Investigating the subjective well-being of the informally employed: A case study of day labourers in Windhoek and Pretoria

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To my parents:

For always believing in me

ABSTRACT

The topic of subjective well-being (SWB) is receiving attention from academics and policymakers. Although many studies have been done on subjective well-being, very few focus on the informal economy. This dissertation investigates the subjective well-being of day labourers in Pretoria and Windhoek. Day labouring is an informal employment activity that is becoming more frequent in developing countries. The choice of the two cities is based on their status as the capital cities of two countries that are both experiencing increasing numbers of day labourers. This study contributes to a better understanding of the level and determinants of SWB of day labourers.

Data is sourced from comparable surveys among day labourers in the two cities in 2015 and 2017 respectively. Ordinary Least Squares and Ordered-Probit analysis are used to estimate the relationship between SWB and several other independent variables. Although income was added as a variable to see if it had an effect on subjective well-being (SWB), the variable was not significant and was discarded in the rest of the estimations. The estimations of the Pretoria data revealed that the total number of dependants of the day labourers, the conditions in which the day labourers are living and if they had a full time job before starting to work as day labourers, were all significant in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Pretoria. The analysis of the Windhoek data revealed that experience, living conditions, education levels, number of total dependants for which day labourers have to care, total days without food, whether the labourers stay with their families and whether they are foreigners, are all variables that are significant in explaining the subjective well-being of day labourers in Windhoek. The results show that the day labourers in Windhoek seemingly value family more than the day labourers in Pretoria. Separate regressions were run for Pretoria and Windhoek to establish whether the same determinants are significant for the two different countries.

Key words: informal economy, day labourers, mixed method research

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The examination of the levels and causes of subjective well-being has become a popular and interesting field of study in economics for the past number of decades. Although subjective well-being is a topic that has been researched in multiple settings, little focus has been given to the informal sector. This study aims to contribute to the limited literature available, with an informal sector focus.

The persistent high levels of unemployment and poverty in SA (South Africa) have been well documented. The latest figure puts unemployment, according to the strict definition, at more than 27% in 2018 (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Many people are forced into the informal economy, where they engage in a variety of survivalist activities, such as day labouring (Blaauw, P.F., Botha, I., Schenck, C.J., Schoeman, C., 2013). Past research provided evidence of the negative effect that spells of individual unemployment can have on subjective well-being (Diener & Chan, 2011; Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012). As very little research has been conducted on the subjective well-being of the informally employed and day labourers in particular, the aim of this study is to investigate the determinants of the subjective well-being of informally employed workers, such as day labourers. Since there has not been much research on the topic of subjective well-being in the informal sector, this study can help to fill the void that exists. There will be a specific focus on what the determinants are, that possibly influence the subjective well-being of day labourers.

As a result of their individual unemployment, day labourers are forced to offer their labour on the street corners and at intersections to make a living and to care for their families. Given the high search cost and the uncertainty of the level of income that they will receive for the day's work (if any employment is secured it all), it was found that there is no pure economic rationale for workers to engage in these job-search activities with its uncertain outcome (Blaauw et al., 2013).

Researching the subjective well-being, not only in Pretoria, South Africa but also in Windhoek, Namibia can help people understand what determines the subjective well-being of the day labourers in both these countries' urban settings. The two cities are the capitals of both

countries and provide the basis for comparisons of the situation in two countries whose economies are closely interlinked.

According to the Namibian Labour Force Survey of 2016, the total number of employed people in Namibia was 676 885, where 450 075 of these people were informally employed. This is an informal employment rate of 66.5%. 52.21% of males and 47.79% of females are informally employed. In addition to these statistics, 52.83% of the informally employed population are employed in urban areas and 47.17% are employed in rural areas (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016). According to the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) of the second quarter of 2018, the total number of employed in South Africa is 16 387 000 people, where 2 828 000 people were informally employed (non-agricultural) in South Africa between April and June. The quarter to quarter change was 73 000 people who joined the informally employed, and the year to year change from 2017 to 2018 was 68 000 people (Statistics South Africa, 2018). The informal employment rate will then be 17.26%. These statistics show that proportionally less people depend on being informally employed in South Africa to care for themselves and their families, and more depend on informal work in Namibia.

The research will focus on the relationship between the levels of income the day labourers receive and other variables that may possibly explain subjective well-being, and the subjective well-being of the day labourers. The original view of income and subjective well-being was that the level of income has little effect on the happiness of a person. This view has been challenged by empirical findings and it is now accepted that well-being and income levels do have a relatively strong correlation (Blaauw et al., 2013; Diener & Oishi, 2000; Diener et al., 1993).

Currently, the majority of studies on subjective well-being are conducted in topics such as race and income levels for people that are formally employed, and there are few studies where the focus is specifically on the informally employed. This study, therefore, aims to make a contribution to this limited literature by investigating the subjective well-being of the informally employed day labourers in Windhoek and in Pretoria.

The section that follows provides an outline regarding the problem statement and research questions, which have been identified for the purpose of this study.

1.2 Problem statement

Extensive literature exists in South Africa and the rest of the world regarding the topic of subjective well-being or self-reported happiness, most of which has been conducted in a formal sector environment, where people are permanently employed.

The research problem in this study is that there is not enough information available on the subjective well-being and its possible determinants of the informally employed in South Africa and in Namibia, limiting our knowledge and understanding of the quality of life of vulnerable groups in the economy. Subjective well-being forms only one element of the overall quality of life of a country's citizens. Development agencies of Government as well as Non-Government Organisations (NGOs), active in improving the quality of life of those living on the margins of the formal economy, can benefit from an improved understanding of the subjective well-being of the informally employed (Blaauw et al., 2018). In Namibia, a NGO called Men on the side of the Road (MSR) is an example of an organisation that attempts to improve the lives of day labourers in Windhoek by focussing their attention on aspects that impact day labourers' daily lives and, therefore, their subjective well-being. A similar organisation was active in Cape Town but closed down recently (Blaauw et al., 2018).

The following section will provide an outline regarding the main objectives of this study.

1.3 Research Study Objectives

1.3.1 General objectives

The general objective of this study is to investigate the levels of subjective well-being of the informally employed day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek, and to identify potential determinants of the subjective well-being of day labourers.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

Based on the research question posed in section 1.2, the study aims to achieve the following specific objectives:

1.3.2.1 Determine what the level of subjective well-being (self-reported happiness) is for the day labourers in Pretoria and Windhoek.

1.3.2.2 Determine the possible factors that can influence subjective well-being of day labourers in the capitals of the two countries.

1.3.2.3 To identify possible reasons why there are differences in the subjective well-being of the day labourers.

1.3.2.4 To compare the results of the study with other subjective well-being studies in the informal economy.

The following section will provide an outline regarding the research design and method that will be used in the study.

1.4 Research design and method

To answer the proposed research questions, background will be provided, as well as an appropriate literature review. The literature review will describe previous research that was done by academics from all over the world. The literature review will consist of previous research about subjective well-being in general and the limited literature based specifically on the informal economy.

The study will employ a mixed method research approach, based on surveys conducted amongst day labourers in Windhoek and in Pretoria. The surveys have been conducted in 2015 and 2017 for Pretoria and Windhoek, respectively. The South African survey was conducted in Pretoria in the first term of 2015 and consists of 290 observations. The Namibian survey was conducted in October 2017 in Windhoek and consists of 80 observations. In both cases the response rates were high (more than 90%) and the surveys are representative of the research populations in both cities. From the survey data, the levels of subjective well-being will be reported/calculated for each city, and then compared to see how the subjective well-being of the two cities differs from each other.

The questionnaires will provide insight into the demographics, working conditions of the day labourers, their levels of education and the conditions that the day labourers are living in. The level of subjective well-being was measured from a question that was asked in the questionnaires. Question 48 in the Namibian survey and question 73 in the South African survey asks: “On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 being very unhappy) how happy are you with your life at the moment?” This question corresponds with international literature on this topic and is also used in the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) surveys in South Africa. Depending on the answer given by the day labourers, a conclusion can be made on their level of self-reported well-being.

From the data that is collected from the surveys, an OLS regression will be conducted along with an Ordered-Probit analysis to investigate the subjective well-being of day labourers in the two cities.

Regressions will be conducted to identify the possible determinants of subjective well-being for each city's day labourers in the sample. For all regressions, subjective well-being among the day labourers will be the dependant variable. Possible independent variables will include, race, age, income, living conditions, education levels and other variables identified in the literature review.

1.5 Defining and clarifying concepts used in the study

1.5.1 Defining subjective well-being

Diener (1984) introduced the term *subjective well-being* to help identify and understand the field of psychology, and how it affects the happiness of people, including their cognitive judgements and their affective reactions. Subjective well-being can be defined as the personal perception of a person and also the experience of the positive and negative emotional responses that a person experiences to obtain satisfaction with their life (Proctor, 2014).

Subjective well-being comprises of the scientific analysis of how people evaluate the quality of their lives, not only for the current moment, but also for longer periods of time such as for the last year. This will include the emotions, moods and judgement that people form about the satisfaction of their lives. This means that subjective well-being concerns the study of what people will call happiness or satisfaction (Diener et al., 2003).

The components of subjective well-being reflect the evaluations of what is happening in people's lives, but the facets of subjective well-being, such as a positive or negative effect and also life satisfaction, shows independence, and should be studied individually (Diener et al., 2003). Day labourers face long spells of individual unemployment, and past research has shown that these spells of individual unemployment have a negative effect on the subjective well-being of these individuals' well-being (Diener & Chan, 2011; Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012).

1.5.2 Subjective vs. Psychological well-being

In a study done by Samman (2007), she looks at subjective and psychological well-being as a proposal for internationally comparable indicators. The paper uses a list of seven indicators and a module containing relevant questions needed to construct the indicators. The indicators address the eudemonic and hedonic criteria, where the eudemonic criteria reflect the psychological well-being of a person and the hedonic criteria reflect the subjective well-being of a person.

Subjective perceptions of well-being have three components, namely: a cognitive component (life satisfaction) and a positive and negative effect. The preponderance of the positive over the negative aspect can be described as happiness, or in other terms, as subjective well-being.

Psychological well-being can be defined as the positive or negative relationships that people have with each other, and it can be attained by achieving a state of balance affected by both challenging and rewarding life events (Samman, 2007).

The Ryff Scales of Psychological well-being is a theoretically grounded instrument, specifically designed to measure many facets of the psychological well-being of a person (Seifert, 2005). These facets include:

- Self-acceptance
- The establishment of quality ties to other people
- A sense of autonomy in thought and action
- The ability of a person to manage complex environments to suit personal needs and values
- To pursue meaningful goals and a sense of purpose in life
- Continued growth and development as a person (Seifert, 2005)

This can all be applied to the lives of day labourers in one way or another. They all want to feel accepted, not just by other people, but also by themselves. They want to have good relationships with other people, they want to have big goals and a sense of purpose in their lives and they want to develop and grow as a person in society.

The next section provides a brief introduction to the key aspects from the detailed literature review that will be presented in the following chapter.

1.5.3 Determinants of Subjective well-being from the international literature available

According to Diener (2000), national subjective well-being indicators would include various components of subjective well-being. These indicators are: **pleasant and unpleasant effects, life satisfaction, fulfilment, and even more specifically, states such as stress, affection, trust and joy**. These are all important indicators of subjective well-being. An important value of indicators for subjective well-being is that it could help researchers to determine which segments of society are the least happy and can then perhaps use this information to fashion social-development policies to aid them.

If more national indicators of subjective well-being were readily available on an annual basis, it could provide insight that could potentially enlighten policy-making, and help with individual choices as well. Many questions could be answered from these indicators, for example: Are people who are religious happier than others? Are the effects of poverty on subjective well-being moderated by the level of basic services in the country? (Diener, 2000)

Considering the determinants of subjective well-being in the literature, it is found that receiving a relatively large income, being a healthy person, and being married, are all aspects that are associated with increased levels of happiness of a person (Knight et al., 2007). Absolute and relative income are also seen as determinants of subjective well-being, but they are not the only determinants. Unemployment is also found to reduce the happiness of individuals, independent of the effects on income. Subjective well-being is also affected by many non-economic factors such as age, gender, marital status, health status, education, social capital, religion, and social and political institutions (Knight et al., 2007). The study done by Knight et al. (2007) in rural China, comes to the conclusion that subjective well-being is highly sensitive to respondents' perceptions of their households' position and their income distribution.

Personality and subjective well-being can also be linked to one another. The differences in individuals' personality and in their subjective well-being emerge early in life, are stable over time and have a moderate to strong genetic component. This has led some researchers to believe that subjective well-being is primarily determined by our inborn predispositions (Diener et al., 2003).

Headey and Wearing (1992) proposed the Dynamic Equilibrium model, where individuals have baseline levels of well-being, which are determined by their personalities. They argued that people will experience events based on their personalities, for example extroverts are more likely to get married than their introvert counterparts and are also more likely to have high status or high paying jobs. Unusual events can move a person below or above this baseline but eventually the person will return to baseline as events normalise (Diener et al., 2003).

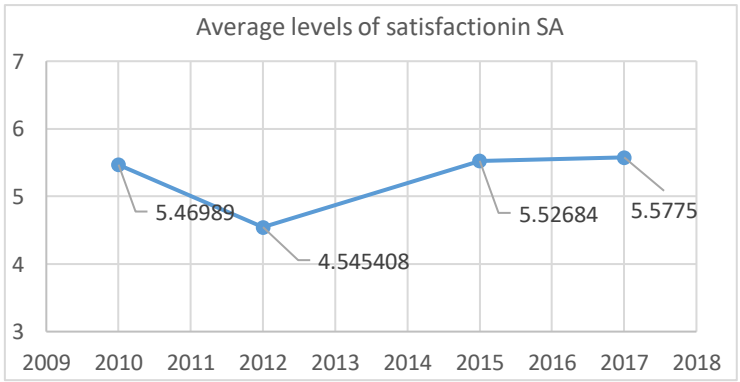
1.5.4 Determinants of Subjective well-being in South Africa from the literature available

The case for determinants of subjective well-being in South Africa is different from the developed world. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and also ordered-probit estimations reveal that the age, race, level of income, years of education, gender, marital status and the number

of children explains the varying levels of subjective well-being in South Africa (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012; Botha & Booysen, 2011; Ebrahim et al., 2013). According to Botha and Booysen (2011), the overall life satisfaction of South African adults is considerably higher for married people, compared to widowed individuals. It is also stated that married men are not more satisfied than their unmarried counterparts. Marriage can be positively associated with subjective well-being in women, but does not explain subjective well-being among men (Botha & Booysen, 2011). Unlike the developed world, respondents' height, health and if they reside in urban or rural areas, do not explain subjective well-being in South Africa. Religion and provincial location strongly determine subjective well-being in South Africa (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012).

Race forms a prominent part of the history of subjective well-being in South Africa. For forty years, black South Africans have lived under the rule of Apartheid and for some 300 years before that, under colonial rule (Møller, 1999). Five years after the first inclusive democratic elections in South Africa, the life satisfaction and subjective well-being still reflected divides in society that were sowed by the social engineering that was Apartheid (Møller, 1999). In 1999, five years after the elections that ushered in the new government for South Africa, the level of life satisfaction for black South Africans has not risen above midpoint and the subjective well-being was only just risen over the midpoint (Møller, 1999).

Figure 1.1: Average satisfaction with life-as-a-whole in South Africa 2010-2017



Source: National Income Dynamics Study, Wave 1&2, 4&5, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017

Figure 1.1 shows the average levels of subjective well-being as a whole for the individuals in South Africa. The figure indicates the average levels of subjective well-being on a Likert scale from 1 to 10. The figure shows that there is a positive trend in the subjective well-being of individuals in South Africa, with a drop from 2010 until 2012. The levels of subjective well-being increased from 2013 (National Income Dynamics study, Wave 1-5, 2010, 2012, 2015, 2017).

Global indicators of happiness and domain satisfactions that were applied in the South African Quality of Life Trends Project showed that there were major divides in society. More than 180 indicators confirmed that white South Africans were more consistently happy with most of the aspects of their lives, whereas the black South Africans, were the race group that were least happy and satisfied with their lives (Møller, 1999).

1.5.5 Determinants of Subjective well-being of day labourers from the available literature

An important contributing factor to subjective well-being may be South Africa's high unemployment rate of 27.2% in 2018. The unemployment rate in Namibia was 34% in 2016 (Statistics South Africa, 2018; Namibia Statistics Agency, 2016). This is one of the reasons why people are forced to become day labourers and have to stand on street corners and wait for someone to pick them up to do an odd job for the day.

Other factors that influence the subjective well-being of day labourers is their living conditions and the income they receive. Scholars contend that there is some sort of threshold of decent living standards and if people fall below that threshold, they will be miserable. Many day labourers live in the townships and sometimes go a few days without receiving work, which can become difficult to deal with (Blaauw et al., 2018).

A characteristic that applies strongly to the subjective well-being of day labourers is the unstable and uncertain levels of income that exist in this informal labour market (Blaauw et al., 2013). The day labourers do not know whether they will have a job, so they have to stretch their money. Theory does suggest that these unstable income levels do have an influence on the subjective well-being of day labourers in South Africa, and this can also be the case in Namibia (Blaauw et al., 2018). The day labourers that stand on the corners of the street waiting for someone to pick them up are almost exclusively male (Blaauw et al., 2013). The composition according to race reveals that it is predominantly African and Coloured members of the population who engage in day-labouring, which forms part of informal economic activity (Blaauw et al., 2013).

Due to the fact that many of the day labourers lost their jobs in the formal economy, the day labourers engage in day labouring as a survivalist activity, not because they want to but because they have to do it to survive. If day labourers receive a good wage during the week, then there is a probability that their subjective well-being will be increased by 43% and if they were previously employed fulltime in the formal economy, then their subjective well-being will decrease with 26% (Blaauw et al., 2013).

Day labouring is also more difficult when the person has a family that he or she has to care for, and many times, they have to face the family with empty hands because they could not get a job for the day. The main determinants for subjective well-being of day labourers are race, their primary schooling, day labourers who are in the twenties age group, economic variables and lastly the comparison variables (having food, the income they receive) (Blaauw et al., 2013). This forms part of a study done by Blaauw et al. (2013) on the subjective well-being of day labourers in South Africa.

1.6 Research outline

The study is divided into five sections. Chapter one is the introduction, problem statement and objectives, whereas chapter two will be the full literature review about the subjective well-being of day labourers covering the different definitions, the situation of day labourers in both countries and the determinants that have been identified by previous researchers – for both countries and a broader international scene.

Chapter three will be a description of the methodology that will be used in the study. Chapter four will consist of the descriptive statistics and the empirical analysis (an OLS and an Ordered-Probit analysis) that will be used to test the different factors that are identified to see what the possible effect will be on subjective well-being.

Chapter five will consist of the final conclusion and the tentative policy implications that this study can have and also recommendations on future research that can be conducted to better understand subjective well-being amongst day labourers and other vulnerable groups operating on the margins of the formal economy.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

The main focus of this chapter is to provide a detailed overview of the main concepts of the study, in this case, subjective well-being (SWB) and day labourers. This chapter will provide the definitions, concepts and the most important theories that are related to SWB and day labourers in South Africa, Namibia and throughout the world.

Literature regarding SWB in the informal economy in South Africa will be reviewed and also literature about the overall subjective well-being of South Africa. The global outlook on SWB will be perused and attention will be given to what the possible determinants of subjective well-being are from the available literature.

The chapter is set out as follows: Section 2.2 will be the discussion of SWB and its various definitions, concepts and measurements as well as the definition of day-labouring. Section 2.3 will be the outline of subjective well-being throughout the world. Section 2.4 will be an outline of the SWB in South Africa and in the informal economy. Section 2.5 will be a discussion of the possible determinants of SWB from the available literature and section 2.6 will be the conclusion.

2.2 Definitions, concepts and measurement of subjective well-being and day labourers

2.2.1 Subjective well-being

Richard Easterlin was a pioneer in research on the topic of subjective well-being or happiness in 1974. He invented what is called the Happiness Income Paradox (HIP) or as more commonly known, the Easterlin Paradox. He explains the income paradox as follows: “At any point in time, not only among nations but also within nations, the happiness of people varies directly with income, but over time, as the income of a country increases, it is not usually the case with the happiness of the people (Easterlin et al., 2010:1)”. In other words, the paradox states that happiness does not necessarily increase when the income of a country increases (Easterlin et al., 2010). In 2010, Easterlin contributed to a study named: The happiness-income paradox revisited. In the paper, the measures used for happiness or subjective well-being were life satisfaction and financial satisfaction, where life satisfaction is one of the main measures used in subjective well-being studies (Easterlin et al., 2010). The paper used

financial satisfaction to see whether it will be more closely related to subjective well-being and income changes in the economy (Easterlin et al., 2010).

Since ancient times, people have thought about what it is that makes people happy and what has to be done to have a good life and be satisfied with that life. Scientists believe that a person has to decide for his/herself whether they are happy with their life. According to Diener (2009), subjective well-being can be defined as a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life. He also states that the evaluations a person has of their lives include emotional reactions to certain types of events and cognitive judgements, such as satisfaction and fulfilment (Diener, 2009:63). Subjective well-being can then be seen as a very broad concept, and includes emotions that are both pleasant and negative, and also emotions of high life satisfaction. The positive experiences a person has, are embodied in high levels of subjective well-being and these are the core concepts that make life rewarding (Diener, 2009:63).

