Summary

‘Status and progress’ of the Integration Monitor

In 2004 work started on the development of an Integration Monitor, in a collaborative effort between the Ministry of Justice’s Research and Documentation Centre (Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek- en Documentatiecentrum, or WODC) and Statistics Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek or CBS). NIVEL, the Netherlands Institute for Health Services Research, is now also participating in the project.

The Integration Monitor gives an overview of the position of ethnic minorities in different social areas, and of the developments in this position over time. To this effect information is obtained from, among other sources, the Social Statistics Files (Sociaal Statistisch Bestand, or SSB) maintained by the CBS, which contains information on all inhabitants of the Netherlands and which makes it possible to break down this information into different levels of detail, as opposed to only the four major ‘traditional’ origin groups. As such the SSB is an important tool for the monitoring function of the Integration Monitor and means that it contributes, together with information from other sources, to a better understanding of the way in which and the speed at which the different groups of persons of foreign origin succeed in making a place for themselves in Dutch society.

The information used for the third edition of the Integration Monitor (2006) has also played an important role in the current study. Compared to the first two editions (2004 & 2005), for the 2006 Integration Monitor - and therefore also for this publication - not only more recent information was used (normally about the situation in the year 2004) but a number of new integration indicators were also presented. New for this edition are:

- Cito test data;
- information about participation in secondary education and intermediate vocational education;
- drop-out rate of students in secondary education;
- the type of economic activities of companies where the members of the autochthonous Dutch population and people of foreign origin work;
- the proportion of people of foreign origin in schools and companies;
- information about the contacts members of the autochthonous Dutch population and persons of foreign origin have with GPs;
- the use of medication;¹
- information about the extent to which people who previously had an official report made against them by the police come into contact with the police again.

¹ This variable did not form part of the 2006 Integration Monitor yet. Because of technical circumstances information on this variable did not become available until after the report had been finalised.
As the Integration Monitor gains in maturity insights into the integration process increase. For this reason we felt it would be useful, backed up by three years of experience in creating such a monitor, to provide a more in-depth description and analysis of the status and progress of integration (processes) in the (third) edition of the Integration Monitor, something which we were previously unable to do partly due to time pressures.2

To be able to determine the level of integration of different groups of persons of foreign origin, concrete social areas have been distinguished in which the level of participation - and changes to this level - should be measurable. The labour market and education participation are generally regarded as the most relevant structural social domains in relation to the integration process. This also applies to housing (districts and neighbourhoods) and the use of (health)care facilities.

With regard to the socio-cultural and political domains, establishing and maintaining inter-ethnic social relations, having contacts in, for instance, the work environment, delinquent behaviour and the level of political participation may be considered as relevant for integration. This study deals with all these indicators, with the exception of political participation.

In this summary we have set out a number of important findings from the different domains on the basis of four types of resources, respectively the types of capital people have access to when structuring their lives: financial capital, human capital, social capital and cultural capital. These are important indicators of and driving factors behind integration. First, however, we look at a number of important demographic trends within the target groups of the integration policy this Integration Monitor mainly focuses on.

**Important demographic trends**

In the past ten years the number of people of non-western origin increased by 42%, whereas the number of people of western origin increased by 8%. At present the Netherlands houses nearly 3.2 million people of foreign origin, of whom 55% are of non-western origin. Turks, Surinamese, Moroccans and Antilleans are by far the largest non-western population groups.

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2 Because the Integration Monitor has to be available each year at the time of the Ministry of Justice’s budget justification, but the time was brought forward as a result of the government crisis, there was consequently less time for the analysis and production of the 2006 Integration Monitor.
The growth of the Dutch population has been slowing down every year since the turn of the millennium. This slower growth is mainly caused by the declining migration surplus (immigration minus emigration). Since 2003 the number of emigrants has exceeded the number of immigrants, which has created excess departure numbers.\(^3\) The natural growth (births minus deaths), although still positive, has also declined in the past five years, but not as strongly as the migration surplus.

