

Stereotypes in the South African mining industry: An exploratory study

IYB Da Gama

12863483

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Supervisor: Dr L Brink

Assistant-supervisor: Dr JA Nel

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REMARKS

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The references as well as the editorial style as prescribed by the Publication Manual (6th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this mini-dissertation. This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, to use APA style in all scientific documents as from January 1999.
- The mini-dissertation is submitted in the form of a research article. The editorial style specified by the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology (which agrees largely with the APA style) is used, but the APA guidelines were followed in referencing and constructing tables.
- Although the title of this mini-dissertation makes use of the term ‘mining industry’, only one single mining organisation formed part of this study. Therefore, the study population that formed part of this study, does not represent the entire South African mining industry.

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17 La Rochelle Street
Berg-en-Dal
WELLINGTON
7655
13 November 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

I hereby confirm that the research report by Mrs Irene Da Gama was edited and groomed to the best of my ability, including some recommendations to improve the language and logical structure as well as enhance the presentation.

Rev Claude Vosloo
Language and knowledge practitioner and consultant

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DECLARATION

I, Irene Yolandi Berreneace Da Gama, hereby declare that “Stereotypes in the South African mining industry: An exploratory study” is my own work and that the views and opinions expressed in this work are those of the author and relevant literature references as shown in the references.

I further declare that the content of this research will not be handed in for any other qualification at any other tertiary institution.

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading 'Irene Yolandi Berreneace Da Gama' in a cursive script.

IRENE YOLANDI BERRENEACE DA GAMA

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SUMMARY

Title: Stereotypes in the South African mining industry: An exploratory study

Keywords: Stereotypes; in-group; out-group; age stereotypes; gender stereotypes; race stereotypes; occupational stereotypes; South African mining industry

Since the first democratic election in 1994, the South African labour force has undergone various changes. As a result, a number of laws were implemented, which helped ensure the diverse nature of the South African labour force. Within a diverse workforce, stereotypes are more likely to occur, which is also the focus of the present study. This study explored not only the meaning and origin of stereotypes but also the prevalent stereotypes and the manner in which employees experience these within the South African mining industry. A qualitative research design from a combined phenomenological and hermeneutic approach was used for the purpose of this study by following a case-study strategy. A combination of both purposive and convenience sampling was used and participants' responses were obtained by making use of semi-structured interviews. The population consisted of participants ($N = 15$) from different departments within a particular organisation in the mining industry in South Africa. The representation of the population was diverse and included male, female, various age groups, and different racial groups. Interviews were transcribed and thematic analysis was used to analyse the data. Themes, sub-themes, and characteristics were extracted from the data and direct quotations of participants' responses were analysed to support the findings.

It was found that participants of this study are aware of and understand the meaning of stereotypes. *Generalisation* was the most prominent theme that was evident when asking participants about the meaning of stereotype. During the study it became clear that stereotypes exist within the mining industry and that individuals do entertain stereotypes of other individuals employed in this industry (out-groups), and also about themselves (in-group). The most prominent in-group stereotypes that individuals experienced are racially oriented. These stereotypes were experienced by White individuals, Black individuals and Coloured individuals,

and it was mostly negative. The most prominent out-group stereotypes that individuals hold of others in their workplace were found to be occupational stereotypes.

During the present study most stereotypes turned out to be negative in nature. Findings of this study also indicated that employees experience stereotypes on three levels, namely emotional, cognitive and behavioural. Participants of this study experienced stereotypes mostly on an emotional level. The study's findings did show various origins of stereotypes and participants indicated that it originated mostly from secondary exposure. In these instances influences can be a result of factors such as affirmative action, apartheid, social interaction and upbringing. To conclude the study, recommendations were made for future research and practice in an industry with a diverse workforce.

OPSOMMING

Titel: Stereotipes in die Suid-Afrikaanse mynbedryf: 'n Verkennende studie

Sleutelwoorde: Stereotipes; binne-groeps; buite-groeps; ouderdomstereotipes; geslagstereotipes, ras-stereotipes; beroepstereotipes; Suid-Afrikaanse mynbedryf

Sedert die eerste demokratiese verkiesing in 1994 het die Suid-Afrikaanse arbeidsmag verskeie veranderings ondergaan. As gevolg hiervan is 'n reeks wette geïmplementeer wat die uiteenlopende aard van die Suid-Afrikaanse arbeidsmag help vestig het. Binne 'n diverse arbeidsmag is daar 'n groter geneigdheid vir stereotipes – wat ook die fokus van die huidige studie uitmaak. Hierdie studie het nie slegs die betekenis en oorsprong van stereotipes ondersoek nie, maar ook die heersende stereotipes en die manier waarop werknemers dit binne 'n Suid-Afrikaanse mynbedryf ervaar. 'n Kwalitatiewe navorsingsontwerp is vir hierdie studie gevolg wat 'n gekombineerde fenomenologiese en hermeneutiese benadering inspan en dit deur 'n gevallestudie-strategie bedryf. 'n Kombinasie van 'n waarskynlikheid- en gerieflikheidsteekproef is gebruik en deelnemers se response is verkry deur semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude te voer. Die populasie vir die ondersoek het bestaan uit deelnemers ($N = 15$) van verskillende departemente in 'n spesifieke organisasie binne die mynbedryf in Suid-Afrika. Die populasie het uiteenlopende groepe verteenwoordig: manlik, vroulik, verskeie ouderdomsgroepe en verskillende rasgroepe. Transkripsies is van onderhoude gemaak en tematiese analise is gebruik om die data te ontleed. Temas, sub-temas asook eienskappe is uit die data onttrek en direkte aanhalings van deelnemers se response is gebruik om die bevindings te ondersteun.

Daar is gevind dat die deelnemers aan die huidige studie bewus is van wat stereotipes behels. Die mees prominente tema wat na vore gekom het, nadat deelnemers oor stereotipes se beteken uitgevra is, was *veralgemening*. Deur die loop van die studie het dit duidelik geword dat stereotipes wel in die mynbedryf bestaan. Daar is ook bevind dat individue stereotipes voorhou van ander werknemers in die mynbedryf (buite-groeps) asook oor hulleself (binne-groeps). Die prominentste binne-groepse stereotipes wat individue ervaar het, was rasgebonde. Rasgerigte stereotipes is deur Wit-individue, Swart-individue en Kleurling-individue ervaar en dit was

meestal negatief. Daar is bevind dat die prominentste buite-groepse stereotipes wat individue van ander in hulle werkplek voorhou, beroepstereotipes behels.

Tydens die huidige studie het die meeste stereotipes negatief geblyk te wees. Bevindings van die studie het ook aangedui dat werknemers stereotipes op drie vlakke ervaar: emosioneel, kognitief en gedraggerig. Deelnemers het aangedui dat hulle stereotipes meestal op emosionele vlak ervaar. Die studie se bevindings het getoon dat stereotipes verskeie oorspronge kan hê. Die deelnemers het ook aangedui dat sodanige ingesteldhede meestal uit sekondêre blootstelling spruit. In sulke gevalle geld die invloed van faktore soos regstellende aksie, apartheid, sosiale interaksie en opvoeding. Ter afsluiting van die studie is aanbevelings gemaak met die oog op toekomstige navorsing en vir die praktyk binne 'n onderneming met 'n diverse werksmag.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

This chapter focuses on the exploration of stereotypes within the South African mining industry. The chapter outlines the problem statement and provides a discussion on the research objectives, which entail the general objective and specific objectives that flow from it. Thereafter the research design is explained and a division of chapters is given.

1.1 Problem statement

For more than a decade, South African citizens have moved on from the previous apartheid regime. On 27 April 1994, the country's first fully democratic election took place (Venter, Levy, Conradie, & Holtzhausen, 2009) and since then, various socio-cultural and socio-economic changes have occurred (Horn, 2006). In the workplace, this has involved the introduction of a new dispensation for labour relations, made up of six core statutes such as the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (Webster & Omar, 2003). According to this Act (Government Gazette, 1998) the following applies:

No person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language, and birth (p. 8).

Therefore, the Act makes provision for individuals of diverse backgrounds to operate in the workplace without unfairly being discriminated against. The implementation of the Employment Equity Act prompted South African organisations to employ more diverse personnel (Ploch, 2011). According to Niemann (2006), South African organisations currently are rapidly changing towards a complex mixture of races, cultures, languages, and sexual orientations. As a result of these changes workforces and management teams are becoming more diverse.

The mining environment is an example of a diverse organisation. The Republic of South Africa is one of the world's most significant mining countries in terms of the variation and magnitude of minerals produced. During a presentation in 2007 at the Mining Investment Conference in

London, Mr Diliza, the Chief Executive Officer of the South African Chamber of Mines, described South Africa as the world's richest and greatest diverse source of mineral commodities. He further stated that, "Globally, it is the largest producer of gold, vermiculite, platinum and chromium and that it has major deposits of antimony, coal, iron ore, manganese, nickel, phosphates, tin, uranium, diamonds, copper and vanadium" (Diliza, 2007, p. 1). The mining environment is not only diverse in terms of its produced minerals, but also in its human resources.

Prior to 1994, the majority of South Africans were excluded from full participation in the mining industry on the basis of racial and gender classification. The mining environment was described as dangerous and only appropriate for males; not suitable for females (Reimer, 1987). The South African Minerals Act of 1991 also banned females from working underground (Simango, 2006). However, this Act was repealed and replaced by the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA) of 2002 (Benya, 2012). Together with the Mine Health and Safety Act of 1996, these policies reversed the historical exclusion based on gender and opened up occupations to females within the mining industry (Benya, 2012). In 2002, the South African Mining Charter was also introduced. This Charter aims to address the inequalities of the past which exist in the mining industry (AngloGold Ashanti, 2008). Based on the exposition above, it is clear that in post-apartheid South Africa, the mining industry has become an increasingly diverse workplace.

According to Thomas (1997), a diverse workforce can be difficult to manage. Devoe (1999) adds to this point by contending that diversity management encompasses much more than only recognising dissimilarities in a group; it also involves eradicating discrimination, and encouraging inclusiveness. If organisations do not manage this diversity effectively, there may be negative consequences, such as misunderstandings, conflict between employees and costly discrimination litigation (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2011). Therefore, in their efforts to manage diversity and reduce discrimination, organisations are focusing more on hiring non-biased executives, redesigning prejudiced procedures related to selection and promotion, and eliminating stereotypes from decision-making within their ranks (Greengard, 2003; Rice, 1996).

According to De Castro, Gee, and Takeuchi (2008), stereotypes commonly occur in a diverse workplace. Managers may face challenges such as employees resigning, and decreased productivity due to stereotypes that exists within organisations (Devoe, 1999). When stereotypes are present within organisations, these attitudes may be uncontrollable and difficult to suppress, and when stereotypes have a negative focus, they can lead to inefficient and uneconomical decisions. This eventually creates major barriers in the advancement of minority groups such as females (Izumi & Hammonds, 2007; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Van Fleet & Saurage, 1984). Furthermore, inaccurate stereotypes can lead to discrimination, sexism, persecution and racism (Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008; Ndom, Elegbeleye, & Williams, 2008). If these stereotypes are not removed from organisational practices, the employees may be hampered in advancing and thriving within the organisation (Roberson & Kulik, 2007).

Conceptualisation of stereotypes

Stereotypes are a global phenomenon. According to Stangor and Lange (1994, p. 357), “Stereotypes about groups represent an important and commonly used set of expectations about others.” Aronson (1999) adds the insight that stereotypes can be seen as a generalisation about a group of people in which identical characteristics are assigned to almost all members of the group, irrespective of the actual difference among these members. Stereotypes can be seen as both conscious and subconscious; therefore, people may stereotype others without even noticing. Kleinpenning (1993), in concordance with Tajfel (1981), considers stereotyping as the result of a process of categorisation in which people from a particular social category (in-group) emphasise the differences among persons from other categories (out-group) and accentuate the similarities among persons from the same category. Furthermore an in-group can be defined as a social category with which an individual strongly identifies with and out-group is a social category with which an individual do not identify with (Nesdale, Durkin, Maass, & Griffiths, 2004).

Tajfel and Turner (1979) propose three cognitive procedures involved in evaluating others as in-group or out-group. These procedures also take place in a meticulous order, which can be explained as follows:

- *Categorisation* – this is the first procedure where elements are categorised in order to identify and comprehend them. During a similar approach, individuals categorise others (including themselves) to help them understand their social environment. People use social categories such as Black, White, Coloured, and Indian because of its practical value. Appropriate behaviour is defined in terms of the norms of groups to which one belongs, and an individual can be a member of various groups.
- *Social identification* – the second stage, which can be described as the identity of the group to which the individual has categorised him- or herself as belonging. Here, an individual will identify with his/her group and also feel an emotional connection to the group.
- *Social comparison* – the final stage where one tends to compare one's group with other groups. During this stage, stereotypes may develop about the following categories: females, Black people, White people, individuals with status, with different sexual orientations, with disabilities, or anyone who is perceived as being part of the so-called “out” group.

Stereotypes targeting members of the out-group are more likely to be negative, whereas those about in-group members are more likely to have a positive nature (Al-Waqfi & Forstenlechner, 2010; Esse, Haddock, & Zanna, 1993; Lee, Sandfield, & Dhaliwal, 2007). The process where people stereotype their own group positively is known as in-group bias (Aberson, Healy, & Romero, 2000). This phenomenon can be explained by the social identity theory. According to this theory, individuals have a need to uphold their self-esteem, thus they positively stereotype their group in order to feel better about themselves (Ungerer & Ngokha, 2013).

Individuals can also be stereotyped in terms of a wide variety of aspects. Robins (2003) identifies various stereotypes that have emerged over the past few years focusing on the following variables, *age*, *gender*, *race*, and *occupation*. These forms of stereotypes will be discussed separately. Although other types of stereotypes also exist, these stereotypes are the most common stereotypes and will be discussed further by the researcher (Blum, 2004).

Age stereotypes

According to Posthuma and Campion (2009), age stereotypes in the workplace are viewed as personal beliefs and expectations about specific age groups within an organisation. Stereotypes are often predisposed and based on negative presumptions about employees of a specific age.

According to Vrugt and Schabracq (1996), older employees are inflexible and enjoy routine work. However, in relation to younger employees, they are viewed as less likely to pursue new challenges and without a desire to acquire new skills. Individuals who are viewed as the older generation of workers are often content within their current position, have a desire for retirement and are seen as decelerating in their current positions (Simon, 1996). Conversely, Posthuma, and Campion (2009) argue that there is not much evidence to prove that performance may decline with age; rather it has been shown that performance improves with age. There also are more important factors than age, for instance individuals' ability and health status. The authors further argue that older employees are not prone to quit their respective jobs, which presents a greater return on investment for the organisation.

Jenkins (2007) points out that individuals of the so-called Generation X are perceived as freeloaders. Organisations tend to complain that employees within this category are rarely committed to their respective jobs and will only fulfil their duties during the specified hours that were contracted with management. Research studies have shown that personnel often discriminate against older employees during staffing and retention due to the stereotypical beliefs about their capabilities and performance (Altschuler, 2004; Henkens, 2005; Malul, 2009; Roscigno, Mang, Byran, & Tester, 2000).

Mitchell (2001) mentions a research survey indicating that 44% of employees between the ages 18 and 24 would rather spend a longer time at work in comparison to 23% of employees of all ages. This indicates that younger employees are more eager to work than the average employee. Individuals from the so-called Generation Y are known to be the younger generation of employees. They are considered to appreciate teamwork and group effort (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000), are more positive (Kersten, 2002), and adapt to change easily (Jenkins, 2007). Furthermore, individuals of Generation Y pursue flexibility (Martin, 2005), have a desire for a

stable lifestyle and are more independent (Crampton & Hodge, 2006). Perry, Kulik, and Zhou (1999) find a larger occurrence of absenteeism among employees who are younger than their supervisors. The author's further state that supervisors and younger managers are often perceived to lack experience, relevant training as well as the ability to lead a team successfully. Research has also indicated that younger employees will actively search for prospective jobs and are more likely to change jobs than the average older employees (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

Gender stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are beliefs about specific characteristics contributed to males and females that are shared within social groups (Berry & Segall, 1992). In the literature Burgess and Borgida (1999) focus on the differences between prescriptive and descriptive elements in gender stereotyping. These elements can be distinguished as follows:

- *Prescriptive elements*: principles on basic characteristics, role expectation on how males and females should behave (conform) and their corresponding behaviour.
- *Descriptive element*: the characteristics, the roles and the behaviours of how males and females do behave in a specific context.

Powell, Butterfield, as well as Parent (2002) and Schein (2001), identify specific characteristics that are related to gender. Females are perceived as nurturing, attentive and possessing strong interpersonal skills, whereas males are seen as agnatic (provider and protector) in relationships with others (Eagly & Mladinic, 1994). In most countries, females are viewed as being less emotionally stable and more agreeable, extroverted, and more conscientious than males (Bowles, Gintis, & Osborne, 2001). Females are more likely to engage in household tasks and perform duties that involve caring for dependents, the sick and the elderly, in contrast to males, who are viewed as having the freedom to pursue their personal goals (Buss, 1997).