Many economists, philosophers and social scientists have dedicated their life's work to discover the actual meaning of subjective well-being. According to Diener (1984) the definitions of subjective well-being can be grouped or divided into three sub categories. The first category is that well-being can be defined by external factors such as virtue. In many normative cases, well-being is not seen as a subjective state of mind, but rather as having some sort of unique and desirable quality. This can be seen as a normative definition because it states to a person what it is that is desirable. Aristotle wrote that eudemonia, or in other words wellness or well-being, is gained by leading a virtuous life. What was meant by this statement is that Aristotle was describing virtue as the normative standard against which a person's life can be judged (Diener, 1984).

The second category of defining subjective well-being according to Diener (1984) is the question of what makes people specifically decide to evaluate their life in positive terms. This has been labelled as life satisfaction throughout the decades and it relies on a respondent to decide what his/her standards are, to be able to determine what a good life is. To investigate well-being as a subjective topic has become very popular over the years. According to Diener (1984), Shin and Johnson (1978) have defined well-being as subjective as "the global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his/her own chosen criteria". This means that every individual has his/her own set of criteria or factors that will be able to make him satisfied or happy with his life. No one person is the same. Another definition is that subjective

well-being can be defined as “the harmonious satisfaction of one’s desires and goals”. This definition was developed by Chekola (1975).

The third category is about how the term subjective well-being is used in everyday dialogue. This definition of subjective well-being stresses the pleasant emotional experiences of a person. This means that a person is experiencing mostly positive and pleasant emotions during his/her lifetime. The satisfaction of life and the positive affect are both frequently studied by researchers (Diener, 1984). Although literature talks about subjective well-being, how the term is used in everyday language differs and may have somewhat different meanings than for the purpose of this study.

Subjective well-being has three hallmarks, which are firstly, the subjective meaning, secondly, the positive measures and thirdly, these measures usually include the global assessment a person has about his/her life overall (Diener, 1984). Many scales and indexes have been designed to measure the affective and cognitive aspects of subjective well-being.

According to Proctor (2014), subjective well-being can be defined as the personal perception and experience of positive and also negative responses, and the global and specific cognitive evaluations of satisfaction with life. Proctor (2014) also states that subjective well-being is the individual evaluation of the quality of life (QOL) of a person and it thus converges with the definition of quality of life. Proctor (2014) also states that according to Andrews and Withey (1976), subjective well-being also has three components. These components are life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect. Individuals have high levels of subjective well-being if they are satisfied with their lives, and experience frequent positive effects such as joy and optimism (Proctor, 2014). On the other hand, individuals are said to experience low levels of subjective well-being if they are dissatisfied with their lives, do not experience any form of joy, and continuously feel negative emotions such as sadness and anger (Proctor, 2014).

Most researchers have similar definitions for subjective well-being. For example, Diener et al. (2003), define subjective well-being as the scientific analysis of how people evaluate their lives, which is close to the definitions of both Diener (1984) and Proctor (2014). The definition of subjective well-being is one of a broad and multifaceted domain, and it also includes many affective and cognitive components (Diener et al., 1999:2). The paper describes subjective well-being, “as a broad category of phenomena that includes people’s emotional responses, domain satisfactions and global judgements of life satisfaction.”

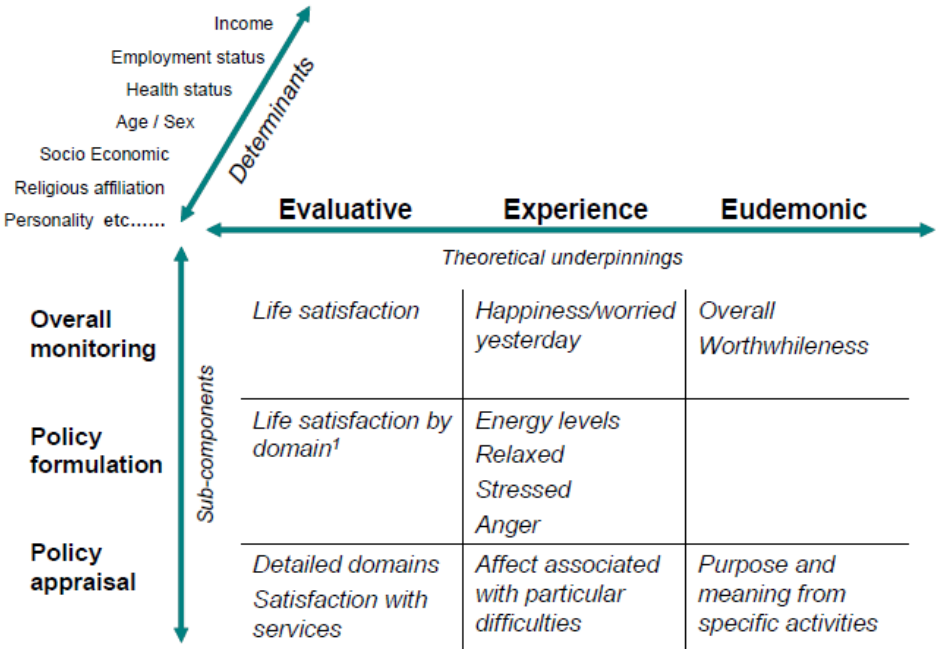
Subjective well-being can be measured using a number of interrelated concepts. According to Proctor (2014), the affective and cognitive components of subjective well-being can be measured using self-report. This means that respondents will give researchers their own view of how happy they are with their lives. There are also a few scales and indexes that can be used to measure subjective well-being. Some of the most popular are the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Watson et al., 1992) and the Affect Balance Scale (Bradburn, 1969; Proctor, 2014).

Early survey methods exist to measure subjective well-being and these usually pose a single question about the well-being or life satisfaction of a person. One aspect that is worrisome for researchers is whether these self-report instruments are valid. The problem is that people might report that they are happy, when in fact they do not truly experience high levels of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 2003). Tests show that these methods possess a degree of validity. Andrew and Whitey (1976) discovered that when people were asked about their levels of subjective well-being, the results delivered scores that congregated well with one another. Multiple methods can also be used to accurately measure for subjective well-being. These methods help researchers understand how the respondents construct the responses they give about their levels of subjective well-being. It was reported that situational variables can exert a big impact on the life satisfaction and mood reports of individuals (Diener et al., 2003).

There are also meta-strategies that can be used to measure for subjective well-being. These are aspects such as researchers searching for information on the positive aspects of the individual's life or other researchers searching for information about the problematic areas of the individuals. These will differ regarding the type of outcome the researcher is aiming for (Diener et al., 2003). Kim-Prieto et al. (2005:3) asked the following question regarding the measures of subjective well-being: "To what degree do the different facets of subjective well-being converge?" It was stated that if the measures that were used by different approaches converge fully, it would justify the use of subjective well-being as a construct. If these measures were unrelated, the researchers would need to find and reconsider the usefulness of subjective well-being as a general construct. Again, some researchers have questioned the validity of subjective well-being measurements. Kim-Prieto et al. (2005) also states that global life satisfaction is the concept that comes closest to reflecting real subjective well-being. A person might experience positive moments but ends up saying that his/her life was pointless (Kim-Prieto et al., 2005). On the other hand, other researchers argue that on-line moods are

the best and least biased form of measurement for subjective well-being, and should have a place among subjective well-being measures (Kahneman, 1999). This shows that various subjective well-being measures display extensive reliability and validity, even though there are less satisfactory correlations between some measures of subjective well-being (Kim-Prieto et al., 2005).

Figure 2.1 The Conceptual framework for measuring subjective well-being



Source: Hicks, 2011

Figure 2.1 displays some of the various determinants of subjective well-being and also the concepts that can be used to measure subjective well-being. It shows the theoretical underpinnings that are the evaluative, experience and eudemonic components, and the sub-components that are the overall monitoring of subjective well-being, the policy formulation and the policy appraisal.

Measures for subjective well-being can be divided into three types according to Hicks (2011). These are evaluative measures, experience measures (sometimes known as affective measures) and also eudemonic measures (sometimes known as psychological measures). The most common or most well-known evaluative measure is life satisfaction. This measure is most used in the UK and in Europe, because life satisfaction is seen as a useful tool by researchers to measure subjective well-being (Hicks, 2011). This study also uses a life satisfaction question to measure the overall subjective well-being of day labourers. Another measure of life satisfaction is the Cantril ladder. This measure asks respondents to imagine

themselves seeing a ladder, the top being 10 or very satisfied with life and the bottom being 0 or dissatisfied with life; then they must state where they see their life's satisfaction level on this ladder (Hicks, 2011).

The second measure according to Hicks (2011), is experience (or affect). Many methods can be used to measure the effect of subjective well-being. Two of these methods are the Ecological Momentary Assessment (EMA) and the Day Reconstruction Method (DRM). Both of these approaches to measure subjective well-being are diary-based. There are, however, easier approaches to do this, such as the Princeton Affect Time Use Survey (PATS), which asks the experiences of a person at any random time during the day before. Another simpler method is the US Gallup World and Daily polls. These polls ask about a person's feelings during the entire day and not just one specific moment during the day, to get a more accurate reading of the person's subjective well-being level (Hicks, 2011). These easier methods sometimes lose important pieces of data but are still useful and more appropriate if researchers are doing large-scale surveys (Hicks, 2011).

The third and final measure is the eudemonic (well-being) measure. This measure is different to the evaluative and experience measures of subjective well-being but researchers have found that it is still important to include when measuring for subjective well-being (Hicks, 2011). This measure's theoretical foundations are of a much broader understanding of well-being and the meaning of life and it also includes components such as competence, autonomy and engagement (Hicks, 2011).

The next sub-section will discuss the definition of day-labouring.

2.2.2 Day-labouring

Valenzuela (2003) describes day-labouring as the practise of searching for work in an open-air space, in an informal labour market such as street corners, in front of relatable companies such as hardware stores or with the use of formal temp agencies. This means of work has become more and more popular over the years for a very broad segment of immigrants, and also local, primarily male, displaced workers. He states that two industries of day-labouring exist, the formal and the informal. Informal day labouring is mainly categorised by men, and in very few cases, women, who congregate in the open-air areas such as street corners, empty parking lots or storefronts, to solicit daily work (Valenzuela, 2003). On the other hand, formal day-labouring is when agencies hire temporary employment to cover for employees who are on leave. This study focuses on the aforementioned definition of day-labouring.

Day labourers sometimes work for the same person for a period of time, but they mostly work for different employers and get paid for their services on the day they work (Blaauw et al., 2006).

Hundreds of men (and occasionally women) gather at hiring sites across Pretoria and Windhoek, six to seven days a week, in search for jobs. Low-skilled and informal work, such as day labouring and waste picking, is some of the examples of the type of work people have to fall back on if they are unable to find employment in the formal sector. These people are forced into the informal economy, where they have to engage in these types of survivalist activities such as day-labouring (Blaauw et al., 2013). Because of this, many people are deprived both financially and emotionally (Blaauw et al., 2018). Past research also provides evidence of the negative effect that long spells of individual unemployment can have on the subjective well-being of these individuals (Diener & Chan, 2011; Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012). A study on the socio-economic reality of being a day labourer in Pretoria was conducted by Blaauw et al. (2006). The study concluded that family is important to the day labourers who work in Pretoria. Some day labourers lived at home, were part of a family and saw their family on a daily basis. Labourers in Pretoria also have a need for social interaction and this is proved by the study of Blaauw et al. (2006), whereby almost 50% of the labourers belong to religious groups.

Many times, these people do not have a choice but to take part in day labouring as a form of work because it is the only work they can find. Blaauw and Pretorius (2007) performed a study to see whether day labourers in Pretoria do day-labouring as a form of entrepreneurship or as a desperate effort to survive from day to day. It was found that these labourers are often very low-skilled workers and they do not experience any form of income security. On average, they have four people to care for on a daily basis (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2007). The education levels of these individuals are also disappointing, where just over 10 per cent of the labourers have finished matric. It is concluded that these day labourers are not being entrepreneurial and are not involved in day-labouring by choice. They are doing it because it is what has to be done to survive (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2007).

In saying this, however, there are day labourers who are independent entrepreneurs (Schenck & Louw, 2005). Many day labourers start their own little “companies”, for example, they exclusively do tiling, and then they appoint other day labourers to help them do the jobs that they receive on a daily basis. Subsequently, for this to be more efficient, skills-training is needed to train these labourers in the skillsets they need to do their jobs to the best of their

abilities (Schenck & Louw, 2005). A study on what happens to day labourers next to the road, standing for hours on end at three hiring sites in Pretoria, was also conducted by Schenck et al. (2012). The study was conducted to see the movements of day labourers at these three hiring sites in Pretoria, who picks them up and what it is that they do for hours next to the road. These labourers usually arrive at 06h00 in the morning and wait to be picked up by a potential employer; those that are lucky, have a previously arranged job and get picked up and transported to the work site. The day labourers who do not find jobs usually leave at around 14h00 in the afternoon (Schenck et al., 2012).

Day labourers who do not get a job by 10h00 in the morning, then start to socialise with the rest of the labourers that are also still at the hiring sites. One employer said that if they want skilled labour they had to go before 10h00, because after that time, some of the day labourers start drinking and then show no interest in receiving jobs for the day, because they will not be able to do the jobs while under the influence (Schenck et al., 2012)

Unlike other informal activities, many of the day labourers previously held a job in the formal sector. It is clear that a big portion (51%) of the day labourers (in the Blaauw et al. 2006 study) previously held stable employment before losing their jobs. These long periods of unemployment make it difficult for the labourers to be able to get jobs in the formal sector again (Blaauw et al., 2006).

Theodore et al. (2017) investigated the informality and the reception in South Africa's new immigrant destinations. The study examined Zimbabwean migrants who take part in the informal economy of South Africa as day labourers. Analysis reports that the informal economy in South Africa can and will play a significant role in the reception for immigrants to South Africa (Theodore et al., 2017). In South Africa and many other destination cities, the informal economy makes use of large numbers of informal day labourers, making it an important source of employment, earnings and also remittances. This has major implications for the lives of day labourers in these cities (Theodore et al., 2017).

Theodore et al. (2017) also state that migrants from other countries too face restricted options when it comes to employment opportunities. Many of the labourers are drawn to informal day labouring where earnings are very slow and unstable. There were signs that migrant day labourers had better outcomes than those day labourers born in South Africa (Theodore et al., 2017). Those advantages have, however, disappeared over the years.

Worker centres need to be created to regulate the jobs that the informal workers do so that it is easier for them to get work, no matter their immigration status (Theodore et al., 2017).

2.3 Subjective well-being as seen across the world

As stated in section 2.2, subjective well-being is a topic to which many researchers have dedicated their lives, and to discover exactly what it is that will make people completely happy with their lives. This section will outline and describe what the picture of subjective well-being looks like across the world. It will aim to see what the situation is for subjective well-being in different countries across the globe. This section will not just look at the subjective well-being of day labourers but at subjective well-being as a whole, no matter the person, industry or country.

A study investigating the subjective well-being of adolescent waste pickers in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, in 2017, included the concepts and factors that the waste pickers see as determining their subjective well-being (Hoeur, 2018). The study used qualitative exploratory research methods, with the use of in-depth interviews with the waste pickers (Hoeur, 2018). The article found that the social/relational domain, the cognitive domain and the affective domain were the three domains on which the subjective well-being of the waste pickers centred. There were also some factors that determined the subjective well-being of the waste pickers. These were factors such as feeling free from pressure, a positive outlook on life and being able to learn from experience (Hoeur, 2018). The overwhelming majority of these waste pickers also revealed that being with their family and friends gave them a sense of having a meaning for their lives. They also reported that they have friends at the dumpsites and when they are with their friends, they are happy. They also stated that having these friends made them feel safe, despite their very dangerous work, because their friends will help and support them (Hoeur, 2018). On the cognitive side of this paper, it was reported that the waste pickers have accepted their reality and their circumstances and this was found to be a contributing factor in the subjective well-being of the waste pickers and their concept of happiness. Some of the respondents reported that they are enjoying their lives because they have accepted their situations and believe that they will not be able to instantly change their lives, and the situation they are in (Hoeur, 2018). This is referred to as adaptive expectations. They have adapted and accepted their situation. That is mainly the reason why they are able to be happy. The affective domain of the study is made out of the realisation that they are still healthy and have freedom from worries. They know about the dangers they face every day but they have

reported that it is enough for them to know they are still healthy, despite working in those hazardous and toxic environments (Hoeur, 2018).

Blaauw et al. (2012) describes the possible determining factors of migrant wages of Zimbabwean day labourers that flock to other countries such as South Africa in search of making a better life for themselves. These day labourers from Zimbabwe face similar challenges to those that are from other African countries and from South Africa as well, but the reason for them migrating is different from the other day labourers (Blaauw et al., 2012). The majority of African day labourers migrate due to economic reasons but Zimbabwean labourers have to migrate due to economic, political and humanitarian reasons (Blaauw et al., 2012). The paper concludes that income received by Zimbabwean migrant labourers often surpassed the income received by other day labourers in South Africa at the time, and that the Zimbabweans often have higher levels of education (Blaauw et al, 2012). In another paper by Schenck and Blaauw (2008), the case of day labourers in Pretoria, Windhoek and the United States of America (USA) is investigated. This paper was conducted to see what the differences are between day labourers in two African capital cities and the labourers in a developed country such as the USA (Schenck & Blaauw, 2008). The findings of the study were that the case for day labourers is pretty much the same as in Pretoria and in Windhoek. It was found that the majority of day labourers in the USA are male, as is the case in Pretoria and Windhoek, and that day-labouring pays poorly in all of these cities (Schenck & Blaauw, 2008). The day labourers in Windhoek and in the USA indicated that at one point they would like to be employed in the formal sector, which will increase their subjective well-being because they will feel more secure. The prospects for day labourers in Southern Africa are extremely dim (Schenck & Blaauw, 2008). The chances of them being employed in the formal sector are not promising to say the least.

Subjective well-being was studied in Eastern Europe by Hayo et al. (2002). They analyse the subjective well-being of several European countries from 1991 to 1995. The economic well-being of a country explains a significant part of the life satisfaction of people in Eastern Europe. They find that if individuals report that their past is better than their current situation, that person is more likely to report lower levels of well-being. If a person expects himself to be better off in the future then he will also consider himself to be better off with his current situation (Hayo et al., 2002). Also, being married does not influence the economic and subjective well-being of the individuals in these countries. These results are different from other subjective well-being studies. They also state that people who report they are divorced,

show lower levels of economic well-being. It is also found that gender does not play a role in the economic well-being of these individuals (Hayo et al., 2002). It is further stated that people with higher levels of education show higher levels of economic well-being, and the larger the living arrangements (this being the size of the physical home they are living in) of people, the lower their levels of economic well-being, because they have to pay high rent (Hayo et al., 2002).

Watson et al. (2009) also investigated the subjective well-being in thirty-one European countries. They investigated the impact of individual and country-level characteristics on the satisfaction of life of these thirty-one countries. The relationship between subjective well-being and other variables that can explain the subjective well-being of individuals and countries, such as life satisfaction, optimism and emotional well-being, were examined (Watson et al., 2009).

The results indicated that within these countries, the highest levels of satisfaction or well-being was among the Nordic countries such as Denmark, Sweden and Finland. It also indicated that countries such as Portugal, Greece and Italy had the lowest levels of subjective well-being of these thirty-one European countries (Watson et al., 2009). The study also controlled for objective measures and conditions within the countries such as the demographics, the socio-economic climate, and the level of social support. Decent public service delivery is also an important predictor for life satisfaction and subjective well-being in Europe, but it is even more important for those individuals who experience deprivation. Social support or support from family is also seen as an important factor in the subjective well-being of Europeans (Watson et al., 2009).

The subjective well-being of people in Britain and in the USA was studied by Blanchflower and Oswald (2004). Subjective well-being levels have been on the decline in the US over the last twenty-five years and the life satisfaction of people living in Britain has more or less stayed the same. The findings are consistent with the Easterlin Hypothesis (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004). The subjective well-being of African Americans has been on the increase over these twenty-five years but it is not better than the subjective well-being of the white population; in addition, the subjective well-being of white women in the US has been negatively impacted since the 1970's. Blanchflower and Oswald (2004) stated that income plays a big role in the subjective well-being of the people. They state that money buys happiness (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004). The paper reports that well-being is greatest among women, people who did not have to go through a divorce, people with higher levels of education and also children

whose parents did not divorce. With regards to age, in both the US and in Britain, well-being reaches a maximum at the age of forty years old (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004).

Smyth et al. (2010) conducted a study on personal well-being in urban China. It examines the subjective well-being of the people in urban China. Job satisfaction and personal well-being goes hand in hand. There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and personal well-being. Their study also states that personal well-being in urban China is at its lowest at the age of 41 years, and in rural China well-being is at its lowest at age 38. The study shows that people in urban China who are married, those who have more than one child, those who have higher levels of income and those who have higher levels of education shows signs of higher levels of personal subjective well-being (Smyth et al., 2010). They state that being married is associated with higher personal well-being and higher life satisfaction (Appleton & Song, 2008). Also, when moving into a higher income category, the level of the person's subjective well-being rises (Smyth et al., 2010).

