

2021

Estimating the magnitude and risk associated with heat exposure among Ghanaian mining workers

Victor Fannam Nunfam
Edith Cowan University

Kwadwo Adusei-Asante

Eddie van Etten
Edith Cowan University

Kwasi Frimpong
Edith Cowan University

Jacques Oosthuizen
Edith Cowan University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworkspost2013>



Part of the [Public Health Commons](#), and the [Sociology Commons](#)

[10.1007/s00484-021-02164-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-021-02164-3)

This is an author's accepted manuscript of: Nunfam, V. F., Adusei-Asante, K., Van Etten, E. J., Frimpong, K., & Oosthuizen, J. (2021). Estimating the magnitude and risk associated with heat exposure among Ghanaian mining workers. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 65(12), 2059-2075.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-021-02164-3>

This Journal Article is posted at Research Online.

<https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworkspost2013/10525>

Estimating the magnitude and risk associated with heat exposure among Ghanaian mining workers

Victor Fannam Nunfam^{a, b *}, Kwadwo Adusei-Asante^a, Eddie John Van Etten^a, Kwasi Frimpong^{a, c}, and Jacques Oosthuizen^a

^aEdith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia, Australia

^bCentre for Languages and Liberal Studies, Takoradi Technical University, Takoradi, Western Region, Ghana

^cGhana Institute of Management and Public Administration, Accra, Greater Accra Region, Ghana

Acknowledgements

This manuscript is part of a PhD research project at Edith Cowan University. The authors appreciate the enthusiasm and informed consent demonstrated by the study participants and mining firms during the research. We further recognise the support of the Edith Cowan University Higher Degree by Research Scholarship for the provision of a PhD scholarship and the Human Research Ethics Committee of Edith Cowan University (Project Number 17487) for ethical approval

Present address of corresponding author:

Victor Fannam Nunfam

[REDACTED]

Perth, WA 6027

Australia

Email address: [REDACTED] v.nunfam@ecu.edu.au

Telephone: [REDACTED]

Email address of co-authors

Kwadwo Adusei-Asante: k.adusei@ecu.edu.au

Eddie John Van Etten: e.van_etten@ecu.edu.au

Kwasi Frimpong: k.frimpong@ecu.edu.au

Jacques Oosthuizen: j.oosthuizen@ecu.edu.au

ORCID of authors:

Victor Fannam Nunfam: 0000-0002-4572-0904

Kwadwo Adusei-Asante: 0000-0002-1343-8234

Eddie John Van Etten: 0000-0002-7311-1794

Kwasi Frimpong: 0000-0001-5021-7804

Jacques Oosthuizen: 0000-0002-1589-5957

1 **Estimating the magnitude and risk associated with heat exposure among Ghanaian**
2 **mining workers**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Many occupational settings located outdoors in direct sun, such as open cut mining, pose a
6 health, safety, and productivity risk to workers because of their increased exposure to heat.
7 This issue is exacerbated by climate change effects, the physical nature of the work, the
8 requirement to work extended shifts, and the need to wear protective clothing which restricts
9 evaporative cooling. Though Ghana has a rapidly expanding mining sector with a large
10 workforce, there appears to be no study that has assessed the magnitude and risk of heat
11 exposure on mining workers and its potential impact on this workforce. Questionnaires and
12 temperature data loggers were used to assess the risk and extent of heat exposure in the working
13 and living environments of Ghanaian miners. The variation in heat exposure risk factors across
14 workers' gender, education level, workload, work hours, physical work exertion, and proximity
15 to heat sources were significant ($p<0.05$). Mining workers are vulnerable to the hazards of heat
16 exposure which can endanger their health and safety, productive capacity, social well-being,
17 adaptive capacity and resilience. An evaluation of indoor and outdoor Wet Bulb Globe
18 Temperature (WBGT) in the working and living environment showed that mining workers can
19 be exposed to relatively high thermal load, thus raising their heat stress risk. Adequate
20 adaptation policies and heat exposure management for workers are imperative to reduce heat
21 stress risk, improve productive capacity and the social health of mining workers.

22

23 **Keywords:** Adaptation strategies, Ghana, Heat exposure, Mining workers

24 **1. Introduction**

25 In general, excessive heat exposure risks have been identified in many occupational
26 settings, including agriculture, oil and gas, construction, manufacturing, firefighting, military
27 and mining (Dutta et al., 2015; Xiang et al., 2014). The risk of heat exposure denotes the

28 likelihood of heat-related hazards (e.g. illness and injury) to workers as the consequence of
29 heat exposure in an occupational setting (see Aven & Renn, 2009; Nunfam & Afrifa-Yamoah,
30 2021). The health, safety, productivity and social well-being of various workers in these
31 occupational environments are increasingly under serious threat due to extreme heat exposure.
32 The impact of heat-related illnesses, injuries, and reduced productivity among workers due to
33 workplace heat exposure is being aggravated by the current trend of rising heat stress in Ghana,
34 which some scholars have arguably attributed to global warming and climate change
35 (Kjellstrom et al., 2016a; Kjellstrom et al., 2016b) related to anthropogenic-induced increases
36 in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (United Nation Framework Convention on Climate
37 Change (UNFCCC), 2010). Under conditions of GHG-based global warming, intensifying
38 temperature and perhaps increasing relative humidity (RH) outdoor workers are more
39 frequently exposed to excessive heat events, of longer duration during the hot season in tropical
40 areas. The need to combat excessive heat exposure as a global risk phenomenon to
41 environmental well-being and human subsistence, including workers, has been expressed in
42 the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Leal Filho et al., 2018; United Nations
43 (UN), 2015).

44 The global climate is increasingly experiencing hotter and humid conditions, especially in
45 the tropical and sub-tropical regions of the world. Notably, since the 1850s, average global
46 temperature has increased by 0.6 ± 0.2 °C and is anticipated to further escalate by between 1.4
47 °C and 5.8 °C in 2100 (IPCC, 2014b; WMO, 2021). Furthermore, on the continent of Africa,
48 the average temperature has increased by approximately 0.7 °C since 1850s and is estimated
49 to increase more rapidly during the remainder of the 21st Century (IPCC, 2014a). Similarly,
50 Ghana is characterised by high temperatures with the average annual temperature variation
51 ranging between 24 °C to 30 °C and yet temperatures can be as low as 18 °C and high as 40
52 °C in the southernmost and northernmost parts of Ghana, respectively (Asante & Amuakwa-

53 Mensah, 2015). Following the 1960s, Ghana has experienced an average increase in
54 temperature of 1.0 °C, which is expected to increase further to 2.0 °C by 2050 (Government of
55 Ghana, 2013, 2015). Changes in temperature and humidity are critical variables in assessing
56 the extent of human heat exposure risk and its implications for human comfort, safety, health,
57 productivity, and social well-being (Kjellstrom et al., 2016b; Steadman, 1984). High humidity
58 and temperature conditions hamper the body's natural thermoregulation response and
59 subsequent increases in core body temperature. Under extreme heat exposure conditions when
60 the human body exceeds its tolerable heat range (35 - 37 °C) it loses its temperature regulatory
61 capacity of sweating, which is a life-threatening condition (Crimmins et al., 2017). The health
62 risk to individuals is exacerbated through the added effects of dehydration and if the high
63 thermal load continues during the night. This is particularly relevant in a developing world
64 context where people do not have access to adequate air conditioning at night and so they
65 remain under heat stressful conditions, even while at rest (Arundel et al., 1986; Kjellstrom et
66 al., 2018).

67 The mining industry has significantly contributed to socioeconomic growth and
68 development in Ghana. The sector has increasingly served as a key source of generating
69 internal revenue, foreign exchange and employment in Ghana (Bank of Ghana, 2018; Ghana
70 Revenue Authority, 2018). The large-scale mining (LSM) sector, which is dominated by
71 multinational organisations, recorded increased employment from 10,503 workers in 2016 to
72 11,628 in 2017 (Ghana Chamber of Mines (GCM), 2018). The small-scale mining (SSM)
73 sector is commonly operated informally by local people with inadequate technology. The SSM
74 sector directly employs an estimated one million people and has provided indirect support for
75 nearly 4.5 million people (McQuilken & Hilson, 2016).

76 Considering the importance of the mining industry to socioeconomic development, the risk
77 of occupational heat exposure to workers as heat stress levels at workplace intensifies due to

78 global climate change should not be marginalised. LSM activities are conducted under well-
79 managed occupational health and safety management systems which require workers to wear
80 restrictive protective clothing for extended work shifts in hot and humid work environments
81 either under the sun, close to heat radiating operational equipment or underground. SSM is
82 informal with scant regard for the occupational health and safety of miners, it is also commonly
83 characterised by heavier physical work as processes are not mechanised, workers also often
84 have limited access to water and medical care. However, these miners generally work less
85 hours and wear cooler clothing. During the summer months all Ghanaian miners work under
86 hot and humid conditions and generally their living environments are also hot, thus they are
87 not afforded an opportunity to cool down adequately at night. Mining workers in tropical
88 developing countries like Ghana are more vulnerable to heat exposure and SSM in particular
89 are faced with adaptation barriers (Nunfam et al., 2020). The consequences of this include, but
90 are not limited to, heat-related illnesses, injuries, mental impairment, reduced productive
91 capacity and social ill-health. Occupational heat stress also diminishes mental concentration
92 and increases the risk of accidents and injuries (Bridger, 2003; Ramsey, 1995; Richards &
93 Hales, 1987).

94 In the context of Ghana, few local studies have focused on investigating the trend and
95 impact of heat exposure risk on outdoor workers in a given locality (although an exception is
96 the study of farmers in Bawku East of Northern Ghana by Frimpong et al., 2017). Notably,
97 local knowledge of the risk and magnitude of heat exposure in the working and living
98 environment due to increasing temperature and relative humidity on mining workers in Ghana
99 is not available. Moreover, the extent of heat exposure risk and impact may vary according to
100 the type of workers and their background characteristics (Nunfam et al., 2019b; Nunfam et al.,
101 2019c). The consequence of this can be inadequate execution of suitable and effective heat
102 exposure policies in occupational settings (Parsons, 2009). Occupational heat exposure risk is

103 expected to increase as global temperatures and other climate change effects intensify
104 (Kjellstrom et al., 2009). Therefore, the essence of this study to incorporate local perspectives
105 of heat exposure magnitude and risk is worthwhile (Alexander et al., 2011; Klein et al., 2014;
106 Orlove et al., 2010; Riedlinger & Berkes, 2001). There are several scientific, ethical and
107 practical justifications for our considerable use of local knowledge in this study. Scientifically,
108 local knowledge of heat exposure risk contributes to our understanding of the patterns and
109 variability in such risks across the globe and help fill gaps in critical observational data needed
110 for climate change analysis (Roth, 2004; Turnbull, 2002; Wilbanks, 2002). From an ethical
111 viewpoint, personal experiences of heat exposure risk at the local level are a significant source
112 of data for discourse on and evaluation of climate change impacts (Brace & Geoghegan, 2011;
113 Burningham & Obrien, 1994). Understanding people's perceptions of climate change based on
114 heat exposure magnitude and risk from a practical perspective is relevant in providing suitable
115 and locally based social protection, adaptation and mitigation strategies (Becken et al., 2013;
116 Yaro, 2013). Consequently, the study sought to assess the magnitude and risk of heat exposure
117 in the working and living environments on mining workers in the Western Region of Ghana.
118 The study also aimed to test the hypotheses that there is no significant difference in heat
119 exposure risk factors among the demographic and work characteristics of mining workers.

120 **2. Methods and materials**

121 *2.1 Philosophy and study design*

122 In the context of the post-positivist research paradigm, the descriptive cross-sectional
123 survey approach was deemed suitable in this study to assess the research problem. Hence,
124 complementary data from several sources, including survey and self-reported responses from
125 workers, and measurement of heat exposure via temperature and humidity data loggers, were
126 used to describe the magnitude of heat exposure and its attendant risk on mining workers in
127 Ghana at a point in time (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Mertens, 2015).

