SPECIAL THEME: SOCIO-ECONOMIC POSITION

Mortality by education in German speaking Switzerland, 1990–1997: results from the Swiss National Cohort

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Background The aim of this paper is to show for the first time mortality differentials by level of education for Swiss men and women. This work is of interest to public health efforts in Switzerland as well as for co-operative international research into the determinants of socioeconomic differentials in health and mortality.

Methods This study is based on a longitudinal data set from the Swiss National Cohort, currently incorporating a probabilistic record linkage of the 1990 Swiss census, and all subsequent deaths until the end of 1997. The study population covers all Swiss nationals aged ≥25 years living in German speaking Switzerland, with 19.7 million person-years and 296,929 deaths observed. Educational gradients were analysed using standardized mortality ratios, multiple logistic regression, and the Relative Index of Inequality (RII).

Results There were sizeable gradients in mortality by education for all age groups and both sexes. The mortality odds ratio decreased by 7.2% (95% CI: 7.0–7.5%) per additional year of education for men, and by 6.0% (95% CI: 5.6–6.3%) for women. In men, we found a steady decrease of the gradient from 13.1% (95% CI: 11.9–14.4%) in the age group 25–39 to 4.5% (95% CI: 4.0–5.0%) in the age group ≥75 years. For women in the age groups under 65 the gradients were smaller; over the age of 40 there was no decrease with increasing age. These results were fairly insensitive to variations in the parameters of record linkage.

Conclusions Despite a comparatively low overall mortality, Swiss men in the 1990s show larger relative gradients in mortality by education than men in other European countries in the 1980s, with the possible exception of younger men in Italy. In Switzerland there is a sizeable potential for further increasing overall life expectancy by reducing the mortality of those with a lower educational level. The results presented contribute to a reliable assessment of socioeconomic mortality differentials in Europe.

Keywords Census, cohort studies, data linkage, death records, differential mortality, educational status, Europe, female, inequality, longitudinal, mortality, record linkage, socioeconomic factors, Switzerland

In the last decades of the 20th century, a resurgence of interest in health inequalities by socioeconomic status (SES) could be observed. During this time, several comprehensive reviews were published covering various European countries.¹⁻¹¹ An overview of the recent European situation can be gained from the publications of the Mackenbach group.¹²⁻¹⁶ The reason for the renewed interest is the accepted view that in most countries an accentuation of inequalities has occurred over the last 20 years.¹⁷⁻²² In addition, some recent studies found evidence...
of causes for socioeconomic health disadvantages in early life as well as for factors perpetuating such health disadvantages over generations.\textsuperscript{23,24} This lead to policy initiatives explicitly aimed at reducing SES-related health inequalities.\textsuperscript{25,26}

A promising line of research is to compare the socioeconomic health differentials of many countries. The databases used by Kunst et al.\textsuperscript{12,13} were of varying quality: data from representative longitudinal studies were available for France, England and Wales, and the Nordic countries, while some data incorporated into their analyses were either cross-sectional or non-representative (Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Portugal). There is consensus about the limitations of cross-sectional data (e.g. descriptive instead of analytical approach, numerator/denominator bias, ecological fallacy). Thus there is an interest in obtaining solid longitudinal evidence from other European countries.

Research into mortality according to education

Educational and income information being rarely available on death certificates, research into socioeconomic mortality differentials in Europe is based mainly on occupational information. Consequently, such research is centred on males of working age. Analysis of mortality by education is less prone to such imbalance. Most studies of mortality by education have been conducted in the Nordic countries,\textsuperscript{4,12,22,27,31} and the US.\textsuperscript{32,37} Additional knowledge is contributed by longitudinal studies from England, France and Italy,\textsuperscript{12,13} Austria,\textsuperscript{38} and Israel,\textsuperscript{39} as well as by some cross-sectional studies.\textsuperscript{16,40,41} All except one study\textsuperscript{36} reported substantial mortality gradients by educational level, with two additional exceptions concerning older females\textsuperscript{37} or older males.\textsuperscript{39} However, most studies are restricted to people under 70, with only a few studies presenting detailed age-specific results for those aged over 65 years.\textsuperscript{22,27,38}