Furthermore, females are often perceived as less ideal for leadership roles (Buss, 1997). Moreover, their leadership behaviour is evaluated less positively than that of their male counterparts. Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of research done

on males and females in leadership roles. They found that individuals are prone to evaluate female leaders more negatively than male leaders; however the negative attitude toward female leaders increased when it was enacted in a stereotypical masculine style. In a male-dominated environment, females tend to show negativity towards other females who are employed in that environment. Furthermore, findings of a study by Graves and Powell (1995) indicate that female recruiters view female applicants as less favourable than male candidates. However, no significant differences were found with male recruiters.

Race stereotypes

Fiske (1998) argues that the traditional interpretation of racial stereotypes assumed that perceived individuals are conscious of their biases and that the start and end point is within their control. Lepore and Brown (1997) as well as Wittenbrink, Judd, and Park (1997), claim that the traditional view of racial stereotyping is the result of indoctrinated information about cultural stereotypes. A variety of racial stereotypes exist (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Shih, 2002). Results of a study indicated that when African Americans were compared with White people, they felt less accepted by peers, reached career ceilings more often, showed higher levels of job dissatisfaction, and received less favourable performance ratings (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010).

Employers often view African Americans in a negative light – as being demotivated, disinterested in learning and refusing to follow orders and accept authority (Shih, 2002). Furthermore, it was found that White individuals are viewed more positively than Hispanics and Asians, and Jews in turn are viewed more positively than White individuals (Williams & Williams-Morris, 2000). White males are viewed as being more competent to attain high-status positions and are, therefore, given positions of higher value in society (Powell & Butterfield, 2002). In a South African study it was found that Coloured individuals are viewed positively as friendly and happy, and negatively as violent and criminal (Durrheim & Talbot, 2012).

According to Gibson (2004), when interaction takes place between different racial groups, it may impact positively on individuals' attitudes towards these different groups. Gibson (2004) uses data from the national probability survey of South Africans and indicates that interaction

between races is the most influential predictor of racial groups such as White, Coloured, and Indian individuals towards Black individuals, and Black individuals in turn towards White individuals. Kane (2000) finds that a survey research conducted previously also explored differences in race that were associated with gender stereotypes, as well as differences in gender associated with racial stereotypes (Hughes & Tuch, 2003). Theorists argue that it is impossible to study race and gender separately. These themes should rather be studied as independent systems because race and gender intersect within social institutions, creating unique conditions for diverse groups in this context (Brown & Barbosa, 2001).

Occupational stereotypes

Lipton, O'Connor, Terry, and Bellamy (1991, p. 129) describe occupational stereotyping as “a preconceived attitude about a particular occupation, about people who are employed in that occupation, and about one’s own suitability for that occupation”. Thielbar and Feldman (1969) conclude in their study that stereotypes lead to the assessment of occupational status. Thielbar and Feldman add that “representations of society in fictional writing, television drama, and movies often reflect social life through occupational stereotypes and sometimes it is not the incumbent but the position that is stereotyped” (p. 67). Various occupational stereotypes exist and include the following: librarians are serious and intelligent; bullfighters are violent; engineers are good at maths and extremely rational; human resource managers are “do-gooders” (Buelens, Sinding, Waldstrøm, Kreitner, & Kinicki, 2010; Luthans, 2010; Mullins; 2010).

According to White and White (2006), it is believed that males and females are suited for different occupations because they are stereotyped to possess certain characteristics and personalities. This phenomenon can be described as occupational gender-role stereotyping (Miller & Hayward, 2006). Oswald (2003) indicates that occupational titles commonly linked to males are respected more than the titles primarily linked to female occupations. According to Tinklin, Croxford, Ducklin, and Frame (2005), females are more inclined to jobs with a lower status and lower remuneration when entering the workforce and, therefore, often remain in limited predictable careers. However, regardless of gender distribution within specific occupations, some job descriptions are still perceived to be linked to a specific gender.

In the United States, the number of female accountants has increased considerably in comparison to their male counterparts yet accountants are still stereotyped as being a male occupation (White & White, 2006). Careers entailing clerical jobs, sales, teaching and nursing are traditionally perceived as female occupations (Sellers, Satcher, & Comas, 1999; Watson, Quatman, & Edler, 2002). Scientific or engineering jobs are perceived as male occupations and females employed as scientists or engineers earn approximately 20% less than males who occupy similar positions (Graham & Smith, 2005).

Research shows that physical characteristics also influence how males and females are perceived within occupations. DeBeaumont (2009) claims, that females who are overweight within the sales and services occupations, receive less salary payment than others who do not appear to be so. Furthermore, Masser, Grass, and Nesic (2007) state that females who are pregnant are perceived as warm yet incompetent. The authors further contend that pregnant females who are working in perceived masculine occupations are subjected to more stereotyping than when occupying feminine occupations.

Consequences of stereotypes

Stereotypes about groups may be either positive or negative. Keeping this in mind, stereotype threat, or lift occurs when a negative (or positive) stereotype is linked to performance regarding a domain with which the individual or group identifies strongly (Steele, 1997; Walton & Cohen, 2003). This attitude then alters the task performance of the member of the stereotyped group. Research on stereotype threat and stereotype lift proves that positive stereotypes may enhance individuals' performance, and negative stereotypes may decrease the performance (Ambady, Shih, Kim, & Pittinsky, 2001; Levy, 1996; Shih, Ambady, Richeson, Fujita, & Gray, 2002). Steele (1997) argues that negative stereotypes have an emotional effect on individual performance by increasing anxiety. Conversely, positive stereotypes have a positive emotional effect by enhancing performance and increasing individual confidence while decreasing anxiety (Steele, 1997). Furthermore, according to Walton and Cohen (2003), literature on stereotype lift indicate that when individuals are exposed to negative stereotypes about a different social group than their own, they demonstrate a minor yet reliable increase in their individual performance

levels. Stereotype threat or lift should be considered a “situational modifier” or a “threat in the air”, according to Steele (1997). Thus, it is uncertain in a given situation that any performance (improved or deteriorating) is influenced by stereotype threat or lift.

It may also be the case that an individual’s career and performance goals may be jeopardised due to stereotypes. According to Gupta and Bhawe (2007), stereotypes may potentially influence individuals’ life decisions as well as their vocational choices and this could inhibit individuals from achieving their full potential. Literature indicate that stereotypes reduce career aspirations, particularly towards leadership roles (Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005; Niederle & Yestrumskas, 2009; Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Dittmann, & Crosby; 2008). For example, according to Davies *et al.* (2005), females rarely accept a leadership role when they are aware of existing stereotypes about females occupying such roles. This could discourage prospective employees from applying for a specific job, and may also prevent employees from truly reaching their full potential.

Roberson, Deitch, Brief, and Block (2003) explain that stereotypes may influence employees by making them unwilling to request feedback from their managers. Also, when such feedback is provided, these individuals may not be open to it. Employees should pursue and utilise feedback, which is vital for improved work performance (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Fiske (1998) points out other consequences of stereotypes, for instance, when an individual interacts with others from a different social group, stereotypes about specific groups influence how that individual thinks, feels, and behaves towards those groups. Various researchers also indicate that when individuals believe their group is being stereotyped in a specific way by another group, it influence the interaction between those groups (Vorauer, 2006; Vorauer, Hunter, Main, & Roy, 2000; Vorauer & Kumhyr, 2001; Vorauer, Main, & O’Connell, 1998). Hogg and Terry further contend that in certain situations, when employees experience discrimination due to stereotypes, it can lead to less job satisfaction, lower organisational commitment, greater staff turnover, increased absenteeism, and a decrease in job performance.

It is evident that extensive research has been done on the topic of stereotypes. Nevertheless, research on stereotypes is limited in South Africa, and particularly in the mining industry. The

above literature indicates that stereotypes have an effect on individual employees and the organisation. This qualitative research will therefore be significant, seeing that its aim is to determine the different types of stereotypes that confront individuals within their working environment, specifically the South African mining industry. The study will furthermore explore the ways in which employees experience these stereotypes as well as investigate the origins of these stereotypes. A qualitative research study enables the researcher to explore the thoughts and feelings of individuals who participate in the interviews. In addition, the researcher is provided a means to help understand the participants' point of view. This complies with the aim of the study, namely to explore stereotypes within the mining industry.

Based on the above problem statement, the following research questions have been formulated.

- How are stereotypes conceptualised according to the literature?
- How are stereotypes understood by individuals employed in the mining industry?
- What are the most prominent stereotypes that exist within the mining industry?
- What stereotypes do individuals employed in the mining industry experience about themselves in the workplace? (in-group)
- What stereotypes do individuals employed in the mining industry experience about the occupation they fulfill?
- How are stereotypes experienced by individuals employed in the mining industry?
- What stereotypes do individuals employed in the mining industry hold about other individuals working with them? (out-group)
- What are the origins of stereotypes?
- What recommendations can be made for future research and practice?

1.2 Expected contribution of the study

Currently, in South Africa, there are limited research studies that have been done on stereotypes therefore, the importance of this study. This research study is important within the field of industrial psychology based on three frameworks within the organisational behavioural context.

Through the cognitive framework this study may generate awareness of stereotypes and the effect that they have on the individual and the work environment. Furthermore, understanding how individuals experience stereotypes in the workplace will enable organisations to address these stereotypes and the effect that they have on individuals and the organisation. The effect of stereotypes on the individual may differ because individuals may often provide a different behaviour and different response depending on the environment they are in (behaviouristic framework). Furthermore, this study will contribute to the field by showing how past experiences and past behaviours related to stereotypes may determine what an individual can become and how they think (social cognitive framework). Lastly, this study also forms part of a larger project with the objective of developing an instrument with the aim of measuring stereotypes in the South African context.

1.3 Research objectives

The research objectives are divided into a general objective and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of this study was to explore the experiences of stereotypes among individuals employed in the South African mining industry.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of this research are as follows:

- To determine how stereotypes are conceptualised in literature
- To determine how stereotypes are understood by individuals employed in the mining industry.
- To identify the most prominent stereotypes that exists within the mining industry.
- To identify the stereotypes that individuals employed in the mining industry experience about themselves in the workplace (in-group).

- To determine the stereotypes that individuals employed in the mining industry experience about the occupation they fulfil.
- To determine how stereotypes are experienced by individuals employed in the mining industry.
- To determine the stereotypes that individuals employed in the mining industry hold about other individuals working with them (out-group).
- To determine the origins of stereotypes.
- To make recommendations for future research and practice.

1.4 Research design

This research design consists of the research approach, research strategy and the research method.

1.4.1 Research approach

The present study employs a qualitative research design. According to Shank (2002), qualitative research can be defined as a method of systematic experiential inquiry into meaning. Qualitative research involves an explanatory and realistic approach and this suggests that the researcher studies the object in its natural surroundings, with an attempt to add up and interpret a phenomenon in terms of the connotations that individuals assign to it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In addition, qualitative researchers within the paradigm of social constructivism believe that reality is a human product and develops from human activity, as well as from cultural and social influence (Ernest, 1999; Gredler, 1997; Nieuwenhuis, 2010; Prawat & Floden, 1994). Individuals construct their own meanings of social phenomena, and these meanings are influenced by interaction with others and with the environment in which they live (Creswell, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2010). Individuals may, therefore, be exposed to the same social phenomenon; however the meanings that each person attributes to these phenomena may differ. As a result, multiple realities of the same phenomenon can exist (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). The present study's aim is, thus, to discover the multiple meanings that individuals within the South African mining industry attribute to the phenomenon of stereotypes.

The researcher used a combination between the phenomenological and hermeneutic approach to reach the objectives of this research study. Employing the phenomenological approach gives the researcher an understanding of the meaning that individuals attach to their lived experiences (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012). By employing a phenomenological approach the researcher sets aside her own experiences by truly attempting to capture the participants' experience of a certain phenomenon (Nieswiadomy, 1993). In the present study the focus is on the phenomenon of stereotypes. According to Heidegger (1962) phenomenology and hermeneutics are closely linked, as hermeneutics refers to the interpretation of human experiences. Therefore, by utilising hermeneutics it allows the researcher to comprehend the deeper meanings that individuals assign to their experiences of stereotypes (Frost, 2011).

1.4.2 Research strategy

In this research study, the researcher employed a case-study strategy. According to Yin (2003), a case study strategy should be considered when the researcher aims to answer the questions based on the (a) “how” and the “why”, (b) the behaviour of the participants involved in the study should not be manipulative, (c) any contextual conditions that are relevant to the phenomenon under study should be covered and lastly (d) when the restrictions between the phenomenon and the context is unclear. By making use of a case-study strategy various entities can be studied such as an individual, a group of individuals experiencing a similar issue, one specific intervention, or a specific organisation (Chamberlain, Camic, & Yardley, 2004). For the purpose of this study, however, the focus was on a single mining organisation within South Africa. Although various employees working in different departments formed part of this study, all were employed by one single South African mining organisation.

1.4.3 Research method

The research method consisted of the following aspects: literature review, research setting, entrée and establishing researcher roles, sampling, research procedure, methods of data collection,

recording of data, strategies employed to ensure the quality and integrity of the data, ethical considerations, data analysis and the reporting style.

1.4.3.1 Literature review

A complete review is done focusing on stereotypes in general, as well as stereotypes concerning specific categories: age, gender, racial and occupation. The sources that are consulted are obtained by computer searches through the databases mentioned below:

- Article databases, which include EBSCOhost, ScienceDirect, Emerald, Sabinet Online, and SA ePublications;
- Relevant textbooks;
- Internet-based search engines such as Google Scholar;
- Journal articles from various publications, including the following: *Personnel Psychology*, *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, and *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*.

1.4.3.2 Research setting

The researcher approached a specific mining organisation to take part in this study. This organisation was selected, seeing that it comprises more than 50 employees. After consent was granted from the mining organisation, their employees were also approached for permission to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted at the participants' workplace, where they are likely to experience stereotypes. For the interviews the researcher created a setting with a tranquil atmosphere, conducive to interaction. Although only a single mining organisation was targeted, employees from different departments within the organisation were approached. Thus, participants were as diverse as possible in terms of age, gender, race, department, and their level of employment.

1.4.3.3 Entrée and establishing researcher roles

When conducting a research study, it is important that the researcher fulfils various roles, which will help contribute to the success of the study. The first role the researcher assumes is that of planner and designer whereby she is actively involved in decisions about the research objectives and methodological procedures. As the research study progresses, the researcher fulfils the roles of interviewer, transcriber and analyser. In the case of this study, the researcher is actively involved in data collection and, together with numerous co-coders, acts as analyser of the collected data. During these roles the researcher ensures that she remains free from bias by not allowing personal values and opinions to influence the integrity of the data. Lastly, the researcher acts as reporter, conveying the results of the study and substantiating these findings by recent literature.

1.4.3.4 Research participants and sampling methods

The present study employs a combination of purposive and convenience sampling. According to Trochim (2000), purposive sampling is a method used where participants hold specific characteristics which is known or assumed will affect the subject of the research study. Trochim also states that convenience sampling is when each participant voluntarily accepts participation in the study or where the researcher selects participants based on availability.

According to criteria for inclusion in this research, the focus is on individuals who 1) are working in a specific mining organisation, 2) are able to speak English or Afrikaans, 3) differ according to age, gender, race, as well as department and level of employment; and 4) are willing to participate in the research and are prepared to have their interview tape-recorded.

The population consisted of participants ($N = 15$) from different departments within a specific mining organisations in South Africa. The following variables are represented in the population: male, female, various age groups, and different racial groups (Black, White and Coloured)). A minimum educational level of a post-grade-12 certificate is required of the participants. An acceptable command of the English or Afrikaans languages is essential to complete the interview

successfully. The sample population is meant to be representative of the diverse nature of South Africans.

1.4.3.5 Research procedure

After consent was granted by both the organisation and the employees, the research study commenced. The participants were contacted individually, and each was appointed a specific time-slot for the interview that best suits him/her. The interview venue was private in order to eliminate the risk of any disturbances. The researcher attempted to keep the setting relaxed and familiar so that the participants felt comfortable with their surroundings. The objective and the process of the research study were explained in detail to all the participants before the interviews started off. This ensured that they fully understand the objective of the study. Where necessary, the researcher clarified possible uncertainties or concerns. The participants were informed that the study was completely anonymous and that they are welcome to withdraw from the study at any stage. Participants also grants permission for tape-recorded interviews.

1.4.3.6 Data-collection methods

The study uses a sample size of 15 individuals from a single mining organisation. In the process the researcher employs semi-structured interviews to collect data for this research study. Semi-structured interviews also help researchers to probe and clarify answers given by participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). Qualitative questions based on the research questions are prepared that help to formulate the structure of the questions to be used as a research instrument. An interview schedule is compiled before the interviews begin. Each participant is requested to complete a biographical questionnaire. The researcher makes sure that the participants fully understand the questions. Data collection should be continued, until the topic reaches exhaustion or saturation, that is, when interviewees (subjects or informants) introduce no new perspectives on the topic. The following questions are asked to the participants during the interviews:

- *In your own words, please explain what you understand by the word “stereotype”. (What does the word “stereotype” mean to you?)*

- *What stereotypes do you think exist in your workplace?*
- *Do you think there are any stereotypes about yourself within your workplace?*
- *Do you experience any stereotypes about the specific occupation in which you are?*
- *How do you experience being stereotyped?*
- *What stereotypes do you hold of other people in your workplace?*
- *What are the origins of these stereotypes?*

A pilot study was undertaken with four participants to determine whether the questions are posed and interpreted correctly. An advantage of executing a pilot study is that the researcher may become aware of any cautionary aspects well in advance that could allow the research project to falter or where the proposed methods is not suitable or too complex (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delport, 2011). Researchers' methodological standpoints are prone to influence their intended use of pilot studies in a qualitative research. When conducting a pilot study researchers openly improve and develop research instruments (Gillham, 2000) as well as evaluate the level of observer bias (Hammersley, 1993; King, 1993). Pilot studies are used to structure questions (Ball, 1993), gather additional information and adjust the research approach (Fuller, 1993; Hammersley, 1993). In carrying out the pilot study, the researcher intended to learn about factors that she does not anticipate and which may seem obvious and the least problematic.

