequences of reporting sexual harassment and felt sorry for men, thus, in most cases they opted not report the incidents.

- A 37-year-old female construction assistant stated:

  “… According to me, I think these men harass us knowingly that whatever they do is wrong and they are aware of the consequences – but we keep feeling pity for them, saying I don’t want him to be dismissed. Eventually all women working in the mines will be harassed and just settle between them and the man. It will never stop. So, we must take a firm decision to stop this and maybe men will learn and understand the seriousness of the situation …”

Predominant male mineworkers understanding of sexual harassment was that it was “forced” and/or non-consensual sex, hence any other acts of touching, patting, whistling, and using inappropriate language were not regarded as sexual harassment. Men also shifted the acts of sexual harassment towards women since they reported that some women give men the impression of being attractive so that men can propose to have relationships with them.

5.2.2.7 Theme 7: Experiences of violence and sexual harassment in the mines

The analysis for this theme revealed that violence; general harassment in the form of bullying and use of vulgar language; and sexual harassment are a common occurrence in the mines. Women reported having experienced and/or observed other women experiencing sexual harassment at the workplace. Forms of violence experienced by women included racial discrimination, disrespect, sexual violence, rape, murder and psychological violence. Other experiences expressed by women were prejudice, bitterness and negative attitudes from the male mine workers, as reported by some participants below.

- A 40-year-old female general worker with two years working experience in the stope timber commented:

  “… Some men have got anger and they get disturbed when they come to work, telling us they left their wives at home. One day it was raining and they were shoving and pushing. Somebody tried to ask them to stop pushing us as women but one of them said “I left my wife at home”. They continued pushing until one woman fell down and she was rescued by other men who barricaded the place …”

- A 35-year-old female SHEQ advisor shared her experience and commented:

  “… It’s just to prove a point that as a woman I’m capable of doing exactly what you can do, because they overlook you. You can even see someone who’s very far behind you, you find that he sees himself up there and looks down upon you just because you are a woman. And where they talk overall it’s like women can’t think …”
A 50-year-old male production team leader remarked:

“… You know most of them see and perceive males as animals. They do not like males. The way males behave is abusive to females, verbally. Most males lack respect. I can see that at work. It happens sometimes when males see a female coming towards them; they light and shine her with a lamp. You can see that they are pointing straight at her bums and hips and that is harassment to a woman. Their light points straight at the back and front of a female …”

5.2.2.8 Theme 8: Perceived reasons for violence and sexual harassment in the mines

This theme showed that women’s perceived reasons for the occurrence of incidents of sexual harassment in the mines are that men are generally and naturally violent. They also thought men internalise problems and ultimately have outbursts.

A 33-year-old female general worker with 4 years of work experience reported:

“… It has to do with the frustration. The person is bottling up then you will just be a victim of circumstances because he just snaps at you and release all the anger at an innocent person, so I think it has to do with the history of a person …”

Some women also reported that men are sometimes provoked and tempted by women to commit acts of sexual harassment. The majority of the women felt that their work clothes, which are not designed for the woman’s shape, could also be a contributory factor to sexual harassment.

Another factor raised by women was that the appearance of women regarding their shape, posture, and body language provokes men to commit sexual harassment acts.

A 25 year old plant operator’s remarks outline this factor:

“… I think the culture as well, because we used to wear a skirt as blacks and a skirt is not as revealing as a trouser, so now when you have to come in this mining environment where there’s only one type of PPE and we are built in different ways we’ve got hips, breast and thighs, etc. so when you start wearing the trousers – they are too revealing as it was designed for men and not for us …”

Male participants viewed women as vulnerable and hence they a predisposed to harassment.
- A 50-year-old male supervisor stated:

“… Some women are targeted because they are too soft and they take the males as their brothers, they believe we are together and they relax too much, and the males take advantage of that. I think females should be taught on how to handle themselves when they are around males … It is because females lack training of sexual harassment before they are hired …”

- A 23-year-old male general worker reported that women only prefer light duties:

“… When we are working together with women doing a heavy duty, females say they cannot do that kind of a job, they say it’s meant to be done by males. That is what is causing violence and harassment here; females don’t want heavy jobs …”

5.2.2.9 Theme 9: Reporting of incidents violence and sexual harassment in the mines

The analysis of data for this theme showed that the general perception among participants is that they do not report the incidents of workplace violence and sexual harassment, simply because of fear of not being believed, being humiliated by those that might know about the incident and lack of confidentiality among supervisors about issues around sexual harassment. Some women participants also mentioned that they did not report because they are sometimes victimised and humiliated further by the perpetrators and other employees.

Male supervisors, however, reported that victims of sexual harassment are not supported in the mines, but are usually encouraged to solve the issue with the perpetrator who usually settles the matter by paying money to the victim to keep her silent. Sometimes the Union gets involved in a matter and also encourages the perpetrator to pay a settlement so that he does not lose his job.

The quotations below illustrate the participants’ responses about reporting experiences of violence and sexual harassment in the mines:

- A 35-years-old female process manager noted that:

“… You know we think this must come to an end especially at the shaft levels underground…it’s hurting and it’s hectic because majority of women are just silent about it because they afraid they will lose their jobs and they are the bread winners of their families …”

- A 28-years-old female general worker pointed out that:

“… I think lots of woman are experiencing sexual harassment in the mines, it’s just that some of them don’t want to speak out as they are afraid of victimisation …” but some say they don’t know how to report …”
A 37 years old Loco operator stated that:

“... Uhmm ... the thing is most people that don't tell about it. Most have seen what happens to those people that did tell for example my HR. She's one of those ladies whereby there is no confidentiality between the parties involved, so I feel like the whole mine will know about it. Actually the people tend to know about it, how so and you are still going to work with that person that you reported and that is scary ...”

A 35-year-old female belt attendant remarked:

“... At an individual level is a bit tough. To be fair and honest in mining, to report something is a big step to take and a risky one too especially because as a lady you are an easy target and most of those who report are ill-treated afterwards. So, I think most of the ladies tend to keep quiet about the harassment, so they try to solve it on their own and it becomes worse ...”

A 57-year-old male shaft supervisor stated:

“... I think these women start by reporting and as time goes by, they end up accepting to be harassed. Maybe they are telling themselves that here in the mine is the end, and if they keep on reporting such incidents, they can end up jobless ...”

5.2.2.10 Theme 10: Perceptions on available interventions for dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines

Under this theme, participants were asked about the availability to employees of programs that explain reporting procedures for sexual harassment and general information materials as well as policies on violence and sexual harassment in the mines. The skilled participants who use computers at the mines reported that the policies that are available are only in the computer system and you have to know where to find it; hence they are not readily and freely accessible. A general consensus among unskilled workers showed that they did not know of any policies or programs. Participants also reported that most incidents and cases of sexual harassment are attended to once they have occurred and usually the mining management does not get involved in resolving the problems.

Quotations described in table 5.2 illustrate the status quo of programs and policies on dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines:
Table 5.2: Perceptions on available interventions for dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“… You have to be in trouble and go to HR. HR will take out the necessary steps. I cannot even tell you what the policies are, honesty I don’t know…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… You know it’s there but you don’t even know where to start, you know its somewhere…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… I only read about it once in the computer. One of my operators opened it for me…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… Another thing is that the mine leaves the case to you, unlike them making a decision. You open a case, when you get to the hearing they then give you time to talk amongst each other. They leave the settlement amongst the two of you. So, that’s why most cases are not solved…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… Not that I know much but we do have a line where we report. That is the only thing I know…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… You must settle the case with the offender to avoid him from being fired. You report to the union and the very same unions will tell you to think for his kids, if he is going lose his job…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… The very same person you have a case against, you have to settle the matter with him and accept his apology, or some women charge them money of approx. R10 000…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… They are, classified that’s much classified information I don’t know why but there are lot of info to backup us as woman in the mining industry. I don’t know why maybe they don’t see it important…”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“… I never saw any policy. What I see is that only one of employment equity, actually when you can go deeper in the mines you will experience that what they preach they don’t practice…”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.3 Participants’ suggestions for preventing and dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines

Under this theme participants were asked to suggest recommendations on procedures and programs for prevention and dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines. They mentioned various suggestions as described in table 5.3:
Table 5.3: Suggestions by participants for prevention and dealing with violence and sexual harassment in the mines

- Availability of surveillance cameras in hidden areas underground is vital to reduce incidents of violence and sexual harassment in the mines.
- Mine management should stop shifting the resolution of sexual harassment cases to unions and become involved in finding resolutions.
- Visibility and accessibility of sexual harassment policies to all employees is essential since the computerised documents are not accessible to all the employees.
- Translation of information on violence and sexual harassment materials for access to the low literacy mine employees.
- Development of mining community dialogues with men and women in addressing violence and sexual harassment at the work place.
- Availability of counselling and debriefing programs for women who experience violence and sexual harassment in the mines is crucial.
- Availability of women support groups in the mines to enable women to speak up freely about their experiences of violence and sexual harassment in the mines.
- Access to information on where to go when one is harassed.
- Hosting workshops, awareness training and forums to include male mine workers to allow open discussion about their expectations of the role of women in mining and vice versa. This could be done during safety meetings as well.
- On-going training of all mine workers about issues of violence and sexual harassment in the mines and policies to be clearly visible and easily accessible to all, (e.g. they can be displayed on notice boards and changing rooms, etc.).
- Ensure and encourage transparency, the open door policy and maintaining confidentiality for line managers to enable reporting of incidents of violence and sexual harassment in the mines.

5.3 Discussion and conclusions

It appears that employing women in the mine is a challenge of the mindset that views mining as an environment suitable for men only due to its labor intensiveness. The negative attitudes, harassment and discrimination experienced by women in mining are indeed barriers to women's effective integration in the sector. Evidently, men seem to feel women are weaker in achieving results. However, it should be considered that every employee started with this slow process and therefore should give a female employee the chance to also develop in the sector given that they also contribute towards productivity.

The premise that women entering the mining industry have an impact on the production process should be highly conceded. For an example, women are more safety conscious and careful with machinery so less breakage problems and accidents will occur. Conversely, men will try and risk getting injured. This could be explained by the notion that macho environment creates safety hazards because men will not admit to being afraid and therefore are less cautious (Benya 2009). Literature has revealed that men are consistently seen to take more risks at the workplace than women, resulting in more men sustaining injuries and suffering fatalities (Laplong 2012). Thus, having more women in mining will have a positive effect on health and safety practices. For an example, it will positively influence the re-design of
equipment and maintenance thereof taking into cognisance the relationship between physiological strain experienced by male and female mineworkers and physical work requirements during underground mining activities (SIM 11 09 05).

Perceptions exist that women may distract men if they work side by side with them. Some perceptions are that a woman's place is in the home, not in the mine, and that the largely migrant workforce living in single sex accommodation could be a deterrent to women in the mines (Ramhod, 2001). Undoubtedly, the fact that women are employable in the mining environment also warrants a strong commitment to changing the workplace culture of male chauvinism and dominance in the mining industry. Workplace culture places a significant amount of pressure on female employees who feel they must prove themselves by working harder than their male counterparts as reported by participants in this study. Literature has shown that it is often the case that there is less tolerance for women who perform poorly, and male supervisors feel that they can only defend a female employee when she is a high performer at work (Steffgen 2008). Women are often under cultural pressure to perform responsibilities both at home and workplace thus creating a challenge for their career advancement in the mining industry.

