IMPACIM

THE IMPACT OF RESTRICTIONS AND ENTITLEMENTS ON THE INTEGRATION OF FAMILY MIGRANTS

ERASMUS UNIVERSITEIT ROTTERDAM

Analysis of Existing Quantitative Data on Family Migration: The Netherlands

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1. Data Sources

The statistical data included in this report originates from the Dutch central statistics agency, Statistics Netherlands (*Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* – CBS), and The Netherlands Institute for Social Research (*Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau* – SCP). We use the two following data sources.

1.1 Demographic data

The demographic data of the CBS is based on the municipality registries (*Gemeentelijke Basisadministratie persoonsgegevens* - GBA). The statistics on the nationalities of migrants and different types of migrants, in our case in particular the family migrants, are based on the yearly figures of the Dutch Immigration and Naturalisation Service (*Immigratie- en Naturalisatiedienst* - IND) of the Ministry of Security and Justice. These figures are linked to the GBA by CBS, which enables more detailed analysis. This data is publicly available through the StatLine website (http://statline.cbs.nl). In line with the specified time frame of the project, we only use data from 2000 onwards. The data covers the whole population of migrants unless otherwise indicated in the analyses.

The information the CBS receives from the IND is not always complete, in which case the CBS makes an estimate of the missing data. This is the case for a large part of European Union (EU) nationals (except for Bulgarians and Romanians) whose migration motive is not registered since they do not need to obtain a residence permit for stays longer than three months since May 2006. This also applies to persons from the European Economic Area (EEA) countries: Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland. The number of EEA family migrants is estimated by using information from the GBA, such as the registration year of the partner, year of marriage or cohabitation, and the age at the time of immigration. The other (unknown) motives for migration, in this case mainly labour and study, are imputed. It should also be noted that due to rounding off, it is possible that the sum of the individual motives of migrants is not equal to the total.

1.2 Survey data

We use two migrant surveys to primarily examine labour market integration outcomes, but also include political/civic participation and access to public services and housing. Both were conducted by CBS and SCP: Living Conditions of Urban Migrants (*Leefsituatie Allochtone Stedelingen* – LAS) dating from 2004-2005 and Survey on the Integration of Minorities (*Survey Integratie Minderheden* – SIM) dating from 2006. These data are not publicly available and have been obtained with the permission of the CBS.

We use the following question included in both surveys to classify migrants:

Question: Why did you come to live in the Netherlands? What was your main reason?

Answer categories:

- Work
- Studies
- Social security
- Political situation in country of origin
- Family reunification (with parent or partner who was already in the Netherlands)
- Marriage/family formation
- Came together with parents
- Health/medical facilities
- Future of children/education of children
- On holiday and stayed in the Netherlands afterwards
- Other
- Does not apply/Does not know/Does not want to say/No answer

As these are surveys, we do not know if the stated reasons correspond to the official migration status. We have thus taken these answers at their face value and have recoded the different answer categories as follows in order to enable comparative analyses between different types of migrants:

- *Family migrants*: family reunification (with parent or partner who was already in the Netherlands), marriage/family formation, came together with parents
- *Labour migrants:* work
- *Asylum seekers*: political situation in country of origin
- *Students*: studies
- *Other migrants*: social security, health/medical facilities, future of children/education of children, on holiday and stayed in the Netherlands afterwards, other
- *Missing:* does not apply/does not know/does not want to say/no answer.

Both LAS and SIM include the four largest migrant groups living in the Netherlands: migrants of Turkish, Moroccan, Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban origin. However, as all these migrant groups are third-country nationals (TCNs), their restrictions and entitlements in the Netherlands are similar. That is why we especially focus on the differences between different types of migrants in our analyses of the survey data so as to explore whether different legal conditions have diverging impact on integration outcomes.

LAS[1] includes a random sample of Moroccan, Turkish, Surinamese, and Antillean migrants and native Dutch people between the ages of 15-65 in the largest 50 municipalities of the Netherlands. The random sample was obtained through the municipal registers and stratified according to ethnic groups and size of the municipality. The data collection took place between October 2004-May 2005 through face-to-face interviews. The resulting data included 3,923 respondents with an overall response rate of 44%.

1 Schothorst, Yolanda, 2005, *Veldwerkverslag 'Leefsituatie Allochtone Stedelingen' (LAS2004):* een onderzoek uitgevoerd in opdracht van het Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau (SCP), Veldkamp, Amsterdam.

SIM[2] includes a random sample of the five largest population groups in the Netherlands: native Dutch, Turkish, Moroccan, Surinamese, and Antillean/Aruban. The random sample was obtained through the municipal registers and stratified according to ethnic groups. The resulting sample covered individuals who were 15 years old and older around the whole country and included at least ten addresses per municipality. The resulting data included 5,250 respondents with an overall response rate of 53%.

LAS includes 1,534 family migrants, and SIM includes a sample of 1,803 family migrants in total. As only 112 of the LAS family migrants and 163 of SIM family migrants migrated to the Netherlands after 2000, we have included the whole sample of family migrants in the analysis to obtain a broader and more representative picture.

A last note of caution concerns item non-response rates. As the reader will realize, some survey questions have not been answered by all respondents as a result of which the number of respondents for particular questions are so low that there are too few observations per sub-case. This should be taken into consideration on a case-per-case basis by examining the numbers of respondents per question.

Finally, percentages in some of the tables that follow and that relate to the surveys do not always add up to 100. This is because of rounding off practices.

2 Hilhorst, Marsha, 2007, *Survey Integratie Minderheden SIM 2006 Veldwerkverslag*, Veldkamp, Amsterdam.

2. Who are the family migrants?

In this section, we rely on the demographic data of the CBS, which is based on the municipality registers and the migration statistics of the IND.

2.1 Migration motives

According to the latest official statistical figures in 2009 (see Table 1), labour migration has been the most common motive for migration to the Netherlands since 2006, followed by family migration and education. This has not always been the case though. Between 2003-2005, family migration was the largest source of migration. The decrease in the arrival of family migrants from more than 30,000 per year in the early 2000s to around 25,000 in the mid-2000s has been attributed to new legislation that has introduced more stringent pre-entry conditions for family migrants (Muermans en Liu 2009). The absolute number of family migrants has been rising again since 2008 though, which might suggest that the initial drop might be explained as an initial adaptation period to the new law.

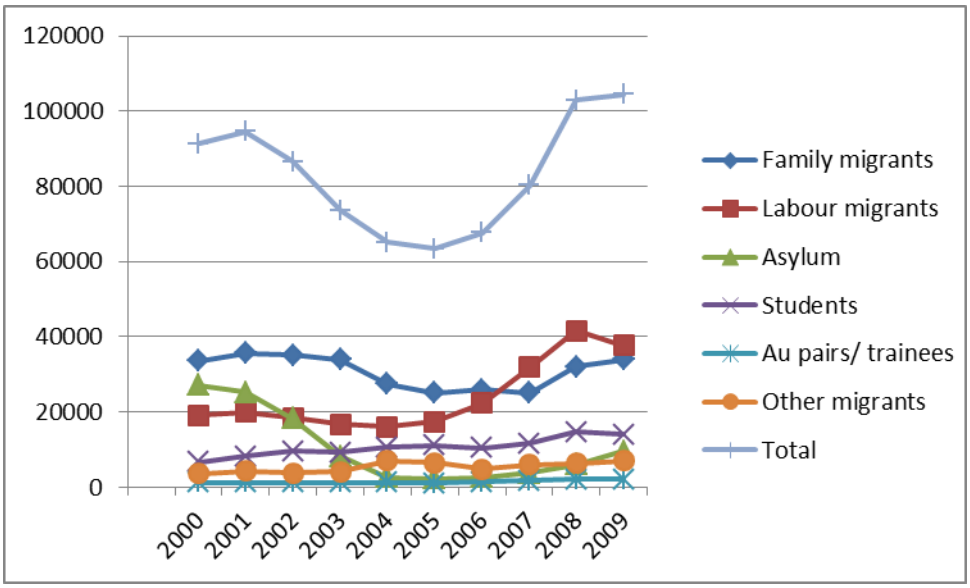
TABLE 1. Number and percentage of migrants per migration motive in the Netherlands between 2000-2009

Year	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Au pairs/ trainees	Other migrants	TOTAL
2000	33,673 (37%)	19,039 (21%)	27.070 (30%)	6,707 (7%)	1,234 (1%)	3,646 (4%)	91,379 (100.0%)
2001	35,648 (38%)	19,890 (21%)	25,303 (27%)	8,211 (9%)	1,160 (1%)	4,283 (5%)	94,501 (100.0%)

2002	35,173 (41%)	18,480 (21%)	18,247 (21%)	9,653 (11%)	1,227 (1%)	3,835 (4%)	86,613 (100.0%)
2003	33,965 (46%)	16,762 (23%)	8,244 (11%)	9,324 (13%)	1,156 (2%)	4,114 (6%)	73,560 (100.0%)
2004	27,541 (42%)	16,018 (25%)	2,682 (4%)	10,611 (16%)	1,300 (2%)	6,973 (11%)	65,114 (100.0%)
2005	25,041 (39%)	17,454 (28%)	2,216 (3%)	11,113 (18%)	1,102 (2%)	6,502 (10%)	63,416 (100.0%)
2006	25,960 (38%)	22,342 (33%)	2,648 (4%)	10,519 (16%)	1,341 (2%)	4,819 (7%)	67,652 (100.0%)
2007	25,121 (31%)	31,970 (40%)	3,772 (5%)	11,704 (15%)	1,729 (2%)	5,988 (7%)	80,257 (100.0%)
2008	32,095 (31%)	41,690 (41%)	6,021 (6%)	14,652 (14%)	2,151 (2%)	6,274 (6%)	102,872 (100.0%)
2009	33,859 (32%)	37,757 (36%)	9,601 (9%)	14,070 (13%)	2,043 (2%)	7,093 (7%)	104,411 (100.0%)

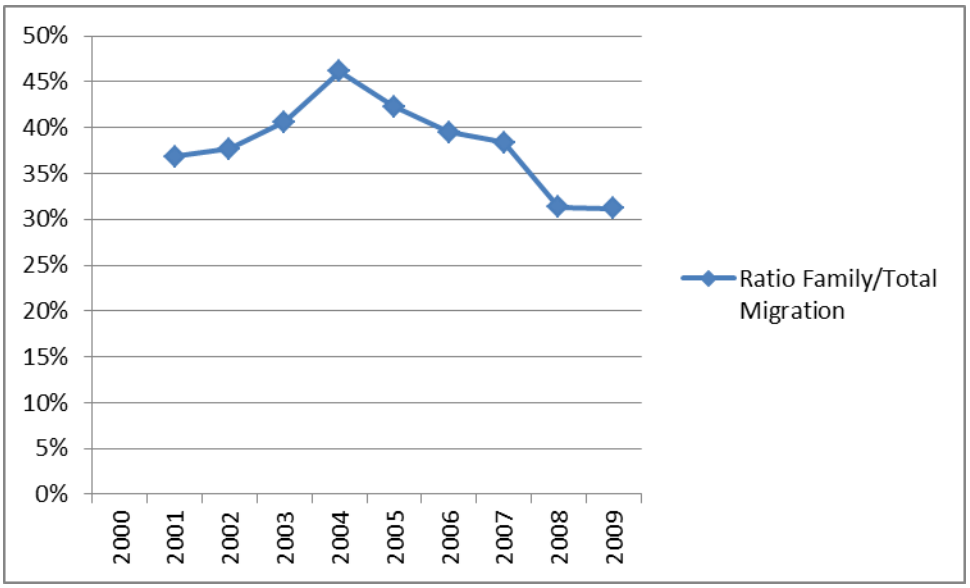
Source: CBS StatLine 2012

FIGURE 1. Number of migrants per migration motive in the Netherlands between 2000-2009



The share of family migrants in the migrant population varies between 31% (2007 and 2008) and 46% (2003) in 2000-2009. Whereas family migration constituted the most common motive for migration, followed by asylum and labour between 2000-2003, the share of asylum migration drastically dropped from 30% in 2000 to 3% in 2005. Student migration has almost doubled from 7% in 2000 to 13% in 2009. Currently, labour migration has the largest share, with 36% of the migrants, and family migration is the second with 32%. The trend in the ratio of family migrants is visualized below (Figure 2).

FIGURE 2. Ratio family migrants/total migrants in the Netherlands between 2000-2009



2.2 Origins of family migrants

European countries, in particular EU member states, are consistently and by far the top sending countries of family migration to the Netherlands. Europe is followed by Asia and Africa.