128 *2.2 Study setting, population, sampling procedure and sample size*

129 The study was conducted in the former Western Region (now redemarcated as Western
130 North and Western Region) of Ghana, a region well-known for both SSM and LSM operations.
131 An estimated population of over one million mining workers comprising those directly engaged
132 in SSM (McQuilken & Hilson 2016) along with 13 LSM companies that employed 11,628
133 workers in 2017 (Ghana Chamber of Mines (GCM) 2018). Purposive sampling was used to
134 select eight out of an estimated 177 SSM operators and five out of the 13 LSM companies if
135 they were willing and interested to participate in the study. Given the selected mining
136 companies, a sample size of 384 mining workers comprising various categories of age, gender,
137 educational level, and job position were randomly selected to participate in the study after
138 expressing their interest and consent (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). The study yielded a response
139 rate of 83.3% because of retrieving 320 out of 384 questionnaires from SSM (161) and LSM
140 (159) mining workers. Survey participants were selected if they were literate (i.e. able to read,
141 write and speak the English language), worked for a licensed mining company, were an adult
142 of above the minimum Ghanaian legal working age of 18 years and competent to give informed
143 consent. Also, at two out of the five mine sites, four mining workers (experienced occupational
144 and environmental hygiene officers) were conveniently selected and these workers aided the
145 project by placing and over-seeing thermal data loggers in representative working and living
146 environments.

147 *2.3 Sources and methods of data collection*

148 Both primary and secondary heat exposure data were used in the assessment of heat stress
149 risk of mining workers in this study. Primary data comprised mining workers' background
150 characteristics, heat exposure risk factors and estimated Wet Bulb Globe Temperature (WBGT)
151 values based on hourly temperature and RH data (October 2017 - September 2018) collected
152 in the Western Region of Ghana. Secondary data included average annual temperature and RH

153 data (1967 - 2017) from two meteorological stations, namely, Sefwi Bekwai and Tarkwa in the
154 Western Region of Ghana (Nunfam, 2019; Nunfam et al., 2019b) and relevant literature related
155 to occupational heat exposure and heat mitigation.

156 A questionnaire was used to elicit background characteristics and heat exposure risk
157 factors from the 320 respondents. The validated instruments of the High Occupational
158 Temperature Health and Productivity Suppression (HOTHAPS) programme and analogous
159 research studies on heat exposure assessment served as a guide in the design of the
160 questionnaire (Kjellstrom et al., 2009a; Kjellstrom et al., 2009b; Nunfam et al., 2021; Xiang et
161 al., 2015). The self-reported question items centred on respondents' demographics (e.g. age,
162 sex and education), work characteristics (e.g. workload, hours of work, work environment,
163 physical work exertion, and work around heat sources), workplace heat exposure risk,
164 environmental risk factors, work-related risk factors and concerns about workplace heat
165 exposure risk. The adapted questionnaires were pretested in Ghana to ensure its feasibility and
166 clarity, reduce survey bias and avoid ambiguous and leading questions. This study also received
167 ethics approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee of Edith Cowan University
168 (Project # 17487) on 16th August 2017 and the fieldwork was conducted from October 2017 to
169 September 2018, with responses kept confidential and anonymous.

170 The extent of heat stress risk is inextricably linked to the intensity of workers' exposure
171 to environmental-related heat exposure factors (e.g. temperature and humidity), occupational-
172 related heat susceptibility factors (e.g. workload and working hours) and individual-related
173 vulnerability factors (e.g. age and sex). Considering the hazards of heat exposure to working
174 people, different indices (e.g. Wet Bulb Globe Temperature (WBGT) index, the Universal
175 Thermal Climate Index (UTCI), Heat Stress Index (HSI), heat stress scales, and simple
176 temperature/humidity averages) have been developed for its measurement and validation
177 (Bernard & Pourmoghani, 1999; Brode et al., 2012; Kjellstrom et al., 2009a; Lemke &

178 Kjellstrom, 2012; Liljegren et al., 2008; Nunfam et al., 2021). These indices are used in
179 measuring the magnitude of outdoor and indoor heat exposure on various cohorts of high risks
180 workers in both temperate and tropical regions of the world (Adam-Poupart et al., 2013; Dutta
181 et al., 2015; Frimpong et al., 2017; Lundgren et al., 2014; Venugopal et al., 2015).

182 Lascar EL-USB-2-LCD data loggers were used to capture daily records of hourly
183 ambient temperature and RH, and these were used to estimate hourly WBGT indices over a 12-
184 month duration. The WBGT is a widely used index to measure heat stress risk of workers. The
185 Lascar instrument is a battery-powered device equipped with sensors and microprocessors to
186 accurately monitor and record temperature, RH and dew point. It has a long-life lithium battery
187 which permits logging for 12 months with the capacity to record and store many thousands of
188 measurements in the range 0-100% for RH and -35 to +80 °C (-31 to +176°F) for temperatures
189 (ClimateChip, 2016). Four Lascar EL-USB-2-LCD data loggers were set up to measure
190 temperature and humidity levels in the working and living environments of four mining
191 workers for the period (October 2017 to September 2018). The Lascar sensors were relatively
192 easy to set up and did not need any maintenance over the period of usage in the selected remote
193 mine sites or an external power supply. The Lascar data loggers were used to measure ambient
194 temperature and RH every hour for 12 months (October 2017 to September 2018). Under the
195 trust, monitoring and supervisory care of four selected workers, each Lascar was attached
196 strategically to a convenient but representative setting either indoors (within homes or resting
197 places for workers with cooling systems) and/or in full shade outdoors (e.g. strapped
198 underneath a suitable tree branch or shaded construction) within the working environment
199 (mine site) or at their homes, all without exposure to direct sunshine (Byass et al., 2010). So,
200 in all, four Lascar loggers were deployed, one in each of the following settings: (1) indoor work
201 environment (e.g. office space); (2) outdoor work environment (e.g. mine site); (3) indoor
202 living environment; and (4) outdoor living environment. Time and cost constraints prevented

203 the addition of extra loggers in each of these settings, so the results are used as an indicator of
204 broad WBGT levels and potential for heat exposure in each setting, but are broadly in line with
205 other studies assessing heat exposure of workers (Dapi et al., 2010; Frimpong et al. 2017;
206 Venugopal et al. 2015).

207 The WBGT index uses four climate-related heat exposure variables (temperature,
208 humidity, air velocity, and radiant heat) based on measures of air temperature (T_a), natural wet
209 bulb Temperature (T_{nwb}) and globe temperature (T_g). Unlike the other indices, the WBGT is
210 relatively simple, flexible and usable to measure heat exposure conditions. It is also an
211 approved index by the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) as being suitable
212 for measuring workplace heat stress (ISO, 1989; Parsons, 2013). Heat exposure studies among
213 various workers in Thailand, India, Ghana, Zimbabwe, Nicaragua and Nepal have used Lascar
214 measurements to effectively approximate WBGT values (Frimpong et al., 2017;
215 Krishnamurthy et al., 2017; Ngwenya et al., 2018; Pradhan et al., 2013). As exemplified in an
216 empirical study of heat exposure on farmers in Ghana, the Lascar was validated and found to
217 have a strong correlation ($r = 0.988$) with the QuesTemp 34 heat stress monitor for the WBGT
218 index (Frimpong et al., 2017). QuesTemp 34 is a standard instrument for accurately measuring
219 WBGT including radiant heat but is very expensive and cumbersome as compared to the Lascar
220 dataloggers which were preferred in this study. However, the magnitude of heat exposure is
221 influenced by variables such as differences in individual work environment (e.g., indoor, in the
222 shade, or outdoor), exposure duration, extent and type of activity, type of clothing and
223 acclimatisation. It also depends on other factors (e.g. age, sex, obesity, and pre-existing health
224 status) of the worker.

225 *2.4 Data processing and analysis*

226 Computer software including Microsoft Excel 2016 and IBM Statistical Product and
227 Service Solutions (SPSS) version 25 were used in data processing and analysis. Descriptive

228 statistics (e.g. mean, standard deviation, frequency and percent) and inferential statistics (e.g.
229 Chi-Square) were used to assess the magnitude and risk of heat exposure on mining workers.
230 The hypothesis related to the difference in heat exposure risk factors among workers with
231 different background characteristics was assessed through the Chi-Square test of independence
232 at a significance level of ($p < 0.05$). Cramer's V was used to measure effect size where
233 significant differences were detected, with the following descriptive categories used (very
234 small: 0.01, small: 0.20, medium: 0.50, large: 0.80, very large: 1.20, & huge: 2.0) (Cohen,
235 1988; Sawilowsky, 2009).

236 Validated methods have been developed for calculating indoor and outdoor WBGT from
237 hourly recordings of temperature and humidity sourced from local weather stations (Bernard
238 & Pourmoghani, 1999; ClimateChip, 2016; Liljegren et al., 2008). Hourly recordings of these
239 same data were obtained in the micro-climatic environment of workers by means of Lascar
240 thermal sensors and dataloggers and these data were used to estimate hourly WBGT indices
241 for the 12 month sampling period. The estimated hourly WBGT values were then used to
242 calculate average 24 hour, average daytime (typical shift for workers from 8:00 am - 4:00 pm),
243 daytime maximum (highest WBGT between 12:00 pm - 4:00 pm), and average night-time (8:00
244 pm - 6:00 am) WBGT for each month and across the 12-month monitoring period in both the
245 working and living environments of the mining workers. As the four Lascar sensors were
246 placed indoors or in full shaded areas outdoors and they could not account for measures of
247 globe temperature, the method for calculating WBGT indoors was the best and most
248 appropriate for all sensors (Bernard & Pourmoghani, 1999). The method states that: $WBGT_{id}$
249 $= 0.67T_{nwb} + 0.33T_a$, where indoor wind speeds (w_s) is estimated at 1.0 m/s, natural wet bulb
250 temperature (T_{nwb}) is calculated from dewpoint (T_d) ($T_d = T - [(100 - RH) / 5]$) by iteration,
251 and T_a is the ambient temperature (Bernard & Pourmoghani, 1999; Lemke & Kjellstrom,
252 2012). The WBGT indices were used in conjunction with international standards (e.g. ISO

253 7243) for the analysis of risk or safe work to determine appropriate and recommended
254 maximum work-to-rest ratio (Table 1) for various kinds of work intensities and type of clothing
255 (ISO, 1989; National Institute of Occupational Health [NIOSH], 1986; NIOSH, 2016).

256 **Insert Table 1 about here**

257 **3. Results**

258 *3.1 The difference in heat exposure risk factors across the background characteristics of* 259 *mining workers*

260 Overall, a very high proportion (91.9%) of respondents felt mine workers faced heat
261 exposure risks (Table 2). However, the proportion of respondents reporting that mine workers
262 were at risk of heat exposure was not found to be significantly different between males and
263 females, nor between different age groups or education levels (Table 2).

264 Environmental-related factors that influenced the risk of workplace heat exposure on
265 mining workers were mostly attributed (by respondents) to the heat radiation from the sun and
266 other sources around the workplace (37.5%), the extent of hot air around the workplace
267 (32.5%), and lack of air movement around the workplace (17.3%). Responses were not
268 significantly different between younger and older respondents, nor between education levels
269 of respondents (Table 2). However, the gender difference in these identified environmental risk
270 factors was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) with a lower proportion of females identifying
271 air movement as being an important risk factor compared to males (Table 2).

272 Work-related heat exposure risk factors identified by respondents included the type of
273 physical workload (22.6% responding), duration of working hours (20.3%), duration of
274 rest/break hours (12.9%), access to drinking water (11.5%), and access to shade (11.1%). These
275 responses were not significantly different between age groups, nor education-level groups
276 (Table 2). However, the discrepancy in work-related heat exposure risk factors differed
277 significantly across gender ($p < 0.001$), with a greater proportion of males suggesting access to

278 water and shade as major risk factors, and far more females (proportionally) identifying the
279 importance of type of work as a heat risk factor (Table 2).

280 Overall respondents were mostly very much concerned (69.1%) and moderately concerned
281 (16.6%) about workplace heat exposure risk, with relatively few reporting a little concern
282 (9.7%) and no concern (4.7%). These proportions were not found to differ significantly by age
283 or gender except by education ($P < 0.05$)(Table 2).

