

### 3.1.3. Community of Residence

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### 3.1.3. Community of Residence

In our review of communities of residence of miners, we found issues related to miners, miners' families, the mining communities, and the mining industry. Communities of residence refer to the communities' miners typically reside in, communities developed in relation to a mine site, or communities close to a mine site. Corporate social responsibility (CSR) relates to economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that a society has for an organization (Carroll, 1979). Carroll (1979) described how CSR can benefit a business by reducing costs, strengthening their reputation, building a competitive advantage for the company, and creating a situation where both the company and the community receive an advantage.

The question that guided our search of the literature was: What do mining communities of residence look like?

#### Method

A scoping review of the literature was undertaken using a formal and informal search. The initial formal search was conducted using the following key words:

1. Miners (miners OR mining OR "mining industry" OR "mining communities" OR "mining community" OR "resource extraction") and,
2. Demography (community OR residence OR home OR "mining communities" OR "remote communities" OR demography OR age OR sex OR gender OR "cultural background" OR immigrant OR aboriginal OR "fly in fly out" OR "drive in drive out" OR "community of residence")

**Search Strategy.** The databases searched are listed in the results. From this search, we selected articles based on the inclusion/exclusion criteria. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were kept broad in that we did not specify the types of research methods to be included or excluded in order to capture as many research articles on the topic as possible. In our search, we collected articles that were pertinent in this topic area. The broad inclusion and exclusion criteria allowed us to explore the literature in this area more completely, see Table 1.

*Table 1. Communities of Residence Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria*

Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Articles with key terms in the title or abstract</li> <li>• Peer reviewed</li> <li>• Within 5 years</li> <li>• English language articles</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Editorials</li> <li>• Commentaries</li> <li>• Book reviews</li> </ul>

**Screening Strategy.** From this search, we selected articles based on the inclusion/exclusion criteria in Table 1. Then, we collected articles that were pertinent or generalizable to this topic area. We screened the articles first by title and abstract. Those articles that were selected for further review were read in full. A summary of all articles was prepared and reviewed for applicability to the study by two individuals. Only those articles deemed to be related to the topic under study were included, see table 2.

Table 2. *Communities of Residence – Number of Articles by Database*

Database	No of articles found from search	Articles Selected for Review	Final article selection
Academic Search Complete and Nursing and Allied Health	31	59	27
CINAHL	2		
Engineering Village	18		
Grey Literature	4		
Medline	5		
PsycInfo	7		
Sociological Abstracts, CBCA Business and Education	10		
Scopus	2		
Web of Science	3		
dEmbase	5		
Nursing and Allied Health	2		

## Results

A brief summary of each article including its location, population studied, main issue addressed, comparison group, and primary outcomes is provided in Appendix G. Table 2 demonstrates an overview of the scope of the review.

**Description of Included Articles.** Table 3 provides an overview of the types of publications, country of publication, and populations studied.

**Description of Identified Factors.** In order to make the results easier to describe, the articles were divided into four categories: miners, mining families, mining communities, and mining industry.

Table 3. *Communities of Residence – Population Information and Type of Study*

Type of Research	Country of Publication	Population Studied
Secondary Analysis of Data (6)	Australia (13)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mining Communities or communities near mines (9)</li> <li>• Mining commuters (4)</li> <li>• Miners (4)</li> <li>• Mining companies (senior managers) (2)</li> <li>• Mining families (2)</li> <li>• Temporary foreign workers (1)</li> </ul>
Qualitative interviews (4)	Canada (7)	
Phenomenological study (2)	USA (4)	
Case studies (2)	Brazil (1)	
Ethnographic study (1)	Bolivia (1)	
Chat forum analysis (1)	Malawi (1)	
Mixed methods (1)		
Non-research papers		
• Discussion papers (5)		
• Literature reviews (2)		
• Descriptive analysis (1)		
• Program evaluation (1)		
• Mining report (1)		

**Miners.** Four studies were identified that related to miners. Two studies discussed women in mining, and two studies discussed mine workers who commuted to the mine site. Miners face challenges, especially female miners. Two studies discussed women in mining. Using qualitative analysis of personal and/or phone interviews of retired miners and their family members, Lucas & Steimel (2009) suggested women miners do not have the physical capability to handle the crude atmosphere in the mining industry.

The researchers were concerned about the possibility of sexual harassment in the work place, and they concluded women were unfit for the mining industry. This qualitative study identified the perceptions many people have of the ability of women in a traditionally male role. In an ethnographic study of women in mining, Rolston (2010) found that women who cultivated an alternate “way of being,” such as a tomboy status, had an improved work life than women who behaved in a more traditional feminine style. This study illuminated the difficulty women face in this male-dominated work place. The study analyzed everyday talk through radio conversations as a means of understanding women’s experiences. These two qualitative studies suggested the work of mining was not suited to women.