1.4.3.7 Data recording

The data was captured by means of a tape recorder and with the consent of the participants. This was done to ensure that the exact spoken words of the participants were captured to be analysed at a later stage. The information (i.e. recorded and transcribed interviews) was safely stored, whilst the identities of the participants remained anonymous.

1.4.3.8 Strategies employed to ensure data quality and integrity

In any qualitative research study the following elements must be considered in order to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings:

Credibility: Credibility addresses the internal validity, where the objective is to establish that the inquiry is executed correctly to ensure that the research subject can be truthfully identified and defined (De Vos *et al.*, 2002). According to Krefting (1991), strategies to ensure credibility can include the authority of the researcher, field experiences, interview techniques, and member checking. The researcher ensured credibility by reporting the findings of this study as the participants experienced it. The help of numerous co-coders were employed to make doubly sure that the reported findings are indeed a clear reflection of participants' experiences.

Transferability: Transferability is the external validity and refers to the degree or extent to which the conclusions of the research data may be transferred to groups other than those in the original study (De Vos *et al.*, 2002). Transferability is almost impossible to achieve in qualitative research projects since the results of a qualitative research study are specifically focused on a small number of individuals or only a single environment (Shenton, 2004). The researcher, nevertheless, made sure to provide sufficient detail of the context and setting of the current research study.

Dependability: Dependability is related to reliability and is also the criterion for consistency. This concept refers to the researcher's attempt to justify changing situations during the research phenomenon and the variations in design (De Vos *et al.*, 2002). To ensure dependability the researcher provides a dense description of the research method and procedure that are utilised in this study (Krefting, 1991).

Conformability: Conformability refers to the objectivity or neutrality of the research approach (De Vos *et al.*, 2002; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This means that no prejudice is evident in the research process and results. This condition was ensured by the researcher who focuses on not allowing her own opinions, beliefs and thoughts to influence the participants or research findings. Both the research process and research results were audited by the supervisor of the researcher to ensure the conformability of the study.

1.4.3.9 Ethical considerations

In order for this study to be considered successful, careful consideration of fairness and the ethical conduct of research was vital. Ethical issues were taken into account such as voluntary participation, informed consent, doing no harm, confidentiality, and privacy. Royse (1991) lists a few ethical guidelines that are important for a research study, and which the researcher of this study adheres to:

- All the participants that are part of the sample in the research are volunteers and are not compensated for participation in the study.
- The researcher ensures that the participants have adequate information about the study and that all risks and benefits involved are clearly understood.
- Withdrawal from the research study is possible at any given time.
- Information retrieved from literature sources are acknowledged correctly.
- Freedom of opinions, respect and non-discrimination is strongly encouraged by the researcher.

Furthermore, permission was required from both the organisation and participants to execute the study. The interviews were tape-recorded with the permission of all the individuals concerned. The identity of the organisation and the participating employees remained private and confidential.

1.4.3.10 Data analysis

Data of this research study was processed by means of thematic analysis. Thematic analysis means that qualitative data is analysed by identifying themes and patterns, which emerge in the gathered data (Frost, 2011). According to Frost the thematic analysis can be used to understand a specific phenomenon. For the present study the phenomenon to be understood is stereotypes that manifest within a specific mining industry. Particularly for this research study, the researcher identified various themes relating to the experiences of stereotype by participants of this study.

The steps of Braun and Clarke (2006) are utilised in conducting the data analysis of this study. These steps will be discussed subsequently.

Step 1: Becoming familiar with the data

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants of the study, after which each interview was transcribed verbatim. After transcribing the interviews the researcher read through the transcribed content to ensure that possible mistakes are minimised. After the transcriptions, the researcher combined all 15 interviews in a single draft. Thereafter, the researcher reviewed the entire dataset (consisting of the 15 transcribed interviews) to familiarise herself with the data. In this way the researcher gained an overall picture of the participants' experiences of stereotypes.

Step 2: Generating initial codes

This step involves the development of codes from the collected data. The coding process used by the researcher was driven by the interview questions posed to each participant. Subsequently, the researcher identified seven codes (in this case categories) and names or labels these in terms of: meaning of stereotypes, existing stereotypes, in-group stereotypes, occupational in-group stereotypes, experiences of stereotypes, out-group stereotypes and origins of stereotypes. This step was done by rigorously considering the raw data and not ignoring data that may seem unimportant or redundant.

Step 3: Searching for themes

From the seven categories identified in step 2, the researcher was able to create preliminary themes within each category. Each category with its accompanying themes and responses are analysed in a separate document. This enabled the researcher to work in a systematic manner throughout, by not confusing the different categories and themes. During the analysis of the data it became clear to the researcher that the information provided by the participants is rich and in detail. Thus, the researcher also created sub-themes and characteristics to describe the data

further. The researcher also created a separate document to isolate responses that does not fit the overarching themes, however before deciding to disregard the information, she moved to the next step as described by Braun and Clarke.

Step 4: Reviewing themes

During this step the themes constructed in step 3 are further refined or processed. The researcher studied the responses, characteristics, and sub-themes for each theme to establish whether these do indeed represent each theme correctly. In this case the researcher also chose to merge themes and sub-themes, or to disregard themes and sub-themes that may seem irrelevant and unimportant. The researcher once again read through the whole dataset. This was done to ensure that all data are indeed coded and that the analysis of each theme is of good quality and done satisfactorily.

Step 5: Defining and naming themes

After the researcher is satisfied with the outline of the themes, she continued with step 5. According to this step, the researcher interpreted the data and its properties, and thereby provided a rigorous analysis of each theme. This was done by lifting out the most important aspects conveyed by each theme. This made it possible for the sub-themes and characteristics related to each theme to be discussed and scrutinised. Where applicable, the researcher made certain inferences about the data, such as to determine the relatedness of themes. This helped keeping the overlap between themes to a minimum. To end this step, the researcher described the content of each theme by means of a few sentences, as can be seen from the findings provided in chapter 2. The labels of themes and the sub-themes provided a clear picture of the content which they reflect.

Step 6: Producing the report

It is of the utmost importance that the reader truly understands and comprehends the findings of this study. Therefore, the researcher took great care to describe the results also in a truthful and

accurate manner. The researcher did not rely only on her own designs when analysing and interpreting the data; she also incorporated numerous co-coders employed in the field of either industrial psychology or human resource management. During this step the researcher reported her findings in a consistent and logical manner, according to the research questions posed in the study. Direct quotes of participants were also utilised to re-substantiate the findings.

1.4.3.1 Reporting style

Themes, sub-themes and – depending on the richness of the data – characteristics, were also extracted from the data. Thereafter direct quotations were used to support the results. Quotes by Afrikaans participants were translated into English by a language practitioner, which ensured that different language groups were able to understand the study findings.

1.5 Overview of chapters

The chapters in this mini-dissertation are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Research article

Chapter 3: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

1.6 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the problem statement and the research objectives are discussed. Furthermore, the research method is explained, followed by an overview of the chapters that follow.

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CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE

STEREOTYPES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN MINING INDUSTRY: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Orientation: Employees within the South African mining industry have different experiences of stereotypes.

Research purpose: The purpose of the study was to explore the stereotypes evident within the South African mining industry and how individuals experience these stereotypes.

Motivation of study: Diversity within organisations may increase the likelihood of stereotypes within organisations, even more so in the South African mining industry. There is previous research on stereotypes; however research on this topic is limited within South Africa and the mining industry in particular. This study will determine the different forms of stereotypes that individuals experience within their working environment.

Research design, approach and method: The study was qualitative in nature and employed a combined phenomenological and hermeneutic approach. The research also made use of social constructivism as a paradigm. A case-study strategy was followed and a combination between purposive and convenience sampling ($N = 15$) was used. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with individuals employed in various departments within a particular organisation in the mining industry. Interviews were transcribed and thematic analysis was used to analyse the data.

Main findings: It was found that participants of this study define stereotypes in different ways. It was also evident that stereotypes exist within the mining industry and that individuals are bound to stereotype other individuals who work in this industry (out-groups). They also experience stereotypes about themselves (in-group). The findings show that individuals experience stereotypes on different levels (i.e. behavioural, cognitive and emotional). Participants indicated further that stereotypes originate from a variety of sources.

Practical/managerial implications: It became clear that employers should accept and promote management of diversity and find solutions in addressing stereotypes within this particular industry. The first step to eliminating the identified stereotypes will be for employers to become aware of the specific forms in which this tendency emerge within the organisation. By providing diversity training to employees, existing stereotypes possibly may be reduced or eliminated, as well as its negative effects.

Contribution/value added: Research on stereotypes in South Africa and the mining industry is limited and, therefore, this qualitative research study proves to be significant. The study determined the various stereotypes that exist and which individuals experience within the South African mining industry, on both the level of the in-group and out-group. The most prominent stereotypes found in this study provide organisations with an indication of the forms that need to be addressed within their organisations.

Keywords: Stereotypes, in-group, out-group, age stereotypes, gender stereotypes, race stereotypes, occupational stereotypes, South African mining industry

Introduction

Post 1994, the Republic of South Africa has experienced immense socio-political change (Cloete & Maasen, 2002). Legislation was developed to bar unfair discrimination and to restore historical inequality. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 is aimed at robustly rectifying the effects of historical unfair discrimination by promoting affirmative action to ensure the “equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce” (Government Gazette, 1998, p. 22). Leonard and Grobler (2006) further state that the transformation outline for South Africa post- 1994 elections, targeted all organisations to make them representative of all South African inhabitants who differ according to age, gender, race, disabled status and sexual orientation. Since the application of the Employment Equity Act, the demography of the South African workforce has changed significantly and as a result it has led to an equal robust importance on the management of diversity in the workplace (De Beer & Radley, 2000).

According to Kreitz (2008), organisational diversity can emerge on a range of different dimensions where no organisation is virtually able to steer clear of heterogeneity. South Africa comprises an interracial, multinational, and multilingual society, and it is improbable that this situation will change in the near future. Once intergroup relationships deteriorate, the prospect of a cohesive South African society will also be at risk (Gibson & Claassen, 2010), hence the importance of diversity management. This form of management includes organised programmes and procedures that are compiled to facilitate the relationship between diverse individuals, and

could foster more effective organisations (Hays-Thomas, 2004). Kandola and Fullerton (1998) argue that diversity should be understood in terms of a scale of visible and non-visible differences, which will include characteristics such as gender, age, background, disability, personality and work style. These characteristics may also play a role in the formation of stereotypes between groups. Negative perceptions of diversity have resulted in stereotypical actions of discrimination in the South African workplace, sequentially creating the problem of skewed working environments. According to Thomas and Chrobot-Mason (2005), the criteria according to which individuals are judged, frequently develop from prejudice and stereotypes, hence judgmental bias takes shape. Bell (2007) further indicate that common stereotypes about performance, characteristics, traits or, abilities of individuals belonging to a specific group, may lead to discrimination in the workplace. Human Capital Management (2006) claim, that discrimination, which may possibly be the result of stereotypes, is a key challenge to promoting diversity in the workplace. This is due to the nature of stereotypes fixed in the behaviour and attitudes of individuals who make up the workforce, including the operational staff and management.

The mining industry is an excellent example of a diverse environment, seeing that this industry strives for a diverse workforce regarding age, gender, race, nationality, sexual orientation, disability and language (Hinton, Veiga, & Beinhoff, 2006). Historically, mining has played a vigorous role in the economic development of South Africa. In the national economy, mining has been the key driver for at least 50 years (Rogerson, 2011). Consequently, the mining industry seems to be an important socio-economic sector to consider for research.

Based on the literature mentioned above, a link becomes evident between diversity and stereotypes in the workplace (De Castro, Gee, & Takeuchi, 2008). Recognising how stereotypes are likely to enter the workplace may provide organisations with adequate information and direction for expanding training programs, which typically focus on stereotypes from the perspective of the observer (Kray & Shirako, 2009). Stereotypes often arise within negatively stereotyped groups and understanding how the organisation is experienced by different groups will enable employers to manage stereotypes more efficiently (Kray & Shirako, 2009).

Therefore, the present research focused on exploring stereotypes within the South African mining industry.

Research purpose and objectives

The general objective of this study was to explore the experiences of stereotypes among individuals employed within the South African mining industry. More specifically, this research study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

- Determine how individuals understand stereotypes within the South African mining industry.
- Explore the most prevalent stereotypes experienced within this industry and analyse the manner in which these stereotypes are experienced.
- Determine the origins of the experienced stereotypes.

The following aspects will be covered: a literature study, empirical study, discussion as well as limitations and recommendations.

Literature review

Theoretical framework

This research study focuses on the social identity theory. According to Hogg, (1995), social identity theory focuses on group membership and behaviour. Hogg and Terry (2000), state that individuals tend to establish some parts of their identities from their respective memberships and interactions within or among groups. Jenkins (2004) claim that social identity is a continuous interaction process between a specific individual and the group to whom they belong (in-group) and also between a specific individual and other groups (out-group). This theory furthermore explain that because individuals define themselves in terms of the social groups they belong to, they are inclined to add more value to their own group than to others. As a consequence, and in

order to achieve a positive self-image, individuals are inclined to attribute more positive aspects to their own group (Arnold *et al.*, 2010).

Conceptualisation of stereotypes

Robbins and Judge (2007) point out that stereotyping occurs when an individual is judged on the basis of perception toward a group to which that individual belongs. Agars (2004) elaborate on this point by explaining stereotyping as the result when an individual applies knowledge consciously or unconsciously, regardless of whether it is true or false, by judging another individual who belongs to that specific group. Furthermore, Schneider (2004) confirms that stereotypes are shaped by attitudes about traits, characteristics, or qualities that are attributed to a group or individuals in a group based on group membership. Other researchers define stereotypes as a generalised belief about a social group (Madon, Gyll, Hilbert, Kyriakatos, & Vogel, 2006).

When stereotyping others, individuals categorise both themselves and others into groups (Kleinpenning, 1993). Gaudet and Clément, (2009) explain that when an individual strongly identifies with a social category or group it is known as an in-group and, conversely, an out-group entails a social category or group with which an individual does not identify. Abbink and Harris, (2012) indicate that in-group and out-group bias has the tendency to perceive one's own group and its members more positively than other groups. According to Tajfel and Turner (1986), the social- identity theory provides an explanation of the relationship between in-groups and out-groups. According to this theory, when an in-group identity is made or becomes salient, individuals often emphasise the characteristics of their group which they deem important. Furthermore, the social-identity theory postulates that when individuals self-define themselves in terms of their social identity, they usually often strive to distinguish their in-group positively from relevant out-groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Tajfel and Turner further argue that group behaviour can only be understood when individuals consider how group members perceive their relationship with their own group, and how members from their own group perceive other groups. Abbink and Harris, (2012) point out in this regard that in-group and out-group bias can increase conflict. This can impede groups to work effectively towards a common goal. Furthermore, the authors confirm that in-group favouritism is stronger than out group rejection when intergroup conflict occurs.

Regarding the nature of stereotypes, the literature provides various reasons why individuals may be less aware of positive stereotypes than negative ones in their judgments. According to Shih, Pittinsky, and Ambady (1999), many individuals may assume that positive admiring merely encourages and empowers people, contrary to harming or stigmatising – which results from negative stereotyping. Positive stereotypes may essentially have positive effects on an individual's physical and mental conditions, which are necessary for increased longevity (Levy, Slade, Kunkel, & Kasl, 2002). Gawronski, Deutsch, Mbirkou, Seibt, and Strack (2008) explain that the elimination of negative stereotypes was set to be the key societal objective. This inevitably made individuals reluctant to see the potential harms caused by positive stereotypes.

To understand why individuals apply stereotypes against individuals or specific groups, it is necessary to examine the origins of stereotypes. According to Gawronski *et al.* (2008) and Weisbuch, Pauker, and Ambady (2009), stereotypes are usually initiated when an individual encounters a member from a diverse social category. Stereotypes are also frequently thought to be activated in the absence of individual information whenever an individual come across members of groups that are different to them (Rudman, Glick, & Phelan, 2008). Blair, Judd, Sadler, and Jenkins (2002) and Freeman and Ambady (2009) argue that the degree to which stereotypes are activated is dependent on various factors such as past experiences, upbringing, social categories as well as the knowledge of the one perceiving the differences. These forms of stereotypes are also frequently based on historical past and racial history rather than on current reality (Matsson, 2005; Sawyer, 2000).

The following stereotypes have been identified over the years: *age, gender, race* and *occupation* (Shani & Lau, 2008).