Another study on subjective well-being in China was conducted on off-farm migrants. This study was conducted by Nielsen et al. (2009), and it reported that off-farm migrants have moderate levels of subjective well-being. Chinese migrants lead difficult lives, but when the migrants find living and working in the cities too hard, they feel that they have the option to move back home to the countryside (Nielsen et al., 2009). This provides the off-farm migrants a cushion to fall back on and to sidestep the negative impact the city will have on their subjective well-being (Nielsen et al., 2009).

Nielsen et al. (2009) conducted another study in in Beijing, China. They investigated the subjective well-being of taxi drivers in Beijing, China in the lead up to the 2008 Olympic Games, using the Personal Wellbeing Index (PWI). The data revealed moderate levels of subjective well-being among the drivers (Nielsen et al., 2009). The taxi drivers work long hours and they do not receive high levels of income. Although these drivers similarly lead hard lives than in the first article by Nielsen et al. (2009) regarding the off-farm migrants, external factors such as personal relationships and their feeling part of their communities, help in improving their subjective well-being (Nielsen et al., 2009).

Diener et al. (2014) investigated whether the rising income of nations is associated with the increasing subjective well-being of these nations. The paper found that changes in the income of households were associated with negative and positive feelings, and also changes in life evaluations. When people become more satisfied with their finances and more positive on

the outlook of the future, their level of subjective well-being will rise (Diener et al., 2014). There were, however, nations where a rise in income levels did not have a significant impact on the subjective well-being of those people. This shows that in countries where the hopefulness of the future is not that high and aspirations for income are rising; those higher incomes are not associated with higher levels of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 2014).

The remittances and well-being among rural to urban migrants in China was studied by Akay et al. (2012). The objectives of the study were to examine the impact that remittances have on the subjective well-being of Chinese migrants. The results state that that people who send remittances experience some sort of welfare of well-being by doing so. The study also indicates that remittances only give a sense of well-being when migrants move within a province and also to those who would eventually return to their home town (Akay et al., 2012). Another indication is that the subjective well-being of those migrants that have to send remittances to family is lower than those that do not have that obligation. The positive effect of remittances on subjective well-being is mitigated by the obligation to remit (Akay et al., 2012). The study suggests that the well-being of migrates can be enhanced through the use of remittances.

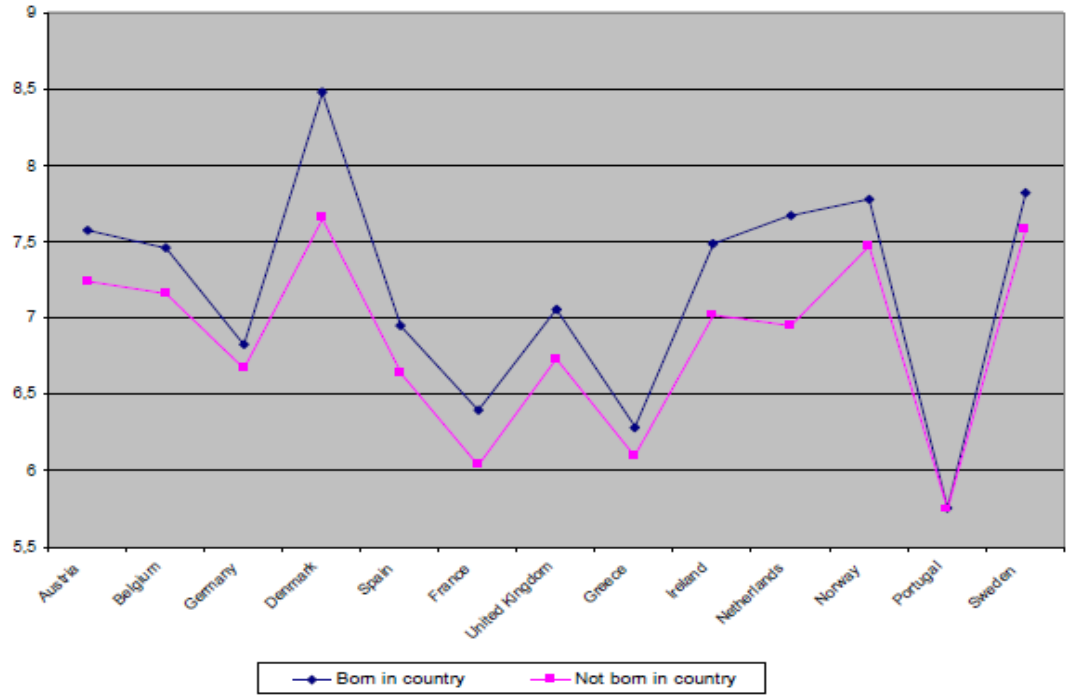
A study was conducted in Nigeria that attempted to apply a combined vulnerability and Quality of Life (QoL) assessment in waste management and recycling research in Nigeria. Social indicators relevant to scavengers and waste picker's perceptions of well-being and QoL expectations were identified. The study finds that waste picking is a recent occupation and it intensified during the first decade of the twenty first century (Nzeadibe et al., 2012). Although there are social and health problems associated with scavenging and waste picking, it is still an activity that gives some sort of economic stability to a very large section of the urban population in Nigeria (Nzeadibe et al., 2012). The paper suggests that public policy in Nigeria should be aimed at the improving of the livelihoods of these individuals and also the conditions under which they are working. In doing this, it will increase the well-being of the scavengers and waste pickers significantly (Nzeadibe et al., 2012).

Bradshaw et al. (2010) investigates the subjective well-being of children using international comparative perspectives. The well-being of these children is accessed using three main domains. These domains being, personal well-being, relational well-being and well-being at school (Bradshaw et al., 2010). They find that the personal well-being of these children is associated with housing circumstances. The well-being of the children at school can be seen

not being associated with any variable in the study. It is shown that the personal well-being and family well-being of these children are lower in girls, than in boys (Bradshaw et al., 2010).

European subjective well-being studies on immigrants, report that almost all immigrants report lower levels of subjective well-being because of the social structures in the adopting countries. The study uses the European Social Survey (ESS) of 2002/2003 to study this and see if it is the case (Bălţătescu, 2005). The results of the study show that in the majority of the adopting countries, the immigrants report lower levels of subjective well-being and very high levels of discrimination, than the other members of the population. Ironically, these immigrants have higher levels of satisfaction with the social and political conditions of the countries they immigrated to. This can be seen as proof that the comparison of social aspects is important for the study of subjective well-being (Bălţătescu, 2005).

Figure 2.2: Life satisfaction of locals and non-locals in 13 European countries



Source: Bălţătescu, 2005

Figure 2.2 confirms the results of the author in the above-mentioned paper. The pink line shows the subjective well-being of immigrants in European countries. It shows that they indeed report lower levels of subjective well-being than the natives of those thirteen European countries.

Table 2.1 Life satisfaction and well-being of locals and non-locals in 13 European countries

	How satisfied are you with life as a whole?		How happy are you?	
	Born in country?		Born in country?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Austria	7.7	7.3	7.7	7.5
Belgium	7.5	7.2	7.8	7.5
Germany	7.0	6.7	7.3	7.0
Denmark	8.5	7.7	8.4	7.7
Spain	7.1	6.8	7.5	7.2
France	6.4	6.2	7.5	7.3
United Kingdom	7.1	6.8	7.7	7.1
Greece	6.3	6.2	6.6	6.4
Ireland	7.5	7.0	7.9	7.6
Netherlands	7.7	7.0	7.9	7.5
Norway	7.8	7.5	7.9	7.6
Portugal	5.9	5.8	7.0	6.9
Sweden	7.8	7.6	7.9	7.7
13 Countries mean	7.3	6.9	7.6	7.3

Source: Bălţătescu, 2005

In Table 2.1, the levels of subjective well-being can be seen for immigrants but also for native Europeans. Table 2.1 shows that the immigrants are not as satisfied with their lives in Europe as the natives are and they are also not as happy as the natives. This is understandable, because they had to leave the country to live in a strange country they did not know, whose cultures differ from their own.

Cox (2011) conducted a study on subjective well-being among sex workers, dump dwellers, urban poor, rural poor and university students in Nicaragua. Nicaragua is a Central American country that borders Honduras. The results indicated that the overall satisfaction of sex workers was lower than the other groups that participated in the study (Cox, 2011). The dump dwellers, urban poor and rural poor did not differ much from each other when it came to their subjective well-being. The university students, however, reported higher levels of subjective well-being than all the other groups that formed part of the study. This can be attributed to the fact that the university students had higher levels of education, so they would have higher levels of subjective well-being (Cox, 2011).

Kingdon and Knight (2006) conducted a study on subjective well-being in a divided society using a South African data set in 2006. The paper reports that relative income is more important to the subjective well-being of an individual at higher levels of absolute income. It is also found that if there is a small household in a small community, and the household receives higher income, they will be at higher levels of subjective well-being. It is also found

that households of the same race with higher income are associated with lower levels of subjective well-being and these findings are consistent with the perceptions that people get envious of the success of other people (Kingdon & Knight, 2006). The effect of relative income on subjective well-being is stronger as the income of an individual increases, but this relevant income is not relevant to the poor community (Kingdon & Knight, 2006).

Fischer and van der Vliert (2011) conducted a study in 2010 on 58 countries, to see whether the climate in a country has any influence on the subjective well-being of a person. The study reports that climate, wealth and the interaction of those two factors account for 35 per cent of the variation in overall subjective well-being. It is indicated that global warming and poverty are two of the biggest problems that are faced by individuals in the world today. There is much evidence that points to the fact that climate change and stress induced by the changes can have an effect on the subjective well-being of people and population decline (Fischer & van der Vliert, 2011).

2.4 Subjective well-being in South Africa

Blaauw et al. (2018) conducted a study on the role of income and geographical location concerning the subjective well-being of day labourers in South Africa. The results concluded that many labourers flock to the richer cities in hopes of receiving more work and larger incomes (Blaauw et al., 2018). In doing this, they increase their competition for jobs, because they are not the only ones migrating to the richer cities in hope for a better life. These increased levels of competition deprive the wage levels of the day labourers (Blaauw et al., 2018). Rural-to-urban migration is very common in South Africa, where a big portion of the day labourers in the big cities have originated from rural districts of the country (Harmse et al., 2009).

Posel and Casale (2011) conducted a study on the subjective well-being in South Africa, focusing on the role of perception, expectations and income mobility. The paper indicated that the relative status of an individual has a larger effect on the subjective well-being of that person than objective measures would have, based on the reported income of the individual (Posel & Casale, 2011). They also conclude that life satisfaction and subjective well-being is influenced more by what has been achieved in the past than what can maybe be achieved in the future. The paper also states that race plays a big role when doing research about subjective well-being in South Africa. It is reported that black South Africans indicate much lower levels of subjective well-being than the white population (Posel & Casale, 2011).

A study on the differences in subjective well-being within households, focusing on the analysis of married and cohabiting couples, was also conducted in South Africa by Posel and Casale (2015). They investigate subjective well-being within households, using the 2008 National Income Dynamics Study for South Africa. The paper indicates that men and women who are only co-habiting report differing levels of subjective well-being. Access to water in the house will increase the subjective well-being for women, but it does not increase the subjective well-being for men who are co-habiting with women (Posel & Casale, 2015). Furthermore, the subjective well-being for women is lower when there are young children in the house, but no such relationship exists for men. This means that when the women have young dependants they have to care for, they will have lower levels of subjective well-being (Posel & Casale, 2015).

There exist significant relationships between gender, education, children, marital status, employment, income and subjective well-being or self-reported happiness (Mahadea & Ramroop, 2015). The study also found that people who have higher levels of education, who are married and have children, are happier and have higher levels of subjective well-being. Having too many dependants can have negative effects on subjective well-being (Mahadea & Ramroop, 2015). In addition, people with full time jobs have higher subjective levels of well-being.

According to Botha and Booysen (2012), the overall life satisfaction of South African adults is considerably higher for married people compared to widowed individuals. It is also stated that married men are not more satisfied than their unmarried counterparts. Marriage can be positively associated with subjective well-being in women, but do not explain subjective well-being among men (Botha & Booysen, 2012). Unlike the developed world, respondents' height, health and if they reside in urban or rural areas, do not explain subjective well-being in South Africa. Surprisingly, religion and provincial location strongly determine subjective well-being in South Africa (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012).

Concerning work; employees have lower levels of subjective well-being than their employers do, but individuals that are self-employed and employers must ensure that all causes of negativity and unhappiness are removed so that the entire workforce has higher levels of subjective well-being (Mahadea & Ramroop, 2015).

In 2001, Valerie Møller monitored the quality of life in cities, and in one particular paper, she focused on the case of Durban. The paper investigated the vision that the Council of the

Durban Metropolitan Area had for the city, to be reached by 2015. This vision was that by 2015, residents should live in acceptable serviced housing and be able to enjoy high levels of subjective well-being and quality of life (Møller, 2001). The study revealed that there are significant differences in the living conditions of the people that were identified to take part in the study, and also in access to services and life satisfaction across different neighbourhoods (Møller, 2001).

Informal settlers and people who live in townships in the Durban area reported lower levels of subjective well-being and optimism than the people who live in the urban areas. Although this is the case, the informal settlers and people who live in townships are more likely better off than those living in the suburban areas (Møller, 2001). Those living in the suburbs give the Metropolitan lower ratings on performance than the rural residents do. The urban residents are also more pessimistic than the rural residents are because there won't be any difference to them when this project is done but it can change the lives of many rural residents (Møller, 2001).

The dissatisfaction with housing comes a long way. Since the 1980's, black rural residents have shown their dissatisfaction with housing as a big and depressing factor for their quality of life and subjective well-being (Møller, 2001). Since the paper of Møller (2001), there has not been a follow up paper to see whether the city had met their objectives.

The World Bank ranks South Africa as an upper-middle-income country, but it is estimated that South Africa is one of the countries in the world, with one of the highest levels of inequality (Neff, 2005). Subjective well-being can be seen as an outcome measure. There are many cultural differences in African countries and the case is no different in South Africa with its many different cultures. It is stated that one thing may be important for one culture, while another culture does not see it as important (Neff, 2005). Ethnic groups in South Africa have a different picture about subjective well-being and there are different factors that determine each ethnic group's subjective well-being (Neff, 2005).

Powdthavee (2003) conducted a study on well-being and crime in South Africa to see if crime had any effect on subjective well-being of individuals. He calculated that it would take on average US$ 10 000 per month to offset the psychological cost of crime. Subjective well-being is lower for individuals who are non-victimised but live in high crime areas. This means that these individuals are scared that they will still be targeted with crime if they stay in those areas. The paper finds that there is strong evidence that criminal victimisation hurts females

more emotionally, than it does men (Powdthavee, 2003). The study indicates that individuals, who are victimised, will feel a sense of safety in a dangerous neighbourhood if the majority of the population of that neighbourhood also share their experiences with criminal victimisation (Powdthavee, 2003).

Møller and Jackson (1997) conducted a study on the perceptions of service delivery in South Africa. The study inquired into public services such as water, education, electricity, health care, roads and transport. The results indicated that improvements to these service deliveries were closely associated with having a good satisfaction of life and higher levels of subjective well-being. This is the case for all sectors of the population, including rural dwellers, day labourers and the poor (Møller & Jackson, 1997).

It was reported in this study that the biggest improvements were to education and healthcare, which was followed by an improvement to the electricity grid, access to water and the improvement of roads (Møller & Jackson, 1997). It is also reported that black South Africans were the group most likely to see improvements than any other population group. Furthermore, white South Africans said that the service delivery stayed more or less the same (Møller & Jackson, 1997).

Møller and Devey (2003) indicated that the largest part of the older generation in South Africa do not receive much income and live in households with multiple of their children and grandchildren. Households which are older and poor and has better access to services will report higher levels of subjective well-being and overall satisfaction with the circumstances they are living in (Møller & Devey, 2003). The paper reports that one of the factors that lift labourers and older households out of poverty is the 'so-called' state old-age pension grant. This is a grant given to people who are retired and do not receive an income anymore (Møller & Devey, 2003).

Møller (2007) further investigates the quality of life and subjective well-being of people living in South Africa after the first ten years of democracy. South Africa still has one of the highest HIV-positive rates in the world with an estimated 5.2 million HIV-positive residents at the time of the publication of the paper of Møller (2007). Møller & Schlemmer (1989) also indicate that education is important for quality of life and subjective well-being. The essence of well-being in a divided society should rise above racial and class divisions (Møller & Schlemmer, 1989).

Global indicators of happiness and domain satisfactions that were applied in the South African Quality of Life Trends Project showed that there were major divides in society. More than 180

indicators did confirm that white South Africans were more consistently happy with most of the aspects of their lives, while the black South Africans were the race group that was the least happy and satisfied with their lives (Møller, 1999).

2.5 The determinants of subjective well-being: Predictions from available literature

Blaauw and Pretorius (2012) explored the determinants of subjective well-being in South Africa. The paper makes use of the first wave of the National Income Dynamics Survey (NIDS), to enable the investigation of subjective well-being determinants in South Africa. The paper reports that variables such as age, race, level of income, total years of education, gender, marital status and the number of children or dependants account for subjective well-being in South Africa (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012). Height, health and whether people live in urban areas do not explain the subjective well-being of people. A surprising finding is that the religion of a person and the province they live in explain subjective well-being in South Africa (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012).

Blaauw and Pretorius (2012) found that the variables like age, race, level of income, education, gender, marital status and dependants consistently featured in the estimations. This is not a surprise since these findings are in line with other literature and empirical evidence. Greyling (2011) indicates that service delivery, levels of human development, issues of governance and safety are all factors that explains the quality of life of individuals in the Gauteng City region of South Africa. Booysen and Botha (2011) stated that apart from income levels, religious activities, social trust, physical exercise and health, and marital status all play a role in well-being of individuals.

It was found that religion has not been used much in studies about subjective well-being in the past. The paper showed that individuals who saw religion as a very important aspect of their lives proved to have higher levels of subjective well-being than people who are not religious and do not see these religious activities as important (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012). The paper also shows that people in South Africa who are healthier are not necessarily happier or report higher levels of subjective well-being. With this said, it is better to be healthy, because overweight individuals have lower levels of subjective well-being than their healthier counterparts, but contradictory to this theory, subjective well-being of South Africans increases with higher Body Mass Index (BMI) levels (Blaauw & Pretorius, 2012).

Other socio-economic variables also influence levels of subjective well-being such as gender. The well-being levels of women in the USA have been on the decline in not only relative terms

but also in absolute terms. This still happens even though the social circumstances of women have improved in the US over the last 35 years (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2009).

Further subjective well-being among race groups in South Africa have been investigated by Ebrahim (2010). The results indicate that levels of subjective well-being differ substantially among race groups in South Africa, especially the African population in South Africa who reports to have the lowest levels of subjective well-being. He also stated that the determinants of subjective well-being differ among these race groups (Ebrahim, 2010). The white population sees physical health as a big indicator of subjective well-being, while employment and absolute income are more important for the African community in South Africa. Religion is also seen as a big contributing factor of subjective well-being for the Indian and Asian population of the country (Ebrahim, 2010). Furthermore, it is stated that levels of well-being are higher for those individuals who have higher levels of education. Having a post-secondary schooling is important for having higher levels of subjective well-being relative to people with no education at all. Dependants or children also play a role in the subjective well-being between race groups. Those who are employed also show higher levels of subjective well-being than unemployed individuals (Ebrahim, 2010).

Fleche et al. (2011) explored the determinants of subjective well-being in 2010 among all the countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). They used evidence from the World Value Survey. The paper reports that apart from income, having a full time job, being a healthy individual and having social relationships with other people are all factors that are important for the subjective well-being of these countries within the OECD (Fleche et al., 2011). Furthermore, the paper indicates that cultural differences between individuals are not factors or determinants pertaining to the subjective well-being. Beyond income, these measures of subjective well-being can help to inform policy makers about subjective well-being overall (Fleche et al., 2011). It is also indicated that income and health are more important in countries that perform poorly with these indicators, so having a larger income and being healthier will increase the subjective well-being of these individuals and also the countries (Fleche et al., 2011).

A study was conducted from 2002 until 2003 on the social and health determinants of subjective well-being and life satisfaction in Jamaica. The aim of the study was to identify the factors that predicted psychological well-being in the Caribbean country and also the factors associated with satisfaction of life (Hutchinson et al., 2004). The average age of the respondents were 29.7 years, and the results concluded that variables about health are

important for the psychological well-being and satisfaction of life for Jamaicans. In addition, gender and age also played a role in the well-being of these individuals. Women reported that due to their health, they have lower levels of well-being because they have no social support, in other words, no one to get them through tough times (Hutchinson et al., 2004). Again, religion played a big role in the well-being of the people and there are differences for men and women. Religion played a much bigger role in the well-being of women and did not play such a big role in the well-being of men. Affiliations with religion have been found to be positively associated with the well-being of individuals in Jamaica (Hutchinson et al., 2004).