Women of non-western origin generally have more children than autochthonous Dutch women, which means they exert an upward influence on the Dutch birth rate. The distance between non-western and autochthonous Dutch birth figures is getting smaller, but since the mid-1990s this process appears to be much slower than before.

As a result of the drop in immigration and the increase in emigration of people of non-western origin the growth in the non-western origin group has declined much more strongly than the growth of the autochthonous Dutch population. In 2005 and 2006 the number of first-generation people of non-western origin in the Netherlands actually decreased. The growth of the second generation is also slowing down but, because of a relatively high natural growth, is still considerably faster than that of the autochthonous Dutch population. The proportion of people of non-western origin in the population is therefore still growing and is now 10.5% for 2006.

The following trends are important with respect to the spread of the population.

People of non-western origin are traditionally strongly concentrated in the western part of the country, mainly in the big cities. One-third of the population of Amsterdam, Rotterdam and The Hague is of non-western origin, as opposed to one-tenth for the Netherlands as a whole. At a lower, regional level the differences in concentration are even greater. For instance, there are districts and neighbourhoods where the non-western population is greatly in the majority and districts and neighbourhoods in which virtually no people of non-western origin live. The increase in the concentration between 1999 and 2004 was higher than could have been expected on the basis of the national population growth alone.

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3 This is the migration surplus including the balance of administrative corrections. The balance of these administrative corrections relates mainly to persons who left the Netherlands without reporting this to their municipality. For this reason this figure is included in the balance and in the emigration figures.
Findings classified by resource

Chapter 1 explains that having ‘human capital’ is very important with a view to effective participation and integration in society. Education and obtaining qualifications are important indicators of the acquisition of this type of capital and, consequently, the ‘engines’ that drive integration.

The overall picture that emerges in chapter 3 from the performed analyses is that the performance of people of non-western origin is, on average, below that of the autochthonous Dutch population in all stages of education. For instance, we observed that, on average, students from non-western ethnic groups do not do as well in the school-leaving examination (the Cito test) than autochthonous Dutch students and that the performance of Turks and Moroccans is below the level of the other people of non-western origin. It has also been shown that students from non-western ethnic groups leave the education system early relatively more frequently than autochthonous Dutch students. However, girls of foreign origin perform better than boys of foreign origin when it comes to leaving the education system early and the educational level in intermediate vocational education. The percentage of people of non-western origin passing secondary education examinations is also behind that of the autochthonous Dutch populations and western ethnic groups.

Where we have access to trends over time it appears that the performance of people of non-western origin is getting more in line with those of the autochthonous Dutch population.

People of non-western origin are therefore less successful than people from the autochthonous Dutch population in utilising the opportunities Dutch society offers them for increasing their human capital.

Labour participation is not only an important producer of the capital good finances (particularly income) but is also an essential integration domain, like education.

Among other things, chapter 2 maps out the labour market participation of people from ethnic groups for three age groups: young people up to age 25, people aged 25-45 and persons aged 45 and over.

In all three of these age groups we see that at a socio-economic level people of non-western origin lag behind the autochthonous Dutch population. For all age groups the employment market participation of people of non-western origin is lower than that of the autochthonous Dutch population, while dependency on benefits is higher, although there are

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4 This applies to the examination pass percentages in secondary education and the influx and qualification in higher education.
some exceptions among smaller non-western population groups. Explanations for this situation may be found in the migration histories of people of non-western origin and a lower education level for most non-western population groups. People of non-western origin are therefore over-represented in lower-qualified and often physically demanding jobs. Especially among Turks and Moroccans this results in a relatively high level of occupational disability at a later age. The vulnerability of people of non-western origin in the employment market could also be seen during the economic slump at the start of this century. In this period the employment market participation of people of non-western origin up to age 45 decreased more strongly than that of the autochthonous Dutch population, and the dependency on benefits increased, the main reason being unemployment.

Despite this vulnerable position in the employment market, some positive developments can be seen over the years. For instance, in the years before the economic slump the benefits dependency among people of non-western origin decreased relatively strongly in all age groups, mainly as a result of a reduction in social security benefits. The proportion of social security benefits remained fairly stable during the economic slump.

