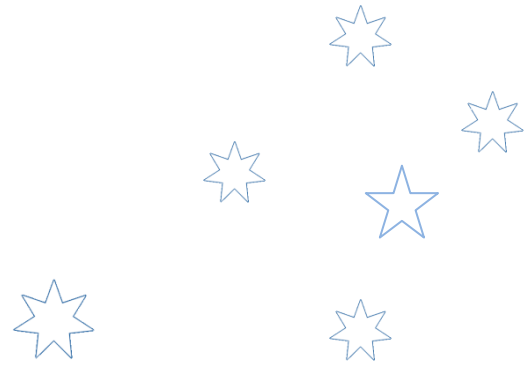**MASTER THESIS**

"We are an open and tolerant society that promotes the celebration of diversity…"
- A quantitative study of social capital in Australia

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Abstract

This thesis explores the effect of the Australian government passing the legislative and administrative act, *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia,* on the social capital in Australia. The Agenda was passed in 1999, and aimed at creating a more trustful and inclusive society among one of the most diverse population in the world. By using educational, informative and labour market strategies the Australian government sought to create a more cohesive society and increase the degree of social capital within the society.

The long historical tradition of multiculturalism through acculturation of Indigenous Australians and assimilation policies are emphasized by several researchers to be a major disadvantage in building a more cohesive society. Previous researchers also claim that multiculturalism itself can erode and break up the feelings of trust and solidarity within a society. This thesis uses notions of the concept of social capital, developed by Robert Putnam and James Coleman and provides through statistical methods evidence that question theories regarding the negative influences of multiculturalism on social capital. The conclusion drawn from this thesis is that governments can through legislative and administrative procedures affect social capital within a multicultural society.

Table of content

1. Introduction

During the second half of the twentieth century, the demographic settings in countries have changed dramatically. One major explanatory factor is new patterns of international migration. The demographic change with increased ethnic, racial, linguistic, and religious diversity have provided incentives for governments to reshape their contemporary democratic politics into multicultural politics in order to meet the new tensions caused by increased demographic diversity (Jordan, 2006; Soroka, Johnston, & Banting, 2007). Governments have through law and administration procedures strived to increase social capital in attempt to create trust and solidarity among diversified citizens. This thesis explores how these procedures have been dealt with in Australia and to which level of success.

One of the most diverse populations in the world is located in Australia where over 43 percent of the population are born overseas or with at least one parent born overseas, and with over 200 languages spoken within the country. Australia is also a country with a long historical tradition of settlers and Indigenous people[1] (Commonwealth of Australia, 2003). There are approximately 520 000 Indigenous Australians in Australia, 2.7 percent of the population[2], who can be separated into two types of Indigenous Australians: the Aboriginals and the Torres Strait Islanders. The Aboriginals are seen as the "original" inhabitants of Australia while the Torres Strait Islanders are regarded as being distinct Aboriginal Australians from Torres Strait Islands, a part of Queensland, Northeast Australia. The Torres Strait Islanders are sometimes referred to separately, but like the Aboriginals they are Indigenous Australians[3]. Approximately 45 000 people of the Indigenous Australians are Torres Strait Islanders (Gray, Coates & Yellow, 2008).

The history of the Indigenous Australians entails that they have had a long struggle for recognition as citizens of Australia. They have been prohibited to own land rights, discriminated on basis of their ethnic origin, and exposed to assimilation policies. The struggle started when the British in the late 1700s colonized the continent that the Indigenous Australians had lived and survived on for thousands of years (Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 2000). In order to "legitimize" the colonization the British invoked something called "*Terra*

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[1] Indigenous people are an umbrella term for diverse populations located throughout the world. Indigenous people are residing on ancestral lands and have distinct cultures and languages and regard themselves as different from those who colonized their lands (Gray, Coates & Yellow, 2008).
[2] http://www.abs.gov.au 2011-01-14
[3] The term Indigenous Australians refer to both the Aboriginals and the Torres Strait Islanders.

Nullius"; which means "un-owned territory"[4] (Ibid. p.38. 2000). During this period, when the British captured the land and the Indigenous Australians natural resources had been drastically reduced, a struggle for survival started. Attempts were made by the Indigenous Australians to defend "their lands" but they were increasingly inferior to the British who used brutal methods as mass murder and assimilation policies in the "fight" against the Indigenous Australians (Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 2000). The assimilation policies with its main objective; exterminate the Indigenous Australian culture and the entire Indigenous Australian race, has become a deep rooted source for despair and antagonism in the Indigenous Australians culture (Ibid). The assimilation policies lasted until the early 1970s and the most significant policy, which still affects the daily life in the Australian society, is the removal policy. The removal policy took place from 1930s to 1970s and aimed to, with or without the Indigenous Australians consent, remove the Indigenous Australians children from their families and to place them in so-called reformatories, i.e. "Caucasus" foster care families. The policy aimed at integrating the Indigenous Australians children into the Australian society. During the period 1930s to 1970s approximately 100 000 children were "stolen" from their families and in the Indigenous Australians history, these children have come to be called *"The Stolen Generation"* (Ibid. p. 63-64, 2000).

Even though the removal policy still is a source for the Indigenous Australians antagonism towards the historical development and it pervades the entire Australian society, there have been important milestones in the Indigenous Australians process for recognition as citizens. In the year 1967 the Indigenous Australians were declared citizens and the Australian government also made a promise to implement policies in regard to including the Indigenous Australians in political processes that concerned them.[5] However, it took until 1992 before the primary Supreme Court in Australia decided to end the policy *"Terra Nullius"*. During this year, the Indigenous Australians also received a *"native title"* which according to the Australian law meant that they had the right to own land, like everyone else (Hammarberg & Hammarberg, p. 72. 2000). However, the Australian law gave every other law priority over the *"Native Title"* which explicitly meant that if the *"Native Title"* conflicted with another Australian law, the Australian law is prioritized. Even though the Indigenous Australians were declared citizens in 1967, it took the government 24 years (1991) before they invested in projects and established policies that enabled and included the Indigenous Australians in the

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[4] The British claimed that they had the right to possess the land because the Indigenous Australians was not cultivated enough and did not use or took advantage of the soil (Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 2000).
[5] http://www.humanrights.gov.au/racial_discrimination/face_facts 2011-01-21

political processes. In 1998 the Prime Minister John Howard decided to reform the *"Native Title Act"* which lead to a decrease in the possibilities for the Indigenous Australians to protect their sacred places. This action by the government has also been criticized by the United Nations Committee for Racial Discrimination (Ibid). Nira Yuval-Davis (1997) emphasize the risks of giving minority groups such as the Indigenous Australians access to own land rights and highlights historical situations in other countries where conflicts within the community has been a consequence if increased land rights, and it can therefore be viewed as a threat to the homogeneity in a community (Yuval-David, 1997).

In 1997, the Prime Minister of Australia, John Howard, refused to make an official apology to the Indigenous Australians for the suffering and misery caused to *"The Stolen Generation"*. John Howard, who was elected Prime Minister from 1996 to 2007, ignored the Indigenous Australians demands for an apology and argued that his generation cannot be held responsible for another generation's actions. A statement which caused fury amongst the Indigenous Australians who protested and criticized John Howard since he actually was a Member of the Australian Parliament in the 1960s, when the removal policy still took place.[6] The Indigenous Australians criticism and feelings of righteous anger was disregard and it took over ten more years before the Indigenous People received an apology from the Prime Minister of Australia. However, it was not John Howard who apologized since the apology came after John Howard's resignation as Prime Minister and it was instead Kevin Rudd, the new Prime Minister of Australia from 2007, who in 2008 honored the Indigenous Australian culture and apologized for the suffering caused by the assimilation policies. Kevin Rudd wanted the apology to be a first step to acknowledge the past and to proceed with a future where the societal segmentation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians must decrease (Speech, 2008-02-08). The apology from Kevin Rudd met high resistance amongst other politicians and non-Indigenous Australians who argued that the assimilation policies were at that time, the "right" thing to do. Afterwards, observers found that the resistance towards both of the Prime Ministers could be seen as an indicator of the antipathy that still exists within Australia.[7]

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[6] http://reconciliaction.org.au/nsw/education-kit/stolen-generations/ 2011-02-09
[7] http://reconciliaction.org.au/nsw/education-kit/stolen-generations/ 2011-02-09

1.1 Problem area

Even though John Howard never apologized to the Indigenous Australians and reformed the *"Native Title Act"* to their disadvantage in 1998, he did enhance the commitment taken by the Australian government in 1991 by announcing *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* in 1999.[8] John Howard acknowledged the rapid growth and impact of international migration and portrayed the Agenda as a commitment; a promise made by the Australian government that through multicultural policies assure community harmony and social stability. John Howard emphasized that *"we are an open and tolerant society that promotes the celebration of diversity..."* (John Howard in Commonwealth of Australia, p. Foreword, 1999) and to achieve this goal, the government passed policies regarding public information, education and labour market. The overall aim was to increase the Australian citizens' awareness and understandings of the benefits regarding Australia's cultural diversity. The government educational and information strategies aimed to increase partnerships within sectors of the Australian society and also to facilitate social networking. The Australian government strategic directions with *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* were to focus on younger people and also regional and rural areas in Australia.[9] The National Education plan for elementary school was changed and came to include multicultural education, starting in primary school, and the government also made it possible for all Australians to have equal access to higher education.[10] The Agenda also promoted, using information strategies, participation for women and Indigenous Australians in the social, economic, cultural, and political life of the community. The government implemented labour market strategies to increase productivity and through partnership with some of the most prominent business schools and the private sector the strategies ought to increase job opportunities. The government also implemented information programs that aimed to encourage harmony, participation in the political life and relationships between people or organizations of different cultural backgrounds. These legislative and administrative actions intended to build an integrated multicultural society and the strategies aimed to benefit the Indigenous Australians since *"they provide a foundation for the cultural diversity of the nation, it is appropriate that their distinct needs and rights be reaffirmed and accorded separate consideration."* (Commonwealth of Australia, p.7. 1999). The Agenda was updated in 2003 and declared that one of the greatest strengths of the Australian nation is its cultural diversity (Commonwealth of Australia, 2003). Gary Hardgrave, the former Australian Minister for Citizenship and

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[8] http://www.abs.gov.au/ 2011-01-18
[9] http://www.multiculturalaustralia.edu.au/ 2011-05-02
[10] http://www.immi.gov.au/ 2011-05-02

Multicultural Affairs, was one of the founders of the Agenda and Hardgrave promised that the passing of the Agenda was necessary to secure a future in which the Australian society's diversity remains a source of social stability and economic benefits for all Australians. *"The key to the success of Australian multiculturalism is inclusiveness. Every Australian benefits from our diversity..."* (Commonwealth of Australia, p.5. 2003). The new agenda focus on social development; social stability, economic benefits, and it encourage community relations and social harmony among every citizen.

One might assume that a country with long experiences of a diverse society like Australia would have less difficulty integrating new social groups compared to countries with shorter experience. Consequently, the previously presented history of the Indigenous Australians exposure to discrimination and research from other countries provides incentives to believe that it is more common that integration is problematic in countries with long experiences of multiculturalism (Banting, 2000; Bommes, 2000; Koopmans, 2010). One explanatory proposal is given by Banting who suggests that it is problematic due to the post-war creation of the welfare state[11]. The dominant post-war view was embedded in the conception of citizenship and the politics of race have shaped social policy throughout the history of Australia which in return has constrained the capacity of welfare promoters to create new policies (Ibid.). Esping-Andersen is in his celebrated study of welfare states arguing that *"...citizenship constitutes the core idea of the welfare state."* (p.21, 1990). Both Esping-Andersen and Banting (2000) came to the conclusion that the history of a welfare state starts at the development and defense of citizenship rights.

T.H. Marshall (Marshall, 2006) argued that the concept "citizenship" expanded during the twentieth century and when the concept came to include both political and social rights it created a national community. The extension of social rights and benefits to all citizens reinforced the sense of a common and collective community. Marshall emphasizes the plurality of citizenship and refers to three elements; civil, political and social. The civil element comprises the rights that are necessary for individual freedom and exemplifies with freedom of speech and the right to own property. The political element is referring to free and fair universal participation in the exercise of political power. Social rights, the main aspects of Marshall's assessment, includes an entire variety of rights, *"from the right to a modicum of economic welfare and security to the right to share to the full in the social heritage and to live*

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[11] The welfare state is characterized by its systematic social concern for the welfare of people who might otherwise lack the basic necessities required for functioning within their community. Thus it is inevitable that welfare states vary somewhat from society to another (Goodin & Mitchell, 2000).

the life of civilized being according to the standards prevailing in the society" (p. 30, 2006).
The dichotomy of citizenship means that if not more or less fortunate citizens is included
independent of their ethnic origin, gender, race, religion, or contribution to the system there is
a risk that the status of citizenship could deteriorate (Commission on Social Justice in Pierson
and Castles, 2006). Robert Putnam (1993) is in his famous study, regarding the functioning of
democracy in Italy, highlighting similar to Marshall the common and collective community.
Putnam focuses on social capital[12] and concludes that both community and collective
responsibility are founded on mutual trust. Mutual trust is also presented as a solution to
Marshall's dichotomy. In order to sustain solidarity and include new members of the society
citizens' must trust each other. If this trust is non-existed or erodes, it will challenge the core
idea of social citizenship. Putnam (1993) stipulates that trust is aided by identification with
fellow citizens.

Inclusiveness is as already presented the main focus in *The New Agenda for
Multicultural Australia*. The agenda is however not only a reflection of new patterns in
international migration but also an attempt to "revitalize" relations towards the Indigenous
Australians. In other parts of the world, rapid migration has challenged the welfare state and
the idea of social citizenship. Researchers[13] have found that multiculturalism can break up the
feelings of trust, solidarity, and consensus, all of which usually are associated with an
ethnically and culturally homogenous population with similar values (Putnam, 1993). They all
conclude that the feelings are deeply rooted in the welfare state and its traditional concepts of
community and collective responsibility and that trust and solidarity becomes very difficult,
or even impossible, to sustain if the population are diverse (Banting, 2000). The World Bank
highlights in their report *World Development Report* from 2000 how interstate conflicts and
differences can divide a population and undermine the interpersonal and community group
trust. Differences and conflicts which also may cause the destruction of norms and values that
underlies cooperation and collective action for the common good, decimating social capital.
Kymlicka (1995[a]) provides a more nuanced argument towards multiculturalism and argues
that multiculturalism per se decimates trust and explicitly social capital in a society. He argues
however that it occur situations that can undermine the trustworthiness in a society such as
inferior positions for groups within a society.

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[12] Social capital is a concept with multiple definitions and Putnam argues that social capital refers to individual or collective
actions, generated by the collective value of trust, social norms and networks of relationships (Putnam, 1993).
[13] Alesina, Baqir & Easterly 1997; Banting, 2000; Bommes & Geddes, 2000; Cox, 2002; Jordan, 2006; Soroka, Johnston &
Banting, 2007; Eisenberg, 2007.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), an Australian government agency, presents every year high quality national statistic reports which show that within Australia, there are socio-cultural differences between the Indigenous Australians and the non-Indigenous Australians. The unemployment rate (21 percent) is three times higher among the Indigenous Australians in comparison with the rest of the population (5.1 percent in December 2010). The Indigenous Australians have a median age that is approximately 16 years shorter in comparison with non-Indigenous Australians.[14]

Median Age comparison

Non-Indigenous Australians	37
Indigenous Australian	21

0   10   20   30   40
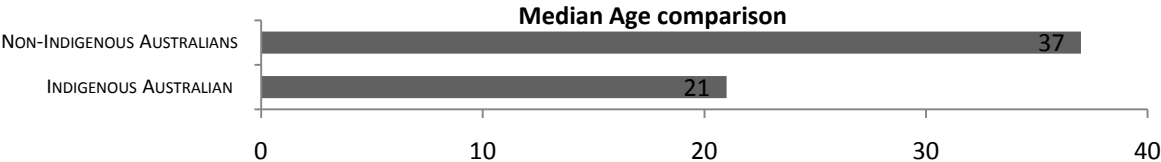
Table 2: Median Age Comparison

In 2010, the ABS presented the most recent statistic on victimization among the Indigenous Australians and non-Indigenous Australians. The information comes from a general Social Survey and shows that Indigenous Australians over the age 18 are twice as likely as non-Indigenous Australians to have been victims of physical or threatened violence.[15] The figure below shows in percent how many Australian people who were victims of physical or threatened violence.

Indigenous Australians
Non-indigenous Australians

55 and over
45-54
35-44
25-34
18-24

0   5   10   15   20   25   30   35
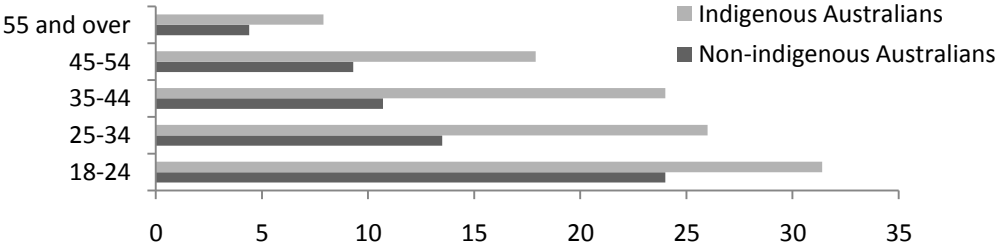
Table 3: Victimization statistics

The socio-cultural differences presented above are an indication that the Indigenous Australians possess an inferior position in the Australian society. Australia with over ten years experience from a multicultural politics that aims to include everyone cannot, based on previously presented statistics, according to Kymlicka (1995ᵃ) be seen as a multicultural society in harmony. Previously presented research on multiculturalism and the Indigenous Australians historical struggle for recognition as citizens in combination with previously presented statistics provides reason to believe that there is a paradoxical situation in Australia. The Australian government legislative multicultural agenda focuses on the building of an

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[14] http://www.abs.gov.au/ 2011-01-18
[15] http://www.abs.gov.au/ 2011-01-18

integrated multicultural society and research suggests that an integrated multicultural society will affect the level of trust and explicitly the aggregated degree of social capital which is the most important and significant feature when it comes to sustaining solidarity and to include new members into the society. At the same that the agenda exists as political policy, the situation as expressed for one group in society, the Indigenous Australians is still an excluded group in relationship to the majority of the Australian population.