In addition, it is evident that the majority of the mining employees do not know the procedures on reporting sexual harassment. There is also no access to documents and policies for sexual harassment in their work stations. Lack of support and resolution of cases of sexual harassment is also a factor for not reporting.

One can conclude that there is a lack of formalised structure, awareness, education and guidelines for violence, abuse and sexual harassment in the mines and this renders the workers ignorant of what entails violence, abuse and sexual harassment. One can further conclude that the mining culture of male dominance and social acceptability (within the mine context) of gender insensitive in a work environment lead men in mining into not acknowledging their acts of violence and sexual harassment towards women.

6.0 DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

6.1 Participants’ socio-demographic data

Historically the mining industry has attracted a workforce made up of mainly men (Badenhorst 2009; Zungu 2012). This trend has, however, changed in recent years as evidenced by a sturdy flow of women into the industry which came about as a consequence of a regulated process afforded mainly by the Broad Based Socio-Economic Empowerment Charter for the South African Mining Industry (Notice 1639 of 2004).

The current study’s findings showed that the majority of the participants were females compared to males. These participants were purposively sampled in order to investigate their experiences of workplace violence and sexual harassment and how these challenges impact on women’s safety and security in the mines. Most of the female participants (76.7%) were less than 40 years and over a quarter had post matric qualifications, indicating that more young women are entering the mining sector, given the current challenge to attract and retain them in the sector (Ranchod 2001). One of the milestones of the last two decades is that the mining industry is now one of the career choices available to women. The industry has had
more than a decade to assess the employment patterns regarding the employment of women. If the uptake at tertiary institutions is anything to go by, then more women are still to make inroads into the mining industry. The latter is consistent with the notion that “a woman’s place is in the mines” as recognised by the US department of labour.

In the present study, it was found that 69.2% of female participants had five or less years of working experience in the mines. According to the Department of Mineral Resources the number of women in the mining industry has grown to just above 10% across all levels (Annual Report 2013/14). By international standards, South Africa is doing comparatively well in as far as the appointment of women to board level positions in the mining industry is concerned (Matthews, 2014). Where there seems to be a shortage though, is with regard to the skilled labour force.

Furthermore, Benya (2009) emphasised that better coping strategies are needed to attract and retain more women in mining, including mapping their career paths, which will significantly contribute to their empowerment with the appropriate skills and qualifications (Fielden et al 2001). This attraction and skills empowerment will result in the reduction of the unemployment rate in the country and subsequently yield poverty alleviation benefits. Literature has also distinctly accentuated the benefits of employing more women in male-dominated sectors such as mining, owing to various factors such as that the cleaner working environment, women take orders readily, there are less fights (between men), there is always someone different to talk to, or to discuss family problems with (Eveline & Booth 2002). Furthermore, working women are viewed as reliable workers who can be counted upon.

More than two-thirds (72.4%) of the participants were working underground as general workers (75.0%) and involved in shift work between 6 pm and 7 am (40.6%). Arguably, the working hours and shift work in the mines offers very little consideration for women workers (Hermanus 2007), in view of other family roles, responsibilities and societal expectations associated with a female gender. Consequently, women encounter personal challenges relating to maintaining a good work-home life balance as a result of having to work long hours while still having to do household chores (Calitz 2004). However that cannot be used to discriminate their employment in the industry, considering that Section 22 of the Constitution of South Africa of 1996 affords everyone the right to make their own decisions concerning their trade, occupation or profession freely; however, the practice of a trade, occupation or profession may be regulated by law. This is further enforced by Section 23 (1), which declares that everyone has the right to fair labour practices in the workplace.

Unequal remuneration between women and men doing the same work is a common challenge and another form of discrimination within workplaces. It was not surprising to note that in the present study 77.8% of the participants indicated that mine workers do not receive equal pay for the same job level/category, and 41.3% reported that some female workers were receiving more pay than others. The construction industry is a case in point. It is known that women earned lower wages than men and this was not viewed as a barrier to women entering this working environment (Fielden, Davidson, Gale & Davey 2001). Furthermore, remuneration disparities between men and women were also evident in the workforce of the United States, as revealed by Alkadry and Tower (2005).
6.2 Workplace violence

6.2.1 Physical violence in the mines

Violence in the workplace is an occupational health and safety problem that is more prominent in hostile workplaces such as mining and construction sites. The current study’s findings indicated that more than a fifth (22.9%) of the participants (i.e. more males than females) were physically attacked in one or more ways in the mines. Similarly, a local study revealed that South Africa’s rate of violent events for men of 113 per 100,000 is 8 times the global average of 8.2 per 100,000 (Jewkes et al 2009). In addition, Steffgan (2008) confirmed that while men, on average, are more affected by physical violence often with serious injuries, women are more often victims of sexual violence and rape.

Significantly, the findings of the current study confirm those from a European study which reported that more males (16%) experienced violent incidents at work compared to women (10%) (Hoel et al 2001). Furthermore, findings from other studies showed that workplace violence is a reality, for example, a local study reported that 61.9% of all health care workers in South Africa experienced at least one incident of physical or psychological workplace violence (Steinman, 2003), while a Canadian study indicated that 80% of teachers reported to have experienced some form of physical violence in their careers (Wilson et al 2011). Such findings clearly suggest that physical violence at work should be recognized as a particularly prevalent problem. Arguably, literature also indicated that the higher percentages of workplace violence can be attributed to the working environment, where workplaces have much higher percentages of working directly with the public and working with unstable or violent persons (US Department of Labor, US Bureau of Labor Statistics 2005).

Empirical evidence has linked workplace violence with various factors. These include organisational factors such the structure of the organisation (that is, the degree of complexity), where bureaucratisation or centralisation of the social structure can provoke the manifestation of violence in the organisational climate or culture (Tobin 2001 cited in Steffgen 2008). Other societal factors include the potential role played by the economic climate and multicultural situations (Elliot & Jarrett 1994 cited in Steffgen 2008).

6.2.1.1 Perpetrators of physical violence in the mines

Current findings revealed that perpetrators of physical violence were mostly male co-workers (22.9%) followed by team leaders (18.8%) and members of the public (16.7%). Evidence form literature revealed that, with regard to physical violence, common characteristics of the perpetrator include being young and male, having a history of violent behaviour; having a troubled childhood; suffering from mental illness; having access to weapons; and the consumption of alcohol and drugs. In their study of transport workers, Douglas and Martiko (2001) found that individual differences such as trait anger, attitudes towards revenge, self-control, negative affectivity and previous exposure to aggressive culture were predictors of workplace aggression. There is consistent evidence in research which shows that males tend to be more violent than females and that males perpetrate more workplace aggression than females (Baron et al 1999; Dupre & Barling 2006; Haines et al 2006 cited Barling et al 2009).
In their study, Jewkes et al (2013) found that masculine beliefs on sexual entitlement and male dominance over women were predictors of non-partner rape by male perpetrators. In Africa, women are a socially disadvantaged group on account of dominant male social beliefs and are thus at greater risk of exposure to sexual harassment at work.

Some studies have also indicated that over 40% of men interviewed confirmed having been previously physically violent to a partner and 28% of them also reported having perpetrated incidents of sexual violence (Dunkle et al 2004); while between 40-50% of women interviewed reported having been victims of violence (Jewkes et al 2006).

6.2.1.2 Prevention of physical violence in the mines

With regards to prevention of physical violence in the mines, current findings indicated that the majority of the participants (76.9% male, 75% female) felt that the incident could have been prevented, and 17.1% of the females were injured from the incident. Similar findings were reported from a local study conducted among health care workers, whereby 73.6% workers reported to have been physically attacked at work, of which 70.3% pointed out that such incidents could have been prevented (Steinman 2003).

Reporting systems are an integral part of violence prevention policies. It is also a formal requirement in the case of absence from work due to incidents of workplace violence. The issue of reporting incidents of threats and/or physical violence is relevant when comparing different areas of human service work. Some researchers have found that more frequent exposure to violence was related to more reporting (Sharipova et al 2008). Furthermore, they concluded that reporting of such incidents was dependent on the degree of self-rated seriousness of the incident (Sharipova et al 2008). If employees regard reporting as futile, because their supervisor does not take the reports seriously, then this could explain why employees do not report even serious incidents.

6.2.2 Psychological violence

6.2.2.1 Verbal abuse in the mines

Verbal abuse is a serious issue in the workplace due to its high occurrence and multiple implications. This form of violence can refer to “the use of words that are personally insulting such as generally abusive spoken obscenities and foul language, or indicating a lack of respect for the dignity and worth of an individual” (Aytac et al 2011). It is also the most common form of psychological violence observed (Hills & Joyce 2013; Piquero, Piquero, Craig & Clipper 2013).

Verbal violence in the workplace has significant organisational and health implications because of its frequent occurrence. From an organisational perspective, verbal violence may create a hostile work climate and decrease job satisfaction, which can directly cause absenteeism, turnover, and long-term negative effects (Tepper 2000; EFILWC 2010; Cook et al 2001). Sofield and Salmond (2003) reported on turnover that was directly related to factors associated with verbal violence, in their citation of 16% to 24% of employees who had quit their job as a result of subjection thereto. It was also reported that verbal violence can
indirectly cause loss of productivity and increase work load and errors (Cox 1987; Sofield & Salmond 2003).

Findings on the current study showed that a majority of the participants were verbally abused during the past 12 months. It was also found out that verbal abuse was considered to be habitual incidents in the mines. Consequently, almost half of the participants reported experiencing psychological symptoms following incidents of verbal abuse. Similarly, findings from a review study reported verbal abuse rates of between 10.8% and 92.6% among workers, with a majority of studies showing rates of 57.5% or higher (Hills & Joyce 2013). In a study conducted among Turkish workers from different sectors to assess their experiences of workplace violence over a 12 month period, it was reported that 38.5% of the workers were victims of verbal abuse, more specifically women (71.3%) compared to men (28.7%) (Aytac et al 2011).

However, the prevalence of verbal abuse differs in accordance with gender and profession, as shown by findings from another review study conducted in the healthcare sector, which showed that men were statistically more at risk from verbal violence than women (Steinmann, 2003). Conversely, another study revealed that women were statistically more often victims of verbal abuse in multiple occupational sectors (Aytac et al 2011). Other studies have also reported a lack of significant statistical relation between verbal violence and victims’ sexual harassment (Guay et al 2014).

6.2.2.1.1 Reporting of verbal abuse in the mines

The common challenge encountered when studying workplace violence is underreporting. The current study’s findings showed that most of the participants did not know the reporting structures for incidents of verbal abuse, hence it was unreported. Some researchers have posited that underreporting of workplace violence is due to an employee’s belief that a violent attack on them is their own fault; or occurred because they were not competent (Milczarek 2010). Underreporting could also be explained, as noted in other studies by the absence of strategies designed to resolve conflicts, particularly among individuals who occupy a lower level in the hierarchy of an enterprise and have a low self-image (Aquino 2000; & Keashley 2003 as cited in Steffgen 2008.). Furthermore, a Korean study speculated that workplace violence is lower in Korea than in western nations because of the Korean culture that traditionally values the group rather than the individual and attaches importance to patience and concession (Lee et al 2014).