284 The differences in heat exposure risk factors across work characteristics of mining workers
285 are shown in Table 3. In terms of reported workplace heat exposure risk, there were significant
286 differences in responses depending on workers' workload ($p < 0.001$), hours of work ($p < 0.05$),
287 and time spent working around heat sources ($p < 0.001$), although effect sizes were relatively
288 small (Table 3). In particular, heat exposure was identified as a greater risk to workers who
289 engaged in heavier work, worked more hours, and were more exposed to heat source(s).
290 However, the variation in workplace heat exposure risk to mining workers across the category
291 of work environment and physical work exertion were not statistically significant (Table 3).

292 The environmental-related factors which were reported by respondents to influence
293 workplace heat exposure risk differed significantly amongst worker's workload categories (i.e.
294 light, moderate, heavy, or very heavy work), work hours (under 10 hours vs 10 hours and over),
295 physical work exertion (not at all demanding vs very demanding) and and worker's proximity
296 to heat sources (Table 3). However, the differences in identified environmental-related factors
297 between indoor and outdoor workers was not statistically significant (Table 3).

298 Respondents views on work-related factors which influence the risk of workplace heat
299 exposure differed across the categories of workload, work hours, physical work exertion (all p
300 < 0.001), and worker's proximity to heat sources ($p < 0.05$). However, the difference in
301 reported work-related factors between indoor and outdoor workers was not statistically
302 significant (Table 3).

303 Finally, respondents were significantly more concerned about workplace heat exposure
304 risk where they engaged in heavier work ($p < 0.05$). However, concern levels were not
305 significantly different in terms of worker's working hours, work environments (indoor vs
306 outdoor), physical work exertion, and proximity to heat source(s) (Table 3).

307 *3.2 Patterns and magnitude of heat exposure in the working and living environments of* 308 *mining workers*

309 In the context of the ambient air conditions experienced by the four mining workers, the
310 magnitudes of average WBGTs measured across the year outdoors (in the shade) were broadly
311 similar to that measured indoors, (although generally they were 0.2 - 0.5 °C greater in the
312 outdoor environment compared to indoors (Tables 4 & 5). Similarly, WBGT averages were
313 typically around 0.4 °C higher in the working environments compared to the living
314 environment (Tables 4 & 5). These results can be explained by the fact that, of the four settings
315 measured, the highest average WBGTs were consistently recorded in the outdoor working
316 environment, although, again, average monthly and yearly values were generally similar across
317 all four settings. As only one Lascar datalogger was employed to measure weather conditions
318 in each of the four settings, differences between settings cannot be statistically tested (and was
319 beyond the scope of the current study); rather results are used to gauge broad levels of typical
320 heat exposure based on the four mining workers. However, the fact that there was reasonable
321 consistency and only subtle differences in average conditions between the settings, suggests
322 heat exposure will be broadly similar irrespective of where workers are located. Inadequate use
323 of cooling systems (e.g. air conditioning and fans) due to frequent and extensive power outages
324 may have resulted in the unexpected higher WBGT within indoor living environment compared
325 to outdoor living environment. Seasonal patterns in average WBGT and exploration of exposure
326 levels are now covered for each of the settings individually.

327 **Insert Table 4 about here**

328 **Insert Table 5 about here**

329 Monthly average WBGT (24 hr) in the indoor working environment showed a distinct seasonal
330 pattern with values above the annual mean (27.1 °C) from March 2018 to May 2018 with a
331 peak (28.1 °C) in April 2018 during the onset of the major wet season, and lowest WBGT from
332 August 2018 (26.2 °C) to September 2018 (26 °C) in the period characterised by a short dry
333 season (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the average daytime WBGT (measured indoors at work during
334 the typical working hours of 8:00 am to 4:00 pm) for each month was at a high (29.3 °C) in
335 April 2018 and a low (27.0 °C) in September 2018, while the average night-time WBGT during
336 rest periods (8:00 pm-6:00 am) showed a high (27.9 °C) and a low (25.6 °C) in September 2018
337 (Fig. 1). Thus, seasonal differences in average WBGT were much higher during the daytime
338 compared to night-time. The average daytime maximum WBGT in the indoor workspace (i.e.
339 that measured during at hottest period of the day) per month was found to be highest in April
340 2018 with 30.5 °C and lowest in September 2018 with 28.6 °C (Fig. 1). The seasonal variations
341 in temperature could be explained by the higher frequency of hot and humid weather conditions
342 typical of the March to April period in Ghana.

343 **Insert Fig 1 about here**

344 The level of heat exposure measured as average monthly WBGTs (24 hr, daytime, daytime
345 maximum, and night-time) measured outdoor in full shade of the typical working environment
346 for mining workers is shown in Fig. 2. The seasonal trend in average WBGT (24 hr) outdoors
347 in full shade of the working environment was above the mean (27.5 °C) from February 2018 to
348 July 2018, with the highest (28.6 °C) in March 2018, but was lower from August 2018 to
349 September 2018, with the lowest (26.2 °C) in September. Similarly, the magnitude of average
350 daytime WBGT outdoor per month in the working environment showed higher levels from
351 February 2018 to July 2018, with the highest (29.9 °C) in March 2018 and lowest (26.9 °C) in
352 September, while the extent of average night-time WBGT recorded outdoor for each month in

353 the working environment was greater from February 2018 to May 2018 (with the highest
354 average of 28.3 °C in March 2018) compared to the lowest (25.5 °C) recorded in September
355 2018. The period of highest average WBGT occurred during the rainy season while the periods
356 of lowest averages occurred during the period of a short spell of the dry season. In terms of the
357 average daytime maximum WBGT for each month, the highest (32.0 °C) was recorded in
358 March 2018, and the lowest (27.8 °C) occurred in September 2018 (Fig. 2).

359 **Insert Fig 2 about here**

360 Figure 3 shows seasonal fluctuations in average monthly WBGTs (24 hr, daytime, daytime
361 maximum, and night-time) in the living indoor environment of the four mining workers.
362 Average WBGT (24hr) indoors in the living environment was above the mean (26.7 °C) from
363 February 2018 to May 2018 with a peak (27.6 °C) in March 2018 during the major rainy season,
364 and the lowest (25.3 °C) in August 2018 during the short spell of the dry season. Similarly, the
365 average daytime WBGT indoors in the living environment was much higher from February
366 2018 to May 2018, with the highest average daytime WBGT (29.9 °C) in March 2018 and the
367 lowest day WBGT (26.1 °C) in August 2018. Conversely, the average night-time WBGT per
368 month was fairly consistent across the year except for 1-2 months (Fig. 3). The average daytime
369 maximum WBGT in the living indoor environment was greatest in March 2018 (monthly mean
370 of 32.0 °C, which was the equal highest of all settings), whilst the lowest (27.0 °C) occurred in
371 August 2018 (Fig. 3).

372 **Insert Fig 3 about here**

373 Seasonal variation in average monthly WBGTs recorded outdoors in full shade in the living
374 environment of mining workers is shown in Figure 4. The seasonal trend in the average WBGT
375 (24 hr) outdoors (in shade) in the living environment was above the average (27.0 °C) from
376 February 2018 to May 2018 (with a maximum of 28.3 °C in March) during the commencement
377 of the major wet season, and the minimum (25.7 °C) in August 2018 during the short spell of

378 the dry season. Average daytime WBGT in the outdoor living environment was highest (28.3
379 °C) in March 2018 and lowest (25.7 °C) in August 2018. In comparison, the highest average
380 night WBGT outdoor (shaded) in the living environment was 28.3 °C in March, and the lowest
381 25.8 °C in August 2018. In terms of average daytime maximum WBGT in the outdoor living
382 environment, the highest (28.6 °C) was recorded in March 2018, and the lowest (26.0 °C) was
383 recorded in August 2018. Unlike the other settings, there was much greater seasonal variation
384 as well as far greater consistency in WBGT across daytime and night-time. Similarly, the
385 daytime maximum WBGT was not that much greater than the daytime WBGT (Fig. 4).

386 **Insert Fig 4 about here**

387 **4. Discussion**

388 Even though heat exposure studies of workers are reported widely, the assessment of risk
389 and magnitude of heat exposure on mining workers in Ghana is locally innovative. The study
390 relied on results of a survey of heat exposure risk factors and 12 months of estimated WBGT
391 indices. This was complemented by relevant literature to assess the extent of risk and
392 magnitude of local heat exposure on mining workers to enlighten heat exposure management
393 and policies in the mining sector in Ghana and other comparable workplace settings (e.g.
394 agriculture, construction, manufacturing, oil and gas) across tropical regions of the world.

395 *4.1 Heat exposure risks of mining workers*

396 Several conceptual and empirical studies have demonstrated that the impacts of heat
397 exposure on workers in various industries, including mining, are due to personal,
398 environmental and occupational risk factors, and commonly manifest as heat-related
399 comorbidities (e.g. heat exhaustion, heat cramps, heat rash, dehydration, heat oedema, heat
400 syncope and heatstroke), injuries and mortality (Hunt et al., 2013; Lucas et al., 2014; Nunfam,
401 2021; Ryan 2017; Varghese et al., 2020; Xiang et al., 2014; Zare et al., 2019). As corroborated
402 in comparable studies (Frimpong et al., 2017; Nunfam et al., 2019b), the results of our study

403 on mining workers' heat exposure risk awareness, apprehensions and influencing factors
404 consisted of environmental-related risk factors (e.g. workplace ambient temperature, air
405 moisture, air movement and heat radiation), work-related risk concerns (e.g. type of physical
406 workload, duration of work hours, type of protective clothing, access to cooling system, water
407 and shade) and extent of concerns about workplace heat exposure risk. Like other vulnerable
408 occupational settings, heat exposure risk (e.g. heat-related illness and injury) experiences in
409 workplaces commonly affects workers' health, safety, productive capacity, social
410 connectedness, cognitive judgement and, by extension, the overall productivity of the mining
411 industry (Kenny et al., 2020; Kjellstrom et al., 2016b; Nunfam & Afrifa-Yamoah, 2021;
412 Nunfam et al., 2018; Nunfam et al., 2019a).

413 Relative to present and predicted rises in temperature related to global climate change, the
414 substantial difference in identified heat exposure risk factors (both environmental risk and
415 work-related risk factors) across workers' gender have useful ramifications for the
416 development of policies on workplace heat exposure. Also, the significant difference in the
417 extent of concerns about workplace heat exposure as a risk factor across workers' education
418 levels is an important predictor and contributory factor in the formulation and execution of heat
419 stress management education through heat exposure-related health and safety information,
420 communication, education and training (Lee et al., 2015). Thus, informed workplace heat
421 exposure policies based on workers' gender and education among other factors (e.g. job tasks,
422 clothing) have the possibility to ensure the effective deployment and holistic use of the social
423 and productive human capital potentials of workers for reduced heat exposure-related illnesses,
424 injuries and fatalities, and increased productivity in the mining sector and other vulnerable
425 occupational settings.

426 Furthermore, our finding on the significant disparity in heat exposure risk factors across
427 work characteristics (e.g. workload, hours of work, physical work exertion and proximity to

428 heat sources) has the potential to influence mining workers' health, safety, productive capacity,
429 human and social capital improvement, and the extent of workplace heat exposure adaptation
430 and resilience planning (Nunfam & Afrifa-Yamoah, 2021; Nunfam et al., 2019a; Nunfam et
431 al., 2019b). Sustainable productivity of mining does not only depend on access and use of
432 advanced innovative technology but also relies on safe occupational settings and the extent to
433 which the identified work characteristics are managed. Such safe working environments ought
434 to be devoid of heat exposure risk hazards like excessive ambient temperature and humidity,
435 heat radiation, poor air circulation, and inadequate adaptive capacity of workers. Therefore, it
436 is imperative to ensure safer occupational environments by incorporating the identified work
437 characteristics into workplace and national health and safety policies and practices, as well as
438 heat exposure adaptation policies to regulate workload, hours of work, physical work exertion
439 and proximity to heat sources among workers.