2. Objective of the study

As previously presented, the Australian government action through legislation aims to build an integrated multicultural society. In this thesis I seek a deeper understanding of the relations between government policy to enhance multiculturalism and social capital. This is done by using the concept of social capital to indicate if there is an increase in positive multiculturalism and by indentifying the factors having impacts on social capital with statistical methods. By looking at changes in social capital through changes noticed in Australian surveys of attitudes and behavior, the study attempts to see if the legislation goal of contributing to a better integrated multicultural society can be identified in the Australian population.
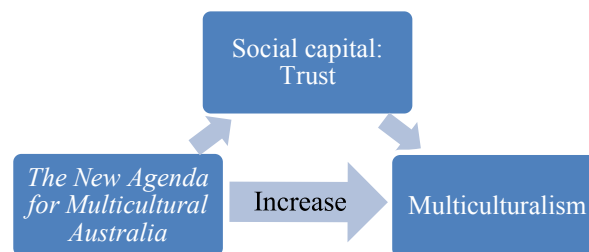
Table 4: The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia influences on social capital

Social capital is a concept used in different disciplines to emphasize unique aspects of different societies and a society's degree of "social cohesion". An accepted way to try and measure the degree of social capital in a society, or the degree of social cohesion, has been to look at components of the concept "social capital". One component that has gain wide acceptance[16] in the academic community is focus on the level of "trust" in a society and also the level of participation in social networks and confidence in social institutions.

Specifically, the objective of this study is to examine:

(1) if the degree of social capital has been affected by the legislative act *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia.*

A secondary objective is to show, if possible[17], if the Australian government policy has contributed to an enhanced participation in social networks for the Indigenous Australians.

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[16] Will be further elaborated in the theoretical chapter.
[17] The quantitative material available can only show a result for a limited number of Indigenous Australian, but I will use it to show a possible tendency. See discussion in analysis below.

Thus, this means that my study might show associations between the legislative act and social capital. However, it does not imply that the Agenda is the sole cause in changes in social capital. But, if there is an association between passing the legislation and degree of increased social capital it does indicate that there are reasons to think that legislation is important for increasing social capital.

3. Theoretical context

The theoretical foundation of this study is within the research field of social capital. In this section, three theories are presented which all originate from social capital and have been used to explore how individuals have been affected by societal change. This theoretical foundation will give a conceptual framework for the measurement of social capital in order to fulfill this study's objectives.

3.1 Social capital

The use of the concept "social capital" has during the last decades become increasingly popular and it has at the same time also, ever since it was introduced in 1916 by Lydia Hanifan, been a debated and contested concept (Coleman, 1988). Today, the concept is being used by modern researchers in a range of disciplines such as sociology, political science, and economics. Some researchers[18] even claim that social capital is probably the single most ubiquitous concept that exists in social science.

The concept originated from the sociological discipline and aimed to enable an understanding and provide explanations to why relationships are beneficial for individuals in order to attain advantages within a society (Portes, 1998; Svendsen & Svendsen, 2009). Since the first notion of social capital in 1916, the concept has undergone a series of transformations and reformulations. Political scientists have used the concept to explain how well democracy is functioning (Putnam, 1993) and how the structure of social relationships relates to human capital (Coleman, 1988). The concept has also been used to analyze economic growth which has provided the research field with important explanations when analyzing the functioning of markets and the relationship between economical inequalities and ethnical origin (Eriksson, 2003; Fukuyama, 2000). Further use of the concept social capital has been undertaken by the World Bank who frequently uses theoretical parts of social capital to influence the aggregated level of poverty (Eriksson, 2003).

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[18] Eriksson, 2003; Kay & Johnston, 2007; Kay & Bernard, 2007.

As indicated, the theoretical concept of social capital has been used to both describe, interpret and also to infiltrate a multiplicity of social phenomena. Despite the severity of the different use of social capital there is consent over disciplines that social capital is a result of investments made by individuals, groups and organizations in order to develop good social relations (SOU, 1999:137). The most essential element to develop good social relations is by developing trust: trust to other individuals, confidence in government and its institutions and also, trust in the political system (Eriksson, 2003; Kay & Johnston, 2007; Koniordos, 2008; Portes, 1998; Putnam, 1993; Rothstein, 2003). Trust is emphasized by several researchers but they all origin and undertake different aspects in their research before they come to that conclusion. Social capital can for example be considered to influence and affect the society in many different levels, including social cohesiveness. Social capital can be viewed as a product that people invest in and culture through socialization with other people and societal institutions. Social capital is accumulated in individuals' ability to acquire trust through interaction with others in networks such as families, organizations, workplaces, or any other social structures (Ibid.). However, it is not only those individuals that invest in social relations that benefit from it since higher degree of social capital in a society benefits all citizens. This is particularly emphasized by Ostrom and Ahn (2009) who treats social capital as a collective good. Ostrom and Ahn argue that if the degree of social capital increases the level of trust increases, which enables the positive externality cooperation between individuals. Ostrom and Ahn explain that theories of collective action concern settings in which there is a group of individuals with a common interest among them, and there is a potential conflict between the common interest and each individual's interest. *"Collective action problems arise whenever individuals face alternative courses of actions between short-term self-regarding choices and one that, if followed by a large enough number of individuals in a group, benefits all."* (p.20, 2009). A high degree of social capital in a society benefits all and helps solving the problems of collective action. Ostrom and Ahn emphasizes that without trust, the problem of collective action would always be an issue.

Generally, social capital is divided into two types: vertical and horizontal social capital. Horizontal capital refers to the bonds that exist between individuals or groups that are relatively homogeneous such as sports organizations, cultural/art organizations and educational organizations. Vertical social capital refers to groups that are characterized with a clear hierarchy where the relationships are not equal because of the structures of power or status (Knight, 2001). Vertical social capital is often exemplified with government election in

which individuals are more likely to vote if they have a mutual sense of shared responsibility and support even though they do not make any personal profit. The vertical social capital is therefore of great importance for the democracies ability to function effectively (Putnam, 1993; Knight, 2001). In addition to horizontal and vertical social capital, Eriksson (2003) refers to a distinction between individual social capital and collective social capital. Eriksson defines the individual social capital as the individual level of trust and the individuals' participation in networks that exist in society. The collective social capital is on the other hand referring to the total concentration of trust, networks and associations within a given society.

Social capital can also have negative consequences due to its exclusion of outsiders or restriction of individual freedom. Many of the current interpretations of social capital have not paid that much attention to factors such as conflicts and class differences. Petersen, Roepstor and Serritzlew (2009) argue that disadvantaged individuals might have fewer opportunities and less resource available to spend on traditional community participation. They also highlight that social capital may vary over time and are influenced by personal characteristics such as sex and age, since it affects the structure of social capital. Alberto Alesina and Eliana La Ferrara (2000) highlight in their research the determinants of trust and that when people gets older and receive more experiences from interactions with other individuals, the experience in itself increases trust and therefore also the degree of social capital.

3.2 Theories of social capital

3.2.1 Robert Putnam

One of the most confined perceptions of social capital is associated with the political scientist Robert Putnam (1993, 1996, and 2001). Putnam describes social capital, in his celebrated book *Making Democracy Work* (1993), as "*features of the social organizations such as trust, norms, and networks that can improve the efficiency of society by facilitating coordinated actions.*" (p.167, 1993). The description reveals that trust is a central component of social capital, something Putnam (2001) emphasizes later on in his research concerning the aggregated degree of social capital in the United States of America. Putnam argues that by measuring different aspects of trust one can measure changes in social capital over time. In order to prevent a deterioration of social capital Putnam stresses features that enable

individuals in a society to participate in activities to pursue shared objectives. To act commonly induces individuals to cooperate, and cooperation is a critical element in order to create social capital. Social capital can be viewed as an outcome of the networks that an individual is part of and this outcome is trust. Putnam (2001) argues that individuals' participation and engagement in networks are seen as "civic engagement". Networks are a set of organizational associations between individuals which Putnam defines as "horizontal associations". To conclude, Putnam's view of social capital is that it is a social concept in the sense that it is a product of our civic engagement, i.e. participation in social networks, in which common norms[19] and trust are the most central components. Civic engagement is the central source to produce social capital and arises from memberships of organizations and engagement in voluntary associations. Putnam's theory (2001) is that within these associations; networks, organizations, and voluntary associations there is a mutual exchange, reciprocity, of norms and values which both foster cooperation and solidarity which in return develop trust. Trust is an important feature that enables individuals to overcome the problems of collective action (Putnam, 2001).

Lou Wilson (2004) is in his study of social inclusion highlighting Putnam's theory and argues that a high degree of social capital have positive influences on social inclusion. Wilson argues that social capital in its essence can be metaphorically described as the ingredient that thickening the sauce and where the sauce is a metaphor for the social relationships within a society (Wilson, 2004). Alejandro Portes (1998), a famous professor in sociology, also stipulates that participation and trust are important features of social capital. Portes concluded that for an individual to acquire social capital, they need to "invest" in or to have some sort of relation towards other individuals. However, the acquirability is dependent on the trust from other individuals since it is other individuals who constitute social capital trough the trust that origins from the relation (Portes, 1998).

3.2.2 James Coleman

The sociologist James Coleman emphasizes that "…*social capital inheres in the structure of relations between actors and among actors.*" (p.98, 1988). Coleman implies that social capital in a society exist within the functional society: the actual social relations that exist among people, in the structure of relationships, and in peoples' relation with the institutions of the

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[19] The informal rules that structure social life (Knight,2001)

society. Coleman view social capital as the existence of structures within relationships, something that is further developed by Fukuyama (2000). Fukuyama argues that the social and political environment shape social structures which enables norms to develop. He also claims that it is features as truth-telling, reciprocity, and participation that produce social capital. Bo Rothstein (2003), a Swedish professor in political science, presents a similar view to Fukuyama's. Rothstein associates social capital with norms such as trust and reciprocity. He claims that social capital origins from the trust in governmental and political institutions since it are these institutions that guarantee social and democratic rights for citizens. Rothstein highlights that the degree of social capital might occur low in a society, a situation known as a social trap[20] and in comparison to Putnam, Rothstein suggest that countries with tendencies of corruption needs to attack that issue in order to increase the social capital within the country. The corrupt institutions have not guaranteed social and democratic rights for the individuals and it renders in decreased trust (Rothstein, 2003). Rothstein emphasizes the importance of trust and that it is mainly within social institutions that individuals' social capital is enhanced. Francisco Herreros (2009) also emphasize government involvement and government action to create an environment where trust has a possibility to grow. Herreros argues that a government can increase social capital by promoting trust through enforcement of the rule of the law but also through promoting higher education. Herreros emphasize that education is very often associated with trust and higher education are often associated and seen as an indicator on higher degree of social capital.

In sum, a cohesive society is one that is richly endowed with social capital. Social capital in itself is a multifaceted concept in which features as trust, norms and networks acts as resources for individual and collective action.

3.3 Dimensions of social cohesion and social capital

Wilson (2004) and Levitas (2005) are emphasizing the importance for a society and for individuals to have structural, social, and moral networks. These networks are sometimes referred to as bonds and it is this social cohesiveness[21] that decreases the risk for social exclusion. Giddens (1999) is in his most famous book "*The Third Way and its Critics*" critical to the conception of social exclusion but acknowledges the possibilities to a breakdown of

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[20] The logic of social trap is that everyone stands to gain if almost everyone chooses to cooperate but if one person doesn't trust that almost everyone else is going to cooperate, it becomes meaningless for that person to cooperate because the good that is to be brought about demands near-universal cooperation (Rothstein, 2003).
[21] Social cohesion is like the glue that holds individuals together in a society (Wilson, 2004).

bonds between individuals and refers to the term moral hazard[22]. Giddens, Wilson and Levitas all recognize the transformation moral hazard and the breakdown of bonds which wither "social solidarity". Solidarity is produced through participation in networks and social interaction where social interaction is viewed as emotional stimulation. Wilson (2004) implies that social interaction is a part of the daily life and that participation and social interaction can be used to analyze how inclusive a society is and consequently its well-being. Wilson conclude that if, measured over time, people participate to a higher degree in networks it provides evidence of a tendency that a society have become more inclusive.

Putnam (2001) and Grootaert and Bastalaer (2002) stipulates three dimensions of social capital that emphasizes the bonds between individuals. The first dimension, *bonding social capital*, refers to individuals of similar social backgrounds, in the form of age, ethnicity and education. These bonds of network can be found in groups of families, friends, including neighbors but also in political and religious groups. The second dimension, *bridging social capital*, refers to outreached networks and relationships with people of different social backgrounds (Putnam, 2001). Both bonding and bridging social capital refers to horizontal networks with other groups with either similar or diverse backgrounds. The third dimension, *linking social capital,* refers to the vertical network that cuts right through the groups with different social backgrounds. Grootaert and Bastalaer (2002) exemplifies with individuals in a poor economic situations that are forced to rely on their relationship to administrative personnel in a public welfare administration in order to receive welfare benefits.

3.3.1 Theoretical shortcomings

Since the 1990's there has been a growing abundance of research regarding social capital concentrated on different notions in the society. Social capital has been used in multiple disciplines with multiple focuses in attempts to capture the most important elements in social capital, the soul of social capital. The growing research has contributed to enrichment and enlargement of the research field (Esaiasson, Gilljam, Oscarsson, & Wägnerud, 2007). However, there are researchers[23] who argue that the broader the research field of social capital gets, the more risk of hollowness of the concept itself. Hooghe, Reeskens, Stolle, and Trappers (2009) imply that some conceptions of social capital have come to include too many

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[22] Moral hazard refers to the tendency of people, once receiving for example welfare provision, to not apply for jobs and they got less incentive to do so since they are compensated (Goodin, 1988; Giddens, 2006).
[23] Hooghe, Reeskens, Stolle & Trappers (2009).

aspects and if the development continues, social capital will explain everything or nothing. Rothstein (2003) are also critical to the enrichment of the concept social capital. He argues that an increase in social capital does not solve problems such as corruption within social institutions, but a decrease in corruption might increase social capital. In this thesis, the multidimensional concept social capital is a combination of other researchers' notions of social capital. I have chosen to concentrate on the specific attitudes that are at the center of social capital and to avoid eventual hollowness of the concept; I do not include all researchers' different notions (Hooghe et al, 2009).

3.4 Trusting?

While social capital is regarded as a complex phenomenon, I have presented research with a growing consensus that social capital exist of features, specific attitudes, as trust, participation in networks, and confidence in social institutions (Coleman, 1988; Eriksson, 2003; Putnam, 2001; Wilson, 2004). Social capital is fostered through social interaction in a bonding, bridging and linking way. In this study, social capital is measured using indicators such as trust in people, confidence in social institutions, and participation in social networks. The theoretical operationalization is presented in the figure below.
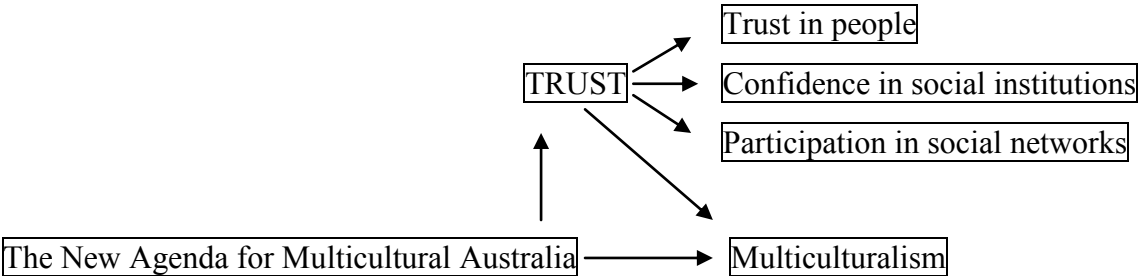
Figure 4: Operationalization

In order to investigate the affects that *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* may have had on the degree of social capital, "TRUST", I need to operationalize social capital (Eliasson, 2006). The operationalization origins from the presented theoretical chapter in which *Trust in people* was described and emphasized by several researchers[24] as the most essential element to develop social relations and also social capital. *Trust in people* will be one indicator of social capital. Ostrom and Ahn (2009) emphasize the importance of trust in people to overcome the problem, or dilemma, with collective action. It is not only trust that develops social capital but it is also important for a society that its inhabitants have *confidence*

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[24] By several I mean for example Putnam (1993), Coleman (1990), Eriksson (2003), Fukuyama (2000), Ostrom & Ahn (2009), and Knight (2001) who all emphasizes the importance of trust to develop social capital.

in social institutions in order to function properly and to develop social capital. Putnam (1993), Rothstein (2003), and also Knight (2001) all emphasize that *confidence in social institutions* has a correlation to individuals' mutual sense of shared responsibility and support. Shared responsibility is one of the main foundations in a society and a change in confidence implies changes in the degree of social capital. The last of the three equally important indicators measuring social capital is *Participation in social networks*. Putnam (1993), Levitas (2005), and Wilson (2004) all argue that through peoples' involvement in social networks both social relations and trust is fostered. Both Putnam and Wilson argue that it does not really matter what kind of organizations individuals are a member of since all forms of networks develops social capital. Social networks have also been argued (Ibid.) to be the measurement of the bonds that brings people together in society; a society's grade of social cohesion.

3.5 Concluding theoretical discussion

In this thesis, I am using three indicators to measure social capital. These indicators, *Trust in people*, *Confidence in social institutions,* and *Participation in social networks*, are argued to be the most essential elements in social capital. As implied by several researchers, it is a broad concept and to avoid a hollowness of the concept, I chose the most essential indicators of social capital (Hooghe et al, 2009). Even though one could be critical to the concept of social capital, choosing the most essential indicators of social capital makes them reliable[25] and the operationalization valid[26]. The indicators are first measured separately and then combined into a social capital index that measure if the degree of social capital has been affected by the legislative act *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia*. The indicator *Participation in social networks* will also entail if the Australians government policy has contributed to an enhanced participation for the Indigenous Australians.

