

Innocenti Working Paper

**CHILDREN IN IMMIGRANT FAMILIES IN
THE NETHERLANDS: A STATISTICAL
PORTRAIT AND A REVIEW OF THE
LITERATURE**

**Helga A. G. De Valk, Kris R. Noam,
Alinda M. Bosch And Gijs C. N. Beets**

**Special Series on Children in Immigrant
Families in Affluent Societies**

IWP-2009-16

October 2009

Innocenti Working Papers

Special Series on Children in Immigrant Families in Affluent Societies

UNICEF Innocenti Working Papers are intended to disseminate initial research contributions within the Centre's programme of work, addressing social, economic and institutional aspects of the realization of the human rights of children.

The findings, interpretations and conclusions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the policies or views of UNICEF.

Extracts from this publication may be freely reproduced with due acknowledgement.

© 2009 United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)
ISSN: 1014-7837

For readers wishing to cite this document, we suggest the following form:

De Valk, Helga A. G., Kris R. Noam, Alinda M. Bosch and Gijs C. N. Beets (2009), 'Children in Immigrant Families in the Netherlands: A Statistical Portrait and a Review of the Literature', *Innocenti Working Paper*, no. 2009-16, Florence, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre.

The UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre

The UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, in Florence, was established in 1988 to strengthen the research capability of the United Nations Children's Fund and to support its advocacy for children worldwide. The Centre – formally known as the International Child Development Centre – generates knowledge and analysis to support policy formulation and advocacy in favour of children, acts as a convener and catalyst for knowledge exchange and strategic reflections on children's concerns and supports programme development and capacity-building.

Innocenti studies present new knowledge and perspectives on critical issues affecting children, informing current and future areas of UNICEF's work. The Centre's publications represent contributions to a global debate on child rights issues and include a range of opinions. For this reason, the Centre may produce publications that do not necessarily reflect UNICEF policies or approaches on some topics.

The Centre collaborates with its host institution in Florence, the Istituto degli Innocenti, in selected areas of work. Core funding for the Centre is provided by the Government of Italy and UNICEF. Additional financial support for specific projects is provided by governments, international institutions and private sources, including UNICEF National Committees, as well as UNICEF offices involved in collaborative studies.

For further information and to download or order this and other publications, please visit the IRC website at <<http://www.unicef.org/irc>>.

Correspondence should be addressed to:

UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre
Piazza SS. Annunziata, 12
50122 Florence, Italy
Tel: (+39) 055 20 330
Fax: (+39) 055 2033 220
Email: florence@unicef.org

Special Series on the Situation of Children in Immigrant Families in Affluent Societies

The series supports and complements the UNICEF Innocenti Insight on ‘Children in Immigrant Families in Eight Affluent Countries: Their Family, National and International Context’ and includes the following papers:

<i>Review of the Circumstances among Children in Immigrant Families in Australia</i> by Ilan Katz and Gerry Redmond
<i>The Children of Immigrants in France: The Emergence of a Second Generation</i> by Thomas Kirszbaum, Yaël Brinbaum and Patrick Simon, with Esin Gezer
<i>The Situation among Children of Migrant Origin in Germany</i> by Susanne Clauss and Bernhard Nauck
<i>The Situation of Children in Immigrant Families in Italy: Changes and Challenges</i> by Letizia Mencarini, Emiliana Baldoni and Gianpiero Dalla Zuanna
<i>Children in Immigrant Families in the Netherlands: A Statistical Portrait and a Review of the Literature</i> by Helga A. G. de Valk, Kris R. Noam, Alinda M. Bosch and Gijs C. N. Beets
<i>Children in Immigrant Families in Switzerland: On a Path between Discrimination and Integration</i> by Rosita Fibbi and Philippe Wanner
<i>The Situation of Children in Immigrant Families in the United Kingdom</i> by Heaven Crawley

The findings presented in this series are based on data derived from sources of the countries' respective national statistical offices. In several cases, the basic estimates reported have been calculated directly by the national statistical offices on behalf of the country study teams. In other cases, microdata have been provided by the national statistical offices, and specific estimates have been calculated by the country experts.

The results reported represent the best estimates possible on the immigrant population as derived from official statistical sources. Given the fluid nature of the migration phenomenon, it is not possible to know precisely the extent to which the coverage is representative of the whole population of interest or is fully comparable across the countries studied. In general, the number of undocumented arrivals and undocumented residents is more difficult to measure through routine data collection processes, and the country researchers did not specifically address this segment of the immigrant population. Undocumented immigrants and their families may or may not be covered in some of the country analyses.

The country studies have been reviewed as individually indicated by national experts, by members of the international research team, including UNICEF IRC, and by the series editor.

The project has been supported by contributions to the UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre by the Government of Sweden and the Swiss Committee for UNICEF and by a contribution by the Government of Spain to UNICEF for policy advocacy and partnerships for children's rights.

CHILDREN IN IMMIGRANT FAMILIES IN THE NETHERLANDS: A STATISTICAL PORTRAIT AND A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Helga A. G. de Valk,^{a, b} Kris R. Noam,^b Alinda M. Bosch^b and Gijs C. N. Beets^b

^a Interface Demography, Department of Social Research, Vrije Universiteit Brussel.

^b Netherlands Interdisciplinary Demographic Institute (at the time of the study).

Summary: Of the total population of the Netherlands, about 19 per cent is foreign born. Almost 800,000 children (22.3 per cent of all children) are in immigrant families. Over 15 per cent of these children are foreign born. The rest have been born in the Netherlands each to at least one foreign-born parent. Europe is the most important region of origin of children in immigrant families. The Antilles and Aruba, Germany, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey are the major countries of origin.

The following are key findings of the study:

- The population of the Netherlands has become more diverse. The share of children and youth in immigrant families has become substantial and is increasing. Overall, immigrant groups show a younger age structure than the native-born Dutch.
- Most children, including children in immigrant families, live in two-parent households.
- Relative to native-born families, immigrant families are generally poorer, are living in less favourable housing and are more vulnerable on the labour market.
- Some immigrant groups are more disadvantaged than others. Families of European or North American origin are the most comparable with native-born Dutch families in terms of household characteristics and socioeconomic status. Many households of non-western immigrant origin are in a deprived social position and are at the bottom of the income distribution. A third of the households of non-western origin may be living in poverty.
- The second generation in the four main non-western country-of-origin groups – the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey – appear to enjoy higher socioeconomic status than their parents, though they are still generally below the socioeconomic level of the native born.
- The majority of all children in immigrant families start primary school with a language and math deficiency. Most children in immigrant families become enrolled in the low secondary tracks.
- Many youth of immigrant origin identify with aspects of their ethnic backgrounds rather than with the Netherlands. This ethnic awareness is disquieting to many among the native-born population. Many in the native-born population consider identification with the Netherlands a requirement for the social inclusion of people of immigrant origin.

Keywords: immigrant child, immigrant family, demography, education, labour market, discrimination, citizenship, health, poverty, deviant behaviour

Acknowledgments: An earlier version of this report was discussed at the project review meeting held at the UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, on 6 June 2008. Thanks to Karin Hagoort and Mariëtte Goedhuys at Statistics Netherlands for their fruitful collaboration. The study was finalized by Helga de Valk when she was a German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) guest professor at the University of Bremen and fellow at the Hanse Institute for Advanced Study (HWK). Eva Jespersen (formerly of UNICEF IRC) and Donald Hernandez (formerly of University at Albany, State University of New York) have provided additional comments. The study was edited by Robert Zimmermann.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

EU	European Union
EU-10	New EU member states admitted on 1 May 2004: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia
EU-15	EU member states before 1 May 2004: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom
EU-25	Member states of the EU before January 2007: the EU-15, plus the EU-10
HAVO	hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs (higher general secondary education)
VMBO	voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs (preparatory vocational education)
VWO	voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs (pre-university education)

Contents

1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. RECENT PATTERNS IN IMMIGRATION	2
3. SIZE AND ORIGIN OF THE POPULATION OF CHILDREN IN IMMIGRANT FAMILIES.....	3
4. CURRENT NATURALIZATION AND CITIZENSHIP POLICY	10
4.1 Immigration policy.....	10
4.2 Naturalization and citizenship policy.....	10
5. DATA ANALYSIS AND LITERATURE REVIEW: INCLUSION AND OTHER SOCIAL ISSUES	12
5.1 Definitions and methodological clarifications	12
5.2 Family environment	14
5.3 Educational attainment among children.....	38
5.4 Youth and the labour market.....	46
5.5 Children and health	47
5.6 Socialization and identity.....	48
5.7 Youth and deviant behaviour	50
5.8 Significance and function of religion.....	52
6. CONCLUSIONS.....	54
References.....	55

1. INTRODUCTION

This report provides a concise overview on the situation of children in immigrant families in the Netherlands. It brings together relevant literature thus far only partially available in English. Our principal aim has been to distribute the information available in Dutch more widely. The report represents the state of the art in the relevant literature in Dutch as of January 2008.¹ Most of the research has focused on the four largest immigrant groups: families from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey. Depending on the availability of material, we also present research that covers other immigrant groups.

We begin with a description of recent patterns in immigration in the Netherlands. We then discuss the size and origin of the immigrant population with a particular emphasis on children. Where possible, we distinguish between children in the first and second immigrant generations. We follow with a summary of the main legislation and government policies on immigration and naturalization. The subsequent sections examine the situation in which children in immigrant families in the Netherlands grow and develop. The main areas of our literature review and data survey include the characteristics of parents and households and the education, employment, health and social inclusion of children. We analyse new statistical material on the children and their families that has been specifically generated for this report by Statistics Netherlands.

We have established a summary profile of children in immigrant families in the Netherlands (see Table 1).

Table 1: Basic Data on Children in Immigrant Families, Main Countries of Origin, the Netherlands, 2006

number and per cent of children

<i>Family origin</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Age as of 1 January 2006, %</i>				<i>Second generation, total</i>
		<i>0–4</i>	<i>5–9</i>	<i>10–14</i>	<i>15–17</i>	
Total population	3,570,366	27.6	27.9	27.9	16.7	—
Immigrant population	797,395	28.7	27.6	27.2	16.5	671,910
Main countries of origin	523,970	27.3	27.4	27.9	17.4	462,520
Turkey	124,966	26.1	28.7	28.6	16.7	117,295
Morocco	123,338	32.3	27.6	25.2	14.9	115,860
Suriname	89,560	24.4	27.3	28.9	19.4	82,430
Antilles and Aruba	40,781	26.5	27.2	29.1	17.2	30,760
Germany	39,320	28.5	28.8	26.9	15.8	31,865
Indonesia ^a	30,970	15.8	20.7	34.2	29.3	29,800
Former Yugoslavia ^b	20,519	29.0	27.1	26.7	17.2	14,805
Belgium	20,202	29.1	28.3	27.4	15.2	16,525
United Kingdom	19,073	29.1	27.7	27.2	16.1	14,965
Iraq	15,241	29.3	26.0	26.9	17.8	8,215

Sources: StatLine Database; Statistics Netherlands.

Note: The totals for main countries of origin refer only to the countries listed in the table. — = not applicable.

a. Including former Netherlands East Indies.

b. Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovenia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, former Yugoslavia.

¹ For additional information on the study or related issues, contact Helga de Valk, Interface Demography, Department of Social Research, Vrije Universiteit Brussel <<http://www.vub.ac.be/SOCO/demo/whoiswho.htm>>

2. RECENT PATTERNS IN IMMIGRATION

Immigration has been an important factor in the composition of the population of the Netherlands for centuries (Nicolaas and Sprangers 2007). A period of emigration by Dutch citizens to Australia, Canada and the United States of America after World War II was followed by immigration to the Netherlands in the second half of the 20th century. Three major groups of immigrants to the Netherlands may be distinguished. First, immigrants came to the Netherlands from former Dutch colonies such as Indonesia and Suriname and from the Netherlands Antilles. Immigrants from the Antilles and Suriname generally came for educational purposes. A substantial number of Surinamese immigrated around the time of the independence of Suriname in 1975. Until 1980, Surinamese were able to keep Dutch nationality and could thus easily settle in the Netherlands without residence permits. Because the Netherlands Antilles are still part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, immigration from there is relatively easy. (Hereafter, we refer to the Netherlands Antilles as the Antilles and Aruba.) In recent years, limited job opportunities in the Antilles and Aruba have motivated many young inhabitants to migrate.

Second, labour migrants from the Mediterranean region, especially Morocco and Turkey, and, in recent years, from Eastern Europe settled in the Netherlands. Migrants from Morocco and Turkey were recruited as unskilled labour in rural areas beginning in the 1960s. Although their stay was originally expected to be temporary, many settled permanently. Family members joined them later. Many people in the Moroccan and Turkish immigrant groups still seek spouses in their countries of origin.

The third main immigration stream has involved refugees. The number of asylum seekers rose significantly in the 1990s and peaked in the mid-1990s. It has been dropping since then. The refugees have come from many countries.

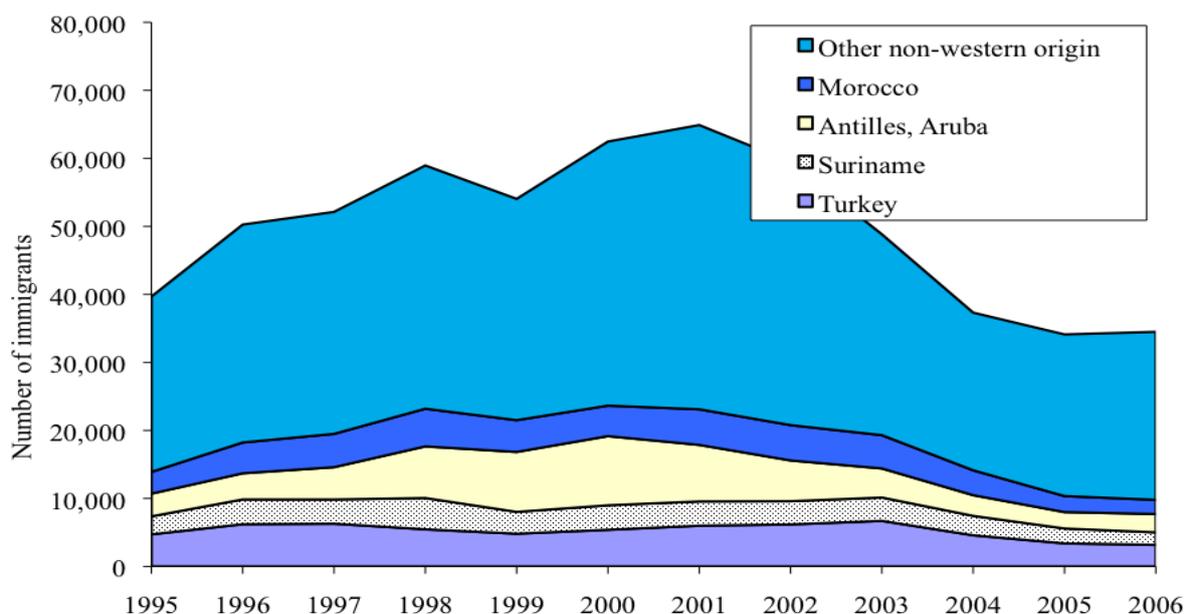
Immigration from Europe was important throughout the 20th century (EMN 2006). The immigration to the Netherlands from the four main countries of non-western origin (the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey), as well as asylum seekers, has been declining recently, while immigration from new members of the European Union (EU) – the EU-10 – has increased.² An overview of non-western immigration between 1995 and 2006 is provided in Figure 1. (Non-western refers to Turkey and countries in Africa, Asia – excluding Indonesia and Japan – and Latin America.) Overall, the migration surplus was positive during the last decades of the 20th century; however, between 2003 and 2006, the number of people emigrating from the Netherlands was greater than the number of settlers in the country.

² Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia – the EU-10 – were admitted to the EU on 1 May 2004.

3. SIZE AND ORIGIN OF THE POPULATION OF CHILDREN IN IMMIGRANT FAMILIES

Of the total population of the Netherlands on 1 January 2007 (16.4 million), 89 per cent were Dutch nationals, 4 per cent were foreign citizens, and almost 7 per cent had more than one nationality, usually Dutch nationality, plus a foreign nationality (StatLine Database 2008). A substantial share of all immigrants have arrived as Dutch citizens from former Dutch colonies (Antilles and Aruba, Indonesia and Suriname). Many foreign citizens have immigrated and acquired Dutch citizenship alongside or in place of their original nationality. The largest groups of foreign nationals generally correspond to the largest immigrant groups. The 10 largest groups of foreign nationals on 1 January 2007 were accounted for by immigrants from Turkey (96,800), Morocco (80,500), Germany (60,200), the United Kingdom (40,300), Belgium (26,000), Poland (19,600), Italy (18,600), Spain (16,500), China (15,300) and the United States (14,600).

Figure 1: Non-Western Immigration by Origin, the Netherlands, 1995–2006



Source: StatLine Database.

Of the total population in 2006 (16,334,210), 80.7 per cent was native born, which is the term we use to refer to people who are born in the Netherlands of parents born in the Netherlands.³ Currently, about 19 per cent of the population is foreign born (which is distinct from foreign citizenship). The immigrant population is more or less equally divided between western and non-western countries of origin (StatLine Database). Of the non-western population in 2005, 67 per cent was accounted for by the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey (StatLine Database). Among children (0- to 17-year-olds), the share of the native born is slightly lower, at 77.7 per cent.

³ The total population and other data in the text here and elsewhere may differ slightly from data in the tables produced for our report by Statistics Netherlands. Various data in the tables are based on rounded numbers.

Table 2 gives an overview of the 10 most important countries of origin. Together, these countries represent around 13.5 per cent of the total population. The immigrant group from Indonesia has the largest share (2.4 per cent). Four other groups – Germany, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey – each comprise around 2 per cent. The remaining groups have much smaller shares, ranging from 0.3 to 0.8 per cent.

Table 2: Total Population and Children 0–17, 10 Countries of Origin, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

number and per cent

<i>Country of origin</i>	<i>Total</i>		<i>Children (0–17)</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
Total population	16,300,00	100.00	3,570,366	100.00
Immigrant population	2,200,748	13.50	523,970	14.70
Indonesia ^a	393,057	2.41 (1)	30,970	0.87 (6)
Germany	383,841	2.35 (2)	39,320	1.10 (5)
Turkey	364,333	2.23 (3)	124,966	3.50 (1)
Suriname	331,890	2.03 (4)	89,560	2.51 (3)
Morocco	323,239	1.98 (5)	123,338	3.45 (2)
Antilles and Aruba	129,683	0.79 (6)	40,781	1.14 (4)
Belgium	76,365	0.69 (7)	20,202	0.57 (8)
Former Yugoslavia	76,322	0.47 (8)	20,519	0.57 (7)
United Kingdom	76,017	0.47 (9)	19,073	0.53 (9)
Former Soviet Union	46,001	0.28 (10)	—	—
Iraq	—	—	15,241	0.43 (10)

Source: StatLine Database; Statistics Netherlands.

Note: Data are based on rounded totals. The immigrant totals refer only to the countries listed in the table. Ages of children are the ages as of the last birthday. The numbers in parentheses show the relative rank in the respective category.

a. Including former Netherlands East Indies. — = not applicable

Table 2 also shows the most important countries of origin among children in immigrant families. The major countries of origin are almost the same. The 10 principal countries of origin among children cover 14.7 per cent of the total, versus 13.5 per cent among the overall population, but the rankings differ. Among the children, three groups are dominant. About 3.5 per cent of 0- to 17-year-olds are of Moroccan or Turkish origin, while 2.5 per cent are in the immigrant group from Suriname. Around 1 per cent are in the immigrant group from the Antilles and Aruba, and about 0.4 per cent are in the group from Iraq. Although immigration from Iraq is recent, children are already an important segment. Compared with the total population, smaller shares of children originate from Belgium, Germany and Indonesia, and larger shares originate from the Antilles and Aruba, Iraq, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey.

Table 3 supplies details on the number of children in immigrant families by country of origin. We distinguish between children in the first immigrant generation (foreign born) and children in the second immigrant generation (each born in the Netherlands to at least one foreign-born parent). We also indicate children by gender. Countries of origin are included as far as possible. The numbers on countries that show too few cases to report have been aggregated by region because of the privacy regulations of Statistics Netherlands. For the same reason, the numbers for separate groups of origin have been rounded to the nearest number ending in zero or five. The component countries shown thus may not sum to the regional totals.

Table 3 shows that 77.7 per cent of all children are of native origin. Comparison with Figure 2 reveals that the share of the native-born population is larger in older age groups (see below). Overall, immigrant groups show a younger age structure than the native-born Dutch; the share of the native-born age groups therefore increases as the age increases. The majority of children in immigrant families are in the second generation: only 3.5 per cent of all children are first-generation immigrants, while 18.8 per cent belong to the second generation.

The five countries showing the largest absolute number of first-generation children are Afghanistan, the Antilles and Aruba, Germany, Morocco and Turkey. The last four of these countries are also in the top five for the second generation. The fifth position in the latter case is occupied by Suriname. Europe is the most important region of origin for both generations. For the first generation, Asia and Africa rank second and third, respectively, whereas, for the second generation, Africa is second, followed by South America and Asia.

Table 3 also provides insight on the gender balance for each immigrant group. Slightly more boys are born than girls (1,055 boys per 1,000 girls). This is the norm throughout the world. Boys also generally show slightly higher mortality rates in the younger age groups among children. Up to age 18, the number of boys and girls should not deviate much, with boys still outnumbering girls (around 51 to around 49 per cent). Only later in the life course do women begin to outnumber men. (Women typically live longer in a population of otherwise average health.) Overall, we do not find large discrepancies between the number of girls and boys among the groups by origin. Nonetheless, both the first- and second-generation immigrant populations among children show a slightly higher share of males relative to the case in the total population (51.2 per cent). Among first-generation immigrant children, China stands out with a surplus of girls (64.1 per cent girls; N = 2,175). Indonesia also stands out somewhat (54.3 per cent girls; N = 1,169). Although, among the first generation originating from Cyprus, Luxembourg and Malta, we also find more than 60 per cent girls, the absolute numbers in these immigrant groups are small (N <75). Other country groups among which we find between 51 and 54 per cent girls in the first generation are Cape Verde, Finland, Ghana, Hungary, Indonesia and Thailand. Among the second generation, there is no country group with an unusual (>52 per cent) surplus of girls. Meanwhile, we find more boys than girls among first-generation immigrant children in the groups from Angola (56.1 per cent; N = 1,808) and Denmark (54.6 per cent; N = 262). We find the share of boys at between 53 and 54 per cent in the groups from Austria (first generation), Ethiopia (first), Ireland (first and second generations), Mexico (second), Sweden (first and second) and the Syrian Arab Republic (first). However, as elsewhere, the small absolute number of children in these groups may contribute to some of these outcomes.