TABLE 2. Number of family migrants per continent between 2000-2009

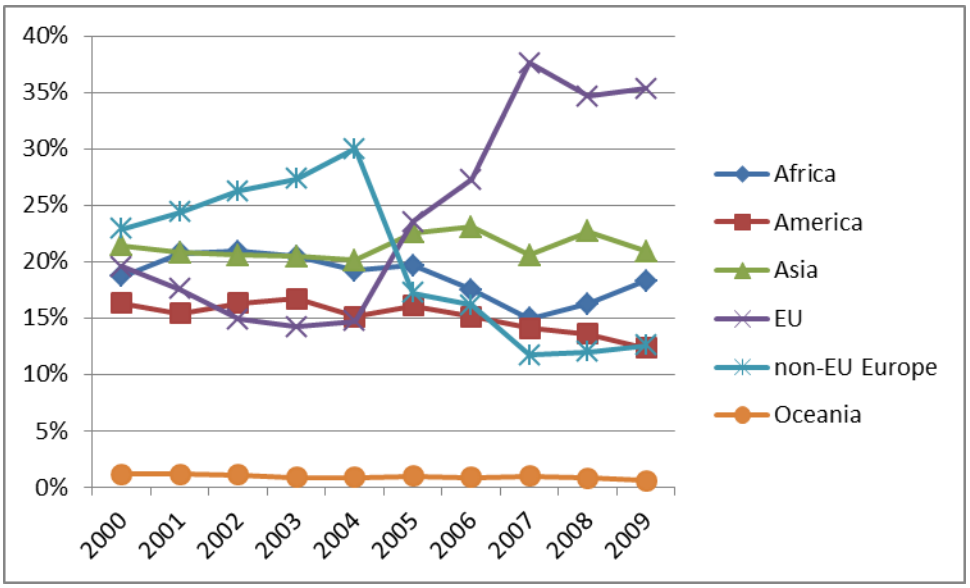
Year	Africa	America	Asia	EU	Non-EU Europe	Oceania	TOTAL
2000	6,303 (19%)	5,498 (16%)	7,210 (21%)	6,574 (20%)	7,704 (23%)	384 (1%)	33,673 (100.0%)
2001	7,400 (21%)	5,483 (15%)	7,408 (21%)	6,256 (18%)	8,693 (24%)	408 (1%)	35,648 (100.0%)
2002	7,346	5,746	7,236	5,239	9,226	380	35,173

	(21%)	(16%)	(21%)	(15%)	(26%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2003	6,953	5,669	6,942	4,826	9,280	295	33,965
	(20%)	(17%)	(20%)	(14%)	(27%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2004	5,284	4,170	5,538	4,059	8,253	237	27,541
	(19%)	(15%)	(20%)	(15%)	(30%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2005	4,920	4,029	5,649	5,890	4,310	243	25,041
	(20%)	(16%)	(23%)	(24%)	(17%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2006	4,542	3,927	5,995	7,079	4,188	229	25,960
	(17%)	(15%)	(23%)	(27%)	(16%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2007	3,759	3,542	5,172	9,451	2,946	251	25,121
	(15%)	(14%)	(21%)	(38%)	(12%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2008	5,213	4,365	7,274	11,127	3,854	262	32,095
	(16%)	(14%)	(23%)	(35%)	(12%)	(1%)	(100.0%)
2009	6,197	4,180	7,075	11,956	4,261	190	33,859
	(18%)	(12%)	(21%)	(35%)	(13%)	(1%)	(100.0%)

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The trends per continent are shown below (Figure 3).

FIGURE 3. Percentage of family migrants per continent between 2000-2009



The ratio of EU family migrants has been increasing since 2005, which can be explained by the EU's eastern expansion. Whereas EU family migrants constituted 14% of all family migrants in 2003, their share rose to 38% in 2007. Currently, 35% of family migrants originate from the EU and 65% are TCNs.

TABLE 3. Percentages of EU and TCN family migrants between 2000-2009

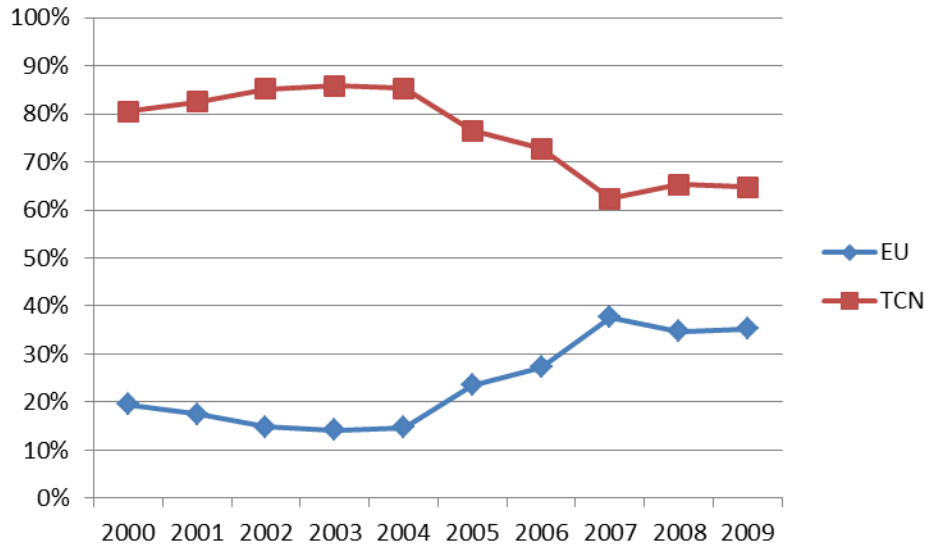
Year	EU family migrants	Other TCN family migrants
2000	20%	80%
2001	18%	82%
2002	15%	85%
2003	14%	86%
2004	15%	85%

2005	24%	76%
2006	27%	73%
2007	38%	62%
2008	35%	65%
2009	35%	65%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The distributions of EU and TCN family migrants are shown in Figure 4.

FIGURE 4. Percentages of EU and TCN family migrants between 2000-2009



When we look at the sending countries of family migrants, we see that Poland is the largest, with a 9% share, followed by Turkey and Germany (7% each). Focusing on other TCN countries, we see that Turkey is the largest source of family migration, followed by Somalia and the former Soviet Union. Whereas Turkey's share is by now mostly due to marriage migration of 'second-

generation migrants', the flows of Somalis presumably reflect recent asylum/refugee migration from this country. Netherlands Statistics (CBS) still uses the category 'former Soviet Union', which includes all nationals from ex-Soviet republics. In terms of family migrants, most have their origins in Russia, Ukraine and the Caucasian republics. Russian and Ukranian family migrants are often women coming to marry Dutch men, while most family migrants from the Caucasian republics come to join their spouses who had initially arrived as asylum seekers (Chkalova et al. 2008: 23).

TABLE 4. Family migrants by country of origin, 2010 (absolute numbers and percentages)

Country of origin	Frequency	Percent
Poland	3225	9%
Turkey	2365	7%
Germany	2343	7%
Somalia	2298	6%
Soviet Union (former)	1677	5%
Morocco	1572	4%
Bulgaria	1205	3%
USA	1176	3%
India	1060	3%
Iraq	1037	3%
Brazil	818	2%
China	813	2%
Suriname	662	2%
TOTAL: All countries	35743	100%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

Zooming in on the top sending countries in 2010, however, we clearly see that none of these even has a 10% share.

2.3 Distribution of family migrants by gender

Women have constituted the majority of family migrants since 2000. The share of men, however, has been increasing since 2007, and the ratio was 59% female and 41% male family migrants in 2009.

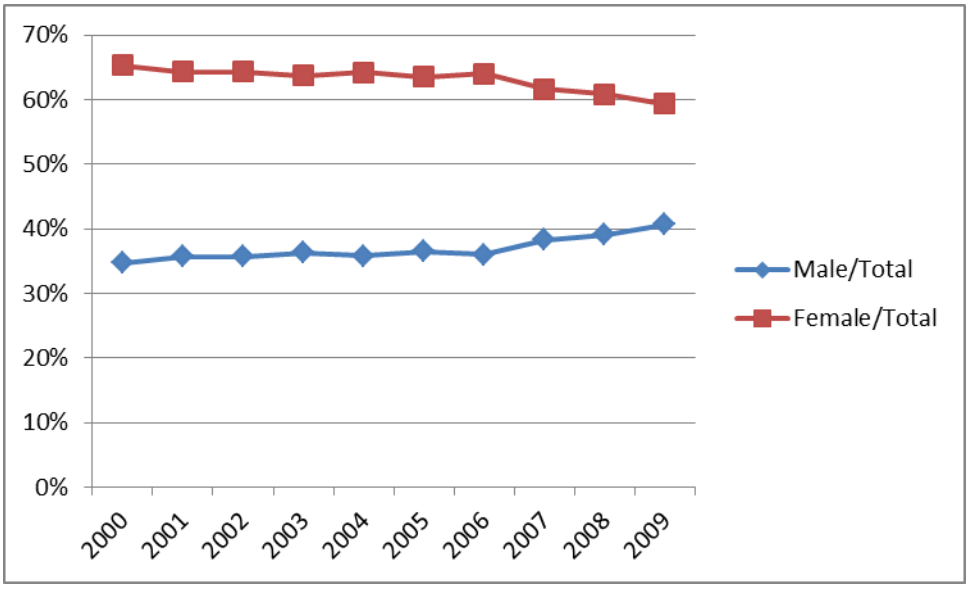
TABLE 5. Gender distribution of family migrants in the Netherlands in 2000-2009

Year	Female	Female Percentage	Male	Male Percentage	Total Family Migrants
2000	21975	65%	11698	35%	33673
2001	22910	64%	12738	36%	35648
2002	22625	64%	12548	36%	35173
2003	21654	64%	12311	36%	33965
2004	17677	64%	9864	36%	27541
2005	15906	64%	9135	36%	25041
2006	16611	64%	9349	36%	25960
2007	15494	62%	9627	38%	25121
2008	19538	61%	12557	39%	32095
2009	20104	59%	13755	41%	33859

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The trend in gender distribution is shown in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5. Ratio of male and female/total family migrants in the Netherlands in 2000-2009



In terms of the sending countries of male and female family migrants, we see that whereas Polish family migrants are the largest group when we take all countries of origin into consideration, Turkey is the largest sending country of male TCN family migrants and the former Soviet Union is the largest sending country of TCN female family migrants.

TABLE 6. Female and male family migrants per country of origin in 2010

Gender	Country of origin	Number	Percent	TCN Countries	Number	Percent
Female	Poland	1,904	9%	Soviet Union (former)	1,234	6%
Female	Germany	1,320	6%	Somalia	1,211	6%
Female	Soviet Union (former)	1,234	6%	Turkey	1,074	5%
Female	Somalia	1,211	6%	Morocco	813	4%
Female	Turkey	1,074	5%	India	785	4%
Total females all countries	21454 (60%)					
Male	Poland	1,321	9%	Turkey	1,291	9%
Male	Turkey	1,291	9%	Somalia	1,087	8%
Male	Somalia	1,087	8%	Morocco	760	5%
Male	Germany	1,022	7%	USA	460	3%
Male	Morocco	760	5%	Iraq	459	3%
Total males all countries	14,288 (40%)					
TOTAL: family migrants all countries	35,742 (100.0%)					

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

2.4 Distribution of family migrants by age

Even though the numbers of family migrants per age category have been fluctuating during the last ten years, the age categories which correspond to the top three age groups have remained stable (see Table 7). The largest group of family migrants is the age category 21-30 years, which suggests that partners constitute the most common family migrants. The second largest category is that of children younger than 13 and the third 30-40 years, which is likely to be made up of partners.