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[25] Reliability refers to the consistency of the results (Trost, 2005:99).
[26] Validity is a concept that is referring to when discussing if this study have investigated what was intended to investigate, namely the degree of social capital (Trost, 2005:101).

4. Material and statistical methods

This chapter presents the procedure of how the study's empirical material was created and how the dependent variable that measures social capital in Australia was created; on what theoretical grounds and how they should be tested through statistical analysis. Finally, the interpretation and implication of the results from univariate, bivariate, and multivariate regression analyses are presented in chapter five.

4.1 Data

4.1.1 World Values Surveys

This study's empirical material derives from World Values Surveys (WVS)[27]. The WVS is a worldwide network that investigates socio-cultural and political change. The WVS has been proved to be an important source for social science and its surveys includes representative samples from over 80 countries with over 257 000 respondents. The national samples are conducted using face to face interviews and a standardized questionnaire that measures values concerning religion, gender roles, work motivations, democracy, governance, participation, and tolerance of other groups, trust and wellbeing (Inglehart, 2003). Between 1990 and 2011 there has been four surveys[28] conducted by the WVS and Australia has been included in two out of these four surveys. This means that these two surveys, 1994-1999 and 2005-2009, will serve as this study's empirical material.

In Australia, the interviews during these two surveys was conducted by a local field organization[29], and supervised by professors from National Australian University. The surveys are using a random selection of samples for every country that is included and to ensure high reliability and validity the local field organization have fixed rules and procedures for how to conduct the surveys. The final procedure before starting the collection of data is to receive a validation from the WVS Executive Committee. The committee's assignment is to ensure that all necessary steps are taken and to ensure that the WVS presents reliable and valid data. The WVS does not publish or include countries that do not fulfill their demands or provide WVS with full documentation (Inglehart, 2003). To analyze these surveys from 1994-1999 and 2005-2009 I will use the statistical program, SPSS[30].

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[27] http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/ 2011-03-07
[28] Also referred to as waves (Inglehart, 2003).
[29] Roy Morgan Research Center (1994/1999) and Australian Social Science Data Archive (2005/2009).
[30] Also referred to as PASW (Vejde, 2009).

4.2 Creation of index – social capital

The objective of this study was to investigate if the degree of social capital has been affected by the legislative act *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia*. In order to create reliable and valid data that measures social capital I chose to follow a guide, created by Göran Djurfeldt (Djurfeldt, Larsson, & Stjärnhagen, 2010) in his famous methodological literature about statistical data analysis (Esaiasson et al., 2007). The measurement of social capital includes three indicators, *trust in people*, *confidence in social institutions*, and *participation in social networks*. The indicators will first be investigated separately and then combined into one social capital index, consisting of these different variables but still somewhat homogenous variables. As previously presented, the surveys' from the WVS includes several hundred different questions and variables, concerning religion, gender roles, families, democracy, and so on. A question is considered to be a variable, when computed into the statistical program SPSS and each individual's answer are treated as a value (Ibid.). Therefore, the creation of an index basically means that SPSS compute all values from several variables[31] into a composite sum for each individual. An index could therefore be seen as a simplification and a mean of each individual's value regarding the phenomena "social capital". By combining the indicators, the index becomes a measure with multiple-indicators (Djurfeldt et al., 2010, p.449). With this simplification comes limitations and one of them was that by only using the social capital index, I would not have been able to separately investigate and explore the development of each social capital indicators. However, to avoid this limitation, I investigated and analyzed each indicator separately, before combining them into the social capital index (Ibid.). The indicators are presented below and also presented is the questions asked in the World Values Surveys'1994-1999 and 2005-2009, including the possible replies (bold type). The first indicator, *Trust in people*, consisted of the following question:

1. "Generally speaking, would you say that **most people can be trusted**, or that you **can't be too careful in dealing with people**?"[32]

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[31] In this study, the three indicators *trust in people*, *confidence in social institutions*, and *participation in social networks*.
[32] Variable V27 in 1994-1999 and V23 in WVS 2005-2009.

The second social capital indicator, *Confidence in social institutions*, consists of five questions[33]: "Could you tell me whether you have: **a great deal of confidence**, **quite a lot of confidence, not very much confidence,** or **none at all** in:"

1. Legal system?
2. Police?
3. Government?
4. Political parties?
5. Parliament?

The third social capital indicator, *Participation in social networks* consists of nine questions[34]: "Are you an **Active member**, an **Inactive member** or **Not a member** of:"

1. Church or religious organization?
2. Sport or recreation organization?
3. Art, music, or educational organization?
4. Labour union?
5. Political party?
6. Environmental organization?
7. Professional association?
8. Charitable organization?
9. Any other voluntary organization?

The five questions in the second indicator, *Confidence in social institutions,* were combined into one index, and I treated the third indicator, *Participation in social networks*, in a similar way. Since the fifteen variables had different scales, from one to two (Most people can be trusted), one to three (Participation) and one to four (Confidence), it was necessary to recode all variables to enable the creation of the index (Djurfeldt et al., 2010; Eliasson, 2006; Field, 2005). By recoding the scales, I gave each question the same weight and enabled them to equally influence the aggregated degree of social capital. In the social capital index, the indicators was scaled from zero to hundred. This means that the first indicator, *Trust in people* who had two possible replies, **most people can be trusted** or **can't be too careful in dealing with people** was scored with either 100 if they trusted people or zero if they did not trust

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[33] Variable V137, V141-144 (WVS 1994-1999) and variables V135-140 (WVS 2005-2009)
[34] In the WVS the variables are named V28-V36 (1994-1999) and V24-V31 and V33 (2005-2009).

people. The second social capital indicator, *Confidence in social institutions*, had four possible replies and was also scored from zero to 100 where **none at all** was scored with zero, **not very much confidence** (33), **quite a lot of confidence** (66) and **a great deal of confidence** which was scored with 100. The third indicator, *Participation in social networks*, had three possible replies and was scored with zero if **not a member**, 50 if categorized as **inactive member** and **active membership** was scored 100. Inglehart (2003) imply that inactive members are members of an organization who only contributes with donations, and not with actual attendance. Inactive members are therefore treated as more participants than people categorized as "not a member" but less participating then "active members".

As implied earlier, a higher score means a higher degree of social capital and lower scores means a lower degree of social capital. First I measured each indicator separately and then combined all three indicators into one social capital index. All indicators could generate a score from, minimum zero to maximum 100. To measure the degree of social capital, I created four categories and labeled them as follow for my interpretation of the analysis

- ❖ 0 to 25: Very low degree of social capital
- ❖ 26 to 50: Low degree of social capital
- ❖ 51 to 75: High degree of social capital
- ❖ 76 to 100: Very high degree of social capital

In the World Values Survey 1994-1999 and 2005-2009 all variables except the variable membership of organizations in WVS 2005-2009, the second social capital indicator, were re-coded so that all variables became ranged in the same direction, that is higher values represent higher degree of social capital. The social capital indicators are also called dependent variables[35] and when these are combined into one social capital index, the index describes "the degree of social capital". First, the indicators and the index were used in univariate analysis in order to describe the characteristics of the sample in relation to the indicators. Secondly, the social capital index was used in the bivariate and in the multivariate analysis to investigate correlations between the index and the independent variables[36] (Eliasson, 2006).

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[35] A dependent variable is influenced by other variables (Independent variables) (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).
[36] It is stipulated that if independent variables changes, the dependent variables (social capital indicators and social capital index) changes. Dependent variables (y) is a function of x (independent variables) y=f (x) (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

4.3 Independent variables

The independent variables that were included in this study are socio-cultural factors that have been highlighted by the Australian government in their strategic directions for implementing *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia.* All the independent variables have also been highlighted in the theoretical section in this thesis in which all are said to have impact on individuals' degree of social capital. This impact or more especially the correlations between the independent variable and the dependent variable, the social capital index, are investigated and presented in the bivariate analysis[37]. In total, the study consists of seven independent variables from the WVS. Even though I have divided the presentation of the variables into World Values Survey 1994-1999 and World Values Survey 2005-2009 and the variables have the same standardization they do not however have the same number in the two surveys. Independent variables are categorized depending on their statistical characteristics, most often separated by different scales (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The variables from the World Values Surveys, 1994-1999 and 2005-2009, are therefore categorized into three groups; nominal, ordinal, and numerical variables.

The first variables, nominal, are characterized by its categorization of values, and are often referred to as categorical variables. The data that origins from nominal variables comprises categories into which individuals can be placed such as female – male but cannot be rank ordered (Ibid.). In this study, *Sex* and *Employment status*[38], constitute the nominal variables. The Australian government emphasized, when implementing *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia*, strategic directions that promoted participation for women in the social, economic, cultural, and political life. The strategic direction, together with Petersen, Roepstor, and Serritzlew (2009) argument that the degree of social capital may vary over time and that the degree of social capital can vary between females and males, implies that there is a relationship between *Sex* and the social capital index. It also implies that women should have developed a higher degree of social capital compared to previous year, before implementing the Agenda. Participation in economic life was also a major goal in the labor market strategies launched with the Agenda. The utilization of human resources and employment opportunities was highlighted in the Agenda and *employment status* is a nominal variable, just as *Sex*, in that sense that individuals' can place themselves in different

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[37] Bivariate analysis examines the relationship between two variables and is further introduced in section 5.1 (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).
[38] The variables are in the WVS (1994-1999/2005-2009) labeled V214/V235 (Sex) and V220/V241 (Employment status).

categories such as employed, retired, and unemployed[39]. Such correlation between social capital and *employment status* has been highlighted by both Putnam (2001) and Coleman (1988) who emphasizes that participation in networks such as employment and workplaces accumulate social capital. This implies that individuals who are employed should have a higher degree of social capital compared to individuals that are unemployed.

The second category of independent variables is the ordinal ones. The ordinal variables are measured on a scale that can, compared to the nominal, be rank ordered. However, the distances between the categories are not equivalent and one can reverse the scale but the intermutual scale cannot be changed (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The two first ordinal variables that was included was *Political view*[40], which means that individuals are to place themselves on the political scale Left – Right, and also *Political interest*[41]. The political element is an important feature when discussing social capital which is emphasized particularly by Putnam (1993). However, it is not implied that, depending on the individuals self placement on the political scale, the degree of social capital is higher or lower. The Australian government also highlights the importance of participation and engagement in the political life and Knight (2001), argues that *political view* and *political interest* positively influences an individual's degree of social capital. The third ordinal variable is *Education*[42], which was a six-category variable (one to six) and where a higher score represented higher degree of education. Herreros (2009) emphasize that education is associated with trust and that higher education implies a higher degree of trust. The Australian government also emphasized education and changed the Australian National Education plan for elementary school and made higher education equally accessible for everyone. The fourth ordinal variable, *size of town*[43], refers to where an individual lives. Size of town was an eight-category variable (one to eight) where one is a town with fewer than 2,000 people and eight with 500,000 residents or more. Putnam (1993) emphasizes that ethnically and homogenous populations with similar values have a positive effect on trust and solidarity. A smaller community or town is often associated with a higher social cohesiveness. The Australian government also recognizes different regional areas as more important than other which implies that there is a correlation between regional areas, social capital and multiculturalism.

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[39] The variable "Employment status" originally had 8 different categories ranging from "Full time employee" to "Unemployed". As Djurfeldt et al. (2010:147) suggest I transformed it into 5 categories without losing any valuable information: "Employed: Full-time", "Employed: Part-time", "Retired", "Student", and "Unemployed".
[40] The variable code is V123 in (1994-1999) and V114 in WVS (2005-2009).
[41] V117 in 1994-1999 and V95 in 2005-2009.
[42] V217 in (1994-1999) and V238 in (2005-2009).
[43] V232 in (1994-1999) and V255 in (2005-2009).

This mean, that size of town is negatively related to social capital and the bigger town, the lower score on the social capital index.

The third category of variables is the numerical ones. *Age* was the only numerical variable and Petersen, Roepstor and Serritzlew (2009) argue that if the degree of social capital can fluctuate over time, age must also have an effect on the degree of social capital. The Agenda acknowledge age and focused on younger people which imply that younger people are more receivable for an increase in the degree of social capital. Alesina and La Ferrara (2000) are in their research presenting correlation between the degree of social capital and age. They came to the conclusion that the degree of social capital are increasing when aging; people get more experiences from interaction with others which leads to an increase in the degree of social capital.

4.4 Methodological reflections

Before choosing the methodological path of this study I considered the overall objectives with it. Since the objectives was to investigate if the degree of social capital in Australia has been affected by the implementation of the legislative act *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* and also to see, if possible, if the Agenda had contributed to an enhanced participation for the Indigenous Australians the use of a quantitative approach seemed more appropriate. Esaiasson et al. (2007:223) argues that quantitative methods should be used when having access to equal and therefore comparable data, and when it includes enough units so that they can be analyzed using figures.

This study is important for several reasons. First, measurement of social capital in Australia is required since there are not many studies regarding social capital on a national level. This means that this study could be used as a benchmark from one point in time to another point in time, which enables researchers to monitor change over time (Eliasson, 2006). Secondly, social capital in a national level can always be re-tested and re-done in local communities which could enhance the result and conclusions drawn from this study or contradict this study's findings which benefit the cumulative knowledge within the research field of social capital. Further reason for conducting this study was that it will be an important contribution to the aggregated knowledge of social capital within a national context (Esaiasson et al., 2007; Holme & Solvang, 1991).

There are many ways to obtain reliable and valid data and as a researcher, one could choose to use either qualitative[44] or quantitative methods to create empirical material. In the best world, a study's methodological choice should work as a helping-tool in order to generate, in the best possible way, an answer to the study's research questions and fulfill its objectives. The main "problem" when choosing is however that both these methodological directions, qualitative and quantitative, aim to develop new knowledge of the world we are living in but one is often more appropriate than the other (Ibid.). In this study, its objectives and intentions was the foundation to a quantitative approach. Of course, a qualitative approach using in-depth interviews, observations, or discourse analysis would have created empirical material regarding Australia and about individuals' degree of social capital today. However, it would not have been possible to use these methods to receive information about previous years. The positive aspects are however that the Roy Morgan Research Center and Australian Social Science Data Archive have already conducted interviews and compiled this into data files. The respondents included in the WVS are residents in Australia, between the ages of 18 and 85. With a quantitative approach, the possibilities to generalize the findings are larger in comparison to a qualitative approach with its non-existing possibilities (Gomm, Hammersly & Foster, 2007). In this study, where the objectives and intentions was to generalize the findings the most appropriate method was a quantitative one (Esaiasson et al., 2007). Even though it is the most appropriate method to use, it has its limitations. For example, in comparison to a qualitative approach it does not generate similar depth in the empirical material. Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians opinions have been converted into statistics. This statistical data loses the in-depth often characterized using qualitative methods (Esaiasson et al., 2007). However, the quantitative approach generates a more trustworthy result from a validity-perspective, as well as from a reliability-perspective. The approach generated a broad perspective of the degree of social capital in Australia and its development from 1994-1999 to 2005-2009 (De Vaus, 2001).

It can also be mentioned that use of the survey material is a cross-sectional representation of the attitudes and behaviors of the Australian population. This is not a longitudinal study which would involve following a panel of the same individuals over a period of time (Ibid.). Thus the material used in this study gives a view of the Australian population at two different periods. It would have been more beneficial to use longitudinal

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[44] Holme & Solvang (1991:99) describes qualitative methods as a generic term for five different techniques: direct observation, participant observation, informant- and respondent interviews and analyze of sources.

panel data and show the difference in particular representative persons change over time but this material is not available.

When discussing notions such as reliability and validity, it is important to mention the creation of the social capital index. As previously argued, the three indicators included in the social capital index were chosen on the basis of other, successful, researchers' operationalization. If these researchers' findings are accepted in the academic community as measuring social capital, my findings must be valid in that sense that it measures social capital. To ensure this studies reliability, I have followed a guide by Göran Djurfeldt to prevent statistical errors when analyzing the statistical material (Esaiasson et al., 2007). To ensure the social capital index reliability, I have conducted a reliability test[45] (Field, 2005). The social capital index shows generally accepted values[46] when conducting the reliability test which strengthen the argument of a reliable index.

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[45] When measuring values, Field (2005:668)) argues that Chronbach's Alpha can have values below the acceptable value of 0.7 and still be reliable, but the Alpha should not be below 0.6.

[46] The Chronbach's alpha range from 0.678 to 0.694, See Appendix 8.1.7

5. Statistical result Analysis

5.1 Univarate Analysis

In this chapter I present this thesis univariate analysis. The main purpose of the univariate analysis is to statistically describe each of the social capital indicators and also the social capital index (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The analysis technique comprises the use of frequency tables and histograms[47] where the latter displays the distribution of a single continuous variable (Field, 2005). As presented earlier, all indicators can generate a score[48] from zero to 100 where a higher score indicates a higher degree of social capital and a lower score indicates a lower degree. My initial ambition in the analysis was to divide the Australian population into two groups, Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. However, within the World Values Survey's from 1994-1999 and 2005-2009, there were fewer Indigenous respondents compared to non-Indigenous, making them un-comparable. Even though the result regarding Indigenous Australians cannot be representative for the entire population, I will use it as a qualitative data in order to conclude and emphasize tendencies that could be seen in the result (Eliasson, 2006; Esaiasson et al., 2007).

5.1.1 Australian - The First Survey[49]

5.1.1.1 Trust in people

The indicator *Trust in people* indicates that the majority of the Australians were aggregated in the category with lower scores, which means a lower level of trust. The Australians displayed in the first survey a low level of trust, with only 41.4 % having trust in other people.
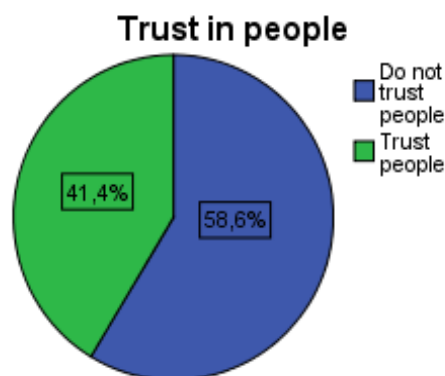
Appendix 8.2.1.2 Trust in people

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[47] Depending on the different sorts of variables pie charts and bar charts are also frequently used to display the frequencies (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).
[48] 0 to 25: Very low degree of social capital; 26-50: Low degree of social capital; 51-75: High degree of social capital; 76-100: Very high degree of social capital.
[49] I will use the cross-sectional survey performed between 1994-1999 as the first survey and the second survey, conducted in 2005-2009.