Table 3: Children by Gender and Immigrant Generation, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

a. First-generation immigrant children

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total children population	3,570,365	100.0	1,825,350	100.0	1,745,015	100.0
Children in native-born families	2,772,970	77.7	1,417,180	77.6	1,355,790	77.7
First-generation immigrant children	125,485	3.5	64,290	3.5	61,195	3.5
Europe	45,750	1.3	23,540	1.3	22,210	1.3
EU-25	25,070	0.7	12,840	0.7	12,230	0.7
EU-15 ^a	22,045	0.6	11,320	0.6	10,720	0.6
Austria	305	0.0	165	0.0	140	0.0
Belgium	3,675	0.1	1,915	0.1	1,765	0.1
Denmark	260	0.0	145	0.0	120	0.0
Finland	170	0.0	80	0.0	90	0.0
France	1,940	0.1	1,005	0.1	935	0.1
Germany	7,455	0.2	3,820	0.2	3,635	0.2
Greece	560	0.0	280	0.0	285	0.0
Ireland	215	0.0	115	0.0	100	0.0
Italy	870	0.0	455	0.0	420	0.0
Luxembourg	65	0.0	25	0.0	40	0.0
Portugal	975	0.0	485	0.0	490	0.0
Spain	1,080	0.0	560	0.0	520	0.0
Sweden	355	0.0	190	0.0	165	0.0
United Kingdom	4,110	0.1	2,090	0.1	2,015	0.1
EU-10	3,030	0.1	1,520	0.1	1,510	0.1
Cyprus	45	0.0	15	0.0	25	0.0
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	465	0.0	235	0.0	230	0.0
Hungary	280	0.0	135	0.0	145	0.0
Malta	25	0.0	10	0.0	15	0.0
Poland	2,215	0.1	1,120	0.1	1,095	0.1
Other	20,680	0.6	10,700	0.6	9,980	0.6
Former Soviet Union ^c	5,765	0.2	2,930	0.2	2,835	0.2
Former Yugoslavia ^d	5,715	0.2	2,955	0.2	2,760	0.2
Turkey	7,675	0.2	4,035	0.2	3,635	0.2
Other	1,525	0.0	780	0.0	745	0.0
Africa	20,220	0.6	10,550	0.6	9,670	0.6
Angola	1,810	0.1	1,015	0.1	795	0.0
Cape Verde	425	0.0	205	0.0	220	0.0
Democratic Republic of the Congo	910	0.0	460	0.0	450	0.0
Egypt	1,080	0.0	550	0.0	530	0.0
Ethiopia	510	0.0	270	0.0	235	0.0
Ghana	535	0.0	260	0.0	275	0.0
Morocco	7,475	0.2	3,900	0.2	3,580	0.2
Nigeria	405	0.0	205	0.0	200	0.0
Somalia	2,090	0.1	1,090	0.1	1,000	0.1
South Africa	1,135	0.0	580	0.0	560	0.0
Sudan	610	0.0	320	0.0	290	0.0
Other	3,240	0.1	1,695	0.1	1,545	0.1
Central America and Caribbean	10,800	0.3	5,520	0.3	5,280	0.3
Antilles and Aruba	10,020	0.3	5,135	0.3	4,885	0.3
Other	780	0.0	385	0.0	395	0.0
North America	3,990	0.1	2,065	0.1	1,920	0.1
Canada	525	0.0	265	0.0	260	0.0
Mexico	195	0.0	100	0.0	95	0.0
United States of America	3,265	0.0	1,700	0.0	1,565	0.0
South America	11,540	0.3	5,815	0.3	5,725	0.3
Brazil	1,180	0.0	600	0.0	580	0.0
Colombia	990	0.0	495	0.0	495	0.0
Dominican Republic	805	0.0	400	0.0	405	0.0
Suriname	7,130	0.2	3,585	0.2	3,540	0.2
Other	1,435	0.0	730	0.0	705	0.0
Asia	32,400	0.9	16,410	0.9	15,990	0.9
Afghanistan	9,180	0.3	4,780	0.3	4,395	0.3
China	2,175	0.1	780	0.0	1,395	0.1
Indonesia	1,170	0.0	535	0.0	635	0.0
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2,525	0.1	1,330	0.1	1,195	0.1
Iraq	7,025	0.2	3,695	0.2	3,330	0.2
Pakistan	1,045	0.0	555	0.0	495	0.0
Syrian Arab Republic	1,035	0.0	550	0.0	485	0.0
Thailand	1,355	0.0	655	0.0	700	0.0
Other	6,890	0.2	3,535	0.2	3,360	0.2
Oceania	785	0.0	390	0.0	400	0.0

b. Second-generation children in immigrant families

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Total		Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Total children population	3,570,365	100.0	1,825,350	100.0	1,745,015	100.0
Children in native-born families	2,772,970	77.7	1,417,180	77.6	1,355,790	77.7
Second-generation immigrant children	671,910	18.8	343,880	18.8	328,030	18.8
Europe	249,775	7.0	128,320	7.0	121,455	7.0
EU-25	105,295	2.9	53,960	3.0	51,335	2.9
EU-15 ^a	94,895	2.7	48,625	2.7	46,270	2.7
Austria	1,975	0.1	1,020	0.1	955	0.1
Belgium	16,525	0.5	8,510	0.5	8,015	0.5
Denmark	1,130	0.0	575	0.0	555	0.0
Finland	620	0.0	315	0.0	305	0.0
France	7,225	0.2	3,750	0.2	3,475	0.2
Germany	31,865	0.9	16,195	0.9	15,670	0.9
Greece	2,600	0.1	1,375	0.1	1,230	0.1
Ireland	1,795	0.1	955	0.1	840	0.0
Italy	5,630	0.2	2,875	0.2	2,750	0.2
Luxembourg	405	0.0	205	0.0	200	0.0
Portugal	3,190	0.1	1,595	0.1	1,595	0.1
Spain	5,770	0.2	2,950	0.2	2,820	0.2
Sweden	1,195	0.0	635	0.0	560	0.0
United Kingdom	14,965	0.4	7,670	0.4	7,295	0.4
EU-10	10,400	0.3	5,335	0.3	5,065	0.3
Cyprus	100	0.0	50	0.0	50	0.0
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	1,740	0.0	885	0.0	850	0.0
Hungary	1,310	0.0	675	0.0	640	0.0
Malta	115	0.0	55	0.0	60	0.0
Poland	7,140	0.2	3,670	0.2	3,470	0.2
Other	144,485	4.0	74,360	4.1	70,120	4.0
Former Soviet Union ^c	6,605	0.2	3,415	0.2	3,190	0.2
Former Yugoslavia ^d	14,805	0.4	7,635	0.4	7,170	0.4
Turkey	117,295	3.3	60,295	3.3	57,000	3.3
Other	5,785	0.2	3,015	0.2	2,765	0.2
Africa	172,710	4.8	88,045	4.8	84,665	4.9
Angola	2,250	0.1	1,125	0.1	1,125	0.1
Cape Verde	5,230	0.1	2,650	0.1	2,580	0.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2,550	0.1	1,320	0.1	1,230	0.1
Egypt	6,460	0.2	3,270	0.2	3,195	0.2
Ethiopia	2,975	0.1	1,565	0.1	1,410	0.1
Ghana	6,780	0.2	3,445	0.2	3,335	0.2
Morocco	115,860	3.2	59,080	3.2	56,780	3.3
Nigeria	3,175	0.1	1,575	0.1	1,595	0.1
Somalia	6,145	0.2	3,145	0.2	3,005	0.2
South Africa	4,635	0.1	2,400	0.1	2,240	0.1
Sudan	1,575	0.0	825	0.0	750	0.0
Other	15,070	0.4	7,655	0.4	7,415	0.4
Central America and Caribbean	32,860	0.9	16,755	0.9	16,105	0.9
Antilles and Aruba	30,760	0.9	15,650	0.9	15,110	0.9
Other	2,100	0.1	1,105	0.1	995	0.1
North America	12,925	0.4	6,655	0.4	6,270	0.4
Canada	5,185	0.1	2,590	0.1	2,595	0.1
Mexico	785	0.0	420	0.0	365	0.0
United States of America	6,955	0.2	3,645	0.2	3,310	0.2
South America	98,880	2.8	50,565	2.8	48,315	2.8
Brazil	3,690	0.1	1,875	0.1	1,815	0.1
Colombia	3,020	0.1	1,540	0.1	1,485	0.1
Dominican Republic	2,885	0.1	1,485	0.1	1,400	0.1
Suriname	82,430	2.3	42,200	2.3	40,230	2.3
Other	6,850	0.2	3,465	0.2	3,380	0.2
Asia	96,450	2.7	49,365	2.7	47,090	2.7
Afghanistan	5,200	0.1	2,695	0.1	2,505	0.1
China	9,285	0.3	4,785	0.3	4,500	0.3
Indonesia	29,800	0.8	15,145	0.8	14,655	0.8
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4,580	0.1	2,365	0.1	2,215	0.1
Iraq	8,215	0.2	4,240	0.2	3,980	0.2
Pakistan	5,420	0.2	2,795	0.2	2,625	0.2
Syrian Arab Republic	2,390	0.1	1,235	0.1	1,155	0.1
Thailand	2,800	0.1	1,455	0.1	1,345	0.1
Other	28,765	0.8	14,650	0.8	14,115	0.8
Oceania	8,310	0.2	4,175	0.2	4,135	0.2

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

a. EU-15 = EU member states before 1 May 2004. As the country of settlement, the Netherlands is not shown.

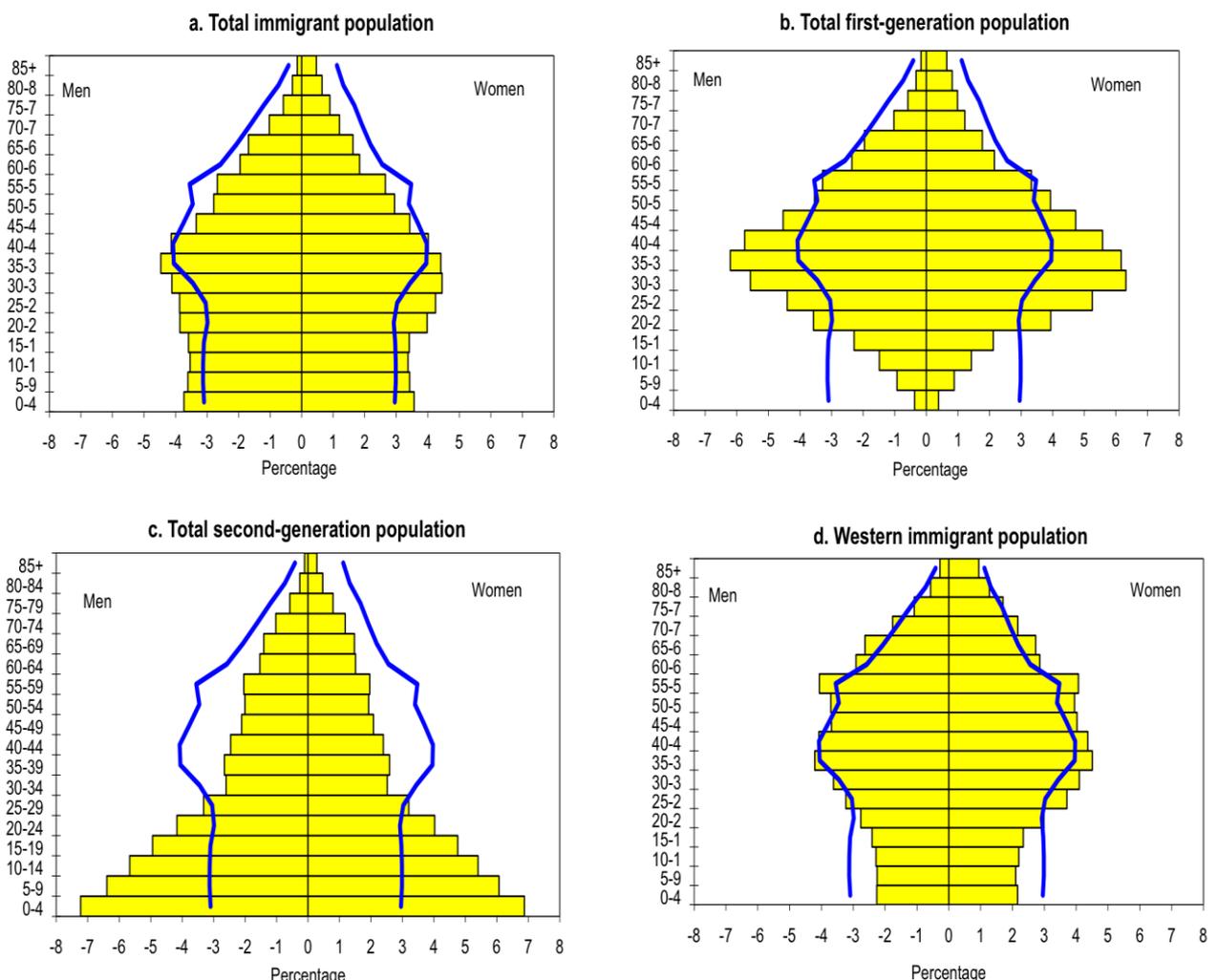
b. Former Czechoslovakia, Czech Republic and Slovakia.

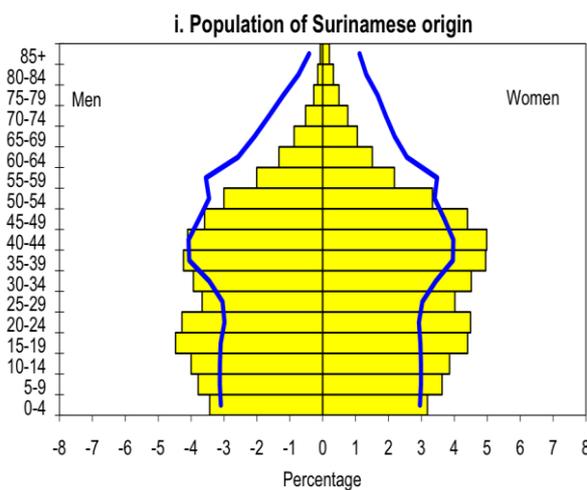
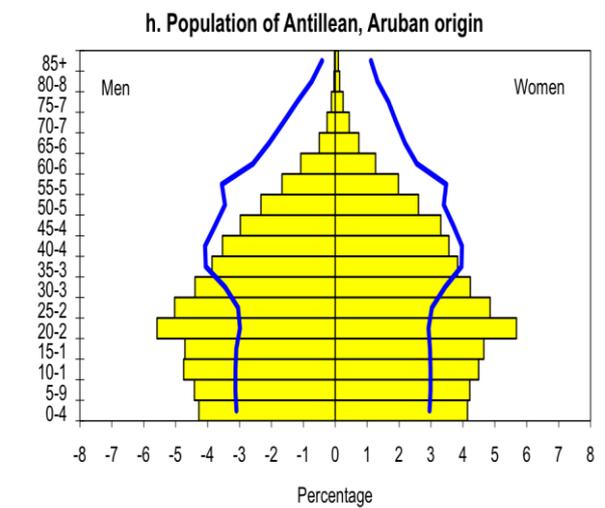
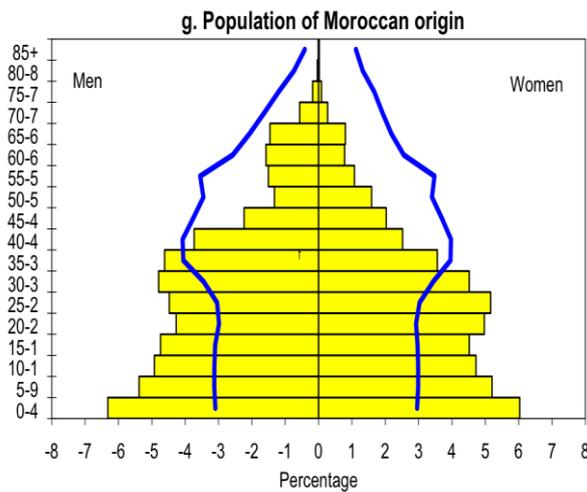
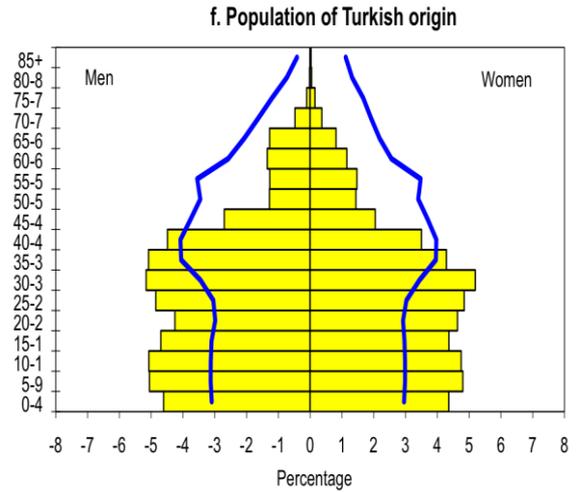
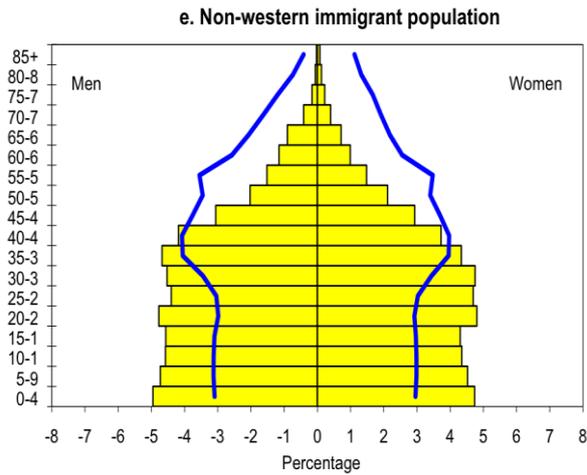
c. Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, former Russian republic, former Soviet Union, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan.

d. Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovenia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, former Yugoslavia.

Figure 2 offers insight on age and gender distributions across selected immigrant populations by five-year age groups. In each of the charts in the figure, the contoured lines shadowing the solid bars represent the age distribution across the total population of men (left side of each chart) and women (right side). (The contoured lines are uniform throughout.) Overall, 0- to 19-year-olds comprise 24 per cent of the total population of the Netherlands, but the share of young people is somewhat larger among the immigrant population (28 per cent). However, we find clear differences in the shares of first- and second-generation individuals 0 to 19 years of age: around 10 and 47 per cent, respectively, for these generations. We also find that the share of children 0 to 19 years of age is two times larger among the non-western immigrant population relative to the western immigrant population (37 and 18 per cent, respectively). The charts show that, overall, the share of youth in each of the groups examined is larger than the corresponding share among the native-born population; the only exceptions are the group of all first-generation immigrants and the group of western immigrants. Among the four countries of origin shown in the charts, the population of Moroccan origin shows the largest share (42 per cent) of 0- to 19-year-olds, while the population of Surinamese origin shows the smallest share (31 per cent). The variations in age structure across immigrant groups reflect the immigration history of the Netherlands, as well as differences in levels of fertility among immigrant groups. We find no gender imbalances among the four countries of origin examined in Figure 2; the shares of males and females among the 0–19 age group is also more or less equal.

Figure 2: Age-Gender Pyramids, Selected Subpopulations, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006





Source: Author calculations based on StatLine Database (2006).

Note: The pyramids show per cent distributions by age and gender. The contoured lines shadowing the bars indicate the age distribution for men (left-hand side of each chart) and women (right-hand side) in the total population. They are uniform throughout. 'Immigrant population' refers to the first and second generations unless otherwise indicated.

4. CURRENT NATURALIZATION AND CITIZENSHIP POLICY

The Ministry of Justice is responsible for the admittance and naturalization of aliens. (Until 2006, it was also accountable for the inclusion and integration of ethnic minorities.) The institutional structures charged with immigration and asylum issues and naturalization are attached to the ministry. Among these structures are the Immigration and Naturalization Service and the Central Agency for the Reception of Asylum Seekers (EMN 2006).

4.1 Immigration policy

Immigration is restricted in the Netherlands. The relevant criteria and regulations are based on the Aliens Act 2000, which entered into force in 2001. In principle, immigration is possible for work, family reunification, family formation and asylum-seeking. To apply for a residence permit and settle in the Netherlands, all immigrants who are not asylum seekers must obtain an authorization for temporary stay (*machtiging tot voorlopig verblijf*) (IND 2006a, 2006b). As of 15 March 2006, all individuals who wish to remain on a more permanent basis must take the civic integration examination (*basisexamen inburgering*); only a few exceptions apply (EMN 2006, IND 2006b). Knowledge of the Dutch language and Dutch society is tested by means of this examination, which must be taken abroad at the Dutch embassy or consulate in the country of origin. A fee of €350 is assessed for the examination, and there is also a fee for the residence permit (IND 2006a).

The Government follows a strict policy towards immigration for family reunification and family formation. The individual applying to be joined by family members must meet age, income and housing criteria. The legislation on family reunification is based on the internationally recognized right to pursue and maintain life within a family. However, research indicates that, in practice, the laws on family reunification tend to take precedence in enforcement over other social or human rights, such as legislation on child protection and the well-being of children (Wijers and Hooghiemstra 2005). An example is the argument in jurisprudence that children who have been living separately from their parents for five years or more are considered to have lost the link to their parents and families and are therefore no longer eligible to participate in family reunification. Such an argument contradicts the important, unique character of the bonding between parents and children and the significance of this bonding in children's upbringing. In their evaluation, Wijers and Hooghiemstra (2005) also note that the Dutch legal approach to the deportation of rejected asylum seekers – or, at least, the manner in which deportation is implemented through the Immigration and Naturalization Service – may be harsh on families and negative for family life. They illustrate this by pointing out that the Government may deny the provision of shelter and food to children to force the parents to leave the country.

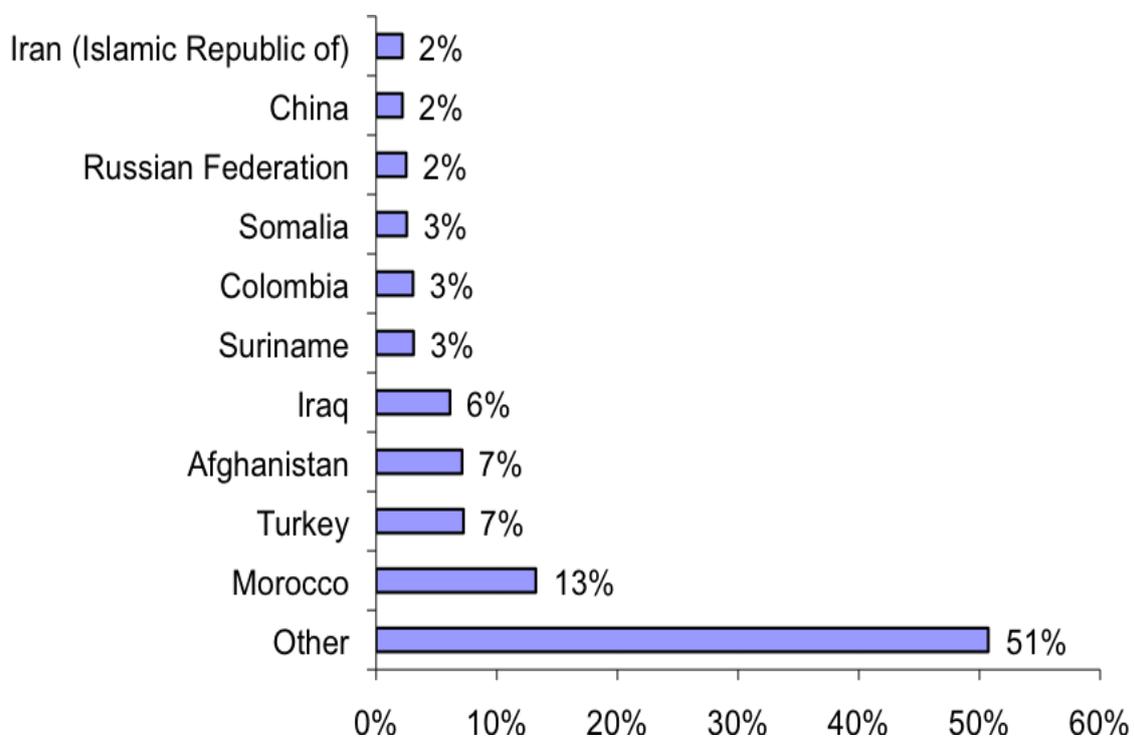
4.2 Naturalization and citizenship policy

In principle, everyone who has a parent who is a Dutch citizen acquires Dutch nationality by entitlement. People who have been born in the Netherlands and who have lived in the country continuously may obtain Dutch nationality between the ages of 18 and 25. Naturalization is a third way to acquire Dutch nationality. To become naturalized, individuals must renounce any other citizenship they possess. However, there is a long list of exceptions. Thus, for example, the rule does not apply if the individual is a national of a country that does not

permit its citizens to renounce their nationality (IND 2006c, Oudhof 2006). Dutch citizenship through naturalization is confirmed through a ceremony that takes place at least once a year, on 24 August, the date on which, in 1815, the Constitution of the Netherlands took effect. The ceremony is organized by municipalities (IND 2006c).

A total of 21,560 applications for naturalization were submitted during the first nine months of 2007. Figure 3 shows that the largest individual group of origin applying for Dutch nationality was the group from Morocco (13 per cent of all applications). In 2006, almost 30,000 persons obtained Dutch citizenship through naturalization. The five most important groups according to the number of new citizens were those originating from Morocco (6,900), Turkey (3,400), Suriname (1,600), the former Soviet Union (1,100) and China (800) (StatLine Database 2007).

Figure 3: Shares of Applications for Naturalization by Immigrant Origin, the Netherlands, January-September 2007



Source: IND (2007).

5. DATA ANALYSIS AND LITERATURE REVIEW: INCLUSION AND OTHER SOCIAL ISSUES

5.1 Definitions and methodological clarifications

5.1.1 Definitions

The focus of our study is all children who were living in immigrant families in the Netherlands on 1 January 2006, excluding the institutional population, that is, children in children's homes or other institutions. Children are defined as all 0- to 17-year-olds.

In the data collected by Statistics Netherlands, the immigrant population is defined to include all individuals who have at least one foreign-born parent, independent of where the individuals themselves have been born (Statistics Netherlands 2007a). Depending on the country of birth of an individual in an immigrant family and the country of birth of each parent, the individual may be counted as first or second generation (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008). The first generation encompasses all individuals who are foreign born, while the second generation covers all individuals who are born in the Netherlands, but who have at least one parent born abroad. These two generations may also be broken down additionally. Foreign-born individuals who have arrived in the Netherlands as adults are the 1.0 generation, and foreign-born individuals who have arrived as children are the 1.5 generation. Individuals born in the Netherlands of two foreign-born parents would belong to the 2.0 generation, while individuals born in the Netherlands of mixed native-born and foreign-born parents would be the 2.5 generation. The 3.0 generation would represent individuals born in the Netherlands of parents of immigrant origin born in the Netherlands. In our study reported here, we include the third generation among the native-born population.

Immigrant groups are defined according to the country of origin of individuals or their parents. If an individual has been born in a foreign country, then that country is the individual's country of origin. If the individual has been born in the Netherlands of immigrant parents born in one foreign country, then that country is the individual's country of origin, and the individual belongs in the immigrant group from that country. If the parents have been born in separate countries (which may include the Netherlands), then the individual's country of origin is the mother's country of origin if the mother is foreign born. If the mother has been born in the Netherlands, the country of birth of the father is the individual's country of origin. Statistics Netherlands also groups countries of origin into western and non-western countries. Non-western origin refers to Turkey and countries in Africa, Asia (excluding Japan and Indonesia) and Latin America. All other countries are western, including Australia and Oceania.

According to the current definitions used by Statistics Netherlands, nationality is irrelevant in immigrant designation and in designation according to immigrant generation. This means that the immigrant population includes both Dutch and foreign nationals.

5.1.2 Our data

We have drawn the data for our report from several sources collected by Statistics Netherlands, including municipal population registers, the labour force survey (used here to measure parental education), the employment and earnings survey (used here to assess the weekly working hours of parents) and the Social Statistics Database (used here to determine parental labour market position). Each of these sources is directly linked to longitudinal municipal population registers on the individual level.

From the municipal population registers, detailed data are available on all persons residing in the Netherlands, including the immigrant population. Because the total population of the Netherlands is included, no weighting is necessary. The population registers were introduced in the mid-19th century, and, since 1994, the registers have been computerized. All persons are obliged to register with the municipality in which they live, and this information is maintained in the municipal population registers. They include information on date of birth, gender, country of birth, address, household composition, immigration and emigration. Registration takes place on the basis of either a Dutch birth certificate or a declaration of stay or residence. All foreign-born individuals intending to stay in the Netherlands for at least two thirds of the forthcoming six months (known as the four-month criterion) are considered immigrants. A non-Dutch national must possess a residence permit to be registered as a new immigrant. An asylum seeker is registered after the permit has been granted or after the asylum seeker has resided in an asylum centre for six months without receiving a permit. Emigrants are individuals who leave the Netherlands with the intention to remain abroad for at least 8 of the forthcoming 12 months. Any individual who returns after living abroad is re-registered as of the day of return, and all data are updated (Van der Erf et al. 2006).