Age stereotypes

Age stereotypes are defined as discrimination directed at an individual because of his/her lifespan (Bell, 2007). Many stereotypes thrive on references to aging, which is essentially opposing extreme characteristics (Palmore, 1999). Most individuals hold predominantly negative views of aging and very few entertain any positive view (Palmore, 1999). Palmore explains that older individuals are frequently labelled as depressed, senile, sickly and unproductive, yet in

contrast are more likely to be described as happy, wise, reliable and dependable. Older adults have often been branded as being incompetent, having reduced cognitive abilities and acting unappealing, old-fashioned, and resistant to change (Cuddy, Norton, & Fiske, 2005; Robinson, Gustafson, & Popovich, 2008). Van Dalen, Henkens, and Schippers (2010) claim that older employees are seen as unproductive, less flexible, lack physical and mental capacities, and not as willing to learn new technologies.

Various studies have acknowledged the consequence of age-based stereotypes on the performance of older individuals. Hess, Auman and Colcombe (2003) as well as Rahhal, Hasher and Colcombe (2001), state that when older adults are aware of negative age stereotypes, they tend to show shortfalls in their performance on tasks involving memory recall. Hess, Hinson, and Statham (2004) further point out that implied negative age priming of older adults has caused deficits in their memory recall, intensified cardiovascular-stress responses, shown deficits in handwriting abilities, changes in walking speed as well in their will to survive. These stereotypes of older workers may also hold consequences for older employees' attitudes toward their work (Ostroff & Atwater, 2003; Van Dalen *et al.*, 2010).

Younger adults are discussed less frequently than older adults (Zebrowitz & Montepare, 2000). Furthermore, Zebrowitz and Montepare, (2000) found that the subject of stereotyping of younger adults has not been discussed as frequently, seeing that most of the attention is focused on adolescents. Younger adults are usually seen as unprepared for the responsibilities of adulthood. Various researchers such as Gross and Hardin, (2007) and Steinberg (2008) view younger adults as being rebellious, willing to take risks, irresponsible and egocentric. Young adults may not be susceptible to the negative effects of age-based stereotypes because the stigma of being too young has a momentary effect (Garstka, Schmitt, Branscombe, & Hummert, 2004). Luken (1987) made a significant discovery: in literature of the past younger adults were more likely to be stereotyped in social situations that needed moral reasoning and decision making. This is partly the result of the nature of these perceived traits for younger age groups.

Gender stereotypes

Gender stereotyping, particularly in the workplace, has received extensive attention in research and literature. The reason is that gender identity is regarded as an important component of current societal formation (Dietert & Dentice, 2009). According to Kliuchko (2011), gender stereotyping established perceptions or views about males' and females' social characteristics based on their natural appearance. A research study done by Kusterer, Lindholm, and Montgomery (2013) show that argentic/masculine characteristics predispose firm, controlling and self-assured behaviour, such as being self-sufficient, independent and being dominant. They further found that collective/feminine characteristics relate to the concern for the well-being of other individuals, such as being compassionate, interpersonal, sensitive and cooperative. Heilman and Okimoto (2007) point out that on-going stereotypic views of females as nurturing, emotional, and incompetent leadership are still functional. A study done by Fullagar, Sverke, Sumer, and Slick (2003), male stereotypes was characterised by a high need for dominance, achievement, aggression and autonomy, compared to the female stereotypes that was characterised by a high need for affiliation, nurturing and defence.

Furthermore, Elacqua, Beehr, Hansen, and Webster (2009) contend that gender stereotyping of managerial positions has been presented as a potential rationale why females are not well represented at top-level positions. According to Foldy (2006), gender schemas and stereotypes that associate leadership abilities, potential and skills with males is presented as a mental barrier to female's progression in leadership roles. Previous research by Killeen, López-Zafra, and Eagly (2006) has shown that although females may view leadership positions as attractive, they tend to consider these positions as less achievable. Eagly (2007) argue that regardless of female's success in several leadership roles, the persistence of gender-based stereotypes still poses a challenge for many females who wish to attain positions of power. According to Ritter and Yoder (2004), related research suggests that females may possibly decide on a male to fill a leadership position even when the female candidate has more leadership-consistent traits than the male. This effect is instilled on male-typed tasks.

Cabrera, Sauer, and Thomas-Hunt (2009) also add to literature on the consequences of gender stereotypes in the workplace. They apply the concept of role-congruity theory to describe how male and female leaders may be viewed differently in the workplace. Role-congruity theory claims that the allocation of domestic roles to females, and paid-work roles to males, results in males and females actively developing certain skills, behaviours and traits (Cabrera *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, this theory predicts that if a specific male leader role is stereotyped, the consequence would be that female leaders will be inclined to lower their expectations of performance and seek lower evaluation in comparison with male leaders.

The attribution of qualities particularly towards gender becomes a challenge when it begins to produce gender bias (Heilman, 2001). Heilman further argue that attribution produces a perceived lack of suitability which is responsible for many different types of biased judgments about females in the work environment. Smith *et al.*, (2006) establish that females who were reminded of the classic female stereotype of an unproductive, emotional, unreasonable gender type, subsequently avoided performance-oriented tasks. Consequently, if females and males do not live up to the socially prescribed characteristics they are stereotypes by society.

Race stereotypes

According to Roskos-Ewoldsen and Roskos-Ewoldsen, (2009), gender and race have been two of the key elements for recent research. Race stereotypes can be defined as a symbolic categorisation based on an ancestry and constructed according to specific social and historical backgrounds, which is often misrecognised as a natural category (Duster, 2003). Research studies by Mastro, Lapinski, Kopacz, and Behm-Morawitz, (2009) have continually shown that exposure to race stereotypes can lead to real-life consequences by making it more likely that individuals make evaluations about the world and the colour of others. Experimental studies done by Castillo and Petrie (2010) have also found racial stereotypes to have negative effects on the level of trust and cooperation between individuals.

The application of stereotypes in the workplace has focused mainly on the negative characteristics of Black individuals, although it is important to note that both Black and White

show positive as well as negative characteristics (Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008). There are many positive characteristics associated with Black individuals such as being caring and honest and these characteristics are considered great attributes in a managerial role. White individuals are often perceived as deceitful and stubborn which could be considered as liabilities in a managerial role. Tomkiewicz, Brenner, and Adeyemi-Bello (1998) state that Black individuals are often perceived as having less in common with successful managers than their White counterparts. Chung-Herrera and Lankau (2005) further state that these differences may persist, regardless of when Black and White individuals are appointed in the post of managers. Rosette (2008) claim, that being White was accepted as a feature of the prototype for a successful leader. Black managers are usually characterised as lacking sophistication in comparison to White managers. Racial groups hold information about their respective manager's level of sophistication and this potentially explains why there are currently less Black individuals in managerial positions in so far as these positions are perceived as sophisticated, and thus plays a significant role in career advancement.

According to Lin, Kwan, Cheung, and Fiske (2005), Asian Americans are subject to negative stereotypes and discrimination similarly to other racial minorities (Berdahl & Min, 2012). Stereotypes of East Asians have generally advanced in North America to portray this societal group as somewhat competent, emotionless and non-dominant. The view of East Asians as competent, yet cold means that these individuals are valued but disliked, admired but envied (Berdahl & Min, 2012). In comparison to White individuals, East Asians experience lower economic returns on their education (Friedman & Krackhardt, 1997). Furthermore, East Asians are less likely to receive a promotion to a managerial position than White individuals and other racial groups, even in fields such as sciences and engineering, in which this group is actually overrepresented (Berdahl & Min, 2012).

Occupational stereotypes

Occupational stereotypes are defined as the categorisation of groups based on the nature of the occupation they hold (Hebl, King, & Knight, 2006). Within organisations various stereotypes exist about specific occupations. Past studies revealed that individuals hold solid stereotypes

about engineers and accountants (Cory, 1992; Leonardi, Jackson, & Diwan, 2009). According to Ford, Voyer, and Gould-Wilkinson (2000), engineers prefer to work individually and, therefore, avoid team environments. Findings by Coetzee and Oberholzer (2010) show that accounting as an occupation is perceived as better off than the legal profession, however also as having a lower status than occupations in the engineering or medical fields. Another occupation that has to deal with stereotypes is that of sales people. According to Butler (1996), sales people are perceived as dishonest, aggressive and fast-talking. According to Beetles and Crane (2005), stereotypes in the sales field are a continuing phenomenon.

There are also various stereotypes on males and females filling certain occupations. Females are frequently seen as occupying feminine professions, whereas males are seen as occupying more masculine professions (Garcia-Retamero, Müller, & Lopez-Zafra, 2011). Occupational gender-role stereotypes are stimulated when males and females are considered to be more suitable for specific occupations based on stereotyped characteristics and attributed temperaments (White & White, 2006). Males are often seen as businessmen, chairmen, and policemen because in the past these types of positions were almost exclusively held by males (Lassonde & O'Brien, 2013). Although organisations are moving towards equality in the workplace, there still are large concentrations of males in traditional blue-collar occupations such as crafters and labourers and a greater concentration of females in clerical and service industries (Gabriel & Schmitz, 2007).

Regardless of statistics that suggests that the number of females in management positions is on the increase (Mathe, Michie, & Nelson, 2011). Females do still have to contend with significant barriers when aiming to progress up the corporate ladder (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Lyness and Heilman (2006) found that within line-manager (supervisory) jobs, females are evaluated more negatively than males in this type of occupation. This tendency was interpreted as a lack of ability in the female role over against the masculine-type position. Occupational gender-role stereotypes also occur within the engineering/technical field. Such a stereotype threat may make females less motivated to pursue a profession in engineering or science (Park, Young, Troisi, & Pinkus, 2011). According to Logel *et al.* (2009), an analysis of a female engineer's problem-solving abilities showed negative performance results when male counter-parts were present who held sexist attitudes towards females. This is a result where chauvinistic males tend to display elusive cues such as increased dominance, which discloses a negative attitude towards females.

Consequences of stereotypes

According to Derks, Inzlicht, and Kang (2008), the threat of being stereotyped can impact an individual's performance. Stereotype threat, according to Steele and Aronson (1995), can be defined as an individualist perception that someone's performance will confirm the stereotype about the abilities of the group to which the targeted individual belongs. According to Beilock (2008), stereotype threat and performance pressure have both been put forward as rationalisation for poor individual performance in stressful situations. Research on stereotype threat has concentrated predominantly on its debilitating effect on performance. However, recent studies have shown that this type of threat is associated with negative attitudes and psychological well-being (Von Hippel, Issa, Ma, & Stokes, 2011). Stereotypes within an organisation have often been linked to instances of anxiety and stress (Bosson, Haymovitz, & Pinel, 2004). A number of theories in the broader field of literature on stereotyping and stigma suggest that threats of a positive self-image may trigger negative emotions, such as stress and anxiety. These emotions may further impede an individual's performance (Major & O'Brien, 2005; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008).

An awareness of stereotypes can steer individuals away from pursuing specific jobs in an organisation. Individuals may become less ambitious about careers that hold greater risk and rewards such as leadership roles, when faced with ingrained stereotypes (Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005; Niederle & Yestrumskas, 2009; Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Dittmann, & Crosby, 2008). Von Hippel *et al.* (2011) for instance, argue that female employees in male-dominated fields have more negative job attitudes, increased intentions to resign their jobs, and show reduced confidence to reach their career aspirations. Purdie-Vaughns *et al.* (2008) examined an organisation that was promoting a colour-blind policy, instead of openly valuing diversity. This was found to make various racial groups experience a high level of distrust toward and discomfort with the organisation. They further stated that these opinions on diversity may initiate stereotype threat and limit minority group representation in the application pool (Purdie-Vaughns *et al.*, 2008).

Based on the exposition above it is evident that stereotyping is an important topic of discussion and research, which underscores the need for the present research study. It can further be seen that stereotypes are more likely to occur within a diverse work setting, which is certainly the case with the unique South African workforce. Research studies on stereotypes in South Africa remains limited and particularly those covering stereotypes within the mining industry. The present study also aims to create a greater awareness of stereotypes among individuals and organisations in broader society. The objective of this research study, therefore, becomes evident: to explore stereotypes unique to the South African mining industry.

Research design

The research design consists of the research approach, research strategy and research method.

Research approach

The design selected for this research study is that of qualitative research. According to Blumberg, Cooper, and Schindler (2008), a qualitative study acquires more unpredictable information, whereas a quantitative study guides the researcher, and thus limits the opportunity to explore other possibilities. Qualitative research from within the paradigm of social constructivism is based on the notion that this paradigm characterises knowledge as beliefs and mental representations, which individuals use to understand actions and events in the world (Jackson & Klobas, 2008). Individuals impose meaning on the world and their surroundings rather than the meaning being imposed on them (Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2005). Therefore, this study aims to discover the multiple meanings that individuals within the South African mining industry attribute to the phenomenon of stereotypes.

A combination between the phenomenological and hermeneutic approach was used to reach the objectives of this research study. By making use of the phenomenological approach the researcher was able to gain an understanding of the meaning that individuals assign to their daily experiences (Wagner, Kawulich, & Garner, 2012). Through the phenomenological approach the present study focused on the concept of stereotypes to gauge the participants' own belief of this

phenomenon and how they experience it (Creswell, 2012). Phenomenology and hermeneutics have a close relation, hermeneutic phenomenology addresses the life, world and human experience as it is lived (Wilson & Hutchinson, 1991). By making use of hermeneutics the researcher was able to investigate the deeper meanings that individuals assign to their experiences of stereotypes (Frost, 2011).

Research strategy

In this research study, a case-study strategy was employed. According to Yin (2003), case-study research, do not only focus on a single individual or particular situation. When using a case-study strategy this strategy could prospectively deal with up-front to complex situations. This approach enables the researcher to respond to “how” and “why” questions, while also giving attention to how situations are affected by the framework within which it are situated. In the case of this study this framework is the paradigm of social constructivism. For the purpose of this study the experiences of stereotypes within a single mining organisation was studied in-depth.

Research method

As discussed in Chapter 1, the research method consisted of the following components: literature review, research setting, entrée and establishing researcher roles, sampling, research procedure, methods of data collection, data recording, strategies to ensure the quality and integrity of the data; also ethical considerations, data analysis, and the reporting style.

Research setting

A specific mining organisation comprising more than 50 employees participated in this study. Both the mining organisation and employees within this organisation gave their consent to participate in this study. The participants of this study differed in terms of variables such as age, gender, race, department and level of employment.

Entrée and establishing researcher roles

The researcher occupied the following roles during the research study: planner and designer; interviewer; transcriber; analyser and reporter. As a planner and designer the researcher paid attention to aspects such as research objectives and methodology. Thereafter, the researcher was actively involved in collecting and analysing the data. To ensure the trustworthiness of the study, co-coders assisted with the analysing of the data. The researcher further strived to follow an objective and unbiased approach during the entire research process. Lastly, the researcher acted as reporter, conveying the findings of the present research study and correlating it with recent literature on the topic.

Research participants and sampling methods

The sampling method that was used during the present research study was a combined approach consisting of both purposive and convenience sampling. Frey (2000) states that purposive sampling is an effective method to select groups non-randomly based on, for example, attributes such as gender, age, race, and ethnicity. The author continues to describe purposive sampling as a method through which respondents are selected on the basis of their known proportion to the chosen population. Convenience sampling includes participants who are readily available and agree to participate in a study (Frey, 2000).

The criteria that was used for the inclusion of participants in this research targeted individuals who complied with the following prerequisites: 1) working in a specific mining organisation; 2) able to speak either Afrikaans or English; 3) differ according to age, gender, race, department and level of employment; and 4) willing to participate in the research and prepared to have their interview with the researcher tape-recorded.

The population consisted of individuals employed within a specific organisation in the mining industry ($N = 15$) and were chosen from various departments in this company. The sample population is also demonstrative of the nature of a diverse South African society as can be seen from Table 1 below.

Table 1

Characteristics of participants (N = 15)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Race	Black	5	33.0
	Coloured	5	33.0
	White	5	33.0
Gender	Males	7	47.0
	Females	8	53.0
Age	20-30 years	2	12.0
	31-40 years	9	60.0
	41-50 years	4	26.0
Language	Afrikaans	7	47.0
	Setswana	3	20.0
	Afrikaans / English	3	20.0
	English / IsiZulu / isiXhosa /	2	13.0
	Sesotho/ Sepedi		
Qualification	Higher education and training (NQF level 5)	13	87.0
	General education and training (NQF level 3)	2	13.0

Table 1 above illustrates the population group that this research study targeted. More than half of the participants were female (53%), and 47% were males. An even distribution of 33% Black individuals, 33% White individuals and 33% Coloured individuals, were selected in the sample size. More than half of the participants were between the age of 31-40 years (60%), whilst (26%) were between 41-50 years and (12%) between 20-30 years of age. Participants with Afrikaans as first language comprised 47% of the participants, whilst 20% of the participants indicated Setswana as their home language. Most of the participants (87%) had a higher education and training, and only 13% had received only general education and training.

Research procedure

Permission was granted for the interviews by both the organisation and the participating employees. Individual participants were contacted, and times for interviews scheduled. The venue where the interviews were conducted, were private and comfortable, thereby setting the

participants at ease. The researcher introduced herself to each participant and also explained the objectives and purpose of the research study. Participants were informed that the study would be anonymous and that they were allowed to withdraw from the study at any stage. Lastly, tape recorders were used with the permission of participants.