5.1.1.2 Confidence in social institutions

As previously presented, *Confidence in social institution* consists of five questions regarding the level of confidence in legal system, police, government, political parties, and parliament. These five questions have been combined into a confidence index which in the table is collapsed

Confidence in social institution	Valid Percent
None at all	12,1
Not very much	58,5
Quite a lot	27,8
Great deal	1,6
Total	100,0

Appendix 8.2.1.2 Confidence in social institutions

into categories, showing that the majority (58.5 %) of the Australians was located in the category *Not very much confidence in social institutions*. The frequency test (univariate) also gave information about the data regarding its central tendency and dispersion (Körner & Wahlgren, 2005.). Looking at the mean value (43.83) and the median value (41.60) of the index they indicate with its centered values that there are no extreme values impacting the index (Ibid.). The mean value and the median value both imply that the aggregated level of confidence in social institutions throughout the entire population in the first survey was low.

5.1.1.3 Participation in social networks

The univariate analysis showed that the Australians had a low level of participation in social networks. The histogram entail that there was a low score on the participation index and the index, collapsed into three categories[50], showed that the majority (67.1 %) of the Australians was categorized as *Not a member* of social networks and 30.5 % are classified as *Inactive members* of social networks.
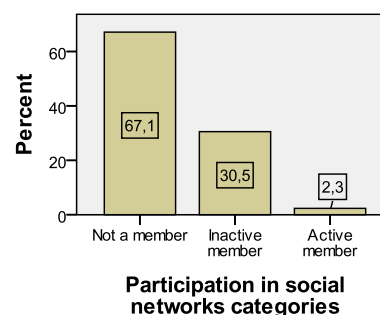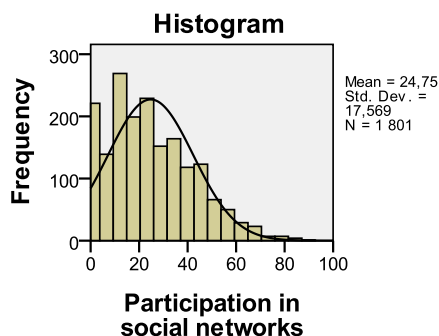
Appendix 8.2.1.3 Participation in social networks

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[50] 1. Active member, 2. Inactive member and 3. Not a member.

5.1.1.4 Social capital Index

To measure the degree of social capital I combined the three social capital indicators, *Trust in people*, *Confidence in social institutions*, and *Participation in social networks* into one index, the social capital index. The univariate analysis of the index entailed, as displayed in the histogram, that the degree of social capital for Australians was low during 1994-1999. As also shown in the histogram, there are two peaks, one peak occurring in the part with lowest score on the social capital index and one between the scores 50 and 75 on the index scale, *High degree of social capital.* The majority was located in the two categories with lowest score, with a total of 64.2 % of all the Australians but the second biggest category was *High degree of social capital*, with 35.2 %. The median (34.59) and the mean (37.33) do however entail that there are no extreme values which imply that the index has a standard distribution (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The range between the lowest percentiles (25), which is located within the category *Very low degree of social capital* on a score of

*Appendix 8.2.1.4
Degree of social capital*

19.36 and the highest percentiles (75), which is located in the category *Low degree of social capital* on a score of 56.00, is small considering that the index scale ranges from zero to 100.

5.1.2 Australian - The Second Survey

5.1.2.1 Trust in people

In the second survey (2005-2009), 48.8 % of the Australians said that they trusted other people. This is an increase with 7.4 % from the first survey, when the category *Trust people* constituted 41.4 %. An increase in trust implies an increase in the aggregated degree of social capital. However, there were still a majority of the Australian people in the second survey that did not trust people.
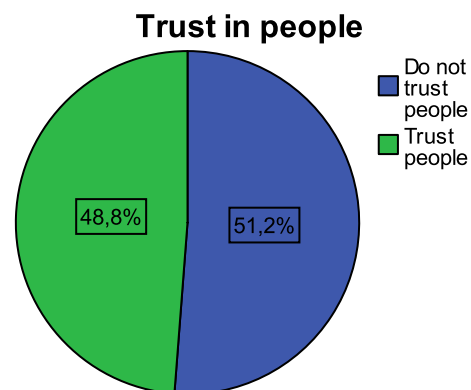
Appendix 8.2.2.1 Trust in people

5.1.2.2 Confidence in social institutions

The second social capital indicator also indicated a change towards higher scores on the social capital index. Even though the majority of the Australian people still had low, or not very much, confidence in social institutions, the category *Not very much confidence in social institutions* has decreased with 11.5 % since the first survey.[51] The category *None at all confidence* has decreased from 12.1 % to 8.7 % whiles the other two categories, *Quite a lot* and *A great deal* has increased with 14.9 %. The mean has increased from 43.83 to 48.28 and the median from 41.60 to 47.20 which implies that the confidence in social institutions for Australian people has increased between the first and the second survey.

Degree of confidence	Percent
None at all	8,7
Not very much	47,0
Quite a lot	39,1
A great deal	5,2
Total	100,0

Appendix 8.2.2.2 Confidence in social institutions

5.1.2.3 Participation in social networks

The two previous social capital indicators have been providing incentives to believe that the degree of social capital increased between the two surveys. However, the third social capital indicator indicates an opposite development. In the first survey, the Australian people displayed a low participation rate in social networks when the majority (67.1 %) was categorized as *Not a member*. In the second survey, the participation rate had decreased and the category *Not a member* constituted 85.7 %. The mean decreased from 24.75 to 16.66 which imply a decrease in the participation in social networks.

5.1.2.4 Social capital index

As presented, two out of the three social capital indicators have implied an increase in the Australian people's degree of social capital. The table shows that the majority of the Australians were located in the two categories with lower scores on the social capital index. However, in comparison to the first survey, the categories *Very low degree of social capital* and *Low*

Degree of social capital	Percent
Very low degree of social capital	38,7
Low degree of social capital	21,7
High degree of social capital	39,3
Very high degree of social capital	0,3
Total	100,0

Appendix 8.2.2.4 Social capital index

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[51] Decreased from 58.5 % in 1994-1999 to 47 % in 2005-2009.

degree of social capital has decreased with 3.8 %. An increase in the degree of social capital was also shown when looking at the mean value for social capital, 37.09 in the first survey and 37.33 in the second survey. However, when looking at the maximum value, 78, for an Australian on the social capital index in the second survey and compare it to the first survey, where the value was 84 it has decreased. Another decrease in social capital can also be seen when looking at the category; "Very high degree of social capital" which decreased with 0.3 %.

5.1.3 Conclusions Univariate Analysis

The result from the univariate analysis has showed that Australians degree of social capital has changed between 1994-1999 and 2005-2009. As implied earlier, Australians participation in social networks has decreased between the first survey and the second survey with 37 percentage points. However, when looking at the Indigenous Australians[52] and considering the fact that the number of participants was low one could conclude that it seem to be a tendency that their participation in social networks has increased between the first and the second survey.

Even though the Australians participation in social networks has decreased one could see that the mean value for the confidence in social institutions has increased from 43.83 to 48.28 but are still categorized as *Not very much confidence in social institutions*. A final conclusion that can be seen in the univariate analysis is that the level of trust seems to have increased among the Australian people. The level of trust increased with 7.4 percentage points between the first survey and the second survey but similar to the indicator *Confidence in social institutions,* the majority of the Australians did not trust people in the second survey.

The purpose of the univariate analyses was to statistically describe each of the social capital indicators and the social capital index itself. The analysis focuses on the social capital index and enables the analysis for this study's independent variables, in the bivariate analysis.

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[52] See appendix 8.1.7 and 8.1.8

5.2 Bivariate Analysis

The bivariate analysis explores and identifies factors that have impacts on social capital. The factors, this study's independent variables[53], have all been emphasized by the Australian government to affect the degree of social capital. The bivariate analysis also reveals the strength of such relationship and investigates if the previously presented hypotheses regarding factors as for example *Education*, *Employment status*, and *Age* have had affects on Australians degree of social capital.

There are three ways that the independent variables and the social capital index can be related to each other; *positively*, *negatively*, or having a so called *null relationship*. Field (2005) discuss the possibilities that two variables, the social capital index and one independent variable, are *positively* related which means that a higher value in one of the variables is associated with a higher value in the other variable. It could for example be that the higher level of education a person has the higher degree of social capital. However, variables can also be *negatively* related, which mean that higher values in one variable are associated with lower values in the other variable. An example of such correlation is that the older people are the lower degree of social capital. The correlation between the social capital index and the independent variable could also show that there is no correlation, a so called *null relationship*. This mean that the degree of social capital is not correlated with for example the level of education a person got (Field, 2005). To enhance the analysis, I have also used the categorical social capital index, divided into four categories (Also used in the univariate analysis) (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). If not stated otherwise, the social capital index is treated as a numerical variable which also mean that it put limitations on the bivariate analysis. Since there are several measurements to choose from in correlation analysis and since it is the scales (numerical, ordinal, nominal) of the two variables that determine which measurement to use, the measurements gets limited. However, if the social capital index had been categorized as ordinal or nominal, it would also have constrained the bivariate analysis which means that the categorization only affects what measurements to use and not the final result of the analysis (Ibid.).

First, I compared means between our ordinal and nominal independent variables with the index using ANOVA[54]. Here, *Eta* presents the strength of the correlation between the two variables and is ranged from 0 to 1 where 0 indicates a weak correlation and 1 a strong

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[53] Political views, education, sex, employment status, age and size of town.
[54] Acronym for *Analysis of variance* (Field, 2005:724).

correlation (Djurfeldt et al., 2010; Field, 2005). *Eta Squared* is another measurement, which measures how much of the variance in the degree of social capital that can be explained by the independent variables. *Sex*, this study's only nominal variable with two categories, female/male, was analyzed using independent t-test[55] and Levene's Test for Equality of Variances[56]. Regarding *Age*, which was the only independent numerical variable, I tested the correlation using Pearson's *r* and created scattergrams (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). I present the ordinal variables from both surveys first, then the nominal, and finally the numerical variable.

5.2.1 Education, Political view, Political interest and Size of town

5.2.1.1 Australian – The First Survey

The four independent ordinal variables; *political view, political interest, education level* and *size of town* all showed correlations with the social capital index. Political view, political interest, and education had significant correlation with the social capital index (They all had P-value = 0.000, Size of town = 0.295). P-value measures the probability of obtaining a correlation of certain strength between the independent variables and the social capital index within the investigated population and entails if they are completely uncorrelated. So, the P-value for education indicates that one could be 99.9 % certain that the variables are correlated in the population which means that the correlation is significant (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,264	,070

Appendix 8.3.1.1 Education

As implied by the table, the variable Education has an Eta Squared on 0.070, political interest on 0.080, political view on 0.029, and size of town 0.005. As stated earlier, the Eta Square implies how much of the variance in Australians degree of social capital that can be explained by the independent variable. In 1994-1999's survey, Australians educational level explained 7 % of the variance in the degree of social capital and political interest 8 %.

The Eta square values indicates that political view, political interest and education has an explanation value for the variance in the social capital index while size of town has

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[55] Establish whether two means collected from independent samples differ significantly (Field, 2005:734).
[56] Tests the hypothesis that the variances in different groups are zero, implies that a significant result is significantly different (Field, 2005:736)

with its 0.5 % a very strict limitation in its explanation value. As presented, the variable education and political interest shows a stronger relationship to the social capital index (Eta = 0.264 and 0.283) compared to both the variables political view (Eta =0.170) and size of town (Eta = 0.034).

5.2.1.4 Australian- The Second Survey

In comparison to 1994-1999's survey, all four variables displayed significant correlations (P-value = 0.000) with the social capital index; education (Eta squared = 0.099), political view (0.045), political interest (0.019), and size of town (0.036).

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,315	,099
The degree of social capital * Political view	,212	,045
The degree of social capital * Political interest	,136	,019
The degree of social capital * Size of town	.189	,036

Table 6: Measures of Association

As presented, *Education* indicated a higher strength of correlations compared to the other variables and 9.9 % of the variance in the social capital index could be explained by the Australians level of education. One could also see that *political view* has gained a higher explanatory value (4.5 %) for the variance in the degree of social capital, something that also could be seen in the variable *size of town* (3.6 %). *Political interest* has however a lower explanatory value (1.9 %) in 2005-2009 compared to the first survey in 1994-1999 (8 %).

ANOVA Table

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Political view	Between Groups (Combined)	12297,496	9	1366,388	3,682	,000
	Within Groups	261644,898	705	371,128		
	Total	273942,395	714			

Appendix 8.3.4.1 Political view

34

5.2.2 Employment status and Sex

5.2.2.1 Australian- The First Survey

The nominal independent variables, *Employment status* and *Sex*, is characterized by its categories which cannot be ranked ordered[57] (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). *Employment status* displayed a significant value (P-value = 0.000) and an eta squared (0.024) which indicated that *employment status* could explain 2.4 % of the variance in the degree of social capital.

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Employment status	Between Groups	(Combined)	15819,520	4	3954,880	10,156	,000
	Within Groups		655802,104	1684	389,431		
	Total		671621,625	1688			

Appendix 8.3.2.4 Employment status

The variable *Sex* displayed in comparison to *employment status* an insignificant P-value. The P-value for *Sex* derived from the independent t-test which offered two possibilities, *Equal variance assumed*, or, *Equal variances not assumed*. Levene's test indicates with its

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
The degree of social capital	Equal variances assumed	1,074	,300	1,509	1697	,132	1,459	,967	-,437	3,355
	Equal variances not assumed			1,508	1689,722	,132	1,459	,967	-,438	3,356

Appendix 8.3.2.4 Employment status

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[57]Also referred to as categorical variable (Wahlgren, 2009).

significance which one to use. If the significance for Levene's test is 0.05 or below, then the *Equal Variances Not Assumed* test (the one on the bottom) is used (Field, 2005). In this case, the significance was 0.300, so I used the *Equal Variances assumed*. The P-value was derived from the t-value (1.509) and the degree of freedom (df = 1697-1). If the P-value had been significant, the t-value should have been at least 1.645 (See table in Djurfeldt et al., 2010:469). In this case, the insignificant t-value indicated that there was no or very little variance in the degree of social capital between Australian females and males in the first survey (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

5.2.2.4 Australian – The Second Survey

The bivariate analysis showed that *employment status* had a significant value in 2005-2009's survey (P-value = 0.001). The result indicated that e*mployment status* explanatory value for the variance in the degree of social capital increased to 9.7 % (Eta squared = 0.097) and that the Eta-value (0.312) implied a stronger relationship compared to the first survey.

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,312	,097

Appendix 8.3.2.4 Employment status

The independent t-test[58] of the variable *Sex* showed the significance 0.421, which resulted in the use of *Equal Variances*[59] (Ibid.). The P-value was derived using the t-value (0.057) and degrees of freedom (df = 750-1). As explained earlier, if the t-value had been above 1.645 the P-value would have been significant (Djurfeldt et al., 2010:469). One can therefore conclude that in the second survey, there were no or very little variances in the degree of social capital between Australian females and males (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

5.2.3 Age

Age was the only independent numerical variable included in the bivariate analysis. The strength of the correlation between *Age* and the social capital index was measured using Pearson's *r* (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The coefficient *r* measures both the magnitude and the linear correlation between the variables. Pearson's *r* also shows correlations on a scale from -1 to +1 where -1 stands for absolute negative correlation and +1 for absolute positive

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[58] See Appendix 8.3.2.6 *Sex*
[59] See discussion above regarding *Equal variance assumed* and *Equal variance not assumed.*

correlation, and 0 for no relationship. Positive correlations mean that when individuals aging, the score on the social capital index increases. Since a higher value on the social capital index implies a higher degree of social capital, a positive correlation means that the older the Australians get the higher degree of social capital. Negative correlations mean that when Australians aging, their degree of social capital decreases.

5.2.3.1 Australian - The First Survey

The analysis showed that there was a correlation between the independent variable *Age* and the dependent variable, the social capital index. Pearson's *r* was .018 which indicates a positive correlation and implies that the older the Australians get the higher degree of social capital. However, the size of Pearson's *r* was located between $0.0 - 0.3$, indicating that *Age* had a small effect on the degree of social capital (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The size of the effect i.e. the variation in social capital that can be explained by Australians age, are shown in R Square (0.000). It implies that *Age* had no explanatory value for the variation in the degree of social capital. As indicated by the scattergram, the dots are diverged from the line implying that there were other independent variables affecting the degree of social capital (Djurfeldt & Barmark, 2009). The scattergram shows a graphical description of the correlation between the social capital index and age. Each dot in the scattergram represents an individual and the vertical axis (Y-axis) represents the social capital index and the horizontal axis (X-axis) represents the variable, *Age*. Since *Age* is a numerical

Appendix 8.3.1.6
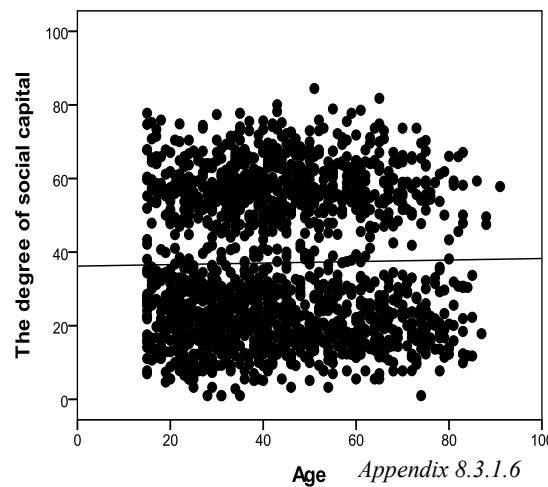
variable, Djurfeldt et al. (2010:157) suggest conducting a bivariate analysis. The regression analysis[60], provided statistic that entailed that newly born Australians in 1994-1999 had an expected score of 36 on the social capital index (B=36.196).

