Supplementary Appendix A

- 1. Overview of recent micro-level research on the effect of religion on economic variables
- 2. Data collection and sampling
- 3. Description of the Heckman (1979) two-step procedure to check for possible selectivity biases arising from unobserved variables and self-selection into religiosity

1. Overview of recent micro-level research on the effect of religion on economic variables

Study	Synopsis of results with respect to effects on religion on
	economic variables
Guiso et al. (2003)	Using data from 66 countries, the authors find that religious
	upbringing, religiosity and religious practice promote
	economically conducive attitudes.
Cuesta (2004)	Religious affiliation does not have an effect on basis needs
	satisfaction in Nicaragua.
Steen (2004)	Focusing on men in the USA, 'the paper finds evidence that
	both men raised as Catholics and men raised as Jews have
	higher earnings.'
Sakwa (2006)	Among Catholic university students in Nairobi, Kenia,
	religious attitudes towards poverty correlate with specific
	poverty alleviation objectives.
Arano and Blair (2008)	There is a 'bicausal relationship between religion and income'
	in Mississippi, USA.
Chiswick and Huang	Among Jewish men in the USA, 'religious involvement is
(2008)	associated with more favorable labor market outcomes,' but
	'beyond some point religious practice has a negative effect.'
Bettendorf and Dijkgraaf	Using data from 25 countries, 'church membership is found to
(2010)	have a positive effect on income for high-income countries,'
	while 'this effect is negative for low-income countries.'
Bettendorf and Dijkgraaf	Religious attendance does not have an effect on household
(2011)	income in the Netherlands.
Permani (2011)	There is a positive effect of religious social capital on earnings
	in Indonesia.
Cornelissen and Jirjahn	In Germany, 'being raised by two religious parents, but having
(2012)	no current religious affiliation is associated with higher
	earnings.'
Audretsch et al. (2013)	'Religions like Islam and Jainism are more favorable for self-
	employment,' while 'Hindus are less likely to be self-
	employed.'

2. Data collection and sampling

The data collection process followed a two-phase design, a qualitative preparatory study followed by a quantitative household survey. We chose the two-phase approach in order to be able to contextualise the key analytical concepts and to pre-test the survey instrument. In the first phase, semi-structured interviews and focus group workshops were conducted in various villages. We gathered information on religious communities and developed contextually relevant categorizations with representatives of the local population. Moreover, we collected data on income sources such as informal income-generating activities and agricultural production patterns such as livestock-breeding, small-scale horticultural activities and the cultivation of field crops (cf. survey questionnaire in supplementary appendix B). The data was used to develop the survey instrument and later to perform consistency checks on the quantitative data.

In the second phase, 221 households were sampled from the universe (all households in Fetakgomo Municipality) in a two-stage cluster sampling process. We used a geographical approach. As the area is entirely rural, in nearly all instances one household inhabits one dwelling. The primary sampling units (clusters) were formed on the basis of the subplace delimitations by StatsSA. Thirty of 61 clusters were randomly selected with equal probability of selection. The size of the clusters varied between 25 and 2066 households.

The secondary sampling units are the households.¹ The sampling frame was recent Google Maps (2011) satellite imagery, in which all dwellings were clearly visible. Cluster delimitations were plotted on the aerial map, facilitating an allocation of households/dwellings to clusters. In each cluster, the households to be interviewed were selected through

¹ In order to ensure compatibility with data from official statistics, we used StatsSA's (2010) definitions of a household as 'a group of persons who live together and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone' and of a household member as 'a person that resides with the household for at least four nights a week.' The household head was operationalised as the household member who bears the responsibility in the household.

fixed rate sampling (1 in 55), ensuring that each household in the universe had the same probability of selection given the differing size of the clusters. The satellite image proved to be an accurate frame. In the rare case of inaccuracies encountered, the frame was adjusted accordingly by adding those household or removing them, respectively. If the household head was absent, at least four re-visits were done at different hours and at least two different days. Of the 221 sampled households, 14 either refused to participate or were repeatedly unavailable. Interviews were conducted in 207 cases, yielding a response rate of 93.7%. Of these, due to missing values and the removal of outliers, 180 are used in the empirical part. All interviews were conducted with the household head in Northern Sotho, using the questionnaire presented in supplementary appendix B.

3. Description of the Heckman (1979) two-step procedure to check for possible selectivity biases arising from unobserved variables and self-selection into religiosity

In the first step, we run two probit-models, on the household head's probability of being member of the ZCC and on the probability of practicing ATR (as those are the religion categories with significant coefficients in the estimation of (2), see section 5 of the main article). The selection of the household into religion category r (zcc or atr, respectively) is modelled as follows.

$$r_i^* = z_i \gamma + u_i \tag{A.1}$$

where r_i^* is a latent variable and religion category $r_i = 1$ if $r_i^* > 0$ and $r_i = 0$ otherwise. z_i is the respective vector of the variables explaining the decision to actively practice zcc or atr. Symbol γ is a vector of the respective coefficients in the probit model and u_i is the error term, assumed to be normally distributed. This probit model needs to contain "at least one nontrivial determinant" of r_i , that is, a variable uncorrelated with household income except through its correlation with the religion category (Cameron & Trivedi, 2005:870). In section 5 of the main article, we identify such variables from the probit model (A.1) in combination with the results of equation (2) and provide a justification why we consider this exclusion restriction to hold.

We compute the inverse Mill's ratio (Heckman's λ) from the generalised residual of the probit estimates. The inverse Mill's ratio is given as

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\phi(z_i \gamma)}{\Phi(z_i \gamma)} \text{ and } \lambda_0 = \frac{\phi(z_i \gamma)}{1 - \Phi(z_i \gamma)}$$
(A.2)

for the r=1 and the r=0 cases, respectively. $\varphi(z_i\gamma)$ is the probability density function of the standard normal distribution and $\Phi(z_i\gamma)$ the cumulative distribution function.

In the second step, Heckman's λ is included as an additional regressor in the income equation. It is interacted with the dummy of the religion category r:

$$\ln(income_i) = \mathbf{x}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \beta_r r_i + \beta_a \lambda_{1i} r_i + \beta_b \lambda_{0i} (1 - r_i), \tag{A.3}$$

where \mathbf{x}_i summarises the regressors, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is the corresponding vector of coefficients, r_i denotes the religiosity dummy variable with β_r its coefficient. The terms $\beta_a\lambda_{1i}r_i$ and $\beta_b\lambda_{0i}(1-r_i)$ switch on and off depending on whether a household is in the $r_i=1$ category or not. The coefficient β_r is the 'true' effect of the dummy variable. The coefficients of Heckman's λ , β_a and β_b are the estimated covariances between the unobserved variables in the error term of the probit estimate and the unobserved variables in the error term of the income equation (1). If there is no significant correlation between the error terms, we can rule out selection bias from unobserved variables (Cameron & Trivedi, 2005). To statistically test for selection bias we perform a t-test on the coefficients of λ_1 and λ_0 (cf. Vella & Verbeek, 1999).

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