

The Social Capital of Switzerland: An Overview of Attempts to Define, Operationalise and Measure Social Capital

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The present synthesis deals with the current state of research and development with regard to estimating social capital in Switzerland. The idea was proposed by the OECD and the report will be presented as Switzerland's contribution (country paper) at the Social Capital Measurement Conference which will take place in London from 25 to 27 September 2002.

1. Introduction: On the history and the meaning of the term

Social capital, in the broadest sense society's commitment as a resource, is today (again) an endangered asset which therefore needs protection. An individual's inclusion in and his or her links with a community are a prerequisite for that community to function.

According to the literature, this asset is under threat in view of the trend towards individual lifestyles in the "Erlebnisgesellschaft" (Schulze 1993) [English: "experience society"] as well as in the "Single-Gesellschaft" (Hradil 1995) [English: "singles society"]. It is claimed that social milieus where a sense of community used to be learned are becoming less important and solidarity is no longer required. According to the initial thesis, these bonds and a commitment towards the welfare of the community ensure the cohesion of a community. For this reason their existence can be termed "social capital" and steps should be taken to ensure that they are not eroded. Robert D. Putman (2000) demonstrated that, in the case of the USA, some of the social and cultural prerequisites for a functioning democracy have been undermined over the past few decades by the fact that American citizens have been gradually abandoning their commitment to the community.

Neither the term nor its meaning is new; on the contrary, they touch on the foundations of sociological interest. The concern of present-day sociologists and social critics that the individual's sense of community is decreasing as a result of individualisation and globalisation was shared by earlier sociologists, who also felt obliged to describe this social change. For an example let us turn to Ferdinand Tönnies, who described in his publication entitled "Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft" (1887) [English: "Community and Association"] characteristic features of a state organisation which was changing from one based on community to one based on association, or Georg Simmel who at the beginning of the 20th century studied the interactions and relationships – which we would today call networking – between individuals, families and communities. Paxton (1999: 88) tells us that "Concern about a decline in community is a recurring theme in classical and contemporary sociology. In fact, it could be argued that the birth of sociology occurred in concerns about potential declines in community due to industrialisation and the advent of modernity."

The term “social capital” was first used by educationalist and social reformer Lyda J. Hanifan in a paper he wrote in 1916. He had observed that in rural Virginia certain customs were no longer practised which he considered essential for the maintenance of democracy and the further development of the area. According to Hanifan, social capital was the good will, the community spirit, the compassion and the social exchange from which a social unit is made up. In the 1950s the Canadian sociologist John Seeley apparently used the term with reference to membership of clubs and societies among the career-oriented, suburban population. But the breakthrough was achieved by Pierre Bourdieu, who defined social capital in the 1980s as “an aggregate of real and potential resources” at the disposal of an individual through the availability of a permanent network of more or less institutionalised relationships.

Putman, on the other hand, uses the term to describe a macrosociological phenomenon, as a characteristic feature of a community. The principle idea of social capital is that a person’s family, friends and acquaintances represent an asset to which that person can turn in times of need and that membership and commitment of individuals to societies of any sort represent an asset for the individual and the community since these private networks also have consequences on a public level. In this way the term has a positive aspect.

In contrast, James S. Coleman (1988) used the term in combination with considerations based on "game theory" in the example of the diamond trade in the sense of a basic foundation of mutual trust which is the prerequisite for an efficient, economic transaction, and thus emphasised the word “capital” and the economic dimension. His concept refers to companies and other hierarchical organisations within the market economy which use social capital in order to minimise the cost of transactions. From this point of view, social capital is a link in the chain of added value.

The World Bank has adopted a similar approach, always with regard to further economic development of individual regions or countries. In numerous case studies in selected countries (including Tanzania, India, Bangladesh and Mexico) an attempt was made to measure social capital and to assess its significance for regional development. One of the aims of the World Bank’s Social Capital Initiative is “to promote further work along these lines [through case studies and recently too through a comparative study involving 20 countries; author’s remark] and to strengthen the methodological and empirical foundations for measuring social capital” (1998: 4).