The reported inequalities in mortality by education are generally significantly larger for males than for females. However, not all studies have found a difference in educational mortality gradients by gender,\textsuperscript{27,31,36} and some have found a stronger gradient for females.\textsuperscript{30,39} or shown inconsistencies according to the time period\textsuperscript{3} or the life stage.\textsuperscript{38} Various explanations for the smaller gradient in women were provided: a different pattern of risk factors\textsuperscript{16} and hence differences in the distribution of causes of death,\textsuperscript{16,29} as well as in employment and family status.\textsuperscript{28} As a rule, risk ratios decrease with increasing age, though this pattern is inconsistent in females.\textsuperscript{38,39}

Research into health inequalities in Switzerland

Switzerland has a long history of sporadically presenting mortality data by occupational categories.\textsuperscript{42} Between 1910 and the 1980s there were few publications on this topic. In the 1980s, renewed interest resulted in studies of cancer mortality by occupation\textsuperscript{43,44} and mortality by social class.\textsuperscript{42,45,46} These efforts culminated in the participation in the above mentioned EU consortium project.\textsuperscript{1,12,14,15} However, all these analyses were cross-sectional in nature and, lacking other socioeconomic information in death records, restricted to occupationally based categories.

Representative data on reported morbidity, symptoms, and risk factors in relation to education and other socioeconomic variables have been available from health surveys since the early 1980s,\textsuperscript{47–51} the latest being the Swiss Health Survey of 1997 for which our team has prepared a report on SES by education, occupational group, and income.\textsuperscript{52}

However, so far there has been no data set available for studying morbidity or mortality with a longitudinal design. This has changed with the inception of the Swiss National Cohort Study, of which this paper is the first report. The study population selected for the present analysis is representative of the German speaking part of Switzerland and covers more than 7 years of follow-up. This study is important for Switzerland as it is the first analysis of Swiss mortality data by educational class, and the first such analysis including women.

Aims of this study

The primary aim of the present study was to quantify mortality differentials by education in Switzerland. This is of interest for Swiss public health and health policy and may serve to support political interventions to reduce health differentials. However, the study has a claim to wider interest. In previous European co-operative studies, it became evident that there is little solid knowledge about socioeconomic differentials in mortality for the central, eastern, and southern European regions.\textsuperscript{16} Even for Italy, Spain, and Portugal, it remains unclear whether the findings published so far can be considered representative for these countries. Thus, the Swiss National Cohort Project provides solid evidence of the magnitude and consistency of health differentials by education for a region of Europe with limited corresponding information. The study also adds to the knowledge about socioeconomic differentials in the 1990s.

Material and Methods

Setting and educational system

Politically, Switzerland is a federation of 26 cantons, each having a high degree of internal autonomy. For example health and education are in the cantonal domain, and there are major variations between the cantons in these systems.\textsuperscript{49,53} The country comprises three major cultural groups: the German Swiss (17 cantons entirely German speaking, 2 predominantly; 72% of total population), the French Swiss (4 cantons entirely French speaking, 2 predominantly; 23% of total population) and Italian Swiss (1 canton; 4% of total population) (Figure 1).

School entry age varies between the cantons, but in German-speaking Switzerland is between the age of 6 and 7. Nine years of schooling are compulsory, resulting in a minimum school leaving age of 15 years. Before retirement age, the category ‘education not mentioned’ mainly concerns people living in institutions. After compulsory schooling a majority of men and women have additional education, mainly 2–4 years of vocational training, or (less frequently) 3–5 years of high school including teachers’ training colleges, which accounts for the female preponderance in this category. Older women have mostly only completed compulsory school. Generally, upper vocational education and technical colleges follow vocational training, whereas university schooling requires a high school education. A university degree is usually obtained by the age of 25.
Study population

We obtained all anonymous records of the Swiss census of 4 December 1990 from the Swiss Federal Office of Statistics. This database was used as a population register. Mortality analyses for foreign nationals living in Switzerland are seriously biased by numerator/denominator problems and migration effects.\(^5^4,5^5\) For this reason and in view of internationally different educational systems we excluded the death and census records of foreign nationals. Substantial differences in the systems of education between the Swiss cultural groups (53, ref. 56, p. 686) and in the proportions of successfully linked records (see section on record linkage) led us to restrict the present analysis to Swiss nationals living in predominantly German-speaking areas. As outlined above, university schooling is generally not completed before the age of 25. We therefore applied a lower age limit of 25 years. Of a total of 4.197 million Swiss nationals living in the German-speaking parts of the country, 1.276 million were younger than 25 years. Thus, the study encompassed 2.921 million people and 19.735 million person-years.