440 *4.2 The magnitude of heat exposure on mining workers*

441 Our results on the extent and seasonal trends in the monthly average WBGT (minimum:
442 25.3 °C - maximum: 28.6 °C) from October 2017 to September 2018 are in line with the
443 recorded patterns of Ghana's meteorological data, especially average annual temperatures
444 which generally varies from 24 °C to 30 °C across Ghana (Government of Ghana, 2013, 2015).
445 It also falls within the scale, variability and trend of mean annual minimum temperature (22.5
446 °C) and maximum temperature (32.4 °C) measured from a meteorological station proximate to
447 the study area (Nunfam et al., 2019b). Unlike the brief measurement period (12 months) of
448 average WBGT (24 hr, daytime, daytime maximum, and night-time) across the year of this
449 study, the rise in mean annual temperature and RH (1967 - 2017) in the Western Region of
450 Ghana (Nunfam et al., 2019b) and the upward trend of yearly temperatures and RH from a
451 nearby meteorological data (1961 - 2012) in Bawku East in Northern Ghana were statistically
452 significant (Frimpong et al., 2014). Furthermore, studies of heat exposure on farmers

453 demonstrated a strong association ($r = 0.988$) in WBGT indices between Lascar data loggers
454 and QuesTemp 34 heat monitoring equipment (Frimpong et al., 2017). The correlated results
455 of WBGT indices from both equipment and the similarity in degree of average temperature and
456 WBGT values for both periods show the reliability, precision and effectiveness of the Lascar
457 EL-USB-2-LCD data loggers in assessing the magnitude of heat exposure.

458 Based on the Lascar sensors, the estimated WBGT outdoors ($27.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and monthly average
459 WBGT indoors ($27.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) within the working environment of the mining workers is below core
460 body temperature ($37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) (Kjellstrom et al., 2016a). Temperatures of this magnitude have the
461 cooling potential of allowing heat generated in the body to evaporate effectively via sweating
462 (Kjellstrom et al., 2018). However, the level of this average WBGT is reasonably high with
463 potentially harmful heat exposure risk and impact on mining workers' work capacity and
464 performance within such working environments. The tendency for work capacity in the mining
465 sector, which is characterised by moderate to heavy labour intensity, to be reduced when hourly
466 WBGT exceeds $26.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ or become burdensome to perform at WBGT above $32.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ is highly
467 probable (Kjellstrom et al., 2016a).

468 Similarly, the risk of workers to heat exposure is exacerbated during the hottest part of the
469 day during the hottest months (March to May) when the estimated average daily maximum
470 WBGTs were found to exceed $29.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in both indoor and outdoor working environments. At
471 these temperatures, mining workers with heavy work intensity are recommended to rest for at
472 least half their working time to avoid heat stress and other heat-related health impacts (Table
473 1). Further, during these hottest months, the average WBGT across the whole working day
474 exceeds $27.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for which at least 75% work and 25% rest is recommended for a heavy
475 workload, as long as workers are acclimatised and are wearing light clothing. Moreover,
476 further precautions are required in the hottest part of the day in March - April when WBGT
477 can exceed $32.0\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ such as mining workers taking longer breaks, drinking adequate water or

478 perhaps not even working at all to cope with this level of heat (Table 1; ISO, 1989; NIOSH,
479 2016). The experience of high ambient temperatures with humidity can result in conditions
480 beyond human physiological tolerable heat limits (35 - 37 °C), as the human body no longer
481 perspires to cool down (Crimmins et al., 2017). WBGTs (< 35 °C) allows adequate evaporation
482 because there needs to be at least a 2-3 °C gradient between core and skin temperature for heat
483 transfer. However, at core body temperature (above 37 °C) and skin surface temperature (35 °C
484 and above) for continued periods coupled with long hours of heavy workload, hyperthermia
485 (e.g. heat exhaustion) can arise (Sherwood & Huber, 2010). Workers with primary health
486 conditions compared to healthy workers were more likely to have reduced heat tolerance
487 because of impaired physiological thermoregulation, which could result in heat-related
488 comorbidities and injuries (Semenza et al. 1999; Kenny et al., 2010). Thus, due to the potential
489 heat exposure risk of relatively high temperature to mining workers, regulation 180 of the
490 Minerals and Mining Regulation of 2012 (L.I.2182) enjoins a mine manager to ensure that the
491 wet bulb temperature at the working environment in the mine does not exceed 32.5 °C and
492 workers should be provided with longer breaks and reduced working time when the wet bulb
493 temperature exceeds 27 °C at the minesite (Government of Ghana, 2012). Aside from
494 workload, hours of work and proximity to heat sources, comparable findings of other studies
495 show that work characterised by physical exertion as it pertains to the mining sector becomes
496 unsafe when wet bulb temperatures rise above 32 °C (Buzan et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2011).

497 The gravity of the inherently imminent heat stress hazard associated with the findings for
498 mining workers is that WBGT indices were probably underestimated by excluding globe
499 temperature because the WBGT indices were recorded in full shaded area (ClimateChip, 2016).
500 Moreover, most mining work is not only heavy and physically exerting but are done under full
501 sunshine or underground in protective clothing, for more extended hours, and with the aid of
502 machinery and other equipment characterised by heat radiation. Under these circumstances,

503 heat exposure policies without adequate ventilation and cooling systems, shade, acclimatisation
504 programmes, frequent rehydration, appropriate rest/work schedules, measured workloads, and
505 light coloured and cooling garments, mine workers may be highly vulnerable to heat-related
506 illness, injuries and death. For instance, prolonged exposure and continued work at the
507 magnitude of heat levels (27.0 - 32.0 °C) without caution can results in heat-related illness (e.g.
508 fatigue and heat cramps).

509 Furthermore, the extent of monthly average WBGT recorded outdoors in the shade (27.0
510 °C) and indoors (26.7 °C) within the living environment tends to affect workers' capacity for
511 adequate rest, sleep and/or relieve from heat stress symptoms. Inadequate rest can affect
512 workers engaged in heavy to very heavy workload to follow the recommendation to work 75%
513 and rest for 25% per hour (See Table 1: ISO, 1989; NIOSH, 2016). This precautionary measure
514 of imposing exposure limits reduces the relatively high risk associated with thermally stressful
515 work and WBGT indices between 22.8 °C-27.8 °C which are considered as high risk (Binkley
516 et al., 2002; Coris et al., 2004; Roberts, 1998). Aside the maximum average night-time WBGT
517 indoors (26.7 °C) of the living environment, our findings on the highest average WBGTs (24hr,
518 daytime, daytime maximum, and night-time) within the indoor and outdoor living
519 environments were above WBGT (27.5 °C). However, resting environments with maximum
520 WBGT exposure limits (27.5 °C) for workers engaged in heavy workload are required to have
521 75% work intensity and 25% break duration as recommended in Table 1 (ISO, 1989; NIOSH,
522 2016). Similarly, mining companies are mandated by regulation to ensure that the wet bulb
523 temperature at the working environment is not above 32.5 °C and workers are allowed to
524 observe longer rest hours and working time must be reduced when the wet bulb temperature
525 exceeds 27 °C in the mine (Government of Ghana, 2012). This cautionary measure prevents
526 extended exposure and continuous work at heat levels (27.0 - 32.5 °C), which results in fatigue
527 and heat cramps. Notably, midday temperatures were possibly underestimated by 0.2 - 5 °C

528 because the intensity of heat radiation from the sun was excluded based on methods of WBGT
529 calculations as the Lascar sensors were placed in full shaded areas (ClimateChip, 2016). Also,
530 seasonal variability in the magnitude of average WBGT in the working and living environments
531 showed that the highest monthly average WBGT occurred in the period March to April which
532 is associated with the risk of hot and humid conditions in Ghana. This finding is similar to the
533 seasonal variations of temperature in southern Ghana, where the highest average maximum
534 temperature typically occurred in the period February to April (Ghana Meteorological Agency,
535 2016).

536 The adaptation policies and heat exposure management of mining firms ought to consider
537 the scale of average WBGT (24hr, daytime, daytime maximum, and night-time) values,
538 WBGT-heat stress risk levels and the approved criteria for maximum WBGT exposure
539 threshold limits based on work/rest intensity (Table 1) (ISO, 1989; NIOSH, 2016). This has
540 the utmost significance to reduce the risk of mine workers to heat exposure-related illnesses,
541 injuries and fatalities. In most developed economies and large-scale multi-national mining
542 firms, in contrast to most artisanal and small-scale mining companies, the heat exposure
543 policies based on ISO 7243 and NIOSH approved WBGT heat exposure limits are often
544 implemented (Table 1). Such policies are mostly informed by engineering, administrative,
545 education and training, regulatory and social protection strategies as part of adaptation and
546 resilience control measures to reduce the risk and impact of heat exposure on workers as
547 temperature, and climate change intensifies (Kjellstrom et al., 2016b; Lucas et al., 2014).

548

549 **5. Conclusions and policy recommendation**

550 The intensifying temperatures being experienced with global climate warming in the 21st
551 Century and beyond have the propensity to increase exposure to more intense heat across the
552 world, including in many occupational and living environments. This study provides current

553 and comprehensive local insight on the magnitude and risk of heat exposure on Ghanaian
554 mining workers based on WBGT estimates derived from basic meteorological measurements
555 obtained with the aid of Lascar data loggers for a period of 12 months. The variation in
556 environmental and work-based heat exposure risk factors across workers' gender and the
557 disparity in the extent of concern about workplace heat exposure risk across workers' education
558 levels were significant. The substantial discrepancy in heat exposure risk factors across work
559 characteristics (e.g. workload, hours of work, physical work exertion and proximity to heat
560 sources) has the potential to compromise mining workers' health and safety, productive
561 capacity, social well-being, adaptive capacity and resilience. The Lascar data loggers were
562 reliable and useful in measuring the magnitude of heat exposure precisely and suitably as a
563 cheaper alternative to other methods. The extent of indoor/outdoor average WBGT (24hr,
564 daytime, daytime maximum, and night-time) estimates within the working and living
565 environment of mining workers were relatively high with potential heat exposure risk and
566 impact on mining workers without adequate heat exposure management and adaptation
567 strategies. Hence, a concerted global and local effort at providing adequate and effective
568 adaptation policies and heat exposure management for various cohorts of workers involved in
569 heavy and physically exerting jobs for extended hours in hot and humid conditions is
570 imperative. This will reduce the risk of heat stress, improve productive capacity and
571 performance, and boost the social health, adaptive capacity and resilience of mining workers.

572 **Acknowledgements**

573 This manuscript is part of a PhD research project at Edith Cowan University. The authors
574 appreciate the enthusiasm and informed consent demonstrated by the study participants and
575 mining firms during the research. We further recognise the support of the Edith Cowan
576 University Higher Degree by Research Scholarship for the provision of a PhD scholarship and

577 the Human Research Ethics Committee of Edith Cowan University (Project Number 17487)
578 for ethical approval.