In chapter 4 we track the employment market position of recent non-western ethnic immigrant groups to see how these immigrants got on in the employment market.

Of the male migrants aged 25-60 who entered the Netherlands in 2001 and stayed until at least September 2004, Moroccans had the highest number of employed among their ranks after one year (72%). They were closely followed by the Surinamese (70%), Antilleans (62%) and the Turks (62%). The Chinese (48% employed) lagged somewhat behind these figures. The recognised origin groups that have large numbers of refugees (Afghans, Iraqis and Somalis) have much lower employment percentages, in part because of their legal position and the immigration history of asylum migrants. The differences between the proportions of employed women and employed men in the Turkish, Moroccan, Afghan, Iraqi and Somali immigrant groups are relatively high.

Analyses evaluating the determining factors for the employment opportunities of recent immigrants show that for most immigrants, as for most other persons, there is little mobility between an employed and not-employed status. After corrections for a number of socio-demographic background variables, Surinamese and Antillean men are employed relatively often.
Iraqi and Somali immigrants are far behind these figures and Turks, Chinese and Afghans take up an intermediate position. Among Afghans, Iraqis and Somalis the women are employed notably less often than the men from these groups, irrespective of specific social characteristics. Analyses also show that the economic integration of recent newcomers is closely linked to their socio-cultural integration.

In chapter 1 we mentioned the factor social capital as a resource for people. In this study we have tried, in a number of ways, to get empirical insights into this type of capital. In view of the availability of data we had to use proxies. We did this, in the first place, for a number of places where people can amass social capital and can offer social capital to others. We looked at what opportunities there are for establishing contacts with the autochthonous Dutch population and, consequently the chances for the production and distribution of social capital in the workplace, in the neighbourhood, at school, and with the GP. Secondly, we have mapped out who marries whom. After all, marriage is aimed at realising a long-term (and institutionally structured) contract.

With regard to the workplace we saw that autochthonous Dutch employees work in companies with, on average, fewer colleagues of non-western origin than employees of foreign origin. Moroccans and Turks, especially, work in companies where the average proportion of colleagues of non-western origin is relatively high (nearly three times as high as among the autochthonous Dutch population).

Secondly, neighbourhoods. The percentage of persons who live in neighbourhoods where more than 50% of people are of non-western ethnic origin has increased more than the average for all the ethnic origin groups in the period 1999-2004. This indicates a decline in the opportunities for contact between people from ethnic groups and the autochthonous Dutch population in neighbourhoods. Because, compared to the Turks, Moroccans and Surinamese, many smaller origin groups live in neighbourhoods with a considerable proportion of autochthonous Dutch neighbours, the chances for social neighbourly contacts with the autochthonous Dutch population appear greater among the smaller groups than among the traditional origin groups.

Thirdly, schools. Autochthonous Dutch students have, on average, fewer fellow students of non-western origin than students of non-western origin. At nearly 50% the proportion of fellow students of non-western origin among Moroccan students is the highest of all origin groups. We also see that in the four major cities and in pre-vocational secondary education and professional education, the percentage of fellow students of non-west-
ern origin is the highest. In these cities this percentage is twice as high among students of non-western origin as among autochthonous Dutch students. In senior general secondary education and pre-university education the percentage of fellow students of non-western origin is the lowest of all school types, but here, too, the percentage for non-western students is approximately three times that of autochthonous Dutch students.

Fourthly, contacts with the GP. Analyses of data for 2003 indicate that, at first glance, there is little difference in the proportion of people of non-western origin and the autochthonous Dutch population up to age 55 who contact a GP (practice). Although the percentage of Turks contacting a GP was higher, those who contacted their GP at least once in 2003 did not have a higher number of contacts than people from the autochthonous Dutch population. Antilleans, in contrast, had fewer contacts with a GP. Nearly the same numbers of Surinamese and people from the autochthonous Dutch population contact their GP, but Surinamese do have a higher number of contacts than people from the autochthonous Dutch population. Some of these differences cannot be ascribed to the origin group, but to differences in the age and gender structure of the origin group and the socio-economic status. After corrections for demographic and socio-economic factors, comparable numbers of Turks and Moroccans and people from the autochthonous Dutch population had contacts with their GP, but seen from this perspective fewer people in the other origin groups had contacts with their GP. Incidentally, there are more differences between people from ethnic groups and the autochthonous Dutch population when it comes to use of medication, than for contact with the GP.

Finally, marriage. Entering into a – long-term – social contract like marriage is an important producer and distributor of social capital. It has been shown that, of the four large traditional origin groups, Turks and Moroccans in particular rarely marry a autochthonous Dutch partner. This applies both to the first and second generation. Between 1999 and 2002 the proportion of marriages with a autochthonous Dutch partner in the four major origin groups remains fairly constant. Over half of all marriages of Turks and Moroccans between 1999 and 2002 were migration marriages. This applies to both men and women. However, in the second generation this proportion is lower than in the first generation. Especially among Moroccans it appears there is a downward trend with a decrease of around 10% in 2002 compared to 2001. For all the smaller origin groups the rule applies that women bring over a partner from their country of origin less frequently than men.

5 More recent data is not yet available as of the start of 2007, or not linkable to the SSB.
The general picture that emerges is that, of all the origin groups residing in the Netherlands, Turks and Moroccans build up the least inter-ethnic social capital. The Surinamese and Antilleans do this to a greater extent. It is notable that most of the smaller origin groups generally appear to be more able to amass inter-ethnic social capital than the four major ‘traditional’ origin groups. The greater number of opportunities for individuals from the smaller origin groups to become part of an inter-ethnic network compared to the four major traditional origin groups is, for a large part, caused by their greater regional spread. As a result the smaller origin groups have a greater chance of contacts in their neighbourhood.

Finally, the fourth resource, the ‘cultural capital’. Not a lot of information can be found about this resource in this study, or in earlier versions of the Integration Monitor. Conceptually, the term ‘cultural capital’ refers to knowledge about norms, values, ethics and customs of the host society but also the norms, ethics and customs themselves and the ability to act accordingly.

Direct information about the acquisition of cultural capital by individuals from different original groups is unfortunately not available at an integral population level, let alone in a longitudinal perspective. The Integration Monitor does, however, look at the phenomenon of criminality. In this context criminality is considered an indicator of poor cultural integration. The basic thought behind this is that cultural integration results in a person complying with behavioural standards that are, in part, expressed in the legislation and regulations of the host society. Poor cultural integration, on the other hand, could result in delinquent behaviour.

The findings in chapter 7 show that people of non-western origin are over-represented in the registered criminality figures. Antilleans and Moroccans in particular are strongly over-represented in the suspect population. For youths (ages 12-18) from all ethnic origin groups first-generation youths are relatively more often suspected of committing a criminal offence. This also applies to Antilleans in older age categories. For Turks and Moroccans, however, the percentage of suspects in the older age categories is in fact higher in the second generation.

In all the recognised origin groups the percentage of suspects is highest among 18 to 25 year olds. When we make a more detailed breakdown of the number of offences by age we see that in all origin groups there is a peak in the number of offences (per 100 inhabitants) around age 18. The peak is highest among Moroccan youths. And although for most origin groups the number of offences (per 100 inhabitants) rapidly decreases as the age increases, among Antilleans this remains relatively high and only starts to decrease after the fortieth year.

We also looked at the recidivism at police level of suspects in 1999. It was checked whether, in the period 1999-2004, they came into contact with the police again (and were named as a suspect in a police report again).
and if so, how many times an official report was made against them on average. Sixtyfour percent of all 12 to 18 year olds and 49% of all 18 to 65 year olds reoffended in the period 1999-2004. Among 12 to 18 year olds the percentage of recidivists is highest among Moroccan youths. This also applies to the average number of times an official report was made against them in the period 1999-2004. Among adults the recidivism percentages of Antilleans and Moroccans do not differ greatly. However, the average number of times a person was named in a police report by the police is higher for Antilleans in the 18-65 age group.