Dolan et al. (2007) asked the question of whether people really know what makes them happy. It was a review on the economic literature of the factors associated with subjective well-being. The paper reported that poor health, separation or divorce, unemployment and lack of social contact are all determinants of subjective well-being (Dolan et al., 2007). The study also finds that with each additional level of education, the subjective well-being of the individual will rise. In other words, if a person has higher levels of education, that person will also experience higher levels of subjective well-being. Another determinant of subjective well-being is social capital (Dolan et al., 2007). Social capital or the relationship a person has with friends, family and those closest to him can be seen as a positive determinant for subjective well-being. The subjective well-being of a person will increase if he has contact with family and friends (Dolan et al., 2007).

Berlin (2017) also wrote an essay on the determinants and measurement of subjective well-being. The study focused on the use of a person's time as a determinant for subjective well-being. He stated that the intuition that time matters, may be correct (Berlin, 2017). He concludes that time is an important aspect in measuring the well-being of a person. He notes that there are many activities that can attribute to time having an impact on the subjective well-being in the short and long run. An example for the short run is washing clothes. A person feels a sense of satisfaction when he knows that his clothes are clean (Berlin, 2017).

The same counts for the long run, for example the studies a person undertakes for a number of years. After obtaining a degree, a person will feel a sense of satisfaction and well-being because that person feels what he has done is positive (Berlin, 2017).

Another study by Ngamaba (2017) investigated the determinants of subjective well-being in a representative sample of nations. The study found that the levels of subjective well-being were different in different nations. Countries from North Africa, Eastern Europe and the

Middle East are associated with being regions that have the lowest 10 countries when it comes to subjective well-being (Ngamaba, 2017). The study reports that state of health, financial satisfaction, freedom of choice, GDP per capita, income, importance of friends and being a female all contribute to the determinants of subjective well-being. It is further stated that most of these have small effect sizes and the main factors or determinants are the state of a person's health, household financial satisfaction and freedom of choice (Ngamaba, 2017).

A paper on the determinants of job satisfaction and the well-being of a person at work was conducted by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000). The results showed that most of the workers in the countries that took part in the study were quite satisfied with their jobs. Denmark was seen as the country with the highest levels of job satisfaction and well-being. A comparison has revealed that job satisfaction and well-being declined in Germany and in the US in the 1990's. Countries with high work outputs are seen to have higher levels of satisfaction and well-being in their jobs. It was found that two of the most important factors for satisfaction and well-being are having an interesting and good job, and having good relations with the management staff. It is also found that having an exhausting job is associated with negative job satisfaction and well-being. Also, high income seems to be valued in Eastern European countries.

The main determinants for subjective well-being of day labourers are race, their primary schooling, day labourers who are in the twenties age group, economic variables and lastly, the comparison variables (having food, the income they receive) (Blaauw et al., 2013). This forms part of a study done by Blaauw et al. (2013) on the subjective well-being of day labourers in South Africa in 2013.

Other factors that influence the subjective well-being of the day labourers is their living conditions and the income they receive. Scholars contend that there is some sort of threshold of decent living standards and if people fall below that threshold, they will be miserable (Blaauw et al., 2018). Many day labourers live in townships and sometimes go a few days without receiving work and that can become difficult to deal with (Blaauw et al., 2018).

Very little research has been done as far as studying subjective well-being in an informal market context of day labouring.

2.6 Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter, the definition of subjective well-being, day labourers and the informal economy was presented. It is defined that subjective well-being is a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life. Subjective well-being also has three hallmarks and these are firstly, the subjective meaning, secondly, the positive measures and thirdly, these measures usually include the overall global assessment a person has about his/her life. Literature also suggests that subjective well-being is the global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his own chosen criteria. This means that every individual has his own set of criteria or factors that will be able to make him satisfied or happy with his life. No one person is the same. Another definition is that subjective well-being can be defined as "the harmonious satisfaction of one's desires and goals."

In Africa, and also in other parts of the world such as in China, literature states that workers migrate to cities and suburbs to find better work and labour opportunities to increase their income and the subjective well-being of not only themselves but their families as well. The case is the same in South Africa where labourers migrate from the countryside to the cities. The cities have better work opportunities and that can increase the subjective well-being of the labourers. Much like the case in South Africa, labourers in Europe report that their levels of subjective well-being were higher in the past than it is at present.

Considering the determinants of subjective well-being among people in the world and day labourers around the world, literature suggests that income or financial stability, age, race, religion, living conditions, health, social capital, freedom of choice, education, having a decent job and being married are some of the determinants or factors that play a role in determining the subjective well-being of individuals and labourers. There are also cultural aspects in determining subjective well-being but these differ from country to country and also between race groups.

These factors will form the basis of the empirical study of this dissertation; the research methodology will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

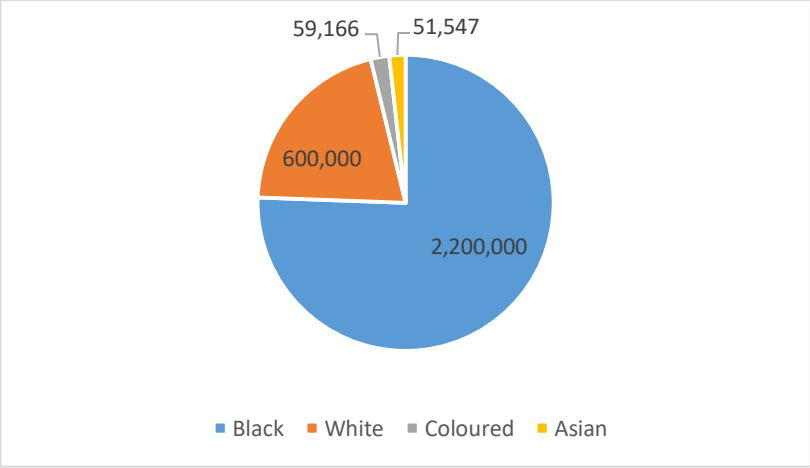
3.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the subjective well-being of day labourers in Pretoria, South Africa and in Windhoek, Namibia. The methodology that this study employs is similar to those used by researchers such as Blaauw, et al. (2006), Blaauw, et al. (2016), and also Schenck and Louw (2005). These researchers also investigated various dimensions pertaining to the specific informal sub-sector that this study makes use of, namely day labourers. This chapter will provide the description of the research methods and data used in the study to provide adequate answers to the research objectives, stated in chapter one. Furthermore, a description of the area of interest, design of the research, method of data collection, sampling, estimation techniques, data limitations and the ethical considerations is provided.

3.2 Area of interest

The data used for this study was collected in the city of Pretoria in South Africa, which is located in the Gauteng province, and in the city of Windhoek in Namibia, which is located in the Khomas district in central Namibia. According to the Census data of 2011 by StatsSA (Statistics South Africa), the population of Pretoria was in the region of 2,921,488 people at the time (Statistics South Africa, 2011). The population is predominantly African, which represents 2.2 million people, a white population of approximately 600 000, 59 166 coloured individuals and an Asian population of approximately 51 547 (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Figure 3.1: Representations of the population in Pretoria for 2011



(Source): **Statistics South Africa 2011**

According to the Namibian Statistics Agency (NSA), Windhoek is the largest city in the country with a population of 356 039 in 2014. The population of Windhoek is 32.47% of the entire population of Namibia (Namibian Statistics Agency, 2014).

3.3 Research design

The literature study as a point of departure for the research process is presented in Chapter 2. Given the experience of previous studies among day labourers in South Africa, it was necessary to use a creative research approach to accommodate factors, which are unique to the activity of day-labouring (Schenck & Louw, 2005; Blaauw et al., 2006; Louw, 2007: 59). These factors include the fact that day labourers are not an easily defined population, nor is it an easily defined occupational category (Blaauw, 2010). Furthermore, day labourers are employed by various employers for different jobs. The time-dependent nature of labour in the day-labour market confounds the traditional stable divisions, conventions and dynamics as experienced, founded, theoretically defined and formalised in the formal labour market (Blaauw, 2010). Therefore, the inclusion or exclusion of a day labourer as part of the research population will depend on his status at the time of any counting or interviews. Counting the number of day labourers at hiring sites are thus, accepted as being the best possible estimate of status and consequently, the size of the research population (Louw, 2007: 60).

These factors make it necessary to be creative and flexible in the research process. The research process had to fit in with the times and situations when day labourers would be available, for example early in the mornings (Louw, 2007: 60). As a result, the research design used a variant of a mixed method approach, where a survey-based instrument was designed, which contained mostly quantitative items, but also some open-ended qualitative elements. Preceding the fieldwork, the research team[1] visited Windhoek a few months prior to the actual fieldwork to go around the city and identify hiring sites, and to conduct preliminary interviews with the day labourers.

3.4 Research population

The focus of this study is the investigation of the subjective well-being or self-reported happiness of day labourers. With that said and following the available literature, the research population was defined as day labourers waiting to be employed at informal hiring sites in

[1] The research team consisted of the supervisor of the study, Prof. Rinie Schenck of the Department of Social Work at the University of the Western Cape as well as Dr. Rachel Freeman of the Department of Social Work at the University of Namibia (UNAM).

Pretoria and Windhoek. This definition of the research population was similar to that used in the studies of Valenzuela Jr. et al. (2006), Blaauw et al. (2006), Blaauw (2010) and Louw (2007).

3.4.1 Day labourers

With regards to day labourers, the study particularly focuses on people standing on the corner of the street, next to traffic lights, informal hiring sites or in front of job-related businesses in Pretoria and Windhoek. Many unemployed people use different job-seeking strategies and many people regularly gather at different places, but not necessarily with the hope of finding employment (Louw, 2007:67). Individuals, who were standing next to the street corners, who were employed and just waiting for transport were therefore not included amongst the respondents for this study.

3.5 Sampling method

The method of sampling can be defined as the choosing of a part or segment of the desired research population to be included in a study (Rubin & Babbie, 1997:233). According to Louw (2007:72), for a sample to be representative, that sample should have almost all the characteristics of the population. This means that every member of the population should have an equal chance or opportunity to be included in the study (Louw, 2007:72).

The sampling process was guided by the same principles that guided the sampling technique used by Blaauw et al. (2006), Louw (2007) and Blaauw (2010). It was impossible to compile a complete list with names of all the day labourers in South Africa due to the constantly changing numbers and flexible nature of this informal activity. In the light of the above facts, a process of cluster sampling as a probability sampling technique was considered to be the most appropriate sampling technique.

Cluster sampling is a variant of random sampling that usually involves the preliminary sampling of groups or clusters of elements, followed by a random choice of variables within each of these (Rubin & Babbie, 1997:259). On their own, clusters must be representative of the entire research population, and dissimilarity between them must be negligible (Louw, 2007:72). The sampling procedure informed the number of day labourers that were interviewed.

In practice, this implied that in the case of Pretoria, the same sampling protocol was followed as in the Blaauw et al. (2006) and Blaauw (2010) studies. The aim was to cover all the known

hiring sites in Pretoria and to interview a sample size of between 5 % and 10 % of the total research population in the city. In the case of Windhoek, which is much smaller than Pretoria, all the willing respondents were interviewed.

A detailed questionnaire was designed for both Pretoria and Windhoek.

The next sub-section will describe the designs of the questionnaires that were used.

3.6 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire used in this study was the result of an extensive process of design and improvement since 2006. The questionnaire was in the form of a structured interview, based on the one used in the studies of Blaauw et al. (2006) and Blaauw (2010). The basic methodology of the questionnaire was also followed in similar studies in Los Angeles and the rest of the United States by Valenzuela Jr. et al. (2006). Several meetings were held by the research team to evaluate and refine the questionnaire used in these studies. Important comments were also received from Prof Nik Theodore, from the University of Illinois, Chicago. As a result, several questions (income-related) from the Blaauw et al. (2006) and Blaauw (2010) studies were adjusted to provide more meaningful results. Given that the questionnaire was based on one through which almost 4000 interviews were previously conducted, it was not subjected to a separate trial run per se.

The final questionnaire[2] covered various aspects of interest to the various members of the research team. The questionnaire that was used is presented as Appendix B. It contains questions pertaining to the personal background of the respondent in order to identify the basic demographic characteristics of the research population. A section was included to investigate the employment history, income earned and working conditions of day labourers. Sections on housing, food consumption, and the conditions at the various hiring sites were of significant interest to the research questions in this study. There were also several open-ended questions included in the questionnaire with the aim to facilitate possible qualitative analysis of certain demographic features e.g. the reasons for not completing their schooling.

3.7 Fieldworkers

Fieldworkers were recruited from a database of qualified social work students, who had not yet found permanent employment at the time in Pretoria, and in Windhoek, fieldworkers

[2] The final questionnaire was adjusted for Windhoek to reflect differences in the language spoken by residents and the geographical areas and districts of Namibia as opposed to the provinces found in South Africa.

were recruited from the Department of Social Work from the University of Namibia (UNAM). In both cases, the principle researchers in the research team (Prof Blaauw and Prof Schenck) provided training preceding the fieldwork.

The training was done according to the outline of Rubin & Babbie (1997:356–358). Fieldworkers were informed about the objectives of the study, and going through the questionnaire question by question to familiarise themselves with the content thereof. The training further provided guidance on how to handle certain hypothetical situations. Demonstration and role-play interviews were then performed before the actual fieldwork. The same basic training method was also employed in the study of Blaauw et al. (2006) and Blaauw (2010). Temporary employment contracts were concluded with each fieldworker.

3.8 Ethical considerations

The research project received ethical clearance from the relevant Ethics Committees of both the North-West University (NWU) and the University of the Western Cape (UWC). Accepted ethical principles were adhered to at all times during the research. Fieldworkers were trained to clearly identify themselves, explain that the research was being conducted for pure academic purposes and that they were not linked to any law enforcement agency (Rubin & Babbie, 1997:59-63). At all times, respondents had the right to choose not to participate or terminate the interview at any stage in the research process. The principle of voluntary participation was thus adhered to (Louw, 2007:86).

Confidentiality and anonymity was already respected in the design of the questionnaire, as no information was asked that could identify individual day labourers. Interrelatedness and anonymity is the issue of deception of respondents. There should be no premeditated misinterpretation of facts. Data must be used for the stated purpose of the research only (Louw, 2007:87). This principle was consistently adhered to during the course of the research design and data-gathering process. No promises were made to the respondents about how they would benefit from the findings of the study (even though it was frequently asked by respondents during the completion of the study).

3.9 Data collection

The fieldwork for the study in Pretoria was conducted first. The fieldwork commenced and was completed in the first term of 2015. The hiring sites identified by the Blaauw (2010) study

in the city were all revisited and newly identified hiring sites were also included in the study. The Windhoek fieldwork took place from 11 to 13 October 2017. The local knowledge of the co-researcher in Windhoek helped to identify all the possible hiring sites during a recognisance phase conducted a few months before that. In both cases, response rates of more than 90 were achieved with very few day labourers opting not to participate in the process. In Pretoria, 290 interviews were completed. This represented a similar sample size (average of 9%) to that of the previous study in Pretoria by Blaauw (2010). Given the smaller size of the research population in Windhoek, all willing day labourers were interviewed and 80 interviews were fully completed in Windhoek.

After completion of the interviews, all the completed questionnaires were scrutinised to make sure that every questionnaire was readable and that all the answers were filled in. After this, all questionnaires that were not readable or incomplete were discarded. The data cleaning process took place after that, to make sure that all results were accurate and a correct representation of the population used.

3.10 Data limitations

Research on day-labouring will benefit significantly from the availability of a panel of data from the same sample for the same variables over a period of time. However, this is currently unavailable. Thus it is acknowledged that the snapshot picture provided by this study will not answer all the questions one would have liked to ask in terms of this informal labour market. Furthermore, in most cases, there was no second opportunity to repeat an interview with a day labourer in order to verify information. Some men would not want to engage in long conversations that could jeopardise their chances of being hired. They also might not stay at the same site for long (Louw, 2007:19).

However, notwithstanding the limitations, the research team was confident that the data obtained in the survey is as representative as possible of the research population in question and can be used for the analysis of the research questions.

3.11 Summary and conclusion

This chapter presented all the methods and procedures that were followed in this study to guarantee that the methodology of the research is scientifically correct, and that the data extracted from the questionnaires is suitable to make substantive interpretations of the research objectives that were presented in chapter one. The specific design of the

questionnaire was also discussed in detail, along with the training of the fieldworkers. All the relevant ethical considerations of this study were discussed and the process on how to handle ethical issues was described. The time it took to conduct the fieldwork was presented, as well as the limitations of the data.

Chapter 4

DATA DESCRIPTION AND EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter empirically analyses the day labouring sector in Pretoria, South Africa and in Windhoek, Namibia, with the specific aim to investigate the possible determinants of subjective well-being among the day labourers. This chapter is going describe the data in the study and use the data received from the surveys that were conducted among day labourers in the previously mentioned cities to determine which variables potentially play a role in the subjective well-being of the informal workers in both Pretoria and Windhoek. This will be done using regression-based models, which are estimated using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method, as well as Ordered-Probit analysis.

The outline of the chapter is as follows: Section 4.2 will be a description of the demographics of the respondents, section 4.3 will be the empirical analysis of the day labouring sector in Pretoria, followed by the analysis of the day labouring sector in Windhoek and a conclusion in section 4.4.

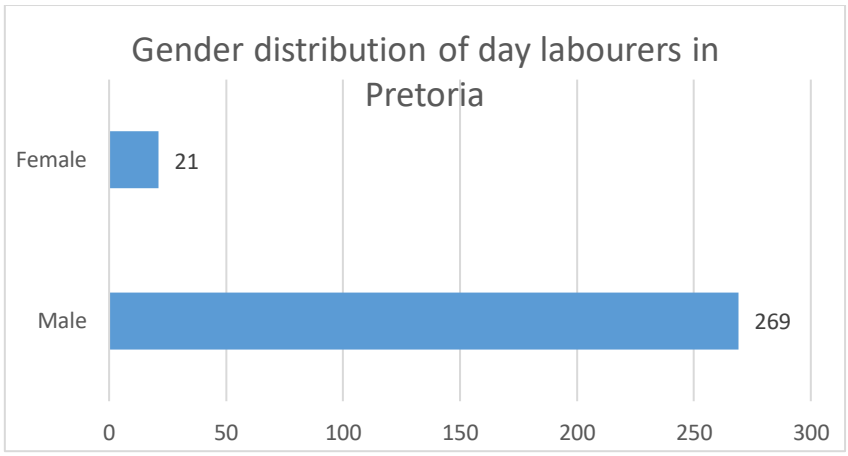
4.2 Description of the demographics

The investigation of the subjective well-being of day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek is the main focus of this study. In order to investigate it fully, one must first understand the demographics of the participants in the study.

4.2.1 Demographics

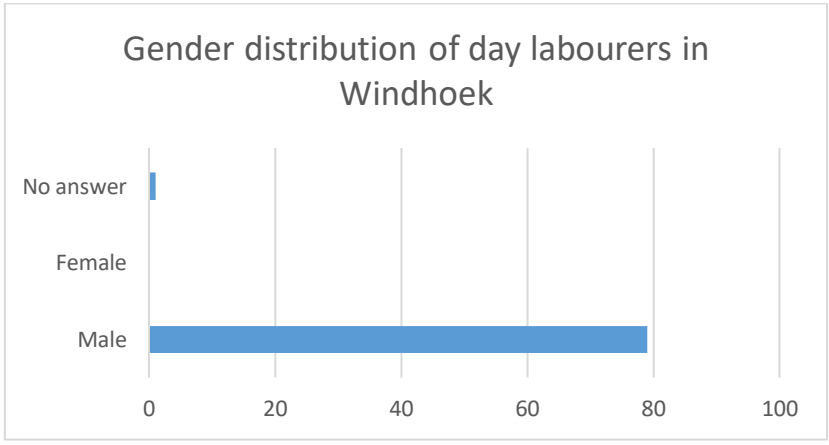
To collect the data used for this study, surveys were completed among day labourers in Pretoria, South Africa and in Windhoek, Namibia. 290 interviews were conducted in Pretoria and 80 interviews were conducted in Windhoek. The overall percentage of men that were interviewed for this study in Pretoria is 92,76%, as opposed to 7,24% of interviewed women. For the Windhoek interviews, all of the respondents were male. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the gender distribution in figure form.

Figure 4.1: Gender distribution of day labourers in Pretoria



(Source): **Compiled by author**

Figure 4.2: Gender distribution of day labourers in Windhoek



(Source): **Compiled by author**

The following tables indicate the age distribution of the labourers in both cities.

Table 4.1: Age distribution of the day labourers in Pretoria

Category	Age (Years)	Number of day labourers	Percentage (%)
1	Under 20	0	0%
2	20-25	63	21.72%
3	26-30	89	30.69%
4	31-35	56	19.31%
5	36-40	36	12.41%
6	41-45	16	5.52%
7	46-50	12	4.14%

8	51-55	4	1.38%
9	56-60	7	2.41%
10	> 60	6	2.07%
11	Refused to answer	0	0%
12	Did not know	1	0.35%
Average age	32.68 years		
Median	30 years		

(Source): **Compiled by author**

The following table will show the spread of the ages of the day labourers in Windhoek.