Data-collection methods

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 15 employees. According to Nieuwenhuis, (2010) and Bryman and Bell (2011), semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to pose a series of questions to the participant, yet, still enjoying the latitude to prompt discussion by probing and obtaining clarity from the participants' responses. Qualitative questions based on the research questions were prepared and put to participants. Each participant was also requested to complete a biographical questionnaire. Data was gathered until the data was saturated. The following questions were asked to all the participants during the interviews:

- *In your own words, please explain what you understand by the word “stereotype”. (What does the word “stereotype” mean to you?)*
- *What stereotypes do you think exist in your workplace?*
- *Do you think there are any stereotypes about yourself within your workplace?*
- *Do you experience any stereotypes about the specific occupation in which you are?*
- *How do you experience being stereotyped?*
- *What stereotypes do you hold of other people in your workplace?*
- *What are the origins of these stereotypes?*

A pilot study ($N = 4$) was undertaken with employees from the mining industry to determine whether they understood the questions correctly. Commonly when data is assessed during a pilot study, possible gaps may emerge in the research design (Sampson, 2004). The purpose of the pilot study was to discover any factors that were not anticipated, as well as any potential factors that seemed obvious and least problematic.

Data recording

Tape-recorders were used with the permission of the participants to record the data. By recording interviews, the exact spoken words of participants were captured. Thereafter interviews were transcribed and the transcriptions as well as recorded interviews were stored away safely and securely.

Strategies employed to ensure quality data and integrity

The following four criteria suggested by Curtin and Fossey (2007) were considered while conducting this research study:

- **Credibility (internal validity):** The researcher's goal during the internal validity phase was to ensure that the session was conducted in a manner to ensure that the subject was identified and described accurately. The researcher also gave an accurate account of participants' experiences. Co-coders also assisted the researcher with this process to help ensure objective findings.
- **Transferability (external validity):** This means the degree to which results can be generalised or be applicable in other contexts. Full transferability is difficult to achieve in qualitative research due to the small numbers of individuals under investigation (Shenton, 2004). Nevertheless, the researcher still described the context and the setting of this study in a comprehensive manner.
- **Dependability (reliability):** Dependability is also the criterion for consistency. Data remained stable over time and for differing conditions, seeing that many interviews were scheduled over a period. The researcher also strived for dependability by providing a clear description of the research method and procedure.
- **Confirmability (objectivity):** This refers to the neutrality of the research approach. The researcher strived for confirmability by refraining from prejudice and bias. The researcher's supervisor audited the research process and the results to further guarantee the conformability of the study.

Ethical considerations

The researcher strived to conduct the research fair and by adhering to important guidelines for ethical conduct. Ethical issues were addressed in this research study by means of voluntary participation and informed consent. The conduct of doing no harm, confidentiality and privacy was also taken into account. Permission was acquired from the mining organisation and the employees (participants) to help ensure the successful execution of the research study on ethical level. Furthermore, permission to have interviews tape-recorded was requested from the participants prior to commencing with the interviews. The identity of the mining organisation and the participating employees remained private and confidential, in accordance with the ethical guidelines.

Data analysis

Interviews were transcribed and a thematic analysis was used to process the data. This was done by identifying the themes and patterns that emerged from the collected data (Frost, 2011). Braun and Clarke (2006) propose the following steps to utilise when conducting a data analysis:

Step 1: Becoming familiar with the data

After the interviews were conducted, the data was transcribed into a written form. The transcribed interviews were then reviewed to minimise possible errors. Thereafter all 15 interviews were combined and drafted into a single master document. The researcher reviewed the entire dataset. This was done to familiarise herself with the data and to form an overall picture of the participants' experiences of the various stereotypes.

Step 2: Generating initial codes

During this step the researcher developed codes (in this case, categories) from the transcribed data. The interview questions aided the researcher with the coding process. The researcher identified seven codes and labelled them as follows: *meaning of stereotypes, existing stereotypes,*

in-group stereotypes, in-group occupational stereotypes, experiences of stereotypes, out-group stereotypes and origins of stereotypes. Data that appeared redundant was not eliminated and all the raw data was considered.

Step 3: Searching for themes

Seven categories were identified during the previous step and the researcher created themes within each category. Each category with its respective themes and responses were analysed in a separate document, which enhanced the researcher's systematic analysis of the data. Where necessary, the researcher made use of sub-themes and characteristics to describe the data in more detail. Responses that did not fit the overarching themes were recorded on a separate document. The researcher did not disregard this information outright, but rather moved on to the next step in the process, step 4.

Step 4: Reviewing themes

Themes that were constructed during the previous step, was further refined during the fourth step. The researcher confirmed the responses, characteristics and sub-themes of each theme by thoroughly studying it to ensure correct representation. Thereafter the researcher merged themes and sub-themes, or disregarded themes and sub-themes which she considered irrelevant and unimportant. Finally, the researcher reviewed the entire data-set again to ensure that all the data is indeed coded and the themes analysed satisfactorily.

Step 5: Defining and naming themes

The data and its properties were studied by the researcher to provide a rigorous data analysis. In the process the researcher indicated the most important aspects covered by each theme. The sub-themes and characteristics relating to each theme were discussed in detail and doubly scrutinised. During the analysis the researcher made specific inferences to the data, which included determining the relation of the themes. As can be seen from the findings of this chapter, the researcher described the content of each theme by making use of a few representing sentences.

The labels of themes and sub-themes that were provided gave a clear indication of the content these labels reflected.

Step 6: Producing the report

The researcher ensured that the results of this study are reflected in an honest and correct manner. During the data analysis and interpretation, the researcher also relied on numerous co-coders who are employed in the field of industrial psychology or human resource management. The findings of this study were reported in a consistent and logical manner in accordance with the research questions of this study. To substantiate the findings, direct quotations of participants' responses were used.

Reporting style

Themes, sub-themes and where necessary, characteristics were extracted from the data. Direct quotations were also used to support the research results. In order to take all language groups into consideration a language editor translated the quotes from Afrikaans participants into understandable English.

Findings

The previous section presented the research design of the study, which included the *approach*, *strategy* and *method* of the research. This section describes the results of the analysis that was done on the data. The results will be explained in table format, which will illustrate the specific themes, sub-themes and participant's responses and, where applicable, also their diverse characteristics. At the end of each theme a number is indicated in brackets. This number represents the frequency with which each theme was mentioned, and not the number of participants responding to each theme.

Category 1: Meaning of stereotypes

During the category, “Meaning of stereotypes”, all the participants were requested to provide a description of how they understood the concept stereotype. Most of the participants had a clear understanding of the concept, whilst others required some guidance. The researcher provided this guidance to the participants by means of a basic practical example of stereotypes and how these typically occur. Table 2 below gives an indication of how the participants’ understood the concept of stereotypes.

Table 2

Meaning of stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Response
Categorisation (9)	Accurate/inaccurate	<i>“We assign racial labels to people that does not deserve them.”</i>
	Assign behaviour	<i>“When you place people in a particular box and you assume that everyone in that box is the same or will act the same.”</i>
	Assign characteristics	<i>“... or you have a specific person of a specific group and you take attributes and apply to each and every person in that group.”</i>
	Based on ignorance	<i>“This is due to lack of understanding and people like to categorise something they don’t really understand.”</i>
Generalisation (25)	Accurate/inaccurate	<i>“... so stereotypes means that everyone generalise and that is not always so.”</i>
	Assign behaviour	<i>“... when you take a certain group of people or a person that act a certain way, and thereafter generalise that all similar groups will act the same way ...”</i>
	Based on behaviour	<i>“... it means generalisation on behaviour of a group.”</i>
	Based on country of origin; intellectual ability; education; physical attributes	<i>“... means generalisation on the county of origin, ethnic group, say for instance intellectual capacity or for instance studied at the same university”.</i>
	Based on past experience	<i>“... people cannot have one bad experience with someone and then feel that everyone is like that, e.g. females are poor managers, but it is not like that.”</i>
Perception (5)	Accurate/inaccurate	<i>“You attach a value to someone which is not due to him.”</i>
	Based on behaviour	<i>“The perception that people form about others regarding their behaviour.”</i>
	Based on physical attributes	<i>“In the mining industry one can say when there is a perception that women cannot do a specific task in terms of</i>

Table 2 continues

<i>women in mining ... there is a diverse workforce in mining, you have different generations in terms of age groups; there is a mix race ... ”</i>

Table 2 lists the general themes on the meaning of stereotypes, the sub-themes of the data gathered and the examples of the participants’ responses that were analysed. Various definitions emerged when participants were asked to provide an explanation of the concept stereotype. Below is an illustration of the respective themes and descriptions.

Categorisation: Participants indicated that a stereotype takes shape when one categorises a group of people based on their characteristics. These stereotypes may be accurate and inaccurate, which means that the statement may be true or false. Participants noted that stereotypes occur when you assign behaviour or assign characteristics to a specific group of people and assume that everyone in the group is the same. Participants’ further noted that stereotypes are based on ignorance due to individuals’ lack of understanding of others.

Generalisation: A stereotype is a generalisation about individuals based on certain aspects. These aspects can include behaviour, physical attributes, country of origin, intellectual ability, past experiences and education. This occurs when generalising behaviour is assigned to all group members. These generalisations may possibly not always be a true reflection of the individuals’ true conduct.

Perception: Stereotyping entails a perception formed about people based on physical attributes such as age, gender and race. These perceptions could also be based on behaviour. Perceptions may not always be accurate, which means that perceptions made about others are untrue.

In Table 2 above it is evident that the theme *generalisation* had the most frequencies of 25, and also had the most sub-themes. As can be seen from the table, various sub-themes (such as *accurate/inaccurate*) are shared by more than one theme. This gives an indication that the participants generally assign the same meaning to stereotypes.

Category 2: Existing stereotypes

All the participants were requested to mention what types of stereotypes exist in their workplace according to them. It was evident that the participants recognised various stereotypes in their work environment. Participants either mentioned stereotypes they experience about themselves (in-group stereotypes), or stereotypes that they hold of others (out-group stereotypes) in their workplace. Table 3 below gives an overview of the existing stereotypes the participants pointed out.

Table 3

Existing stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Characteristics	Response
Age stereotypes (25)	Old	Conceited	<i>"The older people feel that they know better than the younger people ..."</i>
		Experienced	<i>"If you are younger the old people will tell you they have been here for years, so you cannot advise them."</i>
		Narrow-minded	<i>"... older people have one-way mindset and not open to new things."</i>
		Not technologically advanced	<i>"... example technology, older people do not want to adapt to new systems, they prefer manual systems."</i>
		Resistant to change	<i>"In terms of change, the older you get the more reluctant you are to change."</i>
		Set in ways	<i>"I think older people are stationery in one position ..."</i>
	Young	Stubborn	<i>"Older people are more stubborn."</i>
		Wise	<i>"In terms of age, people will believe older people are wiser than younger."</i>
		Challenge elders	<i>"... the younger people challenge the older people on new ways."</i>
		Disrespected; inferior	<i>"... when you are a young person in a senior position, you may not receive respect."</i>
		Not hardworking	<i>"The older people say that the younger people do not want to work, they are lazy."</i>
		Open to change	<i>"The younger guys are more for change."</i>
		Technologically advanced	<i>"... the younger individuals are more modernised with technology."</i>
Culture	Sotho; Tswana	Loud	<i>"It's not only Tswana's that is loud but Sotho's as well."</i>

Table 3 continues

stereotypes (5)			
Gender stereotypes (15)	Female	Incapable	<i>"Ladies are not built to work."</i>
		Hardworking	<i>"... there is foremen that says their female artisans and operators are hardworking."</i>
		Not hardworking	<i>"Women do not work hard enough ..."</i>
		Not intelligent	<i>"... women are not as clever as men."</i>
		Poor leaders; poor managers	<i>"... they cannot lead, they cannot manage."</i>
		Undervalued	<i>"I see during meetings, that women will be ignored."</i>
Occupational stereotypes (53)	Engineering: females	Incompetent	<i>"... in the technical field, women cannot do the job."</i>
	Human Resources: females	Readily accepted in occupation	<i>"There is also a stereotype that only women are appointed in HR."</i>
	Mining: Coloured individuals	Undervalued	<i>"I think there are many stereotypes that are going around in the mining industry, in town, and how Coloured professionals are almost side-lined."</i>
	Mining: males	Hardworking	<i>"Men still feel that they are more hard workers than females, the mine is their territory."</i>
	Mining: females	Incompetent	<i>"Women are not competent enough to work in the mining industry."</i>
		Incapable of physical labour	<i>"... the foreman tries to cover it up by saying, they don't have a problem with women, but it is hard work and hard labour, which women cannot necessarily do ..."</i>
		Not readily accepted in mining industry	<i>"... men feel the mine is their world and not the place for women."</i>
	Mining: foremen	Rugby players	<i>"There is also currently a sport/social stereotype. If you look at all the foreman on the mine, they all played rugby previously."</i>
	Mining: open cast mine	Accommodating; caring	<i>"I typically prefer and open-cast mine to an underground because it is more accommodating and caring culture."</i>
Race stereotypes (27)	Black individual	Dominant; loud	<i>"... Blacks are dominant and they are all loud".</i>
		Eager to study	<i>"There are also positive stereotypes where people say, go and look, it is the Blacks that study these days ..."</i>
		Not hardworking	<i>"... the whites always think that the Blacks are lazy."</i>
		Not knowledgeable	<i>"Black people ... they don't know much."</i>
		Not time efficient	<i>"People always tend to say Blacks are lazy, they are always late."</i>
	Coloured	Copy White people	<i>"Coloureds are also seen as, they do as the Whites do, and</i>

Table 3 continues

	individuals		<i>that is why they are just like them.</i>
		Drinks a lot	<i>"Coloureds are drunkards."</i>
	White	Not eager to study	<i>"... the Whites do not want to study anymore."</i>
		Racist	<i>"There are also many Blacks that think all Whites are racist."</i>
Status stereotypes (4)	Geographic location		<i>"... status, where you stay in town ..."</i>
	Upper class	Treated differently	<i>"Especially in this town, those people are on a different level, they are treated differently ..."</i>
		Avoided	<i>"... so people tend to not talk to them because they are on a higher status level."</i>
Work-related stereotypes (11)	Departmental: mining operations	Assertive	<i>"At mining ... they get what they want."</i>
	Departmental: mining operations	Troublesome	<i>"Mining operations is seen as the department with the most problems."</i>
	Departmental: plant	Calm	<i>"At the plant there is mixed – White, Coloured and some Blacks, but they are calm ..."</i>
	Level of employment: high	Conceited	<i>"Management feels that they are better than others."</i>
		Dishonest	<i>"Management is liars."</i>
		Not approachable	<i>"They feel that these people are not accessible to them, they put them on a platform of some sort."</i>
		Not hardworking	<i>"There is a perception that management sits in the office and we should do all the hard work."</i>
		Receive preferential treatment	<i>"In workshops there is a standard of food provided to the groups, but when management comes, they get better food."</i>
	Level of employment: low	Hardworking	<i>"There is also a perception that managements only sits in their offices while we do the hard work in the sun."</i>
		Uneducated	<i>"Frontline employees are uneducated."</i>
	Status of employment: temporary	Excluded	<i>"There are stereotypes against contractors; they are excluded because they are not permanently employed by the company."</i>

Table 3 indicates the themes on existing stereotypes, the sub-themes, characteristics, and the original participant' responses that were analysed. The existing stereotypes that participants mainly perceived entailed *age, culture, gender, occupational, racial, status and work-related* stereotypes. Below is an exposition of the examples of stereotypes the participants considered part of their workplace.

Age: Older employees are seen as conceited because they consider themselves to be more knowledgeable than the younger employees. They are seen as more experienced, though narrow-minded and not technologically advanced. Furthermore, they are seen as resistant to change, set in their ways and stubborn. Older employees are also stereotyped positively as wiser than younger employees. It is believed that older employees disrespect their younger counterparts. Younger employees are perceived to challenge older employees on following new ways. Younger employees tend to feel inferior when they are appointed in senior positions. They are also seen as not hardworking. Younger employees are stereotyped positively as well: as being more technologically advanced and open to change.

Culture: Some participants mentioned that cultural stereotypes do exist in their workplace. For example, it was mentioned that both Sotho- and Tswana-speaking individuals are loud, however, other participants did not elaborate on the specific cultural stereotypes that they know to exist.

Gender: The existing stereotypes mentioned by participants were that females are seen as undervalued and are considered poor leaders and managers. Females are perceived as incapable of doing work and not hardworking. They are also viewed as being less intelligent than males. However, as a positive stereotype, some females are seen as hardworking.

Occupational: Existing stereotypes mentioned are that males believe females should be excluded from the mining industry. Females in the mining industry are also viewed as incompetent. The mining industry is perceived as a man's territory, seeing that males are considered more hardworking than females. Furthermore, females are perceived to be unable to perform physical labour. Females within the technical field (engineering) are perceived to be incompetent, however there is also a perception that only females are employed within Human Resources. Coloured employees are viewed as undervalued in the mining industry. Participants also mentioned a stereotype according to which all foremen within the mine were previously rugby players. All older foreman previously played rugby, hence the participant is of the opinion that rugby players often become foreman within this mining industry.

Race: Existing stereotypes mentioned are that Black people are noisy, not hardworking, dominant and not knowledgeable. They are also seen as not time efficient. However, as positive stereotyping, participants see Black individuals as eager and willing to study. Coloured individuals are stereotyped to drink a lot and copy the behaviour of White individuals. White individuals are stereotyped as racist and not eager to further their studies.