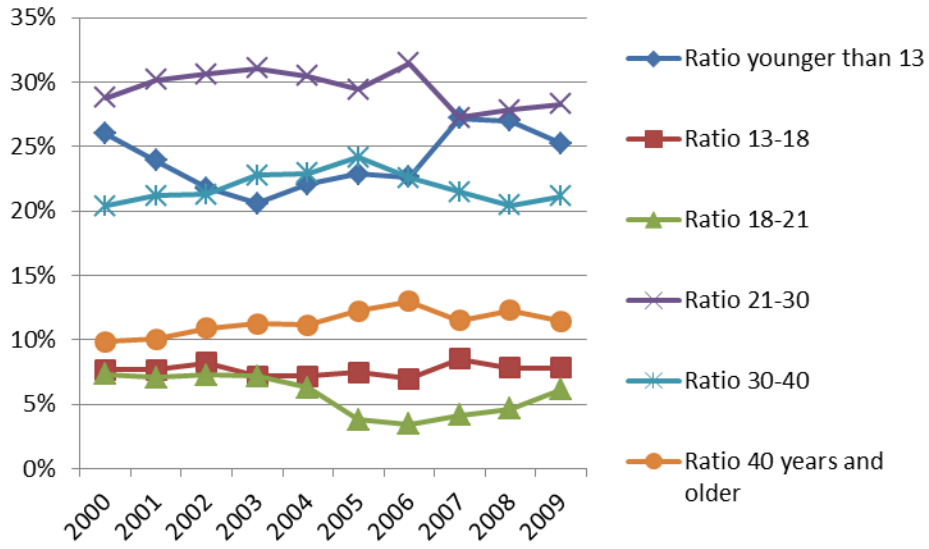
TABLE 7. Number and percentage of family migrants per age category in the Netherlands in 2000-2009

Year	Under 13	13-18 years	19-21 years	22-30 years	31-40 years	Above 40	Total
2000	8,754 (26%)	2,575 (8%)	2,466 (7%)	9,692 (29%)	6,862 (20%)	3,324 (10%)	33,673
2001	8,521 (24%)	2,734 (8%)	2,514 (7%)	10,747 (30%)	7,546 (21%)	3,586 (10%)	35,648
2002	7,663 (22%)	2,883 (8%)	2,551 (7%)	10,760 (31%)	7,477 (21%)	3,839 (11%)	35,173
2003	6,998 (21%)	2,439 (7%)	2,438 (7%)	10,555 (31%)	7,725 (23%)	3,810 (11%)	33,965
2004	6,083 (22%)	1,968 (7%)	1,726 (6%)	8,391 (30%)	6,305 (23%)	3,068 (11%)	27,541
2005	5,726 (23%)	1,874 (7%)	954 (4%)	7,373 (29%)	6,047 (24%)	3,067 (12%)	25,041
2006	5,869 (23%)	1,803 (7%)	893 (3%)	8,165 (31%)	5,861 (23%)	3,369 (13%)	25,960
2007	6,826 (27%)	2,133 (8%)	1,035 (4%)	6,847 (27%)	5,392 (21%)	2,888 (11%)	25,121
2008	8,663 (27%)	2,501 (8%)	1,491 (5%)	8,936 (28%)	6,563 (20%)	3,941 (12%)	32,095
2009	8,552 (25%)	2,641 (8%)	2,070 (6%)	9,580 (28%)	7,148 (21%)	3,868 (11%)	33,859

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The ratio of each age category to the whole population of family migrants in the Netherlands is shown in Figure 6.

FIGURE 6. Ratio family migrants per age category/total family migrants in the Netherlands in 2000-2009



2.5 Geographical distribution of TCN family migrants

Below, we describe the distribution of all migrants throughout the 12 regions (*provincies*) of the Netherlands according to the official statistics in 2011 (see Table 8). It will be observed that, in absolute numbers most of the migrants live in the most populated areas of the Netherlands: South Holland (*Zuid-Holland*), North Holland (*Noord-Holland*) and North Brabant (*Noord-Brabant*). These are also the regions where most industrial and commercial activities are concentrated.

TABLE 8. Number and percentage of migrants and natives per province in the Netherlands in 2011

Region	Migrants	Native Dutch	Total population
Groningen	43,565 (8%)	535,471 (92%)	579,036
Friesland	30,706 (5%)	616,576 (95%)	647,282
Drenthe	23,298 (5%)	468,113 (95%)	491,411
Overijssel	84,098 (7%)	1,050,367 (93%)	1,134,465
Flevoland	57,399 (15%)	334,568 (85%)	391,967
Gelderland	146,892 (7%)	1,857,779 (93%)	2,004,671
Utrecht	131,425 (11%)	1,097,369 (89%)	1,228,794
Noord-Holland	428,495 (16%)	2,262,982 (84%)	2,691,477
Zuid-Holland	570,895 (16%)	2,957,429 (84%)	3,528,324
Zeeland	35,051 (9%)	346,479 (91%)	381,530
Noord-Brabant	210,979 (9%)	2,243,236 (91%)	2,454,215
Limburg	105,852 (9%)	1,016,775 (91%)	1,122,627
TOTAL	**1,868,655 (11%)**	**14,787,144 (89%)**	**16,655,799**

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

In terms of the density of the migrant population, we can see in Table 8 that as of 2011, migrants constitute 11% of the population. In terms of the largest density of the migrant population per region, we see that South and North Holland are followed up by Flevoland, which is a new developing region in the outskirts of Amsterdam and the Schiphol international airport. This distribution is shown in Figure 7. As the figure also makes clear, South Holland, North Holland and Flevoland are also where the density of the migrant population is higher than the figure for the whole of the Netherlands, respectively 16%, 16% and 15%. Utrecht has the fourth-largest migrant density, at 11% of the population.

Presumably, the distribution of family migrants follows the same patterns as the general migrant population. There is some geographical variation, however, according to the country of origin of sponsors and migrants. According to a recent research on marriage migration in the Netherlands, whereas family migrants joining sponsors who are themselves first or second generation migrants live in the densely populated urban areas of the Netherlands, family members joining native Dutch citizens are more dispersed around the country and tend to live often in smaller cities or rural areas (Muermans and Liu 2009: 51).

3. The Integration Outcomes of Family Migrants

In analysing integration outcomes, we rely on CBS data (driven from municipal registers and immigration statistics) to analyse the income sources of two cohorts of migrants. The analyses on factors of labour market participation, political and civic participation, and access to public services derive from the LAS and SIM surveys.

3.1 Labour market participation and reliance on welfare benefits

The CBS data on the sources of income includes two cohorts of migrants who came to the Netherlands in 1995 and 2000 respectively. Looking at the incomes of the 1995 cohort, we see a quite stable pattern of employment over a five to ten year period. On average, 47% of them were working, as 43% were employees and 4% were self-employed. Between 14-19% relied on welfare benefits in the same period, about 10% of which was subsistence assistance, given to families who cannot cater for their livelihood and are not entitled to any other benefits. The rise in the reliance of welfare benefits between 2000 and 2005 is due to the increase in proportion of family migrants who received unemployment benefit, which indicates that some family migrants might have temporarily lost their jobs in this period.

TABLE 9. Sources of income of family migrants who migrated in 1995

Source of income	Type of income	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Work	Employee	43%	44%	44%	43%	42%	42%
	Self-employed	3%	4%	4%	4%	4%	4%
	TOTAL	**46%**	**48%**	**48%**	**47%**	**46%**	**46%**

Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	2%	2%	3%	3%	3%	3%
	Unemployment benefit	1%	1%	2%	3%	3%	3%
	Subsistence assistance	9%	9%	10%	10%	11%	11%
	Other benefits	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%	2%
	TOTAL	**14%**	**15%**	**16%**	**18%**	**19%**	**19%**
Pension		0%	0%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Pupil/student		10%	10%	10%	11%	11%	11%
Other		30%	26%	25%	23%	24%	23%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

Comparing the 1995 cohort (see Table 9) with the 2000 cohort (see Table 10) in the same period, we see that the employment figures were similar, yet slightly lower for the latter group after five years of residence: 46% in 2000 for the 1995 cohort and 42% in 2005 for the 2000 cohort. The reliance on welfare benefits is slightly lower for the latter group: 13% (as opposed to 14%) in 2005. Yet, the share of subsistence assistance is 9% in 2000 for the 1995 cohort and 10% in 2005 for the 2000 cohort. What we also observe with the 2000 cohort is that both the employment and reliance on welfare increases over time, indicating that it takes at least two years for migrants to get settled and find their way in the system.

TABLE 10. Sources of income of family migrants who migrated in 2000

Source of income	Type of income	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Work	Employee	22%	35%	39%	40%	39%	39%
	Self-employed	1%	1%	1%	2%	2%	2%
	TOTAL	**22%**	**36%**	**41%**	**41%**	**41%**	**42%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	1%
	Unemployment benefit		0%	0%	1%	1%	1%
	Subsistence assistance	3%	5%	6%	8%	9%	10%
	Other benefits	0%	1%	1%	2%	1%	2%
	TOTAL	**4%**	**7%**	**8%**	**11%**	**12%**	**13%**
Pension		0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Pupil/student		7%	8%	9%	10%	11%	12%
Other		67%	49%	42%	37%	35%	33%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The other remarkable figure in the income statistics is the category 'other'. We see that the 'other' category is the highest in the years following migration and decreases over time. This could imply that it reflects an initial situation of dependence on the income of the sponsor. To explore the effect of the dependence, we look at a gender analysis, as migrant women tend to have lower labour market participation.

TABLE 11. Sources of income by gender – 1995 cohort in 2000 (five years after family migration)

Source of income	Type of income	Female family migrants	Male family migrants	TOTAL
Work	Employee	32%	55%	43%
	Self-employed	5%	5%	3%
	TOTAL	**37%**	**60%**	**46%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	1%	2%	2%
	Unemployment benefit	1%	1%	1%
	Subsistence assistance	10%	8%	9%
	Other benefits	2%	2%	2%
	TOTAL	**15%**	**13%**	**14%**
Pension		0%	0%	0%
Pupil/student		8%	12%	10%
Other		39%	15%	30%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The gender analysis indeed shows that for the 1995 cohort (see Table 11), whereas male family migrants are 60% employed and 15% rely on other sources of income, female family migrants are 37% employed and 39% rely on other sources of income after five years of residence. These

results point to a gender gap in terms of labour participation. Looking at the 2000 cohort (see Table 12), we see a similar picture for female migrants (36% employed) but a lower labour participation for male migrants (54%) after five years of residence. Gender as a factor of labour market participation is explored further with the help of survey data (see section 3b).

TABLE 12. Sources of income by gender – 2000 cohort in 2005 (five years after family migration)

Source of income	Type of income	Female family migrants	Male family migrants	TOTAL
Work	Employee	34%	50%	2%
	Self-employed	2%	3%	39%
	TOTAL	**36%**	**54%**	**42%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	1%	1%	1%
	Unemployment benefit	1%	2%	1%
	Subsistence assistance	10%	8%	10%
	Other benefits	2%	1%	2%
	TOTAL	**14%**	**12%**	**13%**
Pension		0%	0%	0%
Pupil/student		9%	16%	12%
Other		41%	17%	33%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The labour participation of family migrants who arrived in 1995 (see Table 13) also varies with age, with migrants between the ages 25-45 having the highest level of participation (53%). Between the ages of 45 and 65, participation is lower (32%) and the reliance on welfare assistance higher (22%). Both the reliance on subsistence assistance and incapacity benefit increases for this age group.

TABLE 13. Sources of income per age category – 1995 cohort in 2000 (five years after family migration)

Source of income	Type of income	Ages 15-25	Ages 26-45	Ages 46-65	Older than 65	TOTAL
Work	Employee	34%	48%	29%		43%
	Self-employed	1%	4%	3%		3%
	TOTAL	**35%**	**53%**	**32%**		**46%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	1%	2%	4%		2%
	Unemployment benefit	0%	1%			1%
	Subsistence assistance	6%	10%	15%	39%	9%
	Other benefits	1%	2%	2%		2%
	TOTAL	**8%**	**15%**	**22%**	**39%**	**14%**
Pension					31%	0%
Pupil/student		38%	1%			10%
Other		19%	32%	45%	30%	30%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The figures for the 2000 cohort (see Table 14) are similar, the difference being the slightly lower percentage of labour participation (50%) and higher percentage of welfare reliance (35%) for the 25-45 age group. The other remarkable difference between the 1995 and 2000 cohorts is the difference in the 15-25 age group. We see that the labour participation of this group is lower for the 2000 cohort: 24% as opposed to 35% for the 1995 cohort. This is probably partly due to greater participation in education as the share of students in the 2000 cohort is higher than in the 1995 cohort: 45% versus 38%.

TABLE 14. Sources of income per age category – 2000 cohort in 2005 (five years after family migration)

Source of income	Type of income	Ages 15-25	Ages 26-45	Ages 46-65	Older than 65	TOTAL
Work	Employee	23%	47%	33%		39%
	Self-employed	1%	3%	3%		2%
	TOTAL	**24%**	**50%**	**35%**		**42%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	0%	1%	2%		1%
	Unemployment benefit	0%	2%	2%		1%
	Subsistence assistance	6%	10%	15%	39%	10%
	Other benefits	1%	2%	2%		2%
	TOTAL	**7%**	**14%**	**21%**	**44%**	**13%**
Pension				1%	30%	0%
Pupil/student		45%	2%			12%
Other		24%	34%	43%	24%	33%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

How does the labour market participation and welfare reliance of family migrants compare to other groups of migrants? The comparison reveals interesting results (see Table 15).