Following the findings resulting from these and other empirical studies, it can be concluded that social capital has a positive influence on:

- the prevention of violence,
- health and the quality of life,
- economic development,
- good governance.

More recent studies also emphasise the negative aspects of social capital, since networks and norms can for example be advantageous for those people who belong to them, but at the same time damaging for others, and it can be

seen at a glance that some groups, such as the Ku-Klux-Klan or the Sicilian mafia, have developed norms which are totally opposite to the rules of state democracy and therefore threaten its very being.

2. Theoretical concepts and attempts at operationalisation

On the whole it is agreed that social capital is highly heterogeneous, and that a reliable empirical typology of its various forms and dimensions therefore needs to be developed.

Putman and Goss (2001), whose microsociological approach focused on the various networks, made a distinction between the following determinants.

Formal vs. informal social capital

Formal forms of social capital are associations which need a membership that holds regular meetings and that have designated officers, such as trade unions, and parents' or students' associations. Informal forms are meetings with friends, relatives or people with similar ideas for the purpose of achieving an aim.

Extended versus limited social capital

Extended social capital is usually defined by the frequency and exclusiveness of contact (for example, the family). Limited social capital is the result of so-called fleeting acquaintances whose significance should not be underestimated, for example contacts made while seeking employment or through readiness to help in a sudden emergency.

Inward-oriented vs. outward-oriented social capital

Inward-oriented forms of social capital, which serve in particular the material, social and/or political interests of the members, include for example associations such as chambers of commerce, unions or professional associations. Outward-oriented forms of social capital include more altruistic organisations whose aim is to protect public "assets", such as welfare organisations or environmental protection groups.

Bridge-building vs. bonding social capital

Social networks which bring together totally different types of people are described as "bridge-building" and are therefore a different type of social capital from those which link people of similar persuasions (or those with similar socio-economic, ethnic or religious ideas), which are described as "bonding". The former include for example sports clubs, while the latter include religious associations or some brotherhoods.

Offe and Fuchs (2001) defined the elements of social capital as attention, trust and engagement and used the terms formal and informal networks; they distinguished between the various levels on which networks function and adopted a more systematic approach in that they differentiated between the market, the state and civil society. Their studies focused on macrosociological considerations, i.e. the effects of social capital on economic performance and the quality of state behaviour.

As a result, attempts to operationalise and measure social capital are as varied as its forms. There is no standard procedure nor a general method for measuring social capital. In a corresponding study, the OECD (2001: 43) observed that “measurement of social capital is still in its infancy.”

In the literature it is generally agreed that measuring methods should be as comprehensive as possible and take into account not only the key components “networks” but also values and norms, as well as describing subjective elements such as trust or social ties, in addition to observable aspects as presented by the membership of an organisation. It can therefore be concluded that social capital is a blend of various factors and, according to Putman’s comprehensive empirical analyses, is made up as follows:

- degree of inclusion in the community,
- public commitment, as expressed for example in participation in voting,
- active participation in community life and voluntary work,
- informal social activities (e.g. visiting friends),
- degree of trust, which can be divided into inter-personal trust (i.e. trust in ones colleagues) and general trust (i.e. confidence in political institutions and figures).

Other researchers have observed the changes in criminality and try to draw conclusions regarding the social capital of a community using an indicator of social deviance or acceptance of civil commitment¹. Other researchers use changes in family structure (measured for example by the presence of adults or parents or the attention they give their children) as a basis for estimating social capital. There is increasing focus on schools too, as a place for socialising, where community skills are taught.

In all attempts to operationalise social capital a further problem has arisen as a result of the limitations of the available data. Hardly a single survey has been designed on the basis of recording and measuring social capital; as a rule, available data series are used and secondary analyses are attempted. For this reason, social capital is in fact determined less on theory than through the technical aspects of carrying out a study. This also applies to the few studies that have been carried out on this subject in Switzerland.

3. Studies carried out in Switzerland

One of the aspects of social capital, general trust among the population, was the object of an explorative international comparison carried out by Volker Bornschieer (2001), who worked with data from the World Value Survey, which was available for Switzerland from the second phase on (1990-1993).