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[60]See appendix 8.3.1.6

5.2.3.2 Australian- The Second Survey

Similar result as 1994-1999 was displayed in the bivariate analysis regarding Australians in the second survey. Pearson's *r* (.005) indicate a small positive correlation, however R Square (0.000) imply that *Age* had no explanatory value for the variations in the degree of social capital. Also, neither in the bivariate analysis, 1994-1999 or in 2005-2009, *Age* displayed significant values.

Correlations

		The degree of social capital	Age
The degree of social capital	Pearson Correlation	1	-,005
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,896
	N	755	752
Age	Pearson Correlation	-,005	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,896	
	N	752	1364

Appendix 8.3.2.6

5.2.4 Conclusions bivariate analysis

The purpose of the bivariate analysis was to explore and identify factors that have impacts on social capital. As presented, the result from the analysis has shown independent variables with strong and less strong correlations with the social capital index. Petersen, Roepstor, and Serritzlew (2009) argued in their research for a correlation between social capital and *age*. This study shows that *age* do not have an impact on the Australians degree of social capital. The result consequently also question Alesina and La Ferrara's (2000) argument that older people have a higher degree of social capital. The result also leads us to conclude that the strategic direction argued by the Australian government to focus on younger people when implementing *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* had no impact on the degree of social capital.

Another variable that also displayed insignificant correlation with the social capital index was *Sex*. The independent t-test[61] showed, both in the first and the second survey that there was no correlation between the degree of social capital and the variable *Sex*. So, this leads us to conclude that when the Australian government implemented strategic directions with the agenda, promoting participation for women in the social, economic, cultural, and

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[61] See 5.2.3 Age.

political life it did not affect women's degree of social capital more then it affected men's. Even though the result questions the theoretical assumption suggested by Petersen, Roepstor, and Serritzlew (2009) that the degree of social capital are dependent on individual's sex, it do however strengthen Portes (1998) argument about trust being independent on individualistically characteristics such as age and sex. Portes stresses the dependency between an individuals' degree of social capital and relationships towards other individuals and their trust in the individual himself, regardless his *Age* and *Sex*. This leads us to conclude that both *Age* and *Sex* are individual characteristic that do not influence individual's degree of social capital.

Regarding the other five independent variables, *Political view*, *Political interest*, *Education*, *Size of town*, and *Employment status* they all displayed significant correlation with the social capital index. Meaning, the five variables all affects the degree of social capital. Looking at the political element[62] that both Putnam (1993) and Knight (2001) highlights as an important feature affecting individuals' degree of social capital and which also are emphasized by the Australian government in the agenda, the result showed significant correlation with the degree of social capital. In the first survey, up to 2.9 % of the variance in social capital between individuals could be explained by their political view and 8 % by peoples' political interest. In the second survey, political view's explanation value increased with 4.5 percentage points while political interest decreased to 1.9 percentage point Previous research has concluded that the degree of an individual's social capital does not change by having a more left/right political view. Normally, one might assume that there would be differences in people's degree of social capital when being located more to the left or to the right on the political scale (Kymlicka, 1995[b]). However, looking at the conducted crosstabs[63], these show that having a more right or more left political view does not consequently generate a higher or lower score on the social capital index. However, when looking at the result from the bivariate analysis it show that 4.5 % of the variance in individuals' degree of social capital in the second survey could be explained political view. This leads us to believe that the concept social capital comprises political aspects but these cannot be separated into categories such as the fundamental political reasons as equality[64] and freedom[65] (Kymlicka, 1995[b]). A variable that did show significant correlation with the social capital index in both surveys was

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[62] Both the independent variables *Political view* and *Political interest*.
[63] See appendix 8.3.1.10 and 8.3.2.10.
[64] People with a more leftish political view often argues for equality through socialism (Kymlicka, 1995[b]:11).
[65] People with a tendency to the political right often argues for freedom through capitalism (Kymlicka, 1995[b]:11).

political interest. The result imply that less[66] political interested people tends to have a lower degree of social capital and that people somewhat or very interested in politics tends to have a higher degree of social capital.

The bivariate analysis result showed that an individual's level of education influences their degree of social capital. The results imply that 7 % of the variance in people's degree of social capital in the first survey and 9.9 % in the second survey can be derived to their level of education. As implied by the Australian government, Education is one of the major features in *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia.* The result from the bivariate analysis and the crosstabs shows tendencies that having a degree from secondary school or higher generates a higher score on the social capital index. When looking at the social capital index divided into categories in the crosstabs, one can see that in the first survey, 62.3 % of the people with complete primary school degree was categorized as having a very low degree of social capital. The result can be compared to people with university degrees, where 20.6 % was categorized as having a very low degree of social capital[67]. In the second survey, 69.2% of the people with complete primary school were categorized as having a very low degree of social capital and 19.9% of the people with university degrees. The Australian government changed the Australian National Education plan for elementary school and included more educational learning about multiculturalism when passing the Agenda. One might assume that such act would contribute to a higher degree of social capital for those completing primary school or secondary school but the result imply opposite development. This leads us to believe that the increased education about multiculturalism and changes in the education plan had not influenced the degree of social capital in the second survey. One explanatory suggestion given is that since the World Values Survey's only include people older than 18 years, the individuals that actually been affected by the implemented changes in education since 1999 are not included in the second survey. However, the Australian government made higher education more available for all people and as the crosstabs show, the categories "Very low degree of social capital" and "Low degree of social capital" has decreased among people with a university degree and also, the category "High degree of social capital" has increased. One might therefore assume that the policy to make education more available for all people has contributing to positive effects on the degree of social capital.

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[66] Categorized as *Not very interested* and *Not at all interested*, See appendix 8.3.1.9.
[67] See appendix 8.3.1.8 Education – Social capital index categories and 8.3.2.10 Education - Social capital index categories.

Another variable that showed positive correlations with the social capital index was *employment status*. In the first survey, employment status could explain 2.4 % of the variance in people's degree of social capital. As the bivariate analysis reveals, employment status got an increased explanatory (9.7 percentage points) value in the second survey. The variable, *size of town*, showed insignificant correlation with the social capital index in the first survey (1994-1999) but in the second survey (2005-2009), the variable displayed a negative correlation[68]. The variable size of town could in the second survey explain up to 3.6 % of the variances in people's degree of social capital. A negative correlation between social capital and size of town is also emphasized by Putnam (2001). Putnam argues that smaller communities are more ethnically homogenous with similar values which lead to an increase in the degree of social capital. The Australian government highlights regional and rural areas in the agenda and if consider the result from the bivariate analysis, it leads us to conclude that the agenda might have influenced rural areas positively. However, since the result from the first survey was insignificant, conclusions are more difficult to assess and also since the Australian government emphasizes regional areas, they might have included bigger towns in the implementation of the agenda. Even though the variable *size of town* only showed significant correlation in the second survey, it was included with the four other independent variables; *political view*, *political interest*, *education*, and *employment status* who all showed correlation with the social capital index in the multivariate regression analysis.

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[68] A negative correlation implies that the bigger size of town (Population) people live in, the lower degree of social capital.

5.3 Multivariate Regression Analysis

The result from the bivariate analysis indicated correlations between the social capital index degree of social capital and the independent variables of this study. The multivariate regression analysis (MRA) can be seen as an extension of the bivariate analysis with the major difference that it enables investigating several independent variables and esteem how much of the variance in social capital can be explained by the independent variables (Esaiasson et al., 2007). In the bivariate analysis, independent variables were measured singularly against the social capital index but in the regression model, all independent variables that showed significant correlations with the social capital index was included. This mean that both the independent variables *Age* and *Sex* was excluded from the regression.[69]

5.3.1 Creating Dummy variables

In order to perform the multivariate regression analysis using independent categorical variables such as *Employment status* I created dummy variables[70] (Djurfeldt & Barmark, 2009). Employment status has five categories ranging from *Full time employee*, *Part-time employee*, *Retired*, *Student*, and *Unemployed*. I created four dummy variables with the reference variable being *Unemployed*. This mean, that when used in the multivariate regression analysis the relationship between these four variables will be considered in relationship to the fifth variables, *Unemployed*, that is used as a reference variable. The transformation and use of dummy variables was necessary since the result from the regression analysis only have a valid interpretation if it makes sense to assume that having a value of one on some variable does indeed mean having twice as much of something as value zero. The result from the dummy variables was interpreted and compared to *Unemployed* (Esaiasson et al., 2007). This made it possible to see tendencies about influences on the degree of social capital. Also, it tested the theoretical assumption that unemployed people have a lower degree of social capital compared to employed people. So, by converting the nominal/categorical variable into a dichotomous[71] one all independent variables became available for the multivariate regression analysis (Ibid.).

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[69] Neither of them showed significant correlation in 1994-1999's survey nor in 2005-2009's survey.
[70] A dummy variable only have two values, zero and one. The values for all dummy variables are specified in Appendix 8.4.1
[71] Dichotomously coded nominal variables only have two values (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

5.3.2 Australian – The First Survey

To perform the multivariate regression analysis, I entered all the independent variables into the equation simultaneously (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The F-test of my regression model for Australians in 1994-1999's survey turned out to be highly significant, with the P-value of 0.000. The significant P-value implies that the probability of the regression model being caused by chance is less than 0.001 %.

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67332,354	8	8416,544	23,788	,000[a]
	Residual	526121,467	1487	353,814		
	Total	593453,821	1495			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

b. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

Appendix 8.4.2 Regression

Since the F-test showed a significant regression model, I continued to look at the determination coefficient *R Square* (0.113). The result from R Square implies that a total of 11.3 % of the variance in the degree of social capital could be explained by the independent variables entered in the model: *Political view, Political interest, Education, Size of town,* and *employment status*. As indicated by the model summary, *Adjusted R Square* is somewhat lower compared to R Square but since the number of sample is large enough (N>200), it should not be taken into consideration (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,337[a]	,113	,109	18,810

a. Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

Appendix 8.4.2 Model summary

The next procedure in the MRA was to look at the result from the T-test[72] and interpret the significance and value of the *B coefficient* for each independent variable. The observed *t-values* are ranged from the lowest 0.239[73] to the highest 8.155. The critical *t*-value with a significant level of 5 % was 1.960[74] which showed that the variables *Political view*,

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[72] See page 44

[73] Minus signs are not taken into consideration, for example: -,920 is treated as 0.920 when looking at the *t*-value (Djurfeldt et al., 2010; Djurfeldt & Barmark, 2009)

[74] See *t*-value table in Djurfeldt et al., 2010:469

Size of town, *Employment status: Retired* and *Employment status: Student* did not show significant correlation in the 1994-1999's survey with the social capital index, when entered simultaneously (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	14,667	2,698		5,437	,000
	Employment status: *Full-time employee*	4,430	1,378	,109	3,215	,001
	Employment status: *Part-time employee*	5,808	1,700	,103	3,418	,001
	Employment status: *Retired*	1,214	1,551	,025	,783	,434
	Employment status: *Student*	3,169	2,824	,029	1,122	,262
	Political interest	4,542	,557	,210	8,155	,000
	Size of town	-,205	,223	-,023	-,920	,358
	Education	1,757	,270	,176	6,501	,000
	Political view	-,066	,277	-,006	-,239	,811

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

Appendix 8.4.2

5.3.2.1 Education, Employment status, and Political interest

It turned out that in the first survey, having a higher education (B=1.757, P-value=0.000) was positively associated with higher degree of social capital. The *coefficient B* indicates how much the score on the social capital index would increase when obtaining a higher education[75]. The result leads us to conclude that if Australians would obtain a higher education, for example that an individual goes from having incomplete primary school-education to complete primary school-education, their degree of social capital would generally lead to an increase with 1.757 score on the social capital index. Another point showed in 1994-1999's survey was that among the four dummy variables related to employment status[76], all showed positive B-values. However, only two of them, *Full-time employee* and *Part-time employee* turned out to have significant positive correlations with the social capital index. As previously stipulated, the positive B-value for the dummy variables

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[75] A higher education implies for example that an individual goes from having incomplete primary school-education to complete primary school-education.
[76] Created to be compared to unemployed people (Djurfeldt et al., 2010).

are interpret that being employed generates a higher score on the social capital index compared to unemployed Australians in 1994-1999's survey[77]. The result leads us to conclude that when Australians in the first survey became employed instead of unemployed, their score on the social capital index increased with 4.430/5.808. Furthermore, both people being *Retired* (Dummy variable 3) and *Student*s (Dummy variable 4) displayed no significant correlation[78]. The result show that people who either was retired or students in 1994-1999's survey did not differ in their degree of social capital in comparison to unemployed people (Djurfeldt et al., 2010). The result also show that political interest had a significant correlation with the social capital index (B=4.542, P-value=0.000), implying that the more political interested people was, the higher degree of social capital.

5.3.3 Australian – The Second Survey

The regression analysis of 2005-2009's survey turned out to be highly significant (P-value = 0.000). Similar to the first survey, the significant P-value imply that the probability of the regression model being caused by chance is less than 0.001 %.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,318[a]	,101	,090	18,776

a. Predictors: Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

Appendix 8.4.3Model Summary

The determination coefficient *R Square* (0.101) entails that a total of 10.1 % of the variance in the degree of social capital could be explained by the independent variables entered in the model. The *t*-values are ranged from the lowest 1.090 to the highest 6.788. The critical *t*-value with a significant level of 5 % was still 1.960[79] as in 1994-1999's survey which entailed that that neither *Political view* nor *Size of town* did show significant correlation with the social capital index.

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[77] Unemployed people were used as a reference category.
[78] 0.434 and 0.262.
[79] See *t*-value table in Djurfeldt et al., 2010:469

Coefficients[a]

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	8,751	4,635		1,888	,059
	Political interest	1,972	,843	,088	2,340	,020
	Employment status: *Full-time employee*	7,091	2,430	,180	2,918	,004
	Employment status: *Part-time employee*	8,956	2,895	,163	3,094	,002
	Employment status: *Retired*	7,207	2,707	,152	2,662	,008
	Employment status: *Student*	17,238	7,023	,094	2,455	,014
	Political view	,424	,389	,040	1,090	,276
	Education	2,485	,366	,264	6,788	,000
	Size of town	-,353	,310	-,042	-1,137	,256

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital   *Appendix 8.4.3*

5.3.3.1 Education, Employment status, and Political interest

The MRA showed that in the second survey, *Education* (B=2.485, P-value=0.000) was positively correlated with the social capital index, meaning that having a higher educational degree was associated with higher score on the social capital index. Also, all four employment status variables showed significant positive correlations with the social capital index. The highest B-value (17.238) was displayed by *students*[80], implying that being a student in comparison to being unemployed leads to an increase in the total score on the social capital index with 17.238. The three other dummy variables also had B-values that indicated that being employed, *Full-time* or *Part-time*, or *retired* imply a higher score on the social capital index. The variable *Political interest* also showed significant correlation with the social capital index (B=1.972, P-value=0.020).

5.3.4 Conclusions multivariate regression analysis

The purpose of the multivariate regression analysis was to emphasize all independent variables[81] and their impacts on the degree of social capital during the first and the second survey. The result has shown that several independent variables have significant correlation with the social capital index, as in the bivariate analysis. However, the result from the MRA showed that both the variable *Political view* and *Size of town* did not have a significant

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[80] Dummy variable 4
[81] The ones that showed significant correlation with the social capital index in the bivariate analysis.

correlation with the social capital index. The result leads us to conclude that neither of these variables have impacts on social capital when measuring all variables at the same time, as in the MRA. However, in the bivariate analysis both displayed significant correlation meaning that if analyzing these variables separately, they might have impacts on the degree of social capital. One can therefore assume that a person's political view do not have impacts on their degree of social capital as suggested by Knight (2001). Even though *Size of town* showed significant correlation in the bivariate analysis, it showed insignificant correlation with the social capital index in the MRA. However, looking at the B-value in the MRA it indicates a negative correlation towards the social capital index in both surveys. Even though the result is not statistical ensured and reliable, the result does imply that people in bigger towns have a lower degree of social capital.

Education was highlighted in the bivariate analysis as having impacts on the degree of social capital, i.e. showing significant correlation. In the MRA, all independent variables was entered in the equation at once and both in the first (1994-1999) and the second survey (2005-2009), *Education* showed significant correlation with the social capital index. The result from the MRA showed tendencies that having a higher educational degree generates higher degree of social capital. Even though the result showed that *Education* had a lower B-value in the first survey (1994-1999) compared to the second survey (2005-2009) it imply that education have become more influential on the degree of social capital in the second survey. In the bivariate analysis, the difference between the two surveys was highlighted implying that 7 % (first survey) and 9.9 % (second survey) of the variances in people's degree of social capital could be derived to the level of education. The result, both from the bivariate and the multivariate regression analysis show that education contributes to positive impacts on the degree of social capital. When passing the Agenda, the Australian government made higher education more available for all people. As implied in the crosstabs, the categories "Very low degree of social capital" and "Low degree of social capital" has decreased among people with a university degree and also, the category "High degree of social capital" has increased for this group of people. Due to this particular change between the first and second survey, one might assume that the policy to make education more available for all people has contributing to positive effects on the degree of social capital.

Another variable that also showed significant correlation with the social capital index was *Employment status*. However, in the first survey both students and retired people showed insignificant correlation with the social capital index while being employed, both full-time

and part-time, showed positive correlations The result imply that there were no significant differences between students/retired people and unemployed people in the degree of social capital. However, in the second survey all *Employment status*-dummies displayed positive correlations to the social capital index and noteworthy was that students displayed the highest B-value of them all. This value and positive correlation imply that there were a difference between students' degree of social capital and unemployed people's degree of social capital. All categories displayed positive correlations and as emphasized by both Putnam (2001) and Coleman (1988); employed people participate in social networks which accumulate social capital. One can therefore assume that students belong and participate in social networks.