TABLE 15. Sources of income per migration category – 1995 cohort in 2000 (five years after migration) compared with other migrant groups

Source of income	Type of income	Family migrants	Labour Migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	Total migrants
Work	Employee	43%	61%	37%	24%	12%	44%
	Self-employed	3%	6%	1%	9%	3%	4%
	TOTAL	**46%**	**67%**	**38%**	**33%**	**15%**	**48%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	2%	2%	0%			2%
	Unemployment benefit	1%	2%	1%		1%	1%
	Subsistence assistance	9%	4%	32%		7%	14%
	Other benefits	2%	1%	1%			2%
	TOTAL	**14%**	**9%**	**34%**		**9%**	**18%**
Pension		0%	0%	0%		3%	2%
Pupil/ student		10%	1%	10%	19%	2%	9%
Other		30%	23%	18%	46%	72%	22%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

For the 1995 cohort of migrants, we see that students and asylum seekers have the lowest employment levels in 2000, 33% and 38% respectively, and labour migrants have the highest employment level with 67%. Family migrants lie in between with 46% and are slightly lower than the overall level of participation of 48%. The patterns of reliance on welfare benefits show a similar pattern. Some 14% of family migrants rely on welfare benefits compared to the 18% reliance figure for all migrants. The reliance on subsistence assistance is 9% for family migrants and 14% for all migrants. Asylum seekers rely on welfare benefits the most (34%) and labour migrants the least (9%).

TABLE 16. Sources of income per migration category – 2000 cohort in 2005 (five years after migration) compared with other migrant groups

Source of income	Type of income	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	Total migrants
Work	Employee	39%	61%	16%	24%	34%	39%
	Self-employed	2%	4%	1%	1%	2%	2%
	TOTAL	**42%**	**65%**	**17%**	**25%**	**36%**	**41%**
Welfare benefit	Incapacity benefit	1%	1%	0%			1%
	Unemployment benefit	1%	2%	1%			1%
	Subsistence assistance	10%	2%	34%	1%	7%	14%
	Other benefits	2%	1%	1%	0%	3%	1%

	TOTAL	**13%**	**6%**	**35%**	**1%**	**11%**	**18%**
Pension		0%	0%	0%		2%	2%
Pupil/student		12%	1%	15%	16%	4%	12%
Other		33%	27%	33%	58%	47%	27%

Source: CBS StatLine 2012

The figures for the 2000 cohort (see Table 16) are almost the same, with the most remarkable difference observed in the category of asylum seekers. The labour participation of the 2000 asylum cohort is 17%, which is less than half the percentage in the 1995 asylum cohort (38%). The difference is probably due to the changes in the asylum regime, whereby the labour market participation of asylum seekers was heavily restricted in the first two years of residence to seasonal work for a maximum of twelve weeks (Sprangers et al. 2005: 32). The period of absence from the labour market can further be extended if their asylum application is not finalized (e.g. when rejected and subsequently an appeal is made). This makes it very difficult for asylum seekers to be reintegrated into the labour market once they have a legal residence status. Furthermore, due to stricter asylum regulations, the newer cohorts of asylum seekers are presumably a "more traumatized group" with more health problems which prevent them from working (idem).

3.2 Factors of labour market participation

From this section onwards, we follow up on the analysis of the general patterns of labour market participation based on the CBS population data by exploring potential factors influencing labour market participation on the basis of the LAS and SIM survey data.

3.2.1 Gender

Half (50%) of the family migrants included in the SIM survey work, 41% classify themselves as belonging to the non-working population, and 9% are unemployed. As the preliminary analyses above have also suggested, the labour market participation of family migrants is gendered. Whereas 70% of the male family migrants in the SIM survey were working, 55% of the female family migrants belonged to the non-working population.

TABLE 17. Labour market status of family migrants by gender

	Female family migrants	Male family migrants	Total
Working population	398 (37.1%)	476 (70.3%)	874 (49.9%)
Unemployed	85 (7.9%)	69 (10.2%)	154 (8.8%)
Non-working population	590 (55.0%)	132 (19.5%)	722 (41.3%)
TOTAL	1,073 (100.0%)	677 (100.0%)	1,750 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

Most of the family migrants who were employed were salaried (93%), and most had a permanent contract (80%). Of those who were not salaried, 87% owned a company or were independent, 9% were freelancers and 4% worked at the business of their partner or parents (see Table 18).

TABLE 18. Type of job/contract of working family migrants by gender

	Female family migrants	Male family migrants	Total
Salaried employee	428 (94.5%)	449 (91.3%)	877 (92.8%)
Other	25 (5.5%)	43 (8.7%)	68 (7.2%)
TOTAL	453 (100.0%)	492 (100.0%)	945 (100.0%)
Permanent contract	340 (79.4%)	360 (80.2%)	700 (79.8%)
Temporary contract	88 (20.6%)	89 (19.8%)	177 (20.2%)
TOTAL	428 (100.0%)	449 (100.0%)	877 (100.0%)
Own company/Independent	22 (88.0%)	37 (86.0%)	59 (86.8%)
Company of partner/parents	2 (8.0%)	1 (2.3%)	3 (4.4%)
Freelancer	1 (4.0%)	5 (11.6%)	6 (8.8%)
TOTAL	25 (100.0%)	43 (100.0%)	68 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

When we look into the main activity of family migrants who were not part of the labour market, 46% were housewives/husbands and 20% were unemployed or job seekers. Whereas there is not much difference in the gender division of the employed, the distribution of the unemployed is quite gendered. While most of the females (58%) are housewives, 45% of the males are unemployed or looking for a job.

TABLE 19. Main activity of non-working family migrants by gender

	Female family migrants	Male family migrants	Total
Unemployed/job seeker	88 (12.2%)	93 (45.1%)	181 (19.5%)
Unable to work	73 (10.1%)	38 (18.4%)	111 (12.0%)
Pupil/student	72 (10.0%)	50 (24.3%)	122 (13.1%)
Pre-retirement	12 (1.7%)	3 (1.5%)	15 (1.6%)
Retired	23 (3.2%)	4 (1.9%)	27 (2.9%)
Other	36 (5.0%)	12 (5.8%)	48 (5.2%)
Total	722 (100.0%)	206 (100.0%)	928 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

3.2.2 Level of education

Arguably, one of the most significant factors in a knowledge economy like the Netherlands is the level of education. We have thus looked at how education in the country of origin and in the Netherlands relate to occupation level.

TABLE 20. Highest level of education in the country of origin by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
No schooling	12 (1.2%)	2 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.6%)	16 (0.8%)
Primary education	612 (61.5%)	167 (53.0%)	15 (37.5%)	76 (23.3%)	152 (46.9%)	1,022 (51.1%)
Secondary education	323 (32.5%)	123 (39.0%)	21 (52.5%)	218 (66.9%)	152 (46.9%)	837 (41.9%)
Tertiary education	48 (4.8%)	23 (7.3%)	4 (10.0%)	32 (9.8%)	18 (5.6%)	125 (6.3%)
TOTAL	995 (100.0%)	315 (100.0%)	40 (100.0%)	326 (100.0%)	324 (100.0%)	2,000 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

Compared to the other types of migrants, family migrants are a less-educated group (see Table 20). The majority (62%) of family migrants stopped at the primary level in their country of origin, and 33% have stopped at the secondary level. Asylum seekers are the most educated group in terms of education received in the country of origin: 53% of asylum seekers have received secondary education and 10% tertiary education in their country of origin. Looking at the levels of education acquired in the Netherlands, we see that 43% of family migrants have not obtained any schooling in the Netherlands, which is in line with the fact that the majority of family

migrants arrive as adults in the Netherlands (see Table 7). When we look at educational levels, we see that only a minority have obtained a tertiary education: 5% of the surveyed family migrants had pursued tertiary education in their country of origin and 7% in the Netherlands.

TABLE 21. Highest level of education in the Netherlands by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
No schooling	627 (43.2%)	277 (77.6%)	27 (58.7%)	46 (15.7%)	204 (59.3%)	1,181 (47.4%)
Primary education	317 (21.8%)	28 (7.8%)	2 (4.3%)	26 (8.9%)	42 (12.2%)	415 (16.6%)
Secondary education	401 (27.6%)	42 (11.8%)	13 (28.3%)	114 (38.9%)	82 (23.8%)	652 (26.2%)
Tertiary education	108 (7.4%)	10 (2.8%)	4 (8.7%)	107 (36.5%)	16 (4.7%)	245 (9.8%)
TOTAL	1,453 (100.0%)	357 (100.0%)	46 (100.0%)	293 (100.0%)	344 (100.0%)	2,493 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

Before we go on to analyse whether there is a match between the educational level of migrants and their occupation in the Netherlands, we first present a comparative overview of occupational levels of migrants included in the LAS survey. To begin with, we observe that the majority of family migrants have low-level (60%) or mid-level (30%) occupations and only 10% high-level occupations. We see the same pattern for other migrant groups, with the exception of students, who are better represented in high-level occupations (27%) and have less low-level occupations (42%).

TABLE 22. Occupation level by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Low-level occupations	463 (60.1%)	100 (63.7%)	15 (68.2%)	86 (42.0%)	102 (58.6%)	766 (57.7%)
Mid-level occupations	231 (30.0%)	47 (29.9%)	4 (18.2%)	64 (31.2%)	59 (33.9%)	405 (30.5%)
High-level occupations	76 (9.9%)	10 (6.4%)	3 (13.6%)	55 (26.8%)	13 (7.5%)	157 (11.8%)
TOTAL	770 (100.0%)	157 (100.0%)	22 (100.0%)	205 (100.0%)	174 (100.0%)	1,328 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

Does the occupation level of migrants match their education level? This was a question that was included in the SIM survey, but not in the LAS survey. When we look at the results, we see that the majority of family migrants (66%) state that their job matches their education, 15% that their education is too high for their job, 8% that their education is too low for their job and 11% that they are educated in a different area than their job. Whereas students are the least likely of all migrant groups (64%) to say that their job matches their education, asylum seekers are the most likely of all groups (83%) to state that there is a match between their job and education. In terms of mismatches between the job and education level, labour migrants are the least likely (9%) to state that they are too qualified for their current job and students are the most likely (17%) to have a job for which they are too highly qualified.

TABLE 23. Match between current job and educational level by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Job matches education	577 (66.4%)	131 (77.1%)	30 (83.3%)	152 (64.4%)	129 (70.9%)	1,019 (68.3%)
No, education too high for job	127 (14.6%)	15 (8.8%)	4 (11.1%)	41 (17.4%)	27 (14.8%)	214 (14.3%)
No, education too low for job	71 (8.2%)	8 (4.7%)	1 (2.8%)	11 (4.7%)	5 (2.7%)	96 (6.4%)
Educated in a different area than current job	94 (10.8%)	16 (9.4%)	1 (2.8%)	32 (13.6%)	21 (11.5%)	164 (11.0%)
TOTAL	869 (100.0%)	170 (100.0%)	36 (100.0%)	236 (100.0%)	182 (100.0%)	1,493 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

Even though the LAS survey does not ask migrants to qualify the match between their current job and educational level, we have analysed the match between the occupational and educational level of family migrants included in this survey. We have done this analysis both on the basis of the educational qualifications they obtained in their country of origin and in the Netherlands.

TABLE 24. Highest level of education in the country of origin and occupation level of family migrants

	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	TOTAL
Low-level occupations	4 (80.0%)	188 (63.7%)	114 (58.2%)	19 (59.4%)	325 (61.6%)
Mid-level occupations	0 (0.0%)	80 (27.1%)	66 (33.7%)	8 (25.0%)	154 (29.2%)
High-level occupations	1 (20.0%)	27 (9.2%)	16 (8.2%)	5 (15.6%)	49 (9.3%)
TOTAL	5 (100.0%)	295 (100.0%)	196 (100.0%)	32 (100.0%)	528 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

The analysis of educational qualifications obtained in the country of origin and the current occupational level of migrants in the Netherlands reveals an interesting result with regard to the migrants who have obtained a tertiary education. Whereas we would expect to see these highly-educated migrants in high-level occupations, we see that this is not the case for all of them. In the case of family migrants, only 16% of highly qualified family migrants had high-level occupations and a majority (59%) of them had low-level occupations. However, because of small numbers we should be careful in drawing too quick conclusions from this.