He considered general trust to be a cultural asset and defined it as a dependent variable. Subsequently he identified political styles (measured on the basis of

¹ Knack and Keefer (1997), for example, ran a “lost wallets” experiment in several American towns. They interpreted the returning of a wallet as a civil act and observed a correlation between the number of “lost wallets” and the degree of trust.

the degree of neocorporatism) as possible predictors of trust and correlated them with various social characteristics. He thereby ascertained that social characteristics which lead to “good” social order, such as the avoidance of political conflict, social coherence, opportunities of mobility and non-discriminatory access for the general public, were clearly linked to general trust.

Markus Freitag, who also used data from the World Values Survey, combined with data from individual questionnaires which were part of the Swiss Environment Survey and the Swiss Labour Market Survey, presented a comparable empirical estimation of social capital; Freitag considered aspects of trust as well as elements of social inclusion, however. He ascertained, in view of the degree of trust prevailing between members of the population and social commitment in clubs and voluntary organisations, Switzerland (unlike the USA, for example) “is not in danger of losing its social capital” (2001: 87). He did observe a decrease in confidence in national political institutions and players over the same period, however.

Some conceptional studies in the field of network research (e.g. Täube 2002) deserve attention. Furthermore, there are various approaches for measuring social capital at a local level, although such studies are normally restricted to single aspects of social capital in selected areas such as health care or education (typical examples being Meyer et al, 1997, who studied social support and health in the city of Zurich or the current project of the Geneva Research in Education Service entitled “Social capital, education and social ties: experience and school, social and cultural resources among young people in the municipality of Vernier”).

Apart from this small number of promising studies, there have been no systematic investigations into social capital in Switzerland, unlike in some other countries such as the UK, Australia and the USA, as well as Sweden, France and Germany. No-one seems to be taking any initiative in this direction, either. Part of the reason for this discrepancy may be that access to data is restricted, since Switzerland has only been included in major international surveys relatively recently. A national survey of social capital is as rare in Switzerland as in other countries, which means that a number of data series must be used if the whole topic is to be dealt with, as opposed to addressing only single aspects.

Appendix: On the data situation in Switzerland

Below is a summary of surveys from which data was taken for analysing individual aspects and components of social capital:

World Values Survey

Aim: Intercultural, comparative survey of attitudes and values
Aspects covered: Work, health, economy, family, environment, politics, religion
Method: Representative survey based on personal interviews in around 60 countries
Sample: Approx. 1000 people
Series: 1981-1984, 1990-1993, 1995-1997, 1999-2000; including Switzerland from the second series on
Carried out by: University of Geneva, Institute of Political Science

International Social Survey Programme

Aim: International, comparative survey of a selection of topics which were repeated at regular intervals (modules)
Aspects covered: Environment, religion, social networks, family, social inequality
Method: Printed questionnaires, 37 countries now included
Sample: Varied from country to country
Series: Questionnaires sent out every 2 years; Switzerland included occasionally at first, regularly since 2000
Carried out by: SIDOS

Eurobarometer

Aim: European comparative study focussing on questions concerning European integration and European policy
Aspects covered: In part repeated questions with fixed set of variables, in part varying questions on areas of activity of the EU such as the information society, social exclusion, family and social situation
Method: Personal interviews of permanent residents over the age of 15
Sample: Approx. 1000 people
Series: Half-yearly pattern, since 1973 within EU member countries, since 1999 including Switzerland
Carried out by: SIDOS

European Social Survey

Aim: New European comparative study
Aspects covered: EU institutions and their political interaction, attitudes, values, behaviour patterns
Method: Personal interviews among people over 15 years of age
Sample: Approx. 2000 people
Series: Survey being prepared; survey will be carried out annually according to plans and will include Switzerland
Carried out by: SIDOS

Swiss Household Panel

Aim: To ascertain social change, over a five-year period for the moment

Aspects covered: Family, living standards, social origins and education, health, employment, social relations and leisure time, values and political involvement