6.2.2.2 Workplace bullying

Many researchers agree that bullying is a frequent occurrence in workplaces (Hoel 2001; Pietersen 2007; Cunniff & Mostert 2012), and is experienced by both men and women workers alike. In this study more than a third of the participants experienced bullying in the mines. This finding is similar to those from another study conducted in mines in South Africa which revealed that more than a quarter of the participants reported that they had experienced workplace bullying (Visagie et al 2012). A more recent study conducted across six different industries, namely financial, mining, government, manufacturing, academia, and call centres in South Africa found that 31.1% of a sample of 13911 participants had experienced workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert 2012). However, findings from a recent
study suggested that a significantly higher proportion of women are being bullied at work compared to men (Salin & Hoel 2013). In their study on workplace bullying, Cassitto et al (2003) indicate that the nature of work organisation can increase or inhibit bullying behaviours in the workplace. For example, chronic understaffing, fatigue and feeling that it is impossible to change things in the organisation and the resulting tension could be vented on colleagues, family and friends. In addition, badly defined tasks or disorganised work without established limits of behaviour allow superiors and some co-workers to take advantage of the situation and intimidate or dominate over others.

6.2.2.2.1 Perpetrators of bullying in the mines

This study found out that the majority of the participants were mostly bullied in the mines, and the perpetrators, in order of priority, included their management/supervisors, as well as co-workers. Similarly, Cobb (2012) concluded that most perpetrators of bullying were managers, of which 62% were males and 58% of the targets were found to be women. However, some researchers have argued that gender-related experiences of workplace bullying could be country specific (Niedhammer, David & Degioanni 2007). For an example, a Spanish study found that women experienced considerably more bullying than men (Moreno-Jimenez et al 2008); likewise, a recent study reported that a significantly higher proportion of women are being bullied at the workplace compared to men (Salin 2013). In South Africa, perpetrators of workplace bullying generally seem to be supervisors who mostly engage in verbal or direct tactics towards their subordinates who are victims.

Furthermore, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) reported that 20.5% employees often experience direct bullying in South African workplaces and supervisors were more often the perpetrators of workplace bullying. This finding was further explained by the fact bullies abuse professional or personal powers that they have over their victims and such power imbalances predispose their incumbents to victimisation and bullying (Cobb 2012; Cunniff & Mostert 2012). In addition, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) reported significantly higher levels of workplace bullying among men than women did, more direct and indirect bullying from supervisors, and even more direct bullying by colleagues.

6.3 Sexual harassment in the mines

Sexual harassment against women in the workplace has long been documented as a pervasive problem (Cantisano, Dominguez & Depolo 2008; Welsh 2000). Findings from the current study indicated that 16.79% of the female participants confirmed to have experienced sexual harassment in the mines. Similar findings were reported from a local study conducted among women as 50% reported having been subjected to some form of sexual harassment and 70% of the victims were co-workers and in all reported cases the victim was female while in the majority of cases the perpetrator occupied a position of authority (Holmes 2007). Notably, various studies have highlighted that women in organisations whose workforce is primarily male dominated and involve tasks that are stereotypically masculine, face a higher risk of sexual harassment than women in stereotypically feminine organisations, such as the health sector (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand & Magley 1997; Vogt, Bruce, Street & Stafford 2007; Leskinen, Cortina & Kabat 2011).
Furthermore, findings from the current study showed that female participants reported various forms of harassment experienced in the mines, including inappropriate touching and enquiries about their sex life and some confirmed they were exposed to pornographic jokes at work. With regards to unwanted non-verbal conduct, over a third mentioned that they were stared at, followed by those who reported experiencing unwelcomed gestures from their male counterparts. Consistently, findings from a local qualitative study conducted among women in mining, reported that men were making insensitive jokes and taking their overall tops off while working underground, and also touched them inappropriately (Scheepers 2013). In general, more women face sexual harassment at work than men, especially if they enter occupations that are traditionally dominated by men, such as mining, construction, forestry, military, etc. (ILO 2009).

Furthermore, a South African study conducted among health care workers reported that acts of sexual harassment such as indecently bum pinching and touching were commonly reported by the nursing staff and perpetrators included male physician and patients or clients under their care (Steinman 2003). The situation could be explained by literature findings which confirmed that some men claimed that working alongside women lent a dash of sexual excitement to their work life (Eveline & Booth 2002). However, some researchers indicate that in developing countries, religious and cultural beliefs deter women from working so that the experience of workplace physical and sexual harassment is not likely to be taken as a serious problem (Hoel et al 2001).

Of importance to note is that although sexual harassment occurs in various organisations, literature has shown that it is more frequent among those with imbalanced or skewed sex ratio (Cohen & Konrad 1990 cited in cited in Bell, Quick & Cycyota 2002) where there are high power differentials between men and women workers (Gruber & Bjorn 1982 cited in Bell,Quick & Cycyota 2002), and where the workplace is highly sexualised (Mackinnon, 1979 cited in Bell, Quick & Cycyota 2002) as is the case in the South African mining industry.

Current findings also showed that more than half of the participants reported incidents of quid pro quo sexual harassment and confirmed to have received invitations to date with a promise of either hiring or promotion prospects and almost a third indicated they were asked for sexual favours by their supervisors upon threat. This finding is consistent with a local study which confirmed that women had to deal with the macho male mining culture, which sometimes included offering sexual favours in order to be promoted (Benya 2009). Thus, it can be concluded that sexual harassment will surely limit the attractiveness of the mining industry to women.

Sexual coercion is quid pro quo sexual harassment as described in S. 4 (d) of the South African Code of Good practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases (Notice 1367 of 1998) and refers to behaviour including bribes and threats (implicit or subdued) that condition some job-related benefit on sexual cooperation. These definitions are important in classifying the cases reported by Benya (2009) in the mines of South Africa, as examples of sexual harassment of women, including inappropriate fondling by men especially supervisors, touching heightened in transport cages, being whistled at, being called sexually suggestive names and crude references to parts of women’s bodies.
Literature has further revealed that a great majority of harassment is not physically violent but rather reflects intrusive, unwanted, and coercive sexual attention from which there is frequently no viable escape. For example, in a study to investigate sexual harassment among female government employees, findings included reports of sexual remarks (33%), physical touching (26%), and pressure for dates (15%) (Fitzgerald 1993). Furthermore, about 10% of the participants reported to have been directly pressured for sexual cooperation, and a similar percentage (10%) described repeated telephone calls and unwelcome letters or notes. Consequences of such experiences led to job disruptions, emotional distress, and significant organisational cost (Fitzgerald 1993).

6.3.1 Dealing with sexual harassment in the mines

In the present study, three quarters (63.2%) of the participants were dissatisfied with the manner that complaints of sexual harassment were dealt with, indicating as they were perceived as not taken seriously, regardless of who reported them. Similarly, Benya (2013) stated that in cases of sexual harassment, women are less inclined to report. They weigh the cost of reporting if they were harassed by people in high position as reporting even to the union may lead to victimisation, being blamed or being told they provoked men or “were asking for it” by using make-up or wearing a work suit considered by men as tight or revealing.

Similarly, findings of a local study conducted among health care workers showed dissatisfaction among participants regarding the manner of dealing with complaints of sexual harassment at work (Steinman 2003). Given the complexity of the problem of workplace sexual harassment, it is deemed necessary to consider using the law to curb the excesses, particularly the liability threat at the employer as the most effective strategy.

Section 6 (3) of the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 (EEA) lists sexual harassment of an employee as a form of unfair discrimination and obligates employers to create and maintain a working environment in which the dignity of workers is respected and sexual harassment is prohibited. It further mandates employers to create and maintain systems in the workplace in which complainants of sexual harassment do not feel their grievances are ignored or taken lightly or they fear reprisal if they report incidents. Hence, Section 51 of EEA protects employees’ right to bring complaints or participate in proceedings in terms of the Act, for example, the right to report cases of sexual violence or harassment without fear of reprisal and to participate in proceedings and receive feedback. The latter was not fully complied with in this study as findings showed that 19.6% of the participants confirmed that no actions were taken to investigate the cause of the reported incident, and in some 45.6% of the cases, no punishment was given to perpetrators. Such findings indicate a contravention of Section 2 of the amended Mine health and safety Act, No. 29 of 1996 of South Africa which stipulates that employers must identify the hazards inherent in the work process, assess the risks to employees and take appropriate measures to prevent or minimise the effects as far as is reasonably practicable. This includes the identification and elimination of personal safety and security problems faced by women in the mines: sexual harassment, females’ safety in cages and underground, security at change houses, ethics in individual security searches and emergency medical treatment (MHSA 1996; Anglo American 2012).
Moreover, in South Africa, guidelines produced by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) in the form of Codes of good practice must be followed by employers and the mines are no exception. For example, Notice of Code of Good Practice on the handling of sexual harassment cases (Notice 1367 of 1998) at work provides guidance on what constitutes sexual harassment, forms of sexual harassment and the principles for the management of sexual harassment in the workplace and should form the basis of sexual harassment programmes in mines.

6.4 Organisational factors

About two-thirds (66.5%) of the workers had knowledge of laws seeking to prohibit violence and sexual harassment in the mines and 74.7% also positively identified that their employers had developed and implemented relevant policies in that regard. A Jordanian study found that the factors that contributed to workplace violence were related to absence of policies, inadequate staffing and lack of communication skills. The same study also reported that 16.9% of participants indicated that there were specific policies available for dealing with physical workplace violence. Strengthening security and providing training were some of the important factors indicated by participants as likely to reduce violence in the workplace (AbuAlRub & Khawaldeh 2013).

In this study, 65.2% of the workers mentioned that policies forbidding sexual harassment and zero tolerance to violence had not or to a small extent been publicised at their duty station, 39% mentioned that procedures for forbidding sexual harassment and zero tolerance to violence was largely publicised at the mine administration, and 33.3% was at the duty station. Recent research on organisational factors has examined the influence of sexual harassment awareness training, organisational tolerance for sexual harassment, and sexualisation of the work environment on observers' labelling of sexual harassment. This research's results suggest the importance of specifying whether or not study participants are employed by the organisation in which the behaviour of concern took place. McCabe and Hardman (2005), using inside observers, found that observers who perceived their organisation as more tolerant of sexual harassment (i.e., believed that their organisation would not take complaints of sexual harassment seriously or take action to correct sexual harassment) were less likely to label behaviour as sexual harassment. O'Connor et al (2004) also concluded that observers who perceived the organisation in which the behaviour occurred as having a more (vs. less) sexualised work environment (one that includes sexualised banter and materials) were more likely to label behaviour as sexual harassment.