TABLE 25. Highest level of education in the country of origin and occupation level of non-family migrants

	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	TOTAL
Low-level occupations	0 (0.0%)	104 (65.4%)	156 (51.3%)	18 (35.3%)	278 (54.1%)
Mid-level occupations	0 (0.0%)	47 (29.6%)	99 (32.6%)	16 (31.4%)	162 (31.5%)
High-level occupations	0 (0.0%)	8 (5.0%)	49 (16.1%)	17 (33.3%)	74 (12.6%)
TOTAL	0 (100.0%)	159 (100.0%)	304 (100.0%)	51 (100.0%)	514 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

When we compare family migrants with non-family migrants, we see that the highly educated are almost evenly distributed between low-, middle- and high-level occupations. Whereas most of the highly educated non-family migrants (35%) have low-level occupations, 33% of highly educated migrants have high-level occupations, which suggests that a significant proportion of the highly educated migrants are working under the educational level they attained in their country of origin. This seems to indicate that the non-recognition of foreign diplomas is an obstacle for the prospects of migrants in the Dutch labour market. If migrants who have obtained their diplomas in the Netherlands reach higher occupational levels, this argument would be supported further (see Tables 26 and 27).

TABLE 26. Highest level of education in the Netherlands and occupation level of family migrants

	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	TOTAL
Low-level occupations	192 (77.4%)	113 (76.9%)	133 (50.6%)	8 (9.5%)	446 (60.1%)
Mid-level occupations	50 (20.2%)	31 (21.1%)	105 (39.9%)	35 (41.7%)	221 (29.8%)
High-level occupations	6 (2.4%)	3 (2.0%)	25 (9.5%)	41 (48.8%)	75 (10.1%)
TOTAL	248 (100.0%)	147 (100.0%)	263 (100.0%)	84 (100.0%)	742 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

When we look at family migrants, 49% of those with a tertiary education obtained in the Netherlands worked in high-level occupations and 10% worked in low-level occupations. The pattern is similar for non-family migrants who have obtained their tertiary education in the Netherlands. We observe that the majority (53%) had high-level occupations and a minority (21%) low-level occupations.

TABLE 27. Highest level of education in the Netherlands and occupation level of non-family migrants

	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	TOTAL
Low-level occupations	149 (68.7%)	26 (66.7%)	78 (48.8%)	22 (20.8%)	275 (52.7%)
Mid-level occupations	54 (24.9%)	12 (30.8%)	74 (46.2%)	28 (26.4%)	168 (32.2%)
High-level occupations	14 (6.5%)	1 (2.2%)	8 (5.0%)	56 (52.8%)	79 (15.1%)
TOTAL	217 (100.0%)	39 (100.0%)	160 (100.0%)	106 (100.0%)	522 (100.0%)

Source: LAS 2005

Therefore, higher education in the country of origin seems to be less convertible to a job at a higher level than when the education has been obtained in the Netherlands. The number of family migrants who fall in these categories is too low to derive conclusions, but this result confirms the argument that qualifications obtained outside the Netherlands, in particular non-EU qualifications, often are not considered similar to their Dutch equivalents (OECD 2008: 6) as a result of which especially highly qualified migrants end up in jobs below their level.

3.2.3 Knowledge of the Dutch language

One of the reasons why educational qualifications may not be directly transferable to jobs in the Dutch labour market may be the lack of knowledge of the Dutch language, which is a crucial element of integration in different domains of society. The majority (58%) of the surveyed family migrants in the SIM survey state that they never had difficulty with the Dutch language when they had a conversation in Dutch. Of those that had difficulties, most had difficulty with speaking Dutch, whereas almost an equal number of family migrants stated they had difficulty with both speaking and understanding Dutch (see Table 28). However, when we look closer at Dutch

language fluency of family migrants by their ethnic origins, we observe that these results are obtained in relation to the Surinamese and Antillean family migrants, who master the Dutch language better due to colonial links with the Netherlands. Whereas 95% of Surinamese and 85% of Antillean family migrants state that they never had difficulty with the Dutch language, 32% of Turkish family migrants and 22% of Moroccan family migrants said either that they often had difficulty with the Dutch language or did not speak the Dutch language. A sizeable proportion of those family migrants who had difficulty with the Dutch language further mention that they had a difficulty with speaking Dutch (42%) and almost an equal proportion of them said that they had both difficulty with speaking and understanding Dutch (41%).

TABLE 28. Dutch language fluency of family migrants by ethnic origin

Do you have difficulty with the language when you have a	Turkish migran	Moroccan	Surinamese	Antillean	TOTAL
Yes, often /I do not speak Dutch	203 (32.0%)	131 (21.7%)	1 (0.3%)	6 (2.9%)	341 (18.9%)
Yes, sometimes	221 (34.9%)	158 (26.2%)	17 (4.7%)	26 (12.6%)	422 (23.4%)
No, never	210 (33.1%)	314 (52.1%)	340 (95.0%)	174 (84.5%)	1,038 (57.6%)
TOTAL	634 (100.0%)	603 (100.0%)	358 (100.0%)	206 (100.0%)	1,801 (100.0%
Do you especially have difficulty in speaking or understanding Dutch?	**Turkish migran**	**Moroccan**	**Surinamese**	**Antillean**	**TOTAL**
Especially with speaking	191 (45.0%)	107 (37.0%)	7 (38.9%)	12 (37.5%)	317 (41.5%)
Especially with understanding	59 (13.9%)	60 (20.8%)	8 (44.4%)	10 (31.2%)	137 (18.0%)
Both speaking and understanding	174 (41.0%)	122 (42.2%)	3 (16.7%)	10 (31.2%)	309 (40.5%)

TOTAL	424 (100.0%)	289 (100.0%)	18 (100.0%)	32 (100.0%)	763 (100.0%
Do you have difficulty reading newspapers, letters and folders in	**Turkish migran**	**Moroccan**	**Surinamese**	**Antillean**	**TOTAL**
Yes, often	203 (32.0%)	411 (23.4%)	4 (1.1%)	4 (1.9%)	352 (19.5%)
Yes, sometimes	200 (31.5%)	128 (21.2%)	17 (4.7%)	18 (8.7%)	363 (20.2%)
No, never	231 (36.4%)	334 (55.4%)	337 (94.1%)	184 (89.3%)	1,086 (60.3%)
TOTAL	634 (100.0%)	603 (100.0%)	358 (100.0%)	206 (100.0%)	1,801 (100.0%
And do you have difficulty in writing in Dutch?	**Turkish migran**	**Moroccan**	**Surinamese**	**Antillean**	**TOTAL**
Yes, often	262 (41.3%)	180 (29.9%)	6 (1.7%)	6 (2.9%)	454 (25.2%)
Yes, sometimes	156 (24.6%)	121 (20.1%)	22 (6.1%)	19 (9.2%)	318 (17.7%)
No, never	216 (34.1%)	302 (50.1%)	330 (92.2%)	181 (87.9%)	1,029 (57.1%)
TOTAL	634 (100.0%)	603 (100.0%)	358 (100.0%)	206 (100.0%)	1,801 (100.0%
Have you ever taken a course to learn Dutch?	**Turkish migran**	**Moroccan**	**Surinamese**	**Antillean**	**TOTAL**
Yes	368 (58.0%)	330 (54.7%)	15 (4.2%)	27 (13.1%)	740 (41.1%)
No	266 (42.0%)	273 (45.3%)	343 (95.8%)	179 (86.9%)	1,061 (58.9%)
Did you receive a diploma at the end of this course?	**Turkish migran**	**Moroccan**	**Surinamese**	**Antillean**	**TOTAL**

Yes	204 (56.2%)	148 (45.3%)	7 (46.7%)	13 (50.0%)	372 (50.9%)
No	159 (43.8%)	179 (54.7%)	8 (53.3%)	13 (50.0%)	359 (49.1%)
TOTAL	363 (100.0%)	327 (100.0%)	15 (100.0%)	26 (100.0%)	731 (100.0%

Source: SIM 2006

The SIM survey results indicate that the passive knowledge of Dutch is better as a relatively higher percentage (60%) of family migrants says that they never had difficulty in reading Dutch. Even for Turkish and Moroccan family migrants, the 'no, never' category is the largest category for the question about reading Dutch text. However, for 41% of Turkish family migrants writing in Dutch is often difficult. Overall, 57% of family migrants report that they did not have difficulty in writing Dutch, with Surinamese and Antillean family migrants reporting the least difficulty. The majority of the family migrants (59%) did not take a course to learn Dutch, which is not very surprising as mandatory civic integration courses in their current form only started in 2007. From those who took a Dutch course, only 51% received a diploma, which suggests that they may not have completed the course. Family migrants of Turkish origin followed a course the most (58%), followed by Moroccan family migrants (55%). The majority of Turkish family migrants (56%) also obtained a diploma.

3.2.4 Length of residence

Integration is a gradual process for migrants, as settling down, finding a job and acquiring skills like host country language proficiency take time and investment. In this section, we explore the effect of time on integration. The first question is whether we see the effect of time in the labour market status of family migrants. In Table 29, we see indeed that the longer the period of residence, the higher the proportion of the working population and the lower the proportion of the non-working population. The statistics show that 32% of family migrants who have lived in

the Netherlands for up to five years belonged to the working population, 13% to the unemployed population and 55% to the non-working population. For family migrants who have lived in the Netherlands for more than 30 years, 65% belonged to the working population, 5% to the unemployed population and 31% to the non-working population.

TABLE 29. Labour market status of family migrants by length of residence

	0-5 years	6-10 years	11-20 years	21-30 years	More than 30	TOTAL
Working population	38 (31.7%)	72 (42.1%)	243 (45.7%)	296 (51.1%)	225 (64.7%)	874 (49.9%)
Unemployed	16 (13.3%)	17 (9.9%)	44 (8.3%)	60 (10.4%)	17 (4.9%)	154 (8.8%)
Non-working population	66 (55.0%)	82 (48.0%)	245 (46.1%)	223 (38.5%)	106 (30.5%)	722 (41.3%)
TOTAL	120 (100.0%)	171 (100.0%)	532 (100.0%)	579 (100.0%)	348 (100.0%)	1,750 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

How long did it take migrants to find their jobs after they migrated to the Netherlands? When we look at all surveyed migrants, we see that 34% found their first job within the year they migrated and 35% between one to five years, which means that the majority (69%) of migrants found their job within five years. The patterns for different types of migrants vary, however. Whereas 73% of labour migrants found their first job in the year they migrated, this was the case for only 15% of family migrants. Most of the family migrants found their job between one to five years after they migrated, but there is also a considerable proportion who found their job more than ten years after they migrated.

TABLE 30. Time it took after migration to find the first job by type of migrants

	Family migran	Labour migran	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migran	TOTAL
The same year	62 (14.7%)	142 (72.8%)	8 (34.8%)	23 (30.7%)	40 (40.0%)	275 (33.7%)
1-5 years	157 (37.1%)	42 (21.5%)	11 (47.8%)	38 (50.7%)	38 (38.0%)	286 (35.0%)
6-10 years	86 (20.3%)	5 (2.6%)	3 (13.0%)	8 (10.7%)	6 (6.0%)	108 (13.2%)
More than 10 years	118 (27.9%)	6 (3.1%)	1 (4.3%)	6 (8.0%)	16 (16.0%)	147 (18.0%)
TOTAL	423 (100.0%)	195 (100.0%)	23 (100.0%)	75 (100.0%)	100 (100.0%)	816 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

Language skills also take time to acquire. In this sense, one would expect that the longer a family migrant lives in the Netherlands, the better her/his Dutch language skills would be. This indeed seems to be the case if we look at the results in Table 31. The longer the residence, the lower the percentage of family migrants who said that they often had difficulties with Dutch or did not speak it, and the higher the percentage of family migrants who said that they never had difficulties with Dutch. What we also observe here is that in the first five years of residence, most family migrants had difficulty with Dutch (42%) and only a sizeable minority (23%) did not have difficulties.