Two articles discussed fly-in/fly-out or drive-in/drive-out (FIFO/DIDO) mining operations. Perring, Pham, Snow and Buys (2014) interviewed one female and six male fly-in Australian miners between the ages of 20 and 59 years in order to explore their attitudes towards on-site recreational activities and the impact it had towards facilitating a sense of community within mining towns. Perring et al. concluded these recreational facilities and activities were important for fostering the miners’ sense of well-being and sense of community, and fulfilled an important aspect of their social-emotional needs, thereby enhancing their work-life experience within mining towns. This article highlighted the importance and value of recreational facilities and activities towards enhancing miners’ quality of life. The limitations of this article are small sample size and lack of representation of fly in/ fly out miners in terms of gender, ethnicity, and background. The authors made some references to psychological sense of well-being, but they did not assess the miners’ psychosocial states. More research should be conducted on the effects of fly-in, fly-out (FIFO) and drive-in, drive-out (DIDO) work placements.

Major and Winters (2013) interviewed five university-educated immigrant professionals and six high-school educated mine laborers and tradespeople from Newfoundland to gain their perspective of “community” while living in Fort McMurray, an oil industry town. The authors found there is an insecurity with having your identity so closely linked to the work and the industry, the miners become dependent on that industry for their livelihood; and, if political or economic forces change, there could be a reduction or loss of work and livelihood. Thus, the authors reported it became difficult for miners to plan their lives, to develop ties to and engage in the community, and to put down roots. The researchers also found the difficulty caused by shift work and contract work needed by the industry made it difficult to become involved in the community, and they were less likely to voice health and safety concerns.

***Mining Families.*** Six studies were identified that focused on mining families. Four studies investigated the impact on families when one member works away from home, and two studies investigated families in remote communities. Four studies were related to FIFO/DIDO workers and their families. Three studies identified family stressors related to one member working away from home. Sharma (2009) examined the literature related to the wellbeing of families of male mine workers in remote mining communities and determined atypical work schedules, limited availability of resources, higher alcohol consumption of workers, and miners spending leisure time with work mates symbolized a patriarchal culture which marginalized women, strained marriages, and impinged on the social and emotional health of the children. Sharma suggested health workers take into account the negative impacts of mining work on the family members.

In a qualitative study of family services workers perceptions, Wray (2012) explored the effects of migratory work on family life. Commuting can cause stress and family breakdown (Wray, 2012). Wray described mining community culture as a product of the community and the mine. He concluded educational programs involving individuals with strong coping methods, local support networks, and women's groups located within the community would help to alleviate some of the family stressors and enhance family coping before family services needs to get involved. Pini and Mayes (2012) researched the emotional relationship of FIFO families by reviewing 513 chat postings through nine separate broad topics on the "Mining Families Matter" website from February 2010 to December 2011. The total number of visitors on the website was 120,000. Analysis of this chat forum suggested a supportive nature of FIFO families and a need to suppress their emotion to fulfil the gendered requirement of the mining industry. The findings suggested that FIFO family members feel sadness and loneliness when miners are away from home (Pini & Mayes, 2012).

One article identified positive family coping with one member working away from home. McKenzie and Hoath (2014) found workers who had a long distance commute and their families represented a small amount of the population in the two areas studied, and that the families do not necessarily suffer due to this work arrangement. As well, there was no evidence these workers wasted their money once arriving back home. The key factors to ensure a healthy family of a worker who works away from home are community embeddedness, stable family, and supports (McKenzie & Hoath, 2014). McKenzie and Hoath identified emotional, psychological, and social stressors inherent in this type of work such as: Regular disruption to intimacy and family routine; income disparity; and, lack of social interaction. This research relied on anecdotal evidence and self-selected interviews from two regions in Australia, but it provided useful information about the home community for FIFO workers and how families have learned to cope with spousal absences (McKenzie & Hoath, 2014). In a comparison of two communities in Australia with employees that fly-in to a workplace, McKenzie, McKenzie, & Hoath (2014) found the benefit is employees can live where they want to and not leave their community. They also found challenges related to separation from family and friends for a period of time such as potential loneliness or isolation, and a disruption to leisure and work patterns.