Table 4.2: Age distribution of the day labourers in Windhoek

Category	Age (Years)	Number of day labourers	Percentage (%)
1	Under 20	0	0%
2	20-25	10	12.5%
3	26-30	20	25%
4	31-35	10	12.5%
5	36-40	11	13.75%
6	41-45	10	12.5%
7	46-50	7	8.75%
8	51-55	4	5%
9	56-60	3	3.75%
10	> 60	1	1.25%
11	Refused to answer	0	0%
12	Did not know	4	5%
Average age	36.44 years		
Median	34 years		

(Source): **Compiled by author**

It can be seen from both tables that the ages of the day labourers are concentrated around the ages of 20-45, from where the number of day labourers decline as they get older. This can be a result of the decline in health during later years, which renders them unable to do the required physical work.

In educational terms, 99 out of the 290 (34.14%) respondents in Pretoria completed matric or some sort of higher education, whereas only 3 of the 80 (3.75%) respondents in Windhoek completed matric, with one of them furthering his studies.

In terms of language, 65 out of the 80 respondents in Windhoek speak Oshivambo, 8 speak Afrikaans, 2 are English and 5 are Damara speaking. From the Pretoria data, 8 of the respondents are English speaking, 30 are Sesotho, 39 speak Sepedi, 20 speak isiZulu, 18 speak IsiNdebele, 20 are Xitsonga speaking, 3 speak Afrikaans, 11 are Setswana speaking, 6 are IsiXhosa speaking, 10 speak Tshivenda, 2 are siSwati speaking and 112 speak other languages, most of them are from Zimbabwe. Looking at the race of the respondents; in Pretoria all 290 of the respondents are black, whereas in Windhoek, 72 of the respondents are black and 8 of the respondents are coloured.

The country of origin of 128 of the respondents in Pretoria is South Africa, 142 are from Zimbabwe, 2 are from Mozambique, 10 are from Lesotho, 6 are from other countries and 2 did not state from which country they originate. In the Namibian data, 76 of the respondents originate from Namibia, 1 is from South Africa, 2 are from Angola and 1 respondent originates from Zimbabwe. It is interesting to see that more of the respondents are from another country than from South Africa itself. It can be expected that this will influence the subjective well-being of the South African day labourers negatively, because they could maybe feel that if the labourers from other countries were not there, they, as South African day labourers, would get more jobs and in turn be better off, with higher levels of subjective well-being.

4.3 Empirical analysis

4.3.1 Description of the variables

In chapter three, it was mentioned that the data that relates to the day labourers in Pretoria was collected with the use of comprehensive surveys. The dataset consists of 290 respondents from various parts of Gauteng, and more than half of the respondents are from other countries, Zimbabwe being the major country of origin for the day labourers. This section will focus on the empirical analysis of the data for both Pretoria and Windhoek.

Table 4.3: Description of the variables to be used for the Pretoria and Windhoek analysis

Variable	Description	Predicted value (+/-)
Subjective well-being (Happiness)	This is the recorded level of well-being of the day labourers in the study. The question asked is as follows: "On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 very unhappy) how happy are you with life at the moment?"	This is the **dependant variable** of the study.
Age and Age^2	The age of the day labourers	Negative for the older day labourers, because productivity decreases with age.
Income	This is the income level of the day labourers, specifically their earnings in the previous month.	Positive, it is predicted that, the higher the income of the day labourers, the higher their level of subjective well-being.
Grade (Dummies) (DumSomePrimary) (DumPrimary) (DumSomeSecondary) (DumSecondary) (DumPost)	This is the level of education that the day labourers have attained. It is divided into 5 dummy categories to identify their level of education. The base category for this dummy variable is no schooling, which is 0. This means that the labourers have no level of education.	Positive or negative. It is predicted that the higher the level of education of the day labourers, the higher their level of subjective well-being. Negative for lower levels of education. Another prediction can be that the more educated labourers would be less happy because they have higher levels of education, and would expect to be

		employed and better off with higher levels of subjective well-being
Experience	This is the total years that the respondents have been participating in day labouring as a means of income.	Positive or negative. The more years' experience a day labourer has, the better their level of subjective well-being. The reason for this is because if a labourer has more experience in a certain skillset, he/she will be more likely to be given a job above another labourer with less experience because he/she would be able to do a better and more thorough job. Alternatively, it can be negative, as more years without a fulltime job can impact subjective well-being negatively.
Jobs (DumSkilled)	The type of jobs that the respondents do to earn an income. Divided into skilled and unskilled, hence the Skilled dummy variable. The dummy is =1 if skilled and =0 if not skilled.	Positive for day labourers who do more skilled jobs, such as painting and plumbing. Negative if they don't do skilled work. Labourers who are more skilled do jobs that are more in demand and would, therefore, receive more jobs and be better off than those not doing more in

		demand jobs, and they will experience higher levels of satisfaction.
Specialisation (DumSpecialized)	This dummy variable will show all the respondents who are specialised in a certain skillset. Their dummy is categorised as 1 when the labourer is skilled, and 0 otherwise.	Positive for the labourers who are specialised and negative for those who are not. Also, if a labourer is specialised it means that he/she only does work in demand, they get more jobs and are better off than those labourers that do not do skilled work.
Total dependants	The number of people dependant on the monthly income received by the day labourers.	Negative. The more dependants a respondent has, the lower the level of subjective well-being. It is expected that the more dependants a labourer has to care for on the small amount of money he/she receives, the lower the level of subjective well-being because he/she can maybe not take care of too many people.
Living conditions (dummy) (DumLivingconditions)	This variable is the type of living arrangement the respondents have. It is measured by the value 1 if the labourer lives in a shack and 0 if there are other living arrangements.	Negative if more live in shacks than in formal housing.

Total days without food	This is the total number of days that the respondents did not have anything to eat in the preceding month.	Negative. The more days without food the lower their level of subjective well-being will be.
Full time job before (Dummy) (DumFullbefore)	This variable shows whether they had a full time job before they started working as day labourers. The value of the variable is 1 if they had a job before starting work as a day labourer and 0 if they did not have a full time job.	Negative. If they had a full time job before they started day labouring, they would have lower subjective well-being levels, because they no longer have a steady monthly income. When working as day labourers, the labourers do not know whether they will get a job to care for themselves and their families.
Stay with family (Dummy) (DumStayFam)	This variable shows whether the respondents live with their families or not. The value is 1 if they stay with family and 0 if they do not stay with family.	Positive, as most of the respondents do live with their families. It is expected to be positive because if the labourers live with family then they might feel that they have something to live for and people that care about them, which makes them happy.
Foreigners (Dummy) (DumForeigners)	This variable shows whether the respondents are foreigners or not. The value of the variable is 1 if they are foreigners and 0 if they are locals.	It will be positive for those who are foreigners who came to these countries for a better quality of life, because there are neither jobs nor money in the countries from which they

		originate; it would maybe be easier to get jobs in South Africa and in Namibia. Alternatively, it can be negative if the expectations of a better life are not met.
Afrikaans (Dummy) (DumAfrikaans) **Only applicable with the Pretoria data.**	This dummy shows to what extent the day labourers are able to speak and understand the Afrikaans language. The value is 1 if the labourer can speak Afrikaans and 0 if the labourer cannot speak Afrikaans.	Positive, but negative for non-Afrikaans speaking day labourers, because the labourers who can speak Afrikaans will be able to speak to the employers and understand them, and employers will rather employ someone they can understand and with whom they can communicate.
Youth (Dummy) (DumYouth)	This dummy shows how many of the labourers are between the ages of 17 and 34, which is classified as youth in South Africa. The value is 1 if the labourer is between the ages of 17 and 34 and 0 if the labourer is younger than 17 or older than 34.	Positive. It is predicted that if the labourers fall in this category, their level of well-being will be higher due to their age, because they can do more physically intense work than older labourers.
Marital status (Dummy) (DumMaritalStat)	This dummy shows the marital status of the labourers. The value is 1 if the labourer is married and 0 if the labourer is not	Positive if they are married or in a stable relationship, because they feel a sense of worth and belonging. Positive for female

	married, divorced or widowed.	labourers and negative for male labourers (Botha & Booysen, 2012).

(Source): Compiled by author

The following table will show the averages and medians for the explanatory variables of both Pretoria and Windhoek, and how many labourers had a full time job, how many stay with their families, how many are foreigners, how many labourers can speak Afrikaans, and how many are married.

Table 4.4: Descriptives of the explanatory variables from the data

Variable	**Pretoria**	**Windhoek**	**Explanation**
Experience	**Average:** 59 months **Median:** 36	**Average:** 96 months **Median:** 60	This shows that the average experience among the labourers in Pretoria is about five years and the average experience among the Windhoek labourers is eight years.
Total dependants	**Average:** 4 dependants **Median:** 3	**Average:** 5 dependants **Median:** 4	This shows that the average dependants for whom the labourers in Pretoria have to care is about four and in Windhoek, five.
Living conditions	140 respondents	59 respondents	These figures show that 140 (48.28%) labourers in Pretoria live in shacks and 59 (73.75%) labourers

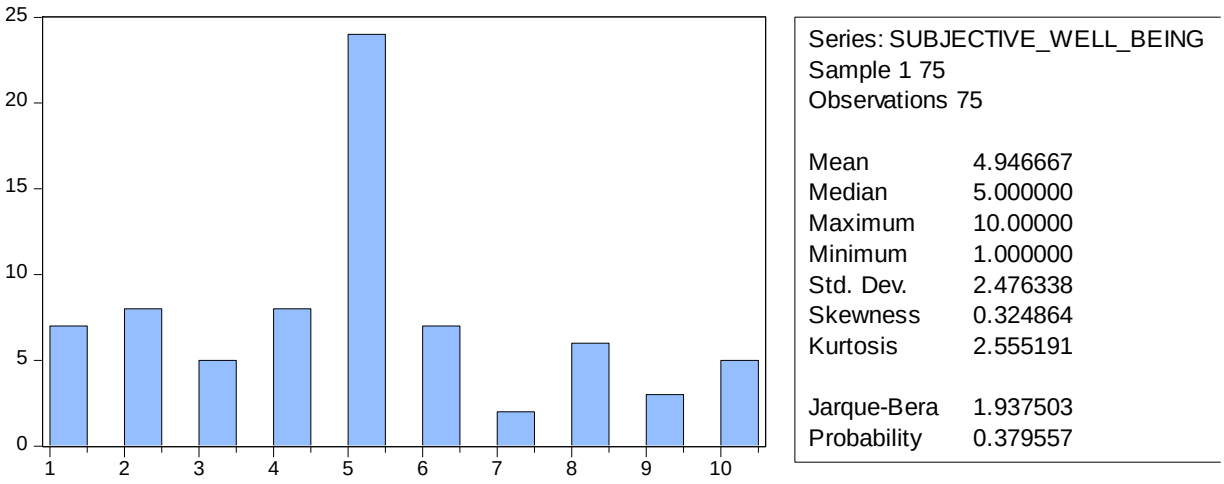
			in Windhoek live in shacks
Total days without food	**Average:** 4 days **Median:** 2	**Average:** 2 days **Median:** 1	In Pretoria, twenty-eight labourers had nothing to eat for more than ten days, and in Windhoek one labourer had nothing to eat for fourteen days, and one had nothing to eat for thirty days.
Full time job before	121 respondents	53 respondents	41.72% of labourers in Pretoria had a full time job before working as day labourers, and 66.25% of labourers in Windhoek had a full time job.
Stay with family	105 respondents	54 respondents	36.21% of labourers in Pretoria live with their families and 67.5% of labourers in Windhoek stay with their families.
Foreigners	160 respondents	4 respondents	The overwhelming majority of labourers in Pretoria are foreigners (55.17%) and in Windhoek only 5%

			are from another country.
Afrikaans	45 respondents	Was not a question in the survey for Windhoek.	

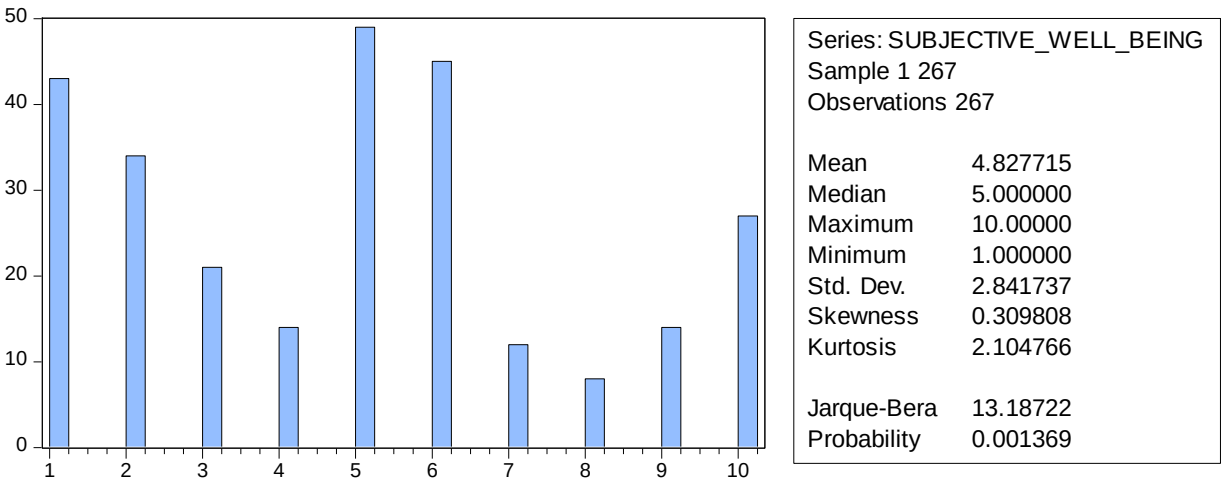
(Source): Compiled by author

4.3.2 Histograms of self-reported subjective well-being in Windhoek and Pretoria

Windhoek:



Pretoria:



Both these distribution curves or histograms display the total number of observations on the Y-axis and the level of subjective well-being is on the X-axis. The Windhoek data shows that at least 24 of the respondents have a SWB (Subjective Well-Being) level of 5 out of 10, which means that they do not have a bad life but they are not completely satisfied with their level

of well-being either. The Pretoria data shows a different distribution. Many respondents have SWB levels of 5 and 6 out of 10, but there are also a lot of the respondents who are not happy with the level of their SWB either. One aspect that can maybe be an explanation for this is that the respondents with lower levels of SWB are locals and those with the higher levels of SWB are foreigners, because the foreigners came from very poor and struggling countries such Zimbabwe in search for a better life for themselves and their children. In turn, the locals could be angry because the foreigners arrived and took the jobs that were meant for them.

Process of estimation:

The dependant variable (Subjective well-being) is characterised by a value from 1 to 10, which was a question asked to the respondents, to which they had to give the value best suited to their current level of subjective well-being. The question asked is as follows: "On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 very unhappy) how happy are you with life at the moment?" Originally, six models were estimated for Pretoria and five models were estimated for Windhoek, but only the best models were included in the results, the other models that were estimated will be available in the Appendix. The reason why only three models were included for each city is that they show the best results in explaining the subjective well-being in Pretoria and in Windhoek. Income variables are not included in these models because when they were added to the models in the Appendix, they were shown to not be statistically significant and they were discarded to be able to obtain better results. This was also the case with variables such as the marital status of the labourers and whether they stay with their families or not; also, whether the labourers are foreigners or not. All these variables displayed insignificance and were discarded to obtain the best possible results. Different models were estimated to see what the effect of different variables will be on the subjective well-being of day labourers in Pretoria and Windhoek, and also to see which variables will give the best results. Age and Age-squared were included in the models to allow for a quadratic effect of age on the dependant variable. Since day-labouring is physically demanding, it can be expected that older people are not as comfortable in this market as when they were younger. When adding the square root of age, it allows to model for a potential parabolic relationship, rather than assuming that the effect is linear for all ages.

4.3.3 Empirical analysis results for Pretoria

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, the data for Pretoria was collected through the use of surveys. The original set of data consisted of 290 observations, and after careful inspection of the data, it was reduced to 267 observations. The reason behind the removing of some of the observations is that there were specific questions where no answers were given, so the observations had to be removed completely to make sure that the results are accurate and for the data to make sense.

4.3.3.1 Subjective well-being equation analysis: Pretoria

The variables that were used in the estimation of the data were chosen from the questions in the survey used for Pretoria. Table 4.3 shows a summary of the data that was used for the estimation of the regressions. This table shows the name of the variables used, an explanation of the variable and the expected value, whether positive or negative, for that variable.

The following models were estimated for Pretoria:

Ordinary Least Squared models:

Model 1:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β_3DumPrim + β_4Experiencemonths + β_5Totdependants + β_6Dumlivingconditions + β_7Totdayswithoutfood + β_8DumAfrikaans + β_9Dumfullbefore

Model 2:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β_3DumSomeSec + β_4Totdependants + β_5Dumlivingconditions + β_6Totdayswithoutfood + β_7DumAfrikaans + β_8Dumfullbefore

Model 3:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β3Totdependants + β_4Dumlivingconditions + β_5Dumfullbefore

All three of the estimated models were corrected for the possibility of heteroscedasticity using the White's adjustment.

The following results were obtained:

Table 4.5: Pretoria day labourers SWB regression 1 results

Model 1		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	7.005192	0.0012***
Age	-0.075599	0.5287
Age-Squared	0.000653	0.6610
DumPrim	-0.153791	0.7953
Experiencemonths	-0.001331	0.6703
Totdependants	-0.144304	0.0366**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.596181	0.0894*
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.032335	0.2775
DumAfrikaans	0.537868	0.2988
Dumfullbefore	1.134581	0.0019***
R-Squared	0.084058	
F-statistic	2.620615	0.006497***

***(Source):* Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.6: Pretoria day labourers SWB regression 2 results

Model 2		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	7.183288	0.0005***
Age	-0.089664	0.4269
Age-Squared	0.000796	0.5752
DumSomeSec	0.028957	0.9313
Totdependants	-0.143622	0.0391**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.609329	0.0762*
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.032823	0.2699
DumAfrikaans	0.524964	0.2995
Dumfullbefore	1.173299	0.0010***
R-Squared	0.083086	
F-statistic	2.922339	0.003863***

***(Source):* Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.7: Pretoria day labourers SWB regression 3 results

Model 3		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	7.072725	0.0006***
Age	-0.083295	0.4583
Age-Squared	0.000781	0.5843

Totdependants	-0.163888	0.0178**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.670126	0.0527**
Dumfullbefore	1.196046	0.0008***
R-Squared	0.076223	
F-statistic	4.307134	0.000879***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

All three of these models indicate that the total number of dependants for which the respondents have to care, the conditions in which they are living and whether they had a full time job before they started working as day labourers, all are significant in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Pretoria. The average number of dependants a day labourer has in Pretoria is 4 dependants and the median is 3 dependants. As for the ages of the respondents, the average age of the day labourers in Pretoria is 33. The reason for the negative coefficient of the age variable, could be attributed to the fact that as the day labourers get older, so their productivity also decreases; or because day-labouring is such a physical job, the older day labourers get less work than their younger counterparts. Age and Age-squared were used in the models to accurately see the effect of age on the dependant variable. When adding the square root of age, it allows to model for the effect in the differing in ages, rather than assuming that the effect is linear for all ages. This also corresponds with the predicted signs of the age variable in Table 4.3.

As for the education dummy variables, none are significant but the signs of the coefficients are as expected. For those labourers who only have primary education or some level of primary education, the coefficients are negative, which shows that they would be better off if they had higher levels of education. This can be seen as true when looking at the coefficient of the variable for some secondary schooling, and when comparing this to the base group of education, which is no schooling. Those labourers that have some form of schooling are expected to have higher levels of subjective well-being than those that are part of the base group, which means that they have no schooling. Although not one of these dummy variables are statistically significant, the signs of the coefficients are as expected in Table 4.3.

The value for the dummy variable of the living conditions is 1 if they live in a shack and 0 if they live in another type of housing. The expected value for the coefficient for this dummy

variable was negative and the results display that it is indeed true that the subjective well-being of the day labourers living in shacks is negatively impacted, and those who live in better housing have higher levels of subjective well-being. It was expected that if the labourers had a full time job before they started working as day labourers they would have lower levels of subjective well-being but this was not the case. The reason for this could be that they earn more money working as day labourers, where they can decide on their own price for their labour and earn more money, opposed to when they had a full time job with a fixed monthly income. This increases their level of subjective well-being, thus the coefficient is positive and not negative as expected.

It was also expected that the coefficient for the variable of total days without food will be negative, and this was the case. The more days the labourers had no food or very little food to eat, the lower their level of subjective well-being. The average that day labourers had to go without food in Pretoria was 4 days and the median was 2 days. If the day labourers were able to speak Afrikaans, it was also expected that this would benefit them in finding more jobs. Although the dummy variable for Afrikaans is not statistically significant, the coefficient is as expected. The variable for the amount of experience the labourers had was expected to be positive, but in this case it is negative. The reason could be, because the average age for the labourers is 33, which is still a young age. They do not have as much experience as would be expected, or the total years of experience they have may allow them to get better jobs, should they have certain skills which will help them. The average months of experience that a day labourer has in Pretoria are 59 months, with a median of 36 months. Alternatively, long spells of being a day labourer may produce negative emotions as the chances of obtaining a full time job diminishes.