According to the meta-analysis conducted by Willness et al (2007), if a sexual harassment tolerant organisational climate has negative effects, it is important to ask which aspects of the environment create this negative climate. Accordingly, Williams, Fitzgerald and Drasgow (1999) examined three climate aspects in a military setting: organisational policies (formal written guidelines for behaviour), organisational procedures (“formal or informal steps for filing grievances, investigating complaints, and enforcing penalties”), and various organisational practices (actual organisational actions around sexual harassment). They suggested that implementation was associated with sexual harassment reports by both male and female employees.
Other researchers examined the effect of a specific organisational action — providing sexual harassment awareness training to employees (Antecol & Cobb-Clark 2003). Their results highlighted that observers (especially men) working in organisations with sexual harassment awareness training are more likely to label sex-related behaviour as sexual harassment than those in organisations without training. Taken together, these studies suggest that organisational policies and actions influence observers’ sense-making processes around sexual harassment.

6.5 Associations of workplace violence, sexual harassment and other categorical variables

Further analysis was done to determine associations of risk factors and experiences of various forms of workplace violence and sexual harassment. Findings showed a positive association between various factors, such as physical violence, bullying, verbal abuse and shift work. Similarly, research has revealed that night shift work is known to be a risk factor for external violence (Mayhew & Chappell 2007). For an example, studies conducted among nurses found that the prevalence of harassment, especially sexual harassment by a superior or colleagues was higher in a night shift group than in a day shift group (Camerino et al 2008; Pai & Lee 2011).

A Danish study reported that evening or night workers in the eldercare sector were 1.3–1.8 times more likely to experience bullying, threats, and violence (Nabe-Nielsen 2009). Previous studies reporting the influence of night shift work on workplace violence have been limited to health-care settings, but the current study found that this effect is also valid for mining industry. Furthermore, some work situations such as lone work, working at night, handling cash or work in hostile environments such as underground mines appear associated with an increased risk of violence (Chappell & Di Martino 2000; Hoel et al 2001). Working in occupations with an unequal sex ratio such as the male dominated mining industry in South Africa may be related to an increased risk of sexual violence and harassment. The European Commission (1998) survey of sexual harassment in EU member countries found that incidents of sexual harassment were more common in male-dominated jobs as opposed to gender-balanced or female-dominated jobs.

The present study also showed positive associations between commuting to work and quid pro sexual harassment, types of verbal abuse and the place of incident of violence and harassment. Evidence form literature has shown that with regard to psychological violence such as sexual harassment, the perpetrator in most cases is male, colleague or supervisor (Di Martino et al 2003) and most harassers tend to read or interpret women’s friendly acts in a sexual manner which were not intended as such by the women they harass (Stockdale 1993 cited Di Martino et al 2003). According to Hunt et al (2007), perpetrators of sexual harassment are generally males (in position of power compared with harassed; having low levels of self-control and self-monitoring behaviour, e.g. not considering the effect of their behaviour on others) and socially advantaged groups, usually males in a male dominated society and work setting including mines.

There was no association revealed between gender and nature of work in the present study. This finding could be attributed to the nature of the design used (i.e. cross-sectional and based on self-reported responses) and causal relationships between the variables and workplace violence could not be established. On the contrary, findings from a similar study
showed a close connection between violence at work and precarious work, gender, youth and certain high risk occupational sectors (ILO 2009).

### 6.6 Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

- Having more women in mining will have a positive effect on health and safety practices and production.
- Violence and sexual harassment is a recurrent problem for and a threat to the health, safety and security of female workers in the South African mining industry.
- Lack of formal structures, awareness, education and support in the management of violence, abuse and sexual harassment in the mine workplaces in South Africa ensure that most female victims either do not formally report incidents or opt to deal with them themselves.
- Policies and procedures for managing violence and sexual harassment were either non-existent or where they existed were obsolete and ineffective.
- Incidents of violence and sexual harassment did not only affect the victims' health, they also prompted victims to take sick leave for recovery, thus entailing losses in earnings for themselves as well as their mines.
- Physical violence and sexual harassment at work, particularly in the mines should be recognised as a serious prevalent problem requiring specific regulatory interventions.

### 7.0 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE PREVENTION AND MANAGEMENT OF VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT AGAINST WOMEN IN THE MINING INDUSTRY

#### 7.1 Introduction

The literature review suggested that strategies at individual, organisational and societal level should be implemented for effective prevention and management of all forms of workplace violence and sexual harassment. These measures should address primary, secondary and tertiary levels of prevention. Accordingly, mines, through their health and safety structures and in consultation with workers and union representatives, should adopt risk assessment methods to identify organisational risk factors on workplace violence and sexual harassment and implement relevant preventive measures.

#### 7.2 Primary prevention

The principal aim at this level is to create an organizational climate that proactively prevents the occurrence of violence and sexual harassment in the mines. The mines should therefore put in place preventive programmes using the risk-management process as a guiding framework. Intervention measures at this level should include:
7.2.1 Conduct risk assessments of workplace violence and sexual harassment

Regulate the development, implementation and enforcement of policies, procedures and preventive measures against workplace violence and sexual harassment.

7.2.2 Availability of effective policies and procedures

- Develop a comprehensive policy on workplace violence and sexual harassment, in alignment with existing legislation; which is the cornerstone to any programme to prevent and manage workplace violence and sexual harassment. The policy should define workplace violence in precise terms. It should state the organisation’s zero tolerance for all acts of violence; the scope of application (employees, management, contractors, customers and members of the public); responsibilities and accountabilities of all stakeholders; the procedures to report and prevent incidents; and procedures for investigating and resolving complains. Furthermore, the policy should outline the consequences of violations; reinforce the organisation’s commitment to violence prevention and training of employees; underscore management’s commitment to inform employees of potential risks and support and protect victims of violence; and make cross-references to other specific policies, such as the sexual harassment policy.

- Design and implement a protocol to assess the potential of all forms of violence in the mines and consideration should be given to the nature of the organisation’s culture, history, size, industry and workforce.

- A charter should be developed indicating a commitment that mines will not tolerate unethical acts of violence and harassment and discrimination. For an example, each mine can formulate good practice guides in violence prevention and management.

7.2.3 Awareness and training

- Develop and implement training and educational programmes on all forms of workplace violence to support the overall policy. This should be enabled by training supervisors and employees on what constitutes violent behaviour, the consequences and conflict resolution methods; how to recognise signs and symptoms of potentially violent employee including sensitive signs of possible abuse among employees. For an example, frequent absences, depression, slow work, etc.

- Use of gender neutral communication materials such as videos, posters and pictures; these materials should include examples of female workers to promote an integrated workplace.

- Use of gender neutral language in standards and training documents is essential. Provide sexual harassment prevention training as part of the health and safety training programmes is essential.
7.2.4 **Effective communication systems**

- Good communication and sharing of information between workers, union representatives, external organizations and professional bodies, where necessary, is crucial. Examples include:
  - Adoption of an open and clear communication system, which is vital and can greatly reduce the risk of violence through elimination of the taboo of silence that often surrounds incidents of violence and various forms of harassment in the mines.
  - Liaison with local police departments on issues related to personal safety and related matters, the investigation of certain reported incidents of violence and harassment in the mines, etc.
  - Informing workers about the location of lone workers.
  - Use of early warning or flagging system to alert workers about potentially problematic areas.
  - Reporting all incidents of violence and harassment in the mines. This will assist mine management to monitor and evaluate the magnitude of violence and harassment and develop appropriate measures to effectively deal with the problem(s).

7.2.5 **Environmental interventions**

These include measures to improve the physical environment and actions to improve workplace designs, including the following aspects:

7.2.5.1 **Physical environment**

- Proper and adequate lighting should be maintained to improve visibility in all underground areas in the mines, particularly in cages and ablation facilities. The latter should not be located in secluded areas that increase the risk of women being attacked on their way to and from these facilities.

7.2.5.2 **Workplace design**

- Safe access should be provided for commuting workers to and from the mines.
- Ablution facilities should be easily accessible and located closer to work stations.
- Surveillance cameras should be installed in potentially dangerous or high risk areas.
- Conducting risk assessments of tasks involving lone work is essential and special precautionary measures should be taken to safeguard lone workers, e.g., installing security measures such as alarm systems, panic buttons, beepers, short wave radio and CCTV where possible which should be provided particularly in areas where the risk of attack is apparent. This will enable lone workers to alert nearby co-workers, security or the control room in the event of a problem.
- Promoting a system of doubling-up to promote safety and security (e.g. allocating two workers to execute jobs in high risks areas of violence and abuse in the mines, i.e. those that are secluded.
- Encouraging workers to do self-risk assessments by encouraging lone workers to regularly assess their work sections and the risks to which they are exposed to.
### 7.2.6 Availability of security and support structures

- Set up employee assistance programmes to provide counselling on family, marital and financial issues to victims and perpetrators of all forms of violence where possible.
- Implementing physical security programmes that protect employees such as providing full-time or after-hours security guards, CCTV monitoring, emergency warning systems, appropriate PPE, etc.
- Develop a roster of community resources e.g. police, legal advice, health care services, in addition to the organisation’s employees’ assistance programme (EAP) to be used when incidents occur.
- Establish a critical incident management plan.
- Promote the availability of support groups within and outside the mines. Such support structures will be more effective if men are included, particularly given their dominance in the sector.

### 7.2.7 Monitoring and evaluation

- Evaluate and review preventive programmes regularly, at least on an annual basis. Evaluation of preventive measures is crucial given that the purpose of primary prevention is to reduce the risk of occurrence and severity violence and harassment.
- Foster a supportive, harmonious work environment through a culture of mutual respect that encourage open communication, involvement and consultation of employees, recognition of good work, leading by example and showing visible management commitment.
- Reinforce the role of inspectors by ensuring that they are able to interview a representative sample of women on the site to obtain a broad, non-gender-based perspective on all workers' health and safety concerns. Inspectors can use a specially developed checklist for questioning both employers and employees.

### 7.3 Secondary prevention

At a secondary level the mines should implement the following reactive measures to handle incidents of violence and sexual harassment if they occur:

#### 7.3.1 Investigation and handling of reported incidents of violence and sexual harassment

- To ensure an effective implementation of policies on prevention of violence and sexual harassment, the mines should provide various safe reporting structures for incidents of workplace violence and sexual harassment with freedom from retaliation. Thus, reporting systems should encourage reporting by victims or witnesses and also provide for their protection and confidentiality after reporting.
- Develop effective procedures with adequate resources to adequately investigate reported incidents of violence and sexual harassment in the mines.
• Reported incidents of violence and sexual harassment should be investigated promptly and thoroughly, with subsequent and appropriate sanctioning of the perpetrators. Studies have shown that the certainty of an aggressor’s punishment may provide more effective prevention than the severity of sanction.

7.3.2 Support from external agencies and groups

• Utilisation of the law enforcement agency is essential, for an example the local police department can provide assistance to combat and deal with incidents of workplace violence and harassment through the provision of physical security.

7.3.3 Counselling, treatment and care of victims and perpetrators

• Provide prompt victim support plans and assigning responsibilities for its operation when incidents of violence and sexual harassment occur in the mines.

7.3.4 Maintaining clear and open communication

• Provision of adequate and timely communication following an incident of violence and/or harassment can defuse tension and frustration among workers, thus lessening the risk of further violence and harassment.

7.3.5 Reporting and continuous improvements

• The mines should develop measurement and reporting tools to assess the magnitude of violence and sexual harassment in the mines for continual improvements.
• In addition, evaluation of reactive measures should examine both the effectiveness of the programme in reducing the risks, and potentially negative consequences associated with the measures implemented.