Method: Periodic telephone interviews among an unchanging, representative selection of households combined with individual interviews of all household members over the age of 14

Sample: 7799 people from 5074 households (1st phase)

Series: Annual surveys since the end of 1999

Carried out by: Swiss Household Panel of the University of Neuchâtel

Swiss Environment Survey

Aim: Study of important factors governing everyday behaviour vis-à-vis the environment

Aspects covered: Environmental awareness, knowledge of the environment, concern for the environment, economic incentives which influence behaviour vis-à-vis the environment

Method: Telephone interviews of Swiss voters followed up by printed questionnaire

Sample: 3019 telephone interviews and 2666 printed questionnaires

Series: Survey carried out once, between October 1993 and February 1994

Carried out by: University of Berne, Sociology Institute

Swiss Employment Market Survey

Aim: Survey on the future working life combined with parts of the 1996 ISSP module on the role of government and the 1997 ISSP module on work orientations

Aspects covered: Personal work situation, educational, professional and family biography, work orientation, political attitudes

Method: Telephone interviews plus printed questionnaires among 18-70 year olds living in Switzerland

Sample: 3028 (in 1998)

Series: Original survey carried out in 1998 and main study repeated in 2000 without the additional module

Carried out by: University of Berne, Sociology Institute

Family Microcensus

Aim:	To ascertain the latest developments and the current situation with regard to the family
Aspects covered:	Correlation between education and occupation, family lifestyles, attitudes and appreciation of the family
Method:	Representative survey among 20-49 year old permanent residents
Sample:	Approx. 6000 interviews
Series:	Survey first carried out 1994/95, ten-yearly repetition planned
Carried out by:	Swiss Federal Statistical Office, Demographic Trends Section

Swiss Health Survey, living conditions module

Aim:	To ascertain the current situation and development trends with regard to various aspects of health
Aspects covered:	Additional module on living conditions of particular interest
Method:	Telephone interviews with randomly selected subjects from within one household, plus written questionnaire
Sample:	Approx. 13,000 people
Series:	Survey first carried out in 1997, repeated in 2002; it is planned to repeat the survey every 5 years
Carried out by:	Swiss Federal Statistical Office, Health Section

Household Income and Consumption Survey

Aim:	To describe consumer habits and ascertain incomes of private households
Aspects covered:	Incomes and consumption, combined with additional modules on accommodation, travel, and living conditions
Method:	Telephone interviews, partly with all household members, partly with selected people
Sample:	9300 households in 1998
Series:	Survey first carried out in 1998, carried out annually since 2000 (main survey); the additional modules are to be repeated at irregular intervals
Carried out by:	Swiss Federal Statistical Office, Prices Section

The appendix includes an overview (in the form of a table) of questions which are of interest in connection with the identification of social capital. This overview has been drawn up according to the British model, only those surveys being listed for which the Swiss Federal Statistical Office has data at its disposal.

4 Attempt at an initial analysis using data from the Swiss Household Panel

For a study such as the present one, which aims to analyse the expression of the components of social capital discussed here,

- confidence in public institutions,
- belonging to networks,
- emotional and practical support in the private sphere,

the Swiss Household Panel can be used as a data source for the first time. It goes without saying that neither intercultural nor temporal comparisons can be drawn, although the data is suitable for the purposes of elucidating factors specific to Switzerland. The following initial analysis of the data from the first survey series aims to provide information about social capital in Switzerland. Once again, this is “only” an analysis of individual determinants at a specific moment in time; conclusions as to a possible reduction of social capital, as many foreign research studies have observed, cannot be drawn owing to the lack of comparable data.

Confidence in public institutions

A direct question with a scale of answers was asked concerning this changeable element². The subjects were asked about their confidence in the Federal Council, the political parties (as a further fixed component of the democratic system), in ecological movements and in human rights organisations in general.