More estimated models are shown in Appendix A. These models show that even by adding more variables, that could maybe further explain subjective well-being, the significance of the model does not change. In fact, there are less statistically significant variables when adding more variables than there are when only adding those in the models shown above. In terms of the goodness of the fit of the model, the R-squared of the models are between 7% and 8.4%, which doesn't seem to be that good, but studies have shown that cross-sectional data has lower R-squared values than time series data (Sanchez, 2015). Furthermore, the F-statistics of the models are all statistically significant at a 1% significance level, which indicates that together, these variables are jointly significant in explaining subjective well-being.

Ordered-Probit analysis models:

Using the ordered-probit model serves as an appropriate framework in a statistical analysis when the responses from surveys are ordinal as distinct from numerical (Daykin & Mofatt, 2002; Greene, 1993). The ordered-probit model is commonly used in explaining the levels of life satisfaction (Daykin & Mofatt, 2002). Typically, it is used when there are questions asked and answers are based upon a Likert scale, where respondents have to state their current level of life satisfaction or subjective well-being. Ordered-probit models are used when studies employ opinion surveys to compile data for use (Greene, 1993).

All the models were corrected for the possibility of heteroscedasticity, using the Huber/White's adjustment.

4.3.3.2 Subjective well-being ordered-probit analysis: Pretoria

Table 4.8: Pretoria ordered-probit analysis 1

Model 1		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Age	-0.032898	0.4334
Age-Squared	0.000284	0.5859
DumSomeSec	-0.025137	0.8411
Totdependants	-0.061661	0.0268**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.215671	0.0961*
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.009062	0.4221
DumAfrikaans	0.167341	0.3747
Dumfullbefore	0.456517	0.0007***
R-Squared	0.020196	
LR-statistic	23.22081	0.003092***

***(Source):* Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.9: Pretoria ordered-probit analysis 2

Model 2		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Age	-0.030975	0.4571
Age-Squared	0.000281	0.5912
Totdependants	-0.067959	0.0144**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.234663	0.0723*
Dumfullbefore	0.463207	0.0006***
R-Squared	0.019142	
LR-statistic	22.00931	0.000521***

***(Source):* Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

The ordered-probit analysis indicates that the same variables are significant as with the OLS regressions. For the first model, all of the coefficients are as expected. The variable for the total dependants is negative as was expected, and it explains that the more dependants the day labourers have to care for, the lower their level of subjective well-being. The labourers earn too little money to effectively care for their large families. The variable is significant at a 5% level of significance. The negative coefficient of the living conditions dummy variable is also as expected. Most of the day labourers live in a shack, and very few live in better housing arrangements. It was expected that the day labourers who live in a shack will have lower levels of subjective well-being, and the regression output shows that this is true. The negative coefficient of the total days without food variable is also as expected, and this explains that the more days the labourers went without, or had little or no food, the lower their level of subjective well-being. It was expected that the schooling dummy variable for secondary schooling would have a positive coefficient, but the results display this as negative. The reason could be that even though the labourers have some secondary schooling, it does not help them to get a job to sustain themselves and their families, and with higher education levels, they are disappointed that they cannot have jobs in the formal sector. Although the Afrikaans dummy variable is not significant, the coefficient is as expected. If the labourers can help themselves in speaking Afrikaans, the chances of them receiving a job for the day will be higher. The dummy variable for having a full time job before they started working as day labourers is not as expected. It was expected that if the labourers had a full time job before starting work as day labourers, they would have lower levels of subjective well-being, but the coefficient for these results is positive.

As for the second model, all the coefficients are as explained in the first model. All the coefficients are as expected except for the dummy variable for the full time job before starting to work as day labourers. The goodness of the fit of the model ranges from 1.9% to 2%. Both models are significant at a 1% level of significance.

4.3.4 Empirical analysis of the day labouring sector in Windhoek

The original data for Windhoek existed from 80 observations that were obtained using surveys that were conducted among day labourers in various neighbourhoods of the city itself. After inspection of the data, the sample was reduced to 75 observations. The reason for this is the same as the Pretoria data. Throughout the data, where no answers were given

or where there was a blank field, that entire observation was discarded. This was done so that the results obtained were as correct as possible and made sense.

4.3.4.1 Subjective well-being equation analysis: Windhoek

For Windhoek, five regressions were estimated, where only the best 3 will be included in the discussion, and the remaining two regressions will be added to the Appendix.

As for the Pretoria data**,** the dependant variable (Subjective well-being) for Windhoek is also characterised by a value from 1 to 10, which was a question asked to the respondents for which they had to give the value that best suited their current level of subjective well-being. The question asked is as follows: "On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 very unhappy) how happy are you with life at the moment?"

The following models were estimated for Windhoek:

Model 1:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β_3Badmonth + β_4DumSomePrim + β_5Experience + β_6DumSpecialized + β_7Dumlivingconditions + β_8Totdayswithoutfood + β_9Totdependants + β_{10}Dumstayfam + β_{11}Dumforeigners

Model 2:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β_3DumPrim + β_4Experience + β_5Totdependants+ β_6Dumlivingconditions + β_7Totdayswithoutfood + β_8Dumstayfam + β_9Dumforeigners

Model 3:

Subjective well-being = β_0 + β_1Age + β_2Age-squared + β_3DumSomeSec + β_4Experience + β_5Totdependants+ β_6Dumlivingconditions + β_7Totdayswithoutfood + β_8Dumstayfam + β_9Dumforeigners + β_{10}Skilled

All three of the estimated models above were corrected for the possibility of heteroscedasticity using the White's adjustment.

The following results were obtained:

Table 4.10: Windhoek day labourers SWB regression 1 results

Model 1		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	11.12020	0.0001***
Age	-0.376410	0.0033***
Age-Squared	0.004514	0.0027***
Badmonth	6.25E-05	0.7141
Dumsomeprim	-2.024330	0.0002***
Experience	0.006478	0.0085***
Dumspecialised	0.107056	0.8501
Dumlivingconditions	-0.563393	0.2758
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.076697	0.1633
Totdependants	0.119196	0.1436
DumStayfam	1.102127	0.0523**
Dumforeigners	2.830494	0.0001***
R-Squared	0.411915	
F-statistic	4.011577	0.000190***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.11: Windhoek day labourers SWB regression 2 results

Model 2		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	5.516651	0.0754*
Age	-0.087023	0.5710
Age-Squared	0.000614	0.7426
Dumprim	3.843955	0.0006***
Experience	0.005164	0.0510**
Totdependants	0.167090	0.0283**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.907069	0.0848*
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.074693	0.0764*
DumStayfam	1.423510	0.0121**
Dumforeigners	2.224767	0.0209**
R-Squared	0.401522	
F-statistic	4.845430	0.000058***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.12: Windhoek day labourers SWB regression 3 results

Model 3		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Constant	9.958110	0.0005***
Age	-0.349651	0.0179**

Age-Squared	0.003992	0.0288**
Dumsomesec	0.907263	0.1435
Experience	0.007075	0.0132**
Totdependants	0.164406	0.0628*
Dumlivingconditions	-0.717789	0.1857
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.089861	0.0966*
DumForeigners	2.382010	0.0298**
DumStayfam	1.103389	0.0591**
DumSkilled	-0.092355	0.8885
R-Squared	0.322399	
F-statistic	3.045092	0.003247***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

When looking at all three models, the variables for the amount of experience that the day labourers have, and whether they stay with their families or not are significant throughout all three the models. The coefficients for these variables are also as expected. The positive coefficient for the experience variable shows that the day labourers with more experience will have higher levels of subjective well-being than those who do not have as much experience. This is probably the case because the labourers with more experience can ask a higher price for their services. A more plausible point is that it may be a manifestation of adaptive expectations where day labourers have come to accept their fate of not having a formal sector job. The coefficient of the variable for whether the labourers stay with their families is also as expected. If the labourers stay with their family, the possibility of there being another breadwinner in the family is higher than if they do not stay with family. It will be expected that if there is another breadwinner, the burden of being the only person making money to care for the family will be lower and the level of subjective well-being will be higher.

The age variable shows the same as for the Pretoria data, that if the labourers are older, they will struggle to find work and the level of subjective well-being will be lower. These variables are also significant at a 1% significance for model one and a 5% significance for model three. Again, age and age-squared were included in the models. When adding the square root of age, it allows to model for the effect in the differing in ages, rather than assuming that the effect is linear for all ages.

The results also show that if the labourers only have some primary schooling, their level of subjective well-being will be lower and if they have completed primary school, they will have

higher levels of subjective well-being. The positive coefficient for the primary schooling dummy variable and the negative coefficient for some primary schooling dummy variables is also as expected. In all of the models, the variable for the total dependants for which the labourers have to care is positive. This is not as expected. It was expected that the more people the labourers have to care for, the lower their level of subjective well-being will be. The variables in the first model are not significant, but the second model's variables are significant at a 5% significance level and the third model's variables are significant at a 1% level of significance. The variable for the conditions in which the labourers live, shows that if the labourers live in a shack rather than in better housing, such as a brick house, their level of subjective well-being will be lower, hence the negative coefficient. The same can be said of the total days without food variable. It shows that the more days that the labourers have little or no food to eat, the lower their level of subjective well-being will become. This is also why the total days without food variable has a negative coefficient. The variable for the first model is not significant, but for the second and third model, the total days without food variable is significant at a 10% level of significance.

It was expected that the foreigners' variable would be negative, but in the results for the Windhoek data, the variable is positive. The reason for this can be because out of the 75 respondents, only four are foreigners, so this means that the labourers in Windhoek will have higher levels of subjective well-being, because there are no foreigners from other countries to take their jobs. This variable is also significant at a 5% level of significance.

Being skilled or specialised in a certain skill or type of job was expected to be significant. Although these variables are not significant, the sign of the coefficients are as predicted. The positive coefficients show that if the labourers are skilled or specialised, the levels of subjective well-being will be higher. More estimated models can be found in Appendix A. These models show that even by including variables such as income, the marital status of the labourers and if they are skilled workers or not, do not have an influence on the level of subjective well-being of the day labourers. This shows that the labourers in Windhoek may not really care enough about the amount of money they make to influence their subjective well-being; but that variables such as experience, living with their families, the levels of schooling they have, the conditions in which they live and if they have enough food to eat, are the variables that will have an effect on their level of subjective well-being. This shows that there are other variables that are correlated with (indicative of) income that are significant and do explain the subjective well-being of day labourers in Windhoek. Again, this

can be evidence of adaptive expectations where the day labourers have accepted that they are not going to receive large incomes (Burchardt, 2005).

As for the goodness of the fit of the models, the R-squared of the models range between 32% and 41%. This shows that between 32% and 41% of the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Windhoek is explained through the results of the regressions. The F-statistics of all three models are also significant at a 1% level of significance.

4.3.4.2 Ordered-Probit analysis: Windhoek

Table 4.13: Windhoek day labourers SWB ordered-probit analysis 1 results

Model 1		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Age	-0.231257	0.0005***
Age-Squared	0.002844	0.0004***
Badmonth	3.08E-05	0.6961
Dumsomeprim	-1.155148	0.0001***
Experience	0.003243	0.0055***
Dumspecialised	0.127575	0.6543
Dumlivingconditions	-0.399616	0.1301
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.053398	0.1290
Totdependants	0.068723	0.1038
DumStayfam	0.593924	0.0392**
Dumforeigners	1.563372	0.0000***
R-Squared	0.135728	
LR-statistic	36.01295	0.000084***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

Table 4.14: Windhoek day labourers SWB ordered-probit analysis 2 results

Model 2		
Variables	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
Age	-0.195605	0.0077***
Age-Squared	0.002291	0.0122**
Dumsomesec	0.428750	0.1618
Experience	0.003319	0.0088***
Totdependants	0.086503	0.0513**
Dumlivingconditions	-0.443629	0.0870*
Totdayswithoutfood	-0.057065	0.0880*
DumForeigners	1.138349	0.0294**

DumStayfam	0.555326	0.0523**
DumSkilled	-0.037916	0.9027
R-Squared	0.097689	
LR-statistic	30.38069	0.000742***

(Source): **Compiled by author**

*** Significant at 1%

** Significant at 5%

* Significant at 10%

The variables for Age, Age-squared, the experience of the day labourers, if they are foreigners or not and if they stay with their families, are all significant in both of these models. This means that these variables could be robust in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Windhoek. The coefficients for these variables are also as predicted, except for the foreigner's variable. The explanation for the different coefficients of this variable is because there are only four foreigners among the Windhoek respondents, so being a foreigner would not have a big impact on the subjective well-being of the Windhoek locals. This shows that being a foreigner in Windhoek, will increase the subjective well-being of the foreigners. This can be true due to the positive coefficient and the significance of the variable. Having experience in day labouring was expected to be a positive aspect when it comes to the subjective well-being, and this was indeed true. The more experience a labourer has, the higher the level of subjective well-being. Adaptive expectations can also be used to explain this. The day labourers have accepted that there are also going to be foreigners standing with them searching for work. The explanation for the positive coefficient of the dummy variable for if they stay with family is the same as the Pretoria data. Staying with family may result in the labourers not being the only breadwinner in the family and this could lift the stress and burden that comes with being the only breadwinner in a family. Having only some primary education would result in lower levels of subjective well-being, and having some secondary education can help the labourers find better jobs and increase their subjective well-being levels. The coefficients of these variables are also as predicted in Table 4.3.

The coefficients of the variables for the living conditions of the labourers and the amount of food they had to eat for the month is also as predicted. It was predicted that when they live in shacks and had little or no food to eat for the month, the labourers will have lower levels of subjective well-being, and this prediction is correct, hence the negative coefficients of the variables. Although the variable for the job specialisation of the labourers is not significant the sign of the coefficient of the variable is as predicted. Being more specialised in a job will increase the level of subjective well-being of the labourers, which is why the variable has a

positive coefficient. It was predicted that the variable for the total dependants that the labourers have to care for would be negative, because the more people they have to care for with the small amount of money earned, the lower their subjective well-being, but this was not the case. A reason for this can be that people in African countries are cultural people and they value big families more than in other parts of the world (Boyd-Franklin, 2013). The average monthly income for a labourer in Windhoek from the collected data is about N$2402.71, which calculates to N$ 600.68 a week and N$20.02 a day. To care for 5 people, including himself, on that small amount of money alone can prove to be a challenge, except if there is someone else in the family that also earns money that can help care for the family. This can also be a reason why income is not a significant variable.

As for the goodness of the fit of the ordered-probit models, the R-squared ranges between 9% and 13%, and both these models are significant at a 1% level of significance.

4.4 Summary and conclusion

This chapter was done to see what the variables are that is important for day labourers to explain their levels of subjective well-being. The results show that for both Pretoria and Windhoek, there are specific aspects of everyday life that are important for the day labourers to make sure that they have the level of subjective well-being they seek.

Looking at the results for the Pretoria data, it shows that the conditions in which the day labourers live, the amount of dependants they have to care for and whether they had a full time job before starting work as a day labourer, are all important factors in explaining their levels of subjective well-being.

The Windhoek data shows that having better levels of education is important for the labourers. It also shows that having adequate experience when being a day labourer is an important aspect, as well as having good living conditions. Living conditions is the one aspect that is important for both the Pretoria and Windhoek labourers. It is also important for the Windhoek labourers to stay with their families and have enough food to eat throughout the month. The variable for foreigners is also significant, but this can be explained because there are only four foreigners among the respondents. The data also shows that more than 50% of the labourers in Pretoria indicated subjective well-being levels of 5 out of 10 and above, and for the Windhoek data, most of the respondents also indicated subjective well-being levels of 5 out 10 and above. It can be concluded that the majority of labourers are moderately happy with their current situations. Different variables explain subjective well-being in Pretoria and

Windhoek, respectively. A reason for this can be adaptive expectations. The day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek had to adapt to their circumstances, and these were different for the day labourers in each country. For example, the labourers in Pretoria had to adapt to the fact that there are going to be more foreigners in the country that are also going to be practising day labouring as a means of income. The labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek had to accept the fact that they are not going to receive large sums of money for the type of work that they do. Furthermore, the day labourers in both cities had to accept the situation that they might not be able to secure formal employment in the future.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to provide a summary of the overall findings and results of this study, and also the conclusions from the empirical analysis. Policy recommendations will also be given and recommendations on further studies that can be conducted to address the limitations of this study.

5.2 Summary of the study

Diener (1984) introduced the term *subjective well-being* to help identify and understand the field of psychology, and how it affects the happiness of people; including their cognitive judgements and their affective reactions. Subjective well-being can be defined as the personal perception of a person and also the experience of the positive and negative emotional responses that a person experiences to obtain satisfaction with their life (Proctor, 2014).

The dependant variable of this study is the self-reported subjective well-being of the day labourers.

The aim of this study was to investigate the subjective well-being of day labourers in Pretoria, South Africa and in Windhoek, Namibia. The general objective of this study was to investigate the levels of subjective well-being of the informally employed day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek, and to identify potential determinants of the subjective well-being of the day labourers. The specific objectives of the study were the following:

To determine the level of subjective well-being (self-reported happiness) of the day labourers in Pretoria and Windhoek; determine the possible factors that can influence subjective well-being of day labourers in the capitals of the two countries; to identify possible reasons for the differences in the subjective well-being of the day labourers; and to compare the results of the study with other subjective well-being studies in the informal economy.

Chapter two provided an in-depth overview of the definitions, concepts and the measurements of subjective well-being as well as the definitions of day-labouring. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the situation of subjective well-being internationally and also subjective well-being in South Africa and its informal economy. Most of the definitions of subjective well-being are the same but one of the more relevant definitions is from Diener

(2009). He states that subjective well-being can be defined as a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his or her life. He also states that the evaluations a person has of their lives include emotional reactions to certain types of events and also cognitive judgements, such as satisfaction and fulfilment (Diener, 2009:63). Subjective well-being can then be seen as a very broad concept, which includes emotions that are both pleasant and negative, with high levels of life satisfaction. Chapter two also gave an overview of the determinants of subjective well-being from the available literature. The chapter came to the conclusion that there are many factors that can determine the subjective well-being of a person, such as age, race, religion, living conditions, health, social capital, education, having a decent job and being married.

Chapter three gave an in-depth overview of the methodology used in this study. Detailed information was provided about the area of interest of this study, the research design that this study employed, and the research population that the study was comprised of. Furthermore, the design of the questionnaires that were used in the interviews with the day labourers was discussed, also what the role of the fieldworkers were and those who were responsible for the training of these fieldworkers. Lastly, chapter three also detailed the data collection methods, the ethical considerations and data limitations of this study. The methodology used in this study was a mixed method approach, whereby interviews were held with day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek to get a sense of what their levels of subjective well-being is and the factors that make them satisfied with their lives.

In chapter four, OLS and ordered-probit analysis were used to empirically analyse the data obtained from the interviews that were conducted with the day labourers. In this chapter, all the variables used in the estimated models were discussed and also the demographics of the day labours in Pretoria and in Windhoek. Initially, the Pretoria dataset consisted out of 290 respondents but after careful inspection of the data it was reduced to 276 observations. The Windhoek dataset originally consisted out of 80 respondents and after inspection it was reduced to 75 observations. The estimations of the Pretoria data revealed that the total number of dependants of the day labourers, the conditions in which the day labourers are living and whether they had a full time job before starting to work as day labourers were all significant in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Pretoria. The analysis of the Windhoek data revealed that experience, living conditions, education levels, total number of dependants for which the day labourers have to care, total days without food, whether the labourers stay with their families and if they are foreigners are all variables that

are significant in explaining the subjective well-being of day labourers in Windhoek. The results show that the day labourers in Windhoek seemingly value family more than the day labourers in Pretoria.

Initially, income was included in the regressions to see if it had any impact in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers, since literature suggests that income plays a big role in the subjective well-being of an individual, groups of people and also nations (especially people with low income, such as day labourers). This was not the case in this study. Income was discarded as a variable after only a few estimations, as it was not significant in explaining the subjective well-being of the day labourers in Pretoria and in Windhoek.

5.3 Policy recommendations and considerations

Men on the Side of the Road (MSR) is an organisation in Namibia that works closely with day-labouring men, to enable them to get jobs by gaining the necessary skillsets to start the path to self-sustainability or self-employment. They connect the unemployed in Namibia with job and training opportunities.

They collaborate with local and national government, businesses and individuals who are interested in helping the unemployed out of poverty and provide them with jobs opportunities. Through these acts, they are contributing to reducing the high levels of unemployment in Namibia.

It is recommended that a similar organisation be started in South Africa to help the day labourers not only in Pretoria, but also throughout the entire country to find better and perhaps more permanent jobs. [3]It is recommended that similar "drop-in centres" are created in South Africa where day labourers can go to learn how to create and update their Curricula Vitae and be given the tools to help them make a success of their lives. It can also offer help with labour law violations, such as withholding of payment after work was completed. Several examples of success in this regard are found in the United States.

By collaborating with local businesses in a wide variety of expertise, it can enable these centres to provide the necessary training needed for these day labourers to get out of poverty. The training course options are endless, such as bricklaying, painting, tiling, carpentry, plumbing, and also maintenance and repair.