7.4 Tertiary prevention

Given that violence and sexual harassment can lead to serious adverse consequences on workers’ health, and safety and security in the mines with a possibility to hinder productivity, various preventive measures can be implemented at tertiary level to assist workers to restore their health, wellbeing and dignity, including:

• Rehabilitation of victims and perpetrators through, for an example, introducing groups to raise consciousness and bring together people who have experienced workplace violence and harassment in different situations to share experiences and if necessary modify their own behaviour.
• Early diagnosis of health effects can help reduce the consequences at all levels (the individual, organizational, family and social network).
• Encouraging Consciousness-raising groups through bringing together workers who have experienced workplace violence and sexual harassment in different situations. It is envisaged that sharing similar experiences in a group allows victims to realise that
they are not the ones responsible for the event, to recognize aggression and if necessary, modify their own behaviour.

- Provide job counselling for employees who have been laid off or dismissed.
- Appointing a mediator bring the parties together to understand each other, encourage them to sort out the problem and continue work in a good climate and with greater respect.
- Continuous risk assessment and management is also crucial at this level of prevention.

7.5 Other preventive strategies

Other preventive strategies include the adoption of best practices that address the persisting challenge of male-dominated culture in the South African mines. It is envisaged that promotion of gender-inclusive leadership would predominantly address the skewed employment patterns in the sector by attracting more women. The following non-exhaustive list of measures can provide guidance for safer, healthier and gender-sensitive workplaces for women in mining and secondarily reduce the occurrence of violence and sexual harassment against women in the sector:

- Initiatives for gender-inclusive leadership should come from the mining sector itself. The mines must work together to develop organizational strategies, share learning experiences, create broader initiatives, and measure the success of these initiatives. For an example, the mines that have advanced in attracting women in the sector can be used as case studies of best practices that can be shared across the industry.
- The mining industry board needs to ensure a fair representation of women with mining qualifications to serve as board members as studies have shown a positive correlation between increased women on executive boards and senior leadership and the attraction of women to the industry. For an example, through the proactive measures and avenues, such as the Women in Mining South Africa (WiMSA), a rapid increase of female participation on executive boards can be enhanced.
- The mining industry should also focus on the transferability of skills from other sectors to attract women more rapidly into leadership positions, where currently there are not enough women in the pipeline. For an example, the mines should build partnerships with governments, schools, academia and the non-profit sector to attract women into the sector and to support women’s participation in the trades.
- The mining industry needs to increase public awareness of the job opportunities available for women in multiple occupations (such as engineering and geology) within the industry, in order to attract more women into the industry.
- The mining industry and companies should develop special programs and training to attract women from communities close to mine sites and make special efforts to attract a diversity of women.
- The mines should work towards a collective struggle to advocate for a gender sensitive mining policy for the country through initiation of policies and practices that promote work-family balance for women, given their dual roles, and also to make it equally possible for them to have rewarding careers and be eligible for advancement in the sector.
• Programs for women in mining should not simply be included in a broad diversity initiative for the mines; rather the focus should be specific to women in view of their unique physiological needs.

• The mines should swiftly and tactically develop and implement multi-faceted strategies that address workplace cultural change, as well as specific initiatives that are incorporated into their operational priorities. For an example the Mine Health and Safety Council’s Cultural Transformation Framework should be used as a guiding principle. A multi-faceted strategy may include cultural or gender audits, examination of recruiting and promotional practices, creating targets, and holding employers responsible for their success. This is crucial given the impact of a male-dominated workplace culture that discourages women’s retention and advancement in the mining.

7.6 Conclusion

To promote the safety and security of women in mining and prevent the occurrence of incidents of workplace violence and sexual harassment against women, the following recommendations are proposed with regards to policy, practice and further research.

Policy

With regards to policy, it is recommended that the regulation of the mining sector with regards to developing, enforcing and evaluating the code of practice for effective prevention and management of violence and sexual harassment against all mine workers should be instituted. For that purpose, it is recommended that guidelines developed as the primary output of the current study be used by the regulator to formulate the code of practice for the mining sector and be made available to all key stakeholders in the sector.

The complexity of the mining industry warrants that certain aspects be revisited to address impacts of a traditional male-dominated culture and underrepresentation of women in the sector. This calls for formalized mining policies to promote gender-sensitivity in the mines with a view to create an enabling environment for women to work without being discriminated upon.

Practice

With regards to practice, it is recommended that current policies and procedures on workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines should be reviewed, updated and aligned with evidence-based data from the current study. Furthermore, the mines must adopt the guidelines on prevention of violence and sexual harassment developed as the primary output of the current study, to use as a framework to develop their own good practice guides.

Research

Future studies should examine the relationship between gender and safety in mining with a view to develop strategies to improve recruitment, attraction, and retention as well as the career advancement of women in the mining industry. It is envisaged that the later would also significantly contribute to the competitiveness and productivity of the mining sector.
Furthermore, an understanding of the potential impacts of various mining hazards on the pregnant and breastfeeding employee and the developing foetus together with strategies to eliminate or reduce the exposure risks are imperative to promote a holistic approach to enhance the safety and security of women in mining.

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APPENDIX A (a)

PRACTICAL GUIDELINES FOR THE PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY

1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Violence is defined as “the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation” (WHO 2002). It is a multifaceted phenomenon involving interaction of biological, social, cultural and other factors (WHO 2002); hence every member of society is a potential victim of violence. There are, however, studies on violence which suggest that certain people and occupations are more at an increased risk of violence in the workplace than others.

The mining industry is one sector where the risk of violence high as evidenced by the findings of the current study. The factors that encourage violence in the mining industry among women include working in a predominantly male dominated occupation; being the only female miner working in a group of male miners; being confined to narrow spaces in close proximity to men in cages; working alone in dark and isolated areas underground and working odd hours. Other contributory elements to violent behaviour include factors such as cultural upbringing, gender, age, history of abuse at home, or witnessing abuse are (Chappell & Di Martino, 2006). Violence, in this industry, may thus manifest at a physical level such as assault and rape as well as in the form of emotional abusive behaviour characterised by intimidation, bullying and mobbing and sexual harassment (Chappell & Di Martino 2006).

Significantly, violence in all its forms is complex in nature, and no one solution is applicable. Any effective prevention or health promotion strategies are born of research on the trends of violence as well as factors influencing its susceptibility and/or perpetration. It is when the “drivers” of violence (sexual and others) are understood, that an effective prevention and control strategy can be developed and tested. The strategy should then be evaluated during and post-implementation in order to gauge the suitability and pertinence for the selected target group, purpose and outcome. Thus, it is against this background that practical guidelines for the prevention of violence and sexual harassment in the South African mining industry (SAMI) are proposed as the primary output of this project.

2 AIM OF THE GUIDELINES

The aim of the guidelines is to:

- provide a structure to assist in the development of programmes to encourage behaviours that promote healthy relationships between men and women workers in the SAMI
- encourage consensus-building in the preparation and development of programmes for the prevention of violence and harassment in the SAMI
• advance the quality and consistency of already developed programmes to prevent violence and harassment in the SAMI, and lastly
• provide a structure for the development of a monitoring and evaluation framework for the programme on prevention of violence and harassment in the SAMI

It is envisaged that the prevention strategy, when applied efficiently, will prevent or reduce the risk factors that predispose women workers to various forms of violence and harassment in the SAMI.

A PURPOSE AND STATUS OF THE GUIDELINES

The guidelines should serve as a workplace model to craft organisational policies and procedures that will yield useful practices to combat violence and harassment against all mine workers, in particular women in mining who are regarded as vulnerable workers (ILO 2009) and disproportionately outnumbered by their male counterparts.

Furthermore, the guidelines are designed to assist the process of planning, development, implementation and maintenance of workplace programmes at primary, secondary and tertiary levels to mitigate violence and harassment against all mine workers. Equally important is the fact that the development of the workplace responses to combat violence and harassment is the responsibility of all parties that are involved including employers, workers, managers/supervisors, union representatives or the mining industry key stakeholders.

B APPROACH TO GUIDELINE DEVELOPMENT

These guidelines mainly focus on and promote primary prevention interventions aimed at addressing incidents of violence and harassment in the SAMI prior to their occurrence. Guidelines should include interventions that encourage individuals to act positively (engage in positive behaviour) in order to dissuade hurtful/violent/aggressive acts to the next. (Some examples and references: risk assessments, provision of information and training, etc)

However, in the event where violent incidents are already occurring, reactive measures have to be designed at secondary and tertiary levels respectively. (Some examples of reactive measures: Reporting of incidents, emergency response by management, incident investigation, keeping of records and feedback; disciplinary measures, counselling, rehab and return to work)

C APPLICATION OF THE SOCIAL-ECOLOGICAL MODEL

Behaviour models are used to understand the complexity of factors that contribute to the occurrence of violence. The ecological model, also known as social–ecological model (SEM) due to the inclusion of social issues, is useful in identifying factors that change an individual’s behaviour and can then be used, as in the case of this current project, to develop and maintain preventive interventions against violence and harassment in workplace. This model is described as a multifaceted public health approach to health promotion (Guy 2007). It is premised on the idea that an individual’s behaviour is shaped by his/her experience of their environment, rules that govern those environments, and intrapersonal (individual) and
interpersonal (relationship) factors. The social-ecological model is commonly used in the evaluation of the relationship between personal and environmental factors affecting behaviour. Specific factors of note in the four levels model are; intrapersonal, interpersonal, community and societal levels as illustrated in figure 1 (Centre for Disease Control 2013).

![Diagram of the Social-ecological model](image)

**Figure 1: The Social-ecological framework for prevention of violence**
(Source: WHO 2013)

For the purpose of this guideline, the SEM is used to provide a framework for preventative strategies, which, when developed and implemented effectively, should result in the desired behaviour (i.e. preventing violence and harassment in the SAMI). Significantly, this model is appropriate in integrating personal behaviour change interventions (mine workers who are perpetrators of violence and harassment as the target group) with environmental (conditions and practices in the mines) interventions to promote their own health as well as that of their surroundings (Stokols 1996). Hence, this model will be applied at the interpersonal, intrapersonal, community and societal levels, owing to the fact that behaviour has several levels of influence (Winch 2012).

**Four levels of the social-ecological model**

Violence is a multifaceted phenomenon involving interactions at the biological, social, cultural, community and other levels. Any prevention strategy that is adopted as an institutional response should therefore include relevant activities at each level. The activities/interventions at each level may be different, but should be harmonised since the SEM model is interrelated, i.e., individual factors affect relationship factors and those affect community and societal factors.
(1) **Intrapersonal (individual)**

This level involves individual characteristics that influence behaviour. These characteristics include knowledge, skills and attitudes towards women and feelings about working with women in the mines.

(2) **Interpersonal (relationship)**

This level involves processes and groups such as friends, family and peers providing identity and support at the workplace. These processes and support clusters include social groups of like-minded mine workers and/or people formed at work.

(3) **Community (workplace)**

This level concerns the mining community (workplace) and policies affecting the work climate.

(4) **Societal**

This level includes cultural norms, religious or societal belief systems and gender inequality (WHO 2013).