Table 1: Confidence in public institutions (figures are percentages)³

	Complete confidence	High degree of confidence	Some confidence	Very little confidence
Federal Council	5	19	31	45
Political parties	1	6	22	71
Ecological movements	3	17	28	52
Human rights organisations	7	25	29	39

It can therefore be concluded that confidence in specific Swiss institutions such as the Federal Council, political parties and ecological movements is rather low, only human rights organisations, which are active at a more global level, enjoy greater public confidence. If one analyses the results in more detail, i.e. broken

² The question asked was, “How much confidence do you have in ...; if 0 means ‘no confidence’ and 10 means ‘full confidence’?”

³ All figures in this and the following tables have been rounded off.

down according to socio-demographic characteristics, the following tendencies become apparent⁴.

- Women have less confidence than men in public institutions (i.e. the proportion of women who answered “very little confidence” is greater than that of men, whereas the proportion of women who answered “complete confidence” in the given institutions was lower than among the men; the proportion of people who said they had “complete confidence” was in any case very low, with the result that differences here are not (statistically) significant).
- It would appear that confidence generally decreases with advancing age⁵, with the exception of confidence in ecological movements, where the younger generation indicated greater confidence than the older generation.
- People with a higher level of education⁶ tend to have more confidence in public institutions than those with a lower level of education.

If one compares subjective with objective values by taking into consideration (reported) behaviour in addition to attitudes, the trends which appear are similar, but are expressed to a different degree.

Those interviewed were then asked how often they take part in popular votes⁷, and 44% replied that they always voted, 17% that they often voted, 9% that they sometimes voted and 30% that they hardly ever voted. The trends are similar to that seen with regard to confidence.

- Fewer women vote than men.
- More older people vote than young people (i.e. the proportion of those who said they always vote is continuously rising regardless of age, the proportion of those who rarely vote is decreasing).
- People who have had a higher education and have a more senior professional position tend to vote more frequently than those who completed only compulsory schooling and occupy less senior positions.

An evaluation of answers to this question according to large regions corroborated the picture painted by other studies, namely that there is a slightly lower rate of voting in western Switzerland than in Zurich, eastern Switzerland and the Tecino region.

From what is indicated above, it can be concluded that, despite the lack of confidence in important political institutions such as the Federal Council, the level of voting is very high, which could be taken as an indication of confidence.

⁴ These tendencies result from the systematic analysis of the extreme answers “complete confidence” versus “very little confidence”.

⁵ Age was recorded directly and the people used in the survey were divided into those up to and including the age of 24, 25-39 year olds, 40-54 year olds, 55-64 year olds and those 65 and over.

⁶ Level of education was defined according to the ISCED norm and recoded for the purposes of this survey as follows: compulsory schooling, higher schooling, advanced education.

⁷ Votes on certain proposed laws or counter-proposals are part of the Swiss system of direct democracy. Depending on requirements, there may be several federal, cantonal or local votes per year.

The question therefore arises as to whether the question of confidence in (selected) political institutions is really a suitable indicator for assessing this aspect of social capital in Switzerland. In this respect, further studies are definitely needed in order to identify correlations.

Belonging to networks

Involvement in networks was analysed through more questions concerning membership of certain organisations⁸. One aspect of formal social capital was elucidated through an analysis of the answers to these questions.

Table 2: Belonging to networks (figures in %)

	Total	Gender		Education			Linguistic region		
		Women	Men	Compul.	Med.	Higher	Germ.	French	Ital.
Clubs (gen.)	50	45	56	44	51	57	54	45	29
Volunt. work	34	30	39	24	36	42	39	25	20
Sport + leisure	39	33	47	35	39	46	42	38	22
Cultural	25	22	27	17	24	35	28	21	11
Environ.	16	16	16	10	15	25	18	13	8
Social assist.	23	25	22	14	25	32	27	17	14

As with the participation discussed above, the same pattern is evident here with regard to gender and education: women join formal networks less frequently than men, as do people with a higher level of education in comparison with those with only compulsory schooling. In contrast, a corresponding correlation with age, i.e. that older people are more commonly members of some sort of association than younger people (or vice versa) was not seen, although it must be said that there are age-related preferences for the type of organisation. An interesting observation, however, was that there are apparently cultural differences within Switzerland: people who live in the German-speaking part of the country are more often members of a formal network than those living in the French or Italian-speaking areas.