579 **Conflict of interest**

580 None

581 **Funding**

582 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,
583 commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

584 **References**

- 585 Adam-Poupart, A., Labreche, F., Smargiassi, A., Duguay, P., Busque, M. A., Gagne, C., . . .
586 Zayed, J. (2013). Climate change and occupational health and safety in a temperate
587 climate: potential impacts and research priorities in Quebec, Canada. *Ind Health*, *51*(1),
588 68-78.
- 589 Alexander, C., Bynum, N., Johnson, E., King, U., Mustonen, T., Neofotis, P., . . . Weeks, B.
590 (2011). Linking indigenous and scientific knowledge of climate change. *BioScience*,
591 *61*(6), 477-484. <https://doi:10.1525/bio.2011.61.6.10>
- 592 Asante, F.A. & Amuakwa-Mensah, F. (2015). Climate change and variability in Ghana:
593 Stocktaking. *Climate*, *3*, 78-99. <https://doi:10.3390/cli3010078>
- 594 Arundel, A. V., Sterling, E. M., Biggin, J. H., & Sterling, T. D. (1986). Indirect health effects
595 of relative humidity in indoor environments. *Environ Health Perspect*, *65*, 351-361.
596 <https://doi:10.1289/ehp.8665351>
- 597 Aven, T., & Renn, O. (2009). On risk defined as an event where the outcome is
598 uncertain. *Journal of risk research*, *12*(1), 1-11.
599 <https://doi.org/10.1080/13669870802488883>

600 Bank of Ghana. (2018). *Monetary Policy Summary*. Retrieved from Accra, Ghana:
601 [https://www.bog.gov.gh/privatecontent/MPC_Press_Releases/Monetary_Policy Repo](https://www.bog.gov.gh/privatecontent/MPC_Press_Releases/Monetary_Policy_Report_May_2018.pdf)
602 [rt_May_2018.pdf](https://www.bog.gov.gh/privatecontent/MPC_Press_Releases/Monetary_Policy_Report_May_2018.pdf)

603 Becken, S., Lama, A. K., & Espiner, S. (2013). The cultural context of climate change impacts:
604 Perceptions among community members in the Annapurna Conservation Area, Nepal.
605 *Environmental Development*, 8, 22-37. <https://doi:10.1016/j.enyclev.2013.05.007>

606 Bernard, T. E., & Pourmoghani, M. (1999). Prediction of workplace wet bulb global
607 temperature. *Appl Occup Environ Hyg*, 14(2), 126-134.
608 <https://doi:10.1080/104732299303296>

609 Binkley, H. M., Beckett, J., Casa, D. J., Kleiner, D. M., & Plummer, P. E. (2002). National
610 Athletic Trainers' Association position statement: exertional heat illnesses. *Journal of*
611 *Athletic Training*, 37(3), 329

612 Brace, C., & Geoghegan, H. (2011). Human geographies of climate change: Landscape,
613 temporality, and lay knowledge. *Progress in Human Geography*, 35(3), 284-302.
614 <https://doi:10.1177/0309132510376259>

615 Bridger, R. S. (2003). *Introduction to ergonomics* (2nd ed.). London and New York: Routledge,
616 Taylor and Francis.

617 Brode, P., Fiala, D., Blazejczyk, K., Holmer, I., Jendritzky, G., Kampmann, B., . . . Havenith,
618 G. (2012). Deriving the operational procedure for the Universal Thermal Climate Index
619 (UTCI). *Int J Biometeorol*, 56(3), 481-494. <https://doi:10.1007/s00484-011-0454-1>

620 Burningham, K., & Obrien, M. (1994). Global environmental values and local contexts of
621 action. *Sociology-the Journal of the British Sociological Association*, 28(4), 913-932.
622 <https://doi:10.1177/0038038594028004007>

623 Buzan, J. R., Oleson, K., & Huber, M. (2015). Implementation and comparison of a suite of
624 heat stress metrics within the Community Land Model version 4.5. *Geoscientific Model
625 Development*, 8(2), 151-170. <https://doi:10.5194/gmd-8-151-2015>

626 Byass, P., Twine, W., Collinson, M., Tollman, S., & Kjellstrom, T. (2010). Assessing a
627 population's exposure to heat and humidity: an empirical approach. *Glob Health Action*,
628 3. <https://doi:10.3402/gha.v3i0.5421>

629 ClimateChip. (2016, September 9, 2016). Basic local heat monitoring and occupational
630 exposure assessment. Retrieved from [http://climatechip.org/Local_Monitoring
631 23/01/2017](http://climatechip.org/Local_Monitoring_23/01/2017)

632 Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (2 ed.). Hillsdale, NJ:
633 Erlbaum Associates.

634 Coris, E. E., Ramirez, A. M., & Van Durme, D. J. (2004). Heat illness in athletes. *Sports
635 Medicine*, 34(1), 9-16

636 Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*
637 (3rd ed.). London: Sage publications.

638 Dapi, L. N., Rocklöv, J., Nguéfac-Tsague, G., Tetanye, E., & Kjellstrom, T. (2010). Heat
639 impact on schoolchildren in Cameroon, Africa: potential health threat from climate
640 change. *Global Health Action*, 3(1), 5610

641 Dutta, P., Rajiva, A., Andhare, D., Azhar, G. S., Tiwari, A., Sheffield, P., . . . Climate Study,
642 G. (2015). Perceived heat stress and health effects on construction workers. *Indian J
643 Occup Environ Med*, 19(3), 151-158. <https://doi:10.4103/0019-5278.174002>

644 Frimpong, K., Oosthuizen, J., & Van Etten, E. (2014). Recent trends in temperature and relative
645 humidity in Bawku East, Northern Ghana. *Journal of Geography and Geology*, 6(2),
646 p69.

647 Frimpong, K., Van Etten, E. J., Oosthuizen, J., & Nunfam, V.F. (2017). Heat exposure on
648 farmers in northeast Ghana. *Int J Biometeorol*, 61(3), 397-406.
649 <https://doi:10.1007/s00484-016-1219-7>

650 Ghana Chamber of Mines (GCM). (2018). *Performance of the mining industry in 2017*.
651 Retrieved from Accra, Ghana: [https://ghanachamberofmines.org/wp-](https://ghanachamberofmines.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Performance-of-the-Industry-2017.pdf)
652 [content/uploads/2016/11/Performance-of-the-Industry-2017.pdf](https://ghanachamberofmines.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/Performance-of-the-Industry-2017.pdf).

653 Ghana Meteorological Agency (2016). *Climatology*. Retrieved from Accra, Ghana:
654 [http://www.meteo.gov.gh/website/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=](http://www.meteo.gov.gh/website/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=62:climatology&catid=40:feat)
655 [62:climatology&catid=40:feat](http://www.meteo.gov.gh/website/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=62:climatology&catid=40:feat)

656 Ghana Revenue Authority. (2018). *2017 Sectoral Revenue Collection*. Retrieved from Accra:
657 Ghana

658 Government of Ghana (2012). *Minerals and Mining (Health, Safety, Technical) Regulation*,
659 2012. (L. I. 2182). Accra, Ghana: Ghana Publishing Company Limited

660 Government of Ghana. (2013). *Ghana National Climate Change Policy 2013*. Accra, Ghana:
661 Government of Ghana Retrieved from [http://www.un-](http://www.un-page.org/files/public/ghanacclimatechangepolicy.pdf)
662 [page.org/files/public/ghanacclimatechangepolicy.pdf](http://www.un-page.org/files/public/ghanacclimatechangepolicy.pdf).

663 Government of Ghana. (2015). *Ghana's Third National Communication Report to the*
664 *UNFCCC*. Accra, Ghana: MESTI, Government of Ghana Retrieved from
665 <https://unfccc.int/resource/docs/natc/ghanc3.pdf>.

666 Hunt, A., Parker, A., & Stewart, I. (2013). Symptoms of heat illness in surface mine workers.
667 *International archives of occupational and environmental health*, 86(5), 519-527

668 International Organization for Standardization (ISO). (1989). *ISO 7243: Hot Environments-*
669 *Estimation of the Heat Stress on Working Man, Based on the WBGT-index (Wet Bulb*
670 *Globe Temperature)*. Retrieved from Geneva:

671 IPCC. (2014a). *Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part B:*
672 *Regional Aspects. The contribution of Working Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report*
673 *of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (V. R. Barros, C.B. Field, D.J.
674 Dokken, M.D. Mastrandrea, K.J. Mach, T.E. Bilir, M. Chatterjee, K.L. Ebi, Y.O.
675 Estrada, R.C. Genova, B. Girma, E.S. Kissel, A.N. Levy, S. MacCracken, a. P.R.
676 Mastrandrea, & L. L. White Eds.). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, the United
677 Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.

678 IPCC. (2014b). *Summary for policymakers. In: Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation,*
679 *and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects. The contribution of Working*
680 *Group II to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate*
681 *Change.* Retrieved from Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, :
682 http://ipcc-wg2.gov/AR5/images/uploads/WG2AR5_SPM_FINAL.pdf

683 Kenny, G. P., Notley, S. R., Flouris, A. D., & Grundstein, A. (2020). Climate Change and Heat
684 Exposure: Impact on Health in Occupational and General Populations. *Exertional Heat*
685 *Illness*, pp. 225-261

686 Kenny, G. P., Yardley, J., Brown, C., Sigal, R. J., & Jay, O. (2010). Heat stress in older
687 individuals and patients with common chronic diseases. *CMAJ*, 182(10), 1053-1060.
688 <https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.081050>

689 Kjellstrom, T., Briggs, D., Freyberg, C., Lemke, B., Otto, M., & Hyatt, O. (2016a). Heat,
690 human performance, and occupational health: A key issue for the assessment of global
691 climate change impacts. *Annu Rev Public Health*, 37, 97-112.
692 <https://doi:10.1146/annurev-publhealth-032315-021740>.

693 Kjellstrom, T., Freyberg, C., Lemke, B., Otto, M., & Briggs, D. (2018). Estimating population
694 heat exposure and impacts on working people in conjunction with climate change. *Int*
695 *J Biometeorol*, 62(3), 291-306.

696 Kjellstrom, T., Gabrysch, S., Lemke, B., & Dear, K. (2009a). The 'Hothaps' programme for
697 assessing climate change impacts on occupational health and productivity: an invitation
698 to carry out field studies. *Glob Health Action*, 2. <https://doi:10.3402/gha.v2i0.2082>

699 Kjellstrom, T., Holmer, I., & Lemke, B. (2009b). Workplace heat stress, health and
700 productivity - an increasing challenge for low and middle-income countries during
701 climate change. *Glob Health Action*, 2, 46-51. <https://doi:10.3402/gha.v2i0.2047>

702 Kjellstrom, T., Otto, M., Lemke, B., Hyatt, O., Briggs, D., Freyberg, C., & Lines, L. (2016b).
703 *Climate change and labour: Impacts of heat in the workplace climate change,*
704 *workplace environmental conditions, occupational health risks, and productivity –an*
705 *emerging global challenge to decent work, sustainable development and social equity.*
706 Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---gjp/documents/publication/wcms_476194.pdf

707

708 Klein, J. A., Hopping, K. A., Yeh, E. T., Nyima, Y., Boone, R. B., & Galvin, K. A. (2014).
709 Unexpected climate impacts on the Tibetan Plateau: Local and scientific knowledge in
710 findings of delayed summer. *Global Environmental Change-Human and Policy*
711 *Dimensions*, 28, 141-152. <https://doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.03.007>

712 Krishnamurthy, M., Ramalingam, P., Perumal, K., Kamalakannan, L. P., Chinnadurai, J.,
713 Shanmugam, R., . . . Venugopal, V. (2017). Occupational heat stress impacts on health
714 and productivity in a steel industry in Southern India. *Safety and Health at Work*, 8(1),
715 99-104. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.shaw.2016.08.005>

716 Leal Filho, W., Azeiteiro, U., Alves, F., Pace, P., Mifsud, M., Brandli, L., . . . Disterheft, A.
717 (2018). Reinvigorating the sustainable development research agenda: The role of the
718 sustainable development goals (SDG). *International Journal of Sustainable*
719 *Development & World Ecology*, 25(2), 131-142.
720 <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504509.2017.1342103>

- 721 Lee, T. M., Markowitz, E. M., Howe, P. D., Ko, C. Y., & Leiserowitz, A. A. (2015). Predictors
722 of public climate change awareness and risk perception around the world. *Nature*
723 *Climate Change*, 5(11), 1014-+. <https://doi:10.1038/Nclimate2728>
- 724 Lemke, B., & Kjellstrom, T. (2012). Calculating workplace WBGT from meteorological data:
725 a tool for climate change assessment. *Ind Health*, 50(4), 267-278.
- 726 Liang, C. Z., Zheng, G. Z., Zhu, N., Tian, Z., Lu, S. L., & Chen, Y. (2011). A new
727 environmental heat stress index for indoor hot and humid environments based on Cox
728 regression. *Building and Environment*, 46(12), 2472-2479.
729 <https://doi:10.1016/j.buildenv.2011.06.013>
- 730 Liljegren, J. C., Carhart, R. A., Lawday, P., Tschopp, S., & Sharp, R. (2008). Modelling the
731 wet bulb globe temperature using standard meteorological measurements. *J Occup*
732 *Environ Hyg*, 5(10), 645-655. <https://doi:10.1080/15459620802310770>
- 733 Lucas, R. A., Epstein, Y., & Kjellstrom, T. (2014). Excessive occupational heat exposure: a
734 significant ergonomic challenge and health risk for current and future workers. *Extrem*
735 *Physiol Med*, 3(1), 14. <https://doi:10.1186/2046-7648-3-14>
- 736 Lundgren, K., Kuklane, K., & Venugopal, V. (2014). Occupational heat stress and associated
737 productivity loss estimation using the PHS model (ISO 7933): a case study from
738 workplaces in Chennai, India. *Global Health Action*, 7.
739 <https://doi:Artn2528310.3402/Gha.V7.25283>
- 740 McQuilken, J., & Hilson, G. (2016). *Artisanal and small-scale gold mining in Ghana Evidence*
741 *to inform an 'action dialogue'*. Retrieved from London:
742 <http://pubs.iied.org/16618IIED/>.
- 743 Mertens, D. M. (2015). Mixed methods and wicked problems. *Journal of Mixed Methods*
744 *Research*, 9(1), 3-6. <https://doi:10.1177/1558689814562944>

745 Ngwenya, B., Oosthuizen, J., Cross, M., & Frimpong, K. (2018). Emerging heat-related climate
746 change influences; a public health challenge to health care practitioners and
747 policymakers: Insight from Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Disaster
748 Risk Reduction*, 27, 596-601. <https://doi:10.1016/j.ijdrr.2017.10.012>

749 NIOSH. (1986). *Criteria for a recommended standards: Occupational exposure to hot
750 environments (Revised criteria 1986)*. Atlanta: Center for Disease Control and
751 Prevention (CDC) Retrieved from Available at: [http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/86-
752 113.pdf](http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/86-113.pdf).