**D PRINCIPLES USED IN GUIDELINE DEVELOPMENT**

**FOAM as a baseline for guideline development**

The guiding principles by Winch (2012) which consist of various components, i.e., Focus, Opportunity, Ability and Motivation (FOAM) were used as a starting point to this project’s guideline development, as shown in figure 2.

![FOAM principles diagram](image-url)  

**Figure 2: FOAM principles used for the development of the guidelines**  
(Source: Winch 2012)
Specific attention should be focussed on the nature of the target group, behaviour to be changed and the setting where the change in behaviour should be effected as described hereafter:

**Focus**

The target groups under focus will be both male mine workers (as perpetrators of violence and harassment in the mines) and females (as the victims of violence and harassment in the mines) as the. Subsequently the desired behaviour to be attained in the SAMI should be non-threatening, collegial and non-violent.

**Opportunity**

The mining environment is a collective place where mine workers, the target group/population of this project, are accessible. An understanding and acknowledgement of the existence of known socio-cultural norms, such as ‘macho characteristics/culture’, ‘male power’ and ‘control’, is useful in the encouragement of the desired behaviour. The value systems, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs of male mine workers towards female mine workers should be used as an opportunity for behaviour change.

**Ability**

This component entails the target group’s level of experience of violence in the mines and public place. It manifests as the target group’s knowledge, information, involvement, reaction to or coping mechanisms that influence their understanding of the occurrence of violence and harassment as well as available support structures and interventions meant at assisting the victimised individuals or groups to cope efficiently.

**Motivation**

This component highlights that in order to achieve the desired behaviour of zero tolerance to violence and harassment in the SAMI, all key mine stakeholders (e.g. employers, workers, union representatives, health and safety professionals, etc.) must be highly motivated to engage and fully participate in the process to foster the desired change.

**GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF POLICY AND PROCEDURES TO ADDRESS VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT IN THE SAMI**

**Steps for policy development addressing workplace violence against women miners**

The process of developing a workplace policy to encourage the safety and security of women miners may be daunting task. However, the development of a good plan and implementation of the structure is feasible. Such a policy is indeed required and precedes a workplace programme. The steps to be followed should include:
A Development of a core/planning group

Prior to developing the workplace policy, formulate a group whose aim is to assess the organisations’ ability to respond to incidents of violence and harassment in the mines. The planning group may comprise of representatives from management, mine workers, human resources personnel, union representatives, providers of employee assistance programs, as well health, safety and security personnel.

B Assessment of the current organisational capacity

An assessment of managements’ responses to previous violent incidents will give an indication of the capacity available at the mine. Particular attention should focus on the expertise among personnel, current levels of security, complaint procedures and rehabilitative issues. If ability in the organisation is lacking, recommendations on strengthening capacity should be made as the initial step. A checklist with issues pertaining to resources available in the mine can be developed for effective policy and programme development.

C Addressing personnel capacity gaps

Training may be required to narrow the skills gap. When this is not possible, this function may be outsourced to community resources such as NGO’s and professionals such as Psychologists and the police force.

D Developing a policy on prevention of violence and harassment in the mines

The policy need not be a large document. A few pages may suffice with focused, objective statements on the organisations’ position on violence against women in the workplace. The content of the policy should be organisation specific and may include issues such as frequent communication with women miners when underground, supervision of women workers underground or frequent monitoring of women whereabouts, what desirable or appropriate behaviour is as well as what inappropriate behaviour is. Workplace policies can draw from national and international regulations/legislations.

E Developing a programme on prevention of violence and harassment in the mines

The above factors as well as an assessment of individual and organisational issues encouraging or preventing the perpetration of violence against women allow for the development of an effective/efficient workplace programme. The fact that the violence is deeply rooted suggests that behavioural and other factors should be considered, hence the use of behaviour change models for violence prevention programmes.
APPLICATION OF THEORY TO GUIDELINE DEVELOPMENT

The SEM was used as a basis for guideline development. The items in the model were:

(1) **Individual (intrapersonal) level**

**Personal and biological history taking**

- A good database detailing factors such as workers’ age, education levels (proven), level of income, personal habits such as substance abuse (smoking, alcohol drinking, drugs and other), religion and cultural habits should be kept. The data will provide insight on some of the factors that increase the probability of being a perpetrator or a victim and could be used in crafting an effective behaviour change programme by the mines.
- Individual and/or self-reported data on the history of victimisation and exposure to violence should be considered as it is critical background information to identify potential perpetrators or victims. However, the data should not be used to ‘label’ individuals. The collected information will be useful in the assessment of potential risks of violence as literature has confirmed that an individual’s surroundings and past experiences could have an influence on one’s behaviour. Thus, one or more risk factors will signal a potential for violence in the workplace (Rogers & Chappell 2003).
- Collaboration with onsite occupational health and safety practitioners is crucial in order to access and confirm data obtained during medical surveillance at various intervals.

**Potential perpetrator/victim initial screening**

- The medical surveillance programme should make provisions for initial and regular screening for possible perpetrators of violence or victims thereof as a measure to work on issues of vulnerability, aggression, etc. (Chappell & Di Martino 2006).
- For an example, the necessary screening can be conducted by means of completing a checklist to assess potential risk for vulnerability to sexual abuse among female mine workers and/or tendencies and potential to engage in sexually aggressive or violent behaviours in the case of male mine workers. The checklist used for this purpose could include observations/questions such as body size/stature/physique, weight, height as well as brief personality-related questions that would provide an insight into ‘pleasing or non-pleasing’ tendencies towards others (Rogers & Chappell 2003).
- If the screening checklist identifies an individual with a potential vulnerability and/or demonstrated risk for violent or sexually aggressive behaviour, senior management should be alerted and precautionary measures (e.g. follow-up assessments at regular intervals) could be instituted. Furthermore, referrals for counselling and/or behaviour modification should be done on the basis of the findings from screening information.
Knowledge, attitude and behaviour/practice surveys (KAP)

- KAP surveys can take the form of small investigative studies to assess the target groups’ knowledge on various forms of violence and harassment, particularly against women in the mines. Similarly, male mine workers’ attitudes, behaviours and opinions on women in mining can be assessed.
- KAP surveys are also essential to establish the level of knowledge among workers regarding acceptable conduct/behaviour, given the history of male dominance in the mines. They further give an indication of the extent of the mine workers’ ‘healthy’ behaviours that can be endorsed in comparison to ‘unhealthy/destructive’ behaviours which should not to be condoned and be prevented at the onset.
- Effective methods of assessment are quantitative in nature (by means of questionnaires used to first identify the nature of prevailing issues that perpetuate violence and harassment in the mines), and qualitative (by means of group or individual discussions) to gain insight into the rationale for violent behaviours, i.e. why individuals make certain statements about women in mining. Examples of questions for inclusion in the KAP survey are outlined in figure 3.
- Subsequently, the results of KAP surveys would assist in tailoring programme interventions to prevent violence and harassment in the mines.

**Examples of relevant questions for inclusion in KAP surveys**

- Demographic details (age, gender, ethnicity, family relationship/status, daily activities or work) i.e. who are the individuals studied?
- What does the target group know about various forms of violence and harassment?
- What are the experiences of the target group’s on violence and harassment in the mines i.e. were they previously engaged as perpetrators or victims?
- What interventions is the target group engaged in currently to prevent the occurrence of incidents of various forms of violence and sexual harassment in the mines?
- What is preventing the target group from doing what they “should” be doing to promote healthy behaviours?
- What would facilitate the ease of doing what they “should” be doing?
- Who and what factors influence the target group on prevention of violence and

**Figure 3: Examples of questions for inclusion in KAP surveys**

(Source: Chapel & Martino, 2006)

Planning information and education communication (IEC) materials

- Information and educational awareness material on prevention of various forms of workplace violence and harassment could be developed (using the most commonly
spoken languages in the mines) and be disseminated in a user friendly form, such as pamphlets, and shared in various platforms, such as staff production and health and safety meetings, change rooms, ablation facilities, occupational health facilities and dressing stations as well as other ‘common places.’

- Other feasible means of information sharing, such as monthly pay slips and meeting venues could be used.
- Assessment of acceptable mediums of communication that would be most effective in reaching the target group is essential to promote effective communication, as displayed in figure 4.

Figure 4: Approach to developing effective communication messages

Planning training sessions

- Training should be geared towards developing interpersonal (one on one) communication skills between male and female mine workers (Chappell & Di Martino 2006).
The training material should be based on the KAP study outcomes, thereby increasing focus and specificity. Areas to be addressed during training sessions may include; physical gender differences, uses of physical power/body strength, differences in development and behaviour, differences in personality and social behaviour, gender stereotypes, differences of healthy and aggressive behaviours, etc.

Training sessions should be structured/ based on a training plan and should occur frequently in order to foster a good understanding of the areas addressed among the target group.

Role plays may be planned between men and women together or in separate forums in order to allow participants to explore discomforts experienced during interactions in order to enable them to deal with uneasy feelings and discomforts in a 'safe environment.'

Training attendance should be compulsory for all participants and accurate training records should be kept.

Incentives could be offered to those who complete a set of scheduled training sessions to foster participation.

Pre- and post-assessments should be done prior to training to ascertain the level of knowledge acquired, which will later translate to desired behaviour.

During orientation or induction processes, all workers should receive information regarding the various forms of workplace violence and harassment, as well as the risk factors thereof and should sign off if they have received and clearly understood the information provided.

In-service training on sexual harassment for staff could be structured as continuous professional development training.

All mine workers should be trained to recognise obvious signs of possible sexual victimisation by perpetrators and be capable to fully understand their responsibilities with regards to their reactions as well as dealing, and reporting of such cases in line with the institutional structures.

All mine workers should be made fully aware of institutional policies relating to safety and security checks and compliance should be emphasised during training sessions. For an example, workplace surveillance including: conducting frequent and random area checks, providing supervision, and maintaining frequent communication with women particularly when underground, should be conducted.

All mine workers should be made aware of potential aggressors who may display aggressive behaviour or those demonstrating an inability to control anger, especially when under pressure at work.

(2) Relationships (interpersonal)

Planning for peer mentoring and support

The availability of adequate support structures in the mines should be encouraged and take a leading role in mentoring their peers on acceptable behaviour patterns at work.
Informal peer education programmes should be promoted as they are known to be effective mechanisms for behaviour change, for the individual identifies with a group where healthy behaviour relations are the norm.

Peer educators should be individually identified workers within the same social circles as other workers, i.e., a member of a group with the same characteristics such as doing the same type of work, same sex, experiencing the same beliefs or lifestyle etc., as the other members of the group.