⁸ The questions asked were, "Do you take part in clubs or other group activities (religious groups included)?" "Do you have honorary or voluntary activities within an association, or organisation or an institution?" "I will read out a list of associations and organisations. Could you tell me if for each of them you are an active member, a passive member or not a member?" The following organisations were included in the list: neighbourhood or parents' organisation, sports or leisure activities organisation, cultural, music or educational clubs, trade union or staff association, political party, environmental organisation, charity organisation, women's club, tenants' organisation. In the subsequent analysis some items were not taken into consideration because they were not mentioned, such as membership of political parties, in which in all less than 5% of those questioned played an active role.

Practical and emotional support in the private sphere

As can be seen below, the informal components of social capital reveal a different pattern, which was elucidated using the constructs of (a) practical and (b) emotional support⁹.

Table 3: Practical and emotional support (figures in %)

	Practical support			Emotional support		
	Great deal	Some	None	Great deal	Some	None
Partner	73	13	14	82	10	8
Children > 15	52	16	32	72	12	16
Relatives	45	19	36	58	18	24
Neighbours	34	22	44	39	23	38
Friends	50	22	28	64	19	17
Colleagues	24	24	52	32	25	43

The table above shows that emotional support, regardless of the person providing it, is of greater importance than practical support through private networks.

A detailed analysis revealed the following tendencies.

- Women admit receiving a great deal of practical and emotional support from children, relatives, neighbours, friends and colleagues more frequently than men. An exception is support from a partner; although the percentages for women are again higher (in comparison with the people listed above), more men admit receiving practical and emotional support from their female partners than women from their male partners.
- A breakdown according to age group reveals varying preferences: whereas support from friends is very important among young people, practical and emotional support from children tends to increase with age.
- A corresponding focus on their partner can be observed more frequently among people with a higher level of education, who, in turn indicate that they receive practical and emotional support to a lesser degree from children, neighbours, friends and colleagues than people with only compulsory schooling.
- It would appear, on the other hand, that support from relatives, neighbours, friends and colleagues is more common in the French-speaking part of Switzerland than in the German-speaking part.

⁹ The question asked in relation to practical support was, "If necessary, in your opinion, to what extent can ... provide you with practical help (this means concrete help or useful advice), if 0 means 'not at all' and 10 'a great deal'?" The question asked concerning emotional support was, "To what extent can ... be available in case of need and show understanding by talking with you, for example, if 0 means 'not at all' and 10 means 'a great deal'?" The questions centred on partners, children over 15, relatives or children who have left home, neighbours, friends and colleagues.

These small but distinctive differences in the extent to which the two latterly discussed components (inclusion in networks versus practical and emotional support) are expressed validate a differentiation between formal and informal forms of social capital. With the data available, such a differentiation is easily made, although more analyses need to be done in view of the structure of networks, for example on their scope and on inward or outward orientation. Explorative analyses also need to be carried out, as well as operationalisation of bridge-building and binding social capital.

5 Conclusions and critical remarks

These comments show that social capital is indeed many-sided and difficult to measure. In my opinion, the term “capital” – borrowed from economics – easily leads to misunderstandings since it implies something that can be precisely, even numerically measured. Further research should therefore be done to develop:

- a theory which does justice to the heterogeneity of social capital, and
- methods by which the various forms and consequences can be analysed.

It is my opinion that, in view of the many different aspects (see point 2 of my comments), studies which are aimed at recording and observing the quantity of social capital in general and draw conclusions using the words “more, or less social capital” are not very helpful.

Another question arises, namely whether conclusions as to effects on the macro-level of the state can be drawn from the simple addition of the effects on the micro-levels of the individual or the household. This also applies to the analysis presented above, which includes data from the Swiss Household Panel and provides information on individual social capital, but does not necessarily allow conclusions to be inferred about the social capital of Switzerland. (Qualitative) research approaches which look at the institutional, political and economic system and its global links would perhaps be more suitable for obtaining information in this respect. On the meso-level of the regions or other social sub-aggregate networks, analyses would be suitable for gaining knowledge about the existence and effects of social capital.