TABLE 31. Spoken Dutch language fluency of family migrants by length of residence

Do you have difficulty with the language when you have a conversation in Dutch?	0-5 years residence	6-10 years residence	11-20 years residence	21-30 years residence	More than 30 years residence	TOTAL
Yes, often /I do not speak Dutch	50 (42.0%)	43 (25.1%)	102 (18.8%)	106 (17.8%)	40 (10.7%)	341 (18.9%)
Yes, sometimes	42 (35.3%)	51 (29.8%)	162 (29.9%)	127 (21.3%)	40 (10.7%)	422 (23.4%)
No, never	27 (22.7%)	77 (45.0%)	278 (51.3%)	363 (60.9%)	293 (78.6%)	1,038 (57.6%)
TOTAL	119 (100.0%	171 (100.0%	542 (100.0%	596 (100.0%	373 (100.0%	1,801 (100.0%

Source: SIM 2006

Does fluency in the Dutch language affect the time it takes to find work for family migrants? One would expect that the better the Dutch language fluency, the less time it takes to find a job. The results show, however, that this need not be the case: of those family migrants who found work within the same year, 36% say they often had difficulties with Dutch or did not speak it. There were an almost equal number of family migrants who did not have difficulties with Dutch and found a job within the same year of migration. After the first year spent in the Netherlands, however, we see that the less one had difficulty with Dutch, the more one was likely to find a job.

TABLE 32. Spoken Dutch language fluency of family migrants and time it took to find work following migration

Do you have difficulty with the Dutch language when you have a conversation in Dutch?	Found work within the same year	Found work within 1-5 years	Found work within 6-10 years	Found work after more than 10 years	TOTAL
Yes, often /I do not speak Dutch	22 (35.5%)	40 (25.5%)	11 (12.8%)	15 (12.7%)	88 (20.8%)
Yes, sometimes	19 (30.6%)	53 (33.8%)	26 (30.2%)	15 (12.7%)	113 (26.7%)
No, never	21 (33.9%)	64 (48.8%)	49 (57.0%)	88 (74.6%)	222 (52.5%)
TOTAL	62 (100.0%)	171 (100.0%)	86 (100.0%)	118 (100.0%)	423 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

3.2.5 Access to and obstacles in the Dutch labour market

How do migrants find their jobs? Whereas labour migrants enter the Netherlands for a professional goal, this is not the case for family migrants. As family migrants may not have a professional network in the Netherlands, access to the labour market can be difficult. Still, 27% of the interviewed family migrants stated that they found their jobs through family, friends or acquaintances. The second most-stated medium for family migrants was the employment agency (23%), followed by direct contact with companies (16%). In this respect, they did not diverge much from labour migrants, of whom 30% found their current job through family, friends, or acquaintances. Their second most-used medium, however, is direct contact with companies (18%), followed by employment agencies (16%). It seems that asylum seekers did not (or could not) rely on their networks for access to jobs: Asylum seekers used employment agencies (24%), ads in newspapers (22%) and direct contact with companies to find their current jobs.

TABLE 33. Method of finding the current job by type of migrants

How did you find your current job?	Family migran	Labour migran	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migran	TOTAL
Family/friends/acquaintances	238 (27.1%)	51 (29.5%)	3 (8.1%)	41 (17.3%)	33 (17.8%)	366 (24.3%)
Labour Office/Centre for Work and Income	52 (5.9%)	20 (11.6%)	1 (2.7%)	16 (6.8%)	15 (8.1%)	104 (6.9%)
Employment agency	205 (23.4%)	28 (16.2%)	9 (24.3%)	39 (16.5%)	35 (18.9%)	216 (20.9%)
Asking/phoning/contacting companies	140 (16.0%)	31 (17.9%)	7 (18.9%)	53 (22.4%)	31 (16.8%)	262 (17.4%)
School/traineeship	37 (4.2%)	3 (1.7%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (5.9%)	7 (3.8%)	61 (4.0%)
Subsidized work	10 (1.1%)	2 (1.2%)	2 (5.4%)	3 (1.3%)	6 (3.2%)	23 (1.5%)
Ad in newspaper	76 (8.7%)	11 (6.4%)	8 (21.6%)	26 (11.0%)	26 (14.1%)	147 (9.7%)
Internet	31 (3.5%)	1 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	15 (6.3%)	3 (1.6%)	50 (3.3%)
Recruitment agency	13 (1.5%)	7 (4.0%)	2 (5.4%)	4 (1.7%)	4 (2.2%)	30 (2.0%)
Was asked	25 (2.9%)	4 (2.3%)	1 (2.7%)	13 (5.5%)	10 (5.4%)	53 (3.5%)
Other	50 (5.7%)	15 (8.7%)	4 (10.8%)	13 (5.5%)	15 (8.1%)	97 (6.4%)
TOTAL	877 (100.0%)	173 (100.0%)	37 (100.0%)	237 (100.0%)	185 (100.0%)	1,509 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

What kind of obstacles do migrants face in the Dutch labour market? As recent research has shown, discrimination in the labour market is a serious obstacle for those of migrant origin (Andriessen, Nievers and Dagevos 2012). The majority of the surveyed migrants (60%) in the SIM survey indeed acknowledged that they did not have the same chances of finding a job as a native Dutch person does. Remarkably, it is the labour migrants who assess their chances on the labour market as the worst: 72% of labour migrants said they did not have the same chance as the native Dutch, compared to 63% of family migrants. Students and asylum seekers are the most optimistic about their chances in the labour market: 63% of the former and 59% of the latter group estimated that they had as much chance as a native Dutch of finding a job.

Why do migrants think that they have fewer opportunities than a native Dutch person of finding a job? Family migrants (38%), asylum seekers (33%) and labour migrants (23%) state that not speaking Dutch well was the main reason. Prejudice and discrimination, however, were cited as the second reason by 22% of family migrants and as the top reason by students (59%). Indeed, language is a large obstacle determining access to jobs in the Dutch labour market, not only because Dutch employers expect a high command of Dutch language for particular jobs but also because the issue of language is often used to define other qualities, as qualitative research on migrant women has demonstrated. "An example of this is a woman who applied for a job as a flight attendant. The response she received was that the company stood for high quality and that people with accents did not fit the image of the organization." (Ghorashi and Van Tilburg 2006: 58-59).

TABLE 34. Obstacles to finding a job by type of migrants

Do you have as much chance as a native	Family migran	Labour migran	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migran	TOTAL
Yes	334 (37.0%)	50 (28.2%)	17 (58.6%)	77 (62.6%)	66 (47.8%)	544 (39.7%)
No	568 (63.0%)	127 (71.8%)	12 (41.4%)	46 (37.4%)	72 (52.2%)	825 (60.3%)

TOTAL	902 (100.0%)	177 (100.0%)	29 (100.0%)	123 (100.0%)	138 (100.0%	1,369 (100.0%)
Do not speak Dutch well	213 (37.5%)	29 (22.8%)	4 (33.3%)	2 (4.3%)	4 (5.6%)	252 (30.5%)
Prejudice, discrimination	127 (22.4%)	28 (22.0%)	3 (25.0%)	27 (58.7%)	24 (33.3%)	209 (25.3%)
No suitable vacancies	18 (3.2%)	7 (5.5%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (10.9%)	5 (6.9%)	35 (4.2%)
Know too few people/have fewer contacts	13 (2.3%)	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.3%)	2 (2.8%)	18 (2.2%)
Health	51 (9.0%)	28 (22.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.2%)	11 (15.3%)	91 (11.0%)
Too old	42 (7.4%)	19 (15.0%)	1 (8.3%)	2 (4.3%)	6 (8.3%)	70 (8.5%)
Insufficient education/no diploma	51 (9.0%)	7 (5.5%)	4 (33.3%)	1 (2.2%)	4 (5.6%)	67 (8.1%)
Other	53 (9.3%)	8 (6.3%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (13.0%)	16 (22.2%)	83 (10.1%)
TOTAL	568 (100.0%)	127 (100.0%)	12 (100.0%)	46 (100.0%)	72 (100.0%)	825 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

Are there gender differences in terms of the perceived chances of access to the labour market by family migrants? A larger proportion of female family migrants (65%) rate their chances pessimistically compared to male family migrants (57%, see Table 35). Their assessments of why this is the case also differs. Whereas 42% of female family migrants think that not speaking Dutch well is the main reason, 36% of male family migrants think it is prejudice or discrimination.

TABLE 35. Obstacles to finding a job by gender of family migrants

Do you have as much chance as a native Dutch to find a job?	Female family	Male family migrants	TOTAL
Yes	248 (35.4%)	86 (42.6%)	334 (37.0%)
No	452 (64.6%)	116 (57.4%)	568 (63.0%)
TOTAL	700 (100.0%)	202 (100.0%)	902 (100.0%)
Why do you think so? State the main reason.	**Female family**	**Male family migrants**	**TOTAL**
Do not speak Dutch well	190 (42.0%)	23 (19.8%)	213 (37.5%)
Prejudice, discrimination	85 (18.8%)	42 (36.2%)	127 (22.4%)
No suitable vacancies	14 (3.1%)	4 (3.4%)	18 (3.2%)
Know too few people/have fewer contacts	9 (2.0%)	4 (3.4%)	13 (2.3%)
Health	42 (9.3%)	9 (7.8%)	51 (9.0%)
Too old	38 (8.4%)	4 (3.4%)	42 (7.4%)
Insufficient education/no diploma	40 (8.8%)	11 (9.5%)	51 (9.0%)
Other	34 (7.5%)	19 (16.4%)	53 (9.3%)
TOTAL	452 (100.0%)	116 (100.0%)	568 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

Besides gender differences, one can also observe differences by origin in terms of the perceived chances in the Dutch labour market by family migrants (see Table 36). Whereas the majority of Turkish (77%) and Moroccan (67%) family migrants are pessimistic about their chances, the majority of Antillean (67%) and Surinamese (64%) family migrants are optimistic about their chances. These groups also differ in their judgements of the main reason why they think they have less chances than a native Dutch person. Whereas the Turkish (42%) and Moroccan (42%) family migrants see their Dutch language skills as the main obstacle, the Antillean (52%) and Surinamese (41%) family migrants perceive prejudice and discrimination to be the main obstacle.

TABLE 36. Obstacles to finding a job by ethnic origin of family migrants

Do you have as much chance as a native Dutch to find a job?	Turkish migrants	Moroccan migrants	Surinamese migrants	Antillean migrants	TOTAL
Yes	81 (23.5%)	115 (33.2%)	68 (63.6%)	70 (66.7%)	334 (37.0%)
No	263 (76.5%)	231 (66.8%)	39 (36.4%)	35 (33.3%)	568 (63.0%)
TOTAL	344 (100.0%)	346 (100.0%)	107 (100.0%)	105 (100.0%)	902 (100.0%)
Why do you think so? State the main reason.	**Turkish migrants**	**Moroccan migrants**	**Surinamese migrants**	**Antillean migrants**	**TOTAL**
Do not speak Dutch well	111 (42.2%)	97 (42.0%)	2 (5.1%)	3 (8.6%)	213 (37.5%)
Prejudice, discrimination	59 (22.4%)	34 (14.7%)	16 (41.0%)	18 (51.4%)	127 (22.4%)
No suitable vacancies	6 (2.3%)	9 (3.9%)	2 (5.1%)	1 (2.9%)	18 (3.2%)
Know too few people/have fewer contacts	8 (3.0%)	3 (1.3%)	2 (5.1%)	0 (0.0%)	13 (2.3%)

Health	27 (10.3%)	22 (9.5%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.9%)	51 (9.0%)
Too old	13 (4.9%)	20 (8.7%)	6 (15.4%)	3 (8.6%)	42 (7.4%)
Insufficient education/no diploma	21 (8.0%)	27 (11.7%)	2 (5.1%)	1 (2.9%)	51 (9.0%)
Other	18 (6.8%)	19 (8.2%)	8 (20.5%)	8 (22.9%)	53 (9.3%)
TOTAL	263 (100.0%)	231 (100.0%)	39 (100.0%)	35 (100.0%)	568 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

How about the obstacles felt on the work floor? Did migrants feel they had a chance of getting a promotion at the company where they worked? Migrants do not seem very optimistic about their future chances at the company they work on the whole (see Table 37).[3] 57% of migrants said they did not have a chance of promotion. Whereas family migrants (56%) are close to the average in their negative assessment of promotion chances, asylum seekers were the most pessimistic (71% not seeing a chance of promotion) and students were the most optimistic (54% seeing a chance of promotion). Of those that saw no chance of promotion, the perceptions of the main obstacle to promotion varied by migrant group. 20% of family migrants saw the lack of internal vacancies as the main obstacle; 26% of labour migrants saw insufficient education as the main obstacle; asylum seekers saw that they were too old (25%); and students stated that they were themselves not interested in a promotion (19%). In contrast to the question on the obstacles to finding a job, prejudice and discrimination are thus not seen as major obstacles to promotion on the job. It is not clear whether this partly lies in the formulation of the question, whereby the migrants were not asked to assess their relative chances of promotion compared to the native Dutch or whether migrants indeed perceive that other factors play a more important role once they are a part of the company.