753 NIOSH. (2016). *NIOSH criteria for a recommended standard: occupational exposure to heat
754 and hot environments*. Cincinnati, OH: U.S. Department of Health and Human
755 Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institute for
756 Occupational Safety and Health Retrieved from [https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/2016-
757 106/pdfs/2016-106.pdf](https://www.cdc.gov/niosh/docs/2016-106/pdfs/2016-106.pdf) 26/10/2017.

758 Nunfam, V. F. & Afrifa-Yamoah, E. (2021). Heat exposure effect on Ghanaian mining
759 workers: a mediated-moderation approach. *Sci. Total Environ*, 788.
760 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.147843>

761 Nunfam, V. F., Adusei-Asante, K., Frimpong, K., Van Etten, E. J., & Oosthuizen, J. (2020).
762 Barriers to occupational heat stress risk adaptation of mining workers in Ghana. *Int J
763 Biometeorol*, 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-020-01882-4>

764 Nunfam, V. F., Adusei-Asante, K., Van Etten, E. J., Oosthuizen, J., & Frimpong, K. (2018).
765 Social impacts of occupational heat stress and adaptation strategies of workers: A
766 narrative synthesis of the literature. *Sci Total Environ*, 643, 1542-1552.
767 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.06.255>

768 Nunfam, V. F., Adusei-Asante, K., Van Etten, E. J., Oosthuizen, J., Adams, S., & Frimpong,
769 K. (2019a). The nexus between social impacts and adaptation strategies of workers to

770 occupational heat stress: a conceptual framework. *Int J Biometeorol*, 63(291), 1-14.
771 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-019-01775-1>

772 Nunfam, V. F., Oosthuizen, J., Adusei-Asante, K., Van Etten, E. J., & Frimpong, K. (2019b).
773 Perceptions of climate change and occupational heat stress risks and adaptation
774 strategies of mining workers in Ghana. *Sci Total Environ*, 657, 365-378.
775 <https://doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.480>

776 Nunfam, V. F., Van Etten, E. J., Oosthuizen, J., Adusei-Asante, K., & Frimpong, K. (2019c).
777 Climate change and occupational heat stress risks and adaptation strategies of mining
778 workers: Perspectives of supervisors and other stakeholders in Ghana. *Environ Res*,
779 169, 147-155. <https://doi:10.1016/j.envres.2018.11.004>

780 Nunfam, V.F. (2019). Social Impacts of Climate Change and Occupational Heat Stress and
781 Adaptation Strategies of Mining Workers in Ghana. <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/2273>.

782 Nunfam, V.F. (2021). Mixed methods study into social impacts of work-related heat stress on
783 Ghanaian mining workers: a pragmatic research approach. *Heliyon* 7 (5), e06918.
784 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e06918>.

785 Nunfam, V.F., Afrifa-Yamoah, E., Adusei-Asante, K., Van Etten, E.J., Frimpong, K., Mensah,
786 I.A., Oosthuizen, J. (2021). Construct validity and invariance assessment of the social
787 impacts of occupational heat stress scale (SIOHSS) among Ghanaian mining workers.
788 *Sci. Total Environ*. 771. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.144911>

789 Orlove, B., Roncoli, C., Kabugo, M., & Majugu, A. (2010). Indigenous climate knowledge in
790 southern Uganda: the multiple components of a dynamic regional system. *Climatic*
791 *Change*, 100(2), 243-265. <https://doi:10.1007/s10584-009-9586-2>

792 Parsons, K. (2009). Maintaining health, comfort and productivity in heat waves. *Glob Health*
793 *Action*, 2(1), 2057. <https://doi:10.3402/gha.v2i0.2057>

794 Parsons, K. (2013). Occupational health impacts of climate change: current and future ISO
795 standards for the assessment of heat stress. *Ind Health*, 51(1), 86-100.
796 <https://doi.org/10.2486/indhealth.2012-0165>

797 Parsons, K. (2014). *Human thermal environments: the effects of hot, moderate, and cold*
798 *environments on human health, comfort, and performance* (3 ed.). Boca Raton,
799 NewYork and London: CRC Press.

800 Pradhan, B., Shrestha, S., Shrestha, R., Pradhanang, S., Kayastha, B., & Pradhan, P. (2013).
801 Assessing climate change and heat stress responses in the Tarai region of Nepal. *Ind*
802 *Health*, 51(1), 101-112.

803 Ramsey, J. D. (1995). Task performance in heat: a review. *Ergonomics*, 38(1), 154-165.

804 Richards, D. A. B., & Hales, J. R. S. (1987). *Heat stress: physical exertion and environment*:
805 Menzies Foundation.

806 Riedlinger, D., & Berkes, F. (2001). Contributions of traditional knowledge to understanding
807 climate change in the Canadian Arctic. *Polar record*, 37(203), 315-328.

808 Roberts, W.(1998). Medical management and administration manual for long distance road
809 racing. *IAAF Medical Manual for Athletics and Road Racing Competitions A Practical*
810 *Guide*. Monaco: International Amateur Athletic Federation Publications, 39-75.

811 Roth, R. (2004). Spatial organisation of environmental knowledge: Conservation conflicts in
812 the inhabited forest of northern Thailand. *Ecology and Society*, 9(3).

813 Ryan, A. (2017). Heat stress management in underground mines. *International Journal of*
814 *Mining Science and Technology*, 27(4), 651-655

815 Sawilowsky, S. S. (2009). New effect size rules of thumb. *Journal of Modern Applied*
816 *Statistical Methods*, 8(2), 597-599. <https://doi:10.22237/jmasm/125703510>

817 Semenza, J. C., McCullough, J. E., Flanders, W. D., McGeehin, M. A., & Lumpkin, J. R.
818 (1999). Excess hospital admissions during the July 1995 heat wave in Chicago.
819 *American journal of preventive medicine*, 16(4), 269-277

820 Sherwood, S. C., & Huber, M. (2010). An adaptability limit to climate change due to heat
821 stress. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*
822 *America*, 107(21), 9552-9555. <https://doi:10.1073/pnas.0913352107>

823 Steadman, R. G. (1984). A universal scale of apparent temperature. *Journal of Climate and*
824 *Applied Meteorology*, 23(12), 1674-1687. doi:Doi 10.1175/1520-
825 0450(1984)023<1674:Ausoat>2.0.Co;2

826 Turnbull, D. (2002). Performance and narrative, bodies and movement in the construction of
827 places and objects, spaces and knowledge - The case of the Maltese megaliths. *Theory*
828 *Culture & Society*, 19(5-6), 125-+. <https://doi:10.1177/026327602761899183>

829 United Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). (2010). *United Nation*
830 *Framework Convention on Climate Change: Full Text of the Convention*. United
831 Nation Framework Convention on Climate Change. Bonn. Retrieved from
832 http://unfccc.int/essential_background/convention/background/items/2536.php

833 United Nations (UN). (2015). *Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable*
834 *Development*. Retrieved from New York: United Nations:
835 <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/post2015/transformingourworld/publication>

836 Crimmins, A., Balbus, J., Gamble, C., Beard, C., Bell, J., Dodgen, D., Eisen, R., Fann,
837 N.,Hawkins, M., Herring, S., 2017. The Impacts of Climate Change on Human Health in the
838 United States: A Scientific Assessment. 2016. US Global Change Research
839 Program,Washington DC.

840 Varghese, B. M., Hansen, A. L., Williams, S., Bi, P., Hanson-Easey, S., Barnett, A. G.,
841 Heyworth, J. S., Sim, M. R., Rowett, S., & Nitschke, M. (2020). Heat-related injuries
842 in Australian workplaces: Perspectives from health and safety representatives. *Safety*
843 *Science*, 126, 104651.

844 Venugopal, V., Chinnadurai, J. S., Lucas, R. A., & Kjellstrom, T. (2015). Occupational heat
845 stress profiles in selected workplaces in India. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, *13*(1),
846 89. <https://doi:10.3390/ijerph13010089>

847 Wilbanks, T. J. (2002). Geographic scaling issues in integrated assessments of climate change.
848 *Integrated Assessment*, *3*(2-3), 100-114.

849 WMO (2021). State of the global climate 2020. WMO. No. 1264. WMO, Geneva, Switzerland
850 https://library.wmo.int/doc_num.php?explnum_id=10618.

851 Xiang, J., Bi, P., Pisaniello, D., & Hansen, A. (2014). Health impacts of workplace heat
852 exposure: an epidemiological review. *Ind Health*, *52*(2), 91-101.

853 Xiang, J., Hansen, A., Pisaniello, D., & Bi, P. (2015). Perceptions of workplace heat exposure
854 and controls among occupational hygienists and relevant specialists in Australia. *PloS*
855 *one*, *10*(8), e0135040. <https://doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0135040>

856 Yaro, J. A. (2013). The perception of and adaptation to climate variability/change in Ghana by
857 small-scale and commercial farmers. *Regional Environmental Change*, *13*(6), 1259-
858 1272. <https://doi:10.1007/s10113-013-0443-5>

859 Zare, S., Shirvan, H. E., Hemmatjo, R., Nadri, F., Jahani, Y., Jamshidzadeh, K., & Paydar, P.
860 (2019). A comparison of the correlation between heat stress indices (UTCI, WBGT,
861 WBDT, TSI) and physiological parameters of workers in Iran. *Weather and Climate*
862 *Extremes*, *26*, 100213