Two articles discussed the impact on families living in a remote community. Sharma (2010) analyzed the literature and 2006 census of Australian mining towns in order to investigate the impact of living in a mining town for female partners of miners. Social impact assessments were done in order to investigate the social structures these women faced in terms of psychological problems, life satisfaction, social support and socialization into mining towns, employment opportunities, domestic role, and the dominance of men in mining towns. The researchers concluded the women's psychological and relationship wellbeing was impacted given the social structures they faced. The researcher suggested how women experience their life and community will have an impact on the home life of miners and therefore their sense of wellbeing at home and work. The limitations of this study were women were not interviewed directly and parameters of the literature search were not indicated making it difficult to assess the quality of the search. The researchers stated there was little research on the topic spanning over the past 10 years, and the most recent article was published in 2009. Sharma found men dominated the

community and women were at risk for violence against them from within the community so tended to stay home; thus they were less socially integrated and had less social support. As well, Sharma stated they were marginalized through the structures and processes of mining work and were at greater risk for mental health problems.

In a qualitative phenomenological study with women married to miners in a remote mining community, Lovell and Critchley (2010) identified the impact of mining work, isolation, culture, and social environment on their wellbeing. They found women did not feel isolated or depressed and may even have taken a controlling role in the community; however, they faced issues with childcare, education, and medical specialist services. Lovell and Critchley recommended improvements to medical service provisions, child care facilities, public space rejuvenation, financial support for community groups, and social integration projects for new families.

***Mining Communities.*** Thirteen articles discussed mining communities including the different types of communities, the impact of a mining operation and migrant workers on an established community, and the role of the mining corporation in the community. One study described three different types of mining communities. Through case studies, Cheshire, Everingham, & Pattenden (2011) provided three examples of communities in Australia close to a mine and how the mine impacted community life. According to the authors, the involvement of the mine in community life depended on whether the community existed prior to the mine operation. In one example, the town developed as a result of the mine opening, and the mine initially had a significant role in infrastructure; over time, a local government developed and policing/schooling was provided by the state. In another example, multiple mines were opened around a community; they provided funding support but local government provided the infrastructure; however, they found local government would have liked more support due to the increase in population as a result of the mining operations. In the third example, a remote town near a FIFO mine was separate from the nearby mine, and there was no involvement in funding or community governance. The limitations of case study examples are that they are difficult to generalize to broader communities and may not be applicable to other countries. This is relevant to Saskatchewan mining because Saskatchewan has all three examples of mining communities. A further study of individual communities in Saskatchewan may provide more relevant information.

Five articles described the impact on an established community. In a qualitative study, Hossain et al. (2013) conducted twelve workshops in areas of Queensland that had new mining and coal industry incursions into the area. They found a negative impact on the community mental health and wellbeing due to higher cost of living, low housing availability, strain on healthcare services, and overall sustained stress due to these factors. Ivanova & Rolfe (2011) used an input-output analysis to estimate what impact a mine would have on the local economy using information from Australian state statistics. The authors stated an input-output method provided a point in time picture of the economy at any given time. Through this method, they predicted the mine would improve the local economy if people were employed from the area, if the mine attracted supporting businesses, and if people were willing to move there rather than fly-in or drive-in. The article is based on two case study areas in Australia. The authors identified that it was difficult in these cases to determine who was fly-in or drive-in and who lived in the community. This

would be an important relationship to know when analyzing the local economy. As well, case studies may not be generalizable to other mining communities. The authors didn't specifically state what the impacts were at the time, but predicted what the impacts might be in the future.

In this review of Australian statistics, Blackwell, Fischer, McFarlane, and Dollery (2015) found mining has contributed to income leakage or gain in communities of residence. By allowing workers to commute from other areas, mining allows income to leave the local area thus does not benefit that area especially in rural and remote areas (Blackwell et al., 2015). Blackwell et al. found larger centers gain employment income by providing the workers for remote mining sites. Markey, Ryser, and Halseth (2015) used staples theory to frame a grounded approach to understanding the impact of long distance labor community (LDLC) on the family and community dynamics and the capacity of community organizations. Through surveys and interviews, they found LDLC impacted household responsibilities, time with friends and neighbors, and the sense of community. In terms of LDLC impact on the community, there was a loss of membership in community organizations and groups, the age and gender of community groups were changed, and volunteerism and engagement in community groups and community group revenues were negatively impacted. The authors found the community responded by employing a number of recruitment strategies such as being flexible in terms of group operations, restructuring, and scheduling. This article highlighted the impact of LDLC on a worker's home, social, and community life; and, the impact of LDLC on the community. The authors suggested more investigation into the impact LDLC has on safety engagement behavior at home and in the community, and the social responsibility mining companies have to contributing to the quality of their worker's home life and the sustainability of the community.