Deaths

We obtained all anonymous death records for the years 1990–1997 from the Swiss Federal Office of Statistics. Between 5 December 1990 (the day after the census) and 31 December 1997, 443,219 deaths were registered in Switzerland. Of these, we excluded 36,282 deaths of children born after the 1990 census, 28,397 deaths of foreign nationals, and 6,777 deaths of Swiss nationals aged <25 years at the date of the census. Of the remaining 404,417 deaths, 73.4% concerned individuals who had lived in the study area; of these 145,206 were male and 151,723 were female.

Record linkage

Death certificate records and census records were linked on the basis of coinciding key variables (sex, birth date, commune of residence, marital status, and religious denomination). A probabilistic record linkage method was used\(^5^7,5^8\) and several scenarios with different weighting of the key variables were executed in order to obtain optimal linkage quality. Linkage was done in two phases. In phase A, each death record was classified according to the number of potential counterparts in the census (Table 1) and then processed. Using strict criteria for linkage (no discordance in any key variable, no further record with the same combination of key variables) 73.3% of death records could be linked. Under these criteria, even a single minor discordance prevented linkage. In phase B, all death records not strictly linked in phase A were successively processed through passes 1 to 4. For 16.2% of death records this meant a search for a better link, while 10.5% still had no link in phase A. Inspection showed that strict linkage excluded some good links. In the default version we therefore focused on a threshold permitting linkage with one major or several minor discordances depending on pocket size (e.g. deviations leading to a record linkage in a small village might not be acceptable in a larger...
municipality). In this way, 88.6% of death records could be linked. Excluding only the improbable linkages ('liberal criteria'), 96.2% of the death records could be linked. Information on record linkage procedures and the quality of linkage are given in detail elsewhere. An investigation of the 11.4% of deaths not linked for the default version revealed that this proportion was higher for inhabitants of larger cities (27%), for younger people (24% in the ages 25–34), those who were divorced (15%), and for women (13%).

We also did sensitivity analyses excluding cities with more than 50,000 inhabitants, the locations where linkage quality was lowest. Even excluding these larger cities, our study comprised 60% of all Swiss nationals aged ≥25 years. Within this group in the default version 94.3% of death records could be linked to a census record.

Measures of mortality

Age was determined at the time of the census, i.e. 4 December 1990. Mortality rates were calculated for 5-year age-sex classes using numbers of deaths and person-years at risk. Individuals registered in the census that could not be linked to a death record were assumed to be alive at the end of the follow-up. Based on the resulting age-specific rates, standardized mortality ratios for all educational categories were determined by the indirect method (basis: study population). Inequalities were quantified by comparing standardized mortality ratios between the different educational categories as well as by measures of slope such as the Relative Index of Inequality (RII). The RII adjusts for the variation in the size of the individual educational groups and therefore can be considered to be an appropriate inequality index for comparing countries with respect to the size of health inequalities by educational level. The association of mortality with the number of years of education was analysed using individual data and logistic regression with years of education and age as independent variables (age in years, linear and quadratic; the quadratic term was introduced to allow for a progressive increase of mortality with age).

### Results

Table 2 presents the prevalence of the nine categories of educational use in the 1990 census for the study population. The numbers of years of education in the first column were obtained from the Swiss Statistical Yearbook; (ref. 61, p. 332) they are fairly high in Switzerland compared with other European countries (Cavelaars, Kunst et al.). The proportions of each educational category are given separately for men and women before and after age 65, the common retirement age for men. A shift to higher education may be observed in the younger age groups. This shift is more marked for women than for men. Given the small numbers in some educational categories, it seemed justified to aggregate the nine educational categories into four groups as indicated in Table 2.

Table 3 presents male relative mortality by age (on 4 December 1990) and educational group. Generally, the rank order of the relative risks is the same for the younger as for the older age groups, with lower mortality for those categories with longer duration of education. However, the risk elevation for those with no secondary education is much more pronounced before and after age 65, the common retirement age for men. A shift to higher education may be observed in the younger age groups. This shift is more marked for women than for men. Given the small numbers in some educational categories, it seemed justified to aggregate the nine educational categories into four groups as indicated in Table 2.