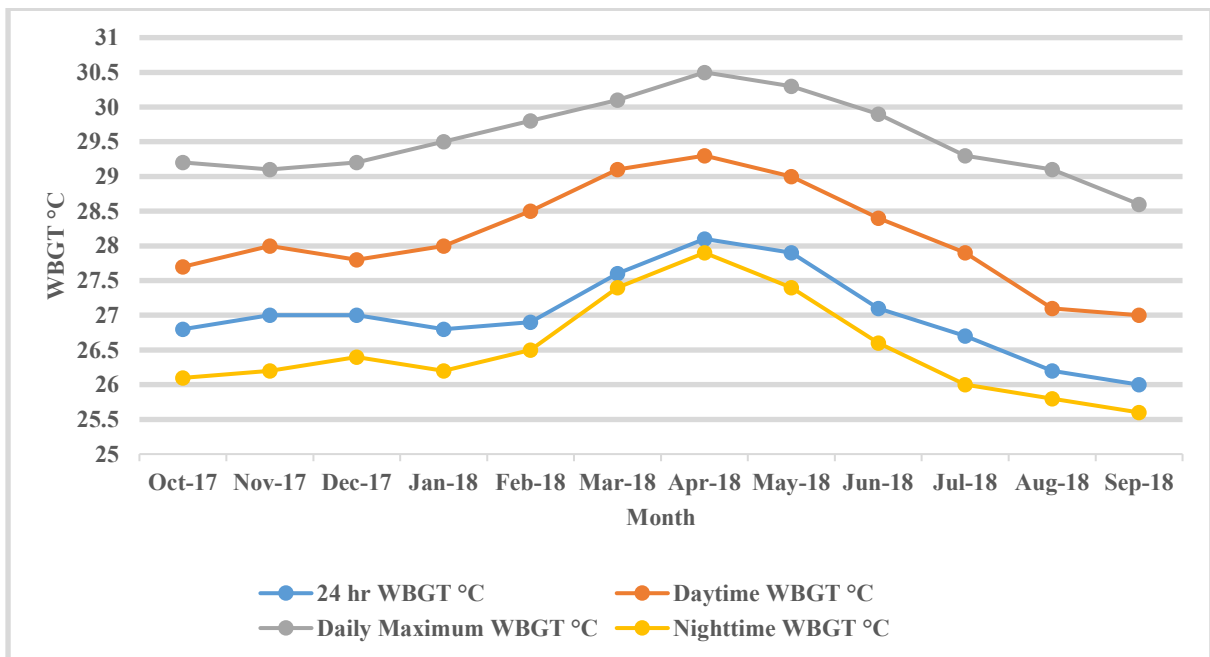


Fig. 1 Average monthly WBGT indoors in the work environment of mining workers

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018

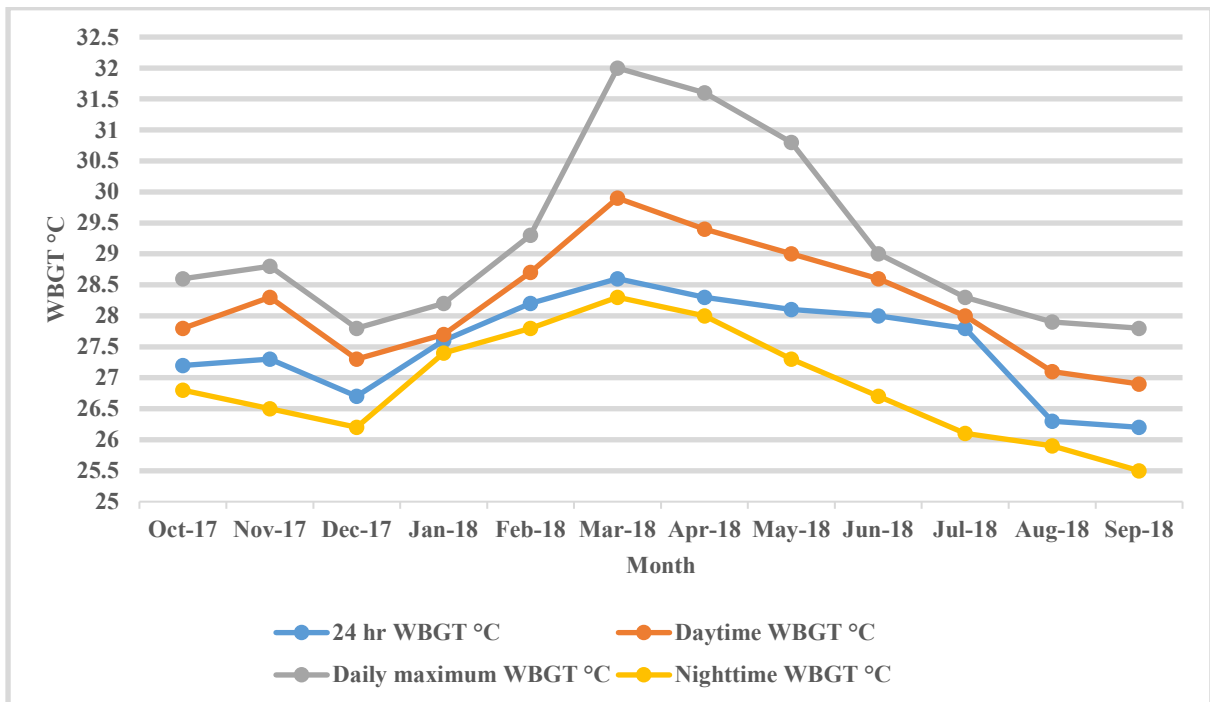


Fig. 2 Average monthly WBGT outdoors in full shade in the work environment of mining workers

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018

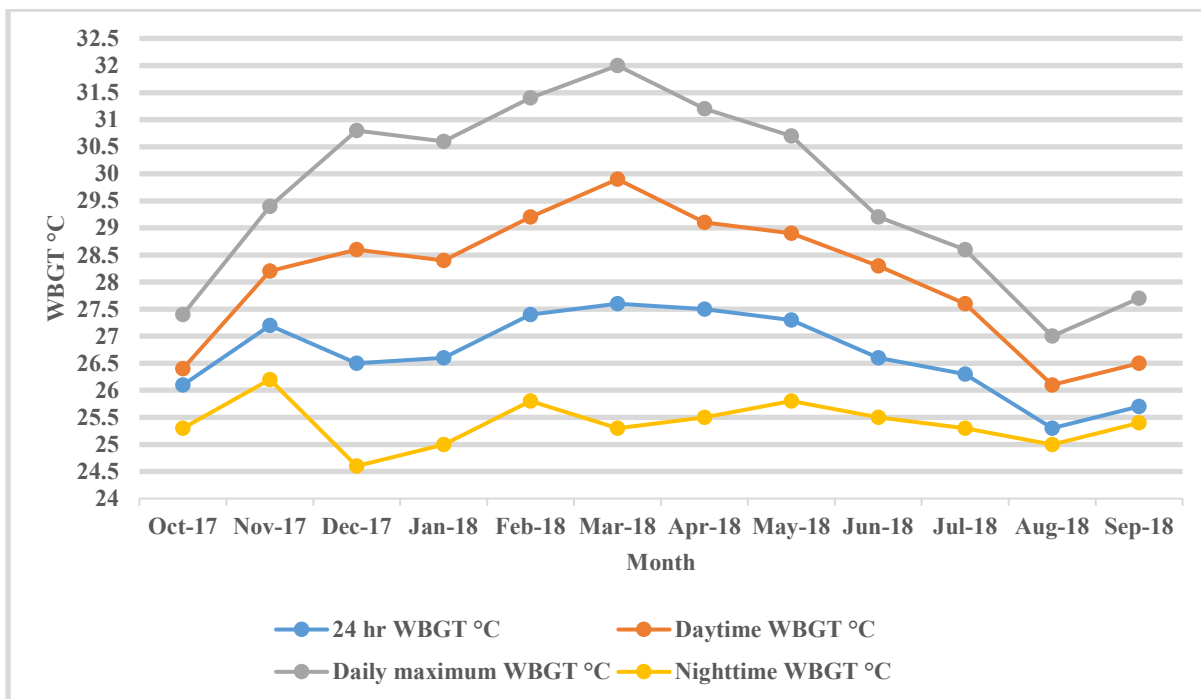


Fig. 3 Average monthly WBGT indoors in the living environment of mining workers

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018

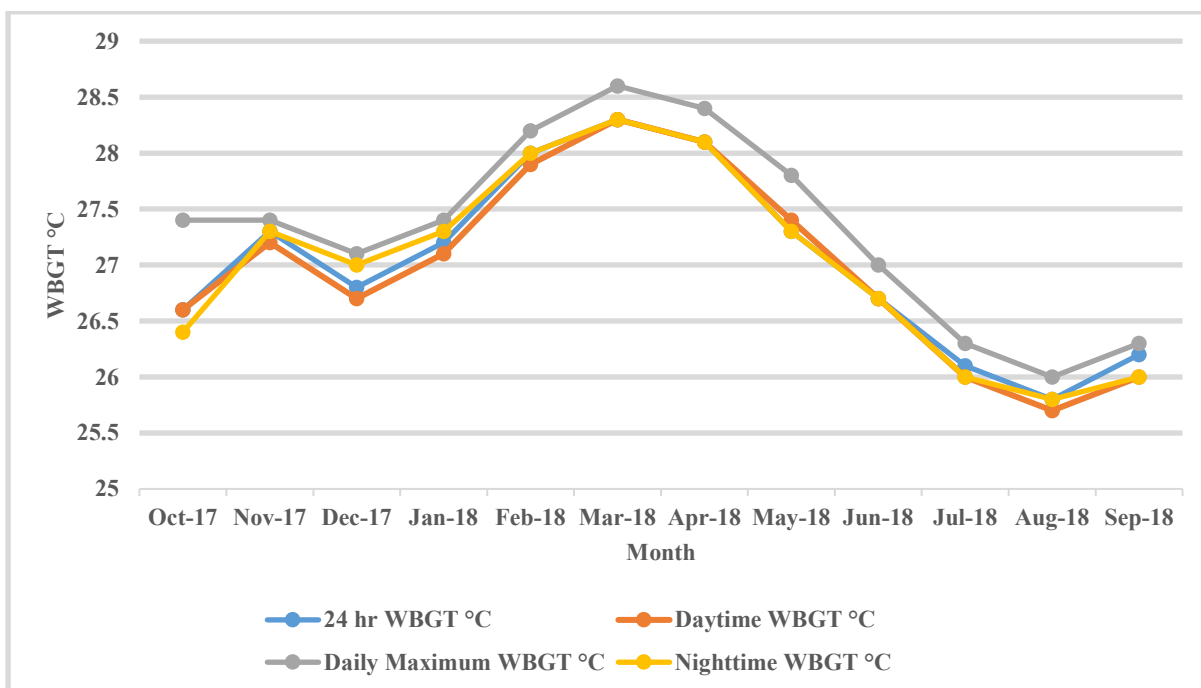


Fig.4 Average monthly WBGT outdoors in full shade in the living environment of mining workers

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018

Table 1. Approved criteria for maximum WBGT exposure limits (° C) based on various work intensities and work-rest proportions for a normal acclimatise worker in light clothing

Work/rest intensity	Workload			
	Light WBGT(° C)	Moderate WBGT(° C)	Heavy WBGT(° C)	Very heavy WBGT(° C)
Continuous work, 0% rest/hour ^a	31.0	28.0	27.0	25.5
75% work, 25% rest/hour ^a	31.5	29.0	27.5	26.5
50% work, 50% rest/hour ^a	32.0	30.5	29.5	28.0
25% work, 75% rest/hour ^a	32.5	32.0	31.5	31.0
No work at all, 100% rest/hour ^b	39.0	37.0	36.0	34.0

^aEstimates extracted from ISO;

^bApproved by NIOSH

Source: ISO, 1989; NIOSH, 1986

Table 2. Results of the difference in heat exposure risk factors across mining workers' demographic characteristics (Chi-Square test) (n=320); F=frequency