One article discussed the impact of migrant workers on a community. Foster and Taylor (2013) interviewed 27 foreign workers in the Rural Municipality of Wood Buffalo, Canada, and most were from India or the Philippines with some from the Middle East, Russia, and North Africa; most of them worked in the trades related to the oil industry, and most lived in work camps close to the mining site. They reported the region is challenged to build a community and a sense of social cohesion by integrating tens of thousands of diverse people. They identified the barriers these foreign workers face at integrating into the town culture include: discrimination, cultural differences, language differences, adapting new environment, precarious residency, precarious employment making them dependent on employer, limited rights and a lack of knowledge about their rights, restricted employment mobility and rights, contradictory identity of being non-citizens, and living in work camps far away from the community. Foster and Taylor suggested all of this created a sense of anxiety and affected engagement with community.

Seven articles were identified which related to corporate social responsibility (CSR). Mine owners and employees can play a significant role in communities close to a mine site. Perkins (2012) summarized services provided by specialized FIFO/DIDO workers in the remote mining industry which can be helpful to the career development and educational opportunities of the local community members. These workers can help in quality improvement initiatives through training, mentorship, technical expertise, supervision, and education; and they can have various roles in the community including those with executive responsibilities. Campero and Barton (2015) called for a mandatory social license for

resource industries regulated by governments which would result in a commitment of the industry member to support local development initiatives that address basic needs, quality of life, and community issues. To date, these commitments have not been mandatory; however, the authors stated there are benefits to requiring industry members to make a commitment to the local community.

Not only does mining provide economic prosperity to a community, but it also puts a strain on community functioning. Applying resilience theory to a mining community, Wasylycia-Leis, Fitzpatrick, and Fonseca (2014) found a large-scale mining company impacted – both positively and negatively – the resilience of a community in Brazil. They identified three ways to improve mining governance and its impact on the community: local government needs more power over corporate decisions, the municipality must create a sustainability plan for potential loss of the mining industry, and all three parties – the municipality, the local government, and the mining corporation – must commit to cooperation. The suggested taking action to build resilience and sustainability will improve a mining community's wellbeing.

Que and Awuah-Offei (2014) emphasized the importance of community consultation and acceptance in order for mining projects to be sustainable and successful; and past practice has been to use varying qualitative approaches to mixed levels of success. These researchers explored McFadden's discrete choice theory to understanding consumer behavior; and they identified two key determinants that impact on community support of mining: the characteristics and environmental impact of the mine, and the demographic factors of the community. Based on four research studies, Que and Awuah-Offei created a list of social, economic, environmental, and other variables that would determine a community's acceptance of mines. They proposed a framework for community consultation using choice theory as a base which included seeking quantitative feedback on: preferred development options, willingness to pay for options, and attributes of options and demographic factors for community support within the process of identifying stakeholders, planning, consulting, monitoring and evaluating and documenting. They acknowledged future research needs to occur but this article is important to guide mining companies' qualitative consultative process.

Heisler and Markey (2012) examined the use of corporate social responsibility (CSR) benefits in northwestern BC, and they determined resource companies are more likely to distribute benefits to communities which are in a position to support their operations, and the government can strategically select who will benefit from an industry's CSR benefits. Therefore, communities with more political leverage will see more benefits than those with no apparent leverage, such as rural and remote communities (Heisler & Markey, 2012). Kamlongera (2013) critically examined mining in Malawi. He stated mining companies, government, and local communities should be partners in decision-making and selection of corporate social responsibility initiatives that are most relevant to the local community. Bice (2013) examined corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives at the community level and found the decentralizing of CSR initiatives can result in gaps between the corporate intentions and the community level implementation lacking best practice and long term results. Bice suggested CSR should contribute to community independence and self-determination rather than taking a paternalistic approach to community development.

***Mining Industry.*** In a document predicting the workforce needs of the mining industry in North America, Brandon (2012) predicted future problems in accessing appropriate human resources. He suggested an improvement in processes and automation within mines would be the result. He also predicted the nationalization and an increase in the commodity prices of minerals. The document is a secondary source. The information was derived from primary data sets and future projections were applied. Although this article alerts mining companies to the potential deficit of qualified employees in the next 20 years, it is limited to the strength of the prediction made. This article raises questions regarding the social and economic impact of mining in Saskatchewan. Brandon suggested there may be more education and incentives related to mining labor thus increasing prosperity in Saskatchewan.

In a document written by the Mining Industry Human Resources Council/Saskatchewan Mining Association (2011), the authors predicted the industry will need to hire 15,000 employees in the next decade, doubling the current workforce in the following areas: trades, professional, human resources, technical supervisors, and others. MIHR/SMA projected the increase in human resource needs over the next decade and predicted a substantial gap between that number and the available resources. They used historical data and predicted future results. As with the previous document, forecasting is not always adequate to determine needs; however, this provides a heads up to the mining industry in Saskatchewan. Perkins (2012) explained the general skills mining workers needed in remote mining sites where limited resources are available to local mining communities. He mentioned a strategy to recruit long term labor in remote mining communities and their contributions for the sustainability, productivity, and quality of services to local workers.