Status: Participants also mentioned stereotypes about the status of individuals. Individuals indicated that one is stereotyped based on the geographic location in which you reside. By geographic location the participants indicated the suburb of the mining town in which employees reside. Accommodation is allocated to employees based on level of work within the company. Hence, participants referred to status stereotypes. Individuals are also stereotyped according to their status level. People who are seen as part of the upper class are treated differently than those from other classes. Participants mentioned that individuals avoid others who are perceived to enjoy a level of higher status.

Work-related: The existing stereotypes pointed out were that the mining department is assertive and troublesome, in contrast to the plant department that are considered a calm environment. Participants also indicated stereotypes between different levels of employment in terms of higher and lower positions in the company. Employees from higher levels are seen as dishonest, not approachable, conceited and receiving preferential treatment, whereas those from the lower levels are seen as more hardworking, yet uneducated. Contractors are viewed as being excluded based on their employment status, for example, permanent versus temporary employees.

The perceived stereotypes that participants reported the most were occupational stereotypes (53), whilst status stereotypes (4) were reported the least. Also, the theme that included the most sub-themes indeed was occupational stereotypes. Most of the stereotypes the participants reported were negative in nature.

Category 3: In-group stereotypes

During interviews the participants were asked to indicate whether they associate themselves with any stereotypes within the workplace. Many of the participants did express the perception that they are being stereotyped themselves. Examples of such in-group stereotypes are provided in Table 4 below.

Table 4
In-group stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Characteristic	Response
Age (6)	Young	Feel afraid	“We are all from different eras and we differ, but sometimes we feel that if you are young and you become an older persons head, you might feel a little afraid.”
		Incompetent	“It could be a result of my age; we are the new generation – there will always be questions in terms of: ‘Can they do it?’”
		Incompetent as manager	“I am a young lady and I have older people reporting to me ... my subordinate felt that I cannot manage her.”
		Inferior	“And there was one of my people that felt that one of my other ladies will be better off below an older person.”
Cultural stereotype (3)			“I think stereotype is linked more to my culture and upbringing.”
Gender (18)	Females	Ambitious	“You females also wants to be bosses ...”
		Compassionate	“A woman is more emotionally in touch with her team mates, that is why she does not want to disappoint them.”
		Expected to work hard	“Men expect women to work much harder.”
		Give preferential treatment to women	“They think because I am a woman I just want to employ women.”
		Hardworking	“I think that women can work harder than men.”
		Incompetent	“... men feel that women cannot do the work...”
		Open to change	“We as women adjust more quickly”
		Poor managers	“... but men still makes remarks like, you women cannot manage.”
		Work hard to prove themselves	“Women should work extra hard before they receive recognition.”
Race (23)	Black individuals	Undervalued	“When a woman says something, a man will not pay too much attention to what she is saying.”
		Noisy	“We are Black and people think we are loud.”
		Feel entitled	“People from my race, Black people, they feel they are entitled to things.”
		Get preferential	“I sometimes get the feeling that the White people think I

Table 4 continues

	treatment	<i>am in this position because of my skin colour."</i>
	Not knowledgeable	<i>"You're just Black, what do you know?"</i>
	Not time efficient	<i>"... another thing, when we're late for a meeting, I will get remarks like 'she is late, African time.' "</i>
Coloured individuals	Drink a lot	<i>"For some or other reason, my colleague assumed I am a heavy drinker just because I am Coloured."</i>
	Undervalued	<i>"I made a statement earlier about Coloured people being side-lined".</i>
White individuals	Dominant	<i>"... and then I feel they think, yes we will not give him his way, they dominated for years."</i>
	Dominate Black individuals	<i>"Blacks always think we as Whites want to dominate them."</i>
	DR church	<i>"I also think my religion – people tend to stereotype – all Whites belong to DR Church."</i>

Table 4 above gives an indication of in-group stereotypes as participants of this study experienced it. Participants were asked to indicate whether they experience any stereotypes about themselves. The themes, sub-themes and characteristics which they mentioned are evident in Table 4. In the analysis sub-themes are substantiated with direct quotes. The main stereotypes included *age*, *culture*, *gender*, *occupation* and *race*. Below an exposition is given of in-group stereotypes, which participants experience in their workplace.

Age: Many young professionals feel inferior, incompetent as well as incompetent as manager; they are afraid and feel incapable within their positions, due to their age.

Culture: Participants indicated that they are stereotyped because of their culture; however, they did not elaborate on this issue.

Gender: Females in this research study state that they tend to feel that they are viewed as undervalued, incompetent and poor managers. They also indicated that they need to put in extra effort to prove themselves in the context of the workplace. Males expect females to work much harder, and some participants stereotyped females more positively and hardworking than males. Females were further viewed as giving preferential treatment to other females. They are also stereotyped positively to be ambitious, compassionate, and open to change.

Race: Black individuals associate themselves with the stereotype of being noisy and not knowledgeable. They are viewed to have a sense of entitlement and are perceived as employees who get preferential treatment based on their skin colour. They are also seen as not time efficient. Coloured individuals associate themselves with the stereotype of being undervalued and considered as heavy drinkers. White individuals are perceived to dominate Black individuals perpetually. White individuals are also seen as dominant and associated with the religious DR denomination (i.e. the Dutch Reformed Church of South Africa). All stereotypes mentioned about the diverse race groups were negative in nature.

The most reported theme is *race* that showed a frequency of 22. Most reported characteristics were negative, although there were some positive statements, for example, that women are more hard-working than men.

Category 4: In-group occupational stereotypes

Participants provided answers on the type of stereotypes within their occupation that they experience in the workplace. These stereotypes are examined in Table 5 below.

Table 5

In-group occupational stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Response
Occupational hygienist (3)	Black occupational hygienist: scarce	<i>"In Occupational Hygiene you don't often get a Black in the field."</i>
Mining (7)	Females in mining: incompetent	<i>"People still think that women cannot do the job, so their behaviour towards women in the mining industry is negative."</i>
	Females in mining not accepted in occupation	<i>"Negative in the sense that they feel women do not belong here."</i>
Human Resources (10)	Comfortable job	<i>"... because we work a lot with people and we do not sit on the mine, people think we have a cushy job."</i>
	Conceited	<i>"People think I tend to feel that I am better."</i>
	Knowledgeable	<i>"People tend to think that I have to know everything based on my occupation."</i>
	Managerial liaison	<i>"Employees sometimes feel we are an extended hand or mouth of management."</i>
	Not hardworking; undervalued	<i>"... they think we do not work, they don't understand how we fit into the bigger picture."</i>
	Professional persona	<i>"What I experience is that people think I try to be a facilitator"</i>

Table 5 continues

	<i>outside the work."</i>
Superior position	<i>"People see this job as we are very privilege than other people, but they do not realise how emotionally draining the job gets."</i>

Table 5 above illustrates the themes, sub-themes and responses of in-group occupational stereotypes, which most of the participants of this study experienced. The main in-group occupational stereotypes experienced included those about *occupational hygiene*, *mining* and *Human Resources*. Below is an explanation of the above-mentioned stereotypes.

Occupational hygiene: Black individuals are seldom appointed as hygienists because a Black hygienist is scarce in the industry. Individuals do not expect Black individuals in this profession within the market.

Mining: Women are viewed as incompetent and they are not accepted within the mining industry. The perceived attitude among many is that they do not belong in mining.

Human Resources: Positions within the Human Resources department are seen as comfortable and superior jobs, however also contradictorily viewed as undervalued. Employees in these occupations are positively stereotyped as knowledgeable. However, some employees in Human Resources are seen as conceited and not hardworking. Individuals hold the perception that Human Resource's employees want to act out of their position outside the work. Human Resource employees are also viewed as the hand and mouth of management, therefore, acting as the managerial liaison between employees and management.

The most reported in-group occupational stereotypes were among Human Resources employees showing a frequency rate of 10. Most of the reported characteristics were negative.

Category 5: Experience of stereotypes

Participants of this study shared with the researcher the various ways in which they experience being stereotyped in the workplace. During the data analysis it became evident that participants experience stereotypes on three levels, namely behavioural, cognitive and emotional.

Table 6

Experience of stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Response
Behavioural effect (7)	Conflict	<i>"It causes conflict."</i>
	Ignore	<i>"... I will just ignore them."</i>
	Laugh	<i>"I laugh about it, I don't care what people think about my job."</i>
	Prove self	<i>"We should continuously prove ourselves."</i>
Cognitive effect (14)	Accepting	<i>"People think what they think, I cannot do anything ..."</i>
	Challenge	<i>"I take it as a challenge."</i>
	Discriminating	<i>"... so they will treat people not fairly based on the stereotype and that's when it becomes an issue for me."</i>
	Incompetent	<i>"When it comes to my work, I sometimes feel very incompetent."</i>
	Negative	<i>"Stereotypes can also make one very negative."</i>
	Offensive	<i>"... sometimes it makes me feel offended".</i>
	Positive	<i>"I see stereotypes as positive."</i>
Emotional effect (21)	Agitated	<i>"I feel very agitated."</i>
	Angry	<i>"I become very angry, but tend to still smile."</i>
	Annoyed	<i>"It really annoys me."</i>
	Calm	<i>"I have to stay calm. I have no emotional connection to it."</i>
	Disappointed	<i>"It really disappoints me."</i>
	Powerless	<i>"It makes me feel very powerless ..."</i>
	Sad	<i>"When it comes to negative and bad stereotypes, it does make me feel, sad, unhappy and I become emotional."</i>
	Sympathetic	<i>"I also feel sorry for the people; because it shows we still have a long way to go."</i>
	Vulnerable	<i>"It tends to make you feel vulnerable."</i>

Table 6 above indicates the themes covering the experience of stereotypes, as well as the sub-themes and the examples of responses that were analysed. The main themes that were extracted entail *behavioural*, *cognitive* and *emotional effect*. Below follows an explanation of the three different levels on which participants of this study experienced stereotypes.

Behavioural effect: Behavioural effect refers to the impact on participants' behaviour when they become aware of being stereotyped. In such instances individuals feel they constantly need to prove themselves, and hence put more pressure on themselves to live up to the expectation of others. Some participants pointed out that stereotypes causes' conflict, whilst others responded that they laugh it off or ignore the person who stereotypes them.

Cognitive effect: When being stereotyped, individuals may choose to react on a cognitive level by having certain thoughts toward the stereotype or the one stereotyping them. Participants do experience stereotypes as negative, offensive and discriminating, whilst others are more accepting towards certain stereotypes. Some participants see stereotypes as a challenge whereas some participants even consider stereotypes to be positive.

Emotional effect: When being stereotyped, participants may experience a variety of emotions. They may experience a sense of anger, get annoyed, or feel agitated. Some feel disappointed, vulnerable and powerless when exposed to stereotypes. Other participants acknowledged that they are sympathetic towards individuals who stereotype them. Furthermore, participants' stated that negative stereotypes sadden them, whereas other participants stated that they remain calm and feel no emotional connection to stereotypes whatsoever.

When individuals are confronted by stereotypes, they experience it on a more emotional level. The frequency rate of this theme was 21 and the most reported sub-themes were also evident within this theme.

Category 6: Out-group stereotypes

The out-group category explains the stereotypes which individuals have of others in their workplace. However, many responses did indicate that not all individuals stereotype others. In this case participants did indicate that they do not like to stereotype others.

Table 7

Out-group stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Characteristic	Response
Age (4)	Old	Resistant to change	"... the older people struggle more with change so, the people that has been here for 20 years does not want to change."
		Rigid	"The older people have comments like: 'If you don't want to adapt to our style, leave.'"
Gender (4)	Males	Don't listen, don't think	"Sometimes I feel that men do not listen to you and they do not think."
		Conceited	"... women feel that men think they always know better."
		Poor with administration	"Probably because there is a lot of admin and in general

Table 7 continues

			<i>men are not good at admin and that is a fact."</i>
		Resistant to change	<i>"So much has happened and men find it difficult to adjust."</i>
Occupational (13)	Engineering	Arrogant; process driven	<i>"Like engineers, I feel that they are a species of their own, they think differently than what I do and they think they are always right. They are more process driven than people driven."</i>
	Mining: platinum and iron ore	Friendly; tough; easy to relate to	<i>"... I find that your iron ore and platinum people are far friendlier, even if they are typical miners and are tough, but they are much easier to relate to than the gold miners."</i>
	Mining: gold mines	Harsh; difficult to relate to	<i>"... gold miners tend to be more harsh and difficult to relate to."</i>
		Not compassionate	<i>"... gold miners do not have compassion and do not have that care as we find in the iron ore mines."</i>
	Mining: open cast	Caring; easy to relate to	<i>"Open-cast mine is not that harsh and I think that is why, it is easier to relate to one another."</i>
	Mining: underground	Tough	<i>"I think underground miners have a more tough environment, so I think people become tough due to their environment that they have to work in."</i>
Race (9)	Black individuals	Stand together	<i>"I have more Black colleagues than Whites and I feel if I give an opinion, they stand together to what one said, regardless if it's right or wrong."</i>
	White individuals	Pretentious	<i>"The stereotype that I hold is that White people are pretentious."</i>
		Friendly	<i>"... some Whites are really friendly."</i>
Work-related (13)	Departmental: production	Results driven	<i>"The people working in production are very production orientated, and they expect everyone to act their way."</i>
	Duration at company	All-knowing	<i>"... they know everything."</i>
		Arrogant	<i>"People that have been here longer think they own the mine."</i>
	Level of employment: high	Conceited	<i>"People in higher positions tend to look down on the lower-level employees."</i>
	Qualification: low	Immature	<i>"The way they understand and approach things and the maturity they handle things in life with."</i>
		Limited perspectives	<i>"People will tend to stick to their frame of reference because it is their reality but they don't see the bigger picture."</i>
		Not sensible	<i>"I don't think people that do not have education can talk sense."</i>
		Undervalued	<i>"If people do not have a qualification, it is difficult for me to listen to their opinions."</i>
	Status of employment: permanent	Not hardworking	<i>"... but when they are permanent then they do not worry anymore."</i>
		Relaxed	<i>"... it is like they feel they can relax."</i>
	Status of employment:	Hardworking	<i>"Temporary employees perform very good."</i>

Table 7 above shows the broad themes, sub-themes and original responses based on out-group stereotypes as mentioned by participants. The themes emerging during the analysis of this category were *age, gender, occupational, race and work-related stereotypes*. Below follows an explanation of the stereotypes that the participants hold about others within the workplace.

Age: Participants viewed older employees as resistant to change and more rigid.

Gender: Males were viewed as not good listeners and people who do not think. They were also perceived as conceited, resistant to change and poor in executing administration duties.

Occupational: Participants viewed open-cast miners as more calm and caring. Miners from underground mines and gold mines were viewed as harsh, not compassionate and tough. Platinum and iron ore miners were perceived in terms of positive stereotypes as friendly, tough and easy to relate to. Engineers were viewed as arrogant and process driven.

Work-related: Individuals in high company positions such as management was viewed as conceited. Employees employed in the organisation for a longer period of time were viewed as all-knowing and arrogant. Permanent appointed employees were seen as relaxed and not hardworking. In contrast, temporary employees were viewed as hardworking. The production teams within the mine were seen as very production driven. Participants viewed people with a low qualification as undervalued and immature. These people were also viewed as having a limited perspective based on a restricted frame of reference and they were further perceived as not being sensible.

Race: White individuals were viewed by participants as both pretentious and friendly, whilst Black individuals were perceived as standing together as one.

The most reported themes in this category were occupational and work-related stereotypes, both with a frequency rate of 13. Most of the perceived stereotypes were negative in nature.

Category 7: Origin of stereotypes

Regarding the category mentioned above, participants were requested to give a detailed explanation of the origin of stereotypes as they see it. Most of the participants provided the researcher with their view on the origin of stereotypes, which is presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Origins of stereotypes

Theme	Sub-theme	Response
Secondary exposure (43)	Affirmative action	<i>"I think the racial aspect is all as a result of affirmative action that was incorporated."</i>
	Apartheid	<i>"The apartheid era all contributed to the current stereotypes we are experiencing."</i>
	Culture	<i>"Our culture plays a role."</i>
	Religion; social interaction	<i>"Your church groups, residence at varsity."</i>
	Tradition	<i>"Tradition also plays a big role."</i>
Subjective Perception (6)	Upbringing	<i>"If there is a certain belief in a family then the children will also grow up believing it."</i>
	Ignorance	<i>"... I think this is due to lack of understanding and people like to categorise something they don't really understand."</i>
	High self esteem	<i>"When you think you are better than others, that's where it all starts."</i>

Table 8 above illustrates the themes, sub-themes and original responses that were extracted when participants were asked to indicate the origins of stereotypes. According to the participants stereotypes originate from either secondary exposure or an individual's subjective perception. Below follows an explanation of the origin of stereotypes as the participants viewed it.

Secondary exposure: This refers to stereotyping when people are influenced by others to do so. In other words, individuals stereotype others but not because of their own experience with a stereotyped group. The majority of the participants linked the origin of stereotypes to affirmative action, the apartheid era and their upbringing. Participants also indicated that culture, tradition, religion and social interaction play a role in the origin of stereotypes as they see it.

Subjective perception: Participants' stated that they are ignorant about others, therefore they stereotype them. Participants further admitted that they tend to stereotype others in order to feel better about ourselves.

The theme with the highest frequency rate was secondary exposure, indicating a rate of 43.