Table 3a presents male relative mortality by age (on 4 December 1990) and educational group. Generally, the rank order of the relative risks is the same for the younger as for the older age groups, with lower mortality for those categories with longer duration of education. However, the risk elevation for those with no secondary education is much more pronounced in the younger age groups. Table 3b presents the analogous information for Swiss women. The smaller gradients for women are noteworthy as is the small mortality difference between female university graduates and other female tertiary graduates (except at ages ≥75 years).

Figure 2 shows the mortality rates by age group and educational group. There are large relative differences in mortality between educational groups for younger ages and smaller differences for the older ages, especially for men. However, in men the relative position of each educational group remains the same for all ages under 90, and the absolute differentials do not decrease with age. A higher level of education goes along with reduced mortality, with risk ratios exceeding 3 in younger men. For women in the younger and middle age groups the gradients were flatter; over age 45 there was no decrease with increasing age. Except for some inconsistencies in the small group of female
university graduates, the relative position of the educational groups under age 90 does not depend on the age. The small group of younger men and women not having completed compulsory education were found to have very unfavourable mortality risk ratios (data not shown).

A multiple logistic regression, including all subjects aged 25 years at the 1990 census, with age (linear and quadratic) and estimated years of education as independent variables, showed that for men the mortality odds ratio decreased by 7.2% per year of education (95% CI: 7.0–7.5%), while for females the reduction was 6.0% (95% CI: 5.6–6.3%). The slightly smaller gradient for women applies only for the age groups under 65. In men, there was a steady decrease of the gradient from 13.1% (95% CI: 11.9–14.4%) in the age group 25–39 to 4.5% (95% CI: ≥4.0–5.0%) in the age group ≥75 years. For women in the age groups under 65 the gradients were smaller and over the age of 40 there was no decrease with increasing age (Table 4).

Sensitivity analyses
The above analyses were repeated with different levels of stringency for the record linkage (Table 4). For men and women aged <75 years, the slope in the percentage decrease in mortality with one year of additional education increased considerably when applying strict criteria for linkage (definition in Methods). Applying liberal linkage criteria caused only a modest reduction of the slope in most age groups (with the exception of 25–39 years). Exclusion of the seven cities with more than 50 000 inhabitants showed only minor changes (table available from authors).

International comparison
Table 5 compares the RII based on the four educational groups from Table 3 with results from five other European countries (table adapted from Kunst et al.12). For men aged 45–59 years, the 1990s Swiss gradient in mortality by education is clearly the steepest, for men aged 30–44 years it is exceeded only by Italy. For women, the Swiss gradients are comparable to other countries.

Discussion
For Switzerland, this is the first representative longitudinal study of mortality, the first study of mortality differentials by educational level as well as the first representative study of

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**Table 2** Highest educational level in 1990 (proportion of population), Swiss nationals living in German speaking areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of education</th>
<th>Ages 25–64</th>
<th>Ages 65+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical college</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper vocational</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational education</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No secondary education mentioned</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete compulsory schooling</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education not mentioned</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Source: Statistical Yearbook of Switzerland (ref. 61, p. 332).

**Table 3** Standardized mortality ratios 1990–1997 (95% CI) by educational level, Swiss National Cohort: Swiss nationals aged ≥25 years and living in German speaking areas (educational categories cf. Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age at start of follow-up (years)</th>
<th>25–39</th>
<th>40–54</th>
<th>55–64</th>
<th>65–74</th>
<th>75+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linked death records</td>
<td>4617</td>
<td>11 382</td>
<td>18 996</td>
<td>36 409</td>
<td>59 365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest educational level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school (university)</td>
<td>61 (54–70)</td>
<td>59 (54–64)</td>
<td>63 (58–67)</td>
<td>71 (68–75)</td>
<td>79 (76–82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
<td>71 (66–77)</td>
<td>70 (67–73)</td>
<td>77 (74–81)</td>
<td>79 (76–81)</td>
<td>89 (86–91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational education</td>
<td>99 (95–103)</td>
<td>102 (99–104)</td>
<td>96 (94–98)</td>
<td>95 (94–96)</td>
<td>98 (96–99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linked death records</td>
<td>2305</td>
<td>6802</td>
<td>10 852</td>
<td>25 060</td>
<td>87 334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest educational level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school (university)</td>
<td>78 (60–99)</td>
<td>82 (68–97)</td>
<td>70 (56–86)</td>
<td>83 (72–96)</td>
<td>75 (68–83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary education</td>
<td>79 (70–89)</td>
<td>80 (73–87)</td>
<td>78 (72–85)</td>
<td>77 (73–82)</td>
<td>85 (82–88)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational education</td>
<td>93 (88–98)</td>
<td>94 (91–97)</td>
<td>92 (89–94)</td>
<td>87 (85–89)</td>
<td>90 (89–91)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