Nelson, Scoble, and Ostry (2010) described the mining sustainability challenges faced by the mining industry in north-central British Columbia, Canada, as well as sustainable development opportunities within the social setting of the Mt. Milligan mining project. They recommend a social capital approach in order to identify “the mine community characteristics and the means by which mine development can best enhance the health and resilience of these communities.” (p. 172). They stated there is little evidence social capital theory had been applied to planning, developing, and sustaining mining sites, and investigating the feasibility and impact of using social capital theory to plan, develop, and sustain mining sites may be beneficial to mining companies.

## **Discussion**

This scoping review looked at the communities of residence of miners. We found issues related to miners, miners’ families, the mining communities, and the mining industry. Mining tends to be a male-dominated profession and the work of mining continues to be suited to the physical capabilities of men (Lucas & Steimel, 2009). Women do become miners but are more successful and receive less harassment if they behave like “tomboys” (Rolston, 2010). The mining industry reports are predicting a lack of qualified employees in the next decade (Brandon 2012; MIHR/SMA, 2011), therefore the work of mining may need to be altered to include the physical capabilities of women. As well, incentives such as recreational activities and social opportunities (Perring et al., 2014), may help recruit commuters to remote communities.

Miners may live in a mining community or have to fly-in, fly-out (FIFO) or drive-in, drive-out

(DIDO) and live at the mine site for a period of time. There are both benefits and stressors related to FIFO or DIDO mining. Working away from home may put stress on both the miners and the mining families. Mine families may suffer emotionally, socially, and psychologically; and both miners and mining families may experience a lack of family support (Sharma, 2012; Wray, 2012; Pini & Mayes, 2012). Living in a remote mining community has its drawbacks as well with a lack of services and supports for the miners and their families, remote mining communities tend to be more patriarchal, and women can become marginalized (Wray, 2012). If FIFO/DIDO workers come into the remote community, they may feel isolated.

Mining corporations may have an impact on the surrounding communities. They may bring in miners resulting in income loss; the cost of living in the community may increase, and services may be strained by an influx of workers (Hossain et al., 2013). Mining corporations may also benefit a community by providing economic prosperity (Ivanova & Rolfe, 2011). An investment in the wellbeing of the community through corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives can benefit both the corporation and the community (Perkins, 2012, Heisler & Markey, 2012). They may provide technical expertise to remote communities, support infrastructure, and become involved in governing of a community.

Workplace safety should be considered as a first priority in the mining industry. Female miners are more prone to suffer from sexual harassment which needs to be addressed in order to enhance their workplace safety. To enhance safety engagement in FIFO and DIDO miners, more focus should be given to recreational activities to maintain work-life balance and wellbeing, and to reduce loneliness. Medical service provisions, child care facilities, public space rejuvenation, financial support, and social integration projects can provide better support to remote mining communities. Safety initiatives geared towards the negative impacts of the mining work on the family members should be taken in account. This may include educational programs and career development guidance for mining family members to alleviate some of the family stressors. Foreign workers in remote mining communities require more attention to ensure their safety, such as attention towards discrimination, cultural differences, and language differences necessary to adapt to the new work environment. Higher cost of living, low housing availability, strain on healthcare services, and overall sustained stress due to these factors in remote mining community should be address to enhance workplace safety.

**Gaps in the Literature.** There is a lack of comprehensive and cohesive research on miners, their families, and community resources or services as it relates to their sense of wellbeing, their physical and mental health and the impact of this on their engagement with safety behavior at work, at home, and in the community. The few articles that were found provide a glimpse for what miners may experience at home and in the community but the sample size is very small and not representative of all miners making it difficult to draw comparisons and to make generalizations. This comprehensive literature search highlights the need for research on the topic of female miners, fly-in and fly-out miners, their families, their sense of place in the community, the community resources and services that are available for miners and the type of health and mental health issues they face and how that affects safety behavior.

**Recommendations.** The following recommendation for industry arose from this scoping review:

- Workplace harassment policies should be in place to ensure female miners are supported.
- For FIFO and DIDO miners, create a positive work/life balance by ensuring recreational activities are on site.
- Corporations should support community initiatives in nearby communities to ensure healthy workers and families.
- Programs and policies related to foreign workers addressing education, discrimination policies, and language and cultural differences are needed.

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