When looking at *Political interest*, both the first and second survey indicated that the more politically interested Australians are the higher degree of social capital. However, in the first survey (1994-1999) *Political interest* showed tendencies to influence the degree of social capital more compared to the result from the second survey. This is also shown in the bivariate analysis, where political interest could in the first survey explain 8 % of the variance in the degree of social capital while in the second survey only 1.9 %. One explanation that can be proposed for such result could be the fact that political debates and political discussions was far more common and more public in 2005-2009 compared to 1994-1999 and this might have a negative effect of Australians political interest losing explanatory value. Seymour Lipset and Noah Meltz (Lipset, Meltz, Gomez, Katchanovski, & Kochan, 2004) proposed in 2004 a theory regarding the American Unionism[82]. They claimed that in some cultures, an increase in the possibilities to influence the collective society leads to a limitation in actions taken by people. In a country as Australia, where one can assume that political debates and political discussions was more public in 2005-2009 which also made it accessible for people to obtain knowledge and influence the political agenda or discussion. Thus, this is only suggested as a potential explanation to why there has been a decrease in the explanatory value for Australians political interest on their degree of social capital.

The multivariate regression showed several factors with significant correlation with the social capital index. However, the result also showed that these factors explanation value for having impacts on the aggregated degree of social capital decreased from 11.3 % in the first survey to 10.1 % in the second survey. Thus, the result do however identifies factors as *education*, *employment status*, and *political interests* as having impacts on the degree of social capital.

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[82] The paradox is that Americans like unions more than Canadians do, but join much less (Ibid.).

6. Conclusions

The Australian government has strived to build a more integrated multicultural society by passing *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* in 1999. Previous research suggests that multiculturalism affect the level of trust and explicitly the aggregated level of social capital which is the most important and significant feature when it comes to sustaining solidarity and to include new members into the society. This study aimed to see if the Agenda's goal of contributing to a better integrated multicultural society has been successful or not. The objectives of this study were to examine if the degree of social capital has been affected by the Agenda and also to show if the Agenda contributed to an enhanced participation in social networks for the Indigenous Australians.

The result from this study has showed that there exist associations between the Agenda and the degree of social capital. The result imply that there has been an increase in the degree of social capital in Australia between the first (1994-1999) and the second survey (2005-2009). The associations and the increase in social capital have leaded us to conclude that the Agenda have been contributing to an increase in positive multiculturalism. Thus, this means that the Agenda have been important for increasing social capital, contradicting several researchers' previous suggestions and skepticism regarding negative influences of multiculturalism that are imposed on a country's degree of social capital. It also implies that the degree of social capital has been affected by the agenda. The multivariate regression showed and identified factors: *education*, *employment status*, and *political interest* who all had impact on the degree of social capital. However, there explanatory value provides incentives to believe that these factors cannot be seen as the sole cause to the change in the aggregated level of social capital. Hence, the result do show that the Agenda have been important for increasing social capital and that governments can affect the degree of social capital within a multicultural society as Australian through legislative and administrative procedures.

The Indigenous Australians participation in social networks was displayed in the univariate analysis but the numbers of the Indigenous participants were low which restrained the generalizing possibilities of the findings to the entire Indigenous Australian community. Despite that, the result showed a tendency for an enhanced participation in social networks for Indigenous Australians[83]. Increased participation in social networks was described by Robert Putnam as improved civic engagement. Putnam argues that improved civic engagement leads

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[83]Presented in appendix. 8.1.7 and 8.1.8

to an enhancement in the degree of social capital and contributes to a more integrated society. The displayed tendency for increased participation in social networks can therefore be assumed to have positively affected the integration of the Indigenous Australians into the Australian society. However, one considerable implication to the assumption that the Agenda has lead to a better integrated multicultural society was showed by the Australians. The result showed that the Australians confidence in social institutions, their trust in other people, and also the aggregated degree of social capital increased between the first and the second survey. However, the contradictive result was found in the decrease of the Australians participation in social networks. A result that points towards the schism emphasized by Rothstein; people's confidence in social institutions is the most utter important source for enhancing social capital and not participation in social networks as suggested by Putnam. The result strongly question Putnam's theoretical argument since the decrease in the Australians participation in social networks did not lead to a decrease in the aggregated degree of social capital. Putnam's theoretical arguments also imply that the Agenda has not contributed to a more cohesive multicultural society, since participation in social networks is to be considered as the society's grade of social cohesion. On the other hand, Rothstein suggest that confidence in social institutions enhances the aggregated degree of social capital and leads to a more cohesive society. As showed by result, it supports Rothstein's argument which leads to the conclusions that not only has the Agenda contributed to a better integrated multicultural society but it has also provided evidence that question if participation in social networks is the most significant feature for a more integrated multicultural society, as suggested by Robert Putnam.

The findings in this study shows that it is possible for governments to meet the new tensions caused by demographic change with increased ethnic, racial, linguistic, and religious diversity by creating legislative acts and procedures. However, due to this study's independent variables limited explanation value for impacting the degree of social capital, there is still room for more research within this area and how much governments can enhance multiculturalism. This study does however contribute to the aggregated abundance of research conducted within the area of social capital. By emphasizing and capture the most essential elements in the concept social capital it highlights similarities and differences across different perspectives as sociology, political science, and economics. This study will contribute to the limited amount of research made on social capital on a national level in Australia. For this reason, one might believe that this study's approach and results contributes with important insights and conclusions which can encourage research on a local level.

Executive summary

During the second half of the twentieth century, the demographic settings in countries have changed dramatically. The demographic changes have provided incentives for governments to reshape their contemporary democratic politics into multicultural politics in order to meet the new tensions caused by increased demographic diversity. Governments have through law and administration procedures strived to increase social capital in attempt to create trust and solidarity among diversified citizens.

This thesis explores the effect of the Australian government passing the legislative and administrative act, *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia*, on the social capital in Australia. The Agenda was passed in 1999, and aimed at creating a more trustful and inclusive society among one of the most diverse population in the world. The Agenda used educational, informative and labor market strategies in order to create a more cohesive Australian society where over 43 percent are born overseas or with at least one parent born overseas, and with over 200 languages spoken within the country. Australia has also a long historical tradition of multiculturalism through acculturation of Indigenous Australians and assimilation policies. The assimilation policies have become a deep rooted source for despair and antagonism in the Indigenous Australians culture and are emphasized by several researchers to be a major disadvantage in building a more cohesive society. Previous researchers also claim that multiculturalism itself can erode and break up the feelings of trust and solidarity within a society.

The study aims to enable a deeper understanding of the relations between government policies to enhance multiculturalism and social capital. Social capital is a concept used in different disciplines to emphasize unique aspects of different societies and a society's degree of "social cohesion". This study's objectives was to examine if the degree of social capital has been affected by the legislative act *The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia* and also to show, if possible, the agenda has contributed to an enhanced participation in social networks for the Indigenous Australians.

This thesis used notions of the concept of social capital, developed by Robert Putnam and James Coleman. The degree of social capital in Australia was measured by using the most central features of the concept "social capital". These components has gain wide acceptance in the academic community were there has been a growing consensus that social capital exist of features, specific attitudes, as trust, participation in social networks, and confidence in

social institutions. The empirical material derived from World Values Surveys. The World Values Surveys is a worldwide network that investigates socio-cultural and political change. The two surveys that were used in this study were conducted in 1994-1999 and 2005-2009. The analysis of these surveys was conducted using the statistical program, SPSS. The measurement of social capital included three indicators, trust in people, confidence in social institutions, and participation in social networks. These indicators was first investigated separately and then combined into one social capital index. The social capital index could generate a score from minimum zero to maximum 100 where a higher score meant a higher degree of social capital and a lower score a lower degree of social capital. The statistical analysis was conducted using univariate and bivariate analysis and also multivariate regression analysis. The Australian government highlighted in their strategic directions for implementing the Agenda several socio-cultural factors which was considered to be this study's independent variables. There were seven independent variables included in this study.

The main purpose of the univariate analysis was to statistically describe each of the social capital indicators and also the social capital index. The result from the univariate analysis showed that Australians degree of social capital has changed between 1994-1999 and 2005-2009. Australians participation in social networks decreased between the first and the second survey with 37 %. Among the Indigenous Australians there seemed to be a tendency that their participation in social networks has increased between the first and the second survey. Both the Australians confidence in social institutions and their level of trust showed increases in the univariate analysis.

The bivariate analysis explored and identified factors that have impacts on social capital. The factors, this study's independent variables, have all been emphasized by the Australian government to show association with and affect the degree of social capital. The result from the bivariate analysis entailed that not all variables displayed correlation with the social capital index. Both the independent variables age and sex did not show correlation with the social capital and one could conclude that these variables do not influence individual's degree of social capital. The bivariate analysis showed that the five independent variables: Political view, Political interest, Education, Size of town, and Employment status all displayed significant correlation with the social capital index.

The five independent variables that showed correlation in the bivariate analysis was included in the multivariate regression analysis, which can be seen as an extension of the

bivariate analysis with the major difference that it enabled investigating all five independent variables and esteem how much of the variance in social capital that can be explained by the independent variables. The result from the multivariate regression analysis showed that several independent variables had significant correlation with the social capital index. The result also showed that both Political view and Size of town did not show significant correlation with the social capital index. The result lead us to conclude that neither of these two variables have impacts on social capital when measuring all variables at the same time, as in the multivariate regression analysis. The multivariate regression showed several factors with significant correlation with the social capital index. However, the result also showed that these factors explanation value for having impacts on the aggregated degree of social capital decreased from 11.3 % in the first survey to 10.1 % in the second survey. Thus, the result do however identifies factors as education, employment status, and political interests as having impacts on the degree of social capital.

The result from this study showed that there exist associations between the Agenda and the degree of social capital. The result implied that there has been an increase in the degree of social capital in Australia between the first (1994-1999) and the second survey (2005-2009). The associations and the increase in social capital lead to the conclusion that the Agenda have been contributing to an increase in positive multiculturalism. This meant, that the Agenda have been important for increasing social capital, contradicting several researchers' previous suggestions and skepticism regarding negative influences of multiculturalism that are imposed on a country's degree of social capital. It also implies that the degree of social capital has been affected by the agenda.

The findings in this study showed that it is possible for governments to meet the new tensions caused by demographic change with increased ethnic, racial, linguistic, and religious diversity by creating legislative acts and procedures. This study does contribute to the aggregated abundance of research conducted within the area of social capital. By emphasizing and capture the most important elements in the concept social capital it highlights similarities and differences across different perspectives as sociology, political science, and economics. This study will contribute to the limited amount of research made on social capital on a national level in Australia.

53

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8. Appendix

8.1 Tables

8.1.1 Median age comparison

Median Age comparison
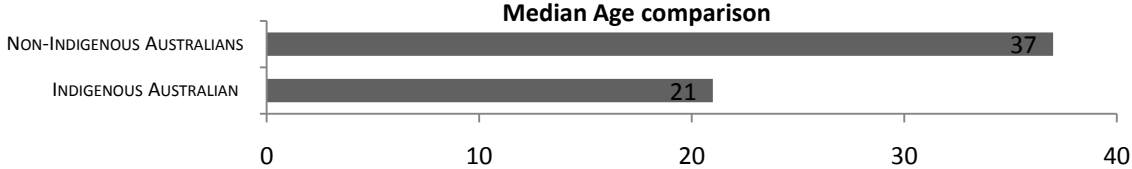
Table 2 Median Age Comparison

8.1.2 Victimization statistics
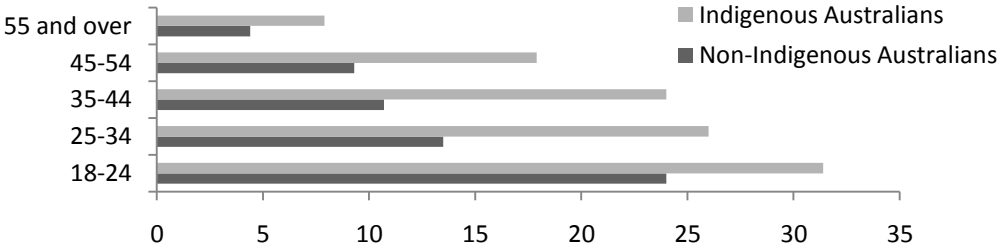
Table3: Victimization statistics

8.1.3 The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia's influence on social capital
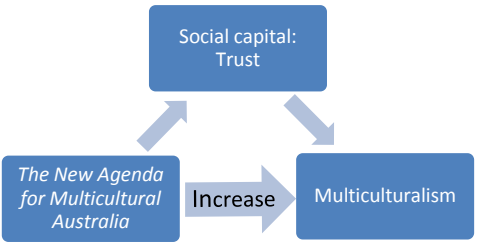
Table 4: The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia influence s on social capital