Heat exposure risk	Characteristics							Total F (%)
	Age		Sex		Education			
	Younger (21- 49yrs) F (%)	Older (50 - 61yrs) F (%)	Male F (%)	Female F (%)	Uneducated F (%)	Educated F (%)		
<i>Workplace heat exposure risk</i>								
Yes	271(91.9)	23(92.0)	235(79.7)	59(96.7)	8(88.9)	286(92.0)	294(91.9)	
No	24(8.1)	2(8.0)	24(20.3)	2(3.3)	1(11.1)	25(8.0)	26(8.1)	
	$\chi^2(1) = 0.000, p = 1.000$		$\chi^2(1) = 1.637, p = 0.201$		$\chi^2(1) = 0.000, p = 1.000$			
<i>Environmental risk factors (n=542*)</i>								
How hot the air is around the workplace	166(31.1)	10(25.0)	143(31.5)	33(37.5)	6(35.3)	170(32.4)	176(32.5)	
The amount of air moisture in outdoor setting/workplace	37(7.4)	6(15.0)	35(7.7)	8(9.1)	1(5.9)	42(8.0)	43(7.9)	
Air speed/movement around the workplace	87(17.3)	7(17.5)	83(18.3)	11(12.5)	5(29.4)	89(16.9)	94(17.3)	
Heat radiation from the sun and other sources around the workplace	189(37.6)	14(35.0)	169(37.2)	34(38.6)	4(23.5)	199(37.9)	203(37.5)	
No response	23(4.6)	3(7.5)	24(5.3)	2(2.3)	1(5.9)	25(4.8)	26(4.8)	
	$\chi^2(4) = 1.237, p = 0.872$		$\chi^2(4) = 11.242, p < 0.05, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.187$		$\chi^2(4) = 1.641, p = 0.801$			
<i>Work-related risk factors(n=738*)</i>								
Type of physical workload	155(22.9)	12(18.8)	133(20.8)	34(34.7)	3(11.1)	164(23.1)	167(22.6)	
Duration of working hours	138(20.5)	12(18.8)	133(20.8)	17(17.4)	5(18.5)	145(20.4)	150(20.3)	
Type of protective clothing	59(8.8)	8(12.4)	56(8.8)	11(11.2)	0(0)	67(9.4)	67(9.1)	
Access to cooling systems (e.g., air conditions & fans)	57(8.5)	7(10.9)	55(8.6)	9(9.3)	1(3.7)	63(8.9)	64(8.7)	
Duration of break/rest hours	89(13.2)	6(9.4)	84(13.1)	11(11.2)	7(25.9)	88(12.4)	95(12.9)	
Access to shade	76(11.3)	6(9.4)	75(11.7)	7(7.1)	5(18.5)	77(10.8)	82(11.1)	
Access to drinking water	76(11.3)	9(14.1)	79(12.3)	6(6.1)	3(11.1)	82(11.5)	85(11.5)	
Type of clothing	17(2.5)	2(3.1)	18(2.8)	1(1.0)	2(7.5)	17(2.4)	19(2.6)	
No response	7(1.0)	2(3.1)	7(1.1)	2(2.0)	1(3.7)	8(1.1)	9(1.2)	
	$\chi^2(8) = 12.505, p = 0.130$		$\chi^2(8) = 35.166, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.294$		$\chi^2(8) = 8.504, p = 0.386$			
<i>Concerns about workplace heat exposure risk</i>								
Not at all concerned	12(4.1)	3(12.0)	13(5.0)	2(3.3)	2(13.3)	13(4.2)	15(4.7)	
A little concerned	28(9.5)	3(12.0)	22(8.5)	9(14.8)	0(0)	31(10.0)	31(9.7)	
Moderately concerned	46(15.6)	7(28.0)	48(18.5)	5(8.2)	0(0)	53(17.0)	53(16.6)	
Very much concerned	209(70.8)	12(48.0)	176(68.0)	45(73.7)	7(3.2)	214(68.8)	221(69.1)	
	$\chi^2(3) = 6.114, p = 0.106$		$\chi^2(3) = 5.743, p = 0.125$		$\chi^2(3) = 8.137, p < 0.05, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.164$			

*Multiple responses

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 3. Results of the difference in heat exposure risk factors across mining workers' work characteristics (Chi-Square test) (n=320); F=frequency

Heat exposure risk	Characteristics												Total
	Workload				Hours of work		Work environment		Physical work exertion		Work around source of heat		
	Light	Moderate	Heavy	Very heavy	Under 10hrs	10hr and over	Indoor	outdoor	Not at all	Very well	Yes	No	
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)
<i>Workplace heat exposure risk</i>													
Yes	21(100.0)	78(79.6)	115(95.8)	80(98.8)	97(85.8)	197(95.2)	197(93.4)	97(89.0)	52(86.7)	242(93.1)	265(95.0)	29(70.7)	294(91.9)
No	0(0)	20(20.4)	5(4.2)	1(1.2)	16(14.2)	10(4.8)	14(6.6)	12(11.0)	8(13.3)	18(6.9)	14(5.0)	12(29.3)	26(8.1)
	$\chi^2(3) = 29.335, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.303$				$\chi^2(1) = 7.317, p < 0.05, \text{Phi} = -0.163$		$\chi^2(1) = 1.303, p = 0.197$		$\chi^2(1) = 1.893, p = 0.116$		$\chi^2(1) = 25.006, p < 0.001, \text{Phi} = 0.297$		
<i>Environmental risk factors (n=542*)</i>													
How hot the air is around the workplace	7(26.9)	33(23.7)	74(39.2)	62(33.0)	68(29.6)	108(34.5)	119(34.4)	57(29.1)	30(40.0)	146(31.3)	162(32.9)	14(28.0)	176(32.5)
The amount of air moisture in outdoor setting/workplace	1(3.9)	15(10.8)	12(6.4)	15(8.0)	18(7.9)	25(8.0)	31(9.0)	12(6.1)	5(6.7)	38(8.1)	39(7.9)	4(18.0)	43(7.9)
Air speed/movement around the workplace	2(7.7)	13(9.4)	28(14.8)	51(27.1)	48(21.0)	46(14.7)	53(15.3)	41(20.9)	4(5.3)	90(19.3)	91(18.5)	3(6.0)	94(17.3)
Heat radiation from the sun and other sources around the workplace	16(61.5)	58(41.7)	70(37.0)	59(31.4)	79(34.5)	124(39.6)	128(37.0)	75(38.3)	28(37.3)	175(37.5)	185(37.6)	18(36.0)	203(37.5)
No response	0(0.0)	20(14.4)	5(2.6)	1(0.5)	16(7.0)	10(3.1)	15(4.3)	11(5.6)	8(10.7)	18(3.8)	15(3.1)	11(22.0)	26(4.8)
	$\chi^2(12) = 84.491, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.299$				$\chi^2(4) = 48.546, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.389$		$\chi^2(4) = 4.340, p = 0.362$		$\chi^2(4) = 21.679, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.260$		$\chi^2(4) = 29.672, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.305$		
<i>Work-related risk factors(n=738*)</i>													
Type of physical workload	16(48.5)	51(24.8)	73(29.6)	27(10.7)	62(19.7)	105(24.8)	113(24.6)	54(19.4)	41(43.6)	126(19.6)	143(21.6)	24(31.2)	167(22.6)
Duration of working hours	3(9.1)	44(21.4)	46(18.6)	57(22.6)	71(22.5)	79(18.7)	95(20.7)	55(19.7)	12(12.8)	138(21.4)	133(20.1)	17(22.0)	150(20.3)
Type of protective clothing	4(12.1)	28(13.6)	22(8.9)	13(5.2)	18(5.7)	49(11.6)	48(10.5)	19(6.8)	16(17.0)	51(7.9)	57(8.6)	10(13.0)	67(9.1)
Access to cooling systems (e.g., air conditions & fans)	4(12.1)	25(12.1)	21(8.5)	14(5.6)	32(10.2)	32(7.6)	36(7.8)	28(10.0)	11(11.7)	53(8.2)	49(7.4)	15(19.5)	64(8.7)
Duration of break/rest hours	2(6.0)	15(7.3)	30(12.2)	48(19.0)	40(12.7)	55(13.0)	53(11.5)	42(15.1)	7(7.5)	88(13.7)	93(14.1)	2(2.6)	95(12.9)
Access to shade	1(3.1)	14(6.8)	22(8.9)	45(17.9)	37(11.8)	45(10.4)	46(8.2)	36(12.9)	5(5.3)	77(12.0)	78(11.8)	4(5.2)	82(11.1)
Access to drinking water	1(3.1)	19(9.2)	24(9.7)	41(16.3)	41(13.0)	44(10.4)	49(10.7)	36(12.9)	2(2.1)	83(12.9)	82(12.4)	3(3.9)	85(11.5)
Type of clothing	2(6.0)	7(3.4)	6(2.4)	4(1.6)	8(2.5)	11(2.6)	12(2.6)	7(2.5)	0(0)	19(13.0)	19(2.9)	0(0.0)	19(2.6)
No response	0(0)	3(1.4)	3(1.2)	3(1.1)	6(1.9)	3(0.7)	7(1.5)	2(0.7)	0(0)	9(1.3)	7(1.1)	2(2.4)	9(1.2)
	$\chi^2(24) = 67.401, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.250$				$\chi^2(8) = 38.033, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.338$		$\chi^2(8) = 9.702, p = 0.287$		$\chi^2(8) = 28.393, p < 0.001, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.272$		$\chi^2(8) = 15.499, p < 0.05, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.195$		
<i>Concerns about workplace heat exposure risk</i>													
Not at all concerned	1(4.8)	7(7.1)	5(4.2)	2(2.5)	8(7.1)	7(3.3)	12(5.7)	3(2.8)	4(6.7)	11(4.2)	14(5.0)	1(2.4)	15(4.7)
A little concerned	3(14.3)	15(15.3)	9(7.5)	4(4.9)	11(9.7)	20(9.7)	19(9.0)	12(11.0)	7(11.6)	24(9.3)	22(7.9)	9(22.0)	31(9.7)
Moderately concerned	2(9.5)	27(27.6)	16(13.3)	8(9.9)	15(13.3)	38(18.4)	34(16.1)	19(17.4)	10(16.7)	43(16.5)	46(16.5)	7(17.1)	53(16.6)
Very much concerned	15(71.4)	49(50.0)	90(75.0)	67(82.7)	79(69.9)	142(68.6)	146(69.2)	75(68.8)	39(65.0)	182(70.0)	197(70.6)	24(58.5)	221(69.1)
	$\chi^2(9) = 26.675, p < 0.05, \text{Cramer's } V = 0.168$				$\chi^2(3) = 3.291, p = 0.349$		$\chi^2(3) = 1.696, p = 0.638$		$\chi^2(3) = 1.093, p = 0.779$		$\chi^2(3) = 7.065, p = 0.070$		

*Multiple responses

Source: Field survey, 2017

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of estimated average WBGT (24hr) from October 2017 to September 2018 measured from Lascar EL-USB-2-LCD data loggers; M=mean (of each month); SD=standard deviation (of monthly data); Min=Minimum (lowest monthly average); Max=maximum (highest monthly average)

Site	Variable	Average monthly WBGT (°C)												Descriptive statistics			
		Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sept	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Lascar 1: Indoor work environment	WBGT indoors	26.8	27.0	27.0	26.8	26.9	27.6	28.1	27.7	27.1	26.7	26.2	26.0	27.1	0.619	26.0	28.1
Lascar 2: Outdoor work environment	WBGT outdoor in shade	27.2	27.3	26.7	27.6	28.2	28.6	28.3	28.1	28.0	27.8	26.3	26.2	27.5	0.794	26.2	28.6
Lascar 3: Indoor living environment	WBGT in home	26.3	27.2	26.5	26.6	27.4	27.6	27.5	27.3	26.6	26.3	25.3	25.7	26.7	0.732	25.3	27.6
Lascar 4: Outdoor living environment	WBGT outdoor in shade	26.6	27.3	26.8	27.2	28.0	28.3	28.1	27.3	26.7	26.1	25.7	26.2	27.0	0.828	25.7	28.3

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of estimated average WBGT (daytime, daily maximum, and night-time) in the working and living environments of mining workers from October 2017 to September 2018 measured from Lascar EL-USB-2-LCD data loggers; M=mean (of each month); SD=standard deviation (of monthly data); Min=Minimum (lowest monthly average); Max=maximum (highest monthly average)

Variable	Average WBGT (°C)											
	Daytime				Daily maximum				Night-time			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Indoor working environment	28.2	0.738	27.0	29.3	29.6	0.570	28.6	30.5	26.5	0.706	25.6	27.9
Outdoor working environment	28.2	0.931	26.9	29.9	29.2	1.481	27.8	32.0	26.9	0.888	25.5	28.3
Indoor living environment	28.1	1.213	26.1	29.9	29.7	1.694	27.0	32.0	25.4	0.423	24.6	26.2
Outdoor living environment	27.0	0.850	25.7	28.3	27.3	0.842	26.0	28.6	27.0	0.856	25.8	28.3

Source: Field survey, 2017-2018