[3] There was such an organisation (MSR) in Cape Town, but they seized to exist.

These training courses can help the day labourers get real and more permanent jobs, so that they can earn valuable experience in the formal workspace. Having a decent job can help the day labourers to have better living conditions, not only for themselves, but also for their entire families.

5.4 Consideration for future studies

It is recommended that further qualitative research be conducted on the education of day labourers and why certain levels of education will increase the subjective well-being of day labourers in different cities and also in different countries

In Windhoek, the results of this study show that families are seemingly more important for the day labourers in Windhoek than families are for the day labourers in Pretoria. It is recommended that further research be conducted to find out why this is the case and if it is something that can further explain subjective well-being in Namibia and South Africa.

Since no previous studies exist (to the best of our knowledge) on the subjective well-being of day labourers in Namibia, it is recommended that more studies be conducted on the subjective well-being of day labourers in Namibia overall.

Further studies on the subjective well-being of day labourers and the informal economy as a whole need to be conducted in Namibia. There is a need for a clearer picture of the subjective well-being of day labourers over time.

Lastly, further studies need to be conducted on the possibility of building a subjective well-being index for day labourers overall. Studies need to be done where specific questionnaires are developed for the sole purpose of developing a day labourer subjective well-being index.

Implementing these, and more recommendations and policy changes, can help the day labourers, not only in Pretoria and in Windhoek be successful, but will be able to assist labourers in all of South Africa, Namibia, and even other countries that have large informal day labouring sectors.

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Appendix A

Regressions not included in the results chapter

Pretoria OLS regressions

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 22:37
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	6.462530	2.281515	2.832561	0.0050
AGE	-0.076880	0.123378	-0.623130	0.5338
AGESQR	0.000787	0.001520	0.517637	0.6052
INCOME	0.000195	0.000152	1.284638	0.2001
DUMPOST	0.128151	0.787087	0.162817	0.8708
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.001524	0.003139	-0.485528	0.6277
DUMSKILLED	-0.284494	0.360836	-0.788430	0.4312
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.155382	0.069556	-2.233909	0.0264
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.541309	0.345042	-1.568818	0.1179
DUMFULLBEFORE	1.114752	0.372620	2.991663	0.0030
DUMSTAYFAM	0.266105	0.359509	0.740191	0.4599
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.310836	0.420992	0.738343	0.4610
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.670835	0.550762	1.218011	0.2244
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.299376	0.374503	-0.799394	0.4248

R-squared	0.093117	Mean dependent var	4.827715
Adjusted R-squared	0.046518	S.D. dependent var	2.841737
S.E. of regression	2.774854	Akaike info criterion	4.930083
Sum squared resid	1948.053	Schwarz criterion	5.118178
Log likelihood	-644.1661	Hannan-Quinn criter.	5.005639
F-statistic	1.998273	Durbin-Watson stat	1.887623
Prob(F-statistic)	0.021337	Wald F-statistic	2.261349
Prob(Wald F-statistic)	0.007936		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 22:37
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	6.341118	2.231617	2.841490	0.0049
AGE	-0.062790	0.121678	-0.516035	0.6063
AGESQR	0.000608	0.001502	0.405144	0.6857
GOODMONTH	9.89E-05	7.59E-05	1.303332	0.1937
DUMSEC	-0.057472	0.395718	-0.145233	0.8846
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.002143	0.003163	-0.677743	0.4986
DUMSKILLED	-0.267892	0.369261	-0.725481	0.4688
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.140619	0.069772	-2.015416	0.0449
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.559153	0.349661	-1.599127	0.1110
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.025180	0.030100	-0.836561	0.4036
DUMFULLBEFORE	1.087400	0.372079	2.922497	0.0038
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.285010	0.429412	0.663721	0.5075
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.679988	0.550587	1.235022	0.2180

DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.357134	0.381108	-0.937095	0.3496
DUMSTAYFAM	0.266588	0.362753	0.734901	0.4631

R-squared	0.095486	Mean dependent var	4.827715
Adjusted R-squared	0.045235	S.D. dependent var	2.841737
S.E. of regression	2.776720	Akaike info criterion	4.934958
Sum squared resid	1942.964	Schwarz criterion	5.136489
Log likelihood	-643.8169	Hannan-Quinn criter.	5.015912
F-statistic	1.900186	Durbin-Watson stat	1.873400
Prob(F-statistic)	0.026779	Wald F-statistic	2.164318
Prob(Wald F-statistic)	0.009563		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 22:38
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	6.435485	2.197628	2.928378	0.0037
AGE	-0.073377	0.118763	-0.617840	0.5372
AGESQR	0.000625	0.001470	0.424743	0.6714
BADMONTH	0.000286	0.000215	1.333207	0.1837
DUMSOMEPRIM	0.787498	0.690669	1.140195	0.2553
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.001543	0.003131	-0.492895	0.6225
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.517621	0.344090	-1.504320	0.1337
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.027970	0.029048	-0.962881	0.3365
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.151859	0.068415	-2.219673	0.0273
DUMSTAYFAM	0.209381	0.347573	0.602409	0.5474
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.156490	0.409785	0.381884	0.7029
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.644352	0.545906	1.180336	0.2390
DUMFULLBEFORE	1.134165	0.366591	3.093819	0.0022

R-squared	0.095532	Mean dependent var	4.827715
Adjusted R-squared	0.052802	S.D. dependent var	2.841737
S.E. of regression	2.765695	Akaike info criterion	4.919925
Sum squared resid	1942.864	Schwarz criterion	5.094585
Log likelihood	-643.8100	Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.990085
F-statistic	2.235685	Durbin-Watson stat	1.892493
Prob(F-statistic)	0.010736	Wald F-statistic	2.445509
Prob(Wald F-statistic)	0.004982		

Windhoek OLS regressions

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 22:43
Sample: 1 75
Included observations: 75
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	9.849993	2.968674	3.317977	0.0015
AGE	-0.339870	0.160353	-2.119504	0.0381
AGESQR	0.003611	0.001954	1.848060	0.0694
INCOME	5.67E-05	8.59E-05	0.660452	0.5114
DUMPOST	4.700774	1.365571	3.442350	0.0010
EXPERIENCE	0.008697	0.003503	2.482925	0.0158
DUMSKILLED	-0.263507	0.657947	-0.400500	0.6902
TOTDEPENDANTS	0.151223	0.086494	1.748369	0.0854
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.531625	0.594164	-0.894745	0.3744
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.495972	0.672319	0.737703	0.4635
DUMSTAYFAM	1.225796	0.613762	1.997184	0.0502
DUMFOREIGNERS	1.069165	0.903807	1.182958	0.2413
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.219776	0.545168	-0.403135	0.6882

R-squared	0.312135	Mean dependent var	4.946667
Adjusted R-squared	0.179000	S.D. dependent var	2.476338
S.E. of regression	2.243787	Akaike info criterion	4.610520
Sum squared resid	312.1439	Schwarz criterion	5.012218
Log likelihood	-159.8945	Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.770913
F-statistic	2.344499	Durbin-Watson stat	2.054217
Prob(F-statistic)	0.014927	Wald F-statistic	57.84759
Prob(Wald F-statistic)	0.000000		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: Least Squares
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 22:45
Sample: 1 75
Included observations: 75
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	10.17842	3.022451	3.367604	0.0013
AGE	-0.324300	0.161943	-2.002559	0.0497
AGESQR	0.003341	0.001966	1.699190	0.0944
GOODMONTH	3.68E-05	6.07E-05	0.605451	0.5471
DUMSEC	-2.265740	1.136481	-1.993645	0.0507
EXPERIENCE	0.008740	0.003832	2.281025	0.0261
DUMSKILLED	-0.079775	0.674145	-0.118335	0.9062
TOTDEPENDANTS	0.141252	0.092993	1.518956	0.1339
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.793225	0.595588	-1.331835	0.1879
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.086328	0.054870	-1.573306	0.1208
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.287816	0.706458	0.407408	0.6851
DUMFOREIGNERS	2.002717	1.145335	1.748587	0.0854
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.034330	0.601953	-0.057031	0.9547
DUMSTAYFAM	1.137905	0.616933	1.844456	0.0700

R-squared	0.315295	Mean dependent var	4.946667
Adjusted R-squared	0.169375	S.D. dependent var	2.476338
S.E. of regression	2.256901	Akaike info criterion	4.632582
Sum squared resid	310.7098	Schwarz criterion	5.065180

Log likelihood	-159.7218	Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.805313
F-statistic	2.160732	Durbin-Watson stat	2.062002
Prob(F-statistic)	0.022510	Wald F-statistic	3.349720
Prob(Wald F-statistic)	0.000675		

Ordered-Probit regressions not included in the results

Pretoria

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: ML - Ordered Probit (Newton-Raphson)
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 23:01
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
Number of ordered indicator values: 10
Convergence achieved after 3 iterations
QML (Huber/White) standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
AGE	-0.026498	0.046262	-0.572787	0.5668
AGESQR	0.000261	0.000563	0.464637	0.6422
INCOME	6.92E-05	5.84E-05	1.183747	0.2365
DUMPOST	0.121280	0.279206	0.434375	0.6640
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.000727	0.001164	-0.624669	0.5322
DUMSKILLED	-0.085210	0.134890	-0.631699	0.5276
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.068226	0.028646	-2.381684	0.0172
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.191107	0.129628	-1.474271	0.1404
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.435369	0.140841	3.091205	0.0020
DUMSTAYFAM	0.111088	0.135379	0.820568	0.4119
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.134606	0.158144	0.851165	0.3947
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.240800	0.207927	1.158099	0.2468
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.095784	0.140364	-0.682398	0.4950
Limit Points				
LIMIT_2:C(14)	-1.631366	0.850837	-1.917367	0.0552
LIMIT_3:C(15)	-1.170220	0.852372	-1.372897	0.1698
LIMIT_4:C(16)	-0.935159	0.852925	-1.096414	0.2729
LIMIT_5:C(17)	-0.788733	0.852814	-0.924859	0.3550
LIMIT_6:C(18)	-0.300383	0.855711	-0.351034	0.7256
LIMIT_7:C(19)	0.203525	0.858499	0.237071	0.8126
LIMIT_8:C(20)	0.368397	0.856623	0.430058	0.6672
LIMIT_9:C(21)	0.492078	0.858528	0.573164	0.5665
LIMIT_10:C(22)	0.755693	0.857103	0.881683	0.3779

Pseudo R-squared	0.023121	Akaike info criterion	4.371577
Schwarz criterion	4.667156	Log likelihood	-561.6056
Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.490309	Restr. log likelihood	-574.8979
LR statistic	26.58470	Avg. log likelihood	-2.103392
Prob(LR statistic)	0.014174		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: ML - Ordered Probit (Newton-Raphson)
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 23:02
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
Number of ordered indicator values: 10
Convergence achieved after 3 iterations
QML (Huber/White) standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
AGE	-0.023134	0.045588	-0.507462	0.6118
AGESQR	0.000215	0.000555	0.387726	0.6982
GOODMONTH	3.46E-05	2.89E-05	1.194919	0.2321
DUMSEC	-0.045399	0.148811	-0.305078	0.7603
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.000974	0.001159	-0.840812	0.4005
DUMSKILLED	-0.084452	0.138812	-0.608386	0.5429
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.064637	0.028016	-2.307157	0.0210
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.203211	0.130558	-1.556480	0.1196
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.005302	0.011425	-0.464037	0.6426
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.429110	0.140722	3.049352	0.0023
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.134078	0.159657	0.839786	0.4010
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.237049	0.208041	1.139435	0.2545
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.112289	0.143724	-0.781285	0.4346
DUMSTAYFAM	0.107431	0.136187	0.788849	0.4302
Limit Points				
LIMIT_2:C(15)	-1.629218	0.831111	-1.960289	0.0500
LIMIT_3:C(16)	-1.169014	0.835556	-1.399085	0.1618
LIMIT_4:C(17)	-0.933936	0.836178	-1.116910	0.2640
LIMIT_5:C(18)	-0.787259	0.836452	-0.941189	0.3466
LIMIT_6:C(19)	-0.298909	0.839420	-0.356090	0.7218
LIMIT_7:C(20)	0.205969	0.842472	0.244481	0.8069
LIMIT_8:C(21)	0.371521	0.840326	0.442116	0.6584
LIMIT_9:C(22)	0.495419	0.842239	0.588217	0.5564
LIMIT_10:C(23)	0.759565	0.840278	0.903946	0.3660

Pseudo R-squared	0.023214	Akaike info criterion	4.378670
Schwarz criterion	4.687684	Log likelihood	-561.5525
Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.502799	Restr. log likelihood	-574.8979
LR statistic	26.69087	Avg. log likelihood	-2.103193
Prob(LR statistic)	0.021114		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: ML - Ordered Probit (Newton-Raphson)
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 23:04
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
Number of ordered indicator values: 10
Convergence achieved after 3 iterations
QML (Huber/White) standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
AGE	-0.025442	0.044995	-0.565445	0.5718
AGESQR	0.000205	0.000547	0.374806	0.7078
BADMONTH	0.000111	8.18E-05	1.357540	0.1746
DUMSOMEPRIM	0.354315	0.252616	1.402582	0.1607
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.000753	0.001151	-0.654203	0.5130
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.182823	0.130841	-1.397292	0.1623
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.006424	0.010981	-0.585005	0.5585
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.067907	0.027913	-2.432772	0.0150
DUMSTAYFAM	0.092751	0.131816	0.703641	0.4817
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.088557	0.154001	0.575041	0.5653
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.222103	0.205723	1.079619	0.2803
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.445424	0.140596	3.168112	0.0015
Limit Points				
LIMIT_2:C(13)	-1.617060	0.829418	-1.949631	0.0512
LIMIT_3:C(14)	-1.154347	0.829943	-1.390875	0.1643
LIMIT_4:C(15)	-0.918610	0.830361	-1.106278	0.2686
LIMIT_5:C(16)	-0.771662	0.830189	-0.929502	0.3526
LIMIT_6:C(17)	-0.281104	0.833258	-0.337356	0.7358
LIMIT_7:C(18)	0.225268	0.836563	0.269278	0.7877
LIMIT_8:C(19)	0.390031	0.835120	0.467036	0.6405
LIMIT_9:C(20)	0.512489	0.837089	0.612228	0.5404
LIMIT_10:C(21)	0.774668	0.834867	0.927894	0.3535

Pseudo R-squared	0.024175	Akaike info criterion	4.359549
Schwarz criterion	4.641692	Log likelihood	-560.9998
Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.472884	Restr. log likelihood	-574.8979
LR statistic	27.79624	Avg. log likelihood	-2.101123
Prob(LR statistic)	0.005924		

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: ML - Ordered Probit (Newton-Raphson)
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 23:04
Sample: 1 267
Included observations: 267
Number of ordered indicator values: 10
Convergence achieved after 3 iterations
QML (Huber/White) standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
AGE	-0.026469	0.045497	-0.581770	0.5607
AGESQR	0.000218	0.000555	0.392790	0.6945
DUMPRIM	0.009260	0.218778	0.042328	0.9662
EXPERIENCEMONTHS	-0.000701	0.001147	-0.611078	0.5411
TOTDEPENDANTS	-0.062751	0.027713	-2.264303	0.0236
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.214244	0.132598	-1.615743	0.1061
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.008487	0.011191	-0.758407	0.4482
DUMAFRIKAANS	0.178251	0.192879	0.924163	0.3554
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.439088	0.137175	3.200920	0.0014
Limit Points				
LIMIT_2:C(10)	-1.845623	0.817639	-2.257260	0.0240
LIMIT_3:C(11)	-1.388728	0.818711	-1.696238	0.0898
LIMIT_4:C(12)	-1.155831	0.818337	-1.412415	0.1578
LIMIT_5:C(13)	-1.010717	0.818015	-1.235572	0.2166
LIMIT_6:C(14)	-0.526051	0.820845	-0.640865	0.5216
LIMIT_7:C(15)	-0.025258	0.822867	-0.030695	0.9755
LIMIT_8:C(16)	0.138857	0.819902	0.169359	0.8655
LIMIT_9:C(17)	0.262232	0.820904	0.319443	0.7494
LIMIT_10:C(18)	0.526918	0.818462	0.643790	0.5197

Pseudo R-squared	0.020513	Akaike info criterion	4.352845
Schwarz criterion	4.594682	Log likelihood	-563.1048
Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.449989	Restr. log likelihood	-574.8979
LR statistic	23.58631	Avg. log likelihood	-2.109007
Prob(LR statistic)	0.005006		

Windhoek

Dependent Variable: SUBJECTIVE_WELL_BEING
Method: ML - Ordered Probit (Newton-Raphson)
Date: 09/04/18 Time: 23:13
Sample: 1 75
Included observations: 75
Number of ordered indicator values: 10
Convergence achieved after 4 iterations
QML (Huber/White) standard errors & covariance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
AGE	-0.185425	0.076468	-2.424869	0.0153
AGESQR	0.002007	0.000918	2.186584	0.0288
GOODMONTH	2.05E-05	2.87E-05	0.713416	0.4756
DUMSEC	-0.873420	0.545236	-1.601912	0.1092
EXPERIENCE	0.003964	0.001644	2.411536	0.0159
DUMSKILLED	-0.037776	0.305599	-0.123614	0.9016
TOTDEPENDANTS	0.076266	0.044938	1.697147	0.0897
DUMLIVINGCONDITIONS	-0.457583	0.277837	-1.646946	0.0996
TOTDAYSWITHOUTFOOD	-0.056483	0.033281	-1.697140	0.0897
DUMFULLBEFORE	0.149589	0.322431	0.463941	0.6427
DUMFOREIGNERS	0.965884	0.555155	1.739846	0.0819
DUMMARITALSTAT	-0.021568	0.276704	-0.077946	0.9379
DUMSTAYFAM	0.577802	0.295451	1.955661	0.0505
Limit Points				
LIMIT_2:C(14)	-4.716379	1.424926	-3.309913	0.0009
LIMIT_3:C(15)	-4.102063	1.442297	-2.844117	0.0045
LIMIT_4:C(16)	-3.812899	1.413077	-2.698295	0.0070
LIMIT_5:C(17)	-3.420311	1.395211	-2.451466	0.0142
LIMIT_6:C(18)	-2.399562	1.374259	-1.746077	0.0808
LIMIT_7:C(19)	-2.052319	1.388124	-1.478484	0.1393
LIMIT_8:C(20)	-1.939462	1.386754	-1.398563	0.1619
LIMIT_9:C(21)	-1.535503	1.369548	-1.121175	0.2622
LIMIT_10:C(22)	-1.253717	1.362914	-0.919879	0.3576

Pseudo R-squared	0.094686	Akaike info criterion	4.340640
Schwarz criterion	5.020436	Log likelihood	-140.7740
Hannan-Quinn criter.	4.612075	Restr. log likelihood	-155.4974
LR statistic	29.44689	Avg. log likelihood	-1.876987
Prob(LR statistic)	0.005654		

Appendix B

Pretoria and Windhoek survey questionnaires

Pretoria

DAY LABOURERS' SURVEY IN SOUTH AFRICA, 2015- 2018
Department of Social Work, University of the Western Cape
School of Economics, North-West University

REGION:

Gauteng	
Mpumalanga	
KwaZulu-Natal	
Eastern Cape	
Limpopo	
North West	
Free State	
Northern Cape	
Western Cape	

SURVEY DETAILS
(Can be completed after the interview)
Interviewer: Complete the following questions after the interview.

Date of interview…… Fieldworker's name…….....

City/town……. Time of interview……..

If city, mention suburb……

Questionnaire	Completed	Not Completed

Site description:
Address of the site: mention the closest corner e.g. c/o…….....str and ……..... str

GP coordinates …….S…….E

1. **Type of site: <u>Mark all applicable</u>**

Public space (e.g. park/sidewalk/parking area)	
Residential area	
Related Business/shops e.g. builders	
warehouse Unrelated business/shops	
Taxi/bus hub Other	
transport hub	
Open space (e.g. undeveloped veld)	
Road junction	
Dept of Labour	
Other (specify)……..	

2. Estimate amount of people at the hiring site .....

THIS SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE RELATES TO THE RESPONDENT YOU ARE INTERVIEWING.

PERSONAL BACKGROUND

Interviewer: Explain that this next set of questions is about their personal background.

3. Respondent's gender:

Male	1
Female	2

4. With which racial group do you identify yourself? **Mark ONE only**

Black	1
White	2
Coloured	3
Asian	4
Other (Specify)	5

5. Language predominantly spoken by respondent. **Mark ONE only**

English	1
Sesotho	2
Sepedi	3
Isizulu	4
Isindebele	5
Xhitsonga	6
Afrikaans	7
Setswana	8
Isixhosa	9
Tshivenda	10
SiSwati	11
Other Specify……	12

6. From which country do you originate from?

South Africa	1
Zimbabwe	2
Namibia	3
Swaziland	4
Mozambique	5
Botswana	6
Lesotho	7
Other Specify……	8

2

7. If from South Africa in which province were you born?

Gauteng	1
Mpumalanga	2
Kwa Zulu-Natal	3
Eastern Cape	4
Limpopo	5
North West	6
Free State	7
Northern Cape	8
Western Cape	9

8. Where do you live now? (Mention suburb / Township)

…….