The municipal population registers have been used in two ways in our study. First, based on the registers, a set of tables has been produced by Statistics Netherlands on children in immigrant families for our report. Second, we rely on data available in the StatLine Database, the online database of Statistics Netherlands, and these data are also derived from the municipal population registers. Although, within the StatLine Database, not all information is available for minors only, the data do provide insights on youth up to age 20.⁴

The second main data source for our study, the labour force survey, is a large-scale sample survey among the resident population 15 years of age or older, excluding people living in care centres or institutions. Around 0.8 per cent of the resident population (about 120,000 people) is surveyed each year. We have used the labour force survey to determine parental educational attainment. To reduce the margin of error for the tables based on the labour force survey, we have calculated three-year averages using the survey results for 2004–2006 (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008).

We have used our third data source, the employment and earnings survey, to generate information on jobs, working hours and wages. In the tables produced for this report,

⁴ Some of the data in the StatLine Database are age specific; other information is available in broader age categories in which the group up to age 18 cannot be distinguished separately.

employee-level data as of 31 December 2005 have been derived from this source. These data have been weighted (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008).

Statistics Netherlands has combined information from various sources, both registers and surveys, in the Social Statistics Database. The database contains individual-level data on, for example, people in paid employment, the self-employed and people who work abroad. It includes information on all jobs in the Netherlands that are subject to employee insurance scheme registration. This information is supplemented with fiscal administration data, tax information and the employment and earnings survey (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008).

5.2 Family environment

5.2.1 Size and structure of the family

Table 4 shows the number of children living with both parents or with only a mother or a father. The parents in these cases may not always be biological parents. Some may be, for example, adoptive parents. Almost all children (99.2 per cent) in the total population grow up in one of these types of families. (See Table 3 for the totals.) The share of children in one of these types of families is highest among the children in native-born families (99.5 per cent) and lowest among first-generation immigrant children (92.6 per cent). An outlier is the case of the immigrant group from Angola: only 59 per cent of the first-generation children in this group are living with one parent or both parents. Among first-generation children from Canada, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Hungary, Sweden and the Syrian Arab Republic, 80 to 88 per cent grow up with at least one parent. Among the second generation in all groups, the shares of children who do not live with at least one parent are small (95 per cent or more live with at least one parent).

Table 4: Children by Family Structure, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

a. First-generation immigrant children

number of children

<i>Family origin</i>	<i>Two-parent family</i>	<i>Mother-only family</i>	<i>Father-only family</i>	<i>No sibling 0–17 at home</i>	<i>One or two siblings 0–17 at home</i>	<i>Three or more siblings 0–17 at home</i>
Total children population	3,075,995	418,810	46,750	789,615	2,488,230	292,520
Children in native-born families	2,478,115	248,565	33,665	589,560	1,987,075	196,335
First-generation immigrant children	85,510	27,690	2,995	36,370	71,005	18,115
Europe	33,880	7,585	1,080	15,065	27,125	3,560
EU-25	18,375	4,275	690	8,175	15,380	1,515
EU-15 ^a	16,135	3,830	645	6,805	13,850	1,385
Austria	220	60	10	100	195	10
Belgium	2,785	655	120	1,135	2,300	245
Denmark	180	40	10	75	165	25
Finland	135	20	0	50	115	10
France	1,350	415	50	545	1,250	145
Germany	5,690	1,190	245	2,375	4,685	395
Greece	345	165	0	200	350	10
Ireland	160	30	0	55	120	40
Italy	585	200	25	290	520	60
Luxembourg	45	20	0	15	45	0
Portugal	630	205	40	410	535	35
Spain	705	255	35	390	615	75
Sweden	255	40	10	90	240	25
United Kingdom	3,045	535	90	1,080	2,710	320
EU-10	2,240	445	45	1,370	1,530	130
Cyprus	35	5	0	10	30	0
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	355	65	5	160	255	50
Hungary	205	30	10	115	155	15
Malta	15	5	0	5	20	0
Poland	1,625	340	25	1,080	1,070	60
Other	15,505	3,310	390	6,885	11,745	2,045
Former Soviet Union ^c	3,945	1,140	75	2,510	3,045	210
Former Yugoslavia ^d	4,455	860	85	1,810	3,440	465
Turkey	5,935	1,070	200	1,950	4,405	1,315
Other	1,165	245	30	615	855	55
Africa	12,950	4,525	495	4,925	9,995	5,305
Angola	475	550	45	775	700	330
Cape Verde	255	130	15	145	240	40
Democratic Republic of the Congo	400	300	30	230	385	300
Egypt	915	100	30	180	750	150
Ethiopia	255	170	10	165	245	95
Ghana	255	140	40	220	275	40
Morocco	6,345	755	105	1,390	3,545	2,545
Nigeria	295	55	10	90	255	65
Somalia	720	1,080	45	395	725	975
South Africa	900	150	30	285	780	70
Sudan	390	170	0	95	335	180
Other	1,745	920	130	960	1,765	520
Central America and Caribbean	3,630	6,250	225	3,090	6,375	1,335
Antilles and Aruba	3,070	6,100	205	2,850	5,890	1,280
Other	560	150	20	240	485	55
North America	2,965	565	60	1,125	2,590	275
Canada	385	60	0	155	305	65
Mexico	155	20	5	75	115	10
United States of America	2,430	485	50	895	2,165	205
South America	6,330	3,895	530	4,300	6,515	725
Brazil	870	200	35	440	695	45
Colombia	690	230	15	355	560	80
Dominican Republic	395	265	35	310	450	45
Suriname	3,370	2,910	400	2,710	3,955	460
Other	1,000	290	50	485	855	90
Asia	25,145	4,760	580	7,655	17,910	6,835
Afghanistan	7,430	1,150	120	1,035	4,705	3,440
China	1,760	175	35	1,005	1,095	75
Indonesia	890	170	30	500	625	45
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	1,610	690	70	1,080	1,380	65
Iraq	5,250	1,340	110	1,070	4,045	1,910
Pakistan	800	115	30	225	500	320
Syrian Arab Republic	775	120	15	200	610	225
Thailand	1,080	165	45	665	670	20
Other	5,550	835	135	1,880	4,280	735
Oceania	610	110	20	205	500	80

b. Second-generation children in immigrant families

number of children

Family origin	Two-parent family	Mother-only family	Father-only family	No sibling 0–17 at home	One or two siblings 0–17 at home	Three or more siblings 0–17 at home
Total children population	3,075,995	418,810	46,750	789,615	2,488,230	292,520
Children in native-born families	2,478,115	248,565	33,665	589,560	1,987,075	196,335
Second-generation immigrant children	512,375	142,555	10,090	163,685	430,150	78,075
Europe	205,770	37,875	3,475	61,465	170,055	18,260
EU-25	87,610	14,830	1,970	29,915	70,345	5,030
EU-15 ^a	78,960	13,355	1,770	25,925	64,270	4,700
Austria	1,665	270	25	540	1,320	115
Belgium	13,920	2,130	315	4,185	11,370	975
Denmark	970	135	15	295	795	40
Finland	550	55	15	175	425	25
France	6,135	910	130	1,870	4,995	365
Germany	26,695	4,250	640	8,495	21,855	1,520
Greece	2,095	445	35	730	1,765	105
Ireland	1,500	255	30	485	1,210	100
Italy	4,565	910	95	1,645	3,665	320
Luxembourg	360	30	5	95	295	15
Portugal	2,385	705	65	1,180	1,915	95
Spain	4,775	845	105	1,820	3,740	210
Sweden	1,045	125	20	305	835	55
United Kingdom	12,295	2,280	275	4,110	10,095	760
EU-10	8,650	1,475	200	3,990	6,075	330
Cyprus	70	25	0	25	70	0
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	1,475	205	40	595	1,065	80
Hungary	1,130	140	30	440	790	80
Malta	100	10	0	25	90	0
Poland	5,875	1,090	125	2,905	4,065	165
Other	118,165	23,045	1,500	31,550	99,710	13,230
Former Soviet Union ^c	5,185	1,220	130	2,505	3,890	205
Former Yugoslavia ^d	11,970	2,495	200	4,160	9,665	980
Turkey	96,125	18,595	1,045	22,970	82,520	11,805
Other	4,885	735	125	1,910	3,635	240
Africa	133,490	36,025	1,845	30,895	100,085	41,730
Angola	1,165	995	50	630	1,255	370
Cape Verde	2,735	2,315	110	1,735	3,130	370
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1,485	955	60	490	1,595	465
Egypt	4,980	1,320	115	1,325	4,395	745
Ethiopia	1,580	1,320	45	670	1,880	425
Ghana	2,485	3,935	240	1,640	4,510	635
Morocco	99,200	15,310	690	17,295	64,230	34,335
Nigeria	2,145	870	100	775	2,195	205
Somalia	2,530	3,495	40	705	2,935	2,505
South Africa	4,010	525	70	1,080	3,240	315
Sudan	1,100	440	25	370	1,050	155
Other	10,080	4,540	290	4,185	9,675	1,210
Central America and Caribbean	17,600	14,165	500	9,780	20,450	2,630
Antilles and Aruba	16,040	13,685	465	9,105	19,115	2,540
Other	1,560	480	35	675	1,335	90
North America	10,930	1,720	205	3,045	8,975	900
Canada	4,540	545	80	1,135	3,615	435
Mexico	700	70	10	265	495	25
United States of America	5,690	1,105	115	1,645	4,870	440
South America	58,510	36,750	2,135	29,385	63,250	6,240
Brazil	2,985	590	100	1,180	2,285	225
Colombia	2,060	835	85	1,160	1,740	120
Dominican Republic	1,250	1,445	100	925	1,710	250
Suriname	47,095	32,365	1,705	24,100	52,975	5,360
Other	5,115	1,520	145	2,020	4,540	285
Asia	79,085	14,910	1,770	27,310	61,275	7,865
Afghanistan	4,565	580	30	930	3,170	1,095
China	7,295	1,715	180	2,350	6,455	475
Indonesia	24,340	4,530	705	10,465	18,135	1,205
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	3,440	1,020	85	1,660	2,820	100
Iraq	6,680	1,410	90	1,485	5,320	1,410
Pakistan	4,420	875	75	815	3,130	1,475
Syrian Arab Republic	2,070	300	10	410	1,605	375
Thailand	2,310	330	135	1,240	1,495	60
Other	23,965	4,150	460	7,955	19,150	1,660
Oceania	6,985	1,110	165	1,805	6,055	450

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3.

Overall, most children live with two parents (86 per cent). However, 12 per cent live in mother-only households, while only 1 per cent live in father-only households. The share living in households with both parents is smaller among first-generation immigrant children, among whom only 68 per cent live in two-parent households. A larger share is, however, living in mother-only households (22 per cent), while the share living in father-only households is still correspondingly small (2 per cent). Although the share of second-generation children living with both parents, at 76 per cent, is substantially higher than the corresponding share of the first generation, the shares for mother-only and father-only households are about the same (21 and 2 per cent, respectively). Relatively more first-generation children may be living in one-parent households, usually with the mother, because of an uncompleted family immigration process. More second-generation children may be in mother-only households relative to children in the total population as a result of higher divorce rates among immigrant groups, cultural-specific union and family formation patterns, and the return migration of one of the parents.

Among several immigrant groups, we find large deviations from the patterns described above. Growing up in a two-parent family is more uncommon among first-generation children from Angola (26 per cent), Antilles and Aruba (31 per cent), Cape Verde (61 per cent), Democratic Republic of the Congo (44 per cent), Dominican Republic (49 per cent), Ethiopia (50 per cent), Ghana (48 per cent), Greece (61 per cent), Somalia (34 per cent), the Sudan (64 per cent) and Suriname (47 per cent). In each of these groups, we find that about a third of children grow up in mother-only households. The shares of mother-only households are even higher among the groups from Suriname (41 per cent), Somalia (52 per cent) and the Antilles and Aruba (61 per cent). More than 4 per cent of the children in father-only households are found in the groups from Cape Verde, Dominican Republic, Ghana, Portugal and Suriname.

In the second generation, children more often live in two-parent families (76 per cent), but about equally as often in mother-only and father-only families. The deviations are the largest among the groups from Angola, Antilles and Aruba, Cape Verde, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Somalia and Suriname.

The last three columns in each of the two panels of Table 4 provide insights on the size of immigrant families. Most 0- to 17-year-olds are living in households together with one or two siblings (70 per cent). About 22 per cent have no siblings in the home, and 8 per cent have three or more siblings in the home. Although the majority of first-generation immigrant children live with one or two siblings, they are also more likely to live with no siblings (29 per cent) or with three or more siblings (14 per cent). At least 27 per cent of first-generation children are living with three or more siblings among the immigrant groups from Afghanistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, Morocco, Pakistan, Somalia and the Sudan. First-generation children live mainly in small families in the groups from Angola, China, Ghana, Hungary, Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Poland, Portugal, the former Soviet Union and Thailand; at least 40 per cent of these children have no siblings in the home. For the second generation, immigrant groups from three countries have a substantial share of larger families, namely, Morocco, Pakistan and Somalia. Small families are common among second-generation children in the groups from Poland and Thailand. These findings partially reflect differences in fertility rates both in the countries of origin and, after

immigration, in the Netherlands. Family size is also related to the age of the immigration flow, the characteristics of the arriving immigrants and the reasons for immigration.

Table 5 describes the origin of the parents of children in immigrant families. Of all 0- to 17-year-olds in the Netherlands, around 9 per cent have mixed parents, that is, one native-born parent and one foreign-born parent. Among first-generation children, this share is substantially higher, at 15 per cent. The highest share (42 per cent) is observed among the second generation. There are clear differences in the shares of children with mixed parents across immigrant groups. Overall, mixed-parent households typically include a native-born Dutch parent and a partner from a European immigrant group.

Among the first generation, larger shares of mixed parents (more than 40 per cent) are found among children born in Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, France, Greece, Luxembourg, Malta, Mexico and Spain. Small shares of first-generation children with one native-born parent (<5 per cent) are found among the immigrant groups from Angola, Cape Verde, Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Morocco, Pakistan, Somalia, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and former Yugoslavia.

Among the second generation, there are substantial shares of children with one native-born Dutch parent. These shares are particularly high (>70 per cent) among second-generation children in immigrant families from Brazil, Canada, Colombia, the EU-10, the EU-15 (except Portugal), Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria, Oceania, South Africa, Thailand and the United States. (The EU-15 consists of the members of the EU until May 2004.) The shares of second-generation children with one native-born parent are low (<10 per cent) among children in the groups from Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia.

Relatively few children in the Netherlands are living with two parents who have been born in separate foreign countries (1 per cent). The corresponding shares are 7 per cent among first-generation immigrant children and 6 per cent among the second generation. However, among several immigrant groups, the shares are above 15 per cent. Among the first generation, this is the case of children from Canada, Cyprus, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Finland, France, Ireland, Oceania, Portugal, Somalia and the United States, and, among children in the second generation, this is so in the immigrant groups from China, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Dominican Republic, Ghana, Somalia, former Soviet Union and the Syrian Arab Republic.

Slightly more than a third of all first-generation children have at least one parent who arrived in the Netherlands between 1 January 2001 and 1 January 2006 (Table 5). The corresponding share is 9 per cent among second-generation children. Among first-generation children, we find that at least one parent has arrived in the Netherlands recently. More than 50 per cent of first-generation children from Ireland, Luxembourg, Nigeria, Oceania and Poland are living with at least one parent who has arrived recently. In general, the shares are much smaller among the second generation. Among second-generation children in the groups originating from Afghanistan, Angola, former Soviet Union and the Sudan, at least a quarter have a parent who moved to the Netherlands during the five years between 1 January 2001 and 1 January 2006.

Table 5: Family Profile of Children, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

number of children

<i>Family origin</i>	<i>Children of a native-born and a foreign-born parent</i>	<i>Children of parents born in separate countries</i>	<i>Children with a parent in the Netherlands less than five years</i>	<i>Children of a native-born and a foreign-born parent</i>	<i>Children of parents born in separate countries</i>	<i>Children with a parent in the Netherlands less than five years</i>
Total children population	303,415	49,935	121,005	303,415	49,935	121,005
Children in native-born families	—	—	19,925	—	—	19,925
<i>Children in immigrant families</i>	<i>First generation</i>			<i>Second generation</i>		
Total	18,395	9,020	43,830	285,015	40,915	57,250
Europe	10,280	3,770	16,415	123,755	11,240	21,155
EU-25	9,025	3,060	9,660	89,725	8,060	7,535
EU-15 ^a	8,500	2,880	8,080	81,510	6,985	5,880
Austria	155	35	120	1,770	155	95
Belgium	1,875	430	1,220	14,625	1,090	870
Denmark	85	30	120	955	105	110
Finland	45	25	85	525	65	65
France	810	355	755	6,065	790	560
Germany	2,695	890	2,195	28,195	2,310	1,515
Greece	300	55	175	2,100	105	145
Ireland	75	40	110	1,555	120	150
Italy	345	105	355	4,835	305	370
Luxembourg	50	5	35	380	20	5
Portugal	95	180	480	1,970	405	275
Spain	540	160	365	4,705	520	315
Sweden	105	45	160	1,030	125	120
United Kingdom	1,330	525	1,900	12,795	875	1,275
EU-10	525	180	1,585	8,215	1,080	1,655
Cyprus	20	5	10	75	15	0
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	100	45	205	1,360	220	300
Hungary	75	20	110	1,085	130	160
Malta	15	0	10	105	5	5
Poland	310	105	1,250	5,590	710	1,195
Other	1,255	710	6,755	34,030	3,180	13,620
Former Soviet Union ^c	245	385	2,635	3,035	1,135	1,950
Former Yugoslavia ^d	90	85	825	5,055	540	1,715
Turkey	395	60	2,605	21,285	935	9,090
Other	525	180	690	4,655	565	860
Africa	1,235	1,650	6,835	37,800	10,060	18,375
Angola	5	50	530	590	275	650
Cape Verde	10	25	140	1,280	495	230
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5	230	255	700	705	455
Egypt	65	50	450	3,220	95	985
Ethiopia	30	40	100	810	225	220
Ghana	35	80	175	1,665	1,220	635
Morocco	115	105	2,310	13,965	3,215	10,065
Nigeria	40	30	225	2,345	255	530
Somalia	0	465	505	415	945	870
South Africa	425	145	445	4,110	225	190
Sudan	0	20	270	290	135	550
Other	500	405	1,435	8,405	2,275	2,995
Central America and Caribbean	915	905	3,245	16,875	2,230	1,855
Antilles and Aruba	665	845	2,965	15,295	1,895	1,590
Other	250	60	280	1,580	335	270
North America	1,435	615	1,890	11,795	695	885
Canada	175	80	205	4,870	215	170
Mexico	110	10	85	720	45	145
United States of America	1,155	525	1,600	6,200	435	570
South America	1,705	540	4,205	41,175	6,660	4,315
Brazil	445	60	535	3,195	300	465
Colombia	305	65	415	2,135	450	295
Dominican Republic	135	85	180	1,160	490	285
Suriname	420	175	2,370	29,600	4,400	2,565
Other	405	155	705	5,085	1,015	705
Asia	2,460	1,400	10,825	45,825	9,680	10,375
Afghanistan	0	140	3,225	165	70	1,580
China	290	70	585	1,150	1,800	1,330
Indonesia	395	110	435	25,055	1,950	1,035
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0	60	660	1,710	215	465
Iraq	0	125	1,565	760	250	1,525
Pakistan	20	60	330	910	365	570
Syrian Arab Republic	5	90	375	360	590	475
Thailand	360	45	625	2,470	180	500
Other	1,395	700	3,025	13,245	4,260	2,895
Oceania	365	140	420	7,790	345	290

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3.

Table 6 covers children between 5 and 17 years of age who moved in the five years before 1 January 2006 either within the Netherlands or from a foreign country. The share is largest among first-generation immigrant children: around two thirds moved at least once. Although the share is smaller among the second generation, it is still over a third. The share is slightly more than a quarter among native-born children. The largest shares – more than 75 per cent – are among first-generation children from Angola, Brazil, China, Colombia, Ghana, Nigeria, Poland, Portugal, former Soviet Union, the Sudan and Thailand. We find that, among second-generation children in families from the Dominican Republic, former Soviet Union and the Sudan, at least 50 per cent moved in the five years to 1 January 2006. There were relatively low levels of mobility (less than 30 per cent) among the second generation in families from Canada, Cyprus, Indonesia, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta and Morocco.

5.2.2 Educational attainment among parents

Table 7 contains information on the educational attainment of parents. The information has been taken from the labour force survey. The totals have been weighted to account for possible selective non-response and to derive results that are representative of the target population given that the survey covers people 15 years of age and older in the Netherlands. Despite the weights, there was still a small difference in the numbers of children 0–17 according to the labour force survey and according to the longitudinal municipal population registers. Therefore a model was constructed to adjust the weights applied to the data from the labour force survey to ensure that the number of children by region of origin and by generation was consistent with the number of children based on the longitudinal municipal population registers (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008). Because of the small numbers, the table shows separate results for only a few countries of origin.

Because children in immigrant families are more likely than other children to grow up in mother-only households, we have less information on the educational attainment of fathers; we have no information on education among the absent fathers. Among fathers living with children of the first or second immigrant generation, the majority have attained elementary or secondary education. There is variation in parental education by region of origin. Among the first generation, immigrant children from Asia and the EU-15 are living with fathers who are more well educated relative to the fathers in corresponding households in the groups originating from Africa and South America. Among the second generation, the differences in the education of fathers are similar, although there are variations across countries of origin in each of the regions. Thus, fathers of the second immigrant generation of Moroccan and Turkish origin are relatively less well educated than fathers in other immigrant groups from the same region. This outcome is related to the immigration history of these fathers as unskilled labour migrants in the 1960s and 1970s. The findings on the educational attainment of mothers are broadly similar to the findings on fathers.

5.2.3 Parental employment

Tables 8 and 9 show the employment status of parents of 0- to 17-year-olds. The tables are based mainly on registration data in the Social Statistics Database. Because the database does not contain information on weekly working hours, the employment and earnings survey has been used to calculate the hours worked by parents per week.

Table 6: Children 5–17 Who Have Moved in the Last Five Years, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

number of children

<i>Family origin</i>	<i>All children 5–17</i>	<i>Children who have moved in the last five years</i>	<i>All children 5–17</i>	<i>Children who have moved in the last five years</i>
Total children population	2,583,205	786,330	2,583,205	786,330
Children in native-born families	2,015,120	546,065	2,015,120	546,065
<i>Children in immigrant families</i>	<i>First generation</i>		<i>Second generation</i>	
Total	113,340	75,550	454,740	164,715
Europe	40,130	25,375	171,345	62,470
EU-25	20,535	12,630	71,170	23,695
EU-15 ^a	18,010	10,650	64,865	21,575
Austria	245	135	1,370	455
Belgium	2,700	1,455	11,590	3,700
Denmark	200	140	735	245
Finland	140	105	380	115
France	1,540	955	4,760	1,575
Germany	6,375	3,165	21,710	7,370
Greece	485	305	1,885	625
Ireland	165	110	1,250	355
Italy	710	475	3,965	1,320
Luxembourg	55	30	290	85
Portugal	855	675	2,125	760
Spain	820	485	4,030	1,235
Sweden	280	200	700	240
United Kingdom	3,440	2,410	10,075	3,490
EU-10	2,520	1,980	6,305	2,120
Cyprus	35	20	75	20
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	395	290	950	335
Hungary	225	170	755	275
Malta	20	15	90	25
Poland	1,845	1,485	4,435	1,465
Other	19,595	12,750	100,175	38,775
Former Soviet Union ^c	5,550	4,575	2,765	1,435
Former Yugoslavia ^d	5,610	2,835	8,950	3,545
Turkey	7,140	4,425	85,165	32,650
Other	1,295	910	3,290	1,145
Africa	18,620	12,185	110,385	36,120
Angola	1,780	1,570	975	485
Cape Verde	415	280	4,040	1,465
Democratic Republic of the Congo	885	625	1,375	630
Egypt	740	470	4,165	1,565
Ethiopia	415	270	1,950	605
Ghana	465	360	4,580	1,930
Morocco	6,935	3,545	76,530	22,665
Nigeria	320	275	1,855	785
Somalia	2,075	1,290	3,145	1,410
South Africa	1,040	715	3,085	1,030
Sudan	585	455	480	275
Other	2,965	2,325	8,205	3,285
Central America and Caribbean	10,180	7,470	21,620	8,935
Antilles and Aruba	9,520	6,990	20,400	8,450
Other	660	480	1,225	485
North America	3,100	2,210	9,160	2,970
Canada	430	300	4,095	1,175
Mexico	145	110	395	120
United States of America	2,525	1,805	4,670	1,670
South America	10,815	8,035	71,125	29,520
Brazil	1,040	790	2,320	875
Colombia	910	700	1,750	750
Dominican Republic	755	560	1,770	920
Suriname	6,850	5,015	60,805	25,285
Other	1,260	970	4,485	1,690
Asia	29,870	19,830	64,530	22,630
Afghanistan	9,120	6,120	1,950	960
China	1,315	1,020	5,925	2,745
Indonesia	1,010	680	25,065	6,500
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2,480	1,555	2,750	1,270
Iraq	6,970	4,320	3,805	1,870
Pakistan	880	495	3,730	1,420
Syrian Arab Republic	1,010	735	1,325	550
Thailand	1,195	905	1,570	555
Other	5,890	4,000	18,410	6,760
Oceania	625	445	6,580	2,070

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3.

Table 7: Children according to the Level of Education of the Parents, the Netherlands, 1 January 2006

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Total,	No father	No mother	Lower secondary or less, %		Upper secondary, %		Tertiary, %	
	Number	%	%	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Children in total population	3,570,365	14	3	20	26	36	45	29	26
Children in native-born families	2,772,970	11	2	19	23	38	47	32	28
First-generation immigrant children	125,485	30	9	17	30	29	42	20	16
Europe and North America	49,740	24	8	16	18	32	49	24	21
EU-15 ^a	22,045	26	7	10	11	31	55	29	22
Other Europe	23,705	21	9	22	27	36	45	15	17
Africa	20,220	36	15	29	51	22	23	10	9
Latin America and Caribbean	22,340	53	11	10	30	22	43	13	11
Asia and Oceania	33,185	20	6	17	34	34	42	26	15
Second-generation immigrant children	671,910	24	4	24	37	31	38	19	18
Europe and North America	262,700	17	3	25	34	36	41	21	20
EU-15 ^a	94,895	16	4	15	18	35	46	31	31
Turkey	117,295	18	3	38	57	34	33	7	4
Other Europe	37,590	16	2	13	16	43	49	27	32
Africa	172,710	28	6	31	52	27	27	11	12
Morocco	115,860	23	6	41	65	25	21	6	6
Other Africa	56,850	37	5	12	29	30	39	19	23
Central America and Caribbean	32,860	42	2	12	26	20	45	26	25
Antilles and Aruba	30,760	44	3	11	27	20	46	24	23
South America	98,880	39	5	18	34	27	43	15	16
Suriname	82,430	40	5	19	37	28	43	11	13
Asia and Oceania	104,760	16	4	20	28	34	42	28	24

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3.

The employment and earnings survey is a sample survey. The totals have therefore had to be weighted using the employment and earnings survey weights so as to derive results that are representative for the target population. For the computation of the hours worked by the parents, the records on children were weighted using weights for the parents derived from the employment and earnings survey. As in every sample survey, these results are subject to margins of error. Therefore, weighted totals based on 100 observations or fewer are not shown in Tables 8 and 9. This only applies for the breakdowns according to the working hours of parents; the other totals are based on registration data (Hagoort and Goedhuys 2008). The no father and no mother columns include those households in which mothers or fathers, respectively, are absent or for which employment information on mothers or fathers is not available.

We know from our findings on household composition that a share of the children in immigrant families grows up without fathers at home. From a third to three quarters of first- and second-generation children in the immigrant groups from a range of countries are not living with fathers. The countries include Angola, the Antilles and Aruba, Dominican Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Somalia and Suriname. The shares of children not living with mothers are substantially smaller among all groups except first-generation immigrant children from Angola, of whom 43 per cent are not living with mothers (see elsewhere above). More generally, we find the largest shares of children not living with mothers among first-generation children from African countries (10 to 18 percent), but also among first-generation children from Europe and North America. The calculations on employment status among fathers and mothers are based only on the fathers and mothers on whom we have information.

Table 8: Employment Status of Fathers, the Netherlands, 31 December 2005

a. First-generation immigrant children

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Without work, total	Working, employee			Self-employed, total	No father
		Total	Works <36 hours, %	Works >36 hours, %		
Total children population	282,875	2,492,640	30	69	341,475	453,375
Children in native-born families	129,005	2,087,115	30	70	291,265	265,585
First-generation immigrant children	34,230	49,210	28	71	4,830	37,215
Europe	10,995	21,600	24	75	2,290	10,865
EU-25	3,925	13,680	24	75	1,415	6,055
EU-15 ^a	3,390	12,160	25	74	1,185	5,310
Austria	35	175	—	—	20	75
Belgium	470	2,060	17	82	360	785
Denmark	35	145	—	—	10	70
Finland	25	105	—	—	10	35
France	335	1,000	11	89	65	540
Germany	1,380	4,170	29	70	370	1,535
Greece	80	230	—	—	40	215
Ireland	25	130	—	—	5	55
Italy	135	425	13	87	50	265
Luxembourg	10	35	—	—	0	20
Portugal	130	520	24	75	20	305
Spain	190	500	66	34	50	340
Sweden	45	205	33	67	15	95
United Kingdom	495	2,470	12	87	165	975
EU-10	535	1,520	15	81	230	745
Cyprus	10	25	—	—	5	5
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	110	220	10	89	35	105
Hungary	45	160	—	—	10	65
Malta	0	10	—	—	5	5
Poland	370	1,105	16	78	175	565
Other	7,070	7,920	25	75	875	4,810
Former Soviet Union ^c	2,100	1,690	24	75	220	1,750
Former Yugoslavia ^d	1,925	2,480	29	71	135	1,175
Turkey	2,775	2,915	22	78	440	1,545
Other	270	835	23	77	80	340
Africa	7,150	5,740	32	67	515	6,820
Angola	305	205	—	—	5	1,295
Cape Verde	55	215	—	—	5	150
Democratic Republic of the Congo	245	175	—	—	5	485
Egypt	390	355	41	59	205	130
Ethiopia	105	145	—	—	15	245
Ghana	50	235	39	61	10	240
Morocco	4,085	2,215	31	69	145	1,030
Nigeria	75	230	19	81	5	100
Somalia	610	130	—	—	5	1,345
South Africa	125	750	10	90	50	210
Sudan	300	85	—	—	5	215
Other	800	1,000	38	62	60	1,380
Central America and Caribbean	865	2,820	33	66	125	6,985
Antilles and Aruba	785	2,375	33	66	80	6,785
Other	85	445	31	66	45	205
North America	640	2,245	28	72	130	970
Canada	80	285	32	68	20	135
Mexico	25	130	—	—	10	40
United States of America	540	1,835	29	71	100	795
South America	1,470	5,020	32	67	325	4,725
Brazil	120	700	19	81	80	280
Colombia	165	475	28	71	55	295
Dominican Republic	100	305	16	84	20	380
Suriname	845	2,785	42	58	115	3,380
Other	235	755	27	73	55	390
Asia	13,020	11,295	30	69	1,400	6,690
Afghanistan	5,030	2,210	38	61	305	1,630
China	240	1,335	31	68	215	385
Indonesia	210	660	36	64	50	250
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	935	645	34	63	105	840
Iraq	3,895	1,250	31	67	215	1,670
Pakistan	385	350	42	57	90	220
Syrian Arab Republic	615	150	—	—	20	245
Thailand	215	810	29	71	100	230
Other	1,490	3,885	23	77	300	1,215
Oceania	90	490	16	84	50	160

b. Second-generation children in immigrant families

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Without work, total	Working, employee		Self-employed, total	No father	
		Total	Works <36 hours, %			Works >36 hours, %
Children in total population	282,875	2,492,640	30	69	341,475	453,375
Children in native-born families	129,005	2,087,115	30	70	291,265	265,585
Second generation immigrant children	119,640	356,315	32	67	45,380	150,580
Europe	41,230	147,710	30	69	19,975	40,865
EU-25	9,650	70,480	31	69	9,265	15,900
EU-15 ^a	8,485	63,840	31	69	8,240	14,330
Austria	160	1,345	45	55	185	285
Belgium	1,330	11,360	29	71	1,510	2,325
Denmark	120	755	39	61	110	145
Finland	65	440	22	78	60	60
France	770	4,870	29	71	605	980
Germany	2,705	21,890	31	69	2,690	4,580
Greece	270	1,500	32	68	355	475
Ireland	170	1,215	23	77	135	275
Italy	675	3,365	33	67	615	970
Luxembourg	40	260	11	89	70	40
Portugal	255	2,030	28	71	155	750
Spain	490	4,010	40	59	375	895
Sweden	110	835	20	79	115	135
United Kingdom	1,330	9,970	30	70	1,255	2,410
EU-10	1,165	6,640	29	71	1,025	1,570
Cyprus	15	50	—	—	5	30
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	235	1,115	49	51	165	225
Hungary	140	885	20	79	135	150
Malta	5	85	—	—	10	10
Poland	770	4,505	24	76	710	1,155
Other	31,580	77,230	30	69	10,710	24,965
Former Soviet Union ^c	1,630	3,150	30	70	525	1,305
Former Yugoslavia ^d	3,055	8,290	31	69	810	2,650
Turkey	26,250	61,975	30	69	8,840	20,230
Other	640	3,815	26	74	540	780
Africa	48,900	78,400	33	66	7,780	37,635
Angola	495	665	43	57	50	1,040
Cape Verde	420	2,320	25	75	85	2,405
Democratic Republic of the Congo	600	865	43	56	70	1,015
Egypt	1,405	2,225	31	68	1,465	1,370
Ethiopia	400	1,120	37	63	90	1,360
Ghana	455	2,160	26	74	95	4,075
Morocco	39,930	55,315	33	66	4,545	16,070
Nigeria	425	1,630	29	70	175	945
Somalia	1,380	1,110	43	57	55	3,600
South Africa	270	3,375	24	76	425	570
Sudan	615	480	54	44	30	455
Other	2,505	7,130	37	61	700	4,735
Central America and Caribbean	2,320	14,550	32	68	1,115	14,880
Antilles and Aruba	2,070	13,345	32	68	980	14,370
Other	250	1,205	30	70	135	510
North America	985	8,920	36	64	1,205	1,815
Canada	320	3,800	38	62	490	575
Mexico	55	610	17	83	50	75
United States of America	610	4,510	37	62	665	1,170
South America	8,265	47,725	35	65	4,390	38,495
Brazil	280	2,405	31	69	385	615
Colombia	325	1,625	31	69	185	885
Dominican Republic	335	920	17	83	85	1,550
Suriname	6,730	38,535	36	64	3,310	33,855
Other	590	4,240	30	70	425	1,595
Asia	17,445	53,225	35	64	10,065	15,715
Afghanistan	2,300	1,980	49	50	315	605
China	1,105	3,485	48	50	2,870	1,825
Indonesia	2,855	20,200	38	61	1,955	4,790
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	880	2,260	30	70	380	1,060
Iraq	3,710	2,560	41	59	490	1,455
Pakistan	1,515	2,260	39	59	720	925
Syrian Arab Republic	895	950	36	64	235	310
Thailand	340	1,825	20	79	270	360
Other	3,850	17,705	27	72	2,835	4,375
Oceania	495	5,785	29	71	850	1,175

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3. — = insignificant or data are not available.

Table 8 shows data on the participation in the labour force among fathers. The fathers of first- and second-generation children in immigrant families are without work more often than the fathers of children in native-born Dutch families (39, 23 and 5 per cent, respectively). There are differences across countries of origin. In at least a third of the cases, the fathers of first-generation immigrant children from several European countries that are not in the EU (such as Turkey), as well as from several African and Asian countries (including, among others, Afghanistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Iraq, Morocco, Somalia, the Sudan and the Syrian Arab Republic) are without work. More than two thirds of the fathers of the first-generation children in some of the immigrant groups originating from the African and Asian countries mentioned above are without work. Among the fathers of second-generation children, the shares without work are generally smaller than the corresponding shares among fathers of children in the first generation. However, the results are similar among fathers of children in both the first and second generations in the country groups also showing the largest shares of fathers without work.

Self-employment is common among fathers in the immigrant groups from China (mainly fathers of second-generation children), Egypt (first- and second-generation children), Greece and Italy. Among second-generation children in the Egyptian group, 29 per cent are living with fathers who are self-employed; the largest such share is 38 per cent among second-generation children in the China group. The smallest shares of self-employment, around 1 per cent, occur among the fathers of first-generation immigrant children from African countries, including many countries of origin of recent asylum seekers. Self-employment is more common among the fathers of second-generation children than among the fathers of first-generation children (8 and 5 per cent, respectively).

Table 8 also provides insight on the number of hours worked by fathers. One should be aware that, in the Netherlands, the officially fixed work week of all civil servants is a maximum of 36 hours. This means that government workers are in the lower range of workers in terms of hours worked per week. Among fathers working as paid employees, two in three have full-time jobs, meaning that they work at least 37 hours a week. This is the case among the fathers of native-born children and first- and second-generation children. However, the differences across immigrant groups are substantial. The fathers of first-generation children from Egypt, Pakistan, Spain and Suriname and the fathers of second-generation children in the immigrant groups from Afghanistan, Angola, Austria, China, former Czechoslovakia, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, Somalia, Spain and the Sudan are more likely to work less than 36 hours a week.

Table 9 reports on the participation in the labour force among mothers, which, overall, is less than the labour force participation among fathers. For first- and second-generation children and native-born children, we find, respectively, that two thirds, half and one quarter of the mothers are not employed. Levels of participation similar to the level among mothers of native-born Dutch children are found among mothers in the groups from Canada, Cape Verde, South Africa and north-western European countries. More than two thirds of the mothers of first- and second-generation children from the majority of African countries, as well as Afghanistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan and the Syrian Arab Republic are without paid work.

Table 9: Employment Status of Mothers, the Netherlands, 31 December 2005

a. First-generation immigrant children

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Without work, total	Working, employee		Self-employed, total	No mother	
		Total	Works ≤36 hours, %			Works >36 hours, %
Total children population	1,144,470	2,176,465	92	8	173,650	75,780
Children in native-born families	734,390	1,842,705	93	7	149,445	46,430
First-generation immigrant children	73,955	37,010	77	22	2,205	12,315
Europe	24,515	15,845	74	25	1,095	4,295
EU-25	11,570	10,270	77	21	805	2,425
EU-15 ^a	9,980	9,250	79	20	730	2,085
Austria	130	140	—	—	10	20
Belgium	1,425	1,815	66	28	195	240
Denmark	125	85	—	—	5	40
Finland	105	45	—	—	5	15
France	955	735	78	21	75	175
Germany	3,550	3,115	87	12	215	575
Greece	175	305	83	16	30	50
Ireland	115	70	—	—	5	25
Italy	405	350	86	13	30	90
Luxembourg	30	30	—	—	5	0
Portugal	270	555	65	34	10	140
Spain	475	450	82	17	35	120
Sweden	165	120	—	—	15	60
United Kingdom	2,045	1,435	80	20	100	525
EU-10	1,595	1,020	62	31	75	340
Cyprus	20	20	—	—	0	5
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	260	145	—	—	10	45
Hungary	125	105	—	—	10	45
Malta	10	10	—	—	0	0
Poland	1,175	740	59	41	50	245
Other	12,940	5,580	70	30	290	1,870
Former Soviet Union ^c	3,760	1,225	83	16	95	680
Former Yugoslavia ^d	3,115	2,150	81	19	50	400
Turkey	5,290	1,610	47	51	105	670
Other	775	590	72	28	40	120
Africa	14,015	3,315	83	16	140	2,750
Angola	850	170	—	—	0	785
Cape Verde	90	295	87	13	0	35
Democratic Republic of the Congo	550	155	—	—	0	210
Egypt	890	80	—	—	45	60
Ethiopia	295	115	—	—	10	85
Ghana	195	200	75	21	0	135
Morocco	6,380	700	82	18	20	375
Nigeria	245	100	—	—	5	55
Somalia	1,705	90	—	—	0	295
South Africa	520	500	83	16	30	85
Sudan	500	55	—	—	0	50
Other	1,790	845	81	18	25	575
Central America and Caribbean	5,350	4,445	82	17	80	925
Antilles and Aruba	4,990	4,120	82	18	60	855
Other	360	325	85	15	20	70
North America	2,185	1,220	75	25	120	465
Canada	240	190	79	21	15	80
Mexico	95	75	—	—	5	20
United States of America	1,850	955	73	26	100	360
South America	4,205	5,885	75	25	135	1,320
Brazil	565	480	91	9	25	110
Colombia	535	365	93	7	25	70
Dominican Republic	370	270	89	11	20	145
Suriname	2,015	4,230	71	28	35	850
Other	720	545	78	22	25	145
Asia	23,280	6,005	82	17	620	2,495
Afghanistan	7,695	845	88	10	40	600
China	760	950	90	10	225	240
Indonesia	570	460	81	19	30	110
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	1,660	585	82	16	55	225
Iraq	5,840	705	91	8	45	435
Pakistan	800	100	—	—	20	135
Syrian Arab Republic	830	65	—	—	5	140
Thailand	670	535	75	25	45	110
Other	4,460	1,770	71	28	155	505
Oceania	410	295	82	18	15	70

b. Second-generation children in immigrant families

number and per cent of children

Family origin	Without work, total	Working, employee		Self-employed, total	No mother	
		Total	Works <36 hours, %			Works >36 hours, %
Total children population	1,144,470	2,176,465	92	8	173,650	75,780
Children in native-born families	734,390	1,842,705	93	7	149,445	46,430
Second generation immigrant children	336,125	296,750	85	14	22,000	17,035
Europe	120,905	114,010	85	14	8,720	6,145
EU-25	33,640	63,300	86	13	5,495	2,860
EU-15 ^a	29,235	58,020	87	12	5,045	2,590
Austria	640	1,190	92	8	105	40
Belgium	4,825	10,290	91	9	940	475
Denmark	350	685	92	8	70	20
Finland	180	380	83	17	45	15
France	2,185	4,430	86	14	425	185
Germany	10,020	19,415	87	11	1,505	925
Greece	745	1,570	90	10	225	60
Ireland	595	1,095	87	12	70	40
Italy	1,800	3,280	83	17	400	150
Luxembourg	105	260	96	4	25	10
Portugal	910	2,075	77	23	105	100
Spain	1,865	3,525	87	13	230	150
Sweden	345	740	64	36	90	25
United Kingdom	4,675	9,080	87	13	820	390
EU-10	4,405	5,275	82	17	445	275
Cyprus	30	65	—	—	5	5
Former Czechoslovakia ^b	725	880	74	26	80	55
Hungary	535	685	91	9	55	40
Malta	40	65	—	—	0	5
Poland	3,080	3,585	82	17	305	170
Other	87,265	50,710	83	16	3,225	3,285
Former Soviet Union ^c	4,070	2,110	82	18	225	200
Former Yugoslavia ^d	7,275	6,895	85	15	290	340
Turkey	73,880	38,455	83	16	2,380	2,580
Other	2,040	3,250	81	18	330	165
Africa	115,465	51,645	87	13	2,395	3,205
Angola	1,555	580	80	17	25	90
Cape Verde	1,350	3,660	80	19	40	180
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1,660	740	96	4	40	110
Egypt	3,915	1,960	73	27	425	160
Ethiopia	1,815	1,040	91	6	40	75
Ghana	3,175	3,105	78	22	135	365
Morocco	85,370	28,230	90	9	905	1,355
Nigeria	1,170	1,710	87	12	140	155
Somalia	5,495	520	96	4	15	115
South Africa	1,355	2,960	92	8	220	105
Sudan	1,260	275	92	7	0	40
Other	7,345	6,870	82	17	410	450
Central America and Caribbean	12,935	18,095	83	16	725	1,105
Antilles and Aruba	12,165	16,900	83	16	650	1,045
Other	770	1,195	79	16	75	60
North America	4,035	7,790	88	12	825	275
Canada	1,475	3,320	91	9	290	105
Mexico	315	435	76	24	20	15
United States of America	2,245	4,035	87	12	520	155
South America	33,900	59,040	83	16	2,305	3,635
Brazil	1,380	2,030	91	7	165	115
Colombia	1,410	1,415	90	10	70	125
Dominican Republic	1,735	920	88	11	40	190
Suriname	26,845	50,875	82	17	1,725	2,985
Other	2,530	3,795	89	11	310	210
Asia	46,600	40,755	86	14	6,635	2,460
Afghanistan	4,440	635	86	10	70	55
China	3,955	2,405	75	24	2,645	275
Indonesia	8,820	18,785	89	11	1,260	935
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2,280	1,985	87	12	200	115
Iraq	6,750	1,225	90	10	120	125
Pakistan	4,070	975	90	10	255	125
Syrian Arab Republic	1,875	405	95	5	85	25
Thailand	1,375	1,140	75	21	125	160
Other	13,035	13,205	82	17	1,875	645
Oceania	2,285	5,420	83	16	395	215

Source: Statistics Netherlands.

Note: For the footnotes for the table, see Table 3. — = insignificant or data are not available.

We find that mothers are much less likely than fathers to be self-employed. On average, 5 per cent of native-born children and 2 and 3 per cent of first- and second-generation children, respectively, have mothers who are self-employed. Only the mothers of second-generation children in the groups from the EU-15 show the same levels of self-employment as the mothers of native-born children. An exception is second-generation children in the group from China; among these children, 30 per cent live with mothers who are self-employed.

Mothers of all origins working as employees generally work 36 hours a week or less. Only a small share (7 per cent) of the mothers of native-born children work more than 36 hours. This reflects the fact that the majority of the mothers of young native-born children have part-time jobs. Overall, we find that the mothers of first-generation immigrant children work longer hours than the mothers of second-generation children; 22 and 14 per cent, respectively, work more than 36 hours a week.

5.2.4 Family socioeconomic status

Household income and poverty

As has been found in earlier studies, many households of non-western immigrant origin are in a deprived social position and are at the bottom of the income distribution (for example, see Vrooman and Hoff 2004). The standardized income of native-born households is more or less evenly distributed over five income groups ranking from low income to high income. Households of non-western origin are, meanwhile, significantly overrepresented in the lowest income group. This income group among households of non-western origin is roughly twice as large (43 per cent) as the corresponding group among the total population. Non-western immigrant households account for 8 per cent of the highest income quintile.

Immigrant households of Moroccan origin are the least well off. This is shown in the standardized household incomes by immigrant origin for 2000 (Table 10). The data are taken from the 2000 round of the regional income survey (for details, see Ament and Kessels 2008). On an annualized basis, the average standardized income of non-western households is €4,000 less than that of native-born households (Vrooman and Hoff 2004). The income position of the Turkish immigrant group is rather similar to that of the Moroccan group. Households in the group from the Antilles and Aruba are more heterogeneous because of compositional differences within this group. First-generation immigrants with an Antillean or Aruban origin who have resided longer in the Netherlands, as well as the second generation in this group, are generally more highly educated, unemployed less often and employed in higher level positions in the labour market. They therefore enjoy a generally more favourable socioeconomic position. On the other hand, immigrants from the Antilles and Aruba who have moved to the Netherlands more recently are mainly less well educated, often speak no Dutch, occupy a weak labour market position and depend more often on welfare benefits, particularly social assistance. Among the four major non-western immigrant groups, the group from Suriname is the most well off in relative terms even though 35 per cent of the households in this group are in the bottom income quintile. However, this 35 per cent share is still considerably larger than the corresponding share among the native-born Dutch population (Vrooman and Hoff 2004).

Table 10: Average Standardized Annual Household Income, the Netherlands, 2000

€1,000s

<i>Origin</i>	<i>€(EURO)</i>
Total population	18,200
Native-born population	18,500
Non-western immigrants	14,100
Turkey	13,900
Morocco	12,900
Suriname	15,500
Antilles and Aruba	14,600
Other non-western	13,600

Sources: Data of Statistics Netherlands; Vrooman and Hoff (2004).

The main factor underlying the differences in household income across the various groups of origin in the population is labour market position. Unemployment is relatively high among non-western immigrant groups, particularly the Moroccan group. People in these groups who are employed are found mainly at the bottom of the occupational ladder or work only a limited number of hours per week. Among those with a paid job, around 15 per cent earn wages that are beneath the low-income threshold described hereafter and are therefore among the working poor (Vrooman and Hoff 2004).

According to one definition, poverty is the condition of having insufficient means to ensure a subsistence minimum level of consumption (Vrooman et al. 2007). The main accepted indicator of poverty is based on the level of (household) income or expenditure. This indicator is known as the low-income threshold. Data on household income and expenditure are made comparable across households by accounting for household size and composition. A related indicator that is often used is the minimum income needed to meet basic needs such as food, clothing and shelter. This might be called the basic subsistence minimum, the poverty minimum, or the poverty line. Another indicator also covers the leisure, cultural and social activities that may be considered essential to well-being. This might be called the modest, but adequate income level.⁵ Data from the recent *Poverty Monitor (Armoedemonitor)* of Statistics Netherlands and the Social and Cultural Planning Office indicate that, of the 6.6 million households in the Netherlands, the incomes of about 10 per cent are below the low-income threshold (Vrooman et al. 2007). Taking account of household composition, this means that around 1.4 million individuals, or 8.9 per cent of the population are affected. Almost one in three households with a low income has been living below the poverty line for four years or more. In 2005, 5.4 per cent of all children were living in households with incomes below the basic subsistence criterion or poverty minimum. If the essential level of well-being is used, the share rises to 9.1 per cent (Vrooman et al. 2007).

Table 11 shows the share of households with low income, long-term low income and income below or around the statutory minimum wage or income as of 2000. A third of the

⁵ The low-income threshold is derived from the social assistance benefit for individuals in 1979. This threshold is adjusted for multiple-person households and, in later years, is also indexed in line with price inflation. Recently, a household budget-related threshold – the basic needs minimum and the modest, but adequate income variant – has also been used. It is determined on the basis of norms formulated by the National Institute for Budgetary Information (Vrooman et al. 2007).

households of non-western immigrant origin had incomes below the low-income threshold and might therefore be considered as living in poverty. Among the native born, the share was 11 per cent. Poverty becomes particularly damaging in day-to-day life if it persists. The share of households that had been living on low incomes for at least four years in 2000 was larger among non-western immigrant groups (14 per cent) than among the native born (5 per cent). Similarly striking are the differences with respect to the income below or around the statutory minimum wage or income: 24 per cent among households of non-western immigrant origin compared with 8 per cent among the native born. Considering all three indicators, the position of households in the Moroccan group is the least favourable, followed by households in the other non-western immigrant groups (Vrooman and Hoff 2004).

Table 11: Low-Income Households by Origin, the Netherlands, 2000

per cent

<i>Household origin</i>	<i>Low income</i>	<i>Long-term low income^a</i>	<i>Income at or below the poverty minimum^b</i>
Total population	13	6	9
Native-born population	11	5	8
Non-western immigrants	33	14	24
Turkey	30	14	21
Morocco	38	17	25
Suriname	27	13	21
Antilles and Aruba	32	10	24
Other non-western	40	14	29

Source: Vrooman and Hoff (2004).

a. Indicates households on low income for at least four years.

b. Indicates households living at or below the statutory minimum wage or income.

An indicator that is used internationally is the risk of poverty indicator of the EU; the risk threshold is 60 per cent of the median income in a specific country. According to this EU definition, 11 per cent of the households in the Netherlands were living in poverty in 2005 compared with 16 per cent EU-wide (Vrooman et al. 2007). The share was much larger among households of non-western origin: 28 per cent had incomes below the EU risk of poverty threshold (StatLine Database). Among the four main immigrant groups, the group from Suriname appeared to be in a somewhat better position. About 19 per cent of the households in this group were living in poverty. The shares were between 28 and 30 per cent among the households in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco and Turkey. Among households in other non-western immigrant groups, around a third were reported to be at risk of poverty. The shares were about 4 per cent greater among the first generation compared with the second generation among non-western households (28 and 24 per cent, respectively). The risk of living in poverty for at least four years was greatest among households in the Moroccan group, 13 per cent compared with 6 to 11 per cent among the other main immigrant groups.

Location and housing

Table 12 provides an overview of the distribution of the main immigrant groups across the Netherlands. The table shows that the majority live in the western part of the country. The immigrant group from Suriname is the most highly concentrated in the west, and the Turkish group the least. Among the latter group, a substantial share are living in the east, where many Turkish immigrants came to work in the industries in that part of the country. Between a third

and half of the people in these immigrant groups are living in the four largest cities – Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht (all part of the Randstad, which is in the western part of the country and is one of the largest conurbations in Europe) – compared with only 13 per cent of the total population of the Netherlands.

Table 12: Distribution of Immigrants, the Netherlands, 2004

per cent

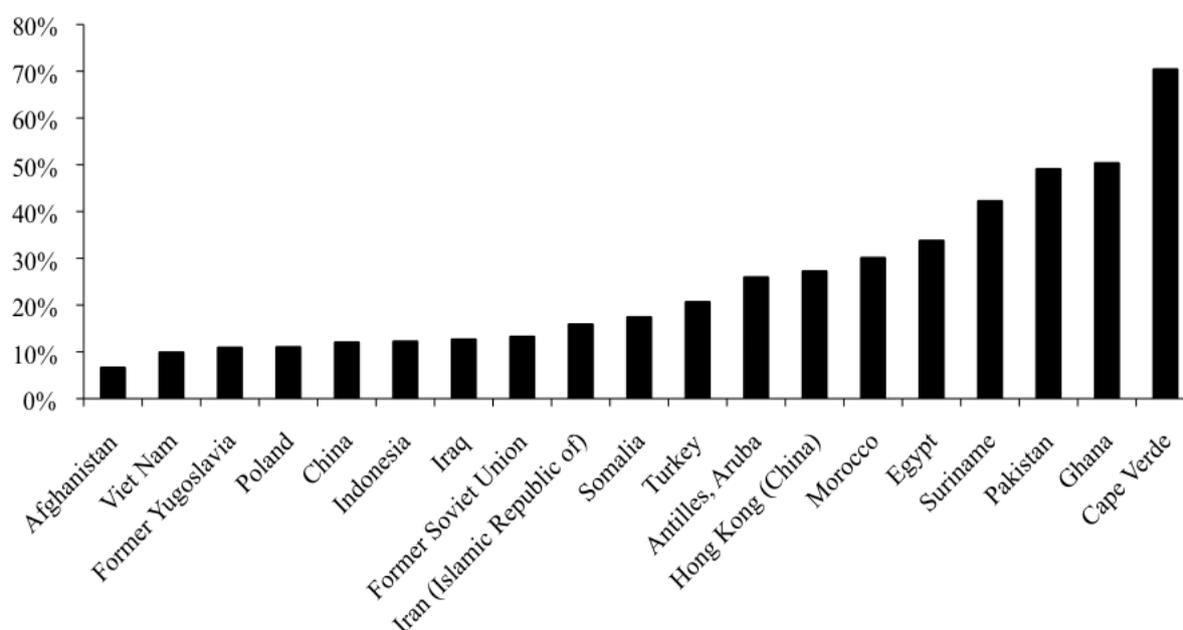
<i>Origin</i>	<i>North</i>	<i>East</i>	<i>South</i>	<i>West</i>	<i>Four main cities^a</i>
Total population	10.4	21.1	21.8	46.6	12.8
Non-western immigrants					
Turkey	2.2	21.3	16.4	60.1	35.5
Morocco	1.6	9.7	16.6	72.1	47.3
Suriname	3.3	11.3	6.6	78.8	53.8
Antilles and Aruba	5.9	13.9	14.1	66.1	34.2
Other non-western	7.2	16.9	14.6	61.2	30.7

Sources: Statistics Netherlands; Wittebrood et al. (2005).

a. Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht.

Figure 4 presents the concentration index for a range of immigrant groups. The index shows the share of each immigrant group that would have to resettle to reach a relative population distribution across the Netherlands that would be similar to the distribution of the native-born population. It is apparent that some groups are rather equally distributed over the country. This applies to the groups from Afghanistan, Viet Nam and the former Yugoslavia. Other immigrant groups are more highly concentrated. This is the case of the immigrant groups from Cape Verde, Ghana, Pakistan and Suriname.

Figure 4: Concentration Index by Immigrant Origin, the Netherlands, 2000



Sources: Author calculations; Statistics Netherlands; De Valk et al. (2001).

Within the major cities, we find that immigrant groups are concentrated in individual neighbourhoods. Many native-born Dutch, particularly families with children, have been leaving the large cities, thereby increasing the concentration among immigrant families. The middle class among immigrant groups has also been moving outside the large cities (Wittebrood et al. 2005). A recent survey undertaken as part of the Integration of the European Second Generation project found that, of the second generation among 18- to 35-year-olds of Moroccan and Turkish origin who were still living with their families, 60 per cent were residing in neighbourhoods in which at least 30 per cent of the populations were of Moroccan or Turkish origin (Crul and Heering 2008). Over half of the second generation in these same groups who were living on their own were also living in such neighbourhoods. People in other immigrant groups, for example the group from Somalia, also tend to live in neighbourhoods with high concentrations of people from the same group. In contrast, two thirds of the immigrant groups from Afghanistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran are living in neighbourhoods in which native-born Dutch predominate (Van den Tillaart et al. 2000). It is not clear from the research how these differences in ethnic composition in neighbourhoods may affect the children of immigrants, particularly those of refugee origin, in terms of, for example, inclusion, peer networks and discrimination.

Immigrant families are concentrated in larger cities and in neighbourhoods because many of them depend on the cheaper housing available in these cities and neighbourhoods (Bolt and Van Kempen 2002). Likewise, according to the 2002 housing demand survey (Woningbehoefte Onderzoek) and the 2006 housing research survey (Woononderzoek Nederland), relatively fewer immigrant families are homeowners (see VROM 2002, 2009). Among the native-born Dutch, 60 per cent own the home in which they live. The corresponding shares among the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey are 21, 17, 32 and 27 per cent, respectively. However, except for the group from the Antilles and Aruba, homeownership increased among these groups between 2002 and 2006 (Kullberg 2007). A study among immigrant groups that arrived mainly as refugees – the groups from Afghanistan, Ethiopia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Somalia and Viet Nam – has found that the majority of these people rent their homes (Van den Tillaart et al. 2000).

According to the recent survey mentioned above among second-generation 18- to 35-year-olds of Moroccan and Turkish origin, 14 per cent of the Moroccan group and 25 per cent of the Turkish group who were no longer living with their parents were homeowners. This compares with 39 per cent of the native-born Dutch in the same age group (Crul and Heering 2008). However, the share of homeowners is considerably higher among the second generation relative to the first generation (Van Praag and Schoorl 2008).

The average home size tends to be smaller among immigrant groups than among the native born. In 2002, 6, 27, 18 and 6 per cent of households in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey, respectively, contained fewer than one room per person compared with only 2 per cent among native-born households (Wittebrood et al. 2005). Although the situation among the groups from Morocco and Turkey had improved slightly by 2006 according to the housing research survey, the opposite trend was found among the group from the Antilles and Aruba. The mean home size in non-immigrant neighbourhoods was around 140 square metres (1,500 square feet); in immigrant

neighbourhoods, it was 96 square metres (1,030 square feet), and, in mixed neighbourhoods, it was 124 square metres (1,335 square feet). However, immigrant households in any of these types of neighbourhoods had 20 to 30 square metres (215–320 square feet) less space per person compared to non-immigrant households (Kullberg 2007).

5.2.5 The language spoken at home

The official language of the Netherlands is Dutch, but many children in immigrant families grow up speaking a different language in the home (Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra 2005, Meijnen 2003a). Parents in immigrant families often speak with their children in the language of the country of origin of the family either because of their limited knowledge of Dutch or because of the importance they attach to transmitting their native language (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005a, Emmelot et al. 2001). Zorlu and Traag (2005) show that the extent to which first-generation immigrants speak Dutch with their parents differs among immigrant groups (also see Van Tubergen and Kalmijn 2002) (Table 13). Among immigrant groups, the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname tend the most often to speak Dutch to their children, at 65 and 91 per cent, respectively. However, Dutch also happens to be an official language in both places. The parents in immigrant families from Afghanistan and Iraq speak Dutch to their children the least often; respectively, 17 and 18 per cent indicate they always speak Dutch with their children, while 44 and 42 per cent, respectively, state they never speak Dutch with their children. The share of parents in immigrant families from Morocco and Turkey who speak Dutch with their children is between these two extremes; 29 and 20 per cent, respectively, always speak Dutch with their children, while 25 and 30 per cent never do so. According to Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra (2005), the share of parents who often or always speak Dutch with their children rises among the second generation in all immigrant groups.⁶ Among the second generation, parents in the Antilles and Aruba group and parents in the Suriname group speak Dutch with their children the most, respectively, at 90 and 96 per cent. The shares for the second generation among the immigrant groups from Morocco and Turkey are 57 and 40 per cent, respectively, which is about double the shares among the first generation. It is clear, however, that, even among the third generation in these two groups, many children grow up without speaking Dutch in the home.

Many children in immigrant families do not encounter spoken Dutch in their neighbourhoods, at school, or in the media (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005a, Van Tubergen and Kalmijn 2002, d'Haenens et al. 2004). Quantitative and qualitative research shows that, as a result, many of these children enter elementary education with a deficiency in Dutch (Boogaard et al. 1990, Turkenburg and Gijsberts 2007, Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra 2005). In addition, many of these children enter elementary education with fewer linguistic skills relative to the native-born Dutch population. Studies have linked this outcome to the more limited verbal interaction between these children and their parents (Pels 1991, De Haan 1994, De Ruyter et al. 2006). They suggest that parents in immigrant families, for example, families of Moroccan or Turkish origin, are less likely than native-born Dutch families to discuss with their children incidents of misbehaviour by the children. The studies find that, among these immigrant families, it is also less common for parents to read with their children. They

⁶ Data on second-generation immigrant parents from Afghanistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Iraq, Somalia and former Yugoslavia are not available.

propose that these factors may mean that the children in these groups are less frequently exposed to the benefits of communication.

Table 13: Use of Dutch in Immigrant Households, the Netherlands, 2003

per cent

<i>Family origin</i>	<i>First generation</i>			<i>1.5 and second generations</i>
	<i>Always or often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Always or often</i>
Turkey	20	50	30	40
Morocco	29	47	25	57
Suriname	91	7	—	96
Antilles and Aruba	65	28	7	90
Former Yugoslavia	31	39	31	—
Iraq	18	39	42	—
Afghanistan	17	39	44	—
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	23	39	38	—
Somalia	22	42	36	—

Sources: Zorlu and Traag (2005); Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra (2005).

Note: 1.5 generation = those who have immigrated as children. — = data not available or, in the case of Suriname, insignificant.

Cross-sectional data show that the proficiency in Dutch language skills among children in immigrant families lags behind that of their native-born peers in elementary education in both *groep 2* (or grade 2, age 4–5) and *groep 8* (or grade 8, age 11–12), indicating that many of these children do not catch up during the course of elementary school (Boogaard et al. 1990, Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005a). Gijsberts and Dagevos (2005b) show that the language performance of girls is generally better than that of boys and that children in refugee families show greater proficiency in Dutch than children in other immigrant categories.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the Government supported education among immigrant families in the native languages of former guest workers (Turkenburg 2003a). This approach was adopted to allow these children to participate fully in the Dutch education system, while favouring the culture of their immigrant families because they were expected to return eventually to their countries of origin (Meijnen et al. 2001, Turkenburg 2003b, Emmelot et al. 2000). Schools therefore received financial support to improve linguistic and educational outcomes among these children. The level of support depended on the socioeconomic status of the immigrant families.⁷ This meant that some immigrant groups – such as the group from China – were excluded from the financing (Turkenburg 2001, 2002, 2003a).

Public opinion was generally in favour of this approach for quite some time. However, there has recently been a shift to the opposite opinion that children in immigrant families should be taught exclusively in Dutch. Proficiency in Dutch has come to be considered a requirement for inclusion in Dutch society and essential for both immigrant children and their parents (Eerste Kamer der Staten-Generaal 2004).

⁷ A number was assigned to each pupil to indicate socioeconomic status for purposes of determining the financing a school would receive, as follows: 1 = pupils in native-born Dutch families, 1.25 = pupils in non-immigrant families with low socioeconomic status and 1.9 = pupils in immigrant families with low socioeconomic status (Statistics Netherlands 2003).

The research literature is inconclusive on the best teaching and learning methods for Dutch. Most of the evaluative research suffers from methodological or theoretical limitations (for a review, see Emmelot et al. 2000). Based on longitudinal data on pupils and interviews with teachers, Emmelot et al. (2001) find no significant correlation between language skills and the amount of time invested in Dutch language lessons or in the use of teaching tools (also see Emmelot and Van Schooten 2003, Van Helvert and Vallen 2002). Such findings lead some to believe that language should be taught at younger ages, preferably through preschool programmes (Emmelot and Van Schooten 2006, Reezigt 2003). It has also been suggested that the best way to learn Dutch is to speak Dutch exclusively (Turkenburg 2001, 2003b; Turkenburg and Gijsberts 2007). Some researchers counter that speaking the mother tongue, in addition to Dutch, is desirable because proficiency in the mother tongue is important for positive identity formation, for the general well-being of the child and to enable the parents to help their children in schooling and cognitive development (Verkuyten 2006a, Pels 1991, Boogaard et al. 1990). Preservation of the mother tongue is important for immigrant parents and has economic and cultural value, especially in a globalized world (Extra et al. 2002).⁸ It has even been proposed that Dutch should be taught in schools in native languages with the help of bilingual teachers (on some of these programmes, see Djohani et al. 1994; see also Teunissen 1997; for a detailed study, see De Haan 1994).

Over the last couple of years, the link between language and identity has been emphasized. Speaking the mother tongue has been closely tied to the identity people feel towards the immigrant group. Some have come to believe that this impedes social inclusion, whereas mastering Dutch would strengthen the Dutch identity of immigrants (Van Helvert and Vallen 2002, WRR 2007). The recognition of the link between language and identity has tended to heat up the debate over the maintenance of language of origin among immigrant groups and over whether instruction should be offered in these languages (Meijen 2003, Emmelot and Van Schooten 2003).

5.2.6 Intergenerational relationships and childraising

There is an extensive literature focusing on the parent-child relationship and childraising among immigrant and native-born families in the Netherlands. Quantitative studies on parents and children and qualitative interviews among mothers in immigrant families demonstrate the usefulness of examining childraising among these families (Herweijer and Vogels 2004). Pels (2000) distinguishes among childraising goals, namely: (1) autonomy, which emphasizes individual independence; (2) conformism, which stresses the community and the family, kinship and the group; (3) social behaviour, which focuses on personal interactions within broader contexts, and (4) performance, which usually concentrates on educational and occupational outcomes (see also Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra 2005). The childraising goals of parents in immigrant families differ somewhat from those of native-born parents. This has been attributed to the differences in backgrounds and upbringing among parents, as well as the coping mechanisms associated with the trauma of immigration, for example, among refugees (Geense and Pels 1998, Van Keulen 1999). Table 14 shows the childraising goals and their relative importance among mothers in immigrant families in the Chinese, Creole-

⁸ See Geense and Pels (1998) on parents in the group from China, Van der Leij et al. (1991) on parents in the Turkish group and Pels (1991) on parents in the Moroccan group. Extra et al. (2002) provide an extensive overview on the degree to which languages are still used in immigrant households.

Surinamese, Moroccan and Turkish groups and in native-born families based on qualitative interviews by Pels (2000) and colleagues during the late 1990s.⁹ The immigrant groups examined emphasize different childraising goals. The degree to which parents consider achievement important may be related to their desire for the future socioeconomic success of their children, which is generally an important incentive for immigration (Van der Veen 2001). Autonomy is the most important childraising goal among parents in native-born families and among mothers in Creole-Surinamese families. Many of the mothers in Creole-Surinamese families emphasize especially the importance to them of the economic independence of their daughters (Distelbrink 2000).¹⁰ Autonomy is least important in families in which the significance of the family is stressed; this is the case among families of Chinese origin (Geense and Pels 1998). Social behaviour is least important for mothers in Creole-Surinamese families (Pels 2000). The educational attainment of parents accounts for part of the differences across the groups (Nijsten and Pels 2000).

Table 14: Importance Attached to Different Childraising Goals among Mothers according to Family Origin, the Netherlands, Late 1990s

scale scores

<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Native born, N = 1,252</i>	<i>Turkey, N = 181</i>	<i>Morocco, N = 77</i>	<i>Creole-Suriname, N = 75</i>	<i>China, N = 46</i>
Achievement	2.5 (4)	1.7 (1)	1.5 (1)	1.9 (2)	1.8 (2)
Conformism	2.1 (3)	1.9 (2)	1.9 (2)	2.0 (3)	1.4 (1)
Autonomy	1.7 (1)	2.1 (3)	2.2 (4)	1.7 (1)	2.0 (4)
Social behaviour	1.7 (2)	2.1 (4)	2.1 (3)	2.4 (4)	2.0 (3)

Source: Pels (2000).

Note: The data on the mothers in native-born families reflect results from a quantitative study. The other data are from qualitative studies. The table shows means based on a scale from 1 (very important) to 3 (not important). Rankings of the goals within each group are indicated in parentheses.

Table 15 provides information on the importance attached by parents to obedience and independence among their children. The information has been derived from quantitative data from the 2002 round of a longitudinal survey on social position and the use of welfare facilities by immigrants (Sociale Voorzieningengebruik van Allochtonen, or SPVA survey).¹¹ The survey focused on the immigrant groups from the main countries of origin: the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey. In addition, data from a large-scale quantitative study, the Netherlands Kinship Panel Study (known as the NKPS), have been used.¹² Based on this material, Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra (2005) found major differences between parents in the groups from Morocco and Turkey, among whom the majority considered obedience important, and the parents in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from

⁹ For childraising practices, also see Geense and Pels (1998) on families of Chinese origin, Distelbrink (2000) on families of Creole-Surinamese origin, Pels (1998) on families of Moroccan origin, Pels (1991) on toddlers in families of Moroccan origin and Van der Leij et al. (1991) on families of Turkish origin.

¹⁰ Half the children in Creole-Surinamese families grow up in mother-only households. This may influence the way these children are raised (Nijsten and Pels 2000).

¹¹ Conducted every two years between 1988 and 2002, the survey relied on a standard questionnaire, plus topical questions identified by researchers and policymakers (see <<http://www.scp.nl/miss/spvadoc/spva02doc.pdf>> and <<http://www.scp.nl/miss/spva.htm>>).

¹² For the Netherlands Kinship Panel Study, a representative sample of 10,000 inhabitants of the Netherlands were interviewed, including native-born Dutch and people of immigrant origin (see <<http://www.nkps.nl/>>).

Suriname, among whom obedience was less important.¹³ Among second-generation and highly educated parents, obedience is less crucial. These parents place more value on independence, which is also the case among native-born parents and parents in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname.¹⁴

Table 15: Importance Attached by Parents to Obedience and Independence among 17-Year-Olds, the Netherlands, 2002

per cent

<i>Origin</i>	<i>Obedience</i>	<i>Independent thinking and behaviour</i>
Native-born population	18	41
<i>First generation</i>		
Turkey	68	24
Morocco	61	24
Suriname	47	38
Antilles and Aruba	41	41
<i>Second generation</i>		
Turkey	58	32
Morocco	53	25
Suriname	29	49
Antilles and Aruba	22	56

Source: Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra (2005).

The methods parents use to try to reach these goals may be divided into controlling mechanisms and supportive mechanisms (Pels 2000, Distelbrink 2000). The use of control is more common among parents who aim at teaching their children to conform to parental authority. This is more frequently the case among immigrant parents. For example, among parents who tend to prefer obedience as a goal, (mild) corporal punishment may be used (Distelbrink et al. 2005, Distelbrink 2000). Supportive mechanisms refer to more emotion-based or more communication-oriented child upbringing behaviour (Distelbrink 2000). It is more common among parents who favour the goal of autonomy and is more frequent among native-born parents and parents in the Creole-Suriname group. Support may be offered by rewarding rather than punishing the children or by talking with children about their interests, for example (Nijsten 2000).¹⁵

The methods used by parents to reach their childraising goals are influenced by factors internal to the families, such as the background of the parents and the characteristics of the children, and by dynamic external factors, such as school, social networks and the media (Pels et al. 2000). As children grow, different approaches to upbringing (supportive versus control) are adopted, and, in some immigrant groups, gender differences become more prominent (Nabben et al. 2006, Pels et al. 2000). The background of the parents has a strong influence on parental childraising behaviour. Parents in immigrant families who are more

¹³ In their study, Distelbrink and Hooghiemstra (2005) selected respondents from the longitudinal survey sample whose oldest child was 18. This resulted in 364 families in the group from Antilles and Aruba, 681 families in the group from Morocco, 514 families in the group from Suriname and 772 families in the group from Turkey. About 75 per cent of the parents had arrived in the Netherlands at the age of 17 or older except in the case of the families of Surinamese origin, among which the corresponding share was 58 per cent.

¹⁴ Similar findings have been reported on less well educated native-born Dutch parents with lower socioeconomic status; for example, see the quantitative study by Herweijer and Vogels (2004).

¹⁵ However, some parents, such as parents in families of Chinese origin, are typically less in favour of offering rewards because they believe rewards spoil the child (Geense and Pels 1998).

traditional tend to adapt childraising methods according to the gender of the child, to provide less educational support, to emphasize divisions of labour within the household and in childraising and to favour conformity and collective action (Pels et al. 2000, Pels 1991). Nonetheless, parental educational attainment, religiosity, level of inclusion in Dutch society and availability of social networks are variables affecting the views of the parents (Herweijer and Vogels 2004, Phalet and Ter Wal 2004, Oomens et al. 2003, Van Heelsum 2005).

Parents often encounter difficulties in raising their children, especially in a new country with different values. To assist parents, especially parents in immigrant families, in coping with childraising and to diminish the negative effects on children, the Government has developed and financed several support programmes (Pels 1994). The various programmes are aimed at helping children enhance their Dutch language skills, encouraging understanding of the cultures of origin of the parents, psychological support for lone mothers and the provision of relief among parents who are suffering from traumas related to their status as refugees (Van Keulen 1994, 1999; Djohani et al. 1994; Pannebakker 1994).

5.3 Educational attainment among children

The compulsory educational system (*leerplicht*) begins among children at age 5 and lasts until the year in which the child reaches the age of 16. Many children, mainly native-born Dutch, attend some form of preschool. After seven years of elementary school (*basisschool*), students enter secondary school (*middelbare school*). The secondary track in which students enrol depends largely on the results they have achieved on examinations they take at the end of elementary school (the Cito test; see elsewhere below). Secondary education is divided into three main tracks: preparatory vocational education (*voorbereidend middelbaar beroepsonderwijs* or VMBO), higher general secondary education (*hoger algemeen voortgezet onderwijs* or HAVO) and pre-university education (*voorbereidend wetenschappelijk onderwijs* or VWO). The low secondary track, the VMBO (four years, ages 12–16), offers several course programmes, including a vocational programme and a theoretical programme, preparing students for intermediate vocational education (*middelbaar beroepsonderwijs*). The middle secondary track, the HAVO (five years, ages 12–17), offers a theoretical programme preparing students for higher vocational education (*hoger beroepsonderwijs*). The high secondary track, the VWO (six years, ages 12–18), prepares students for university. In principal, the system allows students to build on their educational success and, within set parameters, move among the tracks (Gijsberts and Hartgers 2005).

5.3.1 Preschool

The majority of all first-generation immigrant children, but often also second-generation children in immigrant families start elementary school with a language and math deficiency (Gijsberts 2003, Gijsberts and Hartgers 2005, Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). This has been found, for example, in the PRIMA study (Primair onderwijs en speciaal onderwijs cohortonderzoek), a longitudinal study undertaken every two years between 1994 and 2004/05 and including around 700 elementary schools (see Driessen et al. 2003). PRIMA surveyed the characteristics of schools, students and the parents of students. It recorded the most serious difficulties in Dutch language skills and math skills among the four largest immigrant groups, the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey.

However, toddlers in families in relatively newer immigrant groups, mainly refugees, such as families from Eastern Europe, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Iraq, also appear to have difficulty with the Dutch language and with tasks involving conceptualization (Gijsberts 2003). To counter these trends, scholars and policy experts have emphasized the importance of preschool for immigrant groups (Pels 1991, Zeijl et al. 2005).

The most common type of preschool is the *peuterspeelzaal* (preschool play group). In these preschools, the emphasis is on early childhood development and preparation for elementary school through various games and tasks (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). Children usually attend during one or two periods each school day. There are also daycare centres and special programmes aimed at children in immigrant groups and their families, especially mothers. A daycare centre offers only supervision and care while parents are at work; there is no particular effort to educate children in specific skills (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a).

It has often been suggested that the costs involved in sending children to daycare represent a barrier for parents in immigrant families and that the families would rather rely on their social networks for childcare (Gijsberts 2003). Nonetheless, among the four main immigrant groups (Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey), the number of children attending the *peuterspeelzaal* or daycare centres has been increasing. About half the young children in the Moroccan group and three quarters of the young children in the Turkish group attend a preschool; the numbers of young children in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname who are in preschool fall somewhere in between (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a).

The overall aim of many preschool projects among children in immigrant families is to narrow the educational gap between these children and native-born children before the start of elementary school and to support the parents in childraising (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a, Reezigt 2003, Hubbard 1994). Most programmes have been developed over the last 10 years. There have been evaluations of the various programmes, but not much large-scale research has been carried out, and solid long-term findings are limited and controversial in terms of the outcomes and effectiveness of the programmes (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a, Van Tuijl and Siebes 2006, Pels 1991). Based on small-scale studies focusing on specific projects, Leseman et al. (1998) and Van Tuijl et al. (2001) have concluded that young children of Turkish origin especially benefit from the programmes. They do not find long-term effects, however. Others, such as Driessen (2003) and Gijsberts (2003), who have analysed large-scale survey data produced through the longitudinal PRIMA study, take a more gloomy view and find that the positive effects are minimal or non-existent.

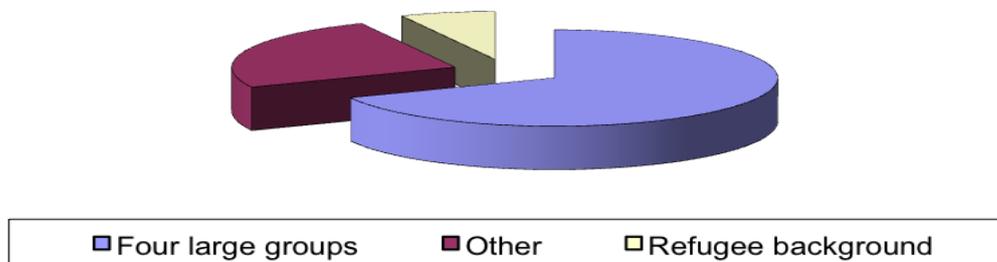
5.3.2 Primary education

Every child living in the Netherlands is obliged to attend elementary school beginning from the month of his or her fifth birthday (Van Batenburg et al. 2006, Van Willigen 2003). Often, children begin attending before their fifth birthdays. In any case, because of the requirement linked to the birthday, children are accepted in elementary school classes throughout the school year.

The share of children in immigrant families who are in primary education has risen among the total population of elementary school students. A total of 230,000 children in immigrant

families of non-western origin were attending Dutch elementary schools in 2001 (Leeman and Veendrick 2001). By the 2006/07 school year, the total had risen slightly, but the share of students in immigrant families of non-western origin among all students in primary education, at 15 per cent, was still about the same. In Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam and Utrecht, the share was around 50 per cent, much higher than the shares elsewhere in the country (Statistics Netherlands 2007b, Latten 2005). The largest share among immigrant groups in primary education – about two thirds – is represented by the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey (Figure 5). Almost 6 per cent of the children have a refugee background (Van Willigen 2003). The remaining 25 per cent of the population of immigrant origin in primary education represent a wide range of immigrant groups (Leeman and Veendrick 2001).

Figure 5: Composition of the Primary School Population of Immigrant Origin, the Netherlands, 2001



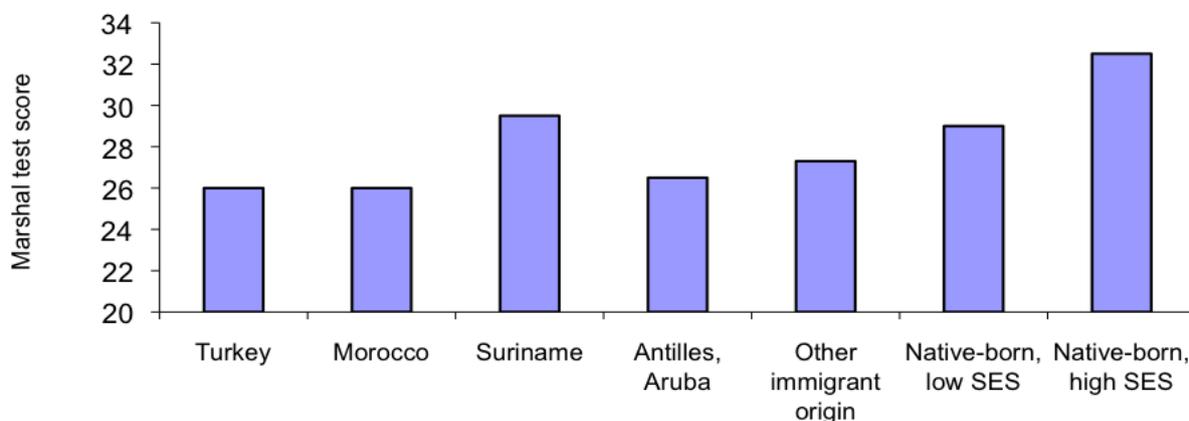
Source: Leeman and Veendrick (2001).

Note: Four large groups = children in immigrant families from Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey. Other = children in immigrant families of non-western origin, excluding the four large groups.

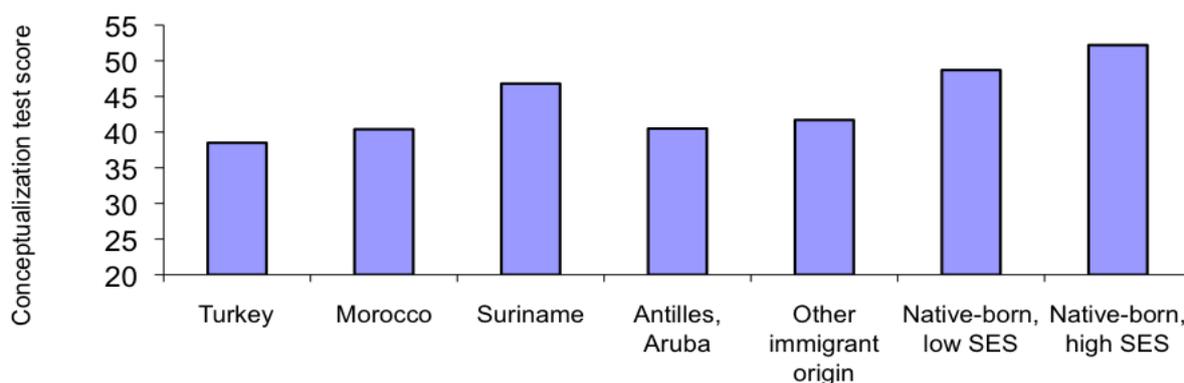
In the ability to marshal skills – considered a measure of understanding – and in performance in conceptualization tasks, there is a clear difference between the test scores of children in immigrant families and native-born children in families of high socioeconomic status (Figure 6). This is the conclusion of research on students during the second year of primary education based on data from the 2000 round of the PRIMA study (see elsewhere above). Children in immigrant groups generally lag behind native-born children, though there are also variations across immigrant groups (Gijsberts 2003). Children in immigrant groups do better on the marshalling test than on the conceptualization test (the latter involves more language skills). The performance of children of mixed ethnicity, that is, children with one foreign-born immigrant parent and one native-born Dutch parent, is better than the performance of children with two foreign-born immigrant parents (not shown in the figure). Children of mixed ethnicity outperform their native-born Dutch peers from families with low socioeconomic status. Figure 6 shows that children in the Turkish group perform the least well, followed closely by children in the Moroccan group. Children in the immigrant group from Suriname perform the best among the immigrant groups shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Average Test Scores in Marshalling Skills and Conceptualization Tasks in Grade 2, the Netherlands, 2000

a. Marshalling skills



b. Conceptualization tasks



Source: Gijssberts (2003).

Note: Grade 2 = *groep 2* (ages 5–6). The conceptualization test included 60 assignments. The marshalling test included 42 assignments. SES = socioeconomic status. Among the ‘native-born, high SES’, one of the parents completed at least the VMBO theoretical programme. Among the ‘native-born, low SES’, both parents completed, at most, this programme.

The performance of some immigrant groups is obscured because the groups are placed together in the category, ‘other immigrant groups’. This may conceal the better performance particularly of refugees (Mulder and Uerz 2002). Nonetheless, children in refugee families from countries such as Afghanistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Iraq do not yet excel at this young age. According to Mulder and Uerz (2002), at their entry in primary school, most refugee children perform similarly to children in other immigrant groups. In a study on refugee children and asylum policy, Van Willigen (2003) concluded that refugee children must cope with significant obstacles during the transition from special education in centres for asylum seekers to the regular primary education system. These obstacles, such as insecurity regarding length of stay in the Netherlands, the language barrier, long waiting lists and difficulties in cognitive development, tend to impede educational performance (Van Willigen 2003). The children in refugee immigrant families who outperform children in other immigrant groups are often in the second generation and include children from Asia – mainly

Afghanistan, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Iraq – and Eastern Europe who tend to perform well in education in any case (Mulder and Uerz 2002).

With the exception of the marshal test among girls in the Moroccan group, girls in all immigrant groups perform slightly better than boys in the marshal and conceptualization tests (Gijsberts 2003). The differences between boys and girls in the results on the marshal and conceptualization tests also persist in the later years of primary education; girls continue to outperform boys (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005b).

More recent data show that children in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco and Turkey still lag behind native-born children in families of higher socioeconomic status. Nonetheless, there was progress over 1994–2004, especially in the Moroccan group and, to a lesser extent, the Turkish group (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). Similar findings have been found for the period 1988–2003, where the progress among students of Moroccan and Turkish origin was evident especially during the last years of primary school, between *groep* 6 and *groep* 8 (grades 6 and 8) (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a; see also Meijnen 2003b).

Students take a test, the Cito test, in the final year of elementary school. The test is a nationally standardized examination administered at the end of primary education to measure the educational achievements and abilities of students and guide the choice among the three tracks in secondary education (Van der Lubbe et al. 2005).¹⁶ The Cito test scores are generally lower among children in immigrant families than among native-born children (Gijsberts 2003, Van 't Hof and Dronkers 1992). According to data from the PRIMA study covering 1994 to 2004, Cito scores have declined across all segments of the elementary school population, including among the native born (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). Among the four major immigrant groups, the scores among children of Moroccan and Turkish origin declined only slightly, while the scores fell more substantially among children in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a).

The number of students who do not take the Cito test has increased in recent years. Critics have argued that children in immigrant families are not being allowed to take the test because of the poor performance of such children on the test in the past. The critics say that one of the reasons is the desire of schools to maintain a higher average performance among students (Scheffer 2006). This has been confirmed by Chan et al. (2006) in their research conducted through questionnaires and in-depth interviews in schools in Amsterdam.¹⁷ They also found that teachers do not want students to be disappointed or discouraged because of the Cito test results. Some teachers said it was better for students who risk performing poorly not to take the test (Chan et al. 2006, Bosker and De Jong-Heeringa 2006). The validity of the Cito test as a measure of educational achievement among children in immigrant families has been questioned as well (Bosker and De Jong-Heeringa 2006).

¹⁶ The Central Institute for Test Development was launched by the Government as an educational testing service in 1968. It became a private entity, Cito, in 1999 and now has an international division and branches in several countries (see <<http://www.cito.nl/>>).

¹⁷ In Amsterdam, the number of students not taking the test rose from 17 per cent in 2002/03 to 23 per cent in 2004/05 (Chan et al. 2006).

The parents of one in five children in immigrant families are currently being advised by elementary schools to enter their children in the HAVO secondary education track, while this is the case of the parents of nearly half of the children in native-born families of high socioeconomic status (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). However, compared with parents in other immigrant groups, relatively more of the parents in some immigrant groups, especially refugees from Asia and Eastern Europe, are being advised to enter their children in this track (Mulder and Uerz 2002).

Based on data of the PRIMA surveys of 1988 and 2004, Gijsberts and Hartgers (2005) and Gijsberts and Herweijer (2007a) nonetheless find indications that the number of parents in immigrant families being advised to enter their children in the HAVO track has been gradually increasing. In the 1990s, there was a tendency to overadvise parents in immigrant families to take this option because the relatively poorer performance in primary school and on the Cito test was attributed to the imperfect command of Dutch among the children rather than limitations in intellectual capacities (Gijsberts 2003, Crul 2000). During the late 1990s, this approach was heavily criticized. Dropout rates in secondary education were soaring, especially in the higher tracks and particularly among children in immigrant families. The debate has now shifted in the opposite direction (Crul 2000). Recent research shows that elementary schools tend to advise parents in immigrant families towards tracks that are below the potential of the children (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). The consequences of this recent shift have not yet been studied (Onderwijsinspectie 2007).

5.3.3 Secondary education

Most children in immigrant families become enrolled in the lower secondary tracks, usually the VMBO vocational or theoretical programme (Crul 2000, Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a, Gijsberts and Hartgers 2005). The lower the track, the higher the share of such children. These differences in secondary education are striking not only among students in immigrant families relative to native-born students, but also across immigrant groups. Students in the Moroccan and Turkish groups are the most well represented in the lower tracks, whereas students in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname are a little more well represented in the higher tracks (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a). Through interviews with representatives of various refugee organizations, Van Willigen (2003) has found that unaccompanied minors sometimes only attend the special schools in the refugee camps and sometimes attend no school at all. Gijsberts and Dagevos (2005b) find that more girls than boys in the four main immigrant groups are in the higher tracks. Girls in the Turkish group are an exception. Meanwhile, more girls in the refugee group are enrolled in the HAVO or VWO track relative to girls in the group from Suriname, though fewer are in these tracks relative to native-born girls (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005b).

Children 15 years of age in immigrant families do less well in the tests of reading, mathematical and scientific literacy carried out through the surveys of the Programme for International Student Assessment coordinated by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. The scores of second-generation students of immigrant origin are lower on science and mathematics than the scores of their first-generation immigrant peers, but higher in reading. Compared with students in immigrant families in Belgium and Germany, students in immigrant families in the Netherlands achieve somewhat better results,

but their scores are still below the average across all groups (De Knecht–van Eekelen et al. 2007). These findings on 15-year-olds in immigrant families must be interpreted with care because the sample size of the population in this age group is small ($N = 530$) in the Dutch survey, and it is difficult to make distinctions by immigrant origin.

Analyses of the results of the surveys of the Programme for International Student Assessment indicate that higher scores correlate with higher educational attainment among parents. In general, studies on the educational performance of children in immigrant families show the importance of parental socioeconomic background (Crul 2000, Gijsberts and Hartgers 2005, Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a, Pels 1991, Van Lange and Jungbluth 1990). The importance parents attach to educational performance and achievement is also a significant variable (Andriessen 2006, Van der Veen 2001). It is often argued that the educational achievements of the children and parents in immigrant families should therefore be compared rather than the achievements across segments of the child population. In most immigrant groups, but especially in the Moroccan and Turkish groups, the educational attainment of the second generation is higher than the attainment of their parents. There is thus clear progress in this respect (Crul 2000).

Other variables that may be important in the educational performance of immigrant groups in secondary school are friendship networks and the presence of siblings (Crul 2000). Peers and siblings may stimulate good performance. In his research on successful students in immigrant families, Crul (2000) points out that certain support systems, such as mentor programmes and community support, may enhance the chances for success (see also Meijnen et al. 2001).

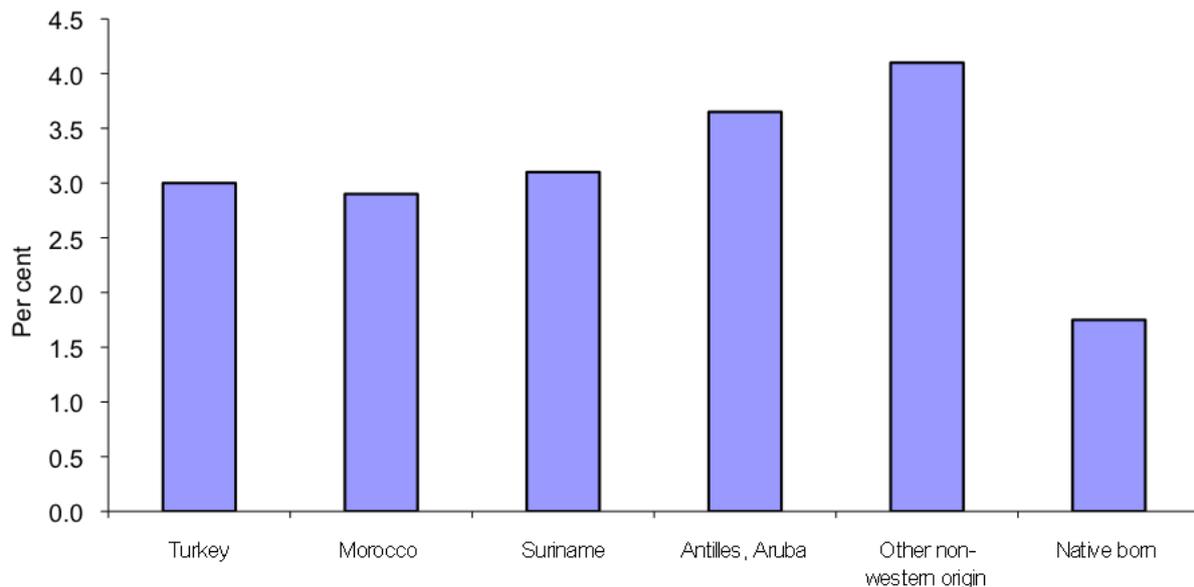
Relatively more children in immigrant families skip school temporarily or drop out altogether (Van Batenburg et al. 2006). The dropout rate among these children is more than two times higher than the rate among native-born children: about 20 per cent compared with 8 per cent (Gijsberts 2003). Students who obtain only a VMBO diploma or who quit school without obtaining vocational training or an HAVO or VWO diploma lack entry-level qualifications for the labour market (Statistics Netherlands 2007b). Figure 7 shows the share of such young people broken down according to immigrant origin. Children of immigrant origin leave the educational system without a qualification more often partly because they attend lower educational tracks where the dropout rates are higher. Even within the same tracks, dropout rates among young people of immigrant origin are higher than the rates among their native-born peers, although dropout rates differ across immigrant groups. According to Hofman (1993), for example, the dropout rates among students in the South East Asian group are lower than the rates among other immigrant groups.

Based on data of the earlier rounds of the PRIMA study, Keuzenkamp and Merens (2007) argue that the girls in immigrant families have a lower dropout rate than the boys. In addition, more of the girls attend the higher secondary tracks and complete their education more rapidly. Nonetheless, as in the case of the boys, relatively more of the girls in immigrant families still join the labour market without entry-level qualifications compared with native-born girls (Keuzenkamp and Merens 2007, Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a).

Yet, that a rising share of young people in the immigrant groups from Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey are completing their secondary education is a positive trend.

Moreover, their overall educational attainment appears to be improving in recent years, while educational attainment among the native born has remained static. Another positive development is the trend among youth in immigrant groups in the higher secondary tracks to continue in education. Such a trend is not so evident among the native born (Gijsberts and Herweijer 2007a, Crul 2000).

Figure 7: Students Leaving Secondary School without Entry-Level Job Qualifications, the Netherlands, 2004/05



Sources: Gijsberts and Herweijer (2007b); data of the Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office based on the StatLine Database.

Note: The figure excludes agricultural education and special, on-the-job education (*praktijkonderwijs*).

5.3.4 Segregation in schools

In the Netherlands, schools may be freely established on the basis of particular religious or philosophical principles. This right, laid out in the constitution, means that public schools and special schools are subsidized by the Government rather than privately (Rietveld–van Wingerden et al. 2003). Initially, special schools were mainly founded on religious principles. Later, schools based on personal belief systems or specific teaching methods were established. Immigrant communities also built their own schools, usually on religious principles (Driessen 2001). Partly as a consequence of this system, which allows parents great leeway in choosing schools for their children, schools have become increasingly segregated (Bronneman-Helmers and Taes 1999). Herweijer and Vogels (2004) find that parents in native-born families use this educational free market to select schools that are most suited to their values and the characteristics of their households. Rather than geographical factors such as proximity, it is the widespread preference for schools with student bodies with similar backgrounds that tends to lead to segregation in schools (Herweijer and Vogels 2004). Moreover, the differences between immigrant and non-immigrant schools are perceived to be increasing (Bronneman-Helmers and Taes 1999, Vermeulen 2001). (Schools are considered immigrant if 60 per cent or more of the student body has an immigrant background.)

Among primary schools, 6 per cent have student bodies in which at least half the students are children in immigrant families; these are mainly schools in the four largest cities

(Bronneman-Helmers and Taes 1999). In these cities, there is a growing trend among children in immigrant families and native-born children to attend separate schools (Nicolaas 2005). In these cities and the surrounding areas, 41 per cent of the schools have student bodies consisting of 60 per cent or more of children in immigrant families; in Rotterdam, one in three schools has a student body with 75 per cent or more of children in immigrant families (Nicolaas 2005). On average, a student of immigrant origin attends a primary school in which other children of immigrant origin represent 73 per cent of the student body, whereas, on average, a native-born child attends a school in which children of immigrant origin account for 27 per cent of the student body. The students of immigrant origin in these schools are mainly non-western (Latten 2005, Scheffer 2005).

Parents in native-born families also choose schools with children whose parents are 'like minded' because immigrant schools have a reputation of being of poor quality and of poor academic performance (Leeman and Veendrick 2001, Van der Wouw 1994). Herweijer and Vogels (2004) interviewed 1,200 parents and found that the argument about quality also sways the choice of schools among parents in immigrant families, who are increasingly opting for non-immigrant schools where they expect their children to obtain a higher quality education and more individual attention. This increases the perception that there is a quality gap between immigrant schools and non-immigrant schools (Gramberg and Ledoux 2005; Ledoux et al. 2003; Leeman and Veendrick 2001; Onderwijsraad 2003, 2005).

5.4 Youth and the labour market

Non-western immigrant groups are vulnerable in the labour market at least partly because of generally lower levels of educational attainment. However, relatively well educated refugees also face difficulty finding and keeping jobs. Around 75 per cent of native-born men are employed at least 12 hours a week compared with 52 and 55 per cent of men in the Moroccan and Turkish immigrant groups, respectively. This suggests that nearly half the men in the Moroccan and Turkish immigrant groups are employed less than 12 hours a week and that many are unemployed or in benefit schemes. The labour force participation rate among women in these two immigrant groups is 25 to 30 per cent lower than the labour force participation rate among men. The labour force participation rate among women in the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname is similar to that among native-born women, at around 55 per cent. High levels of unemployment are reported among refugee groups, for example, the groups from Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia (Van den Tillaart and Warmerdam 2004). The second immigrant generation is more likely than the first generation to participate in the labour market.

Many people in non-western immigrant groups work in more physically demanding, less highly qualified jobs. This makes them more vulnerable to economic change. The reliance on government benefits is especially high among first-generation non-western immigrants (one in four); it is less among the second generation in non-western immigrant groups (one in ten) (Statistics Netherlands 2007c). In 2004, around 9 per cent of all 18- to 25-year-olds of non-western origin were receiving government benefits compared with 4 per cent of the native born in the same age group (Van der Vliet et al. 2007). Data in the Social Statistics Database of Statistics Netherlands show that around 75 per cent of the former were in education or had a paid job in 2004. There are differences across immigrant groups, however. Young adults in

the Chinese and Vietnamese groups, for example, show higher levels of participation than do their native-born peers. These differences among groups are more limited among the second generation than among the first generation; 70 to 90 per cent of the second generation versus 40 to 80 per cent of the first generation is in education or has a job. Gender differences are also more limited among the second generation, among which many women are in education or paid work (Van der Vliet et al. 2007).

Many young adults of immigrant origin work in services such as cleaning. This is true of almost 10 per cent of first-generation non-western immigrants and around 5 per cent of the second generation. Young adults in some immigrant groups, such as the groups from China, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Viet Nam, are less well represented in these jobs. Given the sectors they work in and the type of employment contracts they have (more often part time), young adults in immigrant groups are generally in a relatively more vulnerable position on the labour market (Van der Vliet et al. 2007).

5.5 Children and health

Several studies have found that self-evaluated health is worse among non-western immigrant groups than among the native-born Dutch. This is also the case among young people up to the age of 24 in non-western immigrant groups. These people are less positive about their overall health status than are the native born; 88 versus 93 per cent, respectively, report that their health is good to excellent (Statistics Netherlands 2007d). A recent study that is based on data from general health practitioners and the population register and that takes account of socioeconomic characteristics has nonetheless found that people in non-western immigrant groups do not visit their doctors more often relative to the native born. However, the use of medicines, including prescription medicines, is more common among first-generation Moroccan, Surinamese and Turkish immigrants than among the native born. The second generation in these groups is closer to the native born in this, however (Volkers et al. 2007).

Teenage pregnancies are rather uncommon in the Netherlands. In 2005, they accounted for only 6 births per 1,000 girls between the ages of 15 and 19 (Garssen 2007). However, the incidence of teenage pregnancy is higher among certain immigrant groups. Among first-generation Surinamese, there were 21 births per 1,000 girls; among girls from the Antilles and Aruba, the corresponding share was 43 in 1,000. These teenage mothers are at risk of becoming lone mothers and of finding themselves in an unfavourable socioeconomic situation (Garssen 2007, Van der Vliet et al. 2007). The large majority of teenage mothers are 19 years of age at the birth of their children (Garssen 2004).

Excessive weight is a rapidly emerging issue in childhood health. Data for 2003 show that, overall, around 11 per cent of children between 2 and 19 years of age are overweight. Children in the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname are somewhat more likely than native-born children to be overweight. The differences between the native born and children in the Moroccan and Turkish groups are more pronounced; almost one in four of the children in the latter two groups is overweight (Frenken 2004).

Extensive studies on the differences in mortality rates between the native born and individuals in immigrant groups have been carried out over the past decade based on data in

population registers. Garssen and Van der Meulen (2007) show that the mortality rate among toddlers and young children in non-western immigrant groups declined substantially in 2002–2006; the decline was larger than the decline among the native born. Nonetheless, the differences in mortality risks between native-born children and immigrant children are still significant. However, the absolute number of deaths among non-western immigrant groups is rather limited (around 3 per cent of the 616,947 deaths in 2002–2006). Perinatal mortality rates among non-western immigrant groups are between a quarter and a third higher than the rates among the native born. Mortality rates among 5- to 24-year-olds of non-western immigrant origin are 50 per cent higher than the rates among their native-born peers. Overall, boys are more at risk than girls, but gender differences seem to be larger among non-western immigrant groups, especially in the 15–19 age group. Boys are at much higher risk of death by non-natural causes. That perinatal mortality rates are highest among the immigrant group from the Antilles and Aruba is related to the higher prevalence of sexually transmitted infections and the higher share of teenage pregnancies among this group. Poor socioeconomic status and the absence of partners among the mothers contribute to the higher risks among this group. External causes such as traffic accidents are the most common cause of death among children in the 1–14 age group. Garssen and Hoogenboezem (2007) point out that the incidence of suicide among young women is particularly high in the immigrant groups from Suriname and Turkey and that the mortality rate as a result of suicide is higher among young men of non-western origin.

Studies have looked at alcohol and drug use among youth of immigrant origin. Alcohol consumption in 2003 was reportedly much higher among native-born 12- to 18-year-olds than among non-western adolescents in the same age group. Among non-western immigrant groups, adolescents of Moroccan and Turkish origin reportedly showed the lowest levels of alcohol consumption (Statistics Netherlands 2007d). Drug use among 12- to 18-year-olds is highest among the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Suriname; almost a quarter reportedly use drugs compared with 19 per cent among their native-born peers. The lowest share of overall drug and cannabis use was found among the Moroccan and Turkish groups (Statistics Netherlands 2007d). (The data do not distinguish between boys and girls.)

5.6 Socialization and identity

Identity formation is influenced by a wide range of factors, and various features of identity are emphasized in different contexts (Verkuyten 1999, 2005a). Especially during adolescence, youngsters start to become concerned about who they are and how they are perceived by others (Saharso 1992). In the Netherlands, the social psychologist Maykel Verkuyten is among the main researchers studying identity issues among immigrant youth. According to Verkuyten, identity revolves around inclusion and exclusion and is context dependent (see Verkuyten 1988, 1992a, 1999, 2005b; Verkuyten and Brug 2002; Verkuyten and Martinovic 2006).

Ethnic identity is, according to Verkuyten (1988), one component in the self-concept, besides other identities. It is influenced by many factors. Among immigrant youth, identity formation is complicated because of feelings of difference with respect to native-born youth (Sansone 1992, Saharso 1992). Quantitative and qualitative research has shown that many immigrant youngsters identify with aspects of their ethnic backgrounds rather than with the Netherlands

(Buijs et al. 2006, Nabben et al. 2006, Vermeulen 1984, Keune et al. 2002). This ethnic awareness is disquieting to many in the native-born population. Up to the 1990s, it was the consensus that social inclusion should be pursued among immigrant groups, while the groups would maintain their ethnic identity. Public opinion has shifted, and now many people believe that identification with the Netherlands is required for successful inclusion.¹⁸ Nonetheless, recent studies find that youth in immigrant groups often do not identify themselves as Dutch, but identify themselves at a narrower geographical level, such as with the city in which they live (Phalet et al. 2000, Nabben et al. 2006, Verkuyten 2006a).¹⁹

Identification by others and self-defined identity are often associated (Verkuyten 2006a). Thus, for example, the way one is identified by others influences the way one sees one's self. The context in which the youngsters in immigrant groups grow up is therefore important for their identity because, in different settings, different identities may be emphasized (Saharso 1992). Residence in a segregated neighbourhood decreases the opportunity for contacts with the native-born Dutch, and this separation is reinforced by attendance at segregated schools (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005a). Having few contacts with the native born enhances one's ethnic identity (Nabben et al. 2006). Quantitative research shows that youth in immigrant families maintain friendships mainly within their own immigrant group (Verkuyten 1988, 1992b; Bakker et al. 2007). Pels (2003) shows that, among boys of Moroccan origin, friendship networks strongly influence behaviour and identity formation. In their qualitative research on radical Muslims, Buijs et al. (2006) find a similar link. Using quantitative data, Gijsberts and Dagevos (2005a) show the importance of contacts between people in immigrant groups and the native born. The more interactions the two population segments have, the more positive are their opinions about each other (see also Verkuyten and Thijs 2000).²⁰

Family members may have an impact on the identity of youth of immigrant origin. Researchers have called attention to the conflicts that arise when youth in immigrant groups feel they must choose between the values of their parents and the values in Dutch society (Tjin A Djie 2001, Buijs et al. 2006, Sietaram 1984). The influence of the family on identity formation should not be underestimated (Pels and Nijsten 2000).

Infants only a few months of age already demonstrate a preference for people who are similar to them. This can eventually become manifest in a bias against children who appear different (Boudry and Vandebroek 2001). Given that many children in immigrant families, especially children of non-western origin, are readily identifiable because of a distinctive physical appearance, they are often bullied from an early age by classmates (Boudry and Vandebroek 2001). To increase ethnic awareness, several programmes have been developed to focus on identity formation and ethnic equality among children.²¹ Such programmes are especially important in ethnically diverse schools; ethnic diversity in the classroom strongly influences the development of ethnic awareness and identity among

¹⁸ For a detailed report on the issue of identification in the Netherlands, see WRR (2007).

¹⁹ In some cities, an active attempt is being made to increase this identification with the city. An example is the '*I Amsterdam*' campaign in Amsterdam.

²⁰ A recent quantitative study by Bakker et al. (2007), however, shows that this is not the case among classmates in primary school.

²¹ See Djohani (1994), Boudry and Vandebroek (2001), Van Keulen et al. (2004); for a programme on intercultural learning among older children, see Abram and Wesly (2006).

children (Verkuyten and Thijs 2000, Van Keulen et al. 2004). The experience of discrimination causes children and youth in immigrant families to become more aware of their difference. While this may lead to a repudiation of ethnic background, it more often leads to closer identification of the children with their own group.²² Other studies have shown that the views among the native born on youth of immigrant origin are influenced by the amount of contact they have with immigrants and by the way immigrant groups are presented in the media (Gijsberts and Dagevos 2005a, De Bruin 2005, Holtmaat 2002).

Youth culture is tightly linked to identity formation (Naber 2004). It is closely connected to one's friends and influenced by clothing, music, sports and street language (Saharso 1992, Dibbits 2006, Naber 2004, Van Daal 2006, Vermeij 2002). The various immigrant youth cultures also influence each other (Sansone 1992). Based on live and online observations, Dibbits (2006) describes how some youth in the Moroccan group have adopted the clothing styles of youngsters in the group from Antilles and Aruba to create a wannabe-black culture. Dibbits (2006) distinguishes among the clothing styles through which the former express their authentic Moroccan identity.

Another important aspect of youth culture is the media. D'Haenens et al. (2004) have studied media use by youth in the Moroccan and Turkish groups. They show that Dutch media and the media in the country of origin are used by these youth and may thus have an influence on ethnic identity among the youth and on Dutch awareness of ethnic identity. Other recent studies have found that the Internet, in particular, plays an important role in identity formation among youth. Youth use the Internet to chat, often with youth in other ethnic groups; frequently, they pretend to be someone else when they chat (SCP 2006, Van den Broek and De Haan 2006). Through in-depth interviews and focus groups, De Bruin (2005) has examined the influence of the media and found that the ideas of youth about their immigrant origin are shaped by the image of their ethnic group portrayed in television drama series, for example. According to Holtmaat (2002), the effect of media stereotyping on identity formation is especially strong among young women of immigrant origin. Her study suggests that Muslim girls and young women are particularly sensitive to the negative influences of stereotyping because they are generally more readily recognizable by their headscarves.

5.7 Youth and deviant behaviour

Deviant behaviour among children and youth in immigrant groups has been on the political agenda in the Netherlands for a couple of years. This attention arose because of several incidents involving youth in the immigrant groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Morocco, among others, that were highlighted in the media. In 2005, around 6.5 per cent of 12- to 25-year-olds of non-western immigrant origin were suspected of involvement in criminal offences compared with 2.4 per cent among the native born in the same age group (Statistics Netherlands 2008). A recent study carried out by the Ministry of Justice reveals that about a third of alleged offenders are of non-western origin. Adjusted for the size of the population, the group from the Antilles and Aruba shows the highest crime rates for all types

²² For this process among primary school students, see Verkuyten and Thijs (2000); among youngsters of Creole-Surinamese origin, Sansone (1992); among Islamic radicals and democratic Muslims, Buijs et al. (2006); and among youngsters of Moroccan and Turkish origin, Keune et al. (2002) and Pels (2000).

of offences, but particularly for drug-related offences, armed crime and property offences involving violence. The Moroccan group, which accounts for the second-highest overall crime rate, is often suspected in violent and non-violent property offences, intimidation, vandalism and disorderly conduct. The group from Suriname is involved in traffic offences, drug-related offences and armed crime relatively more. The Turkish group, which is suspected of involvement in crimes the least often among immigrant groups, is suspected of involvement in traffic offences and armed crime relatively more (Jennissen and Blom 2007). Crime rates are especially high among older adolescents in the Moroccan group; crime rates continue to be high among people in the group from the Antilles and Aruba who are aged in their 30s and 40s; crime rates among people in these groups begin to drop only after the people have reached age 40 (Jennissen and Blom 2007).

Table 16 shows the odds ratios associated with suspicion of involvement in one of three types of criminal behaviour. The four largest immigrants groups are broken down by immigrant generation and compared with the native-born population. The upper panel of the table refers to the 18–44 age group and the lower panel to the 12–17 age group. The table shows that, for the three offences, individuals in any of the four largest immigrants groups (from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey) run a significantly higher risk of being suspected of a crime compared with individuals in the native-born population. This applies to both the first and the second generation and to adults and minors alike. For violent crimes, the risk of being suspected of a crime is relatively higher among 18- to 44-year-olds in the second generation in the Moroccan group and in the first generation in the group from the Antilles and Aruba. Among the offenders in the 12–17 age group, the odds ratios are relatively high for the first generation in the groups from the Antilles and Aruba and from Morocco, who are often accused of robbery. Higher risk is also associated with property offences involving violence among the groups from the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco and Suriname, drug-related offences among the first generation from the Antilles and Aruba, armed crime among adults in the group from the Antilles and Aruba and victimization by intimidation among the second generation in the Moroccan group (Jennissen and Blom 2007).

The reported differences in the likelihood of being suspected of a crime between the immigrant groups and the native born persist if one controls for variables related to the socioeconomic status of the individual and the family (such as marital status, income and neighborhood of residence). Socioeconomic status is a significant variable in accounting for the differences across immigrant groups; it explains part of the revealed differences among the groups.

In 2006, around 40 per cent of 15- to 25-year-olds in all segments of the population were victims of crime. The extent to which young adults felt unsafe was particularly large among girls of immigrant origin: around 42 per cent indicated that they felt unsafe. Although the share is lower among boys in immigrant groups (25 per cent), it is still higher among them than among the native born, among whom 18 and 36 per cent of boys and girls, respectively, said they felt unsafe (Statistics Netherlands 2008).

Table 16: Relative Risk of Being Suspected of a Criminal Act, by Immigrant Generation, the Netherlands, 2003

index, native born = 1.0

<i>Origin</i>	<i>Robbery</i>	<i>Victimization through intimidation</i>	<i>Drug offence</i>
<i>Age 18–44</i>			
Morocco			
1.0, 1.5 generations	10.2	5.9	5.8
2.0 generation	34.1	11.3	9.8
2.5 generation	16.6	8.4	4.1
Antilles and Aruba			
1.0, 1.5 generations	21.7	8.0	18.2
2.0 generation	18.7	5.8	5.3
2.5 generation	5.6	2.0	2.0
Suriname			
1.0, 1.5 generations	8.5	5.0	5.7
2.0 generation	14.3	4.9	6.1
2.5 generation	8.2	4.3	4.0
Turkey			
1.0, 1.5 generations	2.5	3.6	2.4
2.0 generation	9.2	5.3	3.9
2.5 generation	7.5	4.1	5.0
Nagelkerke's R^2	0.085	0.039	0.053
<i>Age 12–17</i>			
Morocco			
1.0, 1.5 generations	30.9	7.5	5.0
2.0 generation	26.4	8.5	3.0
2.5 generation	14.5	4.6	Ns
Antilles and Aruba			
1.0, 1.5 generations	31.5	8.6	12.5
2.0 generation	23.5	5.9	3.9
2.5 generation	8.8	2.4	3.3
Suriname			
1.0, 1.5 generations	25.5	6.0	6.7
2.0 generation	19.8	4.2	2.7
2.5 generation	9.3	3.9	Ns
Turkey			
1.0, 1.5 generations	11.0	4.6	Ns
2.0 generation	6.8	2.8	Ns
2.5 generation	3.8	ns	Ns
Nagelkerke's R^2	0.133	0.042	0.021

Source: Jennissen and Blom (2007).

Note: The table shows the results of a univariate regression analysis. It indicates the likelihood that individuals in immigrant groups will be suspected of criminal acts compared with the corresponding likelihood among the native-born population (the reference group). 1.0 and 1.5 generations = the respondents are foreign born. 2.0 generation = both parents of each respondent are foreign born. 2.5 generation = only one parent of each respondent is foreign born. For a discussion of immigrant generations, see section 5.1. All findings are significant at least to $p < .05$; ns (not significant) = $p > .05$.

5.8 Significance and function of religion

Religion in society, especially Islam, has been a subject of much debate during the last couple of years. Despite secularization, Islam plays an important role in identity formation and in daily life among Muslim youth. Most youth of Moroccan and Turkish origin closely identify with Islam (Phalet et al. 2000). Based on observations, interviews and a literature review, Spotti (2007) finds that Muslim girls often choose to wear headscarves as a means of

asserting their identity. Qualitative research by Nabben et al. (2006) indicates that a majority of youth in the Moroccan and Turkish groups take part in Ramadan even though not all consider themselves religious. Similar findings are reported by Buijs et al. (2006), who show that many adolescents of immigrant origin are searching for a religious identity. Based on her observations across online forums, Brouwer (2001) shows that, especially among Muslims, the Internet is a major resource in the search for religious identity. There are numerous sites on which bloggers debate the Islam faith. By chatting online, young Muslims create and recreate their religious identity. Geense and Pels (1998) found that, especially among adolescents in the Moroccan group, youth use the Internet to express and examine their religious identity; this is less applicable among adolescents of Chinese and Turkish origin.

Table 17 provides an overview of the findings on the issue of religious affiliation in a large survey among immigrant groups and the native born in various cities.

Table 17: Respondents Reporting a Religious Affiliation, the Netherlands, 2004/05

per cent

<i>Origin</i>	<i>Age</i>			<i>Immigrant generation</i>	
	<i>15–24</i>	<i>25–44</i>	<i>45–65</i>	<i>First</i>	<i>Second</i>
Native-born population	25	39	40	—	—
Immigrant population					
Turkey	94	92	96	94	93
Morocco	94	95	99	97	91
Suriname	61	68	83	77	56
Antilles and Aruba	62	65	82	76	40
Former Yugoslavia	44	62	68	—	—
Iraq	78	82	78	—	—
Afghanistan	87	85	87	—	—
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	56	44	50	—	—
Somalia	93	92	96	—	—

Source: Beekhoven and Dagevos (2005).

Note: — = not applicable or data not available.

The overall level of religious identification is higher among immigrant groups than among the native born, but clear differences stand out across immigrant groups as well. Thus, we find that a large majority of 15- to 24-year-olds in the Moroccan, Somali and Turkish groups identify with a religion. The shares are lower among 15- to 24-year-olds in the groups from the Islamic Republic of Iran and former Yugoslavia. Overall, it is apparent that younger age groups feel less attraction for organized religion relative to older cohorts. A similar observation may be made about the second generation relative to the first generation in the four largest immigrant groups, although one should realize that generation and age often coincide: the majority of the second immigrant generation belongs to the youngest age group.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The population of the Netherlands has become more diverse in recent decades. The share of children and youth in immigrant families has become substantial and is increasing. However, relative to native-born families, immigrant families are generally poorer, are living in less favourable housing and are more vulnerable on the labour market.

Some immigrant groups are more disadvantaged than others. Families of European or North American origin are the most comparable with native-born families in terms of household characteristics and socioeconomic status. The groups from Morocco and Turkey, although part of older immigration waves, are in an unfavourable position relative to the native-born population.

With few exceptions, the majority of children in immigrant families have been born in the Netherlands and thus belong to the second generation. The majority of children in immigrant families, particularly those of the second generation, are growing up in two-parent households. At the same time, we find clear variations in the incidence of one-parent households across immigrant groups (mostly mother-only households). Among children in one-parent households, the share living with their mothers is largest among groups from the Caribbean and some West African countries.

Substantial shares of the children in immigrant families have experienced at least one move in the past few years. For first-generation children, the move most likely relates to settlement in the Netherlands, but may include a move within the Netherlands as well. We also find that half the second generation in the groups from, for example, the Dominican Republic, the former Soviet Union and the Sudan have also moved in the past few years. Resettlement may have many disruptive effects, and the effects of moving within the country of settlement may be considerable in the lives and the well-being especially of children.

People in the second generation in the groups from the four main countries of origin – the Antilles and Aruba, Morocco, Suriname and Turkey – appear to enjoy higher socioeconomic status than their parents. Overall, unemployment is more significant among the parents of first-generation immigrants than among the parents of children in the second generation.

Progress in improving educational attainment among children in immigrant families is crucial. Educational achievement is a key variable in many socioeconomic outcomes, including labour market access, earnings capacity and the development of healthy life styles. A positive school environment helps children in immigrant families establish their identity, self-confidence and social networks. School provides a regular meeting place for children of different backgrounds. This is important for the well-being of these children, but also for the cohesion of Dutch society.

References

- Abram, I. and J. Wesly (2006), 'Elkaar leren kennen = Leren van elkaar: Eigen identiteit en interculturele dialoog' ('Knowing Me Knowing You: Identity and Intercultural Dialogue'), Rotterdam and Utrecht: Ger Guijs.
- Ament, P. and W. Kessels (2008), 'Regionaal inkomensonderzoek: Uitgebreide onderzoeksbeschrijving', Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Andriessen, I. (2006), 'Socio-Cultural Factors and School Engagement', dissertation, University of Utrecht, Utrecht.
- Bakker, J., E. Denessen, B. Pelzer, M. Veneman and S. Langeweg (2007), 'De houding jegens klasgenoten: Etnisch gekleurd? Een onderzoek naar factoren van invloed op de attitude van basisschoolleerlingen jegens klasgenoten van verschillende etnische herkomst', paper presented at the 'Onderwijs Research Dagen', Groningen, the Netherlands, 6–8 June.
- Batenburg, A. van, N. S. Dokter and B. F. Mulder (2006), 'Leerplichtige leerlingen zonder onderwijs', BOPO project 413–04–006, Groningen Institute for Educational Research, University of Groningen, Groningen, the Netherlands.
- Beekhoven, S. and J. Dagevos (2005), 'Sociaal-culturele integratie', pp. 107–131 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office, Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands, *Jaarrapport integratie 2005*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Bolt, G. and R. van Kempen (2002), 'Wonen in multiculturele steden', Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment, The Hague.
- Boogaard, M., R. Damhuis, K. de Glopper and H. van den Bergh (1990), *De Nederlandse taalvaardigheid van allochtone en Nederlandse kleuters*, Amsterdam: Swets en Zeitlinger.
- Bosker, R. J. and J. L. de Jong-Heeringa (2006), 'Leeropbrengsten van Scholen', Groningen Institute for Educational Research, University of Groningen, Groningen, the Netherlands.
- Boudry, C. and M. Vandenbroeck (2001), *Spiegeltje, spiegeltje: Een werkboek voor de kinderopvang over identiteit en respect*, Amsterdam: SWP Publishers.
- Broek, A. van den and J. de Haan (2006), 'Digitale contacten en integratie van allochtone jongeren', pp. 83–106 in J. de Haan and C. van 't Hof (eds), *Jaarboek ICT en samenleving 2006: De digitale generatie*, Amsterdam: Boom.
- Bronneman-Helmerts, H. M. and C. G. J. Taes (1999), *Scholen onder druk: Op zoek naar de taak van de school in een veranderende samenleving*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Brouwer, L. (2001), 'Moslimjongeren en internet: Een verkenning', *Begrip Moslims Christenen*, no. 27, vol. 2, pp. 56–61.
- Bruin, J. T. de (2005), *Multicultureel drama? Populair Nederlands televisiedrama, jeugd en etniciteit* ('Multicultural Drama? Dutch Popular Television Drama, Youth and Ethnicity'), Amsterdam: Otto Cramwinckel Uitgever.
- Buijs, F. J., F. Demant and A. Hamdy (2006), *Strijders van eigen bodem: Radicale en democratische moslims in Nederland*, Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.

- Chan, C. W., H. Idema, H. Keesmaat and A. Kasem (2006), 'De positie van allochtone leerlingen bij de van overstap basis- naar voortgezet onderwijs', Van de Bunt, Amsterdam.
- Crul, M. (2000), *De sleutel tot succes: Over hulp, keuzes en kansen in de schoolloopbanen van Turkse en Marokkaanse jongeren van de tweede generatie*, Amsterdam: Het Spinhuis.
- Crul, M. and L. Heering (eds) (2008), *The Position of the Turkish and Moroccan Second Generation in Amsterdam and Rotterdam: The TIES Study in the Netherlands*, Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Daal, H. J. van (2006), *Kleur in sport: Op zoek naar goede praktijken in multiculturele sportverenigingen*, Utrecht: Verweij Jonker Instituut.
- Dagevos, J. and M. Gijsberts (eds) (2007), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- d'Haenens, L., C. van Summeren, F. Saeys and J. Koeman (2004), *Integratie of identiteit? Mediamenu's van Turkse en Marokkaanse jongeren*, Amsterdam: Boom.
- Dibbits, H. (2006), 'Marokkaans-Nederlandse jongens en de authenticering van hun kledingstijlen', *Migrantenstudies*, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 86–107.
- Distelbrink, M. (2000), *Opvoeden zonder man: Opvoeding en ontwikkeling in Creools-Surinaamse een-en tweewoudergezinnen in Nederland*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Distelbrink, M., P. Geense and T. Pels (2005), *Diversiteit in Vaderschap: Chinese, Creools-Suinaamse en Marokkaanse vaders in Nederland*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Distelbrink, M. and E. Hooghiemstra (2005), *Allochtone gezinnen: Feiten en cijfers*, The Hague: Nederlandse Gezinsraad.
- Distelbrink, M. and S. Loozen (2005), 'Jonge Turken en Marokkanen over gezin en taakverdeling', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 3/05, pp. 77–82, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Djohani, F. (1994), 'Kinderen wapenen tegen discriminatie', pp. 32–43 in F. Djohani, F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- Djohani, F., F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds) (1994), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- Driessen, G. (2001), 'Islamitisch basisonderwijs: Een route naar succes?', pp. 73–91 in W. Meijnen, J. C. C. Rupp and T. Veld (eds), *Succesvolle allochtone leerlingen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Driessen, G. and J. Doesborgh (2003), 'Voor- en vroegschoolse educatie en cognitieve en niet-cognitieve competenties van jonge kinderen', Instituut voor Toegepaste Sociale Wetenschappen, Nijmegen, the Netherlands.
- Driessen, G., J. Doesborgh, G. Ledoux, I. van der Veen and M. Vergeer (2003), 'Sociale integratie in het primair onderwijs', SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut, Amsterdam; Institute for Applied Social Sciences, Nijmegen, the Netherlands.
- Eerste Kamer der Staten-Generaal (2004), 'Verslag van de vaste commissie voor onderwijs, vergaderjaar 2003–2004', no. 29 019, B, Sdu Uitgevers, The Hague.
- Emmelot, Y. and E. van Schooten (2003), 'Onderwijs Nederlands voor anderstalige leerlingen op de basisschool', pp. 161–173 in W. Meijnen (ed.), *Onderwijsachterstanden in basisscholen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.

- Emmelot, Y. and E. van Schooten (2006), 'Effectieve maatregelen ter bestrijding van taalachterstanden in het primair onderwijs', SCO Rapport, no. 763, SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut, Amsterdam.
- Emmelot, Y., E. van Schooten and Y. Timman (2000), 'Wat weten we? Een literatuurstudie naar empirisch onderzoek gericht op het onderwijs Nederlands als tweede taal in het basisonderwijs', SCO Rapport, no. 574, SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut, Amsterdam.
- Emmelot, Y., E. van Schooten, Y. Timman, M. Verhallen and S. Verhallen (2001), 'Nieuwe kansen voor taalonderwijs aan anderstaligen', WRR Werkdocument, no. W124, Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid, The Hague.
- EMN (European Migration Network) (2006), 'Annual Policy Report 2005', European Migration Network, <<http://emn.sarenet.es/html/index.html>>
- Erf, R. van der, L. Heering and E. Spaan (2006), 'Country Report: Netherlands', pp. 553–564 in M. Poulain, N. Perrin and A. Singleton (eds), *THESIM: Towards Harmonised European Statistics on International Migration*, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium: Presses universitaires de Louvain.
- Extra, G., R. Aarts, T. van der Avoird, P. Broeder and K. Yağmur (2002), *De andere talen van Nederland: Thuis en op school*, Bussem, the Netherlands: Uitgeverij Coutinho.
- Frenken, F. (2004), 'Een op de negen jongeren is te dik', Webmagazine, 6 December, Statistics Netherlands, <<http://www.cbs.nl/nl-NL/menu/themas/gezondheid-welzijn/publicaties/artikelen/archief/2004/2004-1590-wm.htm>>
- Garssen, J. (2004), 'Tierner moeder: Recente trends en mogelijke verklaringen', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 1/04, pp. 13–22, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Garssen, J. (2007), 'De Nederlandse demografie in zeven tegenstellingen', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 4/07, pp. 13–18, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Garssen, J. and J. Hoogenboezem (2007), 'Zelfdoding in Nederland: Een statistisch overzicht', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 4/07, pp. 73–83, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Garssen, J. and A. van der Meulen (2007), 'Overlijdensrisico's naar herkomstgroep: Daling en afnemende verschillen', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 4/07, pp. 56–72, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Geense, P. and T. Pels (1998), *Opvoeding in Chinese gezinnen in Nederland: Een praktische benadering*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Gijsberts, M. (2003), 'Minderheden in het basisonderwijs', pp. 63–107 in J. Dagevos, M. Gijsberts and C. van Praag (eds), *Rapportage minderheden 2003: Onderwijs, arbeid en sociaal-culturele integratie*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gijsberts, M. and J. Dagevos (2005a), *Uit elkaars buurt: De invloed van etnische concentratie op integratie en beeldvorming*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gijsberts, M. and J. Dagevos (2005b), 'Positie van allochtone vrouwen', pp. 166–188 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office, Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands, *Jaarrapport integratie 2005*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gijsberts, M. and M. Hartgers (2005), 'Minderheden in het onderwijs', pp. 57–80 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office,

- Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands, *Jaarrapport integratie 2005*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gijsberts, M. and L. Herweijer (2007a), ‘Allochtone leerlingen in het onderwijs’, pp. 102–130 in J. Dagevos and M. Gijsberts (eds), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gijsberts, M. and L. Herweijer (2007b), ‘Bijlage bij hoofdstuk 5: Allochtone leerlingen in het onderwijs’, attachment to J. Dagevos and M. Gijsberts (eds), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Gramberg, P. and G. Ledoux (2005), ‘Bestrijden van schoolsegregatie: dringend nodig, zinloos of onhaalbaar?’, pp. 17–31 in P. Brassé and H. Krijnen (eds), *Gescheiden of gemengd? Een verkenning van etnische concentratie op school en in de wijk*, Rotterdam and Utrecht: Ger Guijs.
- Haan, D. de (1994), ‘Intercultureel werken aan de taalontwikkeling’, pp. 79–104 in F. Djohani, F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- Hagoort, K., and M. Goedhuys (2008), ‘Children in Migrant Families 2006’, Paper, no. 8001, Centre of Policy Related Statistics, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Heelsum, A. van (2005), ‘Afrikanen in Nederland’, *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 3/05, pp. 83–90, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Helvert, K. van and T. Vallen (2002), ‘Taal en (taal)onderwijs in Nederland als immigratiesamenleving: De WRR-visie gewogen’, *Migrantenstudies*, vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 115–122.
- Herweijer, L. (2003), ‘Voortgezet onderwijs, beroepsonderwijs en hoger onderwijs basisonderwijs’, pp. 111–142 in J. Dagevos, M. Gijsberts and C. van Praag (eds), *Rapportage minderheden 2003: Onderwijs, arbeid en sociaal-culturele integratie*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Herweijer, L. and R. Vogels (2004), *Ouders over opvoeding en onderwijs*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Hof, L. van ‘t and J. Dronkers (1992), *Onderwijsachterstanden van allochtonen: Klasse, gezin of cultuur*, Amsterdam: SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut.
- Hofman, W. H. A. (1993), *Effectief onderwijs aan allochtone leerlingen*, Delft, the Netherlands: Eburon.
- Holtmaat, H. M. T. (2002), ‘De meerwaarde van het VN-Vrouwenverdrag in de multiculturele samenleving’, pp. 130–143 in H. M. T. Holtmaat (ed.), *Een verdrag voor alle vrouwen: Verkenningen van de betekenis van het VN-Vrouwenverdrag voor de multiculturele samenleving*, The Hague: E-quality.
- Hubbard, F. (1994), ‘Inspelen op spelen bij peuters’, pp. 60–78 in F. Djohani, F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- IND (Immigration and Naturalization Service) (2006a), ‘Basisexamen, inburgering: Inburgeren in het buitenland’ (‘The Civic Integration Examination Abroad’), March, Immigratie- en Naturalisatiedienst, The Hague, <http://www.ind.nl/en/Images/bro_inburgering_tcm6-105967.pdf>

- IND (Immigration and Naturalization Service) (2006b), 'Residence in the Netherlands', May, Immigratie- en Naturalisatiedienst, The Hague, <http://www.ind.nl/en/Images/VIN_ENG_0806_tcm6-595.pdf>
- IND (Immigration and Naturalization Service) (2006c), 'Naturalisation', November, Immigratie- en Naturalisatiedienst, The Hague.
- IND (Immigration and Naturalization Service) (2007), '2007 Figures for Naturalization', Immigratie- en Naturalisatiedienst, The Hague, <http://www.ind.nl/en/Images/Naturalisatie%202007%20EN_tcm6-144651.pdf>
- Jadoe, V. W. V., R. Bakker, C. M. van Duijn, A. J. van der Heijden, J. Lindemans, J. P. Mackenbach, H. A. Moll et al. (2007), 'The Generation R Study Biobank: A Resource for Epidemiological Studies in Children and Their Parents', *European Journal of Epidemiology*, vol. 22, no. 12, pp. 917–923.
- Jennissen, R. P. W. and M. Blom (2007), 'Allochtone en autochtone verdachten van verschillende delicttypen nader bekeken', Cahier, no. 2007–4, Research and Documentation Centre, The Hague.
- Keulen, A. van (1994), 'Kinderopvang en interculturele opvoeding', pp. 105–113 in F. Djohani, F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- Keulen, A. van (1999), *Opvoedingsondersteuning aan vluchtelingen: Informatie voor beroepskrachten en vrijwilligers*, Utrecht: Nederlands Instituut voor Zorg en Welzijn.
- Keulen, A. van, A. van Beurden and W. Doeleman (2004), *Poppen zoals wij: Methodisch werken aan respect voor diversiteit met jonge kinderen*, Amsterdam: Uitgeverij SWP.
- Keune, C., N. Boonstra and A. Overgaag (2002), "*Mijn vrienden ken ik van de straat*": *Vrijtijdsbesteding van jonge Turken en Marokkanen in de openbare stedelijke ruimte*, Utrecht: Verwey-Jonker Instituut.
- Keuzenkamp, S. and A. Merens (2007), 'De positie van allochtone vrouwen en meisjes', pp. 249–281 in J. Dagevos and M. Gijsberts (eds), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Knecht–van Eekelen, A. de, E. Gille and P. van Rijn (2007), *Resultaten PISA 2006: Praktische kennis en vaardigheden van 15-jarigen*, Arnhem, the Netherlands: Cito.
- Kullberg, J. (2007), 'Fysieke en sociale kwaliteit van wonen in en buiten concentratiewijken', pp. 192–227 in J. Dagevos and M. Gijsberts (eds), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Lange, A. van and P. Jungbluth (1990), *Onderwijs kansen van migranten: De rol van sociaal-economische en culturele factoren*, Amsterdam: Swets en Zeitlinger.
- Latten, J. J. (2005), 'Zwanger van segregatie: Een toekomst van sociale en ruimtelijke segregatie?', Vossiuspers, Amsterdam University Press, Amsterdam.
- Ledoux, G., I. van der Veen, M. Vergeer, G. Driessen and J. Doesborgh (2003), 'Sociale integratie in het primair onderwijs: Resultaten van een onderzoek naar de invloed van het leerlingenpubliek van scholen op prestaties en welbevinden van kinderen', Institute for Applied Social Sciences, Nijmegen, the Netherlands; SCO-Kohnstamm Instituut, Amsterdam.

- Leeman, Y. and L. Veendrick (2001), 'De kleur van de school: Inleiding op een serie artikelen over etnische concentratie binnen het onderwijs', *Pedagogiek*, vol. 21, no. 3, pp. 259–273.
- Leij, A. van der, R. Rögels, H. Koomen and J. Bekkers (eds) (1991), *Turkse kinderen in onderwijs en opvoeding: Een interdisciplinaire dieptestudie naar meningen en ervaringen van Turkse basisschool kinderen, hun ouders en leerkrachten in een kleine stad*, Amsterdam: VU Uitgeverij.
- Leseman, P. P. M., M. E. Otter, H. Blok and P. Deckers (1998), 'Effecten van voor- en vroegschoolse educatieve centrumprogramma's: Een meta-analyse van studies gepubliceerd tussen 1985 en 1996', *Nederlands tijdschrift voor opvoeding en onderwijs*, vol. 14, no. 3, pp. 134–154.
- Lubbe, M. van der, N. Verhelst, T. Heuvelmans and G. Staphorsius (2005), *Verslag van een onderzoek naar de toelating van leerlingen in het voortgezet onderwijs*, Arnhem, the Netherlands: Cito.
- Meijnen, W. (2003a), 'Onderwijsachterstanden: een historische schets', pp. 9–30 in W. Meijnen (ed.), *Onderwijsachterstanden in basisscholen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Meijnen, W. (ed.) (2003b), *Onderwijsachterstanden in basisscholen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Meijnen, W., J. C. C. Rupp and T. Veld (eds), (2001) *Succesvolle allochtone leerlingen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Mulder, L. and D. Uerz (2002), 'In een vreemd land op school: De onderwijspositie van asielzoekerskinderen in het basis onderwijs in schooljaar 2000/2001', Instituut voor Toegepaste Sociale Wetenschappen, Nijmegen, the Netherlands.
- Nabben, T., Y. Berfin and D. J. Korf (2006), *Van Allah tot Prada: Identiteit, levensstijl en geloofsbeleving van jonge Marokkanen en Turken*, Rotterdam and Utrecht: Ger Guijs.
- Naber, P. (2004), 'Vriendschap en sociale cohesie: De rol van leeftijdgenoten in de opvoeding van jeugd', inaugural speech presented at the Hogeschool INHolland, The Hague, 17 March.
- Nicolaas, H. (2005), 'Meer allochtonen en minder autochtonen in de vier grote steden', *Demos*, vol. 21, no. 10, pp. 82–83.
- Nicolaas, H. and A. Sprangers (2007), 'Buitenlandse migratie in Nederland 1795–2006: De invloed op de bevolkingssamenstelling', *Bevolkingstrends*, no. 4/07, pp. 32–46, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Nijsten, C. (1998), *Opvoeding in Turkse gezinnen in Nederland*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Nijsten, C. (2000), 'Opvoedingsgedrag', pp. 56–87 in T. Pels (ed.), *Opvoeding en Integratie: Een vergelijkende studie van recente onderzoeken naar gezinsopvoeding en de pedagogische afstemming tussen gezin en school*, Jeugdonderzoek, no. 3, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Nijsten, C. and T. Pels (2000), 'Opvoedingsdoelen', pp. 33–49 in T. Pels (ed.), *Opvoeding en Integratie: Een vergelijkende studie van recente onderzoeken naar gezinsopvoeding en de pedagogische afstemming tussen gezin en school*, Jeugdonderzoek, no. 3, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Onderwijsinspectie (2007), 'Onder advisering in beeld', Inspectierapport, 20 October, Onderwijsinspectie, The Hague.

- Onderwijsraad (2003), *Spreidingsmaatregelen onder de loep*, The Hague: Education Council of the Netherlands.
- Onderwijsraad (2005), 'Bakens voor spreiding en integratie' ('Beacons for Dispersal and Integration'), Education Council of the Netherlands, The Hague.
- Oomens, S., G. Driessen and P. Scheepers (2003), 'De integratie van allochtone ouders en onderwijs prestaties van hun kinderen: Enkele allochtone groepen vergeleken', *Tijdschrift voor sociologie*, vol. 24, no. 4, pp. 289–313.
- Oudhof, C. (2006), 'Naast herkomstgroepering ook nationaliteit?', *Bevolkingstrends*, 2/06, pp. 63–71, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Pannebakker, M. (1994), 'Opvoedkingsondersteuning en multi-etnische netwerken', pp. 126–137 in F. Djohani, F. Faber, A. van Keulen and I. Out-Schillper (eds), *Kinderen kleuren de toekomst: Intercultureel opvoeden in theorie en praktijk*, Utrecht: De Tijdstroom.
- Pels, T. (1991), *Marokkaanse kleuters en hun culturele kapitaal: Opvoeden en leren in het gezin en op school*, Amsterdam: Swets en Zeitlinger.
- Pels, T. (ed.) (1994), *De ontwikkeling tot 12 jaar: Mogelijkheden voor interventie bij allochtone kinderen*, Leiden, the Netherlands: Pewa.
- Pels, T. (1998), *Opvoeding in Marokkaanse gezinnen in Nederland: De creatie van een nieuw bestaan*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Pels, T. (ed.) (2000), *Opvoeding en Integratie: Een vergelijkende studie van recente onderzoeken naar gezinsopvoeding en de pedagogische afstemming tussen gezin en school*, Jeugdonderzoek, no. 3, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Pels, T. (2003), 'Respect van twee kanten: Over socialisatie en lastig gedrag van Marokkaanse jongens', *Migrantenstudies*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 228–239.
- Pels, T. and C. Nijsten (2000), 'Jongeren over hun opvoeding', pp. 88–113 in T. Pels (ed.), *Opvoeding en Integratie: Een vergelijkende studie van recente onderzoeken naar gezinsopvoeding en de pedagogische afstemming tussen gezin en school*, Jeugdonderzoek, no. 3, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Phalet, K., C. van Lotringen and H. Entzinger (2000), *Islam in de multiculturele samenleving: Opvattingen van jongeren in Rotterdam*, Utrecht: European Research Centre on Migration and Ethnic Relations, Utrecht University.
- Phalet, K. and J. ter Wal (eds) (2004), *Moslim in Nederland: Religie en migratie; sociaal-wetenschappelijke databronnen en literatuur*, SCP Werkdocument, no. 106a, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Praag, C. van and J. Schoorl (2008), 'Housing and Segregation', pp. 49–62 in M. Crul and L. Heering (eds), *The Position of the Turkish and Moroccan Second Generation in Amsterdam and Rotterdam: The TIES Study in the Netherlands*, Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Reezigt, G. (2003), 'Voor- en Vroegschoolse educatie', pp. 79–96 in W. Meijnen (ed.), *Onderwijsachterstanden in basisscholen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Rietveld–van Wingerden, M., J. C. Sturm and S. Miedema (2003), 'Vrijheid van onderwijs en sociale cohesie in historisch perspectief', *Pedagogiek*, vol. 23, no. 2, pp. 97–108.
- Ruiter, D. de, W. de Graaf and R. Maier (2006), 'Contacten met allochtone ouders op zwarte basisscholen: De invloed van beeldvorming', *Migrantenstudies*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 116–132.

- Saharso, S. (1992), 'Jan en alleman: Etnische jeugd over etnische identiteit, discriminatie en vriendschap', PhD thesis, Jan van Arkel, Utrecht.
- Sansone, L. (1992), *Schitteren in de schaduw: Overlevingsstrategieën, subcultuur en etniciteit van Creoolse jongeren uit de lagere klasse in Amsterdam 1981–1990*, Amsterdam: Het Spinhuis.
- Scheffer, P. (2005), 'De vermijding voorbij: Acht stellingen over segregatie en integratie', pp. 51–90 in RMO, 'Over insluiting en vermijding: Twee essays over segregatie en integratie', Werkdocument, no. 6, De Raad voor Maatschappelijke Ontwikkeling, The Hague.
- Scheffer, P. (2006), 'De sputterende emancipatiemachine', *NRC Handelsblad*, 18 March, <<http://www.nrc.nl/opinie/article252233.ece>>
- SCP (Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office) (2006), 'Jaarboek ICT en samenleving 2006: De digitale generatie', SCP Persbericht, SCP, <<http://www.scp.nl/publicaties/persberichten/9085062144.shtml>>
- SCP (Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office) (2007), 'Poverty Monitor 2007: Summary', SCP, <<http://www.scp.nl/english/publications/summaries/9789037703375.html>>
- Sietaram, K. (1984), *Intercultureel onderwijs*, Culemborg, the Netherlands: Educaboek.
- Social Statistics Database (Sociaal Statistisch Bestand), Statistics Netherlands, <<http://www.cbs.nl/nl-NL/menu/informatie/onderzoekers/ssb/default.htm>>
- Spotti, M. (2007), *Developing Identities: Identity Construction in Multicultural Primary Classrooms in the Netherlands and Flanders*, Amsterdam: Aksant.
- Statistics Netherlands (2003), *Jeugd 2003, cijfers en feiten*, Voorburg, the Netherlands: Statistics Netherlands.
- Statistics Netherlands (2007a), 'Begrippen' ('Definitions'), Statistics Netherlands, <<http://www.cbs.nl/nl-NL/menu/methoden/begrippen/default.htm>>
- Statistics Netherlands (2007b), *Jaarboek onderwijs in cijfers 2008*, Voorburg, the Netherlands: Statistics Netherlands.
- Statistics Netherlands (2007c), *De Nederlands samenleving 2007*, Voorburg, the Netherlands: Statistics Netherlands.
- Statistics Netherlands (2007d), 'Kwartaalrapportage', *Jeugdmonitor*, no. 2/07, Statistics Netherlands, Voorburg, the Netherlands.
- Statistics Netherlands (2008), 'Kwartaalrapportage', *Jeugdmonitor*, no. 4/07, Voorburg, the Netherlands: Statistics Netherlands.
- StatLine Database, Statistics Netherlands, <<http://statline.cbs.nl/statweb/>>
- Teunissen, F. (ed.) (1997), 'Taalbeleid concreet: Nederlands als tweede taal en onderwijs in allochtone talen op multi-etnische scholen', KPC Groep, 's-Hertogenbosch, the Netherlands.
- Tillaart, H. van den, M. Olde Monnikhof, S. van den Berg and J. Warmerdam (2000), *Nieuwe etnische groepen in Nederland: Een onderzoek onder vluchtelingen en statushouders uit Afghanistan, Ethiopië en Eritrea, Iran, Somalië en Vietnam*, Ubbergen, the Netherlands: Uitgeverij Tandem Felix.
- Tillaart, H. van den and J. Warmerdam (2004), 'Arbeidsparticipatie en integratie van vluchtelingen', paper presented at the '11de Sociaal Wetenschappelijke Studiedagen', VU University, Amsterdam, 22–23 April.

- Tjin A Dje, K. (2001), 'De bijzondere opdracht van migrantenkinderen', pp. 133–144 in C. J. A. Roosen, A. Savenije, A. Kolman and R. Beunderman (eds), *Over een grens: Psychotherapie met adolescenten*, Assen, the Netherlands: Van Gorcum.
- Tubergen, T. van and M. Kalmijn (2002), 'Tweede taalverwerving en taalgebruik onder Turkse en Marokkaanse immigranten in Nederland: Investering of gelegenheid?', *Migrantenstudies*, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 156–177.
- Tuijl, C. van, P. P. M. Leseman and J. Rispens (2001), 'Efficacy of an Intensive Home-Based Educational Intervention Programme for 4- to 6-Year-Old Ethnic Minority Children in the Netherlands', *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 148–159.
- Tuijl, C. van and R. Siebes (2006), *Het rendement van opstap in de basisperiode: Een longitudinaal onderzoek naar effecten van een gezinsgericht stimuleringsprogramma bij Turkse en Marokkaanse gezinnen*, Utrecht: Nederlands Jeugd Instituut.
- Turkenburg, M. (2001), *Onderwijs in allochtone levende talen: Een verkenning in zeven gemeenten*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Turkenburg, M. (2002), *Taal lokaal: Gemeentelijk beleid onderwijs in allochtone levende talen (OALT)*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Turkenburg, M. (2003a), *Het gemeentelijk onderwijsachterstandenbeleid halverwege de eerste planperiode (1998–2002): Het beleidsproces in vijftien gemeenten*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Turkenburg, M. (2003b), 'Onderwijs in allochtone levende talen (OALT) voor leerlingen in het basisonderwijs', pp. 137–159 in W. Meijnen (ed.), *Onderwijsachterstanden in basisscholen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Turkenburg, M. and Gijsberts, M. (2007), 'Opleidingsniveau en beheersing van de Nederlandse taal', pp. 72–101 in J. Dagevos and M. Gijsberts (eds), *Jaarrapport integratie 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Valk, H. A. G. de, I. Esveldt, K. Henkens and A. C. Liefbroer (2001), 'Oude en nieuwe allochtonen in Nederland: Een demografisch profiel', WRR Werkdocument, no. W123, Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid, The Hague.
- Veen, I. van der (2001), 'Succesvolle Turkse, Marokkaanse en autochtone leerlingen in het voortgezet onderwijs', pp. 13–30 in W. Meijnen, J. C. C. Rupp and T. Veld (eds), *Succesvolle allochtone leerlingen*, Apeldoorn, the Netherlands: Garant.
- Verkuyten, M. (1988), 'Zelfbeleving en identiteit van jongeren uit etnische minderheden', PhD thesis, Erasmus University, Gouda Quint, Arnhem, the Netherlands.
- Verkuyten, M. (1992a), 'Ethnic Group Preferences and the Evaluation of Ethnic Identity among Adolescents in the Netherlands', *Journal of Psychology*, vol. 132, no. 6, pp. 741–750.
- Verkuyten, M. (1992b), *Zelfbeleving van jeugdige allochtonen: Een socio-psychologische benadering*, Amsterdam: Swets en Zeitlinger.
- Verkuyten, M. (1999), *Etnische identiteit: Theoretische en empirische benaderingen*, Amsterdam: Spinhuis.
- Verkuyten, M. (2005a), *The Social Psychology of Ethnic Identity*, London: Psychology Press.

- Verkuyten, M. (2005b), 'Ethnic Group Identification and Group Evaluation among Minority and Majority Groups: Testing the Multiculturalism Hypothesis', *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 88, no. 1, pp. 121–138.
- Verkuyten, M. (2006a), 'Opgroeien in etnisch-culturele diversiteit', University of Utrecht, Utrecht.
- Verkuyten, M. (2006b), 'Groepsidentificaties en intergroep relaties onder Turkse Nederlanders', *Mens en Maatschappij*, vol. 81, no. 1, pp. 64–84.
- Verkuyten, M. and P. Brug (2002), 'Ethnic Identity Achievement, Self-Esteem and Discrimination among Surinamese Adolescents in the Netherlands', *Journal of Black Psychology*, vol. 28, no. 2, pp. 122–141.
- Verkuyten, M. and B. Martinovic (2006), 'Understanding Multicultural Attitudes: The Role of Group Status, Identification, Friendships, and Justifying Ideologies', *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 1–18.
- Verkuyten, M. and J. Thijs (2000), 'Leren (en) waarderen: Discriminatie, zelfbeeld, relaties en leerprestaties in "witte" en "zwarte" basisschool', Report, Thela Thesis, Amsterdam.
- Vermeij, L. (2002), 'De sociale betekenis van straattaal: Interetnisch taalgebruik onder scholieren in Nederland', *Pedagogiek*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 260–273.
- Vermeulen, B. P. (2001), *Zwarte en witte scholen: Over spreidingsbeleid, keuzevrijheid en sociale cohesie*, The Hague: Elsevier bedrijfsinformatie.
- Vermeulen, H. (1984), *Etnische groepen en grenzen: Surinamers, Chinezen, Turken, Weesp, the Netherlands: Het Wereldvenster*.
- Vliet, H. N. van der, M. C. C. Wageveld and M. J. Garssen (2007), 'Trends in de positie van niet-westerse allochtonen', pp. 23–56 in R. P. W. Jennissen and J. Oudhof (eds), *Ontwikkelingen in de maatschappelijke participatie van allochtonen*, The Hague: Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands.
- Volkers, A., A. Bus and E. Uiters (2007), 'Zorggebruik in de huisartspraktijk', pp. 115–145 in R. P. W. Jennissen and J. Oudhof (eds), *Ontwikkelingen in de maatschappelijke participatie van allochtonen*, The Hague: Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands.
- VROM (Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment) (2002), 'Woningbehoefte Onderzoek: Publicaties', Ministerie van Volkshuisvesting, Ruimtelijke Ordening en Milieubeheer, <<http://www.vrom.nl/pagina.html?id=9757>>
- VROM (Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment) (2007), *Integratienota 2007–2011: Zorg dat je er bij hoort*, The Hague: Ministerie van Volkshuisvesting, Ruimtelijke Ordening en Milieubeheer and Ministerie van Wonen, Wijken en Integratie.
- VROM (Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment) (2009), 'WoOn: Woononderzoek Nederland', Ministerie van Volkshuisvesting, Ruimtelijke Ordening en Milieubeheer, <<http://www.vrom.nl/pagina.html?id=19932>>
- Vrooman, C. and S. Hoff (eds) (2004), 'Non-Western Ethnic Minorities and Poverty', pp. 77–92 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office and Statistics Netherlands, *The Poor Side of the Netherlands: Results of the Dutch 'Poverty Monitor' 1997–2003*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office and Statistics Netherlands.

- Vrooman, C., S. Hoff, F. Otten and W. Bos (eds) (2007), *Armoedemonitor 2007*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office and Statistics Netherlands.
- Wijers, M. and E. Hooghiemstra (eds) (2005), ‘Allochtone gezinnen: Juridische positie’, *Signalement*, no. 3/B, Nederlandse Gezinsraad, The Hague.
- Willigen, L. van (2003), ‘Verslag van de quick scan “het kind en het asielbeleid” in de praktijk’, Advies Commissie voor vreemdelinge zaken, Amsterdam.
- Wittebrood, K., J. Latten and H. Nicolaas (2005), ‘Wonen, leefbaarheid en veiligheid in concentratiewijken’, pp. 132–147 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office, Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands, *Jaarrapport integratie 2005*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Wouw, B. A. J. van der (1994), *Schoolkeuze tussen wensen en realisering*, Ubbergen, the Netherlands: Uitgeverij Tandem Felix.
- WRR (Wetenschappelijke Raad voor het Regeringsbeleid) (2007), *Identificatie met Nederland*, Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.
- Zeijl, E., M. Crone, K. Wiefferink, S. Keuzenkamp and M. Reijneveld (2005), *Kinderen in Nederland*, SCP Publication, no. 2005/4, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.
- Zorlu, A. and T. Traag (2005), ‘Opleidingsniveau en taalvaardigheid’, pp. 44–56 in Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office, Research and Documentation Centre and Statistics Netherlands, *Jaarrapport integratie 2005*, The Hague: Netherlands Institute for Social Research–Social and Cultural Planning Office.