8.1.4 Operationalization

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                                                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                                                    │ Trust in people      │
                                                    └──────────────────────┘
                              ┌───────┐             ┌──────────────────────────────┐
                              │ TRUST │ ──────────▶ │ Confidence in social institutions │
                              └───────┘             └──────────────────────────────┘
                                ▲    ╲               ┌──────────────────────────────┐
                                │     ╲              │ Participation in social networks │
                                │      ╲             └──────────────────────────────┘
                                │       ╲
┌──────────────────────────────────────┐  ╲         ┌──────────────────┐
│ The New Agenda for Multicultural Australia │ ──▶   │ Multiculturalism │
└──────────────────────────────────────┘            └──────────────────┘
```
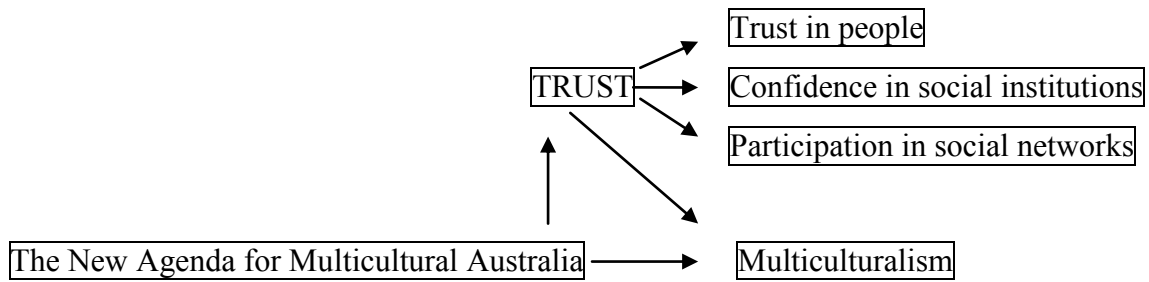
Table 5: Operationalization

8.1.5 Measures of Association

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,315	,099
The degree of social capital * Political view	,212	,045
The degree of social capital * Political interest	,136	,019
The degree of social capital * Size of town	.189	,036

Table 6: Measures of Association

8.1.6 Participation in social networks – Indigenous Australians 1994-1999

Participation in social networks

N	Valid	8
	Missing	0
Mean		14,19
Median		12,11
Mode		12
Std. Deviation		11,086
Variance		122,906
Minimum		1
Maximum		34
Percentiles	25	3,78
	50	12,11
	75	21,83

Participation in social networks categories

N	Valid	8
	Missing	0
Median		1,00
Mode		1

Participation in social networks categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a member	7	87,5	87,5	87,5
	Inactive member	1	12,5	12,5	100,0
	Total	8	100,0	100,0	

Histogram

Mean = 14,19
Std. Dev. = 11,086
N = 8

62
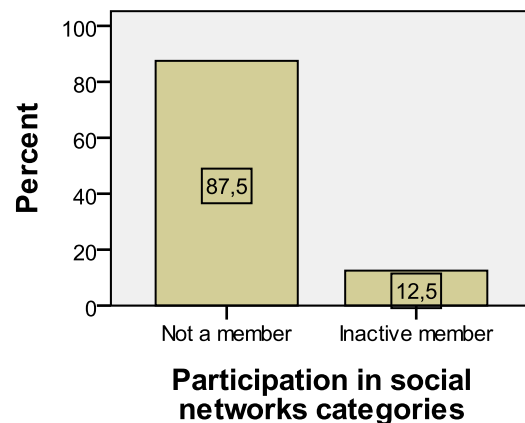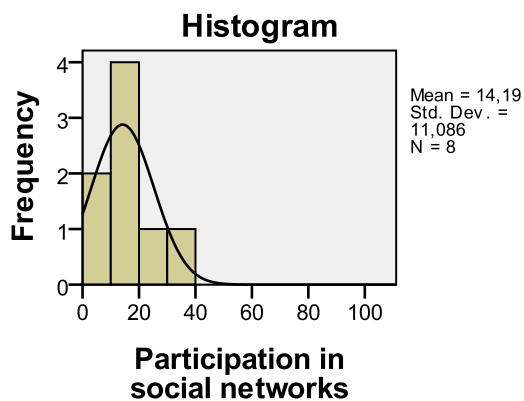
8.1.7 Participation in social networks – Indigenous Australians 2005-2009

Participation in social networks

N	Valid	13
	Missing	2
Mean		17,52
Median		5,56
Mode		0
Std. Deviation		21,014
Variance		441,595
Minimum		0
Maximum		67
Percentiles	25	,00
	50	5,56
	75	33,33

Participation in social networks categories

N	Valid	13
	Missing	2
Mode		1

Participation in social networks categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a member	9	60,0	69,2	69,2
	Inactive member	3	20,0	23,1	92,3
	Active member	1	6,7	7,7	100,0
	Total	13	86,7	100,0	
Missing	System	2	13,3		
Total		15	100,0		

Histogram

Mean = 17,52
Std. Dev. = 21,014
N = 13

Participation in social networks

Participation in social networks categories
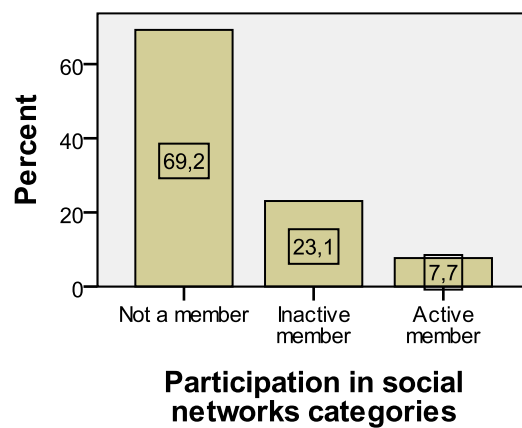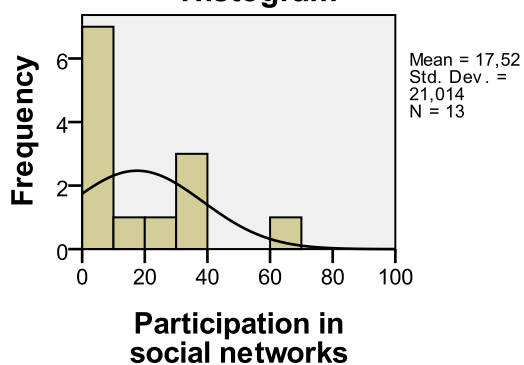
8.1.8 Reliability test – social capital index

8.1.8.1 Social capital index 1994-1999's survey

Reliability Statistics

Chronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,678	15

8.1.8.2 Social capital index 2005-2009's survey

Reliability Statistics

Chronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,694	15

8.2 Univariate results

8.2.1 Australian – The First Survey

8.2.1.1 Trust in people

Trust in people
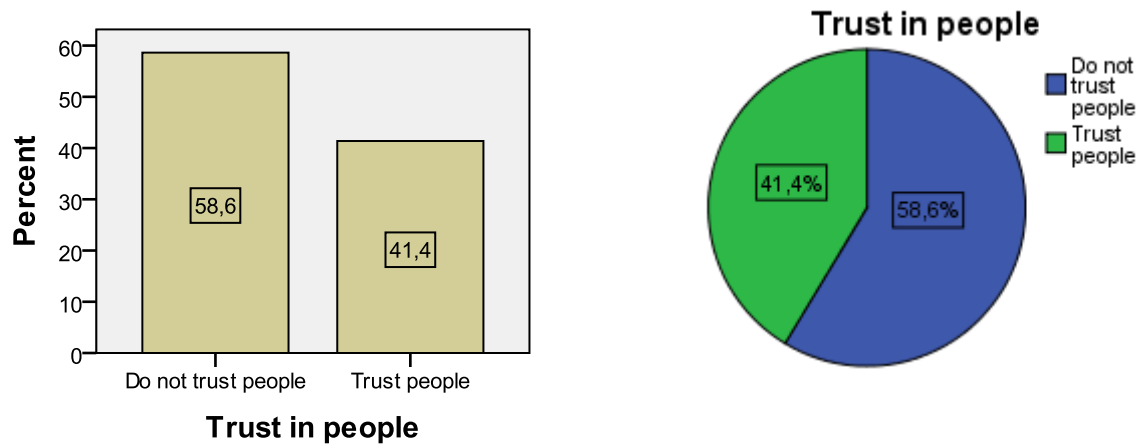
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Do not trust people	1057	58,0	58,6	58,6
	Trust people	746	40,9	41,4	100,0
	Total	1803	99,0	100,0	
Missing	System	19	1,0		
Total		1822	100,0		

Trust in people

N	Valid	1803
	Missing	19
Mode		0

8.2.1.2 Confidence in social institutions

Confidence in social institutions

N	Valid	1732
	Missing	90
Mean		43,83
Median		41,60
Mode		42
Std. Deviation		15,954
Variance		254,531
Minimum		1
Maximum		100
Percentiles	25	34,80
	50	41,60
	75	54,80

Confidence in social institutions categories

N	Valid	1732
	Missing	90
Median		2,00
Mode		2

Confidence in social institutions categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None at all	209	11,5	12,1	12,1
	Not very much	1014	55,7	58,5	70,6
	Quite a lot	481	26,4	27,8	98,4
	Great deal	28	1,5	1,6	100,0
	Total	1732	95,1	100,0	
Missing	System	90	4,9		
Total		1822	100,0		

Histogram

Mean = 43,83
Std. Dev. = 15,954
N = 1 732

Confidence in social institutions

Confidence in social institutions categories

58,5
27,8
12,1
1,6

None at all — Not very much — Quite a lot — Great deal
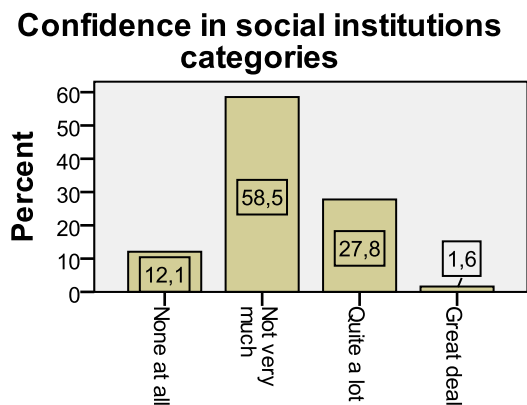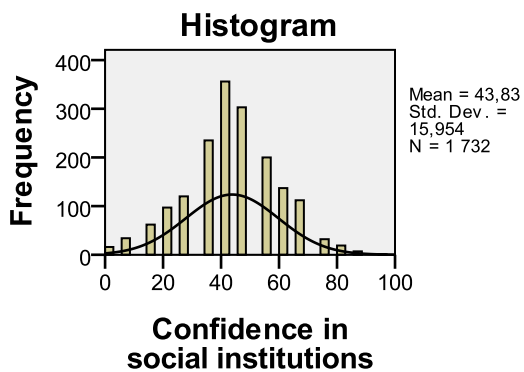
8.2.1.3 Participation in social networks

Participation in social networks

N	Valid	1801
	Missing	21
Mean		24,75
Median		23,22
Mode		12
Std. Deviation		17,569
Variance		308,685
Minimum		1
Maximum		90
Percentiles	25	12,11
	50	23,22
	75	34,33

Participation in social networks categories

N	Valid	1801
	Missing	21
Mode		1

Participation in social networks categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a member	1209	66,4	67,1	67,1
	Inactive member	550	30,2	30,5	97,7
	Active member	42	2,3	2,3	100,0
	Total	1801	98,8	100,0	
Missing	System	21	1,2		
Total		1822	100,0		

Histogram

Mean = 24,75
Std. Dev. = 17,569
N = 1 801

Participation in social networks

Participation in social networks categories

67
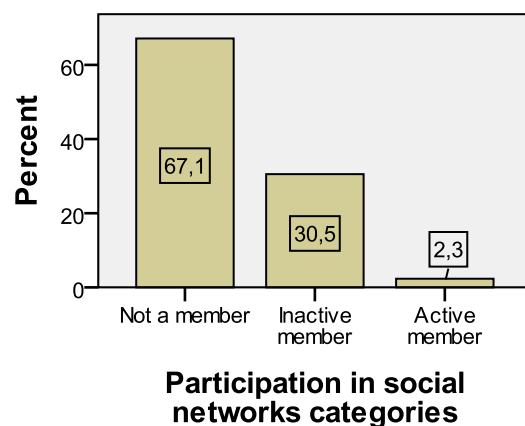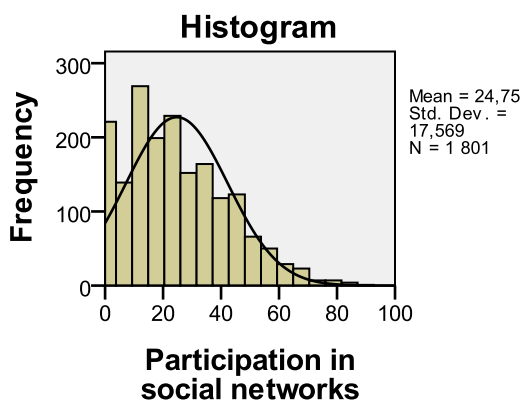
8.2.1.4 Social capital index

The degree of social capital

N	Valid	1699
	Missing	123
Mean		37,09
Median		31,20
Mode		18
Std. Deviation		19,928
Variance		397,127
Minimum		1
Maximum		84
Percentiles	25	19,67
	50	31,20
	75	55,97

Histogram

Mean = 37,09
Std. Dev. = 19,928
N = 1 699

The degree of social capital
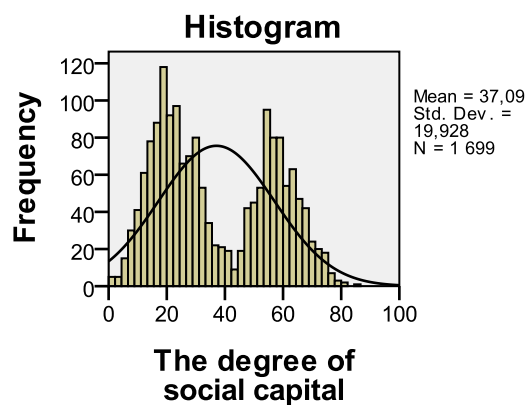
8.2.1.5 Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low degree of social capital	649	35,6	39,8	39,8
	Low degree of social capital	398	21,8	24,4	64,2
	High degree of social capital	573	31,4	35,2	99,4
	Very high degree of social capital	10	,5	,6	100,0
	Total	1630	89,5	100,0	
Missing	System	192	10,5		
Total		1822	100,0		
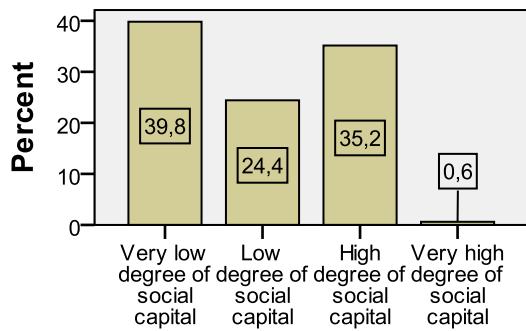
The degree of social capital categories

N	Valid	1630
	Missing	192
Median		2,00
Mode		1

The degree of social capital categories

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Very low degree of social capital	649	407,5	241,5
Low degree of social capital	398	407,5	-9,5
High degree of social capital	573	407,5	165,5
Very high degree of social capital	10	407,5	-397,5
Total	1630		

Test Statistics

	The degree of social capital categories
Chi-Square	598,304[a]
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	,000

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 407,5.

8.2.2 Australian – The Second Survey

8.2.2.1 Trust in people
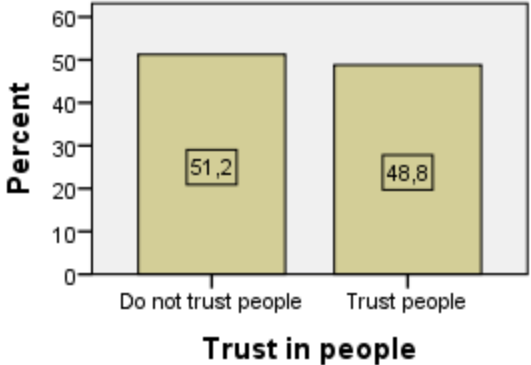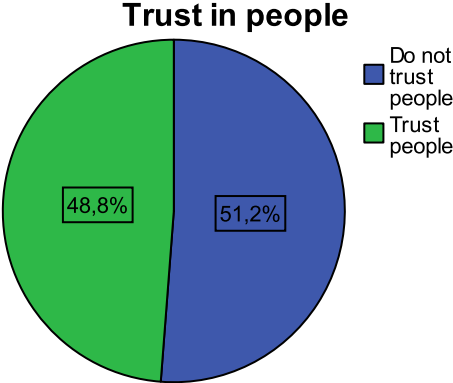
Trust in people

Trust in people

N	Valid	1355
	Missing	16
Mode		0

Trust in people

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Do not trust people	694	50,6	51,2	51,2
	Trust people	661	48,2	48,8	100,0
	Total	1355	98,8	100,0	
Missing	System	16	1,2		
Total		1371	100,0		

8.2.2.2 Confidence in social institutions

Confidence in social institutions

N	Valid	1336
	Missing	35
Mean		48,28
Median		47,20
Mode		47
Std. Deviation		17,626
Variance		310,668
Minimum		0
Maximum		100
Percentiles	25	40,40
	50	47,20
	75	60,40

Confidence in social institutions categories

N	Valid	1336
	Missing	35
Median		2,00
Mode		2

Confidence in social institutions categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None at all	116	8,5	8,7	8,7
	Not very much	628	45,8	47,0	55,7
	Quite a lot	523	38,1	39,1	94,8
	A great deal	69	5,0	5,2	100,0
	Total	1336	97,4	100,0	
Missing	System	35	2,6		
Total		1371	100,0		

Histogram

Mean = 48,28
Std. Dev. = 17,626
N = 1 336

Confidence in social institutions

Confidence in social institutions categories

71
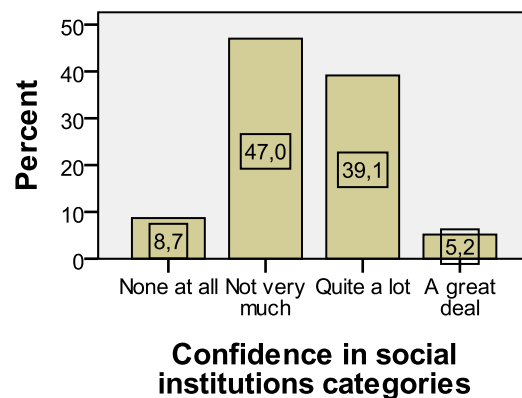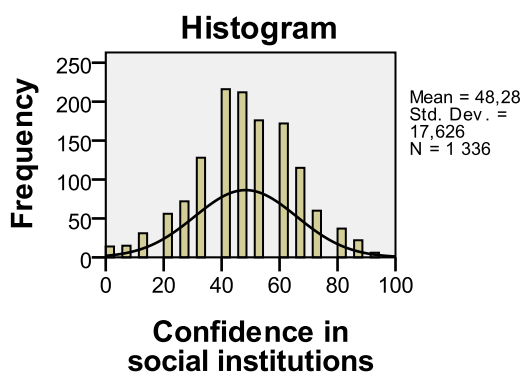
8.2.2.3 Participation in social networks

Participation in social networks

N	Valid	774
	Missing	597
Mean		16,66
Median		12,11
Mode		12
Std. Deviation		14,014
Variance		196,392
Minimum		1
Maximum		79
Percentiles	25	6,56
	50	12,11
	75	23,22

Participation in social networks categories

N	Valid	774
	Missing	597
Mode		1

Participation in social networks categories

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not a member	663	48,4	85,7	85,7
	Inactive member	108	7,9	14,0	99,6
	Active member	3	,2	,4	100,0
	Total	774	56,5	100,0	
Missing	System	597	43,5		
Total		1371	100,0		

Histogram

Mean = 16,66
Std. Dev. = 14,014
N = 774

72
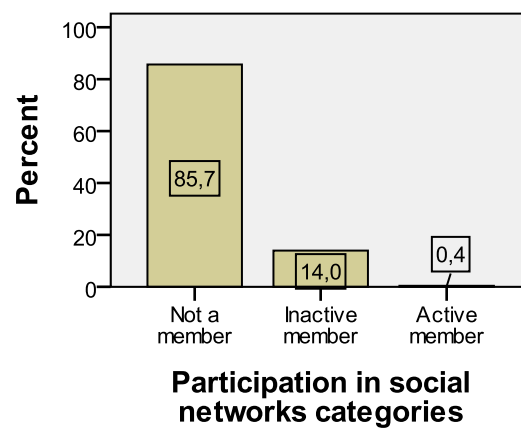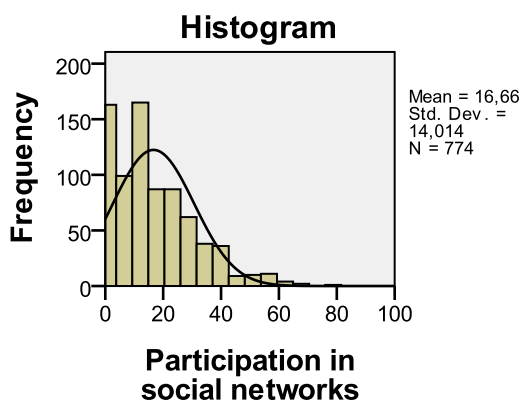
8.2.2.4 Social capital index

The degree of social capital

N	Valid	755
	Missing	616
Mean		37,33
Median		34,59
Mode		16[a]
Std. Deviation		19,643
Variance		385,853
Minimum		0
Maximum		78
Percentiles	25	19,36
	50	34,59
	75	56,00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value
is shown

Histogram

Mean = 37,33
Std. Dev. =
19,643
N = 755

The degree of
social capital
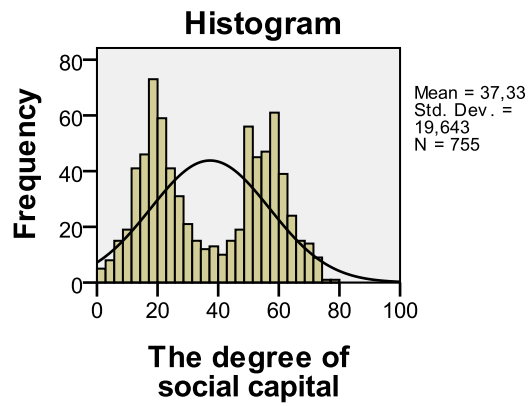
8.2.2.5 Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories

|		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low degree of social capital	282	20,6	38,7	38,7
	Low degree of social capital	158	11,5	21,7	60,4
	High degree of social capital	286	20,9	39,3	99,7
	Very high degree of social capital	2	,1	,3	100,0
	Total	728	53,1	100,0	
Missing	System	643	46,9		
Total		1371	100,0		
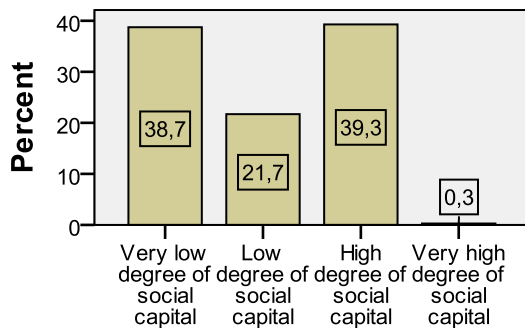
The degree of social capital categories

N	Valid	728
	Missing	643
Median		2,00
Mode		3

The degree of social capital categories

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Very low degree of social capital	282	182,0	100,0
Low degree of social capital	158	182,0	-24,0
High degree of social capital	286	182,0	104,0
Very high degree of social capital	2	182,0	-180,0
Total	728		

Test Statistics

	The degree of social capital categories
Chi-Square	295,560[a]
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	,000

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 182,0.

8.3 Bivariate analysis results

8.3.1 Australian – The First Survey

8.3.1.1 Education - Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Education	Between Groups	(Combined)	46624,901	5	9324,980	25,069	,000
	Within Groups		621567,546	1671	371,973		
	Total		668192,447	1676			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,264	,070

8.3.1.2 Political view – Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Political view	Between Groups	(Combined)	17377,386	9	1930,821	5,002	,000
	Within Groups		580936,602	1505	386,004		
	Total		598313,988	1514			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Political view	,170	,029

8.3.1.3 Political interest – Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Political interest	Between Groups	(Combined)	53753,840	3	17917,947	48,920	,000
	Within Groups		620467,928	1694	366,274		
	Total		674221,768	1697			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Political interest	,282	,080

8.3.1.4 Size of town – Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Size of town	Between Groups	(Combined)	3351,890	7	478,841	1,208	,295
	Within Groups		669384,305	1689	396,320		
	Total		672736,195	1696			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Size of town	,071	,005

8.3.1.5 Employment status - Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Employment status	Between Groups	(Combined)	15819,520	4	3954,880	10,156	,000
	Within Groups		655802,104	1684	389,431		
	Total		671621,625	1688			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Employment status	,153	,024

8.3.1.6 Sex – Social capital index

Group Statistics

	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
The degree of social capital	Male	827	37,83	20,049	,697
	Female	872	36,38	19,798	,670

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
The degree of social capital	Equal variances assumed	1,074	,300	1,509	1697	,132	1,459	,967	-,437	3,355
	Equal variances not assumed			1,508	1689,722	,132	1,459	,967	-,438	3,356

8.3.1.7 Age – Social capital index
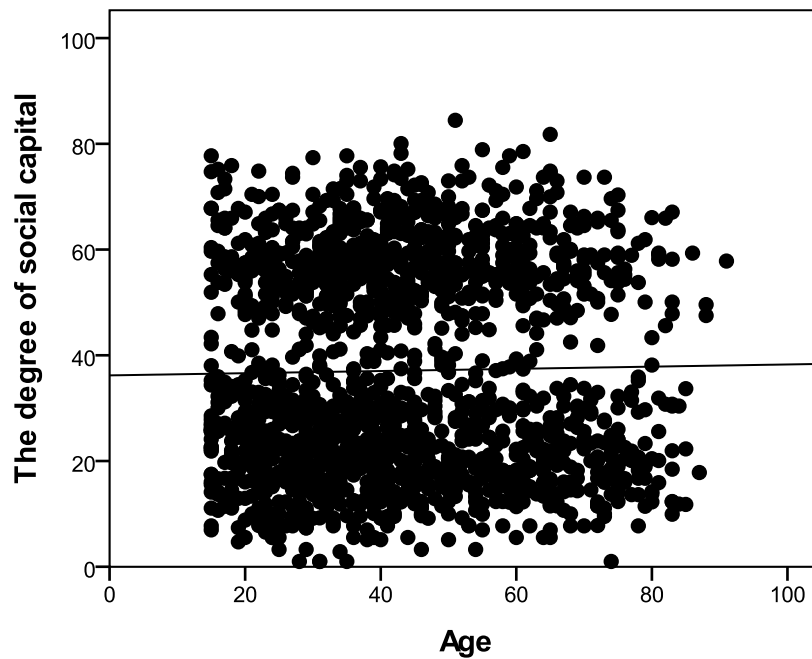
Correlations

		Age	The degree of social capital
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	,018
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,454
	N	1822	1699
The degree of social capital	Pearson Correlation	,018	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,454	
	N	1699	1699

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,018[a]	,000	,000	19,931

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	36,196	1,280		28,275	,000
	Age	,021	,028	,018	,750	,454

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

8.3.1.8 Education – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Education Crosstabulation

			Education						Total
			Incomplete primary school	Complete primary school	Incomplete secondary school	Complete secondary school	Some university-level education, without degree	University - level education, with degree	
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	11	38	362	106	98	22	637
		% within Education	57,9%	62,3%	50,7%	37,9%	23,0%	20,6%	39,6%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	4	11	157	66	124	29	391
		% within Education	21,1%	18,0%	22,0%	23,6%	29,0%	27,1%	24,3%
	High degree of social capital	Count	4	12	191	106	203	54	570
		% within Education	21,1%	19,7%	26,8%	37,9%	47,5%	50,5%	35,4%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	0	4	2	2	2	10
		% within Education	,0%	,0%	,6%	,7%	,5%	1,9%	,6%
Total		Count	19	61	714	280	427	107	1608
		% within Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.1.9 Political interest – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Political interest Crosstabulation

			Political interest				
			Not at all interested	Not very interested	Somewhat interested	Very interested	Total
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	173	188	215	73	649
		% within The degree of social capital categories	26,7%	29,0%	33,1%	11,2%	100,0%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	42	104	184	67	397
		% within The degree of social capital categories	10,6%	26,2%	46,3%	16,9%	100,0%
	High degree of social capital	Count	45	131	267	130	573
		% within The degree of social capital categories	7,9%	22,9%	46,6%	22,7%	100,0%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	1	6	3	10
		% within The degree of social capital categories	,0%	10,0%	60,0%	30,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	260	424	672	273	1629
		% within The degree of social capital categories	16,0%	26,0%	41,3%	16,8%	100,0%

8.3.1.10 Political view – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Political view Crosstabulation

			Political view										Total
			Left	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Right	
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	20	14	27	43	281	49	48	50	6	20	558
		% within Political view	54,1 %	53,8 %	25,5 %	29,7 %	43,7 %	29,0 %	33,8 %	45,0 %	31,6 %	37,0%	38,4%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	6	6	26	30	159	50	39	20	6	13	355
		% within Political view	16,2 %	23,1 %	24,5 %	20,7 %	24,7 %	29,6 %	27,5 %	18,0 %	31,6 %	24,1%	24,4%
	High degree of social capital	Count	10	6	52	71	201	69	55	39	7	19	529
		% within Political view	27,0 %	23,1 %	49,1 %	49,0 %	31,3 %	40,8 %	38,7 %	35,1 %	36,8 %	35,2%	36,4%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	1	0	1	1	2	1	0	2	0	2	10
		% within Political view	2,7%	,0%	,9%	,7%	,3%	,6%	,0%	1,8%	,0%	3,7%	,7%
Total		Count	37	26	106	145	643	169	142	111	19	54	1452
		% within Political view	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %	100,0 %

8.3.1.11 Size of town– Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Size of town Crosstabulation

			<2000	2-5000	5-10000	10-20000	20-50000	50-100000	100-500000	>500000	Total
							Size of town				
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	32	34	35	39	68	90	62	288	648
		% within Size of town	39,0%	37,8%	43,2%	37,5%	41,5%	45,2%	39,7%	38,3%	39,8%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	18	25	23	24	41	49	33	185	398
		% within Size of town	22,0%	27,8%	28,4%	23,1%	25,0%	24,6%	21,2%	24,6%	24,4%
	High degree of social capital	Count	31	31	23	40	55	59	60	273	572
		% within Size of town	37,8%	34,4%	28,4%	38,5%	33,5%	29,6%	38,5%	36,3%	35,1%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	6	10
		% within Size of town	1,2%	,0%	,0%	1,0%	,0%	,5%	,6%	,8%	,6%
Total		Count	82	90	81	104	164	199	156	752	1628
		% within Size of town	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.1.12 Employment status - Social capital index

The degree of social capital categories * Employment status Crosstabulation

			Employment status					
			Full time employee (30 hours a week or more)	Part time employee (less than 30 hours a week)	Retired	Student	Unemployed	Total
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	239	84	170	17	136	646
		% within Employment status	33,5%	34,6%	48,2%	29,8%	53,3%	39,9%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	189	60	68	23	53	393
		% within Employment status	26,5%	24,7%	19,3%	40,4%	20,8%	24,2%
	High degree of social capital	Count	280	97	113	17	65	572
		% within Employment status	39,3%	39,9%	32,0%	29,8%	25,5%	35,3%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	5	2	2	0	1	10
		% within Employment status	,7%	,8%	,6%	,0%	,4%	,6%
Total		Count	713	243	353	57	255	1621
		% within Employment status	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.1.13 Sex– Social capital index categories

Sex * The degree of social capital categories Crosstabulation

			The degree of social capital categories				
			Very low degree of social capital	Low degree of social capital	High degree of social capital	Very high degree of social capital	Total
Sex	Male	Count	302	197	291	6	796
		% within The degree of social capital categories	46,5%	49,5%	50,8%	60,0%	48,8%
	Female	Count	347	201	282	4	834
		% within The degree of social capital categories	53,5%	50,5%	49,2%	40,0%	51,2%
Total		Count	649	398	573	10	1630
		% within The degree of social capital categories	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.2 Australian – The Second Survey

8.3.2.1 Education - Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Education	Between Groups	(Combined)	28040,793	5	5608,159	15,911	,000
	Within Groups		260825,915	740	352,467		
	Total		288866,709	745			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,312	,097

8.3.2.2 Political view – Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Political view	Between Groups	(Combined)	12297,496	9	1366,388	3,682	,000
	Within Groups		261644,898	705	371,128		
	Total		273942,395	714			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Political view	,212	,045

8.2.2.3 Political interest – social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Interested in politics	Between Groups	(Combined)	5376,899	3	1792,300	4,710	,003
	Within Groups		283900,048	746	380,563		
	Total		289276,947	749			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Interested in politics	,136	,019

8.3.2.4 Size of town – Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Size of town	Between Groups	(Combined)	10022,442	7	1431,777	3,802	,000
	Within Groups		269977,642	717	376,538		
	Total		280000,084	724			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Size of town	,189	,036

8.3.2.5 Employment status - Social capital index

ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
The degree of social capital * Education	Between Groups	(Combined)	28040,793	5	5608,159	15,911	,000
	Within Groups		260825,915	740	352,467		
	Total		288866,709	745			

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
The degree of social capital * Education	,312	,097

8.3.2.6 Sex – Social capital index

Group Statistics

	Sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
The degree of social capital	male	352	37,40	19,894	1,060
	female	400	37,32	19,469	,973

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
The degree of social capital	Equal variances assumed	,649	,421	,057	750	,955	,082	1,437	-2,740	2,903
	Equal variances not assumed			,057	733,575	,955	,082	1,439	-2,744	2,907

8.3.2.7 Age – Social capital index

Correlations

		The degree of social capital	Age
The degree of social capital	Pearson Correlation	1	-,005
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,896
	N	755	752
Age	Pearson Correlation	-,005	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,896	
	N	752	1364

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,005[a]	,000	-,001	19,663

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	37,591	2,211		17,000	,000
	Age	-,006	,043	-,005	-,131	,896

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

8.3.2.8 Political view – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Political view Crosstabulation

			Political view										Total
			Left	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Right	
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	8	4	15	21	145	18	14	23	5	12	265
		% within Political view	40,0%	28,6%	26,3%	35,0%	49,3%	23,7%	21,2%	44,2%	25,0%	40,0%	38,5%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	6	2	9	13	57	22	20	5	6	7	147
		% within Political view	30,0%	14,3%	15,8%	21,7%	19,4%	28,9%	30,3%	9,6%	30,0%	23,3%	21,3%
	High degree of social capital	Count	6	8	33	26	91	36	32	24	9	11	276
		% within Political view	30,0%	57,1%	57,9%	43,3%	31,0%	47,4%	48,5%	46,2%	45,0%	36,7%	40,1%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
		% within Political view	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,1%
Total		Count	20	14	57	60	294	76	66	52	20	30	689
		% within Political view	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.2.9 Political interest – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Political interest Crosstabulation

			Political interest				
			Not at all interested	Not very interested	Somewhat interested	Very interested	Total
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	45	86	112	37	280
		% within The degree of social capital categories	16,1%	30,7%	40,0%	13,2%	100,0%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	22	61	51	23	157
		% within The degree of social capital categories	14,0%	38,9%	32,5%	14,6%	100,0%
	High degree of social capital	Count	23	78	139	44	284
		% within The degree of social capital categories	8,1%	27,5%	48,9%	15,5%	100,0%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	1	1	0	2
		% within The degree of social capital categories	,0%	50,0%	50,0%	,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	90	226	303	104	723
		% within The degree of social capital categories	12,4%	31,3%	41,9%	14,4%	100,0%

8.3.2.10 Education - Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Education Crosstabulation

			Education						Total
			Incomplete primary school	Complete primary school	Incomplete secondary school	Complete secondary school	Some university-level education, without degree	University - level education, with degree	
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	6	18	53	85	85	36	279
		% within Education	54.5%	69,2%	53,0%	46,7%	38,8%	19,9%	38,8%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	3	4	28	35	48	37	155
		% within Education	27,3%	15,4%	28,0%	19,2%	21,9%	20,4%	21,6%
	High degree of social capital	Count	2	4	19	62	86	106	283
		% within Education	18.2%	15,4%	19,0%	34,1%	39,3%	58,6%	39,4%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
		% within Education	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,1%	,3%
Total		Count	11	26	100	182	219	181	719
		% within Education	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.2.11 Size of town – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Size of town Crosstabulation

			2,000 and less	2,000-5,000	5,000-10,000	10,000-20,000	20,000-50,000	50,000-100,000	100,000-500,000	500,000 and more	Total
							Size of town				
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	17	23	16	10	48	30	36	91	271
		% within Size of town	34,7%	48,9%	38,1%	16,4%	52,2%	42,3%	45,6%	35,3%	38,8%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	11	7	8	16	18	19	20	50	149
		% within Size of town	22,4%	14,9%	19,0%	26,2%	19,6%	26,8%	25,3%	19,4%	21,3%
	High degree of social capital	Count	21	17	18	35	26	22	23	115	277
		% within Size of town	42,9%	36,2%	42,9%	57,4%	28,3%	31,0%	29,1%	44,6%	39,6%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
		% within Size of town	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,8%	,3%
Total		Count	49	47	42	61	92	71	79	258	699
		% within Size of town	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.3.2.12 Employment status - Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Employment status Crosstabulation

			Employment status					
			Full time employee (30 hours a week or more)	Part time employee (less than 30 hours a week)	Retired	Student	Un-employed	Total
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	132	36	68	1	43	280
		% within Employment status	36,4%	33,6%	40,2%	12,5%	55,8%	38,7%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	77	25	39	1	14	156
		% within Employment status	21,2%	23,4%	23,1%	12,5%	18,2%	21,5%
	High degree of social capital	Count	153	45	62	6	20	286
		% within Employment status	42,1%	42,1%	36,7%	75,0%	26,0%	39,5%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	1	1	0	0	0	2
		% within Employment status	,3%	,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,3%
Total		Count	363	107	169	8	77	724
		% within Employment status	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

93

8.3.2.13 Sex – Social capital index categories

The degree of social capital categories * Sex Crosstabulation

			Sex		Total
			male	female	
The degree of social capital categories	Very low degree of social capital	Count	133	148	281
		% within Sex	38,9%	38,4%	38,7%
	Low degree of social capital	Count	72	86	158
		% within Sex	21,1%	22,3%	21,7%
	High degree of social capital	Count	136	150	286
		% within Sex	39,8%	39,0%	39,3%
	Very high degree of social capital	Count	1	1	2
		% within Sex	,3%	,3%	,3%
Total		Count	342	385	727
		% within Sex	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

8.4 Multivariate regression results

8.4.1 The values of the dummy variables

Employment status dummy 1: Full time employee (30 hours a week or more)

Employment status dummy 2: Part time employee (less than 30 hours a week)

Employment status dummy 3: Retired

Employment status dummy 4: Student

8.4.2 Australian – The First Survey

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,337[a]	,113	,109	18,810

a. Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	67332,354	8	8416,544	23,788	,000ᵃ
	Residual	526121,467	1487	353,814		
	Total	593453,821	1495			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

b. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	14,667	2,698		5,437	,000
	Employment status: *Full-time employee*	4,430	1,378	,109	3,215	,001
	Employment status: *Part-time employee*	5,808	1,700	,103	3,418	,001
	Employment status: *Retired*	1,214	1,551	,025	,783	,434
	Employment status: *Student*	3,169	2,824	,029	1,122	,262
	Political interest	4,542	,557	,210	8,155	,000
	Size of town	-,205	,223	-,023	-,920	,358
	Education	1,757	,270	,176	6,501	,000
	Political view	-,066	,277	-,006	-,239	,811

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

8.4.3 Australian – The Second Survey

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,318ᵃ	,101	,090	18,776

a. Predictors: Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	26584,846	8	3323,106	9,427	,000[a]
	Residual	236545,037	671	352,526		
	Total	263129,883	679			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Political Interest, Employment status: *Part-time employee*, Size of town, Political view, Employment status: *Student*, Employment status: *Retired*, Education, Employment status: *Full-time employee*

b. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	8,751	4,635		1,888	,059
	Political interest	1,972	,843	,088	2,340	,020
	Employment status: *Full-time employee*	7,091	2,430	,180	2,918	,004
	Employment status: *Part-time employee*	8,956	2,895	,163	3,094	,002
	Employment status: *Retired*	7,207	2,707	,152	2,662	,008
	Employment status: *Student*	17,238	7,023	,094	2,455	,014
	Political view	,424	,389	,040	1,090	,276
	Education	2,485	,366	,264	6,788	,000
	Size of town	-,353	,310	-,042	-1,137	,256

a. Dependent Variable: The degree of social capital

Appendix 8.4.3