3 Please note that in contrast to the previous question, the migrants have not been asked in this question whether they have as much chance as a native Dutch person to obtain a promotion.

TABLE 37. Obstacles to getting a promotion at work by type of migrants

Do you think you have a chance of promotion at the company where you work?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Yes	351 (44.0%)	57 (36.1%)	10 (29.4%)	121 (54.0%)	59 (34.5%)	598 (43.2%)
No	447 (56.0%)	101 (63.9%)	24 (70.6%)	103 (46.0%)	112 (65.5%)	787 (56.8%)
TOTAL	798 (100.0%)	158 (100.0%)	34 (100.0%)	224 (100.0%)	171 (100.0%)	1,385 (100.0%)
Why do you think you have no chance of promotion at the company where you work?	**Family migrants**	**Labour migrants**	**Asylum seekers**	**Students**	**Other migrants**	**TOTAL**
Insufficient education	67 (15.7%)	26 (26.3%)	2 (8.3%)	6 (6.0%)	11 (10.1%)	112 (14.8%)
Too little experience	14 (3.3%)	2 (2.0%)	1 (4.2%)	3 (3.0%)	2 (1.8%)	22 (2.9%)
Works part-time	31 (7.3%)	4 (4.0%)	1 (4.2%)	7 (7.0%)	9 (8.3%)	52 (6.9%)
Prejudice, discrimination	11 (2.6%)	8 (8.1%)	1 (4.2%)	5 (5.0%)	5 (4.6%)	30 (4.0%)
No internal vacancies	84 (19.7%)	21 (21.2%)	3 (12.5%)	18 (18.0%)	15 (13.8%)	141 (18.6%)
Not interested in promotion	71 (16.7%)	12 (12.1%)	2 (8.3%)	19 (19.0%)	17 (15.6%)	121 (16.0%)
Too old	12 (2.8%)	8 (8.1%)	6 (25.0%)	11 (11.0%)	11 (10.1%)	48 (6.3%)

Other	136 (31.9%)	18 (18.2%)	8 (33.3%)	31 (31.0%)	39 (35.8%)	232 (30.6%)
Total	426 (100.0%)	99 (100.0%)	24 (100.0%)	100 (100.0%)	109 (100.0%)	758 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

As with the perceived chances in the access to the labour market, we observe differences between female and male family migrants in terms of the perceived chances in getting promoted at their current company (see Table 38). Female family migrants are somewhat more pessimistic than male family migrants. Whereas 67% of female family migrants did not think that they had a chance of promotion, the proportion was 52% for male family migrants. Whereas female family migrants stated the fact that they are not interested in promotion as the main reason (20%), male family migrants saw the lack of internal vacancies (26%) as the main obstacle preventing them from getting a promotion.

TABLE 38. Obstacles to getting a promotion at work by gender of family migrants

Do you think you have a chance of promotion at the company where you work?	**Female family migrants**	**Male family migrants**	**TOTAL**
Yes	157 (39.8%)	194 (48.0%)	351 (44.0%)
No	237 (60.2%)	210 (52.0%)	447 (56.0%)
Total	394 (100.0%)	404 (100.0%)	798 (100.0%)
Why do you think you have no chance of promotion at the company where you work?	**Female family migrants**	**Male family migrants**	**TOTAL**

Insufficient education	41 (18.0%)	26 (13.1%)	67 (15.7%)
Too little experience	4 (1.8%)	10 (5.1%)	14 (3.3%)
Works part-time	25 (11.0%)	6 (3.0%)	31 (7.3%)
Prejudice, discrimination	5 (2.2%)	6 (3.0%)	11 (2.6%)
No internal vacancies	32 (14.0%)	52 (26.3%)	84 (19.7%)
Not interested in promotion	45 (19.7%)	26 (13.1%)	71 (16.7%)
Too old	6 (2.6%)	6 (3.0%)	12 (2.8%)
Other	70 (30.7%)	66 (33.3%)	136 (31.9%)
Total	228 (100.0%)	198 (100.0%)	426 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

With regard to the issue of the perception of their chances of getting a promotion, the differences between family migrants of different origins were not so large (see Table 39). The negative assessment of chances of promotion varied between 51% (Surinamese family migrants) and 65% (Turkish family migrants). Whereas Turkish (21%) and Moroccan (22%) family migrants stated that the lack of internal vacancies was the major obstacle, Surinamese family migrants stated that not being interested in promotion (20%) and Antillean family migrants working part-time (16%) and not being interested in promotion (16%) were the major reasons for not seeing chances of promotion at their company.

TABLE 39. Obstacles to getting a promotion at work by ethnic origin of family migrants

Do you think you have a chance of promotion at the company where you work?	Turkish migrants	Moroccan migrants	Surinamese migrants	Antillean migrants	TOTAL
Yes	92 (35.5%)	109 (48.4%)	105 (48.8%)	45 (45.9%)	351 (44.0%)
No	167 (64.5%)	116 (51.6%)	110 (51.2%)	53 (54.1%)	446 (56.0%)
Total	259 (100.0%)	225 (100.0%)	215 (100.0%)	98 (100.0%)	797 (100.0%)
Why do you think you have no chance of promotion at the company where you work?	**Turkish migrants**	**Moroccan migrants**	**Surinamese migrants**	**Antillean migrants**	**TOTAL**
Insufficient education	32 (20.0%)	20 (18.5%)	12 (11.3%)	3 (5.9%)	67 (15.8%)
Too little experience	9 (5.6%)	1 (0.9%)	2 (1.9%)	2 (3.9%)	14 (3.3%)
Works part-time	11 (6.9%)	8 (7.4%)	4 (3.8%)	8 (15.7%)	31 (7.3%)
Prejudice, discrimination	4 (2.5%)	3 (2.8%)	2 (1.9%)	2 (3.9%)	11 (2.6%)
No internal vacancies	34 (21.2%)	24 (22.2%)	20 (18.9%)	6 (11.8%)	84 (19.8%)
Not interested in promotion	27 (16.9%)	15 (13.9%)	21 (19.8%)	8 (15.7%)	71 (16.7%)
Too old	1 (0.6%)	5 (4.6%)	5 (4.7%)	1 (2.0%)	12 (2.8%)
Other	42 (26.2%)	32 (29.6%)	40 (37.7%)	21 (41.2%)	135 (31.8%)
Total	160 (100.0%)	108 (100.0%)	106 (100.0%)	51 (100.0%)	425 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

3.3 Political and civic participation

In terms of political and civic participation, this section will explore the turnout in national elections and participation in civil society organizations. The SIM survey only included a question on the intention to vote instead of the actual turnout in elections. When asked about their intention to vote in the next elections for the Dutch national parliament, the majority (66%) of all migrants replied affirmatively. The comparison of different groups of migrants shows that family migrants had the lowest intention to vote (63%), and asylum seekers had the highest intention to vote (75%). Table 40 also reveals that 8% of surveyed migrants were not entitled to vote. Migrants are only entitled to vote in national elections if they are Dutch citizens. Some migrants have not been in the country for five years yet, while others may choose not to take up Dutch nationality at all, since permanent residence provides access to almost all entitlements (see Dutch Work Package 3 Country Report/Work Package 3 Transnational Report). Of all migrants groups, family migrants seem to choose this option, as 11% state they are not entitled to vote, compared to 1% of students and 4% of asylum seekers.

TABLE 40. Intention of migrants to vote in the next national parliamentary elections by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Yes	1,125 (62.9%)	277 (67.2%)	57 (75.0%)	258 (68.6%)	283 (73.5%)	2,000 (65.8%)
Maybe	148 (8.3%)	28 (6.8%)	5 (6.6%)	23 (6.1%)	24 (6.2%)	228 (7.5%)
No	326 (18.2%)	79 (19.2%)	11 (14.5%)	91 (24.2%)	67 (17.4%)	574 (18.9%)
Not entitled to vote	190 (10.6%)	28 (6.8%)	3 (3.9%)	4 (1.1%)	11 (2.9%)	236 (7.8%)
TOTAL	1,789 (100.0%	412 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	4 (1.1%)	385 (100.0%)	3,038 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

We also compared these figures with the actual turnout statistics in the national parliamentary elections in 2006. The overall turnout in 2006 was 80%. The native Dutch population had a slightly higher turnout with 83% (Vermeulen and Cillessen 2012: 4). Migrants had a lower turnout in the 2006 elections: whereas the turnout for migrants of 'non-Western' origin was 60%, the turnout for migrants of 'Western' origin was 72% (idem). This indicates that the survey results are close to the actual turnout figures, as the migrant groups included in the SIM survey constituted a sample of 'non-Western' migrants.

Voting, however, is not the only form of civic participation. The lack of Dutch citizenship does not prevent migrants from being politically or societally active though, as migrants are free to join civil society organizations. The survey results on membership of civic organizations, however, showed that only a minority of family migrants were members of an association or club, 62% stating that they were members of no organization. They are not the least active of all migrants though, as 70% of labour migrants stated that they were not members of any organization. Students seem the most civically active group, as only 46% stated they had no membership in organizations. The most popular organizations for family migrants were sports clubs (20%), libraries (12%) and religious organizations (7%). Membership in other organizations is lower than 3%. For asylum seekers (15%) and labour migrants (12%), it was religious organizations that enjoy the most common membership, instead of the sports club.

TABLE 41. Membership of civic organizations by type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Sports club	357 (19.8%)	40 (9.5%)	6 (7.9%)	121 (32.0%)	51 (13.2%)	575 (18.8%)
Leisure organization (e.g. hobby club, music	52 (2.9%)	5 (1.2%)	1 (1.3%)	24 (6.3%)	12 (3.1%)	94 (3.1%)
Neighbourhood/district association or tenants'	49 (2.7%)	5 (1.2%)	6 (7.9%)	12 (3.2%)	7 (1.8%)	79 (2.6%)

Trade union or professional association	53 (2.9%)	12 (2.9%)	5 (6.6%)	29 (7.7%)	22 (5.7%)	121 (4.0%)
Migrant organization	42 (2.3%)	7 (1.7%)	2 (2.6%)	9 (2.4%)	8 (2.1%)	68 (2.2%)
Political party or	17	1	2	10	6	36
Religious organization	126	52	11	47	49	285
Environmental organization or international solidarity	7 (0.4%)	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (0.8%)	4 (1.0%)	15 (0.5%)
Library	224	12	8	55	31	330
Other organization	30	7	4	15	10	66
No organization	1,114	294	46	174	239	1,867
TOTAL	1,802	419	76	378	385	3,060

Source: SIM 200

Volunteering is a type of activity that the Dutch government has been encouraging through its recent civic integration policies (Huis en de Regt 2005). However, looking at the survey results, we see that only 11% of interviewed family migrants confirmed that they did volunteer work. They were not the least active group amongst migrants though, as only 8% of labour migrants were volunteering in 2006. Students were the most active, as 16% of them were volunteering.

TABLE 42. Volunteer work by type of migrants

Do you currently do volunteer work? now and then?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Yes	189 (10.5%)	32 (7.6%)	10 (13.2%)	62 (16.4%)	57 (14.8%)	350 (11.4%)
No	1,613 (89.5%)	388 (92.4%)	66 (86.8%)	316 (83.6%)	328 (85.2%)	2,711 (88.6%)
TOTAL	1,802 (100.0%)	420 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	378 (100.%)	385 (100.0%)	3,061 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

When we compare these figures with the official statistics on volunteer work in 2006, we see that of all those with migrant origins in the Netherlands, 14% do volunteer work compared to 24% of the native Dutch population (CBS 2013).

3.4 Access to public services

Access to and uptake of services provides an indication of societal participation, i.e. integration. In this section, we explore the patterns of access to public services in the areas of education, healthcare and housing.

3.4.1 Education

The SIM survey includesd a question asking whether migrants were following an educational program in 2006. As such, the results only reflect the participation at one specific of time. A minority (14%) of interviewed family migrants in 2006 were following an educational program, slightly higher than the overall participation rate of 13%. Students were the most likely (27%) to follow an educational program and labour migrants the least likely (3%).