In the case of Switzerland, in order to improve the data, a systematic expansion of the Federal Statistical Office’s individual and household surveys, the continuation of the Swiss Household Panel and inclusion in international research programmes such as the World Values Survey can only be recommended. Regional or area studies are ideal for expanding the data and for analyses on a meso-level. Corresponding studies, for example those included in the Swiss National Research Project no. 51 “Integration and exclusion”, should be reviewed in this light. Swiss political and economic performance in conjunction with world partners should be investigated in order to obtain more data and for macro-level analyses of the state.

It would also be of advantage to participate in planned international research aimed at defining social capital in the strict sense and developing suitable measuring modules. In this connection it would be advisable to use our influence to ensure that, for reasons of efficiency and cost, such modules are integrated into existing (international) surveys. An independent "social capital" module would offer the advantage of allowing multivariable analyses to be carried out.

Basically, with a variety of methods for measuring social capital, which is highly heterogeneous and can be accumulated on various levels (and in various ways), it would be appreciated if justice were done to the object of the research.

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Annex: Survey matrix

The following matrix illustrates which themes are measured in the surveys conducted by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office, alone or in collaboration with partners.

SHP: Swiss Household Panel
 FFS: Family and Fertility Survey
 SHS: Swiss Health Survey
 HIC: Household Income and Consumption
 LC: module on living conditions

- the topic is clearly covered in survey
- the survey covers a similar topic

Theme	Aspects measured	SHP	FFS	SHS (LC)	HIC (LC)
Participation, social commitment	Participation or involvement in local groups	•		•	
	Perceived barriers to involvement in local groups				
	Level of involvement in local groups	•		•	
	Participation in voluntary schemes connected with work	◦			
	Political activity or voting	•	◦	◦	•
	Membership of clubs/groups	•	•	•	•
	Religious activity	•	•	•	◦
	Has given or received a practical favour	◦		•	
	Has provided regular service, help or care for others	•		•	
	Familiarity with neighbourhood	•			
Control, self-efficacy	Perceived control over community affairs	◦			
	Perceived control over own health	◦		•	
	Perceived control which organisations have		◦		
	Satisfaction with degree of control over life	◦		◦	
	Perceived rights and responsibilities of citizens				
	Perceived influence over political decisions	•			
	Perceived satisfaction with life	•			•
	Psychological control or empowerment measures				

Theme	Aspects measured	SHP	FFS	SHS (LC)	HIC (LC)
Perception of community level structures or characteristics	Satisfaction/enjoyment of living in local area	○		●	○
	Degree to which societal-level variables are seen as relevant to health				
	Rating of local noise problems	●		●	●
	Rating of cleanliness, graffiti, vandalism	○			
	Rating of area resources and services (leisure activities, refuse collection)				●
	Rating of health services			●	
	Rating of socio-economic inequality	○			
	Perception of crime, safety, victimisation	●		●	○
Perception of community level structures or characteristics (cont.)	Availability of good local transport			○	○
	Feeling of safety in the neighbourhood	●			●
	Rating of facilities for children		○	○	○
Social interaction, social networks, social support	Proximity of friends/relatives	○	○		
	Contact with friends/family/neighbours: quality or frequency	●	●	○	○
	Perceived barriers to contact with friends or relatives				
	Has someone to rely upon outside household				
	Has received practical help/advice for bringing up children	●	○		○
	Extent of socialisation networks	○			
	Extent of socialisation networks, specifically leisure	○			
	Perceived norms of social support				
	Inter-personal relations at work	○			
Trust, reciprocity, social cohesion	Satisfaction with level of information about local issues				
	Period of residence in area/neighbourhood				
	Confidence in institutions and public services	○	○		
	Trust in other people	●			
	Perceived fairness of life, including discrimination	○			
	Confidence in political structures	●			
	Social trust				
	Perception of shared values, reliability				