Discussion

Outline of the findings

The overall aim of this research study was to explore the experience of stereotypes within the South African mining industry. The first objective was to conceptualise stereotypes according to the literature. Kassin, Fein, and Markus (2011) define stereotypes as a belief that a specific group of individuals has the same attributes or characteristics. These characteristics attributed to a specific group are believed to differentiate one social group from the other (Jussim, McCauley, & Lee, 1995; Ottati & Lee, 1995). Individuals, therefore, do not only stereotype others but also experience stereotypes about themselves (in-group). According to Judd, Ryan, and Park (1991), individuals tend to judge members belonging to a group differently from their own (out-group). The relationship between in-groups and out-groups can be explained by the social-identity theory. According to this theory, individuals associate themselves with groups (in-group), which reflect certain aspects about themselves. Thus, to enhance their self-esteem, individuals view their own group more favourably than their out-group (Bergh & Theron, 2009).

Furthermore, stereotypic thoughts may and may not give an accurate account of affairs (Cox, Abramson, Lyn, Devine, & Hollon, 2012). Biesanz, West, and Millevoi (2007) postulate, that the length of acquaintance with an individual or group may influence the accuracy of one's stereotypes. They continue to argue: when perceivers are less acquainted with an individual or a group and have less information about the group to make judgments, those judgments are based more on generalised stereotypic knowledge, hence the inaccuracy of such a stereotype. In contrast, some researchers claim that stereotypes may be accurate as well (Jussim, Cain, Crawford, Harber, & Cohen, 2009). According to Hamilton and Gifford (1976), very few

stereotypes contain accurate information; however they claim that when perceivers hold a stereotype that reflects real-life characteristics of a group, the accuracy of such a stereotype may increase.

The second objective of the research study was to determine how stereotypes are understood within the South African mining industry. Common themes that were found were *generalisation*, *categorisation* and *perception*. Most participants' viewed stereotyping as making generalisations about a group of individuals based on aspects such as behaviour, physical attributes, and past experience, to only name a few. The literature supports this finding, and indicates that *generalisation* means overgeneralisation of behavioural and physical attributes for a large number of groups or individuals (Bell, 2007). *Categorisation* of stereotypes according to the literature occurs when specific groups of individuals are placed in roles that demand a specific behaviour. Thus, perceivers are likely to assume that individuals who fulfil those roles have personalities corresponding to those roles (Diekmann & Eagly, 2000). Employees within the South African mining industry confirm that people tend to categorise individuals based on their attributes and behaviour.

Perception was also extracted as a theme during data analysis. According to Beebe, Beebe, and Ivy (2010), perception starts with the process of attending to a stimulus in the environment. Perception is also based on physical characteristics (Weigelt, Koldewyn, & Doehrmann, 2010) and behaviour. Martin, Trego, and Nakayama (2010) found that these categorisations and/or labels assigned to individuals resulted in inaccuracies and prejudice. Furthermore, participants stated that stereotypes can be accurate or inaccurate, which also supports the above mentioned statement. According to Brown (2010), most social scientists have highlighted the inaccuracy of stereotypes. However, Swim (1994) argue that stereotypes are not always inaccurate, much of the evidence illustrates accuracy in many consensual stereotypes, including age (Chan *et al.*, 2012), gender (Swim, 1994) and race (Jussim, 2012).

The third objective of the study was to identify the most prominent stereotypes that exist within the mining industry. These were either in-group or out-group stereotypes. In other words, these were stereotypes the participants of this study experience about both themselves and of others.

When reviewing the findings of objective 3 (existing stereotypes), objective 4 (in-group stereotypes) and objective 7 (out-group stereotypes), repetition across themes was evident. Thus, to avoid repetition when discussing objective 4 (in-group stereotypes) and objective 7 (out-group stereotypes), only the stereotypes with the highest frequency rate were covered and substantiated by literature. The research findings indicate that *age, culture, gender, occupational, race, status* and *work-related stereotypes* were the most prevalent stereotypes that existed within the mining industry. According to the participants' responses in this research study, *age stereotypes* in the workplace are evident, with specific reference to the older employees in contrast to the younger ones. In the literature Simon (1996) support these statements by claiming that individuals of the older-generation workers are commonly seen as disinterested in advancement, working at a slower pace and are considered to be stuck in their ways. On the flipside of the coin, participants of this study viewed younger workers as disrespectful, inferior, and open to change as well as technologically advanced. They also viewed younger workers as not hardworking, in contrast to findings by Lancaster and Stillman (2005) that younger-generation workers are perceived as keen to progress and impatient when there is a lack of promotion opportunities, thus assuming that these workers are indeed hard-working.

Participants related *gender stereotypes* in the workplace specifically to that of the female gender. In general females within the mining industry are seen as incapable, not hardworking, and not intelligent; also as poor leaders and poor managers as well as undervalued. However, through positive stereotyping they are also seen as hardworking. Stereotypes which participants mentioned about females were mostly negative. According to Vinas (2003), however, females are also stereotyped positively as being more open to new ideas, better suited for teamwork and displaying good listening and negotiation skills. Although participants viewed females within the workplace as poor leaders and poor managers, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) state that women's leadership styles are more democratic than men's and, hence, can enhance organisational effectiveness.

Participants mentioned various *occupational stereotypes*, which they believe exist within the mining industry. Occupational stereotypes were the most prominent ones the participants mentioned. Females are generally seen as incompetent and incapable in the engineering field

within the mining environment. However, females fulfilling a function in support services such as the Human Resources environment were readily accepted in these occupations. Females are generally seen to fulfil low-skilled roles, while skilled and more efficient roles are seen as those for male employees. When it is believed that males and females are better suited to occupy certain roles or positions within an organisation it is known as occupational gender-role stereotyping (Miller & Hayward, 2006), which certainly was the case in this research study. According to Moskowitz (2005), in workplaces where females are not represented as well as males mistakes occur less frequently. Therefore, when there is a mishap, it is more readily attributed to females than is the case with males.

Various *work-related stereotypes* were also found within the mining industry such as stereotypes about the level of employment. Individuals employed in higher positions were viewed as conceited, dishonest, not approachable or hardworking, whereas individuals who occupy lower-level positions were seen as hardworking, yet uneducated. According to the literature, individuals in-high level positions are viewed negatively as projecting dominant behaviour such as interrupting and pointing as well as acting with pride and confidence. In contrast, the individuals from lower levels project feelings of vulnerability and insecurity (Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, 1995). The information from the literature can provide a possible explanation for the results of the present study regarding the difference in work-related stereotypes between employees in higher and those in lower posts.

Race stereotypes were also seen as existing within the mining industry. The results of this study indicated that various race groups are stereotyped within the mining industry. Most of the stereotypes mentioned were also of a negative nature. The Black race was stereotyped mostly negatively during this study. This may be due to the history of racism which comes to the fore in the negative stereotyping of Black individuals (Brooks & Althouse, 2000; Singer, 2005). Since the nineteenth century, stereotypic perceptions about Black individuals depict them as intellectually inferior to White individuals (Harrison & Lawrence, 2004). Further nationwide research by Chiricos, Welch, and Gertz (2004) has shown that the public community perceives Black individuals to be involved in a larger percentage of violent crime. Turner (1994) argue that by depicting Black individuals as submissive, primitive, or simple-minded it can be explained

how this attitude can reinforce racial stereotypes. Devine and Elloit (1995) and Smith and Levinson (2012) report that negative adjectives such as aggressive, superstitious, lazy, and ignorant were prevalent during their research. Referring to the present research study, stereotypes that were mentioned were not different than those indicated in the literature, and included adjectives such as unintelligent, loud and poor. According to the literature, such racial stereotypes could damage individuals differently by affecting how managers and co-workers interpret Black employees' attitude, potential for growth and performance (Constantine & Sue, 2007).

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the stereotypes employees in the mining industry hold about themselves (in-group). The research findings indicated that participants hold stereotypes of *age, culture, gender, occupational* and *race* about themselves in the workplace. Race stereotypes were mostly mentioned by participants during this study. These stereotypes were experienced by White, Black and Coloured individuals and it was mostly negative in nature. It is evident from the research findings that overall the participants hold mostly negative stereotypes about themselves in the workplace. According to Tajfel and Turner (1979) individuals feel positive about their own group (in-group) when they draw distinctions between their group and other groups, however the present research found the opposite to be true.

According to Onwunta and August (2007), it is common that most stereotypes will be negative. However, Blum (2004) point out that negative stereotype differ in degrees. For example, Muslims are often stereotyped as terrorists and as fundamentalists. Although both characteristics are viewed negatively in society, it is better to be seen as a fundamentalist rather than a terrorist (Blum, 2004). Similarly, according to Blum (2004), Black people are perceived as lazy and violent, which are both negative stereotypes, but generally it is worse to be perceived as violent rather than a lazy. Although most stereotypes are viewed as negative, there are stereotypes that may be understood as positive (Onwunta & August, 2007). Kristof (2006) explain that individuals on the receiving end of transparent positive stereotypes may not always find such stereotypes to be positive. Cheryan and Boudenhansen (2000) further argue this point: when a positive stereotype creates high expectations on an individual, it can cause worse punishment for the individual if that expectations are not met.

The fifth objective of the study was to identify the occupational stereotypes for the in-group, which individuals working in the mining industry experience. In the research study, participants specifically identified occupational stereotypes regarding mining, occupational hygienists, and employees within Human Resources. The most participants identified stereotypes within the Human Resources field. Individuals working in Human Resources were perceived, among others, as having a comfortable job and being the managerial liaison. Naves (2002) state that HR functions are criticized for not adding value to the business and the HR agents are stereotyped as overstaffed, reactive, not flexible, rule-following and acting as managerial link between line managers and their employees. Based on the mentioned literature, the results of the current research study can be confirmed.

According to the research findings, females are quite negatively stereotyped in the male-dominated mining environment as being incompetent and not belonging in this specific occupation. Whittock, (2002) confirm that male mine workers may even instigate stereotypic beliefs about females by arguing that females are physically and mentally weak to perform the work. Based on this information the negative attitude of male workers towards female workers within the mining environment may contribute to the existing stereotyping of female workers in such a male-dominated context.

The sixth objective of the study was to determine how individuals experience stereotypes in the workplace. From participants' responses it can be deduced that stereotypes can be experienced on a *behavioural*, *cognitive* and *emotional level*. According to Major and O'Brien (2005), stereotypes may result in a number of physiological, emotional, cognitive and behavioural reactions, which also confirms the findings of the present research study. In this study findings show that participants experienced stereotypes mostly on an emotional level. Research by Quinne, Kallen, and Spencer (2010) confirm this finding by indicating that individuals, against whom a stereotype is held, may have an emotional reaction such as anxiety or even concern that they may actually confirm the stereotype through their performance. Buckner (2010) further indicate that anxious individuals can often find that increased vigilance for stereotype threat is followed by an active avoidance of stereotypes in an effort to manage the anxiety of being stereotyped against.

Many participants of this study indicated that they also experience stereotypes on a cognitive level. Participants perceived themselves as negative, incompetent and discriminated against, to name only a few aspects. According to Glomb and Hulin (1997), individuals may react to stereotypes on a cognitive level, because it is not socially desirable to show one's emotions and behaviour overtly when stereotyped within the workplace. Furthermore, research in social psychology has shown that stereotypes can lead to various outcomes such as increased arousal, reduced capacity for working memory and increased emotional suppression that could harm performance in a negatively stereotyped environment (Johns, Inzlicht, & Schmader, 2008; Murphy, Steele, & Gross, 2007; Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). This finding supports some of the research results that participants may feel negative and incompetent.

The seventh objective of the study was to determine the perceived stereotypes about others (out-group stereotypes) in the workplace. The following stereotypes came to the fore during the study: *age*, *gender*, *occupational*, *race* and *work-related*. Occupational and work-related stereotypes were found to be mentioned most when collecting data for this research objective. According to Loosemore and Tan (2000), occupational stereotypes are often predominant in settings where individuals from different occupations are joined to work on a common task such as architects, engineers, and contractors. Participants of this study held various work-related stereotypes and include stereotypes about aspects such as different departments, duration at company, level of employment, qualification and status of employment. According to Wörnisch, Carrell, Elbert, and Hatfield (2015) these aspects can be regarded as either external or organisational dimensions of diversity and are aspects that individuals can modify throughout their lives.

Some participants claimed that they do not stereotype others, whereas many other participants admitted that they do hold some stereotype of others. The literature does provide an explanation for this form of conduct. According to Arnold *et al.* (2010) individuals can be committed in consciously changing their assumptions, perceptions and behaviour towards others. However, Bodenhausen and Macrae (1996) point out that it can work counterproductive when instructing individuals to suppress their stereotypes, because this often cause these individuals to focus more on the stereotypic beliefs they are trying to hold back.

During this study most stereotypes were found to be negative in nature. According to Pettigrew (2008), continuous interactions between individuals of different groups can lead to negative experiences, which in turn provide negative information about out-group members. Lambert (1995) accentuate the fact that out-group members are perceived more negatively, compared to in-group members. Furthermore, Linville, Fischer, and Salovey (1989) indicate that out-group members are seen as homogeneous and as having more negative characteristics than in-group members. This is referred to as homogeneity bias and can be used to explain hostility between social groups.

The eighth objective of the study was to determine the origin of stereotypes. In the study themes that emerged were *secondary exposure* and *subjective perception*. Participants indicated that they are ignorant about others, and therefore stereotype others. It was also found that individuals with a high self-esteem are usually the ones who stereotype. It is significant that participants mostly reported their stereotyping originate from secondary exposure. This means that individuals are influenced by others to stereotype, and not because of direct experiences with a stereotyped group as such. The influences for stereotyping can be affirmative action, apartheid, social interaction, upbringing, et cetera. This finding is supported by White and White (2006) who indicated that societies share beliefs and assumptions about different types of individuals and groups. These beliefs can thus be seen as the collective knowledge of society. Stangor and Shaller (1996) further stress that for socialisation to take place between members of society, they must subtly or explicitly be taught the stereotypes. Psychologists also believe that stereotypes can be formed at any age but are usually established during the early development stage by the influence of parents and peers (McGarty, Yzerbyt, & Spears, 2002).

Practical implications

Certain practical implications can be drawn from the findings. Employers need to become aware of the stereotypes that exist in their organisation. Based on the findings most stereotypes were negative and individuals have preconceived ideas about others based mostly on age, gender, occupation, race and other work-related dimensions. Employers need to address these challenges by possibly accepting the importance of developing a diversity programme/workshop on

stereotypes in their organisation for all levels of employees. This can also be done by establishing focus groups to discuss the various stereotypes found in the study against real-life experiences. Seeing that most of the stereotypes the participants in this study experienced were negative in nature, organisations should address the negative consequences of these stereotypes on the targeted individual or group in accordance with this research study.

Limitations and recommendations

During the data analysis of qualitative research, there is a possible risk of introducing bias into the analysis and interpretation of the results. To counter this, the researcher made use of co-coders, to help reduce the risk of bias during the process of analysing the data. The sample was limited to individuals working in the same mining industry and as such could not be generalised outside the sample frame. The languages in which the interviews were conducted were English and Afrikaans. Some of the participants' first language was Afrikaans and their responses had to be translated from Afrikaans to English. The translation may have influenced the formulation of the responses; however this task was completed by an accredited language editor. Another limitation is that male participants may have withheld certain information, which they could have found uncomfortable to discuss with a female researcher. Similarly, other racial groups may have withheld some information, which they could have found awkward to discuss with a Coloured researcher. Thus, as a result, some participants may not have shared their true experiences with the researcher. During the research study, a tape recorder was used and it could have been possible that some of the participants were reluctant to provide their full views and thus were very selective with their responses. The researcher did however inform the participants that all the data gathered will be treated as confidential.

Recommendations for future research

Various recommendations can be made for future research. More in-depth exploration into the origins of stereotypes will help future researchers gain a comprehensive understanding of the sources of stereotypes. The participants of this study were not asked to indicate stereotypes that relate specifically to their own age, gender or race. Therefore, future studies can be conducted on

these topics. Such a research study will enable future researchers to explore in depth the different age, gender, and race stereotypes the participants experience themselves.

Most of the stereotypes mentioned in this study were of a negative nature. Thus, future studies can benefit from investigating both the negative and positive stereotypes which different participants experienced. Due to the negative orientation of the stereotypes found in this study, it is recommended that future research should include the effect that positive stereotypes have on individual performance within a mining industry.

The present study was based on research within a specific sector of the mining industry. Hence, for future research a larger sample should be considered, which may comprise multiple mining industries where a comparison can be drawn between these industries. Furthermore, for a comparative study in future it will be valuable to include samples taken from other industries – the private as well as public sector.

Recommendations for the practice

According to Roberson and Kulik (2007), managers should acknowledge fully the existence of stereotypes within their workplaces; only then can they take corrective action against these stereotypes. Training programmes should, therefore, be developed and implemented to educate employees about stereotypes, and the impact of stereotypes on employees should be highlighted. Annually, employers should make use of a survey to assess its organisational culture. This survey should include assessment of whether stereotypes are displayed overtly or covertly within the organisation. Thereafter a diversity training programme should be developed and structured around the outcome of the survey regarding the organisational culture.