9. How old are you?

	Years

under 20	1
21-25	2
26-30	3
31-35	4
36-40	5
41-45	6
46-50	7
51-55	8
56-60	9
over 60	10
Refused to answer	11
Do not know	12

10. Which of the following describes you current marital status?

Never married / Single	1
Separated / Divorced	2
Married (Traditional or Western)	3
Widowed	4
Living with a partner	5
Other (Specify)…….	6

3

EDUCATION

11. What is the **highest** school or tertiary qualification you have **passed?**
Indicate the qualification:

Grade

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post School Qualification												13

Post School Qualification. Please mention the qualification

…….....

12. Ask question 12 only if the waste pickers left school before passing Gr. 12.
Why did you leave school?

.....

13. What other vocational training or courses did you complete?

Bricklaying	1
Painter	2
Plumbing	3
Tiler	4
Electrical work	5
Cabinet maker	6
Carpenter	7
Other Specify……	8

EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT SEEKING HISTORY

Interviewer: Explain that the next set of questions are about your past work experience.

14. The following questions will be about the jobs you did during the last 7 days, hired from street corner hiring sites/labour markets (ask all questions for each day of the week.
Interviewer: If the respondent did not work record "no work" in column "Description of job" and continue till the chart is complete. Write in the days of the week according to the present day. If today is Friday enter the first day as Friday (last week) and continue yesterday (Thursday).

Day	**Description of job:**	**How many hours did you work?**	**How much were you paid?**
Day 1:			
Day 2:			
Day 3:			
Day 4:			
Day 5:			
Day 6:			
Day 7:			

15. How many days did you stand and wait for work as a day labourer during the last week?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Which days of the week did you stand? (Mark all applicable)

Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun

17. What is **the lowest wage** you have been paid **for a day** as a day labourer during the past 12 months?

R………..

18. What is **the best wage** you have been paid **for a day** as a day labourer during the past 12 months?

R…….

19. **What is the lowest** wage per day that you are **currently willing to work** for as a day labourer?

R……

20.a Does this amount stay the same if you are not hired for more than one day in the week before this interview?

Yes	No
1	2

20.b If no, why does it change and by how much?

.....

21. Is your income as day labourer as good as expected?

BETTER	1
WORSE THAN EXPECTED	2
AS GOOD AS EXPECTED	3

22. Approximately, how much did you earn in wages last month?
R ……..(Round to the nearest Rand)

23. During a **good** month of work, how much do you earn as a day labourer?

R…… (Round off to the nearest Rand)

24. During a **bad** month of work, how much do you earn as a day labourer?

R…… (Round off to the nearest Rand)

25. What kind of jobs have you had as a day labour in the last month?
Interviewer: Do not read the list. Use the list to mark "yes" for those jobs that are mentioned.

	Yes	**No**
1. Gardening	1	2
2. Digging/ shovelling	1	2
3. Loading and unloading	1	2
4. Construction (demolition/cleanup)	1	2
5. Bricklaying	1	2
6. Bricklaying assistant	1	2
7. Roofing	1	2
8. Roofing assistant	1	2
9. Carpentry	1	2
10. Carpenter assistant	1	2
11. Painting	1	2
12. Painter assistant	1	2
13. Plumbing	1	2
14. Plumber assistant	1	2
15. Car wash	1	2
16. Farming activities	1	2
17. Electrician	1	2
18. Electrician assistant	1	2
19. Domestic work	1	2
20. Plastering	1	2
21. Other: Specify……	1	2

26. How often do you get hired by the same employer more than three times?

Often	1
Sometimes	2
Seldom	3
Never	4

27. Indicate which answer is relevant:

The last time when you were employed

	YES	**NO**
Did you negotiate your wages with the employer before starting with the job?	1	2

28. During the last month have you turned down a

Yes	1
No	2

job?

29. If yes, why did you turn down the job?.....

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TO BE ABLE TO COMMUNICATE WITH EMPLOYERS

30. How well can you…

Understand English: (fieldworker ask the question in English)

Not at all	1
Somewhat	2
Well	3

31. How well can you speak English?

Not at all	1
Somewhat	2
Well	3

32. Hoe goed kan jy… (Ask the question in Afrikaans)

Afrikaans verstaan:

Not at all	1
Somewhat	2
Well	3

33. Hoe goed kan jy Afrikaans praat?

Not at all	1
Somewhat	2
Well	3

34. Have you ever had a full time job? (A Full time job where you received a regular payslip indicating your income and deductions)

Yes	1
No	2

35. **IF YES**, What was your last full time job?

Job title: ……

36. How long did you have the **last** full time job?

Months……..Years…….....

37. Why did you leave the last full time job? **(Interviewer: Only mark one)**

Laid off business/mine/factory closed	1
Laid off business down sizing	2
Laid off business moved	3
Disciplinary reasons	4
Quit the job because wage was too low	5
Quit the job because of medical reasons	6
Quit the job because of bad treatment from employer	7
Other Specify……..	8
Refused to answer	9

38. Are you currently looking for a full time job?

Yes	1
No	2

39. If no, why not?……..

DEPENDENTS

40. How many people (excluding yourself) depend on your income?

……

If the day labourer has no dependants you do not have to ask questions 41 - 43

41. Identify the people dependent on your income?

Type of dependent	**Number**
Parents	
Own / adopted children	
Foster children	
Grand children	
Others	

42. How many of these are children under the age of 18 who are your legal dependents? **(A legal dependent is own or adopted children or children in foster care)**

…….

43. What are the sources of income available to them?

Child support grant	1
Disability grant	2
Old age grant	3
Another person(s) working	4
Other ……	5

44. Do you stay with your family?

Yes	1
No	2

45. How often do you visit your family (if you do not live with them)?

Daily	1
Weekly	2
Monthly	3
4 Times a year	4
Twice a year	5
Once a year	6
Other Specify……	7
Refused to answer	8

46. How often do you take/send money home?

Weekly	1
Each month	2
4 times a year	3
Twice a year	4
Once a year	5
No money to take/send home	6

HOUSING

***Fieldworker: do not read the list. Tick what have been answered.**

47. In what type of structure do you usually sleep?

Construction Site	1
Backyard room with sleep in domestic worker	2
Backyard room	3
Veld/bushes	4
On the street	5
Backyard shack	6
Shack	7
Hostel/shelter	8
House (bricks/reeds etc)	9
Place of work	10
Other Specify……	11

48. Where is this place situated? .....

49. How much per month do you pay to sleep at this place?

Nothing	1
R 1.00 – R49.00	2
R50.00-R99.00	3
R100.00-199.00	4
R200.00-299.00	5
More than R300.00	6

HIRING SITE

Interviewer: Explain that this set of questions is about the hiring site.

50. In what year did you start standing as a day labourer?
……

51. How many years and months in TOTAL have you been a day labourer?

Years……..……
Months…….

***Fieldworker: we want to get an idea on the movement of the day labourer**

52. What motivated you to move to this site?

This is a bigger place	1
I wanted to be closer to my family	2
Someone told me there are better opportunities here	3
Other Specify……..	4

53. Are the job opportunities at this site better, worse or about as good as you expected?

BETTER	1
WORSE THAN EXPECTED	2
AS GOOD AS EXPECTED	3

54. If the answer is **worse** or **the same** why is he/she still here?

……

* **Fieldworker: In the next question try and get a single time not a time range e.g. 5:00**

55. At what time in the morning do you usually **leave** the place where you sleep/stay to come to this site to look for work?

	am	Pm

56. At what time in the morning do you usually **arrive** at this hiring site?

	amPm	

57. What time do you usually leave this site if you did not get work for the day?

	amPm	

58. Where do you get water when you stand here for the day……..

59. Where do you get food while standing at the hiring site?.....

60. Does any person/group/organisation provide food to the day labourers?

Yes	No
1	2

61. If yes, who and how often?.....…….

62. Where do you go if you need a toilet…….

63. Where do you wash yourself?.....

64. Where do you wash your clothes?.....

FOOD

The next questions are about the food you have eaten in the last week.

65. How many times in the last month was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your house because of lack of resources to get food?

.....

66. How many times in the last month did anyone in your house go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?

.....

67. How many times in the last month did anyone in your house go for a whole day and night without eating anything at all because there was not enough food?

.....

TREATMENT BY POLICE

68. How does the Police and/or metropolitan police treat you?

.....

69. How does the Public treat you?

.....

70. How does employers treat you?

.....

RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL NETWORKS.

Interviewer: Explain that the following questions are about social relationships and other activities.

71. Are you part of a group of day labourers that support one another?

Yes	1
No	2

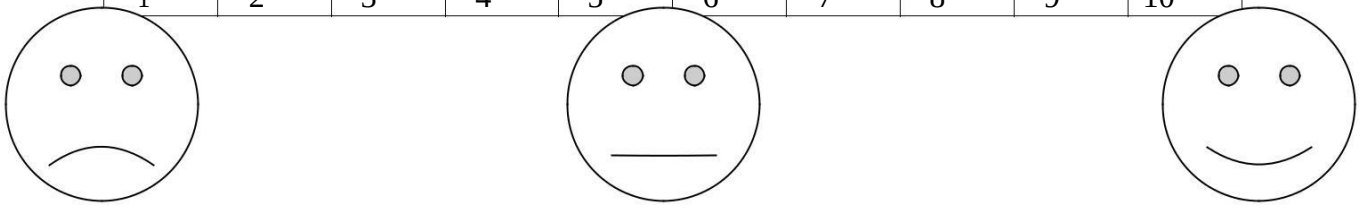
72. In what way do help each other?

Mark all applicable

Finding work	1
Transport/getting lifts	2
Loans	3
Food	4
Shelter to sleep/housing	5
Care when sick	6
Other Specify……..	7

73. On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 very unhappy) how happy are you with life at the moment?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10



74. Is there anything else that we did not ask about that concerns you or that you think we should have asked you about?

Specify……

Interviewer: Thank the respondent for his participation.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS: TO BE COMPLETED AFTER COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRRE

Interviewer: Make notes on any other relevant information shared by the person, e.g.

Concerns about his existence as a day labourer. What is he worried about?

How has working as a day labourer affected relationships wit family?

What happens if he gets home without having worked that day?

How do they survive on a daily basis if he did not get a job for the day/week?

What are the things that still make him hopeful or positive?

What are the hazards being a day labourer?

Observation notes about the site

Are there different groups of people how do they relate

Windhoek

DAY LABOURERS' SURVEY IN NAMIBIA - 2017
Department of Social Work, University of the Western Cape
School of Economics, North-West University
Department of Social Work, University of Namibia

SURVEY DETAILS
(Can be completed after the interview)
Interviewer: Complete the following questions after the interview.

Date of interview…… Fieldworker's name……....

City/town…… Time of interview……..

If city, mention suburb……

Questionnaire	Completed	Not Completed

Site description:
Address of the site: mention the closest corner e.g. c/o……..... str and ……..... str

3. **Type of site: <u>Mark all applicable</u>**

Public space (e.g. park/sidewalk/parking area)	
Residential area	
Related Business/shops e.g. builders	
warehouse Unrelated business/shops	
Taxi/bus hub Other	
transport hub	
Open space (e.g. undeveloped veld)	
Road junction	
Dept of Labour	
Other (specify)……..	

4. Estimate amount of people at the hiring site .....

2a**. Fieldworkers would need to report, for this hiring site, the number of workers who refused to respond. Do this on the last questionnaire completed here**

Number who refused to respond at this site	

EMPLOYMENT AND EMPLOYMENT SEEKING HISTORY

Interviewer: Explain that the next set of questions are about your past work experience.

4. How many days did you stand and wait for work as a day labourer during the last week?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Which days of the week did you stand? (Mark all applicable)

Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri	Sat	Sun

6. The following questions will be about the jobs you did during the last 7 days, hired from street corner hiring sites/labour markets (ask all questions for each day of the week.
Interviewer: If the respondent did not work record "no work" in column "Description of job" and continue till the chart is complete. Write in the days of the week according to the present day. If today is Friday enter the first day as Friday (last week) and continue yesterday (Thursday).

Day	**Description of job:**	**How many hours did you work?**	**How much were you paid?**
Day 1:			
Day 2:			
Day 3:			
Day 4:			
Day 5:			
Day 6:			
Day 7:			

7. **What is the lowest** wage per day that you are **currently willing to work** for as a day labourer?

N$……

7.a Does this amount decrease if you are not hired in the prior week?

Yes	No
1	2

7.b "If yes, by how much"

	Dollar

8. During a **good** month of work, how much do you earn as a day labourer? N$…… (Round off to the nearest Dollar)

9. During a **bad** month of work, how much do you earn as a day labourer? N$…… (Round off to the nearest Dollar)

10. How much did you earn **last month?**

N$ ……..... (Round to the nearest Dollar)

11. What kind of jobs have you had as a day labour in the last month?

	Tick if Yes
1. Gardening	1
2. Digging/ shovelling	1
3. Loading and unloading	1
4. Construction (demolition/cleanup)	1
5. Bricklaying	1
6. Bricklaying assistant	1
7. Roofing	1
8. Roofing assistant	1
9. Carpentry	1
10. Carpenter assistant	1
11. Painting	1
12. Painter assistant	1
13. Plumbing	1
14. Plumber assistant	1
15. Car wash	1
16. Farming activities	1
17. Electrician	1
18. Electrician assistant	1
19. Domestic work	1
20. Plastering	1
21. Other: Specify……	1

3

9. In the last month have you been hired by the same employer more than three times?

Yes	1
No	2

11. During the last month have you turned down a job because the pay was too low?

Yes	1
No	2

12. Have you ever had a full time job? (A Full time job where you received a regular payslip indicating your income and deductions)

Yes	1
No	2

13. **IF YES**, What was your last full time job?

Job title: ……

14. How long did you have the **last** full time job?

Months……..Years…….....

15. When did this job end?.....

16. Why did you leave the last full time job? **(Interviewer: Only mark one)**

Laid off business/mine/factory closed	1
Laid off business down sizing	2
Laid off business moved	3
Disciplinary reasons	4
Quit the job because wage was too low	5
Quit the job because of medical reasons	6
Quit the job because of bad treatment from employer	7
Contract ended	8
Other Specify……..	9
Refused to answer	10

14. Are you currently looking for a full time job?

Yes (move to question 21)	1
No (move to question 20)	2

15. If no, why not?……..

DEPENDENTS

16. How many people (excluding yourself) depend on your income?

.....

If zero you do not have to ask questions 22-24

17. Identify the people dependent on your income?

Type of dependent	**Number**
Parents	
Own / adopted children	
Foster children	
Grand children	
Wife/partner (western/traditional)	
Others e.g brothers or sisters	

18. How many of these are children under the age of 18 who are your legal dependents? **(A legal dependent is own or adopted children or children in foster care)**

.....

19. What are the sources of income available to them?

The Maintenance Grant (MG)	1
Foster Care Grant (FCG) grant	2
Old age pension grant	3
Place of Safety Allowance (PSA)	4
Grant for vulnerable children	5
Another person(s) working	6
Other specify ……	7

20. Do you stay with your family?

Yes	1
No	2

22. How often do you visit your family (if you do not live with them)?

Daily	1
Weekly	2
Monthly	3
4 Times a year	4
Twice a year	5
Once a year	6
Other Specify……	7
Refused to answer	8

25. How often do you take/send money home?

Weekly	1
Each month	2
4 times a year	3
Twice a year	4
Once a year	5
No money to take/send home	6
Other	7

HOUSING

***Fieldworker: do not read the list. Tick what have been answered.**

26. In what type of structure do you sleep in now?

Construction Site	1
Backyard room with sleep in domestic worker	2
Backyard room	3
Veld/bushes	4
On the street	5
Backyard shack	6
Shack	7
Hostel/shelter	8
House (bricks/reeds etc)	9
Place of work	10
Other Specify……	11

27. How much per month do you pay to sleep at this place?

	Dollar
Nothing	1
N$ 1.00 - N$ 99.00	2
N$ 100.00 - N$ 199.00	3
N$ 200.00 - N$ 299.00	4
N$ 300.00 - N$ 399.00	5
More than N$ 400.00	6

HIRING SITE AND DAILY LIFE

Interviewer: Explain that this set of questions is about the hiring site and the daily life of the day labourer.

28. In what year did you start standing as a day labourer?

…….

30. How many years and / or months in TOTAL have you been a day labourer?

Years……..…… Months…….

31. **Fieldworker: In the next question try and get a single time not a time range e.g. 5:00**

32. At what time in the morning do you usually **leave** the place where you sleep/stay to come to this site to look for work?

	Am	Pm

34. At what time in the morning do you usually **arrive** at this hiring

	site?	Am Pm

35. What time do you usually leave this site if you did not get work for the

	day?	Am Pm

36. Where do you get water when you stand here for the day?

Please specify.....1	
I do not drink water when I look for work	2

FOOD

35. Where do you get food while standing at the hiring site?

Please specify.....1	
I do not eat when I look for work	2

38. Does any person/group/organisation provide food to the day labourers?

Yes	No
1	2

39. If yes, who and how often?.....…….

40. Where do you go if you need a toilet…….

41. Where do you wash yourself?.....

42. Where do you wash your clothes?.....

43. How many days in the last month was there no food to eat of any kind in your house

.....Days

TREATMENT BY POLICE

40. How do the Police and/or city police treat you?

.....

41. How does the Public treat you?

.....

42. How do employers treat you?

.....

RELATIONSHIPS AND SOCIAL NETWORKS.

Interviewer: Explain that the following questions are about social relationships and other activities.

41. Are you part of a group of day labourers that support one another?

Yes	1
No	2

If no – then skip Question 47

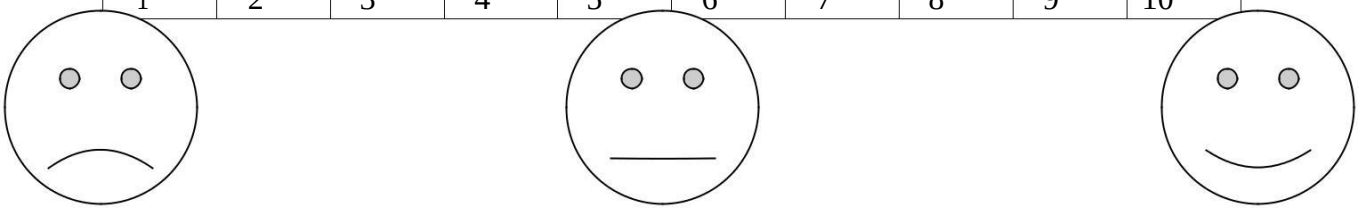
42. In what way do help each other?

Mark all applicable: interviewer read the list and have the respondent answer: Yes / No

	Yes	No
Finding work	1	2
Transport/getting lifts	1	2
Loaning money	1	2
Food	1	2
Shelter to sleep/housing	1	2
Care when sick	1	2
Other..... Specify……..	1	2

44. On a scale of 1-10 (10 being very happy and 1 very unhappy) how happy are you with life at the moment?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10



THIS SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE RELATES TO THE RESPONDENT YOU ARE INTERVIEWING.

PERSONAL BACKGROUND

Interviewer: Explain that this next set of questions is about their personal background.

45. Respondent's gender:

Male	1
Female	2
Other	3

46. With which racial group do you identify yourself?

Black	1
White	2
Coloured	3
Asian	4
Other (Specify)	5

51. Language predominantly spoken by respondent. **Mark ONE only**

English	1
Oshivambo	2
Damara	3
Afrikaans	4
Other Specify……	5

52. From which country do you originate from?

Namibia	1
South Africa	2
Zimbabwe	3
Swaziland	4
Mozambique	5
Botswana	6
Lesotho	7
Other Specify……	8

47. If from Namibia in which province were you born?

Kavango	1
Erongo	2
Oshikoto	3
Hardap	4
Karas	5
Khomas	6
Omaheke	7
Otjozondjupa	8
Kunene	9
Omusati	10
Oshana	11
Ohangwana	12
Caprivi	13

48. Where do you live now? (Mention suburb / Township)

…….

55. How old are you?

	Years

under 20	1
21-25	2
26-30	3
31-35	4
36-40	5
41-45	6
46-50	7
51-55	8
56-60	9
over 60	10
Refused to answer	11
Do not know	12

50. Which of the following describes you current marital status?

Never married / Single	1
Separated / Divorced	2
Married (Traditional or Western)	3
Widowed	4
Living with a partner	5
Other (Specify)…….	6

EDUCATION

52. What is the **highest** school or post school qualification you have **passed?** Indicate the qualification:

Grade

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Post School Qualification												13

~~Post School Qualification. Please mention the qualification~~

…….....

53. Ask question 58 only if the Day labourer left school before passing Gr. 12. Why did you leave school?

.....

54. What other vocational training or courses did you complete?

None	1
Bricklaying	2
Painter	3
Plumbing	4
Tiler	5
Electrical work	6
Cabinet maker	7
Carpenter	8
Other Specify……	9

Interviewer: Thank the respondent for his participation.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS: TO BE COMPLETED AFTER COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRRE