

Institutional Trust in Contemporary Sweden

A Quantitative Study of Institutional Trust in Sweden over time.

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Abstract:

The Swedish social-democratic state has long been synonymous with a strong welfare system accompanied by high levels of trust. Lately, the Swedish population have demonstrated unease and dissatisfaction towards the Swedish state, and this trend seems to be more apparent amongst some specific socioeconomic and demographic groups. Previous research and theories have used trust as a measurement of the quality of democratic institutions. However, the relationship between institutions and trust has been mainly measured by generalised, interpersonal trust. In this thesis, we aim to study trust in institutions over time by conducting a timeline analysis, a cross-tabulation analysis, and a multivariate regression divided by the years 2010, 2015, and 2020. We use data from the SOM Institute cumulative national dataset to examine a potential correlation between institutional trust and the background variables consisting of age, gender, income, education, labour market situation, and country of origin. The background variables are based on Southwood and Standing's precarity theories and Putnam and Rothstein & Stolle's theories on trust. In line with previous research, we found that levels of institutional trust are lower amongst men about women, and those with lower education which persists with a decrease in trust over 2010, 2015, and 2020. The other variables showed non-significant results in the multivariate regression analysis. As the variables were chosen based on theory and previous research the relationship of institutional trust and the non-significant variables should be further researched. A mixed method of quantitative and qualitative methods and interaction terms of the background variables would be in place to fully grasp the structural dimension of trust.

Keywords:

Institutional trust, social capital, precarity, segregation, diversity, The Precariat, postmodernity, New Public Management, income, education, gender, country of origin, labour market situation, age, multivariate regression analysis, cross-tabulation analysis, timeline

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1. Introduction

Sweden has long been considered as a country consisting of a population with high trust. Swedish people are often described as having great trust and confidence in the government and other authorities. As Swedes ourselves, we would as often hear hearsay that because of this trait, we were in favour of testing new methods and products on. Since our trust in authorities was so high, we were eager to quickly learn and adapt to new systems. We do not know if this hearsay was, or is, true, however, for the last five to ten years a change of discourse has occurred.

In the media, Sweden is portrayed as a country in crisis, and with rising segregation and polarisation, as well as populist rhetoric, the level of trust seems to have decreased. The perception of decreasing trust among the Swedish population inspired us to conduct this study, where we statistically measure institutional trust and compare the assumed changes in trust over time between different social groups. We then analyse the data using theories on social capital and precarity to discuss possible explanations and underlying causes for the results.

1.1 Background

According to the Swedish Migration Agency, on the webpage called “Adapting to Swedish culture and society”, one of the most noticeable traits of the Swedish population is “a strong trust in the government and authorities” (Migrationsverket 2024). Esping-Andersen (1990) famously based his social-democratic ideal type on the Swedish welfare state. With a high degree of decommodification of different forms of welfare, such as healthcare, pensions- and unemployment insurance, Sweden seemed to possess the perfect conditions for equality, high living standards, and thus institutional trust (ibid.: 50).

However, there has been a shift in public discourse regarding Sweden and its inhabitants. The Swedish Public Service has reported that the trust in political parties has decreased since 2015 (SVT 2022). The decreasing level of trust has been most present in socioeconomically vulnerable and segregated areas (Tillitsbarometern 2021: 11). Since the migration crisis in 2015, where over 160,000 asylum seekers came to Sweden, segregation in certain areas has increased (Moore 2016). Sweden’s migration policy changed drastically to a more conservative one in the aftermath of 2015, as such Sweden’s identity as a welcoming and inclusive welfare state was questioned (Ciesnik 2023).

In addition, the rise of populism in all of Europe has led to an increase in polarisation, which could explain a decline in political stability and security, which in turn presupposes

lower levels of institutional trust. In Sweden specifically, the populist political party called the Sweden Democrats (SD) entered parliament in the election of 2010. With the most support from men, elders and the less educated the Sweden Democrats were the third largest party by 2014, they now have the second most voters in parliament (Sjöström 2023: 1; Statistikmyndigheten 2021). It is, however, not only populism and polarisation that has led to Sweden losing its credibility as a stable and confidence-inspiring social-democratic welfare state, public management reform could also be to blame. With the spread of neoliberal ideals and New Public Management (NPM), the once de-commodified welfare system was majorly privatised and now caters to the majority and not the vulnerable groups that depend on welfare to a higher degree (Lapidus 2019: 2).

During the past two years, there have been many indications of growing dissatisfaction and unrest among the Swedish population. An increase in violent crimes during the ongoing gang wars has led to Sweden being perceived as an unsafe country, as well as Swedish inhabitants presenting a lack of confidence in the Swedish government, and its juridical system (Savage 2023). Since 2019, a campaign against Swedish social services has developed in vulnerable areas nationwide. During the so-called “LVU-campaign”, disinformation regarding the compulsory care of children accelerated quickly on social media. Furthermore, the trust in social services among the Muslim population in Sweden seemed to be at an all-time low (Ranstorp & Ahlerup 2023).

The mechanisms behind the LVU-campaign are what inspired us to explore institutional trust among different groups and have been the starting point for this study. During this study, the focus has shifted towards trust in governing bodies overall. As the Swedish population has historically been known to be one of the most trusted countries in the world, we would like to explore the levels of trust over time. In light of the growing polarisation, segregation, populism, increasing criminality rates, and the spread of the LVU-campaign - we would like to examine the differences in institutional trust between social groups.

1.2 Purpose & Research Question

The purpose of this study is to examine the correlation between institutional trust and different socioeconomic, and demographic factors in Sweden, as well as explore if there have been any changes over time. These relationships will be assessed and discussed using theories on institutional trust, social capital, segregation, precarity, and postmodernity. The relationship between institutional trust and the current state of Swedish democracy will be studied statistically in both a bivariate cross-tabulation analysis and a multivariate regression analysis using the SOM institute's national cumulative dataset. We will discuss our findings based on the following research question:

- How has the level of institutional trust in Sweden changed over time?
 - What could possibly explain these changes?
- Which socioeconomic or demographic groups have experienced an increase, or a decrease, in institutional trust over time?
 - What could possibly explain the differences in these groups?

Based on our own presumptions and different media reports, we have further formulated four hypotheses based on the research questions. This study aims to either confirm or reject these hypotheses:

- Hypothesis 1: *Institutional trust has decreased in Sweden over time.*
- Hypothesis 2: *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds.*
- Hypothesis 3: *Over time, groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds have differed regarding institutional trust.*
- Hypothesis 4: *Young men with lower socioeconomic status are more likely to present low levels of institutional trust.*

2. Previous Research

2.1 New Public Management & Trust

Institutions are dependent on the decisions of government and parliament and are therefore everchanging. To fully understand trust in institutions, it is of high importance to also understand the workings of institutions. Pollitt & Bouckart (2016) have contributed insightful research on the consequences of public management reforms, and more specifically New Public Management (NPM), in different states, including Sweden. Public management reforms are described to have changed in three waves during the last 70 years. The second and third waves, which took place in the 1990s and onwards, are most relevant to this study. These reforms are said to be characterised by “governance”, “joined-up government”, “trust” and “transparency” (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2016: 7). With increasing globalisation in the 21st century and “rising political awareness”, institutional trust was perceived to decrease by Western governments, and they seemed to believe that, to restore the lost trust, more transparency in politics and public management was needed (ibid.: 8).

Pollitt & Bouckart (2016: 146) claim that the general perception of a decreased level of trust in the Western world may not be accurate. Trust is difficult to measure as it can carry different meanings at different times. The statistics included in their study suggest that trust levels in Sweden increased between 1997 and 2002 (ibid.: 147). Pollitt & Bouckart further suggest that it is unrealistic to believe that the idea of increased transparency is going to lead to increased trust since it requires that information regarding public management performance reach the citizens, exceed their expectations, and be understood and trusted by them (ibid.: 148).

These questionable attempts of using transparency to re-invoke trust in the state have led to what Bornemark calls “evaluation crowding”¹ and “inflated documentation”² of public management (Bornemark 2020: 117, 124) Bornemark claims that there has been a “shift in purpose”³ amongst public servants, where the main focus today is on administration for transparency instead of the core function of the respective organisations. The increase in administrative work is constituted by the government’s lack of confidence in professionals, such as doctors, teachers, and social workers (ibid.: 94). When, for example, the health care services strive to be as standardised as possible, it creates a situation where people who do not fit the template for an ideal patient will not receive health care (Bornemark 2020: 123). The

¹ Authors’ own translation.

² Authors’ own translation.

³ Authors’ own translation.

shift in focus of the public operations often decreases the quality of the services received by the general public which could be a cause for a loss of institutional trust among the public. Trust is comparable to confidence, and confidence in politics and administrative authorities is needed to create a collective functioning society (ibid.: 99).

2.2 Segregation & Trust

Sweden has historically been regarded as a prominent example of a country with high institutional trust. Although, as of lately there are tendencies of eroding trust in both political institutions and society at large. The once-defined Swedish stable welfare state has undergone a major political-economic shift where the welfare recipients of the past are now seen more as welfare exploiters. Sweden as an inclusive nation seems to now act excluding, which is further clear regarding a now stricter migration policy. It is Sweden's strong welfare state and its identity as a nation of a humanitarian nature that usually has been paired together with "the Nordic gold", trust (Andreasson 2017: 8-11). We have turned to other scholars' previous research to conceptualise and create a framework for understanding how the discrepancy regarding trust has come about.

With large migration flows, a society is bound to become more diverse. In a meta-analysis of a total of 87 different studies on trust, Dinesen, Schaffer and Sønderskov (2020: 457-8) present an overall negative correlation between trust and diversity. Consistent results for all studies show a negative correlation between trust and ethnic diversity. Dinesen et al. (2020: 460-1) emphasise that the reader should not interpret their results as evidence that higher diversity erodes trust and urges other researchers to study whether it is the diversity that affects trust or if diversity rather is a placeholder for other "hidden" variables.

The relationship between trust and diversity is problematised by Uslaner (2009) who statistically studied the relationship between segregation and trust in comparison with diversity and trust. Uslaner intends to closely study four countries, two highly segregated: the US and Canada, and two low segregated: Sweden and the UK (Uslaner 2009: 6). Sweden, here exemplified as a country with low levels of segregation, is then problematised as that of a society where "segregation has been increasing: Segregation increased sharply--by a factor greater than 50 percent--in Stockholm from 1970 to 1990" (ibid.).

Furthermore, the "measure of group segregation [...] is significantly (and negatively) related to trust at the country level" (Uslaner 2009: 7, 16). To test the robustness of segregation contra diversity, Uslaner presents an interaction of segregation and diversity,

which gave similar results as for segregation alone. Segregation therefore seems to be a more suitable variable to examine trust, and Uslaner's results suggest that trust is negatively correlated, and statistically significant, with degrees of segregation (2009: 16). Segregation, especially residential segregation, is further correlated with measures of inequality; this relationship is lacking in interactions with measures for diversity where "diversity [...] reflects poverty, segregation [reflects] inequality" (Uslaner 2009: 17).

Andrea Tesei (2015: 2, 7) provides further evidence for the relationship between segregation and trust, more specifically the relationship between income inequality between racial groups and trust. Tesei (2015) argues that trust is usually lower in areas with greater racial fragmentation and extensive income inequality. Racial fragmentation as an independent variable does not correlate with trust in itself, however, in interaction with variables that measure income inequality racial fragmentation gains a statistically significant result for levels of social trust (ibid.: 19). As such, there seems to be a significant correlation between racial fragmentation (segregation), income inequality, and trust.

A relationship between trust and inequality is further found in Holmberg & Rothstein's (2022) summary report of the results of the national cumulative SOM institute dataset. Holmberg & Rothstein (2022: 153, 158) find that generalised trust has declined over time in groups of people with low levels of education, the unemployed, young people, people in bad health, and those who receive welfare measures. Hence, there seems to be a disagreement on whether societal issues or processes influence trust which indicates the need for further research regarding institutional trust.

3. Relevant Theory

3.1 Institutional Trust and Social Capital Theory

This thesis studies the *institutional trust* of Sweden's inhabitants using theories on *generalised trust* as research suggests that the two are highly correlated (Rönnerstand & Solevid 2021: 116). We employ Robert Putnam's, as well as Rothstein & Stolle's, understanding of the workings of social capital to answer our research questions:

- *How has the level of institutional trust in Sweden changed over time?*
 - *What could possibly explain these changes?*

- *Which socioeconomic or demographic groups have experienced an increase, or a decrease, in institutional trust over time?*
 - *What could possibly explain the differences in these groups?*

3.1.1 Generalised Trust and Social Capital

Trust is often described as the lubricant for a well-functioning democracy. Without trust in one another, there is a lack of motivation to cooperate in creating good and stable democratic institutions (Rönnerstand & Solevid 2021: 115, 117; Putnam 1994: 170). Many scholars have proven that there is a correlation between what is believed to be indicators of strong democracies and generalised trust, "the belief that most people can be trusted" (Uslaner 2000-2001: 573; Dinesen et al. 2022: 1-2). Moreover, a society with high levels of generalised trust "ease[s] the way toward getting people to work together to make their communities and the larger society a better place" (Uslaner 2000-2001: 572). The willingness to participate in society could hence be seen as a measurement of the state of democracy.

Generalised trust in relation to community is moreover presented as a foundation for social capital, described as shared "social networks and the associated norm of reciprocity" (Putnam 1994: 169; Putnam 2001: 31). Social capital is thereby a term that describes an individual possession of numerous social ties within different types of communities. Furthermore, generalised trust and social capital are essential for well-functioning democracies. Research has shown that "social capital [has] salutary effects on individuals, communities, or even entire nations" (Putnam 2001: 293). Putnam continues to illustrate the meaning of social ties for a working democracy in his study of Italy and states that once

shared norms and networks are developed, individuals can build institutional arrangements (Putnam 1994: 169). Putnam concludes that:

[S]ocial trust has long been a key ingredient in the ethos that has sustained economic dynamism and government performance. Cooperation is often required—between legislature and executive, between workers and managers, among political parties, between the government and private groups, among small firms, and so on. Trust lubricates cooperation. (Putnam 1994: 170).

The importance of cooperation is clear regarding the political institutions of interest in our study such as political parties, legislatures, and government. Cooperation and social capital are further distinguished in regard to *contact* and *conflict* theory (Putnam 2007). According to Putnam, social capital and social trust have been thought to either emerge from contact or in conflict with others. In meeting and being in contact with others, trust is built, according to contact theory, while conflict theory suggests that a group's inner trust is strengthened by its differences and conflicts with other groups (Putnam 2007: 143). Although contact and conflict theory is more suitable on a more general and local level, cooperation on all levels is dependent on people's contact with each other, including institutions. We are primarily interested in contact theory regarding Rothstein & Stolle's findings on how trust is built from contact with the bureaucrats of institutions. The next section, 3.1.2 Generalised Trust and Institutions, presents our theory on how political institutions and trust are correlated in the use of Rothstein & Stolle.

3.1.2 Generalised Trust and Institutions

As stated, Putnam exemplifies how participation in networks, communities, and associations are correlated with what is usually classified as functioning democracies and institutions. Where Putnam believes that participation and good ties within the local communities could create or be created by generalised trust, Rothstein & Stolle (2008) states that:

[T]he role of the state [is] a source of social capital generation. States, for example, enable the establishment of reliable contracts between citizens in that they provide information and monitor legislation about contracts, and enforce rights and rules that sanction lawbreakers, protect minorities and actively support the integration and participation of citizens. (Rothstein & Stolle 2008: 7).

States are here rather seen as fundamental for a functioning social contract as well as the creation of social capital. Hence, what Rothstein & Stolle believe postulated the other differs from Putnam, states.

Rothstein & Stolle highlight the importance that “institutions do what they are supposed to do in a fair, reasonably efficient and unbiased manner” in building trust (Rothstein & Stolle 2008: 10). This is especially relevant for institutions with the task of law and order as their responsibility is to punish those who work against the common good. Trust in fair institutions could therefore presuppose a generalised trust as these “rotten eggs” of society are held accountable by the street-level bureaucrats of said institutions (ibid.: 6, 10). In the use of Rothstein & Stolle’s argument for the importance of generalised trust in bureaucrats’ law and order institutions, we argue that institutions such as “the government” and “the parliament” can and should be seen as the utmost symbol of a nation’s system for law and order (ibid.: 9). In line with previous research and our hypothesis, we believe that trust in institutions and segregation of all sorts might make the direction of trust more clear.

3.1.3 Theory Regarding Segregation & Trust

As mentioned in 2.1 Segregation and Trust, ethnic diversity and trust seem to correlate negatively, especially in neighbourhoods of high ethnic diversity (Rönnerstrand & Solevid 2021: 117-8; Putnam 2007: 152-3; Dinesen et al. 2022). However, in areas of a more equal distribution of welfare services, levels of trust seem to increase again (Kumlin & Rothstein 2010: 76; Rönnerstrand & Solevid: 118). The stronger the state of welfare services with an even distribution of services, the higher the levels of trust.

As the distribution of welfare services in a neighbourhood and a lack of trust seem to correlate, it once again seems as though systematic democratic institutions are the leading factor in creating trust. Tight-knit neighbourhoods seem to be of importance in the creation of social capital and social capital can therefore act as an indicator of the quality of democracies and institutions. Therefore social capital as generated by generalised trust, as well as generalised trust in itself, is used in this thesis as an indicator of the function of institutions in Sweden. As stated in 2.1 New Public Management, neoliberal changes in Swedish politics have changed the composition of institutional everyday work, the next section will further elaborate on contemporary institutions’ role for individuals regarding the prerequisites for trust.

3.2 Precarity in Postmodernity

As discussed in 2.2 New Public Management and Trust, in the era of postmodernity and late-stage capitalism, public management is reformed radically to meet the new standards of

time and cost efficiency, all the while being highly standardised. Sweden, which previously has been considered a social democratic state with a robust public welfare system, has undergone neoliberal changes to its organisational structures in all parts of the welfare state. This could be an underlying reason for the perceived changes in levels of institutional trust and thus is of interest to further discuss in this study.

3.2.1 Precarity - A New Culture

According to Sennett (2006), and Rosa (2013), Sweden's neoliberal changes are a symptom of a paradigm shift where a new culture has emerged. Sennett describes this as the "culture of the new capitalism" where individuals live fragmented lives, characterised by high volatility since "institutions no longer provide a long-term frame" (2006: 4). Since the 1990s, public institutions, such as healthcare providers, and schools, have taken on business-like characteristics and values of self-management (ibid.: 7-8). In this new culture, insecurity in the labour market has increased, thus creating "three deficits of structural change" that consist of "low institutional loyalty, diminishment of informal trust among workers, and weakening of institutional knowledge" (ibid.: 63). These tendencies of insecurity and low levels of trust are, according to Sennett, "programmed into the new institutional model" and "made to happen" to keep workers from making demands and organising (ibid.: 187). Rosa discusses Sennett's descriptions of the postmodern individual in *Social Acceleration, a New Theory of Modernity* and concludes that this liquid state of existence and valuing of neoliberal and capitalist ideals has led to both the "undermining of social trust" and the loosening of "bonds of trust and commitment" (Rosa 2013: 75).

Furthermore, scholars such as Bourdieu (1998), Standing (2011; 2014) and Southwood (2011) have all further explored the different consequences the new culture of flexibility and efficiency has had on different social groups. Bourdieu (1998) used the term precarity to describe the state of "job insecurity" in the labour market. In line with Sennett and Rosa, Bourdieu considers the loss of "temporal structures" as the main cause of human misery, as we lose our "relationship to the world, time and space" (Bourdieu 1998: 82). Workers are kept in uncertainty to create "a large reserve army" that allows employers to treat their employees as if they are easily replaced and make the competition for jobs increase; to have a job is a privilege, even if the working conditions are bad and exploitative (ibid.: 83-4). This "competition for work generate[s] a struggle of all against all, which destroys all the values of solidarity and humanity" (ibid.: 84).

3.2.2 Precarity, a Political Shift, and Commodification of Welfare

The people who are most affected by the precarious working conditions are the ones in what Standing calls the Precariat - the “new dangerous class”, who exist in a state of “chronic insecurity” (Standing 2014: 1). He claims that due to the increase of overall living standards, and the expansion of the middle class, politics and management now focus on finding structures and routines that work for the majority – the middle class. The individuals who do not fit into the mould of the majority are therefore often neglected and their rights get stripped away; they turn from citizens into denizens - second-class citizens, characterised as less than human (ibid.: 2). The combination of an insecure labour market situation and the lack of social safety nets provided by public institutions puts the Precariat in a state of anomie that could cause destructive behaviour as well as decreased social and institutional trust (ibid.: 32-4).

All the while, populist politics is on the rise, and the populist parties are gaining support by turning members of the Precariat against each other. Their most used tactic is the demonisation of socioeconomically vulnerable groups such as “migrants, welfare claimants, the disabled, [and] minorities” (Standing 2014: 93). These groups are aware of their position in relation to the majority, and often feel excluded from communities and neglected by the welfare system (ibid.: 387). Standing further argues that “[t]he Precariat experiences few trusting relationships, particularly through work. Throughout history, trust has evolved in long-term communities that have constructed institutional frameworks of fraternity” (Standing 2011: 37).

With the Fordist and fraternal structures of the labour market disappearing more and more in the 21st century, the working class, who previously considered themselves the backbone of society and consisted mostly of unionised men, has experienced considerable amounts of change in all aspects of their lives, both in, and outside of work (Southwood 2011; Standing 2011; 2014). This makes them the perfect candidates for the new right-wing populist parties to recruit. According to Southwood (2011) and Standing (2011; 2014), the working class has been replaced by the more fragmented Precariat and thereby lost its structures and agency. Southwood (2011) presents a spectrum of precarity and claims that this new social class cannot be considered to share common interests, since the stratification within the Precariat is almost as great as in the general society. Southwood explains that the people on the lower spectrum of the Precariat are often migrant workers, welfare recipients, or disabled people without a financial buffer. These groups are often dependent on public institutions

which explains that even “the most insignificant task or contact with the governmental bureaucracy can become a matter of life or death”⁴ (ibid.: 31).

Almost all public institutions have begun to commodify their services, and the general public is considered customers when receiving different forms of welfare (Southwood 2011: 21). The responsibility of the chronic insecurity is therefore placed on the individuals instead of on society and the government (ibid.: 68). This forced individualism is internalised by the Precariat and creates the feeling of hopelessness without having someone other than themselves to blame for it (ibid.: 73). Southwood (2011: 73) uses the metaphor of being a customer in a store that is heavily supervised when you know that you have not stolen anything, yet you cannot shake the feeling that the alarms will go off when you exit the store. This everyday feeling is then compared to how the Precariat feel when dealing with public institutions and social services, which could indicate a lack of trust - and instead a fear towards these institutions, which was rather apparent during the LVU-campaign (Uppdrag granskning 2024).

Southwood (2011: 17) explains how trends in public discourse also have consequences for the population’s feelings of safety and trust. The more politicians and government officials speak about security, the more insecure people tend to feel. The injustice and inequality that exist within the rules of society and the structures of public institutions are rarely reported by the media, which focuses on the most obvious forms of injustice, such as war and other cruelties (ibid.: 33). Southwood also discusses how the most precarious people are depicted in public discourse. They are often described as lacking trust and self-esteem all the while being aggressive and posing as a threat to the majority of society (ibid.: 81).

In this study, we will use and discuss the theoretical frameworks of Standing and Southwood when exploring the correlation between different socioeconomic factors and institutional trust and thereby choose independent variables based on their descriptions of the Precariat. Sennett, Rosa and Bourdieu are mostly used to present a relevant introduction and background to where Standing and Southwood derive their perceptions of postmodernity and insecurity.

⁴ Authors’ own translation.

4. Methods & Methodology

4.1 Data & Variables

4.1.1 The Dataset

In this thesis, we have used the SOM institute's, Gothenburg University, national cumulative dataset. The data set is made up of answers from the National SOM study in Sweden, described as:

[A]n annually repeated cross-sectional self-administered mail survey conducted in Sweden since 1986 [...]. The data contains a selection of questions frequently asked over the years, focusing on time series. A general rule is that questions should have been asked at least three times. (SOM Institute 2022: i).

The choice of the SOM institute's dataset was based on its extensive amount of data from numerous participants all over Sweden. This allowed us to research a large group of informants, hence being able to illustrate a general idea of the changes in institutional trust in Sweden (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 193). As we aim to research differences in trust over time, the SOM dataset is suitable as the data set has an extensive set of questions regarding trust in different institutions as well as trust in the bureaucrats of said institutions. As stated, it is trust in institutions over time in Sweden that is of special interest to this study. To examine institutional trust, we have created an index based on the variables for trust in several institutions (see *4.1.2 Index of Institutional Trust*).

The dataset also contains various variables regarding demographics and socioeconomics such as ethnicity, age, sex, income, education, employment status et cetera (SOM institute 2023: 841-931). We based our choices of independent variables on the part of what was available in the dataset and made further selections on variables dependent on the findings of previous research (Dinesen et al. 2020; Holmberg & Rothstein 2022). Regarding the choice of independent variables, see further under section *4.1.3 Independent Variables & Re-codes*.

4.1.2 Index of Institutional Trust

The SOM dataset includes 24 different variables for trust in different institutions. We have tested different measurements of institutional trust to make sure that the index can fully measure how we have chosen to interpret trust - and thereby help us reject or confirm our

hypothesis. The following table will present the extent of correlation, the Cronbach's alpha, between several different trust variables:

Table 1 - Test of index's, Cronbach's Alpha

	Cronbach's alpha	If item deleted
Index 1	0.521	
Medical services		0.423
Primary school		0.366
Public employment services		0.473
Index 2	0.674	
Police force		0.537
Courts		0.605
Security services		0.597
Index 3	0.826	
Government		0.777
National parliament		0.736
Municipality boards		0.826
Political parties		0.775
Index 4	0.840	
Government		0.822
National parliament		0.797
Eu commission		0.786
Eu parliament		0.791
Municipality boards		0.838
Index 5	0.870	
Government		0.858
National parliament		0.841
Eu commission		0.837
Eu parliament		0.840
Municipality boards		0.866
Political parties		0.840

We constructed Index 1 to test trust in institutions that are solely responsible for welfare services. As Sweden is, and has been, strongly associated with its stable public welfare system, we thought that the trust in these types of institutions and its change over time would be an interesting focus for this study. The Cronbach's alpha for an index should be above 0.7 to be considered reliable, the higher the Cronbach's alpha is the more likely it is that the variables included are measuring the same phenomenon and the respondents tend to generally give the same answer for each variable. However, when Cronbach's alpha reaches values of more than 0.9, the index is not considered useful anymore. The variables then risk measuring the same phenomena too much, it would be useful to only study each variable by itself and

there would be no need to compute an index (Djurfeldt & Barmark 2011: 100). As Cronbach's alpha for index 1 was as low as 0.521 (see Table 1) we chose to move on to other possible indexes for institutional trust.

Next, we wanted to test an index for trust in different institutions of law, in line with Rothstein and Stolle (2008: 6). The variables for law and order institutions were somewhat more correlated than those of welfare services, but Cronbach's alpha is still not high enough. We then examined the correlation of different political decision-making institutions and noticed a significant change in correlation. The Cronbach's alpha for the variables for these institutions is now of value to research further.

As no variable would improve Cronbach's alpha if the variable had been deleted and since they all measure different aspects of the political decision-making apparatus, we chose to include them all. We saw fit to include both Swedish decision-making institutions and the ones at EU-level to explore the highest and most global level of public institutions, as well as the lowest and most local level. We further tried to extract the variable for political parties to see what the result would be without it, since attitudes toward political parties might not measure the same tendencies in institutional trust, as the variables for government, parliament, and municipality boards. However, Index 5 shows that the inclusion of political parties in the reliability test even further increased Cronbach's alpha to a value of 0.870. Further regarding the EU parliament and commission, as globalisation and liberal democracy have become a sign of our times, we argue that the EU is also a variable of interest. All EU decisions have a direct effect on Swedish law and politics, thus impacting their population.

The variables in Index 5 include the variables; aa10a (trust in: the government), aa10e (trust in: the national parliament), aa10o (trust in: municipality boards), aa10q (trust in: political parties), aa10r (trust in: EU commission), aa10s (trust in: EU parliament) (SOM institute 2022: 8). All of the variable values follow the following nominal scale; 1 - Very high trust, 2 - Quite high trust, 3 - Neither high nor low trust, 4 - Quite low trust, 5 - Very low trust. We re-coded all variables included to go toward the other direction, the range then became 1 - very low trust to 5 - very high trust as it presents a more comprehensible result of a growing or descending trust, instead of a growing or descending mistrust. All variables also included four values (96, 97, 98, 99) that we re-coded as system missing and therefore excluded from the index.

4.1.3 Independent Variables & Re-codes

The independent variables used in this study are meant to represent relevant demographic and socioeconomic factors to explore how these could correlate to, or even cause, different levels of institutional trust. Based on our choice of theory, the groups of people that are considered to have low levels of social capital and therefore will, according to our hypothesis, have lower levels of institutional trust, are the members of the Precariat. Standing (2011; 2014) and Southwood (2011) both argue that those who tend to have precarious living standards are immigrants, people economically dependent on welfare, as well as disabled and young people; and consequently people with lower education and income.

The independent variables chosen are such that they indicate the respondent's socioeconomic status, income, education and employment status. To control these measurements of socioeconomics we also include demographic variables such as age and gender as these are suggested to have an impact on both living standards and levels of institutional trust. According to Putnam (2001), an individual's involvement in different voluntary organisations and activities is an indicator of their social capital, this could affect their levels of institutional trust. Putnam, amongst others, has time and time again proven a relationship between voluntary participation and trust, the direction of this relationship is however still unclear. Whether robust democratic institutions motivate participation or if participation makes better institutions is not defined. We have therefore chosen to test our hypothesis using variables that more clearly have an independent function that could affect the level of one's trust in institutions.

An individual's migration status could be seen as both a demographic and a socioeconomic factor. We have therefore chosen to use the variables "growupp", "growupf", and "growupm", describing the area or country of upbringing for the respondent themselves as well as their father and mother, which could determine if the respondent is a migrant of the first or second generation (SOM institute 2023: 897-8). These three variables are nominal, which is why we re-coded them into binary dummy variables. The possible answers were re-coded into two groups dividing the respondents who primarily grew up in Nordic countries from the ones in non-Nordic countries. The respondents with Nordic upbringing were given the value 0 and those with non-Nordic upbringing were given the value 1. When using dummy variables it is important to note that the regression coefficient for these variables in the multivariate analysis represents "how much higher the expected value of y is for those

who are coded as 1, compared to those coded as 0”⁵ (Djurfeldt & Barmark 2011: 110-1). This means that in the multivariate regression analysis, the non-Nordic respondents' level of trust is measured relatively to the Nordic ones.

This method was applied to the nominal variable “lmist” that describes the respondent’s current “labour market situation” (SOM institute 2023: 842-3). For this variable, the options “labour market policy measures/labour market training”, “unemployed”, “old age pensioner/early retirement contractual pensioner” - and “disability pensioner/early retirement pensioner” were given the value 1, the option “gainfully employed” was given the value 0, while “student” and “other/homeworker” were excluded from the variable. The variables measuring the level of education, “edu2” - and household income, “hinc5rel”, both have an ordinal scale with the options ranging from “low” or “very low” to “high” or “very high” (ibid.: 882-3, 889). The variable for gender was re-coded into a binary dummy variable where 1 equals “man” and 0 equals “woman/other” (ibid.: 905-6). Since the variable for age is measured with a ratio scale we did not re-code it, a fully quantitative scale can be analysed in regression by itself and does not need to be re-coded (ibid.: 906; Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 42). For all independent variables the option of “no response”, “several responses given”, or “question not asked” were re-coded into “system missing”, thus not included in the analysis. For all re-coded independent variables in their original form, see Appendix 2.

4.2 Statistics

4.2.1 Univariate Analysis

We began the study by conducting an univariate analysis where we present the frequencies of all variables used in our index of institutional trust (see Table 2). We did this as a kind of troubleshooting to see if there was any skewness in the variables before conducting the rest of the analysis (Djurfeldt & Barmark 2011: 26). In this univariate analysis we looked at the mean, median, and standard deviation of each variable as well as number of valid cases (see table 2). The data for these frequencies are accumulated from the years 1997 to 2021 meaning that we do not know how many valid cases there are for each individual year, which could be an issue in the timeline since the number of respondents between the years could vary vastly. For the multivariate analysis, we did however include the number of valid cases for the years 2010, 2015 and 2020 (see Appendix 4). Since these are the only years we chose to focus on, it seemed excessive to present data regarding valid cases for all years. The frequencies from the

⁵ Authors’ own translation.

complete index are also presented using a histogram with a normal distribution curve (see Graph 1).

We then moved on to create a timeline (see Graph 2) to see how the mean level of institutional trust fluctuates between the years 1997 and 2021. From this graph, we derive our selection of relevant years to use in the multivariate analysis, to create momentarily data that best represents the changes in institutional trust. The timeline also includes confidence intervals to represent the change in polarisation in the answers between the years. This graph is mainly used to confirm or reject Hypothesis 1: *Institutional trust has overall decreased in Sweden over time.*

4.2.2 Bivariate Analysis

Using the independent variables, we did multiple tests to see which socioeconomic and demographic factor has the greatest correlation to our index of trust. Our first intention was to do a bivariate regression analysis for each independent variable. However, since the majority of the variables are qualitative, and re-coded into binary ones, we instead did other tests to study the correlation, except the quantitative variable “age” with a ratio scale. First, we did a two-way independent t-test. We used our results in the t-test to decide which variables we wanted to further examine in a cross-tabulation analysis with an included Chi²-test.

An independent t-test compares and tests if the means of the variables included are different on a statistically significant level (Pallant 2020: 251-261). A difference in means shows that it is most likely to reject the null hypothesis for all four hypotheses. If there would not be a difference in means, the independent variables and the index for institutional trust would follow each other and there would not be any sign of a correlation of changes depending on either time or socioeconomic factors. The full SPSS output for the t-test is found in Appendix 4.

To further test the hypothesis, we tested our variables in a cross-tabulation as well as by a Chi² test. A cross-tabulation analysis is described by Djurfeldt et al. (2019: 142), as the most suitable method to research two qualitative variables and their relationship. As we researched the only variable on a ratio scale with a bivariate regression, all other variables were handled as ordinal against our also ordinal index. The Chi²-test allowed us to tell if there is any existing difference in the observed count that differs from the variables’ expected count to see if our results can be separated from randomness (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 148, 197). The count in question refers to the observed count of answers for each value within the variable contra the expected count of answers if there would not be any correlation. A difference in

observed and expected count is therefore indicative that we can reject the null hypothesis regarding Hypothesis 2; *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds* (H0: There is no difference between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds in their level of institutional trust) (ibid.: 216). However, to make sure that it is with certainty that we reject the null hypothesis, the significance level of the Chi²-test should be at least the first level. In our thesis, the Chi² significance is presented in the first row in Table 5 (for full SPSS-output, see Appendix 4).

4.2.3 Multivariate Analysis

Lastly, we conducted a multivariate regression analysis, using all of the dummy variables tested in the bivariate analysis to see how the independent variables' correlation with the trust index changed when tested against each other. A multivariate regression analysis is more suitable for handling several variables without losing sight of the bigger picture, a multivariate cross-tabulation analysis does not offer this to the same extent (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 325-6). As multivariate regression analysis is only possible for variables on a quantitative scale, we created dummy variables for all variables that were on a nominal scale (ibid.: 311, 324). We have presented our re-codes into dummy variables under *4.1.3 Independent variables and re-codes*.

We have chosen to present results in our multivariate analysis by more closely examining the R²-value, beta-coefficient, and confidence intervals. We looked at the R²-value, the determination coefficient calculated as the correlation coefficient r squared, to distinguish the share of the variance between the variables in our models that indicate a covariation (Djurfeldt & Barmark 2009: 56). To examine a potential linear relationship, we have presented results for the beta coefficient as well as the confidence intervals. The confidence intervals are presented on the 95% level and therefore show the variance for where 95% of the population have answered (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 65-67).

Furthermore, we used multiple regression to study a potential difference over time between groups of different social backgrounds. Based on our results in the univariate timeline over our index, we compare results from the years 2010, 2015, and 2020. A possible more appropriate method for a time analysis would be to conduct a time series analysis as it is the most appropriate to study changes over time (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 75). However, then the broad overview of results that a regression analysis offers would be lost (ibid.: 325-6).

4.3 Critical Reflections

Quantitative research is probably the broader methodological approach for a more positivistic view of the social sciences. This method is therefore often understood to be a more objective method in explaining the complex social reality. However, quantitative methods come with several limitations as they tend to miss out on an individual's subjectivity, nuance, and critical thinking that create the social realities in people's everyday lives.

Moreover, quantitative methods can, unlike qualitative methods, offer a representative result of a population and can therefore be more generalising than qualitative methods. However, our use of secondhand data from the SOM Institute survey is "dependent on the survey structure and the accuracy of answers provided by the respondents" (Quieros et al. 2017: 381). Our index of institutional trust is meant to measure a respondent's self-assessed trust. Already here we get the problem of "self-assessed" trust. Each of the respondents might have completely different ideas of how to define "trust", even more so in quantifying their "trust" on a one to five scale. The representative and objective character of quantitative methods can therefore be problematised. In contrast, a qualitative method made up of a combination of interviews and text-based analysis could provide a much better understanding of the respondent's trust, as well as contextualise their reasoning and thinking. The mood of the respondent at the time of the survey or interview and its influence on the answer are hard to avoid, both for qualitative and quantitative methods.

The "objectivity" of quantitative research is not the only problem of our research as the number of valid cases dropped significantly throughout our process of analysis. Each of our three years chosen in the multivariate analysis contains roughly 1.500 valid cases respectively, compared to 67.000 valid cases for the univariate and bivariate analysis.

Moreover, our choice of independent variables might not have been fully applicable to our research questions. The variables for country of origin and labour market situation were both on a nominal scale and had about seven different values. We then coded the values within the variable after what we saw fit. The variables showed significant results along the lines of our previous research and theory in the bivariate analysis, however, regarding the multivariate regression analysis, the variables show non-significant. Hence, these variables may not have been suitable to research linearly as these had to be re-coded into dummy variables to be included in the multivariate analysis. The fact that the variables showed a good enough t-value in the bivariate analysis, as well as being supported by previous research and

theory, motivated us to still have the variables in consideration in our concluding discussion, *6.1 Summary and Discussion*.

In addition, we aim to study the correlation between several independent variables, consistent with the background information of the respondent, and their relationship with institutional trust. A possible correlation that appears as significant could be indicative of a representative result, however, there is no guarantee that an apparent “association between two variables could potentially be explained by a third variable” (ibid.: 381-2). In an attempt to lower the risk of an illusory correlation, we have tried to be as thorough as possible in our analysis.

As stated, a qualitative method might seem more suitable for our thesis. Although, regarding the purpose of the study, “to examine the correlation between institutional trust and different socioeconomic, and demographic factors in Sweden, as well as explore if there have been any changes over time” a statistical analysis is a more appropriate choice. A quantitative method allows the findings of our study to be indicative of a generalisable result. We are not mainly interested in the respondent’s *experience* of institutional trust. We neither have interest to explore changes over time by measurement of quantifiable variables of years and not the *perceived* change over time. Although, the experience and perceived social reality of the respondent would be interesting to study regarding a nuanced analysis of the quantitative results, see *6.2 Suggestions for Further Research* for further discussion.

5. Results & Analysis

5.1 Univariate Analysis

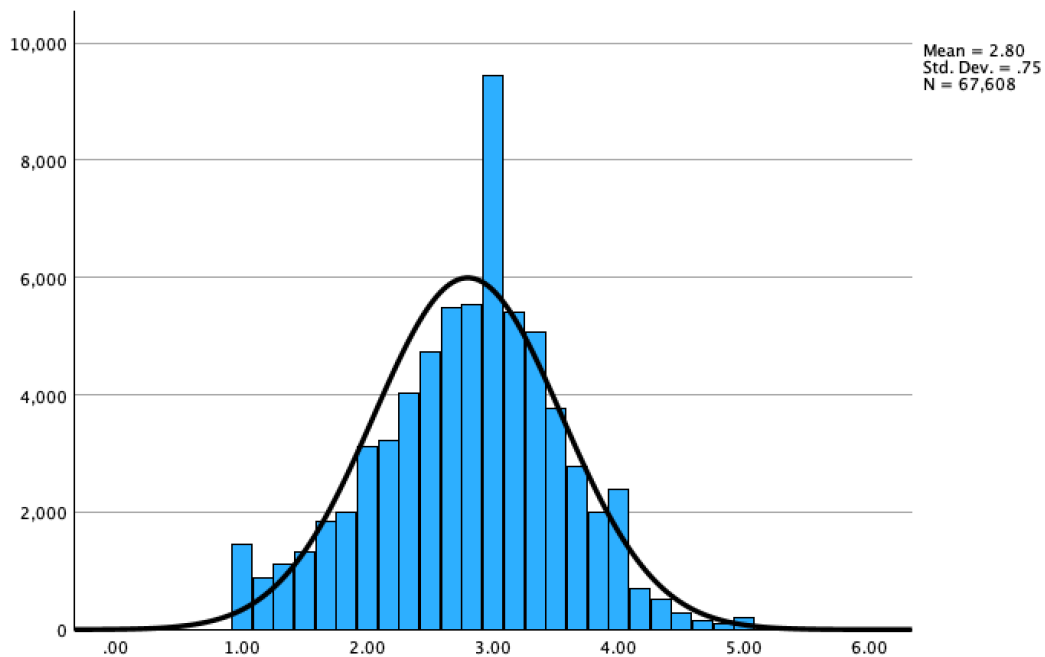
5.1.1. Index

The variables used in the index measuring institutional trust all have a mean of about 2.58 to 3.04 (see Table 2). The mean is consistently lower than 3.0 for all variables except for *Trust in: the Government* and *Trust in: the Parliament* which indicates that trust in the EU Commission and Parliament is generally lower among the respondents, compared to the domestic institutions. Moreover, the standard deviation is the highest for *Trust in: the Government* at 1.07 which indicates a greater variety, therefore a possible polarisation, in those answers compared to the other variables. The response frequency is higher in the questions regarding domestic politics on a governmental level and lower in the questions regarding politics at the local and EU level which could be explained by a lack of either interest or a feeling of distance and less understanding of EU politics. These variables are however very similar in their distributions as discussed in 4.1.2 *Index of Institutional Trust*, and therefore have the same function in representing the respondent's level of trust in institutions in the index.

Table 2 - Test of index, Cronbach's Alpha

	Median	Mean	Std. deviation	Valid cases	Cumulative procent
<i>Trust in: the Government</i>	3.0	3.01	1.07	112 007	
Very low trust				11 849	10,60%
Low trust				21 487	29,80%
Neither low nor high trust				38 969	64,60%
High trust				33 021	94,0%
Very high trust				6 281	100%
<i>Trust in: the Parliament</i>	3.0	3.04	0.97	91 292	
Very low trust				7 123	7,80%
Low trust				15 790	25,10%
Neither low nor high trust				38 498	67,30%
High trust				25 840	95,60%
Very high trust				4 041	100%
<i>Trust in: the Municipality Boards</i>	3.0	2.84	0.90	77 584	
Very low trust				6 493	8,40%
Low trust				17 425	30,80%
Neither low nor high trust				37 126	78,70%
High trust				15 019	98,0%
Very high trust				1 521	100%
<i>Trust in: the Political Parties</i>	3.0	2.70	0.91	94 384	
Very low trust				10 902	11,60%
Low trust				24 211	37,20%
Neither low nor high trust				43 050	82,80%
High trust				15 057	98,80%
Very high trust				1 164	100%
<i>Trust in: the EU parliament</i>	3.0	2.57	0.99	71 122	
Very low trust				12 799	18,0%
Low trust				16 922	41,80%
Neither low nor high trust				30 627	84,90%
High trust				9 491	98,20%
Very high trust				1 283	100%
<i>Trust in: the EU commission</i>	3.0	2.58	0.98	69 565	
Very low trust				12 107	17,40%
Low trust				16 921	41,70%
Neither low nor high trust				29 931	84,80%
High trust				9 347	98,30%
Very high trust				1 169	100%

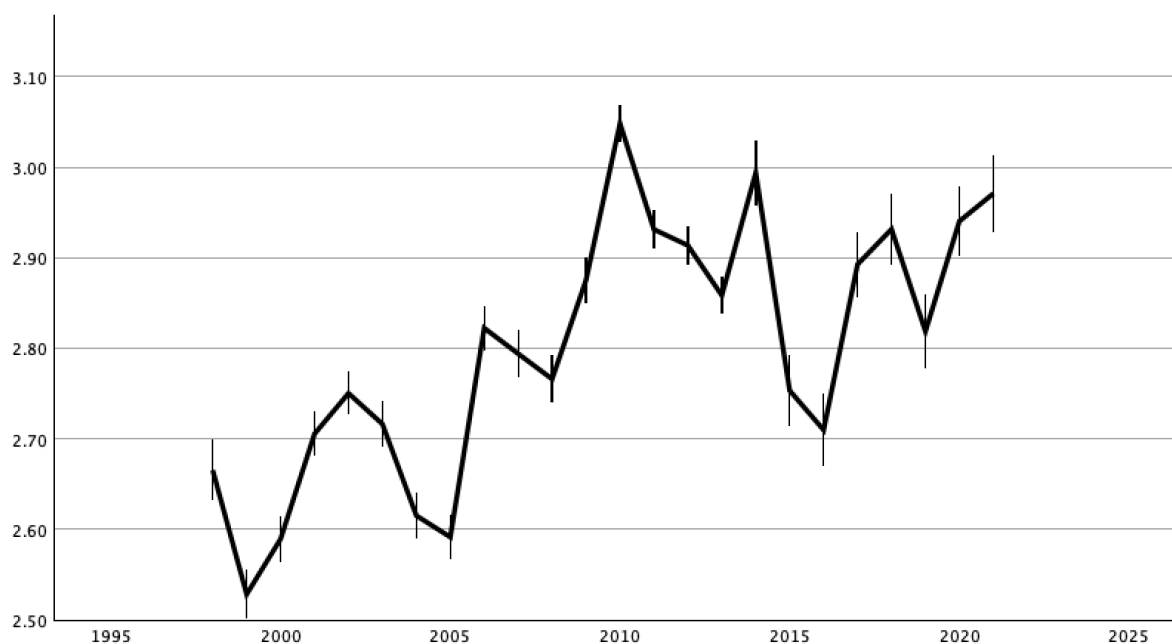
Regarding the complete index with all values computed, the accumulated frequency in answers for the index follows the curve of a normal distribution with an exception for option 3 “neither high nor low trust” with an answer frequency closer to 10.000 respondents (see *Graph 1*). The mean is 2.8 and the standard deviation is 0.75 which gives a range between 2.05 and 3.55, respondents therefore continue to have a rather low to medium level of trust in institutions. The index contains 67.608 respondents, hence being a population that we consider is large enough to study further.



Graph 1 - Histogram, Answer Frequency Trust in Institutions Index

5.1.2 Timeline

In the timeline presented below (Graph 2) we present the change in levels of institutional trust to examine Hypothesis 1 - *Institutional trust has overall decreased in Sweden over time*. The timeline is based on the mean of our index over institutional trust, ranging from 1997-2021. In the timeline, there are error bars on the 95% level representing the confidence intervals where 95% of the population's answers lie (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 117). The error bars differ quite strongly between the years and consistently grow larger. The increased distance between the lower and upper bound confidence intervals could represent a trend of increased polarisation regarding institutional trust, which aligns with Holmberg & Rothstein (2022) as well as Southwood (2011) and Standing (2011; 2014) and will be discussed further throughout our analysis.



Graph 2 - Timeline of Trust in Institutions Index

Social trust has been quite high since 1997 and our index over institutional trust seems to have an overall increase during the period of interest. The levels of increased institutional trust are interesting in themselves. Nevertheless, analysis of changes between separate years is just as interesting to us. Since the highest point in 2010, there has been an overall decrease with the greatest plummet between 2014 and 2016.

The plummet and the increasing confidence intervals both align with the 2015 migration crisis, thus so far supporting Hypothesis 1: *Institutional trust has decreased in Sweden over time*, at least since 2010. The increasing error bars give us reason to believe that effects on institutional trust might correlate with an increasing polarisation, whether this is a coincidence or not is a matter for further testing.

While Hypothesis 1 is somewhat problematised in regard to changes from 1997 onwards, Hypotheses 2 and 3 still seem to hold. The level of trust has had a greater variation between the years 2010 and 2020, the polarisation therefore seems to have increased in the same period. This data does not show what the polarisation might be a symptom of, it neither shows the difference between different socioeconomic and other demographic groups. We will now continue this study with a bivariate analysis exploring which factors might influence the respondent's level of institutional trust to then further examine the changes since 2010 with a multivariate regression analysis.

5.2 Bivariate Analysis

5.2.1 Bivariate regression analysis

We want to explore the relationship between levels of trust and demographic and socioeconomic factors. With guidance from previous research, we have chosen eight different independent variables; age, own country of origin, one's father or mother's country of origin, level of education, household income, labour market situation, and gender.

Since age is the only variable on a ratio scale, this is the only variable that we have analysed with a linear regression. Age as an independent variable is statistically significant, however, since the coefficient is zero there is no correlation between age and institutional trust (see *Table 3*). As young people have been identified as a group that has been issued a decreasing trust, the apparent non-correlation is somewhat surprising (Holmberg & Rothstein 2022: 135). However, our regression analysis shows age in correlation with our index overall and does not show a linear correlation over time. Yet, the null correlation on the all-embracing correlation has a very low R²-value (see *Table 3*), only acting explanatory for 1% of the full population (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 161).

Table 3 - Bivariate regression, age

	R	R2	Unstandardised B	Sig.
Age	.023	.001	.000	.001***

*=<0.05, **=<0.01, ***=<0.001

Holmberg & Rothstein did not examine the correlation between age and institutional trust, showing that age may be significantly correlated with social trust but not with our index of institutional trust. Furthermore, young people tend to be part of the Precariat more frequently than older people, however, not on the lower spectrum (Southwood 2011: 31, 86). Their position in the Precariat is also due to their economic standing in society with an often insecure labour market situation. This could mean that the socioeconomic variables will have a greater correlation with institutional trust since precarious living conditions are not exclusively related to any specific age group. Consequently, age as an independent variable in relation to institutional trust is not considered a variable of interest to study further.

5.2.2 t-Test

All variables except age have been tested with an independent sample t-test presented above (Pallant 2020: 252). Regarding the variable for the respondent's own country of origin, the mean score shows that there is a significant difference between the Nordic and non-Nordic respondents where the non-Nordic present a marginally lower level mean of institutional trust (see *Table 4*). The respondents with a non-Nordic parent, either mother or father, all have higher trust than the ones with parents of Nordic origin.

Table 4 - t-test

	Mean	t	Sig.	Sig. (2-tailed)
Yourself, Grow up in _ country	2.80	-6.53	.001***	.001***
<i>Nordic</i>	2.89			
<i>Non-Nordic</i>	2.79			
Father, Grow up in _ country	2.80	-5.17	.001***	.001***
<i>Nordic</i>	2.80			
<i>Non-Nordic</i>	2.85			
Mother, Grow up in _ country	2.80	-5.35	.001***	.001***
<i>Nordic</i>	2.79			
<i>Non-Nordic</i>	2.86			
Level of education	2.80	-41.14	.000***	.000***
<i>Low/medium</i>	2.71			
<i>High</i>	2.96			
Household income	2.79	-27.90	.001***	.001***
<i>Low/medium</i>	2.72			
<i>High</i>	2.89			
Labourmarket situation	2.80	9.181	.001***	.001***
<i>Employed</i>	2.82			
<i>Unemployed</i>	2.68			
Gender	2.80	18.82	.001***	.001***
<i>Woman</i>	2.85			
<i>Man</i>	2.74			

*=<0.05, **=<0.01, ***=<0.001

The result for the parent's origin contradicts the difference in mean score for the participants' origin, and we therefore question the suitability of these variables for our research. Yet, the

results show a high enough t-value and significance to assume that there is a difference of means within the population (Pallant: 254; Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 205). Compared to the other variables included, the t-value is relatively low for all three variables for origin, thereby we have chosen to not include these variables in the cross-tabulation analysis and neither test the relationships χ^2 (see *Table 5*). Despite that, we include them in the multivariate analysis as control variables (see *Table 6*).

Moreover, the means of the variable regarding the respondent's labour market situation follows the direction of Hypothesis 2: *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds*. It appears as though people who are unemployed or have insecure working conditions would have lower trust in institutions compared to those who are gainfully employed. The t-value for the labour market variable is one of the lowest in our t-test, and by our reasoning above for the country of origin variables, we have chosen to not include the labour market variable in the cross-tabulation analysis. Moreover, the variable regarding labour market situation will be included as a control variable in the multivariate analysis (see *Table 6*).

All included variables are significant on the third level. As the t-test is a two-way test and does not show what direction the relationship has, we want to further examine our research questions and hypothesis in a cross-tabulation with the accompanying χ^2 -test. All variables have a t-value above the critical value of $-2/+2$, although we are mostly interested in the variables with the most strikingly broad marginal (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 260-61). Therefore we have chosen to move further with the variables; level of education, household income and gender in the following section 5.2.3 *Cross-tabulation Analysis and χ^2 -test*.

5.2.3 *Cross-tabulation Analysis and χ^2 -test*

In the cross-tabulation below (*Table 5*) we have completed a χ^2 -test regarding the variables of household income, level of education, and gender. To examine the null hypothesis for Hypothesis 2 - *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds*, we have compared the observed frequencies in our sample with the expected frequencies. The expected frequencies show the expected number of answers for each value in our index if there would be no association between our index and the independent variables (Pallant 2019: 225). Based on the count of respondents for each observed count and expected count, we have calculated an odds ratio that is based on three statements (see fine print under *Table 5*).

Table 5 - Chi²-test

Sig. Degrees of freedom	Income			Education			Gender		
	.001*** 24		Odds ratio ^a	.001*** 24		Odds ratio ^b	.001*** 48		Odds ratio ^c
	Low/medium	High		Low/medium	High		Woman	Man	
<i>Very low trust</i>	1300		1:2.8	1409		1:4.4	1458		1:1.3
Count	954	346		1148	261		622	833	
Expected count	771.1	528.9		912.5	496.5		747.2	710	
<i>Low trust</i>	2882		1:1.9	3051		1:2.8	3125		1:1.1
Count	1886	996		2240	811		1472	1653	
Expected count	1709.5	1172.5		1975.9	1075.1		1601.6	1421.8	
<i>Neither low nor high trust</i>	8535		1:1.4	9204		1:2.0	9432		1:0.7
Count	5017	3518		6129	3075		5521	3906	
Expected count	5062.6	3472.4		5960.8	3243.2		4834.0	4593.2	
<i>High trust</i>	2127		1:1.1	2324		1:1.2	2382		1:0.7
Count	1108	1019		1288	1036		1390	992	
Expected count	1261.7	865.3		1505.1	818.9		1220.8	1160	
<i>Very high trust</i>	171		1:1.8	190		1:1.8	201		1:0.8
Count	109	62		123	67		113	88	
Expected count	101.4	69.6		123	67		103	97.9	
Total			1:1.5			1:1.8			1:0.9

a: ratio for lower levels of income correlating with lower levels of institutional trust, b: ratio for lower levels of education correlating with lower levels of institutional trust, c: ratio for males correlating with lower levels of institutional trust. *=<0.05, **=<0,01, ***=<0,001

All three variables included in Table 5 above show a significant Pearson’s Chi, as such we can assume that based on the null hypothesis, there is no relationship between our variables and our index for institutional trust that can be rejected (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 216). Our result would preferably show degrees of freedom (df) no higher than 2 and with a result as high as 24 df for income and education and 48 df for gender, our results are rather worrisome. A low degree of freedom is usually more relevant for a smaller sample size which could explain our result (ibid.: 187).

All variables are significant which motivates us to proceed with an analysis for observed and expected count as well as the odds ratio. As the observed and expected count is only the same regarding the cross-tabulation of education and *very high trust* we assume that there is evidence proving that there is a dependent correlation between the three variables and our index for institutional trust.

5.2.3.1 Odds ratio

To decide the numerator and denominator of the odds ratio, we formulated three statements to test. Based on our hypothesis, as well as findings in previous tables and graphs, we have tested the odds of *a) respondents with lower levels of income correlating with lower levels of trust, b) respondents of lower levels of education correlating with lower levels of trust, c) respondents of male gender correlating with lower levels of trust.* For example, the odds ratio for “education” and “very low trust” is 1:4.4, thus, for every low-trusting, *highly-educated* respondent there are 4.4 low-trusting respondents with *low/medium* levels of education. The odds ratio decreases with the level of trust in all variables, however in the category of *very high trust* it increases somewhat again which could be due to the lower frequencies in answers. The higher odds for individuals with low education to have *very low* as well as *low trust* further indicate support for Hypothesis 2: *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds.*

The variables on income and gender also show the same pattern as the variable for education, where men are somewhat less trusting than women and those of lower income are less trusting than those with higher levels of income. To examine a linear correlation and to further test our hypothesis we will present a multivariate regression analysis. As the variable for levels of education showed the highest odds ratio in favour of our hypothesis, level of education will act as the independent variable with income, gender, and the variables from the t-test as control variables. We will also further study Hypothesis 3 - *Over time, groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds have differed regarding institutional trust,* in the multivariate regression analysis by presenting and comparing results from the years 2010, 2015, and 2020.

5.3 Multivariate Regression Analysis

In this part of the study, we have chosen to look at momentary data from the years 2010, 2015, and 2020 to provide an understanding of how the independent variables correlate with institutional trust over time. The choice of years is based on the timeline in the univariate analysis (see Graph 2), it is between these years that the greatest change has occurred. Furthermore, the years of interest are also based on previous research and developments that inspired this study. As the greatest plummet was between 2010 and 2015, these years made the most sense to examine in detail. To further nuance our analysis we chose to study a third year with a continued five-year interval and therefore chose 2020.

Since education continuously presented the highest odds ratio in the cross-tabulation analysis we have chosen to explore if there is a linear relationship between the index of institutional trust and education. The control variables are based on the previously mentioned bivariate results, as well as theories regarding trust and previous research. We now include the variables regarding labour market situation and country of origin to further explore if these will affect the correlation between education and the institutional trust index.

Table 6 - Multivariate regression analysis

	Unstandardised B			Confidence interval (95%)						Sig.		
	2010	2015	2020	2010		2015		2020		2010	2015	2020
				Lower bound	Upper bound	Lower bound	Upper bound	Lower bound	Upper bound			
Model 1	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.62	2.78	2.33	2.58	2.37	2.63	.000***	.001***	.001***
Education	.275	.208	.303	.218	.332	.124	.292	.222	.384	.001***	.001***	.001***
Model 2	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.42	2.61	2.29	2.59	2.33	2.63	.000***	.001***	.001***
Education	.223	.203	.298	.164	.281	.115	.290	.213	.382	.001***	.001***	.001***
Income	.080	.007	.007	.058	.101	-.025	.040	-.024	.038	.001***	.650	.645
Model 3	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.38	2.62	2.40	2.76	2.52	2.88	.001***	.001***	.001***
Education	.217	.169	.264	.158	.276	.080	.259	.170	.348	.001***	.001***	.001***
Income	.093	.014	.004	.069	.118	-.021	.049	-.030	.038	.001***	.446	.829
Gender	-.091	-.220	-.230	-.146	-.036	-.304	-.136	-.312	-.149	.001***	.001***	.001***
Grow up: yourself	-.009	.072	.202	-.223	.204	-.246	.390	-.048	.453	.932	.657	.114
Grow up: father	.193	.006	.106	-.022	.408	-.305	.317	-.135	.348	.079	.970	.338
Grow up: mother	-.179	-.026	-.301	-.400	.042	-.359	.306	-.553	-.049	.112	.876	.019
Labour market situation	.064	-.012	-.081	-.002	.131	-.110	.085	-.175	.012	.057	.804	.088

*= $<0,05$, **= $<0,01$, ***= $<0,001$

The table above presents the results of our full multivariate regression analysis, and the table below presents each model's R and R²-value. Model 1 tests the correlation between education and trust, Model 2 includes income which, similar to education, also presents a high t-value and odds ratio, and Model 3 contains all independent variables chosen to see if any of the correlations detected could be coincidences. Model 3 continuously shows the highest R, as well as R²-value, and is therefore the model of most interest to examine closer. The R² value changes drastically between the years and is at its lowest point in 2015, the difference in models is however closest for Model 3. In Model 3, the variance of our index is applicable on our independent variables by 5,8% (2010), 4,1% (2015), and lastly, 6,4% (2020). As such, about 5% of the variance for our index of institutional trust can be explained by our independent variables - which is not a lot but enough to offer some explanation (Djurfeldt et al. 2019: 314). We have also tested the model fit for all three years with a p-plot as well as a scatterplot (see Appendix 5).

Table 7 - Multivariate regression analysis, R and R²

	R			R ²		
	2010	2015	2020	2010	2015	2020
Model 1	.184	.139	.191	.035	.019	.037
Model 2	.230	.140	.191	.053	.020	.037
Model 3	.243	.203	.253	.058	.041	.064

5.3.1 Education

The education variable is statistically significant on the third level consequently throughout all models and years - the beta coefficient shows that trust increases for respondents with high levels of education, whereas lower/medium levels of education act as a reference group. The variance for levels of institutional trust between the lower and higher educated is the largest in 2020 and the smallest in 2015 (see *Table 6*). This trend continues throughout all three models.

The variance between the lower bound and the upper bound value is the smallest in 2010, and about the same between 2015 and 2020. Since 2015 there has been a greater variance which could imply a growing polarisation in attitude and level of trust amongst the respondents as well as growing segregation. As education also showed the largest odds ratio in the cross-tabulation analysis, we can be quite certain that our null hypothesis is rejected. Hence, institutional trust seems to have changed between the years 2010-2020 amongst people with lower levels of education. While the increased variance, as well as the weakest coefficient, occur side by side with the 2015 migration crises we can only assume that there is somewhat of a correlation between our results and the great migration flows into Sweden during the mid-2010s. The migration crisis changed the agenda for Swedish politics and migration remains a major topic on the political agenda.

The role of education is for that matter more unclear. We have support in previous research showing a correlation between low education and low trust which will be further discussed in *6.1 Summary and Discussion*.

5.3.2 Gender

The only control variable that is considered significant is gender, the beta coefficient for this variable decreases consistently between 2010, 2015 and 2020, which indicates that men have lower levels of institutional trust compared to women and this trend grows stronger over time. The variance for 2010 is smaller than in 2015, in 2020 it has however decreased again. Showing a closer gap between men's and women's institutional trust in 2015. However, the difference in variance for this variable is not notably large.

The gender variable follows the same pattern as the education variable for both the variance and the coefficient which leads us to conclude that there might be a correlation between education and gender concerning institutional trust. We can only speculate as to why this is. Both Southwood (2011) and Standing (2011; 2014) refer to a loss of fraternity within the new working class - the Precariat, which has caused men to feel inferior and lose their, previously strong, social bonds, both to their peers and to society as a whole. Theoretically, it makes sense that men in this postmodern society have a stronger tendency to feel less trust in institutions, as they feel betrayed by them. The loss of security might make an individual more inclined to view themselves as a victim, compared to groups who have been oppressed historically and never have felt security. However, none of the previous research presented in this study fully explores gender as an underlying factor for changes in levels of trust, although they imply it.

5.3.3 Income

The level of significance for income is only significant in 2010 throughout all tree models and then becomes statistically insignificant for 2015 and 2020. This is surprising since income has previously been used as a strong indicator of socioeconomic status as well as trust (Tesei 2015: 19).

Uslaner (2009: 17) argues for inequality concerning segregation's effect on levels of institutional trust. Income was shown to be significant in the Chi²-test, as well as following the same patterns as education and gender, it is therefore surprising that income does not show significance in the multivariate analysis. The result could depend on the fact that previous research has measured another type of trust than institutional trust (Dinesen et al. 2020: 1; Uslaner 2009: 1). Hence income could correlate linearly with trust to other individuals, both strangers and neighbours and friends, but not with trust to institutions. The fact that our index is limited to measuring institutional trust, it could explain the non-significant relationship between income and trust in 2015 and 2020. As the types of institutions that we have included do not have any direct contact with the respondents regarding their economic situation, the respondent's level of trust may not regard their income. If this was true, institutional trust could be in line with both Putnam and Rothstein & Stolle's theory for social trust as created with base in contact theory (Putnam 2007: 143; Rothstein & Stolle 2008). The lack of contact with the institutions in question could therefore be explanatory as to why there is a non-significant correlation between income and institutional trust. A non-significant result could just as much be related to something else as significance only measures if the null

hypothesis could be rejected or not. Furthermore, the results could also be due to the scale of the variable not being a ratio scale and therefore not suitable to be analysed linearly as a variable for income.

5.3.4 Labour Market Situation

The correlation between the variable for the respondents' labour market situation and our index of trust is never significant, which means that we cannot assume anything about the relationship. We can therefore neither reject nor confirm Hypothesis 2 and 3: *Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds* and *Over time, groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds have differed regarding institutional trust*, regarding the labour market situation. This is surprising since insecurity in the labour market is what distinguishes the Precariat from the majority of the population who are gainfully employed (Bourdieu 1998; Standing 2011; 2014; Southwood 2011).

The Precariat is distinguished by their low levels of community and are often described as low-trusting to both other people and society as a whole (Standing 2011: 37). It is within the structures of stable and secure employment that individuals form connections to their colleagues who are in the same position and have similar interests. This feeling of community is lost when not gainfully employed, which is why we wanted to test the correlation between labour market situation and institutional trust.

Furthermore, people who often are in contact with different public welfare institutions, who need different benefits for disabilities and unemployment are in a disadvantaged position when dealing with the employment agency for example. As described in 3.2.2 *Precarity & Politics*, this group of people are often dependent on welfare, thus inciting a sense of fear when dealing with these institutions, which could be interpreted as low trust (Southwood 2011: 31). The consequences of NPM discussed in 2.2 *New Public Management & Trust*, also seem to worsen the situation for people with an insecure labour market situation and dependency on welfare. When the focus on public welfare shifts from the main operation to administrative work, and welfare recipients are viewed as customers, a feeling of negligence seems to emerge (Bornemark 2020: 124). This could also cause people in insecure labour market positions to not feel trust towards public institutions, and to the politicians who are in charge of these welfare reforms.

A possible explanation for the low significance of this variable is what Southwood (2011: 73) describes as a form of internalised feeling of responsibility for one's socioeconomic position. The processes of NPM that could cause low trust among the

Precariat, could also be the ones that shift the responsibility from the institutions and society, onto the individuals. If it is not the politicians' or the public administration's fault, then there is no need to feel lower trust towards them.

As such, since the significance is non-existent for this variable, the results cannot be considered reliable enough to disregard the labour market situation as a potential factor for a person's level of institutional trust. The neoliberal ideals of the market and individualism could cause lower levels of institutional trust among people in precarious living conditions, and it could be the reason for the lack of change in institutional trust within these groups as the ideals are internalised.

5.3.5 Country of Origin

All variables for country of origin are non-significant in either model. These results combined with the ones from our bivariate analysis show that these variables do not independently affect our index of institutional trust. This does not mean that country of origin does not correlate with trust, although it does not correlate with our index.

Regarding country of origin, Dinesen et al. (2020) and Putnam (2007) both argue that ethnic diversity could have a negative correlation with trust. With a background in the development of a more socially heterogeneous society, Putnam (2007: 137, 146-7) makes the controversial claim that diversity, especially ethnic diversity, affects social capital and therefore by extension, social trust. Dinesen et al. (2020: 457-8) further provide evidence for such a claim regarding a significant correlation between diversity and trust. It hence seems as though variables for country of origin would have a significant effect on institutional trust as Sweden has become more diverse with a growing population of both first and second-generation immigrants. The direction of the correlation is not defined which aggravates the conclusion that ethnic diversity erodes social trust, in our case institutional trust.

The unsure direction between country of origin and trust therefore further interests us to wonder if ethnicity, and especially diversity, can be said to erode trust. Previous research has foremost measured diversity against social trust, as such the insignificant correlation with our index of institutional trust might not be that surprising. Furthermore, diversity might not be the most suitable theoretical approach as it seems as though segregation, both economic and residential, may act more explanatory (Uslaner 2009: 17). As our index measures institutional trust in the policymakers who are supposed to work towards reducing inequality,

segregation would be more suitable as a measurement in this study and will be further discussed in *6.1 Summary and Discussion*.

5.3.6 Result Summary

To summarise, we can with most certainty tell that the independent variables of educational attainment and gender are linearly correlated with our dependent index of trust. The positive coefficient for educational attainment indicates that the higher the level of education, the higher the level of institutional trust. The positive correlation holds throughout all three years of choice (2010, 2015, 2020) and has an increasing confidence interval for each year, which could indicate a growing polarisation. Regarding gender, the correlation is negative which indicates that men are less trusting towards institutions than women. The negative correlation decreases with every year and indicates a decrease in trust over time for men.

Our control variables regarding household income, country of origin for oneself as well as one's parents, and labour market situation do not have a linear correlation with institutional trust. Income showed a significant relationship in our cross-tabulation with an odds ratio that indicates a relationship between lower levels of household income and institutional trust. The variables for country of origin and labour market situation also both showed significant results in the t-test under our bivariate analysis but were not subject to cross-tabulation as their t-value were not as strong as income, education and gender. The significant result is still indicative of something that could be of interest for further research.

6. Concluding Discussion

6.1 Summary and Discussion

In this study, we have statistically measured institutional trust and its correlation with different socioeconomic and demographic variables. Our first research questions were: *How has the level of institutional trust in Sweden changed over time?* and *What could possibly explain these changes?*. To test this research question we formulated Hypothesis 1:

Hypothesis 1: Institutional trust has overall decreased in Sweden over time.

To reject or confirm this hypothesis we created a timeline, using our index of institutional trust. The findings showed that the level of trust has overall increased since 1997, the starting point of the timeline, although the levels of trust fluctuated largely between the years. Since 2010, institutional trust has however decreased. The variance for each year has increased as well, indicating a growing polarisation amongst the population in regards to institutional trust.

Based on our previous research and theory we have discussed a few of the possible reasons for the fluctuation between the years. The most obvious one being the migration crisis in 2015 which led to a drastic change in the political climate in Sweden. An increased ethnic diversity has been shown to correlate negatively with trust. Furthermore, an increased segregation can, as discussed by Uslaner (2009), lead to decreasing levels of trust which would explain the plummet of institutional trust after 2015. Simultaneously, the rise of populist politics has led to political instability, further diminishing the confidence and trust in governmental bodies (Standing 2014: 93).

Processes of public management reform can also be a cause for the fluctuations presented in the timeline, since citizens almost exclusively engage with public institutions through different forms of welfare (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2016). If these institutions prioritise cost efficiency and administrative work instead of their, nowadays so-called customers, as suggested by Bornemark (2021), it could lead to a lack of confidence in the state's ability to cater to its inhabitants needs. However, since the introduction of NPM was present many years before 2010, it is unlikely that this is the underlying cause for the recent decline in institutional trust. Southwood (2011) even claims that the individualistic ideals of NPM are so heavily internalised by people that it would not have any effect on the opinions of public institutions, as the responsibility for security and stability now lies on the individual instead of the state. Regardless of these possible underlying factors, we cannot reject nor confirm our

hypothesis that institutional trust has overall decreased over time, as we should have included a designated time interval for this statement.

Regarding our second research question: *Which socioeconomic or demographic groups have experienced an increase, or a decrease, in institutional trust over time?*, with the following question, *what could possibly explain the differences in these groups?* were followed by Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4:

Hypothesis 2 - Levels of institutional trust differ between groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds.

Hypothesis 3 - Over time, groups of different socioeconomic backgrounds have differed regarding institutional trust.

Hypothesis 4 - Young men with lower socioeconomic status are more likely to present low levels of institutional trust.

As gender and education both showed a significant correlation with institutional trust, Hypothesis 4: *Young men with lower socioeconomic status are more likely to present low levels of institutional trust*, is supported. Regarding if it is young men with lower socioeconomic status, or men and low socioeconomic status that independently affects institutional trust, is a matter for further research (see 6.1 Suggestions for Further Research).

The new form of public management, NPM, could offer some explanation regarding the correlation of education and trust. The idea of increased transparency to increase trust by NPM's inflated documentation presupposes that the receivers, the citizens, understand the bureaucratic language (Pollitt & Bouckaert 2016: 148). The formal language and understanding of the workings of authorities can be argued to be easily gained through a higher formal education. In line with contact theory, the focus on administrative work in favour of transparency presupposes a lack of communication and face-to-face interactions between the representatives of institutions and the welfare receivers (Putnam 1994; 2001; Bornemark 2020). Thus, a lower level of education seems to correlate with an eroded institutional trust. The less educated have both worse conditions to understand the formal language of institutions, as well as a lack of relationship with welfare representatives.

Low levels of education and the working class are tightly linked and according to Southwood (2011) and Standing (2011; 2014), it is the men of the working class who in their precarious state are less trusting. The lessend trust amongst working-class men could be

indicative that the political institutions have had a tendency to be forgetful of them. As mentioned in 5.3.2 *Gender*, the working-class men of the Precariat have expressed a growing tendency to feel inferior and lose their, previously strong, social bonds, to both their peers and society as a whole. The once strong social-democratic rule was defined by its potential for high trusting citizens, the level of unionising was also high, whereas it is nowadays at an all time low (Southwood 2011; Standing 2011, 2014). Hence, a lack of community for both individual social capital accumulation and labour based political mobilisation within the male dominated working class could be one explanation as to why both education and gender are variables with a significant result.

The possible interaction of educational attainment and gender is further prevalent in the growth of the Sweden Democrats. Holmberg & Rothstein (2022: 137) present correlations for a person's vote for parties outside of the political establishment and a lessened trust. Although the Sweden Democrats now is a governmental party they still market themselves as a party for the people against the political establishment. Thus, as the voters for the Sweden Democrats often are males of lower levels of education, the rise of the Sweden Democrats can act as further evidence of a potential correlation between low-educated men and their trust in Swedish political institutions (Sjöström 2023: 1).

These conclusions can be problematised as the variables for income and labour market situation showed a nonsignificant result. If there were a strong correlation between the working class and institutional trust, these two variables would most likely also have an effect. As discussed in 5.3.3 *Income* and 5.3.4 *Labour market situation*, the design of the variables could be an explanation. The variable of income would probably gain significance from being measured as a ratio scale and the labour market situation might have shown other results if we were to move further than unemployed/employed, the type of work or such might have been a more suitable measurement.

Furthermore, the fact that only educational attainment showed significance out of the three variables meant to mainly study socioeconomic status, might be indicative that there are other underlying explanatory factors for the respondents to lessen trust. The working class and the Precariat are both defined by a feeling of betrayal and a lack of social cohesion. Therefore, Putnam's findings on a community's role in trust might be somewhat explanatory. Putnam finds that a strong sense of community is foremost interlinked with a strong sense of generalised trust. In his study of Italy, it also seems as though a strong feeling of community is further strongly correlated with established and well-functioning institutions (Putnam 1994: 170). As such, a lack of community, and therefore lack of generalised trust, might have effects

on trust in institutions especially when said institutions distribute their day of work with goals for transparent documentation rather than meeting and offering high-quality help for the welfare recipients (ibid.: 169; Putnam 2001: 31; Southwood 2011: 31; Bornemark 2020: 117, 124).

The most precarious people in our contemporary society are not only described as lacking trust, they are often seen as aggressive, as well as posing as a threat to the majority of society (Southwood (2011: 17). These attributes are often ascribed to migrants, especially those of outer-European descent, migrant workers also constitute a larger proportion of the Precariat (Southwood 2011). As such, our variables for country of origin should have been significant. However, our variable of country of origin does in itself only measure Nordic and non-Nordic descent and would therefore include immigrants that have migrated here from more well-off countries as well as for work in sectors that are not regarded as precarious. To distinguish the precarious migrant workers, an interaction of other socioeconomic variables, such as education, would have to be examined.

This then apparent “hidden” factor might be correlated with the increase of polarisation as well as an increased segregation. Regarding the 2015 migration crisis - both the labour market segregation - and residential segregation have increased (Uslaner 2009). Migrants have come to be overrepresented in low-skilled professions, and those with lower levels of education still constitute a major gap to the rest of the population. The lack of economic measures in relation to the integration policy from the Swedish government has also created unsustainable segregation where residential areas become more and more segregated along ethnic lines. As such, there is a lack of meeting spots where generalised trust can be built through contact with one another. Residential segregation does not only affect the contact theories view of a trusting society built on strong interpersonal contact, it also cements inequality (Uslaner 2009: 17; Tesei 2015: 19).

Hence, inequality has an ethnic dimension and could together with results for education, income, gender, and labour market still be such that the country of origin could correlate with institutional trust. The feeling of betrayal that Southwood (2011) and Standing (2011; 2014) find among working-class men could also be argued to exist among migrants in segregated areas. The LVU-campaign mentioned in 1.1 Background shows unease and dissatisfaction with the current political reform as well as with street-level bureaucrats of the social services, especially amongst the Swedish Muslim community (Ranstorp & Ahlerup 2023). Hence, there seems to be a lack of trust, or at least a changed attitude, towards Swedish political institutions although it is not represented in our results. The variable for country of

origin might not in itself be of statistical significance, but there seems to be a direction towards a correlation of country of origin in interaction with other socioeconomic factors.

To answer our research questions, there has been an overall increased level of institutional trust since 1997, but since its peak in 2010 there has been a striking decrease. Our results have shown a linear correlation for gender and education between the years 2010, 2015, and 2020. Males and those with lower levels of education tend to have been less trusting, and this mistrust has increased over the years. It is likely that new public management reforms, a political shift with accompanying polarisation, and a growing segregation has had an effect on males and the less educated, and their levels of institutional trust. However, previous research suggests that there should have been such for other socioeconomic factors as well for this conclusion to hold. Our thesis aimed to examine and discuss structural and societal changes that might be correlated with a changed level of institutional trust. We chose to measure institutions with a focus on political institutions. It seems as though a generalised trust might be more promising in offering answers regarding trust in general, especially as Putnam's theory on contact theory, which is meant to apply to generalised trust, seems to apply to our results as well. Institutions' relationship to trust might therefore be easier to study as an extension to generalised trust. Although, the fact that our research shows a result of educational attainment and gender in relation to trust motivates us to further speculate how institutional trust can be studied forward.

6.2 Suggestions for Further Research

Many questions go unanswered in this study - therefore it is of great importance to continue the research regarding institutional trust. Trust and confidence in authorities are important for democracies to function fully since they require their inhabitants to feel motivated to utilise their democratic rights. Without trust in public institutions, hopelessness can arise, thus undermining democratic ideals. We will now give some examples of how one could move forward with a study, supplementing this one.

This study lacks an intersectional perspective, which could be statistically tested by using interaction terms in the multivariate regression analysis. Interaction terms are used to explore if the correlation between some of the independent variables and the dependent variable, in this case, institutional trust, is dependent on each other (Djurfeldt & Barmark 2009: 139). Since many of our independent variables, surprisingly, did not present a correlation directly with our trust index, such as income, country of origin, labour market

situation, and age, it would be interesting to see if these interact differently when measured relative to each other. The interaction between income and country of origin could for example be of interest to see if low-income immigrants are more likely to present lower levels of institutional trust compared to those with high income. Intersectional analysis is used to, more accurately, show how the real world functions, and describe how an individual can possess many different socioeconomic and demographic attributes that all collectively affect how this person experiences everyday society (Ahrne 2020: 180). This would be a good starting point for a study using interaction terms.

Furthermore, our intention with this study was originally to use mixed methods, by supplementing the quantitative data with qualitative data. We wanted to conduct interviews with people who have expressed distrust in different public institutions, such as social services during the LVU-campaign. However, we ran out of time which prevented us from following through with these interviews. This would provide a better understanding of the underlying factors of our statistical study and shed light on the reasoning behind possessing low levels of institutional trust. Taherdoost (2022: 55) claims that mixed methods are good to use when researching complex social phenomena, in our case institutional trust, to “triangulate” the subject and measure as many aspects of it as possible. When using the “concurrent triangulation process” one collects both quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously and then compares the results (ibid: 61). This would be an interesting approach to research trust, where we would encourage creativity in methodological design to reach a deeper scientific understanding.

Regardless of the method used, the understanding of mechanisms behind trust is always a relevant sociological research topic, and we hope that we can continue to explore this topic in our future academic endeavours.

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Appendix

Appendix 1 - Chronbach's alpha

Index 1

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.521	.523	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
trustinarbetsförmedling	6.9609	2.165	.304	.094	.473
trustinmedical	5.7299	2.196	.333	.117	.423
trustinschool	6.1371	2.176	.369	.138	.366

Index 2

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.674	.675	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
trustinpolice	6.5547	2.537	.520	.270	.537
trustincourts	6.6740	2.576	.467	.222	.605
trustinsäpo	6.8504	2.535	.474	.229	.597

Index 3

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.840	.840	5

Item–Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
trustingov	11.0663	9.511	.598	.499	.822
trustinparlament	11.0317	9.558	.683	.560	.797
trustinmuni	11.2435	10.690	.522	.287	.838
trustinEUcom	11.5162	9.268	.720	.848	.786
trustinEUparli	11.5230	9.306	.704	.845	.791

Index 4

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.826	.826	4

Item–Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item–Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
trustingov	8.5769	5.277	.664	.513	.777
trustinparlament	8.5390	5.379	.744	.580	.736
trustinmuni	8.7482	6.368	.543	.320	.826
trustinparties	8.9122	5.882	.665	.447	.775

Index 5

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.870	.870	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
trustingov	13.7568	14.201	.618	.511	.858
trustinparlament	13.7225	14.231	.703	.583	.841
trustinmuni	13.9344	15.574	.550	.328	.866
trustinparties	14.0946	14.525	.713	.516	.840
trustinEUcom	14.2069	13.943	.728	.852	.837
trustinEUparli	14.2135	14.024	.707	.845	.840

Appendix 2 - Re-coded Independent Variables (Original form)

2.1 Nominal Scales

“growupp: Area/country of upbringing: Yourself”

1	Rural area in Sweden
2	Village in Sweden
3	City/town in Sweden
4	Stockholm/Gothenburg/Malmö
5	Other Nordic country
6	Other European country
7	Non-European country
8	Non-Nordic country
97	No response - part of the question
98	Several responses given
99	No response - entire question battery
Sysmiss	

“growupf: Area/country of upbringing: Your father”

“growupm: Area/country of upbringing: Your mother”

1	Rural area in Sweden
2	Village in Sweden
3	City/town in Sweden
4	Stockholm/Gothenburg/Malmö
5	Other Nordic country
6	Other European country
7	Non-European country
97	No response - part of the question
98	Several responses given
99	No response - entire question battery

“lmsit: Labour market situation”

1	Gainfully employed
2	Labour market policy measures/labour market training
3	Unemployed
4	Old age pensioner/early retirement contractual pensioner
5	Disability pensioner/early retirement pensioner (medical rea
6	Student
7	Other/homeworker
98	Several responses given
99	No response - entire question battery

“sex: Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)”

1	Woman
2	Man
3	
99	No response

2.2 Ordinal Scales

“Edu3: Educational attainment (3 point scale)”

1	Low (comprehensive school grades 1-9 or less)
2	Medium (above comprehensive school grades 1-9 but not univer
3	High (studies at/degree from university/university college)
99	No response
Sysmiss	

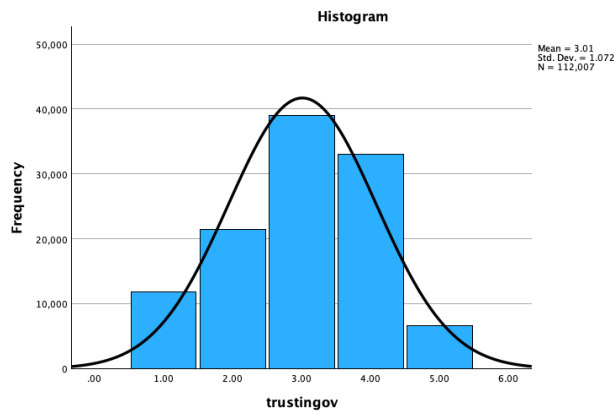
“hinc5rel: Gross household income (5 point scale)”

1	Very low
2	Low
3	Medium
4	High
5	Very high
96	Question not asked
98	Several responses given
99	No response - entire question battery

Appendix 3 - Univariate Analysis

3.1 Univariate Analysis - Trust Variables

Trust in: Government



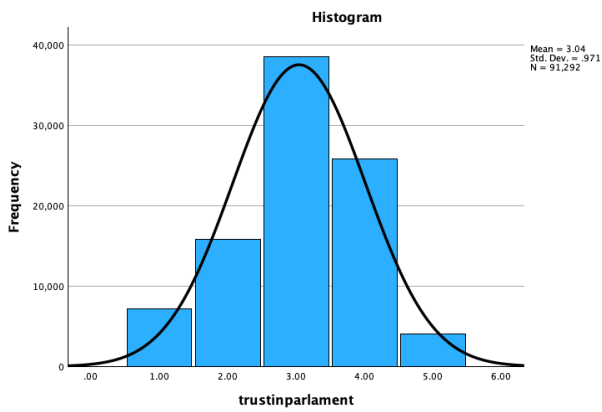
Statistics

trustingov			
N	Valid	112007	
	Missing	53833	
Mean		3.0107	
Std. Error of Mean		.00320	
Median		3.0000	
Mode		3.00	
Std. Deviation		1.07158	
Variance		1.148	
Range		4.00	
Minimum		1.00	
Maximum		5.00	
Sum		337219.00	
Percentiles	25	2.0000	
	50	3.0000	
	75	4.0000	

trustingov

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	11849	7.1	10.6	10.6
	Low trust	21487	13.0	19.2	29.8
	Neither high nor low trust	38969	23.5	34.8	64.6
	High trust	33021	19.9	29.5	94.0
	Very high trust	6681	4.0	6.0	100.0
Total		112007	67.5	100.0	
Missing	System	53833	32.5		
Total		165840	100.0		

Trust in: Parliament



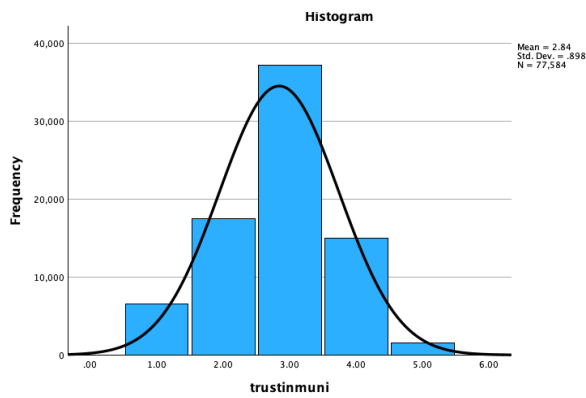
Statistics

trustinparlament			
N	Valid	91292	
	Missing	74548	
Mean		3.0426	
Std. Error of Mean		.00321	
Median		3.0000	
Mode		3.00	
Std. Deviation		.97127	
Variance		.943	
Range		4.00	
Minimum		1.00	
Maximum		5.00	
Sum		277762.00	
Percentiles	25	2.0000	
	50	3.0000	
	75	4.0000	

trustinparlament

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	7123	4.3	7.8	7.8
	Low trust	15790	9.5	17.3	25.1
	Neither high nor low trust	38498	23.2	42.2	67.3
	High trust	25840	15.6	28.3	95.6
	Very high trust	4041	2.4	4.4	100.0
Total		91292	55.0	100.0	
Missing	System	74548	45.0		
Total		165840	100.0		

Trust in: Municipality boards



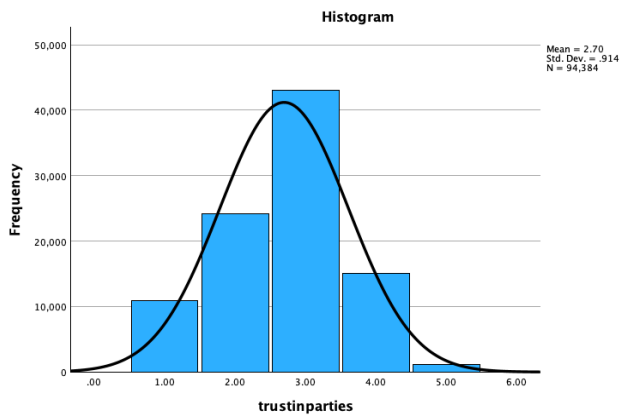
Statistics

trustinmuni		
N	Valid	77584
	Missing	88256
Mean		2.8408
Std. Error of Mean		.00322
Median		3.0000
Mode		3.00
Std. Deviation		.89779
Variance		.806
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00
Sum		220402.00
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

trustinmuni

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	6493	3.9	8.4	8.4
	Low trust	17425	10.5	22.5	30.8
	Neither high nor low trust	37126	22.4	47.9	78.7
	High trust	15019	9.1	19.4	98.0
	Very high trust	1521	.9	2.0	100.0
	Total	77584	46.8	100.0	
Missing	System	88256	53.2		
Total		165840	100.0		

Trust in: Political parties



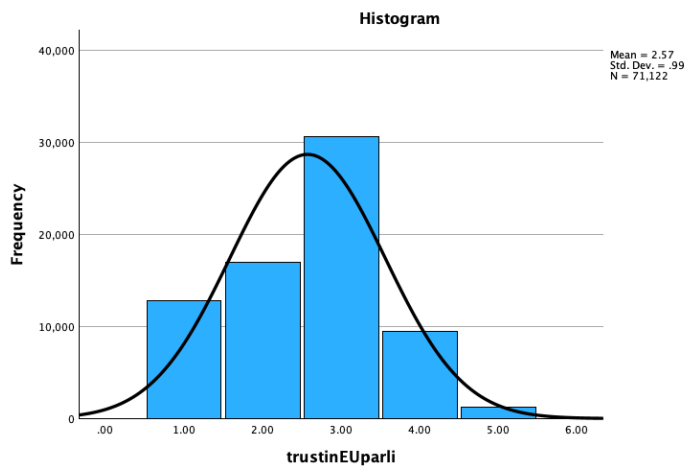
Statistics

trustinparties		
N	Valid	94384
	Missing	71456
Mean		2.6967
Std. Error of Mean		.00298
Median		3.0000
Mode		3.00
Std. Deviation		.91400
Variance		.835
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00
Sum		254522.00
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

trustinparties

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	10902	6.6	11.6	11.6
	Low trust	24211	14.6	25.7	37.2
	Neither high nor low trust	43050	26.0	45.6	82.8
	High trust	15057	9.1	16.0	98.8
	Very high trust	1164	.7	1.2	100.0
	Total	94384	56.9	100.0	
Missing	System	71456	43.1		
Total		165840	100.0		

Trust in: EU Parliament



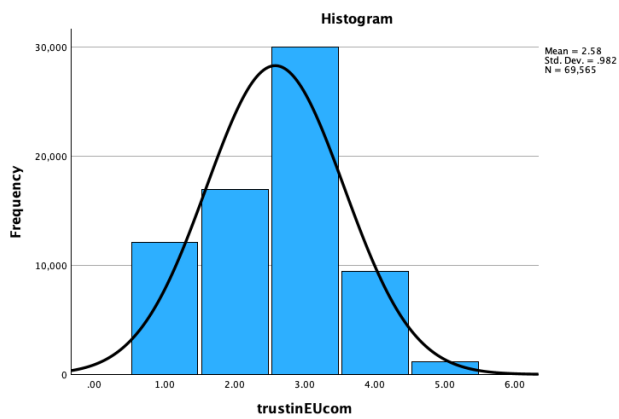
Statistics

trustinEUparli		
N	Valid	71122
	Missing	94718
Mean		2.5717
Std. Error of Mean		.00371
Median		3.0000
Mode		3.00
Std. Deviation		.98991
Variance		.980
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00
Sum		182903.00
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

trustinEUparli

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	12799	7.7	18.0	18.0
	Low trust	16922	10.2	23.8	41.8
	Neither high nor low trust	30627	18.5	43.1	84.9
	High trust	9491	5.7	13.3	98.2
	Very high trust	1283	.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	71122	42.9	100.0	
Missing	System	94718	57.1		
Total		165840	100.0		

Trust in: EU Commission



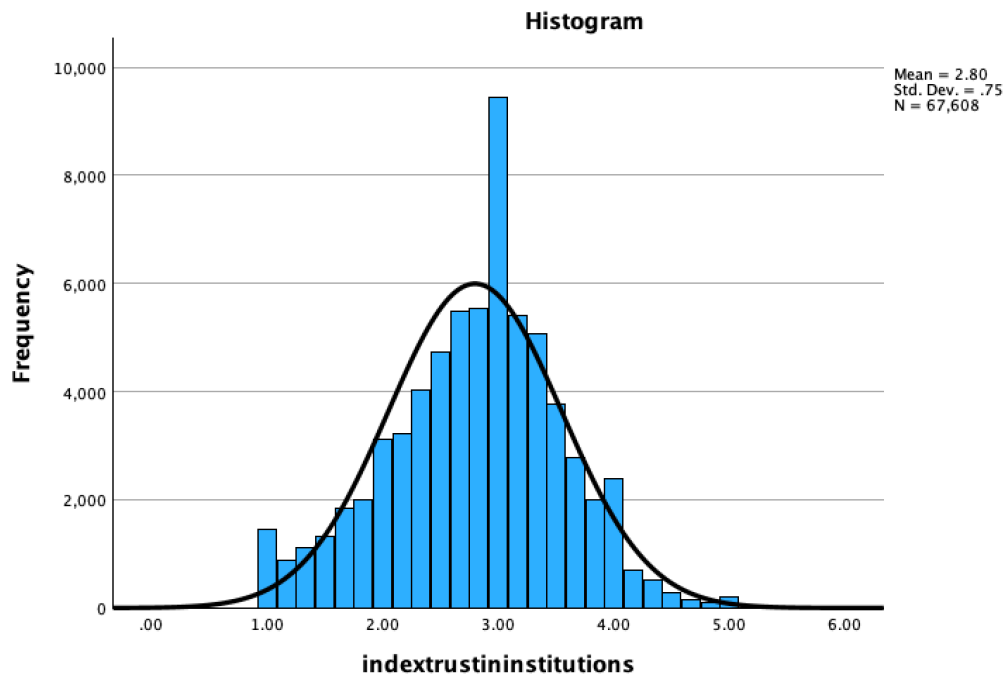
Statistics

trustinEUcom		
N	Valid	69565
	Missing	96275
Mean		2.5779
Std. Error of Mean		.00372
Median		3.0000
Mode		3.00
Std. Deviation		.98191
Variance		.964
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00
Sum		179335.00
Percentiles	25	2.0000
	50	3.0000
	75	3.0000

trustinEUcom

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very low trust	12107	7.3	17.4	17.4
	Low trust	16921	10.2	24.3	41.7
	Neither high nor low trust	29931	18.0	43.0	84.8
	High trust	9437	5.7	13.6	98.3
	Very high trust	1169	.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	69565	41.9	100.0	
Missing	System	96275	58.1		
Total		165840	100.0		

3.2 Univariate Analysis - Index



indextrustinstitutions					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	1458	.9	2.2	2.2
	1.17	876	.5	1.3	3.5
	1.33	1123	.7	1.7	5.1
	1.50	1329	.8	2.0	7.1
	1.67	1855	1.1	2.7	9.8
	1.83	2012	1.2	3.0	12.8
	2.00	3126	1.9	4.6	17.4
	2.17	3228	1.9	4.8	22.2
	2.33	4024	2.4	6.0	28.1
	2.50	4740	2.9	7.0	35.2
	2.67	5482	3.3	8.1	43.3
	2.83	5551	3.3	8.2	51.5
	3.00	9433	5.7	14.0	65.4
	3.17	5420	3.3	8.0	73.4
	3.33	5069	3.1	7.5	80.9
	3.50	3768	2.3	5.6	86.5
	3.67	2785	1.7	4.1	90.6
	3.83	2003	1.2	3.0	93.6
	4.00	2382	1.4	3.5	97.1
	4.17	699	.4	1.0	98.2
4.33	507	.3	.7	98.9	
4.50	272	.2	.4	99.3	
4.67	154	.1	.2	99.5	
4.83	111	.1	.2	99.7	
5.00	201	.1	.3	100.0	
Total		67608	40.8	100.0	
Missing System		98232	59.2		
Total		165840	100.0		

Statistics

indextrustinstitutions		
N	Valid	67608
	Missing	98232
Mean		2.7976
Std. Error of Mean		.00288
Median		2.8333
Mode		3.00
Std. Deviation		.74965
Variance		.562
Range		4.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00
Sum		189141.50
Percentiles	25	2.3333
	50	2.8333
	75	3.3333

Appendix 4 - t-Test and Chi²

4.1 Bivariate regression - age

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.023 ^a	.001	.001	.74945

a. Predictors: (Constant), Age (based on yearofbirth, supplemented with data from the population register)

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.844	1	19.844	35.331	<.001 ^b
	Residual	37968.588	67599	.562		
	Total	37988.432	67600			

a. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions

b. Predictors: (Constant), Age (based on yearofbirth, supplemented with data from the population register)

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.818	.004		636.244	.000
	Age (based on yearofbirth, supplemented with data from the population register)	.000	.000	-.023	-5.944	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions

4.2 t-Tests

1. Growupp

T-Test

Group Statistics

upbringing_father		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
indextrustinstitutions	Nordic	59018	2.7953	.73854	.00304
	Non-nordic	5290	2.8547	.80541	.01107

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	Significance One-Sided p	Significance Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	52.456	<.001	-5.557	64306	<.001	<.001	-.05936	.01068	-.08030	-.03842
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.169	6113.181	<.001	<.001	-.05936	.01148	-.08187	-.03685

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74427	-.080	-.108	-.052
	Hedges' correction	.74428	-.080	-.108	-.052
	Glass's delta	.80541	-.074	-.102	-.046

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Means

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * upbringing_yourself	64198	38.7%	101642	61.3%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions			
upbringing_yourself	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Nordic	2.7941	60807	.74071
Non-nordic	2.8866	3391	.80586
Total	2.7990	64198	.74458

2. Growupf

Group Statistics

	upbringing_yourself	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
indextrustinstitutions	Nordic	60807	2.7941	.74071	.00300
	Non-nordic	3391	2.8866	.80586	.01384

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	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p				
indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	32.806	<.001	-7.038	64196	<.001	<.001	-.09242	.01313	-.11816	-.06668
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.527	3716.506	<.001	<.001	-.09242	.01416	-.12019	-.06466

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardized ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74430	-.124	-.159	-.090
	Hedges' correction	.74430	-.124	-.159	-.090
	Glass's delta	.80586	-.115	-.149	-.080

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes. Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation. Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor. Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * upbringing_father	64308	38.8%	101532	61.2%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions

upbringing_father	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Nordic	2.7953	59018	.73854
Non-nordic	2.8547	5290	.80541
Total	2.8002	64308	.74444

3. Growupm

► T-Test

Group Statistics

	upbringing_mother	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
indextrustinstitutions	Nordic	59446	2.7942	.73888	.00303
	Non-nordic	5047	2.8572	.80790	.01137

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	Significance One-Sided p	Significance Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	51.952	<.001	-5.766	64491	<.001	<.001	-.06294	.01092	-.08433	-.04155
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.348	5785.644	<.001	<.001	-.06294	.01177	-.08601	-.03987

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizera	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74451	-.085	-.113	-.056
	Hedges' correction	.74452	-.085	-.113	-.056
	Glass's delta	.80790	-.078	-.107	-.049

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes. Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation. Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor. Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

► Means

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * upbringing_mother	64493	38.9%	101347	61.1%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions

upbringing_mother	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Nordic	2.7942	59446	.73888
Non-nordic	2.8572	5047	.80790
Total	2.7992	64493	.74470

4. Hinc5rel

Group Statistics

	income	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
inextrustinstitutions	Low/medium	36776	2.7244	.75945	.00396
	High	25224	2.8917	.71507	.00450

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper
inextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	146.515	<.001	-27.590	61998	<.001	<.001	-.16730	.00606	-.17919	-.15542
	Equal variances not assumed			-27.901	56254.141	<.001	<.001	-.16730	.00600	-.17905	-.15555

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
inextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74172	-.226	-.242	-.209
	Hedges' correction	.74172	-.226	-.242	-.209
	Glass's delta	.71507	-.234	-.250	-.218

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

➔ Means

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
inextrustinstitutions * income	62000	37.4%	103840	62.6%	165840	100.0%

Report

inextrustinstitutions

income	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Low/medium	2.7244	36776	.75945
High	2.8917	25224	.71507
Total	2.7925	62000	.74625

5. Edu2

T-Test

Group Statistics

	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	High	23326	2.9550	.70430	.00461

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	t-test for Equality of Means		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.			One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper
		indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed			212.814	<.001			-40.269	66195
	Equal variances not assumed			-41.140	50933.715	.000	.000	-.24214	.00589	-.25368	-.23060

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizera ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.73905	-.328	-.344	-.312
	Hedges' correction	.73906	-.328	-.344	-.312
	Glass's delta	.70430	-.344	-.360	-.328

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * Educational attainment (2 point scale)	66197	39.9%	99643	60.1%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Educational attainment (2 point scale)			
Low/medium	2.7129	42871	.75729
High	2.9550	23326	.70430
Total	2.7982	66197	.74804

6. Lmsit

Group Statistics

	labourmarket	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
indextrustinstitutions	Employed	42541	2.8249	.73465	.00356
	Unemployed	3156	2.6845	.83553	.01487

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance One-Sided p	Significance Two-Sided p	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
										Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	107.595	<.001	10.256	45695	<.001	<.001	.14041	.01369	.11357	.16724
	Equal variances not assumed			9.181	3526.427	<.001	<.001	.14041	.01529	.11042	.17039

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardized ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74206	.189	.153	.225
	Hedges' correction	.74207	.189	.153	.225
	Glass's delta	.83553	.168	.132	.204

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * labourmarket	64171	38.7%	101669	61.3%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions			
labourmarket	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Employed	2.8249	42541	.73465
Unemployed	2.6845	3156	.83553
Pensioners	2.7615	18474	.75154
Total	2.7997	64171	.74579

7. Sex

Group Statistics

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
indextrustinstitutions	Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)				
	Woman	34648	2.8506	.72831	.00391
	Man	32922	2.7423	.76723	.00423

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Significance		Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						One-Sided p	Two-Sided p			Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Equal variances assumed	178.758	<.001	18.823	67568	<.001	<.001	.10830	.00575	.09702	.11957
	Equal variances not assumed			18.798	66858.272	<.001	<.001	.10830	.00576	.09700	.11959

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
indextrustinstitutions	Cohen's d	.74753	.145	.130	.160
	Hedges' correction	.74754	.145	.130	.160
	Glass's delta	.76723	.141	.126	.156

a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

➔ Means

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustinstitutions * Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	67604	40.8%	98236	59.2%	165840	100.0%

Report

indextrustinstitutions			
Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)			
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Woman	2.8506	34648	.72831
Man	2.7423	32922	.76723
Other	2.3824	34	.95216
Total	2.7977	67604	.74964

4.2 χ^2

Case Processing Summary

	Valid		Cases Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
indextrustininstitutions * income	62000	37.4%	103840	62.6%	165840	100.0%
indextrustininstitutions * Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	67604	40.8%	98236	59.2%	165840	100.0%
indextrustininstitutions * Educational attainment (2 point scale)	66197	39.9%	99643	60.1%	165840	100.0%

1. Hinc5rel

index	trust		income		Total	
			Low/medium	High		
index	trust	Count	954	346	1300	
		Expected Count	771.1	528.9	1300.0	
		% within index	73.4%	26.6%	100.0%	
		% within income	2.6%	1.4%	2.1%	
		% of Total	1.5%	0.6%	2.1%	
		Residual	182.9	-182.9		
		1.17	Count	611	197	808
		Expected Count	479.3	328.7	808.0	
		% within index	75.6%	24.4%	100.0%	
		% within income	1.7%	0.8%	1.3%	
		% of Total	1.0%	0.3%	1.3%	
		Residual	131.7	-131.7		
		1.33	Count	731	291	1022
		Expected Count	606.2	415.8	1022.0	
		% within index	71.5%	28.5%	100.0%	
		% within income	2.0%	1.2%	1.6%	
		% of Total	1.2%	0.5%	1.6%	
		Residual	124.8	-124.8		
		1.50	Count	829	404	1233
Expected Count	731.4	501.6	1233.0			
% within index	67.2%	32.8%	100.0%			
% within income	2.3%	1.6%	2.0%			
% of Total	1.3%	0.7%	2.0%			
Residual	97.6	-97.6				
1.67	Count	1177	537	1714		
Expected Count	1016.7	697.3	1714.0			
% within index	68.7%	31.3%	100.0%			
% within income	3.2%	2.1%	2.8%			
% of Total	1.9%	0.9%	2.8%			
Residual	160.3	-160.3				
1.83	Count	1258	627	1885		
Expected Count	1118.1	766.9	1885.0			
% within index	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%			
% within income	3.4%	2.5%	3.0%			
% of Total	2.0%	1.0%	3.0%			
Residual	139.9	-139.9				

index	trust	Count	1886	996	2882	
		Expected Count	1709.5	1172.5	2882.0	
		% within index	65.4%	34.6%	100.0%	
		% within income	5.1%	3.9%	4.6%	
		% of Total	3.0%	1.6%	4.6%	
		Residual	176.5	-176.5		
		2.17	Count	1886	1114	3000
		Expected Count	1779.5	1220.5	3000.0	
		% within index	62.9%	37.1%	100.0%	
		% within income	5.1%	4.4%	4.8%	
		% of Total	3.0%	1.8%	4.8%	
		Residual	106.5	-106.5		
		2.33	Count	2343	1394	3737
		Expected Count	2216.6	1520.4	3737.0	
		% within index	62.7%	37.3%	100.0%	
		% within income	6.4%	5.5%	6.0%	
		% of Total	3.8%	2.2%	6.0%	
		Residual	126.4	-126.4		
		2.50	Count	2708	1710	4418
Expected Count	2620.6	1797.4	4418.0			
% within index	61.3%	38.7%	100.0%			
% within income	7.4%	6.8%	7.1%			
% of Total	4.4%	2.8%	7.1%			
Residual	87.4	-87.4				
2.67	Count	3047	2023	5070		
Expected Count	3007.3	2062.7	5070.0			
% within index	60.1%	39.9%	100.0%			
% within income	8.3%	8.0%	8.2%			
% of Total	4.9%	3.3%	8.2%			
Residual	39.7	-39.7				
2.83	Count	3004	2133	5137		
Expected Count	3047.1	2089.9	5137.0			
% within index	58.5%	41.5%	100.0%			
% within income	8.2%	8.5%	8.3%			
% of Total	4.8%	3.4%	8.3%			
Residual	-43.1	43.1				

Neither high nor low trust	Count	5017	3518	8535	
	Expected Count	5062.6	3472.4	8535.0	
	% within index trust institutions	58.8%	41.2%	100.0%	
	% within income	13.6%	13.9%	13.8%	
	% of Total	8.1%	5.7%	13.8%	
	Residual	-45.6	45.6		
	3.17	Count	2712	2244	4956
		Expected Count	2939.7	2016.3	4956.0
		% within index trust institutions	54.7%	45.3%	100.0%
		% within income	7.4%	8.9%	8.0%
% of Total		4.4%	3.6%	8.0%	
3.33	Residual	-227.7	227.7		
	Count	2455	2170	4625	
	Expected Count	2743.4	1881.6	4625.0	
	% within index trust institutions	53.1%	46.9%	100.0%	
	% within income	6.7%	8.6%	7.5%	
3.50	% of Total	4.0%	3.5%	7.5%	
	Residual	-288.4	288.4		
	Count	1845	1602	3447	
	Expected Count	2044.6	1402.4	3447.0	
	% within index trust institutions	53.5%	46.5%	100.0%	
3.67	% within income	5.0%	6.4%	5.6%	
	% of Total	3.0%	2.6%	5.6%	
	Residual	-199.6	199.6		
	Count	1380	1176	2556	
	Expected Count	1516.1	1039.9	2556.0	
3.83	% within index trust institutions	54.0%	46.0%	100.0%	
	% within income	3.8%	4.7%	4.1%	
	% of Total	2.2%	1.9%	4.1%	
	Residual	-136.1	136.1		
	Count	937	888	1825	
3.50	Expected Count	1082.5	742.5	1825.0	
	% within index trust institutions	51.3%	48.7%	100.0%	
	% within income	2.5%	3.5%	2.9%	
	% of Total	1.5%	1.4%	2.9%	
	Residual	-145.5	145.5		

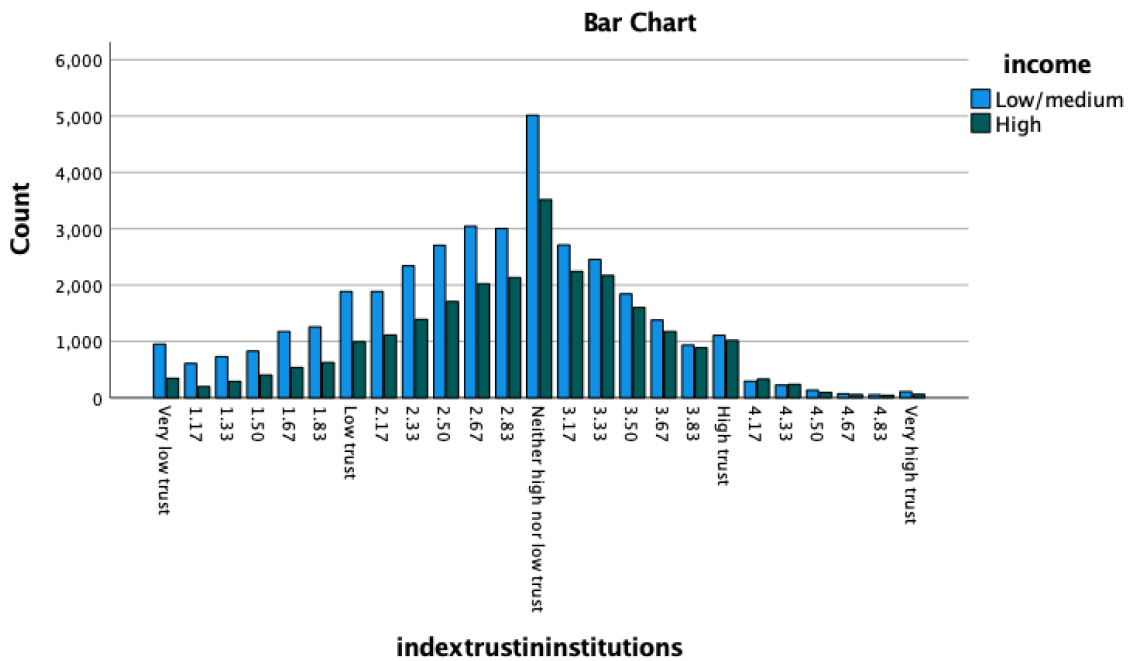
High trust	Count	1108	1019	2127	
	Expected Count	1261.7	865.3	2127.0	
	% within index trust institutions	52.1%	47.9%	100.0%	
	% within income	3.0%	4.0%	3.4%	
	% of Total	1.8%	1.6%	3.4%	
	Residual	-153.7	153.7		
	4.17	Count	295	333	628
		Expected Count	372.5	255.5	628.0
		% within index trust institutions	47.0%	53.0%	100.0%
		% within income	0.8%	1.3%	1.0%
% of Total		0.5%	0.5%	1.0%	
4.33	Residual	-77.5	77.5		
	Count	225	240	465	
	Expected Count	275.8	189.2	465.0	
	% within index trust institutions	48.4%	51.6%	100.0%	
	% within income	0.6%	1.0%	0.8%	
4.50	% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	0.8%	
	Residual	-50.8	50.8		
	Count	136	97	233	
	Expected Count	138.2	94.8	233.0	
	% within index trust institutions	58.4%	41.6%	100.0%	
4.67	% within income	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	
	% of Total	0.2%	0.2%	0.4%	
	Residual	-2.2	2.2		
	Count	70	58	128	
	Expected Count	75.9	52.1	128.0	
4.83	% within index trust institutions	54.7%	45.3%	100.0%	
	% within income	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	
	Residual	-5.9	5.9		
	Count	53	45	98	
4.50	Expected Count	58.1	39.9	98.0	
	% within index trust institutions	54.1%	45.9%	100.0%	
	% within income	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%	
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	
	Residual	-5.1	5.1		

		Residual	75.1	25.1	
Very high trust	Count		109	62	171
	Expected Count		101.4	69.6	171.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions		63.7%	36.3%	100.0%
	% within income		0.3%	0.2%	0.3%
	% of Total		0.2%	0.1%	0.3%
	Residual		7.6	-7.6	
Total	Count		36776	25224	62000
	Expected Count		36776.0	25224.0	62000.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions		59.3%	40.7%	100.0%
	% within income		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		59.3%	40.7%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	841.343 ^a	24	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	855.969	24	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	751.989	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	62000		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 39.87.



2. Edu2

Crosstab

		Educational attainment (2 point scale)		Total	
		Low/medium	High		
inextrustinstitutions	Very low trust	Count	1148	261	1409
		Expected Count	912.5	496.5	1409.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	81.5%	18.5%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	2.7%	1.1%	2.1%
		% of Total	1.7%	0.4%	2.1%
		Residual	235.5	-235.5	
	1.17	Count	666	185	851
		Expected Count	551.1	299.9	851.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	78.3%	21.7%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	1.6%	0.8%	1.3%
		% of Total	1.0%	0.3%	1.3%
		Residual	114.9	-114.9	
	1.33	Count	879	209	1088
		Expected Count	704.6	383.4	1088.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	80.8%	19.2%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	2.1%	0.9%	1.6%
		% of Total	1.3%	0.3%	1.6%
		Residual	174.4	-174.4	
	1.50	Count	1022	279	1301
		Expected Count	842.6	458.4	1301.0
% within inextrustinstitutions		78.6%	21.4%	100.0%	
% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)		2.4%	1.2%	2.0%	
% of Total		1.5%	0.4%	2.0%	
Residual		179.4	-179.4		
	1.67	Count	1378	433	1811
		Expected Count	1172.9	638.1	1811.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	76.1%	23.9%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	3.2%	1.9%	2.7%
		% of Total	2.1%	0.7%	2.7%
		Residual	205.1	-205.1	
	1.83	Count	1483	497	1980
		Expected Count	1282.3	697.7	1980.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	74.9%	25.1%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	3.5%	2.1%	3.0%
		% of Total	2.2%	0.8%	3.0%
		Residual	200.7	-200.7	
	Low trust	Count	2240	811	3051
		Expected Count	1975.9	1075.1	3051.0
		% within inextrustinstitutions	73.4%	26.6%	100.0%
		% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	5.2%	3.5%	4.6%
		% of Total	3.4%	1.2%	4.6%
		Residual	264.1	-264.1	
	2.17	Count	2254	903	3157
		Expected Count	2044.6	1112.4	3157.0
% within inextrustinstitutions		71.4%	28.6%	100.0%	
% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)		5.3%	3.9%	4.8%	
% of Total		3.4%	1.4%	4.8%	
Residual		209.4	-209.4		
2.33	Count	2741	1216	3957	
	Expected Count	2562.7	1394.3	3957.0	
	% within inextrustinstitutions	69.3%	30.7%	100.0%	
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	6.4%	5.2%	6.0%	
	% of Total	4.1%	1.8%	6.0%	
	Residual	178.3	-178.3		

2.50	Count	3158	1495	4653
	Expected Count	3013.4	1639.6	4653.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	67.9%	32.1%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	7.4%	6.4%	7.0%
	% of Total	4.8%	2.3%	7.0%
	Residual	144.6	-144.6	
2.67	Count	3535	1835	5370
	Expected Count	3477.8	1892.2	5370.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	65.8%	34.2%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	8.2%	7.9%	8.1%
	% of Total	5.3%	2.8%	8.1%
	Residual	57.2	-57.2	
2.83	Count	3512	1945	5457
	Expected Count	3534.1	1922.9	5457.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	64.4%	35.6%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	8.2%	8.3%	8.2%
	% of Total	5.3%	2.9%	8.2%
	Residual	-22.1	22.1	
Neither high nor low trust	Count	6129	3075	9204
	Expected Count	5960.8	3243.2	9204.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	66.6%	33.4%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	14.3%	13.2%	13.9%
	% of Total	9.3%	4.6%	13.9%
	Residual	168.2	-168.2	
3.17	Count	3113	2218	5331
	Expected Count	3452.5	1878.5	5331.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	58.4%	41.6%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	7.3%	9.5%	8.1%
	% of Total	4.7%	3.4%	8.1%
	Residual	-339.5	339.5	

3.33	Count	2773	2198	4971
	Expected Count	3219.4	1751.6	4971.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	55.8%	44.2%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	6.5%	9.4%	7.5%
	% of Total	4.2%	3.3%	7.5%
	Residual	-446.4	446.4	
3.50	Count	2047	1649	3696
	Expected Count	2393.6	1302.4	3696.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	55.4%	44.6%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	4.8%	7.1%	5.6%
	% of Total	3.1%	2.5%	5.6%
	Residual	-346.6	346.6	
3.67	Count	1443	1287	2730
	Expected Count	1768.0	962.0	2730.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	3.4%	5.5%	4.1%
	% of Total	2.2%	1.9%	4.1%
	Residual	-325.0	325.0	
3.83	Count	1039	927	1966
	Expected Count	1273.2	692.8	1966.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	52.8%	47.2%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	2.4%	4.0%	3.0%
	% of Total	1.6%	1.4%	3.0%
	Residual	-234.2	234.2	
High trust	Count	1288	1036	2324
	Expected Count	1505.1	818.9	2324.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	55.4%	44.6%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	3.0%	4.4%	3.5%
	% of Total	1.9%	1.6%	3.5%
	Residual	-217.1	217.1	

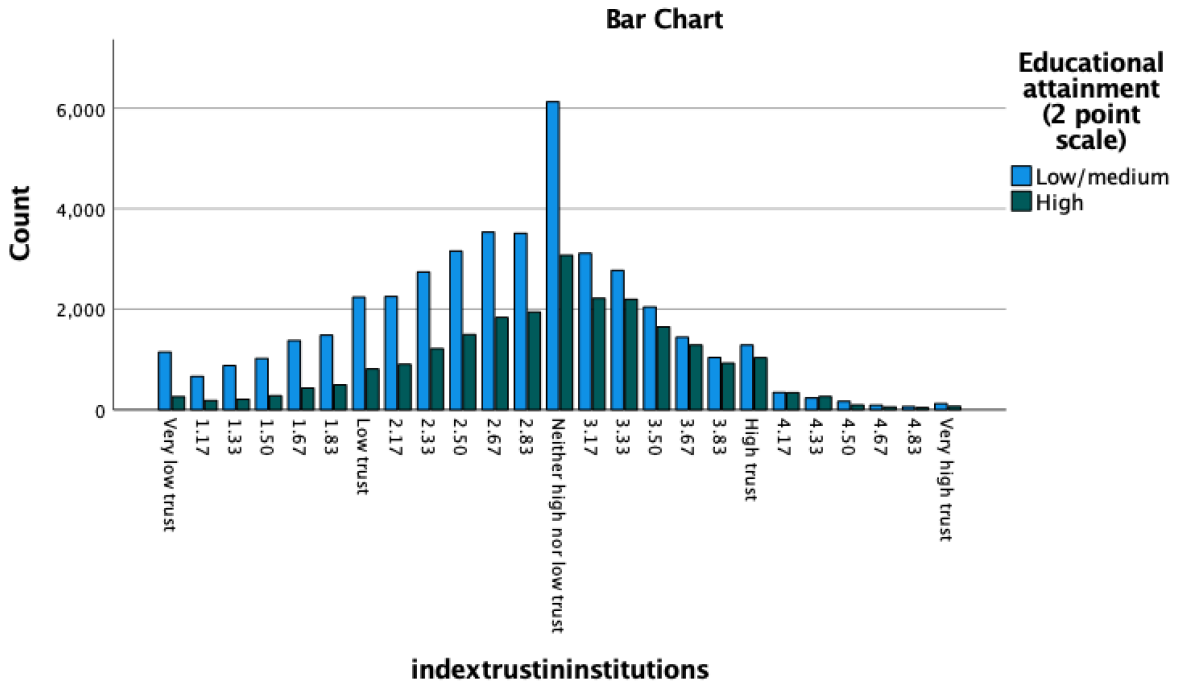
4.17	Count	344	341	685
	Expected Count	443.6	241.4	685.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	50.2%	49.8%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.8%	1.5%	1.0%
	% of Total	0.5%	0.5%	1.0%
	Residual	-99.6	99.6	
4.33	Count	235	265	500
	Expected Count	323.8	176.2	500.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	47.0%	53.0%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.5%	1.1%	0.8%
	% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	0.8%
	Residual	-88.8	88.8	
4.50	Count	166	95	261
	Expected Count	169.0	92.0	261.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	63.6%	36.4%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%
	% of Total	0.3%	0.1%	0.4%
	Residual	-3.0	3.0	
4.67	Count	91	56	147
	Expected Count	95.2	51.8	147.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	61.9%	38.1%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%
	Residual	-4.2	4.2	
4.83	Count	64	43	107
	Expected Count	69.3	37.7	107.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	59.8%	40.2%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%
	Residual	-5.3	5.3	

Very high trust	Count	123	67	190
	Expected Count	123.0	67.0	190.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	64.7%	35.3%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%
	% of Total	0.2%	0.1%	0.3%
	Residual	.0	.0	
Total	Count	42871	23326	66197
	Expected Count	42871.0	23326.0	66197.0
	% within indextrustininstitutions	64.8%	35.2%	100.0%
	% within Educational attainment (2 point scale)	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	64.8%	35.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1822.808 ^a	24	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1855.482	24	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1582.864	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	66197		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37.70.



3. Sex

Crosstab

		Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)			Total	
		Woman	Man	Other		
indextrustinstitutions	Very low trust	Count	622	833	3	1458
		Expected Count	747.2	710.0	.7	1458.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	42.7%	57.1%	0.2%	100.0%
		% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	1.8%	2.5%	8.8%	2.2%
		% of Total	0.9%	1.2%	0.0%	2.2%
		Residual	-125.2	123.0	2.3	
	1.17	Count	343	532	1	876
		Expected Count	449.0	426.6	.4	876.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	39.2%	60.7%	0.1%	100.0%
		% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	1.0%	1.6%	2.9%	1.3%
		% of Total	0.5%	0.8%	0.0%	1.3%
		Residual	-106.0	105.4	.6	
	1.33	Count	500	619	4	1123
		Expected Count	575.6	546.9	.6	1123.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	44.5%	55.1%	0.4%	100.0%
% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)		1.4%	1.9%	11.8%	1.7%	
% of Total		0.7%	0.9%	0.0%	1.7%	
Residual		-75.6	72.1	3.4		
1.50	Count	533	796	0	1329	
	Expected Count	681.1	647.2	.7	1329.0	
	% within indextrustinstitutions	40.1%	59.9%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	1.5%	2.4%	0.0%	2.0%	
	% of Total					
	Residual					

	1.67	Count	830	1019	4	1853
		Expected Count	949.7	902.4	.9	1853.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	44.8%	55.0%	0.2%	100.0%
		% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	2.4%	3.1%	11.8%	2.7%
		% of Total	1.2%	1.5%	0.0%	2.7%
		Residual	-119.7	116.6	3.1	
	1.83	Count	902	1109	1	2012
		Expected Count	1031.2	979.8	1.0	2012.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	44.8%	55.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	2.6%	3.4%	2.9%	3.0%
		% of Total	1.3%	1.6%	0.0%	3.0%
		Residual	-129.2	129.2	.0	
	Low trust	Count	1472	1653	0	3125
		Expected Count	1601.6	1521.8	1.6	3125.0
		% within indextrustinstitutions	47.1%	52.9%	0.0%	100.0%
% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)		4.2%	5.0%	0.0%	4.6%	
% of Total		2.2%	2.4%	0.0%	4.6%	
Residual		-129.6	131.2	-1.6		
2.17	Count	1511	1716	1	3228	
	Expected Count	1654.4	1572.0	1.6	3228.0	
	% within indextrustinstitutions	46.8%	53.2%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	4.4%	5.2%	2.9%	4.8%	
	% of Total	2.2%	2.5%	0.0%	4.8%	
	Residual	-143.4	144.0	-.6		

2.33	Count	2008	2014	2	4024
	Expected Count	2062.4	1959.6	2.0	4024.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	49.9%	50.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	5.8%	6.1%	5.9%	6.0%
	% of Total	3.0%	3.0%	0.0%	6.0%
	Residual	-54.4	54.4	.0	
2.50	Count	2310	2427	3	4740
	Expected Count	2429.3	2308.3	2.4	4740.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	48.7%	51.2%	0.1%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	6.7%	7.4%	8.8%	7.0%
	% of Total	3.4%	3.6%	0.0%	7.0%
	Residual	-119.3	118.7	.6	
2.67	Count	2750	2730	2	5482
	Expected Count	2809.6	2669.6	2.8	5482.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	50.2%	49.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	7.9%	8.3%	5.9%	8.1%
	% of Total	4.1%	4.0%	0.0%	8.1%
	Residual	-59.6	60.4	-.8	
2.83	Count	2834	2717	0	5551
	Expected Count	2845.0	2703.2	2.8	5551.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	51.1%	48.9%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	8.2%	8.3%	0.0%	8.2%
	% of Total	4.2%	4.0%	0.0%	8.2%
	Residual	-11.0	13.8	-2.8	

Neither high nor low trust	Count	5521	3906	5	9432
	Expected Count	4834.0	4593.2	4.7	9432.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	58.5%	41.4%	0.1%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	15.9%	11.9%	14.7%	14.0%
	% of Total	8.2%	5.8%	0.0%	14.0%
	Residual	687.0	-687.2	.3	
3.17	Count	2858	2557	5	5420
	Expected Count	2777.8	2639.4	2.7	5420.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	52.7%	47.2%	0.1%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	8.2%	7.8%	14.7%	8.0%
	% of Total	4.2%	3.8%	0.0%	8.0%
	Residual	80.2	-82.4	2.3	
3.33	Count	2729	2339	1	5069
	Expected Count	2597.9	2468.5	2.5	5069.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	53.8%	46.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	7.9%	7.1%	2.9%	7.5%
	% of Total	4.0%	3.5%	0.0%	7.5%
	Residual	131.1	-129.5	-1.5	
3.50	Count	1953	1815	0	3768
	Expected Count	1931.2	1835.0	1.9	3768.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	51.8%	48.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	5.6%	5.5%	0.0%	5.6%
	% of Total	2.9%	2.7%	0.0%	5.6%
	Residual	21.8	-20.0	-1.9	

3.67	Count	1473	1312	0	2785
	Expected Count	1427.4	1356.2	1.4	2785.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	52.9%	47.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	4.3%	4.0%	0.0%	4.1%
	% of Total	2.2%	1.9%	0.0%	4.1%
	Residual	45.6	-44.2	-1.4	
3.83	Count	1084	919	0	2003
	Expected Count	1026.6	975.4	1.0	2003.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	54.1%	45.9%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	3.1%	2.8%	0.0%	3.0%
	% of Total	1.6%	1.4%	0.0%	3.0%
	Residual	57.4	-56.4	-1.0	
High trust	Count	1390	992	0	2382
	Expected Count	1220.8	1160.0	1.2	2382.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	58.4%	41.6%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	4.0%	3.0%	0.0%	3.5%
	% of Total	2.1%	1.5%	0.0%	3.5%
	Residual	169.2	-168.0	-1.2	
4.17	Count	359	340	0	699
	Expected Count	358.2	340.4	.4	699.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	51.4%	48.6%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	1.0%	1.0%	0.0%	1.0%
	% of Total	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%	1.0%
	Residual	.8	-.4	-.4	

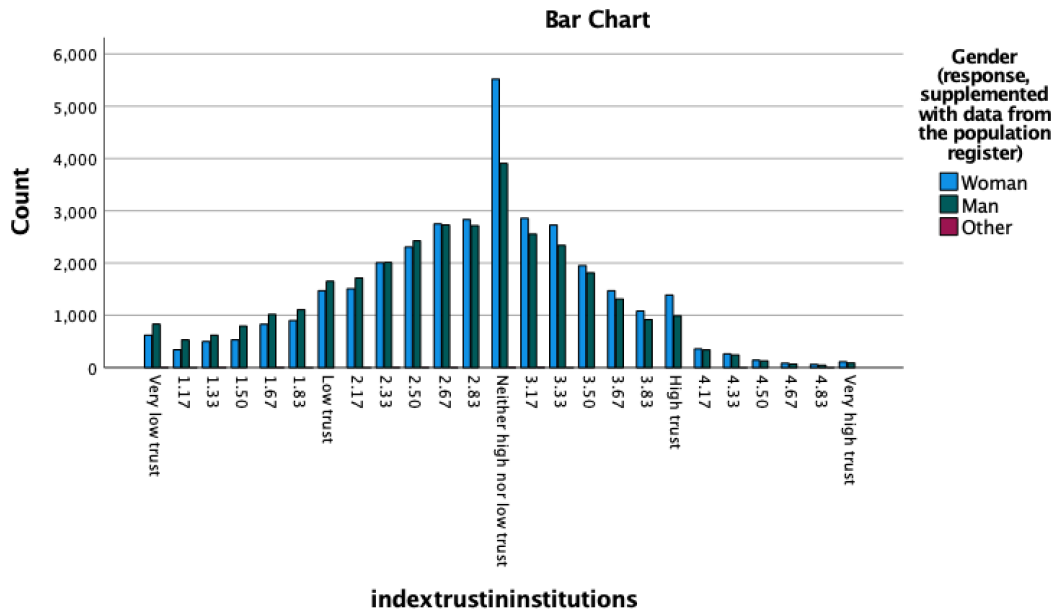
4.33	Count	263	243	1	507
	Expected Count	259.8	246.9	.3	507.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	51.9%	47.9%	0.2%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	0.8%	0.7%	2.9%	0.7%
	% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.7%
	Residual	3.2	-3.9	.7	
4.50	Count	142	130	0	272
	Expected Count	139.4	132.5	.1	272.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	52.2%	47.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.4%
	% of Total	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.4%
	Residual	2.6	-2.5	-.1	
4.67	Count	86	68	0	154
	Expected Count	78.9	75.0	.1	154.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	55.8%	44.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%
	Residual	7.1	-7.0	-.1	
4.83	Count	62	48	1	111
	Expected Count	56.9	54.1	.1	111.0
	% within inextrustinstitutions	55.9%	43.2%	0.9%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	0.2%	0.1%	2.9%	0.2%
	% of Total	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%
	Residual	5.1	-6.1	.9	

	Residual	5.1	-6.1	.9	
Very high trust	Count	113	88	0	201
	Expected Count	103.0	97.9	.1	201.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	56.2%	43.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	0.3%	0.3%	0.0%	0.3%
	% of Total	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%
	Residual	10.0	-9.9	-.1	
Total	Count	34648	32922	34	67604
	Expected Count	34648.0	32922.0	34.0	67604.0
	% within indextrustinstitutions	51.3%	48.7%	0.1%	100.0%
	% within Gender (response, supplemented with data from the population register)	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	51.3%	48.7%	0.1%	100.0%
	Residual				

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	660.105 ^a	48	<.001
Likelihood Ratio	640.678	48	<.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	358.934	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	67604		

a. 25 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .06.



Appendix 5 - Multivariate Regression

5.1 - 2010

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
indextrustinstitutions	3.0732	.72150	2547
Educational attainment (2 point scale)	1.37	.484	2547
Gross household income (5 point scale)	3.19	1.287	2547
areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	.0452	.20768	2547
Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.0722	.25894	2547
Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	.0691	.25368	2547
Labourmarketsituation_dummy	.3094	.46233	2547
genderman_dummy	.4892	.49998	2547

Model Summary^d

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			
						F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.184 ^a	.034	.034	.70928	.034	89.517	1	2545	<.001
2	.230 ^b	.053	.052	.70244	.019	50.793	1	2544	<.001
3	.243 ^c	.059	.057	.70078	.006	3.422	5	2539	.004

a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale)

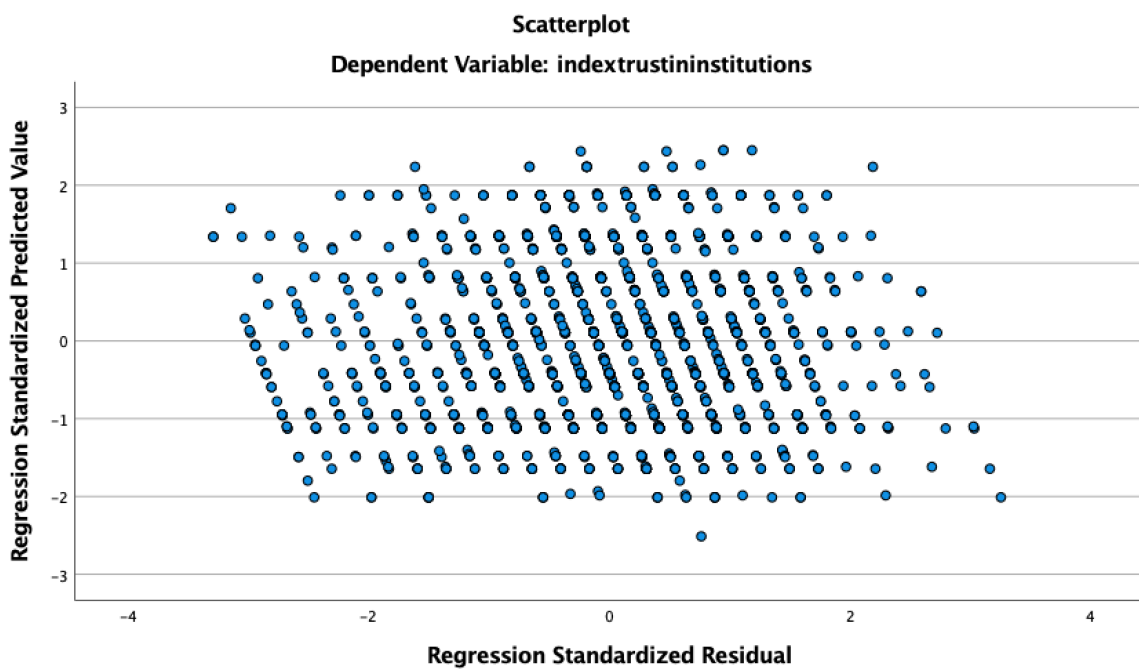
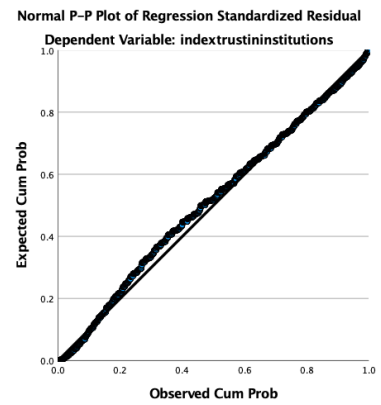
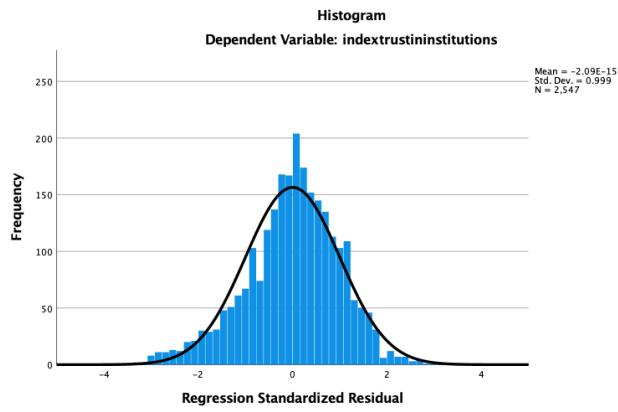
c. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale), Areaofupbringingmother_dummy, genderman_dummy, Labourmarketsituation_dummy, areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy, Areaofupbringingfather_dummy

d. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.696	.042		63.711	.000	2.613	2.779
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.275	.029	.184	9.461	<.001	.218	.332
2	(Constant)	2.514	.049		51.260	.000	2.418	2.610
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.223	.030	.149	7.495	<.001	.164	.281
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.080	.011	.142	7.127	<.001	.058	.101
3	(Constant)	2.501	.060		41.637	<.001	2.383	2.619
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.217	.030	.145	7.191	<.001	.158	.276
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.093	.012	.167	7.537	<.001	.069	.118
	genderman_dummy	-.091	.028	-.063	-3.236	.001	-.146	-.036
	areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	-.009	.109	-.003	-.085	.932	-.223	.204
	Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.193	.110	.069	1.759	.079	-.022	.408
	Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	-.179	.113	-.063	-1.590	.112	-.400	.042
	Labourmarketsituation_dummy	.064	.034	.041	1.904	.057	-.002	.131

a. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions



5.2 - 2015

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
indextrustinstitutions	2.7578	.74578	1192
Educational attainment (2 point scale)	1.46	.499	1192
Gross household income (5 point scale)	3.37	1.354	1192
areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	.0604	.23833	1192
Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.0898	.28596	1192
Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	.0856	.27985	1192
Labourmarketsituation_dummy	.3549	.47867	1192
genderman_dummy	.5059	.50018	1192

Model Summary^d

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.139 ^a	.019	.019	.73883
2	.140 ^b	.020	.018	.73908
3	.203 ^c	.041	.036	.73237

a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale)

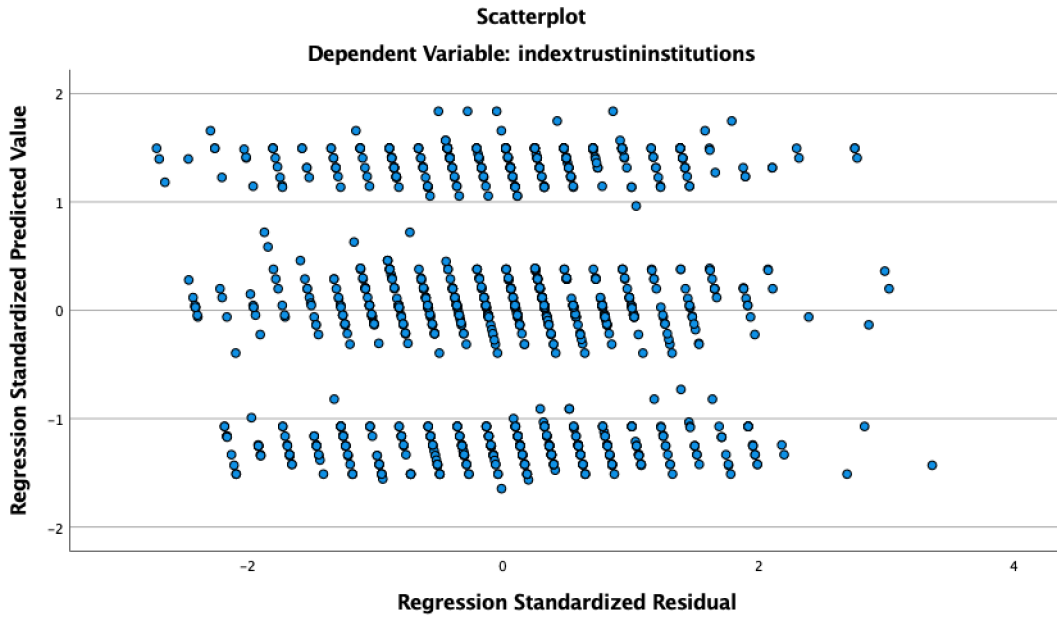
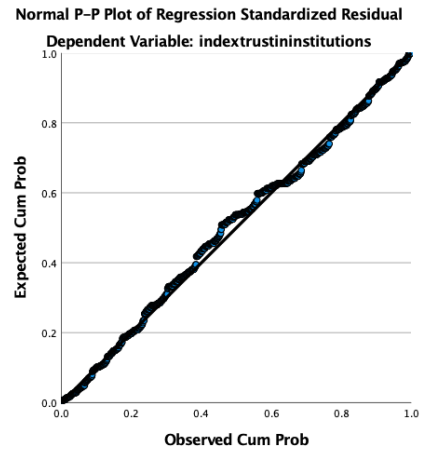
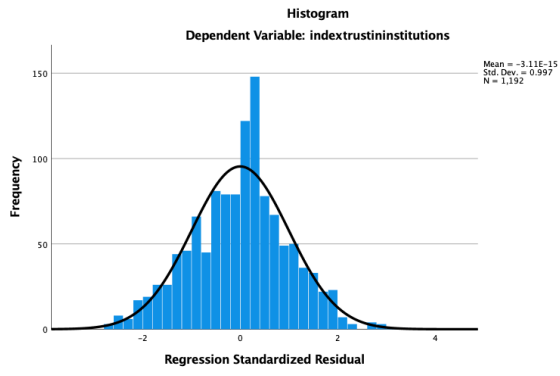
c. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale), Areaofupbringingfather_dummy, genderman_dummy, Labourmarketsituation_dummy, areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy, Areaofupbringingmother_dummy

d. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.454	.066		37.067	<.001	2.324	2.584
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.208	.043	.139	4.849	<.001	.124	.292
2	(Constant)	2.437	.076		32.034	<.001	2.288	2.586
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.203	.045	.135	4.535	<.001	.115	.290
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.007	.016	.014	.453	.650	-.025	.040
3	(Constant)	2.578	.095		27.181	<.001	2.392	2.764
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.169	.046	.113	3.720	<.001	.080	.259
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.014	.018	.025	.763	.446	-.021	.049
	genderman_dummy	-.220	.043	-.147	-5.116	<.001	-.304	-.136
	areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	.072	.162	.023	.445	.657	-.246	.390
	Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.006	.158	.002	.038	.970	-.305	.317
	Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	-.026	.169	-.010	-.156	.876	-.359	.306
Labourmarketsituation_dummy	-.012	.050	-.008	-.248	.804	-.110	.085	

a. Dependent Variable: indextrustinstitutions



Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
indextrustininstitutions	2.9508	.79065	1511
Educational attainment (2 point scale)	1.48	.500	1511
areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	.0556	.22921	1511
Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.0960	.29464	1511
Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	.0913	.28817	1511
Labourmarketsituation_dummy	.3779	.48502	1511
genderman_dummy	.4878	.50002	1511

Model Summary^d

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.191 ^a	.037	.036	.77910
2	.191 ^b	.037	.035	.77932
3	.253 ^c	.064	.060	.76945

a. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale)

c. Predictors: (Constant), Educational attainment (2 point scale), Gross household income (5 point scale), Areaofupbringingfather_dummy, genderman_dummy, Labourmarketsituation_dummy, areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy, Areaofupbringingmother_dummy

d. Dependent Variable: indextrustininstitutions

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	2.500	.065		38.524	<.001	2.373	2.627
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.303	.041	.191	7.332	<.001	.222	.384
2	(Constant)	2.481	.077		32.380	<.001	2.331	2.631
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.298	.043	.188	6.922	<.001	.213	.382
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.007	.016	.012	.460	.645	-.024	.038
3	(Constant)	2.697	.092		29.223	<.001	2.516	2.878
	Educational attainment (2 point scale)	.264	.043	.166	6.104	<.001	.179	.348
	Gross household income (5 point scale)	.004	.017	.006	.216	.829	-.030	.038
	genderman_dummy	-.230	.041	-.145	-5.561	<.001	-.312	-.149
	areaofupbringingpersonal_dummy	.202	.128	.060	1.583	.114	-.048	.453
	Areaofupbringingfather_dummy	.106	.123	.040	.863	.388	-.135	.348
	Areaofupbringingmother_dummy	-.301	.128	-.111	-2.345	.019	-.553	-.049
Labourmarketsituation_dummy	-.081	.048	-.049	-1.707	.088	-.175	.012	

a. Dependent Variable: indextrustininstitutions