With regard to the South African mining industry, employers should highlight the importance of this diversity programmes in their organisation. They should emphasise that it is not about “chasing numbers” within the organisation but addressing the diversity issues at hand. Diversity means accepting many different types of individuals who hold differing viewpoints and represents diverse cultures, generations, ideas, and thinking. By including the process to develop

such a programme for diversity training, management's attitude and behaviour can also be changed (Bendick, Egan, & Lofhjelm, 2001). Senior management should also be sensitised on how frontline employees view management's actions and comments.

Conclusion

In closing the chapter, the following conclusion can be drawn from the findings. The findings of this study indicate that participants are aware of the meaning of stereotypes in their workplace. During this study it became clear that various stereotypes do exist within the South African mining industry. It was evident that individuals hold stereotypes about others (out-groups), as well as about themselves and their group (in-group). Overall, the most prominent stereotypes were found to be that of age, gender, occupation, and work-related dimensions which were mostly found to be negative in nature. There were various findings on the origin of stereotypes but the most prominent origin was pointed out as secondary exposure, where participants linked their stereotypes to outside influences. It was also found that employees experience stereotypes on three levels, namely behavioural, cognitive and emotional. The majority of participants indicated that they experienced stereotypes on an emotional level. The organisation whose participants were selected as a sample also serves as a case study for other organisations within the mining industry. These findings can also be operationalised for other organisations and industries within the South African context. From the research findings it became evident that stereotypes should not only be seen as negative but also positive, which hold the prospect of stereotype management and enhancing of positive images in the workplace. Naturally this implies economic gain such as less conflict, better group relations and cohesion in approaching tasks in the workplace. On an idealistic level, the education in such a company on stereotypes can also lead to a culture of stereotype sensitivity that could not only provide unity in diversity in the workplace but also be carried out to the non-work environment and foster a culture where citizens learn to celebrate diversity, which will promote nation building and so forth.

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CHAPTER 3

Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter summarises the main findings of the research and assesses whether the research objectives have been met. The chapter starts off with the summary of the research findings and conclusions that may be drawn from these findings. The chapter concludes by outlining the limitations and making recommendations for possible future research.

3.1 Conclusions

The first objective of the research study was to conceptualise stereotypes according to the literature. Lippmann (1922) was first to introduce the concept of stereotypes to social psychology. He explained it as tiny images that individuals carry inside their head. Schneider (2004) defines stereotypes as qualities which are perceived to be associated with a specific group, or categories of individuals. According to Dimnik and Felton (2006), stereotypes can be described as a collection of characteristics that is used to describe the members belonging to a social group. In this regard Schneider (2004) points out that stereotype are often related to group membership and to denote conflict between various groups. He further states that individuals who do not belong to a specific group (out-group) experience a much stronger and deeper negativity regarding stereotypes that they hold of those groups, compared to the groups to which they belong (in-group). Consistently in the literature the social-identity theory has been mentioned to explain the relationship between in-groups and out-groups. This theory proposes that social groups are critical sources of identity. Individuals have the freedom to consider themselves in a manner that does not link them to any specific group membership. However, based on this theory, society will link individuals to a specific group (Tajfel, 1969, 1970, 1981).

According to the literature, stereotypes are not always perceived as negative and inaccurate (Kassin, Fein, & Martins, 2011). The authors also state that some stereotypes can often be perceived as fairly accurate. In general, stereotypes are only problematic when their inaccuracies are perceived as adverse and intimidating (Burgess, 2003). Stereotypes are often harmless to stereotyped individuals but can lead to prejudice. This will cause individuals to react emotionally and defensive based on their membership of the stereotyped group (Sanderson, 2010).

The second objective of the research study was to determine how employees within the mining industry understand stereotypes. It can be concluded from the study that stereotypes are concepts that are well understood within the mining industry. From the research findings it was clear that when individuals stereotype others, they do generalise, categorise and hold perceptions about people. When describing the meaning of stereotypes, the theme that was most prominent was generalisation. According to Ungerer (2013), stereotypes can be defined as broad overgeneralisations that often lead to perceptions about individuals. These perceptions may be inaccurate and ignore the diversity between social groups. Participants also mentioned that stereotypes can be based on various aspects such as behaviour and physical attributes. Many participants also indicated that stereotypes can be both accurate and inaccurate. For years, stereotypes were constantly defined as inaccurate with no evidence actually demonstrating its inaccuracy (Schultz & Oskamp, 2000). According to Schneider (2004), individuals should not assume that their belief about a group applies to all the members in that group; it is unlikely that all individuals of that group will fit the stereotype. According to Nelson (2009), stereotype accuracy has been assessed by means of discrepancy scores and correlations. Jussim and Zanna (2005) also explain that stereotype accuracy is a matter of degree; it concerns not all or none. The authors' further state that one cannot characterise a belief as accurate if it diverges 10%, and characterise it as inaccurate if it skews 10.1%.

The third objective of the study was to identify the most prominent stereotypes that exist within the mining industry. The stereotypes that were reported by the participants were either in-group or out-group stereotypes. Repetition became clear when considering the findings relating to objective 3 (existing stereotypes), objective 4 (in-group stereotypes) and objective 7 (out-group stereotypes). When discussing objective 4 and 7 only the stereotypes that showed the highest frequency rate were discussed and substantiated by literature in order to avoid repetition. One of the major findings related to objective 3 was that a variety of stereotypes exist within the mining industry. These include those about age, culture, gender, occupation, race, status, and work-related stereotypes.

During the research study most of the stereotypes on age, which related to both older and younger individuals, were negative. The literature supports these findings where Kite, Stockdale,

Whitley, and Johnson (2005) indicate that stereotypes about old age are often negative. A meta-analysis that was done demonstrated that older individuals are perceived as less competent, less favourably evaluated and more negatively treated than younger adults (Kite *et al.*, 2005). The findings of the current research study showed that older individuals were, for example, considered as conceited, experienced, narrow-minded, resistant to change, yet wise. Similarly, research studies found that older individuals were considered slow, useless, unattractive, incompetent and dependent, but also wise, warm and reliable (Kite *et al.*, 2005). Findings from the present study indicated that younger individuals are stereotyped positively as open to change and technologically advanced. This finding is supported by research from Posthuma and Campion (2009), according to which younger workers are viewed (negatively) as less dependable than older workers, whilst also perceived (positively) as more open to change and bound to learn new things more easily than older workers.

The present research found that most of the gender stereotypes were attributed to females and mostly took on a negative nature. Females, according to this study, were viewed as incapable, undervalued, poor leaders, not intelligent and not hardworking. According to Nadler, Berry, and Stockdale (2013), individuals expect females to express communal role-behaviours such as caring, communicative, nurturing and understanding. Nadler *et al.* (2013) further point out that when role expectations are agentic females are often seen as incompetent compared to their male counterparts because females are not perceived to possess the required role skills, characteristics and competencies. Various researchers also state that female managers and leaders who endorse masculine and agentic behaviour by enacting the specific role are perceived by individuals as competent, yet unlikable (Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, & Glick, 1999; Gill 2004; Heilman 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001).

During this research study most of the findings showed that occupational stereotypes were negative and mainly about jobs such as engineers, human resources and mining. According to participants' perceptions females are generally appointed in the Human Resource department but are stereotyped negatively in the engineering field and the mining environment. Particularly female engineers were seen as incompetent. According to Park, Young, Troisi, and Pinkus (2011), these negative stereotypes about females in engineering can demotivate such employees to pursue engineering as a career. According to Heilman (2001), females are often rated lower

than males in specific positions perceived as masculine, which are often upper-level management and male-dominated occupations.

The findings of the present research also showed that stereotypes about race were negative and included misrepresentations of White, Black and Coloured individuals. During this research study White individuals were mostly seen as racist, whereas Black individuals were seen as not hardworking, loud and not knowledgeable, yet eager to be educated. Coloured individuals were perceived as drunkards and trying to imitate White people. Research by Adhikari (2006) and Talbot and Durrheim (2012) found the same stereotypes regarding Coloured individuals. Previous research supports the findings of the present study and indicates that Black individuals are stereotyped as unintelligent, loud speakers, unmannerly and talkative. However, in contrast to the present research findings that Black individuals are eager to become educated, previous research found that they are stereotyped as being without ambition (Allen, 1996; Niemann, O'Connor, & McClorie, 1998). The latter researchers also claim that White individuals are stereotyped as ambitious, practical, and career-oriented, which contradicts the findings of the present study that White individuals are not eager to study.

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the stereotypes that people working in the mining industry hold about themselves (in-group stereotypes) in the workplace. Results indicated that gender stereotypes (esp. of females) and racial stereotypes were the most prominent ones. According to Bobbitt-Zeher (2011) and Prescott and Bogg (2011), females experience the workplace relatively different than males do. It can be concluded that female participants of this research study face a working environment that previously was male-dominated, and thus makes them feel undervalued and incompetent. Females in the study experienced stereotypes about themselves mostly as negative. These include perceptions of being viewed as poor managers or incompetent to perform their work. The literature supports these findings by pointing out that feelings of under-utilisation among females in male-dominated occupations are common (Feyerherm & Vick, 2005); also that stereotypical questions about females' competence make them feel inadequate (Damaske, 2011).

Regarding race stereotypes, the Black population used to be in the minority as far as high-level occupations were concerned. Therefore, they still feel that they are not appointed on merit but due to the colour of their skin. Such a perception becomes evident from the findings of the present study. This may also be the reason why Black individuals are perceived as not knowledgeable. According to Blair (2001), White individuals usually activate stereotypes of themselves as being intelligent, successful, and educated, as well as aggressive, impulsive and lazy. Despite the research done by Blair 13 years ago, one can conclude from the findings of this objective that the stereotypes about Black individuals still remain negative within the mining industry.

The fifth objective of the study was to identify the occupational stereotypes about the in-group, which individuals working in the mining industry experience. Most participants identified stereotypes about individuals working in the mining and human resources environment. Stereotypes of Human Resource employees were found to be both positive and negative. Participants indicated that the Human Resource employees are knowledgeable, yet not hardworking and are viewed as the managerial liaison between management and the frontline employees. Previously, the mining industry was a male-dominated environment and this could be the reason why females are still seen as incompetent and are not easily accepted within this environment (Graham & Smith, 2005), as can also be seen from the results of the current research study. According to Damaske (2011), females often move from male-dominated, to female-dominated occupations mainly because of gender stereotyping and discrimination against females in previously male-dominated occupations. Loosemore and Tan (2000) state that occupational stereotypes often occur in circumstances where individuals from various occupations work together on a shared task. These occupations include for example architects, engineers and contractors on construction sites. Mandy, Milton, and Mandy (2004) add that occupational stereotypes may occur due to a lack of understanding of various professional careers.

The sixth objective of the study was to determine how individuals experience stereotypes in the workplace. It was found that they experience these on three levels, namely, behavioural, cognitive and emotional. During this study, most participants experienced stereotypes on an

emotional level and most responses were of a negative nature. This is not surprising, seeing that most of the stereotypes that individuals reported were negative as well. According to Marx and Stapel (2006), when individuals become aware of being stereotyped they give indications of feeling more agitated and anxious. This was also the case in the present study. Furthermore, Bossom, Haymovitz, and Pinel (2004) point out that when individuals do not explicitly report their feelings towards stereotypes, they may display nonverbal signs such as anxiety and tension. Researchers claim that the effects of suppressing negative feelings towards stereotypes can have a measurable effect on individuals' cognitive functioning (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Richards & Gross, 2000).

The seventh objective of the study was to determine perceived stereotypes about others (out-group stereotypes) in the workplace. Most out-group stereotypes were found to be predominantly negative. Onwunta and August (2007), confirm this finding by illustrating that most stereotypes of various social groups are mostly composed of negative qualities. Mostly occupational and work-related stereotypes relating to out-group members were evident during this study and also were perceived mostly as negative. These occupations include those of engineering and mining. According to Smith *et al.*, (2006), when individuals repeatedly engage in formal task-related interactions and not in regular informal social talk, it actually reduces individuality and increases the possibility of stereotyping. Also, when individuals engage in the process of stereotyping, such individuals have to cope with the rational complexity of work together with others who are unknown to them (Fiske, 1993; Macrae, Milne, & Bodenhausen, 1994). Therefore, if individuals make an effort to interact with colleagues on a more social and informal level, they may be less inclined to rely on the attributed occupational stereotypes.

Participants also mentioned various work-related stereotypes that are held of out-group members and included for instance stereotypes related to different departments, duration at company, level of employment, qualification and status of employment. These aspects are viewed as either external or organisational dimensions of diversity and are aspects that employees can change throughout their lives (Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2015). Some of the participants also indicated that they do not like to stereotypes others. However, according to Bodenhausen and Macrae (1996), individuals are inclined to focus even more on stereotypes if others have

instructed them to suppress their stereotypic thoughts. Thus, it turns into a counterproductive process.

The study's eighth objective was to determine the origin of stereotypes. Findings concluded that participants see the origin of stereotypes mostly as a result of secondary exposure. These entail the following; affirmative action, apartheid, culture, social interaction and upbringing. Secondary exposure can be explained as the process through which individuals turn to stereotyping because they are influenced by others to do so. According to Walther, Nagengast, and Trasselli, (2005), when individuals of a minority group are regularly perceived as part of a negative social framework, it is highly likely that evaluative conditioning processes would produce stereotypical mental associations with the specific groups and their members. Rydell and McConnell (2006) found that these associations accumulate over time, for example, during social interaction, and eventually become embedded in one's belief system over time. Therefore, individuals are often influenced by others to stereotype, and thus not necessarily as a result of their own experience of the stereotyped group.

3.2 Limitations

There are several limitations to this research study. These will be highlighted briefly. The population group that the researcher selected was from within a single organisation within the mining industry and could therefore not be generalised outside the sample frame used. The sample size was small and could therefore also limit the generalisation of the research study. Thematic analysis was used: a method that can lead to an extremely subjective interpretation of the data. By using this method, the interpretation of the data solely relies on the researcher. However, in the present study the researcher utilised co-coders to assist with the analyses of the data. Some of the participants' home language was neither English, nor Afrikaans and, therefore, problems could have surfaced during the interview process where participants possibly did not understand the interview questions. The interviewer was a female, also a factor that could have affected the responses of male participants. Male participants may have been uncomfortable to share their experiences with a female researcher. In addition, as Coloured female researcher, other racial groups may have experienced some discomfort in discussing information and may

even have withheld some information such as sharing real experiences with the researcher. The use of tape recorders can also be considered a limitation to the study. Although participants were aware that they were being tape-recorded, it may have led to more favourable answers from the participants, and cause them to be less at ease.

3.3 Recommendations

The recommendations below are aimed at future research and practice.

3.3.1 Recommendations for future research

For future research, it is recommended that a larger population within the mining industry be investigated. Moreover, if qualitative studies are done in the future, individuals for the interviews should be selected who show similar characteristics to the researcher. This will eliminate an uneasy and uncomfortable atmosphere. Future research should also investigate the possibility to conduct interviews in the participants' home language. This will allow the participants to understand the questions fully and would thus eliminate potential confusion and misunderstanding.

A different approach in methodology could be investigated, such as conducting a quantitative study through online surveys and questionnaires. Another possibility is a combined approach of quantitative as well as qualitative nature, or the so-called mixed research design. The researcher could use questionnaires and online surveys to gather data but also organise focus groups of selected participants (sample) to corroborate the findings. In this way the stability and objectivity of the data is guaranteed but the researcher also has the freedom of personal interaction for an interpretative approach. The most prominent stereotypes found in this study were the following five: age, gender, occupation, race, and other work-related issues. The researcher recommends that future research studies should be focussed specifically on the above mentioned five prevalent stereotypes within both the mining industry and in other industries. It became clear from the findings that stereotype management is not all about reducing and working against negative stereotypes but also concerns building on and strengthening positive stereotyping. This

avenue can be researched further with a view to a program for functional stereotype management in the workplace. The technical know-how leading from the empirical findings of the present research study, can be refined to construct an HR instrument that could focus on variables (researched empirically), which could reduce negative stereotypes (misrepresentation) and enhance and promote positive stereotypes in the work environment. Such an instrument focusing on stereotype management does not only have to be applicable to South African industries. It can be restructured for usage in HR industries worldwide where a diverse workforce is encountered.

3.2 Recommendations for the practice

The research results showed that stereotypes do exist within the mining industry. The impact of this condition on employees can be severe, and as mentioned by participants in this study, this impact is mostly negative. Organisations should begin countering this impact by breaking down, recognising, and help curb stereotypes by means of sessions for team dialogue. Dialogue may possibly reduce stereotypes as individuals are provided with an opportunity to get to know each other better in the workplace. It may also reduce prejudice by teaching employees about misrepresentation of information. The organisations should assess and work towards eliminating stereotypes by the following changes: cultivate respect and appreciation for others' differences; consider what each employee has in common with others; avoid making assumptions or creating labels; develop empathy for others; and educate employees about different cultures and groups.

Another recommendation is that the organisation set up a strict code of conduct regarding the use of derogatory comments or jokes as well as sexist innuendos. Organisations can initiate diversity programmes for all employees with a special focus on stereotypes. Strategies can be employed to help reduce stereotype threat by encouraging managers and employees to talk explicitly about stereotypes to those who could potentially be threatened by such misrepresentation (Kray, Thompson, & Galinsky, 2001). Training programs on diversity should be designed to change the attitude of management and of the operational staff to arrest behaviour towards stereotypes within the workplace (Bendick, Egan, & Lofhjelm, 2001).

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