mortality gradients by socioeconomic status for women. As Kunst (ref. 13, p. 218) has stated, ‘only a few countries have detailed, reliable and nationally representative data on socioeconomic differences in mortality’. In view of this and given the fact that only a few studies have dealt with women and people aged >65 years, this study supplies new evidence for research into socioeconomic inequalities in health and their cross-cultural comparison.

For our German Swiss study population, we found sizeable gradients in mortality by education for all age groups; the pattern of mortality was fairly consistent between ages 25 and 89. The significantly larger gradients for males than for females in those aged under 65 are in accordance with the majority of the literature (Introduction). As in other studies,22,27,33,38 the relative inequalities for males decreased with increasing age. For females over 45 this is not the case, a finding that is difficult to judge given the sparse and rather inconsistent results from other European studies.28,38

What are the reasons for the large mortality gradients by education in Swiss males in the 1990s compared with the data published by Kunst et al.?12 This difference could be the result of comparing Swiss data from the 1990s with data from other European countries from the 1980s. It cannot be ruled out that the steeper Swiss gradients reflect the general widening of socioeconomic differentials reported from several countries. However, given the stable economic situation of Switzerland and today’s understanding of origins of social differences in health, such a substantial increase within only a decade seems rather unlikely. As mentioned, the Swiss studies focusing on the early 1980s are not methodologically comparable with our study (unlinked cross-sectional design, based on occupation instead of education). However, the reported risk ratios reached a similar size.

Are the results obtained here reliable? Incomplete census forms were quite rare in the 1990 Swiss census and therefore were not a major source of differential misclassification. A source of bias could be death certificates not linked at all or linked to the wrong census record. With a strict record linkage threshold, the probability of incorrect linkages could be minimized, but only at the price of losing a substantial number of probably correct linkages and a selection bias in favour of the least mobile groups, e.g. homeowners and the sick. Indeed, the more restrictive the linkage requirements, the steeper were the gradients. With liberal linkage criteria, the probability of incorrect linkage increases and the resulting non-differential misclassification will dilute the real differences. As a compromise, we chose a threshold balancing false-positively and false-negatively linked records, permitting the linkage of 89% of death records. There is still some room for bias because there were subgroups for which the fraction of unlinked deaths was larger. Thus, the results for city dwellers and for those aged <40 years may be less reliable. However, our sensitivity analyses indicate that these effects are likely to be small.

Switzerland is a country with high life expectancy. However, life expectancy is determined more and more by the mortality risks of the elderly. Unfavourable mortality in younger ages may be masked by a favourable situation in the older ages. This is the case in Switzerland, with elevated mortality rates for those aged 20–49 years62 compared with other western European countries. Together with our finding of a particularly steep
educational gradient in mortality in this age group, a focus for prevention efforts is clearly identified. As the differentials in mortality by education also apply to older age groups, there is sizeable potential for further increasing overall life expectancy by reducing the mortality of those with a lower level of education.

Acknowledgements
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KEY MESSAGES

- Given the relative scarcity and often limited representativity of European longitudinal studies, the Swiss National Cohort Study supplies new evidence of inequalities in health by education.
- In German speaking Switzerland in the 1990s there were substantial gradients in mortality by education for all ages between 25 and 90 and both sexes.
- Overall, the mortality odds ratio decreased by 7.2% (95% CI: 7.0–7.5) per additional year of education for men, and by 6.0% (95% CI: 5.6–6.3) for women.
- In those aged under 65, gradients for males were significantly larger than for females.
- The relative inequality in mortality by education of Swiss men under 60 years is among the largest published so far.

References

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