(3) **Community (the workplace/mines)**

**Planning for workplace assessment**

- This aspect should include an assessment of past incidents of violence and harassment against women workers in the mines, including the frequency of occurrence or attempts as well as the organisation’s response to incidents (Rogers & Chappell 2003).
- The nature and frequency of ‘incidents’ of violence should also be assessed i.e. how often do these occur, are these verbal abuse or threats, physical, threatening behaviour, or harassment (Rogers & Chappell 2003).
- The work ‘climate’ in relation to the employment of women in a traditionally male dominated environment should be studied. This can be assessed using the KAP surveys, non-verbal cues displayed by men and women miner workers among each other in common places and the availability or non-availability of policies inhibiting sexual violence at work.
- A thorough risk assessment of the environmental conditions of the various sections of the mines, i.e. lighting, biological exposures to hot and cold environments, hygiene facilities, confined spaces, neglected areas, work times, work locales, etc. should be done to determine their effects on behaviour (in terms of increasing the risk for violence and harassment in the mines). Alternatively, informal assessment criteria can be developed and used as a baseline for identifying training needs and subsequent development of materials.
- The risk assessment team for violence and harassment in the mines should comprise of representatives from management, workers of various categories, unions representatives, health and safety personnel, security and human resources personnel, and other relevant personnel who will make significant contributions to the team.
- Another important aspect to consider is the effect of the work organisation on social relationships, i.e., the direct impact of some elements of work organisation such as working long hours, stress causing work/activities or poor leave structures on relationships at work, which might be a trigger for aggressive or violent behaviours among workers who are at risk of being aggressors and/or victims.
- A continuous assessment and updating of workplace policies and procedures on prevention of various forms of violence and harassment should be done at regular intervals. Such policies and procedures should be assessed for their role and impact in prevention or encouragement of violence and harassment in the mines. And if such policies and procedures are not in place, they should be developed during a consultative process.
Furthermore, there should be a collective agreement and common use of definitions of the various forms of violence and sexual harassment to avoid any ambiguities and misunderstandings as defined by the South African Code of Good Practice (Notice 1367 of 1998).

**Planning for workplace adaptations to accommodate women in mining**

- Structural changes in the work environment such as increasing the number of ablution facilities for women and locating them at strategic, well-lit places should be encouraged.
- Structured plans should be put in place in the process of engagement with management on factors that may contribute to the perpetration or receipt of sexual violence in the mines.
- Planning day shifts only for women mine workers and enforcing a buddy or monitoring system for women when working underground could also minimise their vulnerability to violence and harassment in the mines.
- A range of policies, such as failure to report information upon witnessing sexual harassment may result in disciplinary action, up to and including termination, should be developed to encourage the reporting of witnessed incidents in the mines.
- Other policies should be put in place that encourages the sharing of information on violence and harassment in the mines during the orientation of new employees and through frequent engagement of such information (one a month).

**Assessing society (cultural norms)**

- There should be an understanding of overarching societal factors that encourage violence on women and how these factors affect/influence male miner workers’ behaviours. Societal experiences, such as an outward display of anger or violence on women at or outside of work, should be addressed.
- Societal norms, such as male domination over women, should be identified and addressed through counselling and training using role play sessions.
- All societal, cultural, religious or other norms that encourage sexual violence or inhibit prevention thereof should be used in the development of workplace policies that prevent violence and encourage healthy relationships between men and women workers in the mines. For example, mines could develop a policy prohibiting the use of vulgar language at work. These and other similar policies should be read and signed by all mine workers upon confirmation of employment and orientation to work and should be reinforced.

**G ASSESSMENT CONSOLIDATION**

The results should be summarised and structured, after all the assessments have been done, for the critical development of a focused workplace programme. The assessment results should be communicated with all relevant parties and action decided upon. That should be followed by the drafting and finalising of a prevention programme for the workplace.
H  TIME AND PROGRAMME FREQUENCY

The frequency of programme attendance should be at least monthly. Workplaces should consider attendance of the training sessions as professional development training, and make it compulsory. Each participant should be required to sign a register to confirm attendance of training. A point system can be used as an incentive to frequent attendance and participation.

3  MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAMME

Monitoring is a critical management function, and simple assessments on whether new procedures are being consistently implemented are needed. It is advisable that mining workplaces reflect on a number of outcomes in an annual review checklist that is useful for monitoring prevention programmes such as these found in Appendix A (b). Any type of monitoring or evaluation depends partly on written or electronic records. It is crucial that detailed records relevant to workplace violence be kept in a confidential, secured file and only shared, as necessary, with appropriate personnel, such as those in security and management positions. One way of monitoring employee responses on an on-going basis is to review employee surveys for the possibility of adding more pressing topics such as: (1) awareness of resources at the workplace to address workplace violence; (2) satisfaction with such resources at the workplace; and (3) the frequency of use of support services at the workplace.

4  CONCLUSION

Due to violence being a multifaceted phenomenon involving interaction at multiple levels, various interventions are required to encourage a change in behaviour. Individuals’ behaviour is influenced by a myriad of factors; therefore, one intervention/activity will not suffice. All the relevant/influencing factors should be used as catalysts for a change in behaviour. These guidelines can be used as a basis for programme development aimed at developing healthy relationships between men and women at the workplace. The guidelines should include individual/personal factors as these affect relationship factors and those in turn affect community and societal factors. All activities should be interlinked to create a holistic programme aimed at changing behaviour.
APPENDIX A (b)

ANNUAL REPORTING AND REVIEW CHECKLIST OF INCIDENTS OF VIOLENCE AND HARASSMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY (SAMI)

The following checklist outlines factors for consideration by the SAMI in monitoring the effectiveness of strategic responses implemented to combat workplace violence and harassment for all mine workers. Based on the provisions of the MHSA, which obligates employers to promote a culture of health and safety in mines and to provide for enforcement of health and also consistent with the provisions of sections 9 of the MHSA, it is crucial that employers should prepare and implement a code of practice to address violence and sexual harassment challenges in the mines. In addition, sections 11 and 14 of the MHSA compels employers to assess and respond to risks related to health and safety-threatening occurrences in the mines and to keep a record thereof, it therefore warrants the following key activities to be implemented:

The development of a database or a system for reporting and reviewing statistics, nature and sources/circumstances of incidents of violence and harassment in the mines at least annually, incorporating the:

- Number of workers (per gender) and managers (per category) receiving training or educational information on various forms of workplace violence and harassment.
- Number of workers reported to have sustained injuries (physical and psychological harm) as a result of incidents of various forms of workplace violence and harassment as well as lost time due to of sick leave granted for recuperation.
- Number of orders of protection or restraining orders issued to mine management by workers or taken out by the employer in consultation with workers.
- Number and/or percentage of workers and their gender distribution referred (either through self-referral or otherwise) due to incidents of violence and harassment for employee assistance services for through Employee Assistance Programmes (EAP), onsite occupational health services, consultations with union representatives or other available worker's associations.
- Records of existing preventative interventions (at various levels of prevention, i.e. primary, secondary and tertiary) aimed at combating workplace violence and harassment in the mines.
- Incident reports (including nature, source/circumstances and consequences of parties involved) of any violent events that involved employees or others at work.

The above, in line with objectives of the MHSA, indicates that mining employers should make provisions for effective monitoring systems and inspections, investigations and inquiries of incidents related to violence and sexual harassment in the mines in order to improve the health and safety of all mine workers.

Hence, a review of the above information is essential as it assists the mines to provide a snapshot of activities implemented over the past year(s) and be used for comparison and as a baseline for planning robust and significantly improved interventions for the upcoming year(s). For example, the mines could use data obtained to plan necessary changes to
increase awareness of relevant and meaningful responses to combat violence and harassment against all mine workers in the SAMI.
APPENDIX B

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REGULATORY FRAMEWORK REVIEW FOR THE PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY

Preamble

Due to the magnitude of the problem of workplace violence and sexual harassment in the South African mining industry, it is necessary to consider using the law to curb the excesses, particularly aiming the liability threat at the employer as the most effective strategy. Significantly, Section 6 (1) of the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 (EEA) prohibits unfair discrimination in the workplace and Section 6 (3) lists sexual harassment of an employee as a form of unfair discrimination. Employers must create and maintain a working environment in which the dignity of workers is respected and sexual harassment is not acceptable.

The recently amended Mine Health and Safety Act (MHSA), No. 29 of 1996 does not provide definitions and regulations with respect to reporting and management of violence and sexual harassment in the mines. Subsequently, the mines do not report incidents of workplace violence, sexual harassment and the resulting injuries and fatalities. Given that findings of SIM130903 confirmed that violence and sexual harassment is a reality in the South African mining industry for both male and female workers, the following interventions are proposed for consideration by the Regulator of mines as the code of practice for prevention of violence and sexual harassment in the South African mining industry:

Section 1: Proposed amendments to MHSA

Proposed amendments to MHSA should include the following definitions:

Section 1.1: Definitions

“Workplace harassment” means engaging in a course of distressing comment or conduct against a worker in a workplace that is reasonable for a worker to interpret as unwelcomed.

“Workplace violence” means,

(a) the exercise of physical force by a person against a worker, in a workplace, that causes or could cause physical injury to the worker

(b) an attempt to exercise physical force against a worker, in a workplace, that could cause physical injury to the worker

(c) a statement or behaviour that it is reasonable for a worker to interpret as a threat to exercise physical force against the worker, in a workplace, that could cause physical injury to the worker
“Sexual harassment” means unwanted conduct of a sexual nature and sexual attention” becomes sexual harassment if:

(a) the behaviour is persisted in, although a single incident of harassment can constitute sexual harassment

(b) the recipient has made it clear that the behaviour is considered offensive

(c) the perpetrator should have known that the behaviour is regarded as unacceptable

Various forms of sexual harassment and their definitions according to the Code of Good Practice (Notice 1367 of 1998) are summarised in table 1:

Table 1: Forms of sexual harassment as defined by the South African Code of Good Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of sexual harassment</th>
<th>Definition (Section 4 of the Code of Good Practice, Notice 1367 of 1998)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted physical contact</td>
<td>All unwanted physical contact ranging from touching to sexual assault and rape, and includes a strip search by or in the presence of the opposite sex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted verbal conduct or behaviour</td>
<td>Verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome innuendoes, suggestions and hints, sexual advances, comments with sexual overtones, sex-related jokes or insults or unwanted graphic comments about a person’s body made in their presence or directed toward them, unwelcome and inappropriate enquiries about a person’s sex life and unwelcome whistling directed at a person or group of persons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted non-verbal behaviour</td>
<td>Non-verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome gestures, indecent exposure, and the unwelcome display of sexually explicit pictures and objects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quid pro quo sexual harassment (sexual coercion)</td>
<td>Occurs where an owner, employer, supervisor, member of management or co-employee, undertakes or attempts to influence the process of employment, promotion, training, discipline, dismissal, salary increment or other benefit of an employee or job applicant, in exchange for sexual favours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual favouritism</td>
<td>Exists where a person who is in a position of authority rewards only those who respond to his/her sexual advances, whilst other deserving employees who do not submit themselves to any sexual advances are denied promotions, merit rating or salary increases.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The MHSA should be amended by adding the following section:

**Section 1.2: Policies and programmes**

**VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL HARRASSMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY**

**1.2.1 Employer to develop workplace policies on violence and sexual harassment**

Every employer must:

(a) conduct a HIRA for workplace violence and sexual harassment

(b) develop a policy with respect to workplace violence

(c) develop a policy with respect to workplace sexual harassment

(d) review the policies at least once annually

**Considerations**

**Written form and posting**

The policies must be in written form and must be posted at noticeable places in the mines.