TABLE 43. Access to education by type of migrants

Are you currently following an education program?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Yes	246 (13.6%)	13 (3.1%)	6 (7.9%)	101 (26.7%)	28 (7.3%)	394 (12.9%)
No	1,557 (86.4%)	407 (96.9%)	70 (92.1%)	277 (73.3%)	357 (92.7%)	2,668 (87.1%)
TOTAL	1,803 (100.0%)	420 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	378 (100.0%)	385 (100.0%)	3,062 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

3.4.2 Healthcare

The majority (55%) of family migrants stated that they had not visited the general practitioner in the last two months. 42% had visited the general practitioner one to five times. The family migrants were an average group in terms of their access to general healthcare. Labour migrants were the most likely (52%) and students the least likely (37%) to have visited a general practitioner one to five times in the last two months.

TABLE 44. Access to general healthcare by type of migrants

How often have you visited the general practitioner for yourself in the last two months?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Not at all	981 (54.7%)	194 (46.4%)	41 (53.9%)	239 (63.4%)	220 (57.1%)	1,675 (54.9%)
1-5 times	759 (42.3%)	217 (51.9%)	30 (39.5%)	138 (36.6%)	155 (40.3%)	1,299 (42.6%)
6-10 times	42 (2.3%)	5 (1.2%)	5 (6.6%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (2.3%)	61 (2.0%)
11-15 times	5 (0.3%)	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (0.2%)
16-20 times	7 (0.4%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.3%)	8 (0.3%)
More than 20 times	1 (0.1%)	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.1%)
TOTAL	1,795 (100.0%)	418 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	377 (100.0%)	385 (100.0%)	3,051 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

A larger majority (77%) of the family migrants jad not contacted a medical specialist either, which is again close to the average score (75%) for all migrants. Asylum seekers were most likely (30%) and students the least likely (18%) to have contacted a medical specialist in the last two months.

TABLE 45. Access to specialist healthcare by type of migrants

Did you have contact with a medical specialist for yourself in the last two months?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Yes	418 (23.2%)	125 (29.8%)	30 (39.5%)	69 (18.3%)	110 (28.6%)	752 (24.6%)
No	1,384 (76.8%)	294 (70.2%)	46 (60.5%)	309 (81.7%)	275 (71.4%)	2,308 (75.4%)
Total	1,802 (100.0%)	419 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	378 (100.0%)	385 (100.0%)	3,060 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

3.4.3 Housing

In terms of housing, we observe that the majority (73%) of family migrants lived in rental housing and 27% in owned housing, reflecting the overall housing patterns of the surveyed migrants. A relatively larger proportion of labour migrants (82%) and a relatively lower proportion of asylum seekers (59%) lived in rental housing. The survey, however, did not ask whether these rental houses were social or private rentals.

TABLE 46. Housing type of migrants

	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Rental	1,321 (73.4%)	343 (81.9%)	45 (59.2%)	245 (64.8%)	280 (72.9%)	2,234 (73.1%)
Owned	477 (26.5%)	75 (17.9%)	31 (40.8%)	133 (35.2%)	103 (26.8%)	819 (26.8%)

Other	2 (0.1%)	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.3%)	4 (0.1%)
TOTAL	1,800 (100.0%)	419 (100.0%)	76 (100.0%)	378 (100.0%)	384 (100.0%)	3,057 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

The survey did ask, however, the reasons for choosing the current neighbourhood (see Table 47). Most of the family migrants, however, did not choose their neighbourhood themselves (48%). 34% of family migrants answered the question with 'Got a house allocated here', which indicates that almost the half of the surveyed family migrants lived in social housing. Other family migrants indicated that they lived with their parents (8%) or came to live with their partner (6%). Other family migrants (39%) based their choices on the qualities of the house and neighbourhood. Only 7% of the interviewed family migrants gave the presence of friends and family as the determining factor of their housing choice. Compared to other migrant groups[4] though, a larger proportion of family migrants stated that it was not their own choice of neighbourhood and that they chose their neighbourhood due to vicinity to friends or family. A smaller proportion of family migrants based their choice on the qualities of the house or neighbourhood. In this respect, their dependence on family members and close networks seemed to play a relatively more important role.

4 We disregard the category 'other migrants' in this comparison.

TABLE 47. Housing choices by type of migrants

Why did you come to live in your current neighbourhood?	Family migrants	Labour migrants	Asylum seekers	Students	Other migrants	TOTAL
Qualities of the house/neighbourhood						
Found a pleasant house here	282 (19.8%)	95 (27.6%)	10 (19.2%)	53 (21.2%)	41 (15.5%)	481 (20.6%)
Could afford housing in the neighbourhood	79 (5.5%)	19 (5.5%)	7 (13.5%)	16 (6.4%)	20 (7.5%)	141 (6.0%)
Nice neighbourhood	108 (7.6%)	20 (5.8%)	5 (9.6%)	15 (6.0%)	18 (6.8%)	166 (7.1%)
Convenient location	85 (6.0%)	23 (6.7%)	5 (9.6%)	35 (14.0%)	21 (7.9%)	169 (7.2%)
Subtotal qualities house/neighbourhood	*554 (38.9 %)*	*157 (45.6%)*	*27 (42.3%)*	*119 (47.6%)*	*100 (37.7%)*	957 *(40.9%)*
Due to vicinity to friends/family						
Friends/family in the neighbourhood	78 (5.5%)	17 (4.9%)	2 (3.8%)	13 (5.2%)	21 (7.9%)	131 (5.6%)
Born here/live here since childhood	15 (1.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.9%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (1.1%)	19 (0.8%)
Subtotal friends/family	*93 (6.6%)*	*17 (4.9%)*	*3 (5.7%)*	*13 (5.2%)*	*24 (9.0%)*	*150 (6.4%)*
Not own choice of neighbourhood						
Got a house allocated here	482 (33.8%)	145 (42.2%)	18 (34.6%)	86 (34.4%)	92 (34.7%)	823 (35.2%)
I live with my parents	114 (8.0%)	1 (0.3%)	1 (1.9%)	11 (4.4%)	5 (1.9%)	132 (5.6%)
I came to live with my partner	82 (5.7%)	2 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (3.6%)	5 (1.9%)	98 (4.2%)
Subtotal not own choice	*678 (47.5%)*	*148 (43.1%)*	*19 (36.5%)*	106 *(42.4%)*	*102 (38.5%)*	*1,053 (45.0%)*
Other	102 (7.1%)	22 (6.4%)	3 (5.8%)	12 (4.8%)	39 (14.7%)	178 (7.6%)
TOTAL	1,427 (100.0%)	344 (100.0 %)	52 (100.0 %)	250 (100.0 %)	265 (100.0%)	2,338 (100.0%)

Source: SIM 2006

4. Conclusion

This statistical overview has explored the main patterns regarding family migrants and their integration in the Netherlands on the basis of population and survey data obtained through the Dutch central statistics agency, CBS. According to the most recent immigration figures, family migrants were the second-largest group of migrants, after labour migrants. Whereas TCN migrants constituted the overall majority of family migrants, when we look at the largest sending region, we see that it was rather the EU since the eastern enlargement of the EU in 2005. Poland was the top family migrant sending country, and Turkey was the top TCN family migrant sending country. Furthermore, female family migrants constituted the majority of family migrants, though the share of male migrants had been increasing since 2007. The distribution of family migrants in terms of age categories suggests that partners constituted the largest group of family migrants, followed by minor children.

After this general overview on the basis of population data, we explored factors of labour market participation and different areas of integration based on the LAS and SIM survey data, covering a sample of the largest four migrant groups: Turks, Moroccans, Surinamese and Antilleans. Whereas the large majority of working family migrants were salaried and had a permanent contract, housewives constituted the largest group of non-working family migrants. On average, family migrants were less educated than their partners, which was reflected also in their occupational levels: The majority of family migrants only pursued primary education in their country of origin, and the majority had low-level occupations. Even though the majority of family migrants stated that their current job matched their education, we have observed that family migrants, as non-family migrants, with a tertiary education tended to be disadvantaged in this respect in the Dutch labour market, especially if tertiary education had been obtained in the country of origin. The results support the fact that TCN diplomas are usually not recognized fully in the Netherlands as a result of which highly educated migrants ended up at a job below their educational level.

The majority of the surveyed family migrants stated that they never had difficulty with the Dutch language when they had a conversation in Dutch. Of those that had difficulties, most had difficulty with speaking Dutch, whereas almost an equal number of family migrants stated having difficulty with both speaking and understanding Dutch. However, when we looked closer at Dutch language fluency of family migrants by their national origins, we observed that it is especially Surinamese and Antillean family migrants who mastered the Dutch language better due to colonial links with the Netherlands. Passive Dutch language skills (reading, writing) were rated better by all family migrants. The longer the period of residence, the lower the percentage of family migrants who said that they often had difficulties with Dutch or did not speak it and the higher the percentage of family migrants who said that they never had difficulties with Dutch. What we also observed that in the first five years of residence, most family migrants had difficulty with Dutch and only a sizeable minority did not have difficulties. These findings support that quite often it takes at least five years if not more to master the Dutch language, indicating that integration is a process that takes time.

The time aspect of integration is also reflected in access to the labour market. The longer the period of residence, the higher the proportion of the working population and the lower the proportion of the non-working population of family migrants. Whereas the majority of labour migrants had found their first job in the year they migrated, this is the case for a minority of family migrants. Most of the family migrants had found their job between one to five years after their migrated, but there was also a considerable proportion that found their job only more than ten years after they migrated. After the first year spent in the Netherlands, however, we saw that the less one had difficulty with Dutch, the more one was likely to have found a job. We also analysed how family migrants found their current job. Most of the interviewed family migrants stated that they found their job through family, friends or acquaintances. The second most-stated medium for family migrants was the employment agency, followed by direct contact with companies.

When migrants were asked to assess whether they had as much chance as the native Dutch in terms of finding a job, the majority of family migrants replied negatively. Probed on why they thought they had fewer chances than the native Dutch, they stated that not speaking Dutch well and prejudice and discrimination were the main reasons. Family migrants were not that

optimistic about their future chances at the company where they worked either: The majority of family migrants thought they did not have a chance of promotion. Of those that saw no chance of promotion, the perceptions of the main obstacle to promotion varied by type of migrant, whereby family migrants stated that the lack of internal vacancies was the main obstacle in terms of getting a promotion.

Moving on to the survey results in the areas of political and civic participation, and access to public services, we observed the following. When asked about their intention to vote in the next elections for the Dutch national parliament, the majority of all migrants replied affirmatively. The comparison of different groups of migrants showed that family migrants had the lowest intention to vote. These figures are in line with the actual turnout in national parliamentary elections, where citizens of migrant origin tended to have a lower turnout than native Dutch citizens (Vermeulen and Cillessen 2012). In terms of civic participation, only a minority of family migrants stated that they were members of an association or club. They were not the least active of all migrants though, as a higher percentage of labour migrants stated that they were not members of any organization. The most popular civic organizations for family migrants were sports clubs, libraries and religious organizations. Furthermore, we have also observed that even a smaller minority of interviewed family migrants confirmed that they did volunteer work from time to time. Still, they were not the least active group amongst migrants, as their share was slightly below the average.

In terms of access to public services, the survey results were not all equally informative, as some questions merely gave a snapshot view of the use of services at the time of the survey. For example, a minority of interviewed family migrants were following an educational program, which was still slightly higher than the overall score for migrants. The majority of the family migrants stated that they had not visited a general practitioner in the last two months. Most who did visit a general practitioner in the past two months did so one to five times. The family migrants thus proved to be an average group in terms of their access to general healthcare. A larger majority of the family migrants had not contacted a medical specialist either, which was again close to the average score for all migrants.

The housing patterns were relatively more informative. The majority of family migrants lived in rental housing, reflecting the overall housing patterns of the surveyed migrants. Most of the family migrants, however, did not choose their neighbourhood themselves. A sizeable share of family migrants answered the question with 'Got a house allocated here', which indicates that an important proportion of the surveyed family migrants lived in social housing. Nevertheless, the largest portion of family migrants based their choices on the qualities of the house and neighbourhood and only a small minority of the interviewed family migrants gave the presence of friends and family as the determining factor of their housing choice. Compared to other migrant groups though, a larger proportion of family migrants stated that it is not their own choice of neighbourhood and that they chose their neighbourhood due to vicinity to friends or family. A smaller proportion of family migrants based their choice on the qualities of the house or neighbourhood. In this respect, their dependence on family members and close networks seemed to play a relatively more important role.

The results presented in this report should be read by keeping in mind the drawbacks of the survey mentioned in the introductory paragraph and throughout the report, and they should be interpreted in combination with the fieldwork results that will be presented in the qualitative part of Work Package 4 Local Case Studies Report, which attempts to reflect the current state of affairs and to explore possible explanations of these integration outcomes.

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