**1.2.2 Employer to develop and implement a program on prevention of workplace violence**

Every employer must develop and maintain a program to implement the policy with respect to prevention of workplace violence. The program must:

(a) include measures and procedures to control the risks identified in the assessment as likely to expose a worker to physical and psychological injuries

(b) include measures and procedures for summoning immediate assistance when workplace violence occurs or is likely to occur

(c) include measures and procedures for workers to report incidents of workplace violence when it occurs or is likely to occur;

(d) set out how the employer will investigate and deal with incidents or complains of workplace violence
1.2.3 Employer to provide information and training

Every employer must:

(a) inform all workers, and their representatives, of the results of the risk assessment of workplace violence, and provide free access to the assessment report

(b) ensure that all workers are aware of the contents of available policies and procedures with respect to workplace violence and are properly trained in the procedure to be followed in reporting and investigating incidents of violence.

1.2.4 Employer to develop and maintain a program on prevention of workplace sexual harassment

Every employer must:

(a) conduct a risk assessment for sexual harassment and bullying in the workplace

(b) develop, implement and maintain a program to implement the policy with respect to prevention of workplace sexual harassment

(c) include measures and procedures for workers to report incidents of workplace sexual harassment to the employer when they occur

(d) set out procedures for investigating and dealing with incidents and complaints of sexual harassment at work

Section 2: (Code of practice) Practical guidelines on the prevention of workplace violence and sexual harassment

2.1 Purpose

The mining industry recognises the rights, dignity and worth of every employee. Wherever people interact at work there is a potential for violence and harassment, regardless of the job. Workplace violence and sexual harassment is a serious issue that affects all business sectors and occupations. It affects the safety and security of every employee and employer.

2.2 Scope

This code of practice is designed to provide specific guidance related to the requirements for the prevention and response to workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines. The mining industry is committed to providing a safe and healthy workplace free from actual, attempted or threatening violence and will take reasonable precautions to prevent workplace violence and sexual harassment in order to protect employees.
2.3 Definitions

Definitions

Workplace violence

(a) the exercise of physical force by a person against a worker, in a workplace, that causes or could cause physical injury to the worker, this includes but is not limited to physical acts such as punching, hitting, kicking, pushing, damaging property or throwing objects.

(b) an attempt to exercise physical force against a worker, in a workplace, that could cause physical injury to the worker.

(c) a statement or behaviour in relation to which it is reasonable for a worker to infer a threat to exercise physical force against the worker, in a workplace, that could cause physical injury to the worker. This may include behaviour such as bringing a weapon of any kind to a workplace or possession of a weapon of any kind while carrying out company business, or threatening to bring a weapon to a workplace.

Workplace harassment

making a vexatious comment or engaging in conduct against a worker in a workplace that is reasonable for the worker to interpret as unwelcome. It includes any unwanted conduct that is known or ought reasonably to be known to be unwelcome. Harassment comprises any objectionable act, communication or display that is perceived to be insulting, frightening, embarrassing, offensive, humiliating, demeaning, or otherwise unwelcome, and that may have the effect of creating an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment, interfering with an individual’s performance, negatively affecting an individual’s employment relationship, affecting the inherent personal dignity of the individual or their psychological or physical integrity.

Vexatious

causing annoyance or worry, disturbing, provoking, irritating, troublesome, bothersome

2.4 Responsibilities and performance accountabilities

These are best left for each mine to determine based on their resources and results of their hazard identification and risk assessments (HIRAs).

2.5 PROCEDURE

2.5.1 Policy of “Zero tolerance” to workplace violence and sexual harassment in the mines

2.5.1.1(a) Everyone should be able to work without fear of violence and sexual harassment, in a safe and healthy workplace. The mining industry will not
tolerate any form of violence, sexual harassment or abuse in the mines against or by any employees, directors, managers, supervisors, contractors, suppliers, clients, visitors or others.

2.5.1.2(b) Every employee is responsible for acting in compliance with this code of practice.

2.5.1.3(c) With respect to acts of workplace violence, as defined in this code of practice, the mines, where appropriate may:

2.5.1.3.1(i) Remove the perpetrator from a workplace by security or the police.
2.5.1.3.2(ii) Discipline any employee and/or report the conduct to the police.
2.5.1.3.3(iii) Report the conduct of any other person to their employer, supervisor, and/or the police.

2.5.1.4(d) Physical assaults or threats of physical violence involving an employee must reported to the police.

2.6 General requirements

2.6.1 The mines must establish a written policy with respect to workplace violence and harassment. The policy must be posted in a conspicuous place at each workplace.

2.6.2 The policy must be reviewed by the Health and Safety Manager as is necessary, but at least annually. The review must be documented in the document version history on page 1 on this code of practice.

2.6.3 Any circumstance of violence in the workplace that presents an immediate danger of physical injury to an employee must reported to the police by the Mine management/supervisor/team leader of the employee.

2.6.4 Managers/supervisors will provide employees with information, including personal information related to the risk of workplace violence from a person with a history of violent behaviour if,

2.6.4.1 the employee can be expected to encounter that person as part of his or her work

2.6.4.2. Any employee experiencing violence outside the workplace (i.e. domestic violence) that may create a risk of danger to themselves or others in the workplace is encouraged to report such violence so that the employer can take reasonable preventive steps.

2.7 Risk assessment and control measures for workplace violence prevention

2.7.1 The mines must conduct Risk Assessments of workplace violence.
2.7.2 The Risk Assessments shall be reviewed annually or anytime there is a reported incident, workplace relocation or major changes to the work environment to ensure continued protection of employees from workplace violence.

2.7.3 The Risk Assessment will take into consideration circumstances that are both common and specific to each workplace.

2.7.4 The Human Resources Manager or designate must be responsible for ensuring that the risk assessment is completed for their area in consultation with employees, and that any identified control measures for the prevention of workplace violence are implemented, monitored and maintained.

2.7.5 The original copy of the completed assessment forms must be kept by the Human Resources Manager or designate.

2.7.6 The risk assessment for workplace violence prevention must include the evaluation of actual or potential risk to employees working in the field and at customer sites.

2.7.7 The Human Resources Manager will ensure that the Health and Safety Committee is advised of the results of the risk assessment (or reassessment) for workplace violence prevention and provide a copy of the assessment to the committee(s) as part of one of its regular meetings on an annual basis.

2.8 Management of incidents of workplace violence

2.8.1 Employees must report any incident of violence in the workplace that presents an immediate danger of physical injury to their Mine management/supervisor/team leader immediately. In the event that a Mine management/supervisor/team leader is not readily available the Police may be contacted directly by employees.

2.8.2 Any circumstance of violence in the workplace that presents an immediate danger of physical injury to an employee must be reported immediately to the Police and the Human Resources Manager by the Mine management/supervisor/team leader of the employee.

2.8.3 The Manager/Supervisors will assist and support the employee until the police respond or other assistance is provided.

2.8.4 In the event an incident of violence has the potential to pose a danger to the occupants within a workplace the Human Resources Manager must be notified immediately and will consult with the police and Senior Management in order to determine if a facility “lock-down” (take refuge in a secure location) or an emergency evacuation should be carried out.
2.8.5 Response to incidents of workplace violence and sexual harassment

Steps to facilitate a quick and effective response by a Mine management/supervisor/team leader to a workplace violence incident:

2.8.5.1 Immediately assess what has happened.
2.8.5.2 Do not ever downplay any incident. Pre-existing incidents you may not have been aware of may have triggered this one.
2.8.5.3 Facilitate communications where necessary (i.e. Police and emergency personnel, client, security, other employees, etc.)
2.8.5.4 Remove employees from the situation right away, depending on its feasibility.
2.8.5.5 Provide employees with medical attention if required and outreach to the victim or group by offering emotional support.
2.8.5.6 Provide employees with information on normal responses to trauma.
2.8.5.7 Be aware that you may have your own personal reactions to the event. Lead by example, and in terms of self-care, don’t be reluctant to ask for support in managing your own responses.
2.8.5.8 Document the incident thoroughly.
2.8.5.9 Follow-through in terms of consequences for the employee who committed the violent act as per this code of practice.

2.9 Reporting of Incidents of workplace violence and sexual harassment

2.9.1 Employees must report any concerns/complaints related to threats and actual incidents of workplace violence or sexual harassment to their Manager/supervisor/team leader.

2.9.2 All workplace violence and harassment concerns/complaints must dealt with following the “Accident/Incident Investigation and Reporting” code of practice.

2.10 Investigation and action of actual or potential workplace violence incidents and actual incident and complaints of harassment

2.10.1 All reports of actual or potential workplace violence incidents and sexual harassment by employees must be investigated as quickly and confidentially as possible.

2.10.2 All interviews with the complainant/or victim, alleged perpetrator(s) and witnesses must be documented.

2.10.3 All immediate and basic causes identified as a result of the investigation must be promptly addressed by all persons assigned responsibility and in accordance with the “Accident/Incident Investigation and Reporting” code of practice.
2.11  No reprisal

2.11.1 This code of practice prohibits reprisal against any employees who have in good faith made complaints or provided information regarding a complaint or incident of workplace violence.

2.11.2 Employees who engage in reprisals or threats of reprisals may have disciplinary proceedings instituted against them.

2.11.3 Reprisal includes:

2.11.3.1 Any act of retaliation that occurs because a person has complained or provided information about an incident of workplace violence.

2.11.3.2 Intentionally pressuring a person to ignore or not report an incident of workplace violence.

2.11.3.3 Intentionally pressuring a person to lie or provide less than full cooperation with and investigation of a complaint or incident of workplace violence.

2.11.4 Employees who intentionally file a formal or informal false complaints, or recklessly accusing another employee of sexual harassment or aggressive/violence will be dealt with. Any person engaging in such complaints must subject to disciplinary action. Such discipline is not a reprisal or breach of this code of practice.

3.0  COMMUNICATION AND TRAINING

3.1 All employers must provide information and instruction related to this code of practice during induction and as part of health and safety orientation.

3.2 Managers/supervisors must be provided with information and instruction related to their role in this code of practice as part of the Mine management/supervisor/team leader training requirements.

4.0  MEASUREMENT, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

4.1 The mine management must monitor investigation reports in order to identify any incidents related to workplace violence and harassment that may require specific prevention initiatives beyond the current prevention practices.

4.2 Compliance to this code of practice must be viewed as part of Health and Safety Management System for the mines.

5.0  REVIEW

5.1 This code of practice must be reviewed annually for continual improvements.

5.2 This code of practice must be reviewed in response to institutional needs.

5.3 This code of practice must be reviewed in response to any legislative changes.
APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
Health Studies Higher Degrees Committee
College of Human Sciences
ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

HSHDC/236/2013

Date: 21 October 2013  Student No:  Personal Project

Project Title: Safety and security challenges impacting women in the South African mining industry: SIM 13 09 03.

Researcher: Prof LI Zungu

Degree:  

Supervisor:  

Qualification:  

Joint Supervisor:  

DECISION OF COMMITTEE

Approved  

Conditionally Approved  

Prof L Roets
CHAIRPERSON: HEALTH STUDIES HIGHER DEGREES COMMITTEE

Prof MM Moleki
ACADEMIC CHAIRPERSON: DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH STUDIES

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROJECT NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRES