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NETWORK ON ETHNICITY AND WOMEN SCIENTISTS

Work package 2

Deliverable 6: state of the art report – The Netherlands

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Introduction

In this report we present a concise outline of the historical context of black, migrant and refugee populations in the Netherlands. At the onset, it is pertinent to stress the significance of terminology within the scope of this report. It is common in the migration discourse¹ in the Netherlands that the supposedly innocuous binary terms “*allochtoon*” (meaning those who are from elsewhere) and “*autochtoon*” (those who are from here) are used in discussions concerning the Netherlands’s evolution into a multi-ethnic society. In addition, the term “*allochtoon*” is commonly delineated into and used as two categories “Western” and “non-Western”.² It is pertinent to call attention to the use of the terms “Western” and “non-Western”. These two categories are employed in accordance with the definition of “Western” and “non-Western” as stipulated by the *Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek* (hereafter CBS). Individuals with a least one parent coming from countries such as Turkey, Surinam, Morocco, Dutch Antilles, Aruba, or from Africa, Latin America and Asia are considered “non-Western”, whereas Japanese migrants and individuals of Indonesian and Indo-Dutch³ descent (often persons of “mixed-race” parentage) are categorized as “Western” immigrants. This points to a disparity in the legal and social status of these migrant groups. The terms “*allochtoon*”, “*autochtoon*”, “Western” and “non-Western” are all in need of deconstructive analysis, and pose questions regarding the cultural logic behind these notions and how they are employed within the migration discourse not only in the Netherlands, but in various other European countries as well.

Although these terms are intended to be “race-evasive”, they are nevertheless racializing, because individuals are categorized as “*allochtoon*”, e.g. Turkey, Morocco, Suriname and the Dutch Antilles based upon certain “elsewhere’s”⁴ (Wekker 2006:3). See appendix for list of countries delineated as “non-Western”. Moreover, within the scope of this report, the conceptual issues of “race” and ethnicity play significant roles and are interconnected. “Race”, is a social construction, which has been employed historically as a framework of ranked categories relegating human beings to superior and inferior positions, which followed the global expansion of European colonialism and imperialism (Sanjek 1996:1). The 168 countries specified as constituting “*allochtonen*” groups as determined by the *Wet Samen*⁵ and employed by Dutch *Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek*, are predominately nations, whose inhabitants are categorized as non-whites. (See list of countries categorized by the *WET SAMEN* in the appendix). Ethnicity, a multi-dimensional concept and term used to (although open to great debate and causes much confusion) indicate a social group’s sense of a shared history, identity, religion or geographical

¹ We employ the term discourse within this report as defined by Michel Foucault (1980) and Stuart Hall (1997), meaning that a discourse is a located, socio-historically configured body of knowledge, that defines and limits what can be stated and thought about a particular subject.

² The terms Western and non-Western appear within quotation marks in order to underline the fact that unequal systems of power define and ascribe meanings to these terms.

³ Within the scope of this report, persons of Indonesian and Indo-Dutch descent will not constitute part of the targeted populations to be discussed.

⁴ In the Netherlands, “elsewhere” and “*allochtoon*” applies even to those that have two parents born in the Netherlands if that individual has at least one grandparent, who was born outside of the country.

⁵ *Wet Samen* (Wet Stimulerende Arbeidsdeelname Minderheden). The *Wet Samen* was introduced in the Netherlands in 1998 as anti-discrimination regulations to eliminate discrimination based on “race” or ethnic origin in the Dutch employment market. The *Wet Samen* was repealed in 2003.

and cultural roots. Ethnicity and “race” are at times used interchangeably. According to the British Cultural Studies theorist Stuart Hall, ethnicity and “race” have often been treated as two separate entities when in fact there are two social categories etched into both sides of the same coin (Hall 2000:221-223). Use of the concept of ethnicity demonstrates an additional problematic, due to the fact that the concept is commonly ascribed and used to discuss individuals categorized (in this context) as non-white Europeans, thus creating the illusion that persons socially constructed as white-European, have no ethnicity. Throughout this report, we will treat Whiteness as a social construction. Moreover, we have chosen to refrain from using the terms “*allochtoon*” and “*autochtoon*” and will instead employ the terms black, migrant and refugee (hereafter **BMR**) white Dutch /native Dutch throughout this report.

Chapter 1 National Situation/Background

1.1 Concise Colonial and Migration History of the Netherlands

The Kingdom of the Netherlands has a current total population of 16,356,914⁶. 1,7 million of these inhabitants, or 10% of the total census figures, are of “non-Western” foreign descent i.e., meaning that at least one of these individuals’ parents was born outside the Netherlands in particularly selected countries. Prior to the 1960s, the Netherlands was mostly a country of emigration. However, the balance in regard to population movements has rapidly changed since the mid 1980s, and the Netherlands became a country where the balance shifted in favour of immigration. In brief, waves of migration to the Netherlands were brought about by political, economic, local and global developments, i.e. decolonisation (Indonesia 1949) and the economic boom of the 1950s till the late 1960s. The migrant “ethnoscape” (Appardurai 1995) of the Netherlands consists primarily of post-colonial migrants and labour migrants. Post-colonial migrants i.e., Indo-Dutch, Surinamese and Dutch Antilleans/Arubans were already in possession of Dutch citizenship upon their arrival in the Netherlands, whereas labour migrants, i.e. Turks and Moroccans would need to undergo naturalization procedures in order to obtain Dutch citizenship.

Since the target group of this report focuses on **BMR** female academics stemming from the four largest migrant groups in the Netherlands, we will omit Dutch nationals stemming from Indonesian/Indo-Dutch heritage from our analysis. However, in order to present a clear overview of the migrant landscape in the Netherlands, we will nevertheless include this population in our concise migration history. The four largest “non-Western” migrant groups in the Netherlands according to population numbers are: Turks, Surinamese, Moroccans and Dutch Antilleans/Arubans. The migrant trajectories of these groups can be summarized in the following manner:

1. Post-colonial migrants from Indonesia, who came to the Netherlands after World War II (1945), Suriname and the Dutch Antilles. Indonesia gained its independence in 1949 and Suriname in 1975. However, the six islands of the Dutch Antilles are currently still part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In the near future it is envisioned that some of the islands

⁶ Source: Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek Voorburg/Heerlen 2007-02-12.

comprising the island federation will become sovereign states and others will become Dutch municipalities (see socio-historical section on the Dutch Antilles and Aruba).

2. Recruitment of labour migrants from the circum-Mediterranean and Southern Europe. Guest workers from Turkey (1964) and Morocco (1969) were also among these groups, which were invited to live and work in the Netherlands due to the need for additional labourers brought about by the economic boom during the latter years of the 1960s.

Refugees and asylum seekers from various African and Asian nations during the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s.

In what follows, we will briefly point to the various patterns of migration and the trajectories of the four most numerous migrant groups in the Netherlands. The migrant groups are categorized according to their numbers:

Indonesia:

Indonesia, once the “jewel in the crown of the Netherlands”, according to common historical accounts, became an independent nation state in 1949. However, from the perspective of the formerly colonized nation, Indonesia’s first President, Soekarno, already proclaimed the nation’s independence as of 17 August 1945. While from the Dutch perspective, Indonesia’s independence was not acknowledged until four years later in 1949. During the post-independence period, approximately 25,000 individuals migrated annually to the Netherlands throughout the decade of the 1950s (Beers & Spranger 1993:11). Many of the individuals migrating to the Netherlands were of “mixed-race” descent (Indo-Dutch) and were considered repatriates instead of immigrants. Indonesians and Indo-Europeans are commonly viewed as “model migrants” meaning that they have been well integrated into Dutch society and are therefore, seen in terms of statistics and migrant policies, as “Western”. Within this context, the meaning of “well integrated” must be seen in comparison with the situation of all groups categorized as “*allochtone*” and how these groups, examined within the context of this research, have been integrated into mainstream Dutch society in relation to the labour market and higher education (tertiary level). According to figures published by the CBS⁷ (Netherlands Office of Statistics), approximately 399,000 persons of Indonesian-Dutch descent currently reside in the Netherlands.

Turkey

As a result of economic growth and structural labour shortages during the 1960s, the Dutch State signed labour recruitment agreements with Turkey in 1964. The first Turkish guest workers were predominately males, thus pointing to a gendered aspect regarding the migrant history of this immigrant community. The

⁷ Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (2006).

global oil crisis of 1973 resulted in dwindling economic growth in many Western European countries and initiated an abrupt stop of immigration to the Netherlands. Not only did approximately three out of every five Turkish migrants, who came to the Netherlands during the past 50 years remain, they also brought their families (CBS 19-07-2004). According to the CBS, there are currently 368,718 persons of Turkish descent residing in the Netherlands (see table 1).

Suriname:

In light of Suriname's independence in 1975, and the ensuing socio-economic and political upheaval, many Surinamese chose to migrate and establish themselves in the Netherlands. The Surinamese population is ethnically diverse and consists primarily of the descendants of enslaved West Africans, of East Indians and Indonesian (indentured labourers) and Chinese immigrants, whose labour was exploited for the Dutch colonial plantation economy. After independence in 1975 and up until 1980, Surinamese migrants had the right to obtain Dutch citizenship. Recent statistical data indicates that by 2004 approximately 325.000 individuals of Surinamese descent resided permanently the Netherlands. Those figures have increased somewhat and have been currently calculated at 333,478 (CBS 2006).

Morocco:

The Moroccan community has a similar trajectory to that of the Turkish community. Five years after labourers were recruited from Turkey, the Dutch State signed a similar agreement with Morocco in 1969. Nearly two out of every three male Moroccan migrants arriving in the Netherlands after 1969 remained. According to Entzinger (2002:27), between 1965 and 1973, 100,000 labour migrants from Turkey and Morocco had come to the Netherlands. By 1982 the combined population of these two groups amounted to 170, 000 (Ibid). This growth was linked to the reunification of Turkish and Moroccan families and also the tendency of many of the second generation to choose partners from their respective countries. The most recent data indicates that the current population of individuals of Moroccan descent totalled 329,634 (CBS 2006).

Dutch Antilles and Aruba:

The Islands of Curacao, Bonaire, St. Eustatius, Saba and St. Maarten form an autonomous part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In 1954 these islands were promoted from the status of colonial territories to that of associated states within the Kingdom of the Netherlands. In terms of numbers, persons of Dutch Antillean/Aruban descent comprise the smallest population of the four largest “non-Western” groups targeted in this research. Individuals with a Dutch Antillean/Aruban background totalled 129,590.

The island of Aruba constituted part of the Dutch Antilles until the signing of an official agreement in 1983. This official agreement granted the island “status apart” (separate status). The island of Aruba became a full-fledged sovereign member state of the Dutch Kingdom on January 1, 1986 (Rosheuvel 2005:307).

Referendums were held between 2000 and 2005 in order to determine the future status of the five-island federation. On October 12, 2006 a resolution was agreed upon with Saba, Bonaire and St. Eustatius, thus changing these islands into municipalities. November 3, 2006 Curacao and Sint Maarten became autonomous islands within the Dutch Kingdom. However, Curacao rejected this decision a few weeks later on November 28, 2006. On February 12, 2007 the Dutch government signed an agreement to disband the island federation by December 15, 2008. As part of the agreement, the Dutch government will pay off the two billion dollars in debt incurred by the Dutch Antilles.

Refugees and Asylum Seekers:

Due to socio-economic and political upheavals across the globe during the latter two decades of the twentieth century, statistics indicate a dramatic surge in refugees and asylum seekers. In 1980 nearly 1000 individuals sought asylum in the Netherlands. Fourteen years later (1994) these numbers rose to more than 50,000. Prior to this emigrational pattern, the majority of refugees entering into the Netherlands were primarily from neighbouring European countries (Garssen, Nicolaas & Spranger 2005 96-117). However, since the mid 1980s, an increasing number of refugees began arriving from countries, which had no previous migration history with the Netherlands, such as Iraq and Iran (Ibid). As a result thereof, stringent legislation by the Dutch government, and EU policies i.e. Schengen Agreement (1985) and Schengen Convention 1990 for the European Community were implemented in order to curtail the flow of migrants, who were now increasingly categorized as economic migrants instead as political refugees.

1.2 Migration and Gender in the Netherlands

According to CBS figures (SCP report 2006), approximately 830,000 females of “non-Western” backgrounds reside in the Netherlands. As stated earlier in this report, the ethnic diversity of Dutch society is attributed largely to various categories of migrants. Migration is a historical process characterized by its gendered nature and the hierarchical positioning that it entails.

Whereas immigrants from “Nederlands-Indie” (Netherlands Indies, the former Dutch-Indonesian colony) mainly involved families, migration from Turkey, Morocco and the circum-Mediterranean area during the 1960s and early 1970s, attracted mainly, but not exclusively, male labour recruits to the Netherlands. Female migrants were wives and daughters of labour migrants, who under the 1963 family reunion legislation attained the right to be reunited with their male family members. After labour recruitment was halted in the early 1970s, marriage or family reunification was one of the few legal means of entering Europe (Lutz 1997:103). Female migrants, who came independently to the Netherlands surely existed, however, the Dutch government did not recognize these women as autonomous individuals and issued residency permits solely in conjunction with the status of their male partners (Lutz 1997:102-104). These restraints did not apply to post-colonial migrants and therefore led to great differences in the migrant patterns between labour and post-colonial migrants (Ibid). Also of significance is the impact of Dutch State legislation, which often enforced gendered power relations within the migrant communities, and constrained dependent female migrants to a vulnerable and subordinate position. Thus, many **BMR** girls and women (with the exception of post-colonials) found themselves in economically and legally dependent conditions. Moreover, socio-cultural practices of each of the **BMR** groups had their own particular perspectives in regard to the education and work lives of women.

For example, during the 1970s and 1980s, truant officers were busy trying to convince some migrant parents to allow their daughters to attend school. Although this is no longer the case with school-age girls of migrant backgrounds, the truancy and dropout rate for many **BMR** youth still presents a serious problem (Gijsberts & Turkenburg 2006: 45). However, a current forthcoming study indicates that girls of **BMR** backgrounds are more likely to excel at the level of tertiary education than their male counterparts (Wolff 2007:84-85).

The Myth of Returning Migrants and Social Policies

The Netherlands long adhered to the standpoint that the influx of immigrants was a temporary situation and that these groups would one day return to their countries of origin. This resulted in the Dutch government failing to recognize the necessity of integration policies, to foresee the importance of socio-economic equality and access to higher education of **BMR** individuals, and to respond proactively (Turkenburg and Gijsberts 2006:39-40). During the 1980s, winds of political and social change swept through the country's landscape. The Minorities Report of 1983 advocated an ideology of equal opportunities, participation and advancement for ethnic minorities. The disadvantaged position of minorities in the areas of work, education and housing, which came to light in the report, had to be countered (Lucassen & Penninx, 1999:149). The WRR's (*Wetenschappelijke Raad voor her Regeringsbeleid*) 1989 Migrant policy report found that the situation of particularly “non-Western” migrants in the domain of labour and higher education demonstrated an alarming disparity. According to the report's findings, “the highest attained level of the major migrant groups is substantially lower than that of the general Dutch population”. At that time about 2% of the entire student population attending institutions of higher education were students of **BMR** origin (Herfs 2003:361).

1.3 Socio-demographic Profile

In the table below, we present an overview of the four largest “non-Western” resident migrant groups in the Netherlands based on their country of origin. In order to better assess the situation and participation of **BMR** women in the sciences, we begin by presenting a statistical profile of the largest resident migrant groups according to gender and generation. As indicated below, the groups are listed according to their population numbers. Here, it is also necessary to note that the term first generation refers to individuals and their parents, who were born outside the Netherlands. Second generation refers to persons born in the Netherlands with at least one parent born abroad. In addition, Dutch Antilleans/Arubans are categorized as migrants although they are Dutch nationals.

Table 1: Country of origin⁸ and gender.

Country of Origin	Total population in the Netherlands	First generation		Second generation	
		Females	Males	Females	Males
“Native”Dutch	13,184,447				
Total “non-Western”	1,722,500				
Turkey	368,718	94,265	101,003	83,937	89,513
Suriname	333,478	101,783	84,374	72,780	74,541
Morocco	329,634	78,652	89,447	79,556	81,979
Dutch Antilles and Aruba	129,590	40,330	38,353	25,124	25,783

Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen 2007-02-12

Table 2: Country of origin, age and gender:

Netherlands					Nationalities and migrant groups					
Dutch			Turkey		Suriname		Morocco		Dutch Antilles/Aruba	
Age groups	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
0-10	744,162	779,232	34,482	32,783	21,903	23,383	37,030	38,326	10,621	10,908
10-20	756,117	791,684	36,179	33,672	26,879	27,460	30,051	31,611	11,671	12,203
20-30	711,961	738,983	33,227	34,366	28,688	26,791	32,484	28,123	13,748	13,653
30-40	897,699	923,720	36,426	34,577	30,615	26,509	27,051	30,246	10,292	10,687
40-50	1,019,866	1,045,288	27,965	22,016	31,635	25,814	15,541	20,903	8,881	8,431
50-60	932,793	956,924	9,972	10,973	19,635	17,459	9,221	9,191	6,187	5,390
60-70	708,066	691,127	9,615	7,355	9,025	7,915	5,234	9,786	2,767	2,270

Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen 2007-02-12

Table 2 indicates that migrant populations in the Netherlands are relatively young and that the vast majority are under the age of 30. Males of migrant backgrounds outnumber their female counterparts in the age groups between 0-50. Thereafter, a noticeable shift occurs between the ages of 60 and 70, where female migrants except for the Moroccan community, outnumber males.

⁸ First and second generation applies only to migrant groups.

1.4 Labour Market and Levels of Education in the Netherlands

Employment

In this section we examine the position of females and males with **BMR** (“non-Western”) backgrounds in the Dutch labour market. Individuals with **BMR** backgrounds constitute **7,5 %** of the entire labour force in the Netherlands (Table 3). Of the four dominant BMR groups, we see that Surinamese and their descendants represent the largest group of “non-Western” employed labourers in the Dutch labour market.

Table 3 indicates the position of **BMR individuals (females and males) and their percentages in the labour market for the years 2002-2005.**

Country of Origin	Percentages in the labour market
“Native Dutch	83,5%
Turkish	1,5%
Surinamese	2,0%
Moroccan	1,1%
Dutch Antillean/Aruban	0,7%
Western “allochtone” ⁹	9,0%
Other “non-Westerners” ¹⁰	2,2%

Source: Langenberg& Lautenbach report based on data CBS- Socio-economic trends first quarter 2007

Unemployment

According to the CBS (Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek), unemployment for the year 2006 among “non-Western” BMR individuals was approximately **15,5%** (table 4).

Table 3bis indicates a slight decrease from (**16,4%**) in the unemployment rate among **BMR** persons in 2005. The “native” Dutch unemployment rate fell considerably lower from (**5.2%**) in 2005 to **4.3%** in 2006 (table 4). The CBS also states that persons with a “non-Western” migrant background in the Netherlands are three and a half times more likely to be unemployed (CBS press release PB07-005).

⁹ This group includes Indonesians (persons of Indo-Dutch heritage and Western Europeans, i.e. Germans, Belgians, Japanese, North Americans etc.

¹⁰ This includes individuals from Africa, Asia (exception Indonesia), Middle East and South America

3a Complementary source to table 3 indicating unemployment figures for 2006

9.12 Unemployment (unemployed labour force as a % of the labour force)

	1995	2000	2004	2005
Men	6.2	2.7	5.8	5.6
Women	11.1	5.4	7.4	7.7
15-24 yrs	13.2	6.7	13.5	13.1
25-34 yrs	8.2	3.3	6.0	5.8
35-44 yrs	7.9	3.5	5.8	5.9
45-54 yrs	6.1	3.3	5.0	5.1
55-64 yrs	4.2	3.0	4.9	5.8
Native Dutch	6.7	3.0	5.3	5.2
Western foreign background	11.0	5.1	8.4	9.1
Non-western background	26.3	11.0	16.1	16.4
Turkish	31.2	9.1	13.9	14.4
Moroccan	31.9	13.0	22.1	19.9
Surinamese	18.9	9.1	11.7	12.2
Antillean/Aruban	23.3	8.7	15.7	17.6
other non-western	31.6	13.9	18.5	19.1
Primary education	16.0	7.6	13.3	13.3
Junior secondary education	11.6	6.2	8.5	9.6
Junior vocational training	9.3	4.2	7.9	8.5
Senior secondary education	12.1	5.1	8.6	9.0
Senior vocational training	6.0	2.7	5.5	5.6
Higher professional education	5.8	2.8	4.2	3.8
University education	6.3	2.6	5.0	5.0
Total	8.1	3.8	6.5	6.5

Source CBS Yearbook 2006, p.89.

Table 4

Dutch Unemployment in %		2006
Native Dutch	Age 25-64	4,3
“Non-Westerners” (total groups)	Age 25-64	15,5
Turks	Age 25-64	14
Surinamese	Age 25-64	12
Moroccans	Age 25-64	17
Dutch Antilleans/Arubans	Age 25-64	18

Source: CBS Unemployment figures for 2006.

In terms of **Professional advancement** (Table 5), Surinamese and Dutch Antilleans/Arubans fare somewhat better than individuals of Turkish and Moroccan descent (Langenberg & Lauterbach 2006). For a detailed explanation of the Dutch education system, see Chapter 2 and diagram of Dutch education system on page 18-19. Table 5 also indicates that female as well as male Dutch Antilleans and Arubans, who have completed tertiary levels of education, demonstrate a tendency to excel over the other BMR groups. Dutch Antillean/Aruban females, holding tertiary level degrees appear to achieve positions in the labour markets that equal those of their “native Dutch counterparts. Percentages of **BMR** individuals practicing professions where lower levels of education (primary and secondary levels) are required can be ascertained from Table 5. As one follows the progression up the ladder of education, the disparity becomes even more apparent. On the level of elementary and higher professional education, migrant females and males lag far behind their “native” Dutch counterparts. However, table 5 also indicates that Surinamese, Turkish and Antillean/Aruban females do better than their male counterparts in the realm of academia. The exception here is with Moroccans, where both genders are on equal levels.

Table 5: Position in the labour market based on levels of education in %

Females	Elementary	Lower Professional	Middle Professional	Higher Professional	Academic
“Native“ Dutch	6	23	40	23	7
Turkish	31	28	30	9	2
Moroccan	27	39	30	10	3
Surinamese	11	29	38	17	5
Antilles/Aruba	12	27	36	18	7
Males	Elementary	Lower Professional	Middle Professional	Higher professional	Academic
“Native“ Dutch	6	23	39	23	10
Turkish	22	41	27	9	1
Moroccan	28	38	23	7	3
Surinamese	14	30	36	16	4
Antilles/Aruba	17	24	38	15	6

Source: CBS statistics 2006

In terms of education levels attained and unemployment, Table 6 indicates the significant disparity of **BMR** groups in comparison to the majority “native Dutch” population. Professional levels achieved by **BMR** groups in academia are considerably lower than the levels achieved by “native Dutch”.

From an intersectional perspective; meaning that importance is placed upon the reflection on how gender, ethnicity, “race”, class and other social categories co-construct each other; it becomes evident that **BMR** women in particular are confronted with the issues of gender and ethnicity/“race”, and are disproportionately concentrated within the areas of low- level functioning jobs in the labour market. Low-level is defined within this context as work conditions requiring minimal education, offering flexible contractual agreements, minimal, if any social security benefits and low wages (Lutz 1999).

Table 6: Working population by sex, origin and level of education 2006

Personal characteristics Females	% Gross labour¹¹ participation	Net labour¹² participation	Percentage unemployed
Educ. level: hbo ¹³ , wo bachelor	80.6	77.9	3.4
Educ. level: master, doctor	82.0	78.0	4.9
Educ. level unknown	44.8	35.9	19.9
“Native” Dutch	61,3	57.9	5.6
“Non-Western” ¹⁴ foreign background	45,9	37,8	17.8
Turks	37,4	29,7	20.6
Moroccans	29,4	22,8	22,6

Source: CBS statistics 2006

Personal characteristics Males	% Gross labour participation	Net labour participation	Percentage unemployed
Educ. level: hbo, wo bachelor	86,8	84,3	3,0
Educ. level: master, doctor	88,9	86,4	2,8
Educ. level unknown	71,7	65,8	8,2
“Native” Dutch	78,4	75,8	3,3
“Non-Western” ¹⁵ foreign background	64,3	55,4	13,9
Turks	65,0	57,2	12,1
Moroccans	62,6	53,3	14,9

Source: CBS statistics 2006

¹¹ Gross labour participation is expressed as a percentage of the potential labour force. This includes persons working at least twelve hours per week and anyone who has accepted employment for twelve hours per week. Individuals, who are available and prepared to actively look for employment are also include in this category (CBS: www.cbs.nl).

¹² Net labour participation refers to the employed labour force as part of the total population and includes only persons employed for a minimum of twelve hours per week. Person employed less than twelve hours per week are not included in the labour force statistics. (CBS: www.cbs.nl).

¹³ HBO- *Hogere Beroeps Opleiding* is a former of higher education, but not the equivalent of WO *Wetenschappelijke Opleiding*.

¹⁴ This includes individuals with Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban backgrounds.

¹⁵ This includes individuals with Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban backgrounds.

Chapter 2

2.1 Target Group

In the introduction to this research report and in Chapter 1, we presented a socio-historical and demographic overview of the four largest **BMR** groups in the Netherlands.

Within the scope of this report, we have chosen to employ the term **academic** in making reference to female persons with **BMR** backgrounds actively working in social and natural sciences and the humanities on the tertiary educational level of (universities) or research institutions solely in the Netherlands. The report excludes **BMR** female academics, who are employed in other EU countries, the United States or elsewhere. The situation of Dutch female academics counters the country's international reputation as a tolerant and progressive society. Although female students comprise 50% percent of the Dutch student population in the humanities and social sciences, women are still a minority in the disciplines of science and technology (Mottier 2002: 7). Moreover, women in general are very much under-represented in academic staff positions (Ibid). However, the majority of investigations, which examine the situation of female academics rarely takes into account differences amongst the female academic population i.e. ethnicity and "race". An attempt to answer one of our main research questions: Do female academics with minority backgrounds face more discrimination than their "native" white Dutch counterparts? demands a clear delineation of the designated minority groups. Migrants from Turkey, Suriname, Morocco, Dutch Antilles and Aruba constitute the majority of the many individuals, who migrated to the Netherlands during the latter part of the last century. Moreover, the aforementioned migrant groups constitute **10%** of the "non-Western" migrant population in the Netherlands. As of this writing, the descendents of these migrants now constitute a "third" generation of individuals, who have a migrant history. However, as the following Chapters will demonstrate, female academics with **BMR** backgrounds employed on the tertiary level within the Dutch university system, are few and far in between.

2.2 Levels of Education

Before proceeding further with the discussion of the situation of **BMR** women in academia in the Netherlands, it is important to first present an overview of the Dutch education system. The Dutch education system can be summarized in the following manner:

- Primary school
- Secondary school
- Post-secondary (non-tertiary level)
- Tertiary education

Education in the Netherlands is compulsory from 5-16 years of age. The secondary level in the Netherlands is highly competitive and consists mainly of three streams:

- Four year vocational training program leading to a VMBO¹⁶/MAVOP¹⁷ diploma
- General secondary education of five years duration leading to a HAVO¹⁸-diploma enabling direct admission to institutions of higher professional education (HBO) *Hoger Beroeps Opleiding*.
- Six years of pre-scientific education leading to a VWO¹⁹ diploma enabling one to qualify for admission to a Dutch university. Some disciplines e.g. medicine, require obligatory subjects such as physics, chemistry and biology.

See descriptive diagram below of the Dutch education system.

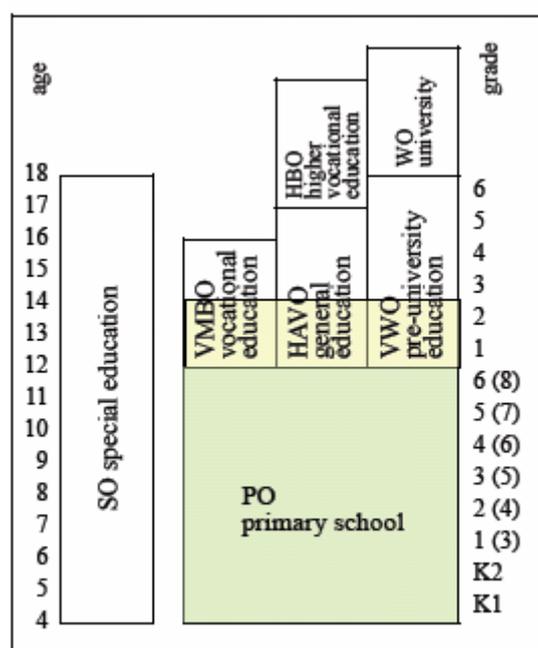


Diagram Source: ZDM²⁰ 2005 Vol. 37 (4) p.288.

Dutch higher education has a binary structure comprised of universities (WO) and institutions for higher vocational education (HBO). Within the scope of this report, we are examining the presence of BMR students at the (WO) and not (HBO) level

In looking at the geographical concentration of **BMR** groups in the four largest cities of the Netherlands: Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht, **BMR** students are over-represented in the streams of primary and secondary education, and under-represented in tertiary education.

As indicated below (Table 7), **BMR** students of both genders are very under-represented on the tertiary level in the Netherlands (Wekker 2007; ECHO 2004; Herfs

¹⁶ VMBO: preparatory vocational education.

¹⁷ MAVO: lower general secondary education. This level of education has in recent years merged with the level of VMBO.

¹⁸ HAVO: senior general secondary education

¹⁹ VWO; pre-university education.

²⁰ Zentralblatt fuer Didatik der Mathematik is one of the oldest mathematics education research journals, published in English, French and German.

2003; Obbink 2003). Langenberg & Lauterbach (2006) attribute this disparity to lower levels of education completed by **BMR** groups. It is important to understand the mechanisms that have contributed to the educational position of **BMR** students. As mentioned earlier, the reasons that many **BMR** students do not attain higher levels of education are complex, but not totally self-induced. Lower socio-economic positioning and obstacles also play a role in this phenomenon. In addition, recent media coverage (Algemeen Dagblad 21.2.07; Volkskrant 22.2.07; Trouw 23.2.07) in two of the Netherlands's most populous cities (Rotterdam and Amsterdam) illustrated the tendency for guidance counsellors to channel **BMR** students into the lower streams of education, i.e., vmbo (preparatory vocational) regardless of the fact that their Cito²¹ (national scholastic aptitude exams) scores made them eligible for HAVO (senior general secondary education). For example, **31 %** of “native Dutch students, who scored between 538-541 points on their Cito scores²² were advised to attend HAVO (senior general secondary education) and VWO(pre-university education), whereas only **22%** of Surinamese, **17%** Antillean/Aruban, and **19%** Moroccan and Turkish (combined) schoolmates were given similar advice. However, in a recent Dutch newspaper article of *de Volkskrant* (14.3.07) attention was drawn to the fact that not only have **BMR** students been “under-advised”, but they have also been “over-advised”, meaning that despite their lower Cito scores, some **BMR** students have been admitted to the HAVO level. The occurrence of scholastic guidance, which does not correctly correspond to the student's scholastic aptitude and ability, might possibly be a contributing factor (in depth research of this cannot be undertaken within the scope of this report) to the educational disparity between **BMR** students and their native Dutch counterparts. However, the recent *de Volkskrant* article does confirm that the occurrence of “under”- as well as “over” advising supports the conclusion that a large discrepancy exists between the scholastic guidance received by “native” Dutch students and **BMR** students (*de Volkskrant* 13.3.07)

Table 7

Distribution of “native” white Dutch and ethnic minority students in the four big cities			
Level of education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
“Native” Dutch	25%	50%	94%
Ethnic minorities	70%	45%	6%

Source: Tupan 2006, based on CBS data

The mere **6%** (see table 7) of **BMR** students on the tertiary level within the four largest cities (Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht) is commonly attributed to their lack of motivation, intellectual ability and knowledge, language deficit, and lack of parental support (Wekker 2007). Minimal thought is given to the socio-economic hurdles and positioning of **BMR** students, who in many cases do not begin their education from a position comparable with that of their “native” Dutch

²¹ Cito Centraal Instituut voor toestontwikkeling is based in the Netherlands and is one of the world's largest scholastic testing and assessment companies.

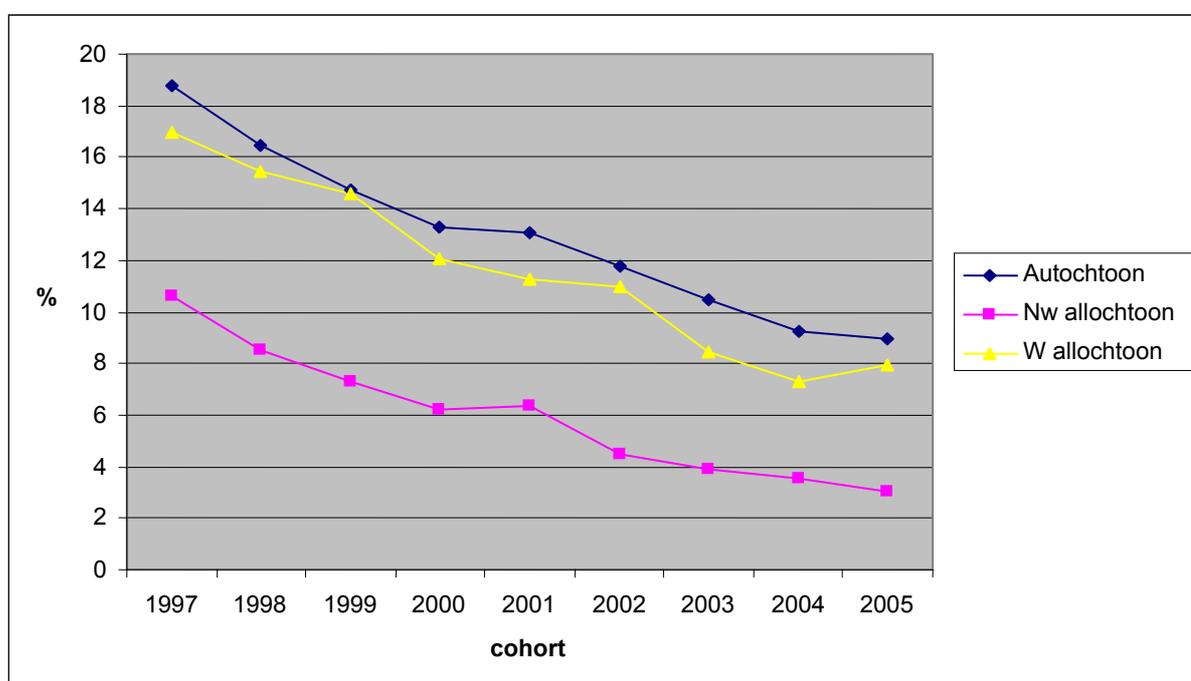
²² We were unable to gain exact information regarding the average medium of Cito scores in the Netherlands.

schoolmates. Table 7a highlights the proportion of the **BMR** groups (females and males) pursuing tertiary education. However, the percentages pertaining to “non-Westerners” do not indicate the percentages for students coming from each of the large **BMR** groups, i.e. **Turkey, Surinam, Morocco Dutch and Antilles/Aruba**).

Table 7a **Hbo- influx of students with pre-university education according to their origin (percentage of the total influx per group)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	19	16	15	13	13	12	10	9	9
Non- Westerners	11	9	7	6	6	4	4	4	3
Westerners	17	15	15	12	11	11	8	7	8

Figure of 7a **Hbo- influx of students with pre-university education according to their origin (percentage of the total influx per group)**



Source: IBG, Calculations: IMES

2.3 Women Academics at the National Level

Research (within our limited time frame) regarding the numbers of female academics stemming from **BMR** backgrounds proved somewhat difficult at the national level.

In fact, there are none. The response to our inquiries pointed to the fact that many of the Dutch universities that were contacted, do not categorize their academic personnel according to ethnic or “racial” backgrounds, thus making it nearly impossible for us to ascertain exactly how many **BMR** female as well as male academics are employed by Dutch universities. Prior to 2002, only two studies had been conducted, which examined the situation and representation of **BMR** personnel employed by Dutch universities. The first study was conducted by Abell and Menara (1986) and looked at the position of ethnic minorities (**BMR**) (females and males) employed by the University of Amsterdam. Based on the analysis of 5,500 personnel dossiers, the researchers concluded that individuals stemming from **BMR** backgrounds constituted

a mere 1,6 % of the entire university staff, while constituting 14,2% of the population in the city of Amsterdam (Abell&Menara 1986). In comparison with “native” Dutch personnel, persons of Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban descent were often over-represented in technical and administrative positions, but under-represented on the academic level. Abel & Menara concluded that the under-representation of **BMR** individuals attaining high positions in academia was not solely attributable to low academic attainment, but also to the low influx of **BMR** students on the university level. The second study by Bosch, Hoving and Wekker (1999), sponsored by the AWT (Adviesraad voor Wetenschap en Technologie) examined specifically the situation of female academics and minority groups within Dutch universities. In this particular report, the question of gender was given priority over the question of ethnicity (Crul et al. 2002:6). Bosch, Hoving and Wekker concluded that there was not only a low influx of **BMR** students, but also a low influx of **BMR** female PhDs into the higher levels of the academic echelon. (Bosch et al. 1999:25). According to the Bosch et al. study, the core of the problem regarding **BMR** students is to be found with scientific research and education in the Netherlands.

Three years later the research report “*Kleurrijk Talent*” (Crul et al. 2002: 5) examined the situation of **BMR** P&O²³ staff at five universities: Amsterdam (UvA), Utrecht, Twente, Tilburg and Rotterdam. Based on electronic surveys, literature and conversations with P&O staff at these universities, Crul et al were able to conclude the following:

1. The highest academic positions (Full, Associate and Assistant Professor) were primarily held by “native” Dutch individuals. The numbers of AIO²⁴, OIO²⁵ (PhD students) and Post-Docs with **BMR** backgrounds are just beginning to increase,
2. “Native” Dutch academic personnel more often hold permanent positions than their **BMR** counterparts,

“native” Dutch academics mostly work part-time. The authors of *Kleurrijk Talent* do not indicate why many “native Dutch academics hold part-time positions.

In 2002 the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO) launched an investigation into the possible reasons for the under-representation of **BMR** academics employed by Dutch universities. The survey’s findings showed that almost none of the universities academic staff was comprised of the Netherlands main migrant communities i.e. Turkish, Moroccan, Surinamese and Antillean. Although the current accessibility of **BMR** individuals to higher education in the Netherlands has somewhat improved, **BMR** students and academics still remain during the first decade of the twenty-first century disproportionately under-represented in higher education (Wekker 2006; ECHO report 2003; HOOP²⁶ 2000).

In examining the presence of **BMR** academics in the above-listed universities, our inquiries discovered a total of nineteen (19) women with **BMR** backgrounds

²³ P&O Dutch abbreviation for personeel en organisatie (personnel and organisation).

²⁴ AIO Dutch acronym for Assistant in Opleiding

²⁵ OIO Dutch acronym for Onderzoeker in Opleiding

²⁶ HOOP: Hoger onderwijs en onderzoeksplan (Higher education and research plan) Report 2000.

employed as either lecturers, PhDs, Associate, Assistant or Full Professors by the Dutch academy. We looked at the overall presence of **BMR** women in academia in comparison to their white “native Dutch female colleagues in the Netherlands and found an alarming disparity. In a previous Chapter (3), we presented table 15, which illustrated the entire academic female and male staff currently employed in the Netherlands. According to the total figures indicated in table 15, the Dutch female staff totalled **6,973**. This means that **BMR** women (according to our sources) account for less than **1% (0.027246%)** of the entire female Dutch academic staff. The representation of **BMR** in academia in The Netherlands is indeed sparse. The Professorship appointments granted to **BMR** have occurred due to the creation of special or exterior chairs for specific disciplines. Special chairs have been created in order to study specific issues or problems. It is often the case that these positions are often part-time (one day per week) and have a somewhat lower status (luckily this appears to be changing) than structural chairs (Essed & Nimako 2006: 295).

Looking from an intersectional theory perspective, (in regard to gender and ethnicity) at the position of **BMR** students and academic personnel, we have seen that an over all increase (52%) of female Dutch students. However, these numbers dwindle as we proceed up the educational ladder. While incentive measures and policies (i.e. ASPASIA) have contributed to an increase of female Full Professors, the available data does not indicate how many of these female Full Professors stem from **BMR** backgrounds. The collection of existing data points to a dominant and far too common mode of thinking related to the gathering of data. Data is often separated and analysed along the categories of gender and ethnicity, while the intersections of these social axes remains largely ignored (Wekker: forthcoming 2007). The compilation of this data concerning the actual numbers of **BMR** female Professors currently employed by Dutch universities came to us via the “snow ball” method. The “snow ball” method is an informal social science research method used for gathering data on hard to reach target groups/populations. Many of the **BMR** high rank women informed us concerning the academic disciplines and whereabouts of their **BMR** female colleagues.

2.4 The Local Level: University of Utrecht

Until now, the study *Miskend Talent* (Disregarded /Unrecognised Talent) has been the sole study to closely examine the under-representation of **BMR** staff members at a Dutch university. Under the guidance of Prof. Frank Bovenkerk,²⁷ two Anthropology students Droogh and van Liemt (2003) gathered and analysed empirical data regarding the situation of **BMR** academic staff and administrative personnel at Utrecht University. The researchers were able to partially identify the **BMR** university staff members via data which was provided by the university. However, much of the data provided by Utrecht University for this study proved to be incomplete. Therefore, the researchers were obliged to compile a research method entailing three possibilities:

1. informants known via personel contact
2. computerized survey,

²⁷ Prof. Frank Bovenkerk was the first Dutch scholar to publish about institutional discrimination in the Netherlands. Bovenkerk drew scholarly as well as media attention during the late 1970s due to the social experiments he conducted, which illustrated the existence of discrimination in various sectors of Dutch society. (Essed & Nimako 2006:290).

3. combination of both methods 1 and 2.

The results of the *Miskend Talent* (English: Disregarded/ Unrecognized Talent) pointed to an indisputable under-representation of **BMR** individuals holding high positions at Utrecht University. The results rendered the following: of the **339** Full Professors (*Hoogleraren*), only one (**1**) is of **BMR** origin (Ibid). Among the **400** Associate Professors (UHD) at Utrecht University, none are of **BMR** origin. Of the **1016** lecturers (*universitaire docenten*) only six (**6**) stemmed from **BMR** backgrounds (Ibid). The numbers of academic assistants (AIO: *assistant in opleiding*) painted an even more dismal picture. Of the **708** AIOs, only three (**3**) were of **BMR** origin. Under the ranks of the remaining **554** academic personnel, two (**2**) persons had a **BMR** personal history. In total, twelve (**12**) individuals with a **BMR** background were employed by Utrecht University. In terms of percentages, from the entire Utrecht academic staff (**3,017**), a mere **0,4%** are of **BMR** origin. The only areas where **BMR** individuals are more often found are within the areas of lower-level employment (Ibid:72).

Chapter 3 Data and Statistics on Female Academics: The Position of BMR Women in Academia

3.1 Sources and Variables Available

The focus of our research is to investigate the effect of gender and ethnicity in regard to **BMR** women already situated in the academy and those hoping to attain such positions. In order to access the situation of **BMR** women in the academy, it is important to understand the existing social divisions and obstacles affecting girls and women in the Netherlands. Along with the social categories of gender and class, which unequally influence the positioning of women in general within Western societies; **BMR** girls and women, must contend not only with gender, but also simultaneously with the issue of belonging to historically racialized ethnic minorities. Lutz & Wekker (2001:25) state that it is often assumed that women from these groups fare rather well in terms of social equality in the Netherlands. However, the authors contest this mode of thinking and state that this assumption is far removed from reality, and that **BMR** women “do badly” in every day life. For example, in comparison to “native Dutch females, more Surinamese females are gainfully employed. However, these jobs are located at lower levels within the labour market, and pay low-wage salaries. The table (8) below indicates the levels of employment according to education levels of not only the four large migrant groups in the Netherlands, but other “non-Western” migrants groups as well.

3.2 Obstacles and limits

Here, we will look at the situation of and obstacles and limits faced by women in general in academia in the Netherlands. The later section will present an overview of the past and current situation of **BMR** girls and women in tertiary education and their positions within the upper ranks of the Dutch academy.

Not only was the image of the “ivory tower” prevalent regarding women academia, but the gendered network known as the “old boys club” also came into play. Prior to 1945, female full Professors were non-existent in the Netherlands (Bosch 2002: 483). During the decade of the 1970s, national policies were implemented as an attempt to minimize the gender gap in education (Herpen et al. SCP²⁸ report 2006).

The first actual draft of a policy for equal opportunities in education and research came about in 1979 (Mottier 2002:5). The 1979 policy entailed some one hundred measures for the purpose of attaining equality in various areas of Dutch society. Some of these measures addressed education (Ibid). With few women present in the upper echelons of academia, female academics, who could possibly assume a mentoring role, women advancing to high levels in academia were very few and far in between. Equal opportunity policies were implemented in 1979 to “emancipate” women.

The promotion of women in education and research was one of the aims of these policies. Prior to this period, levels of education achieved by “native Dutch women were generally lower than levels attained by “native” Dutch males. The introduction of Women’s Studies programs was seen as a means to foster commitment and

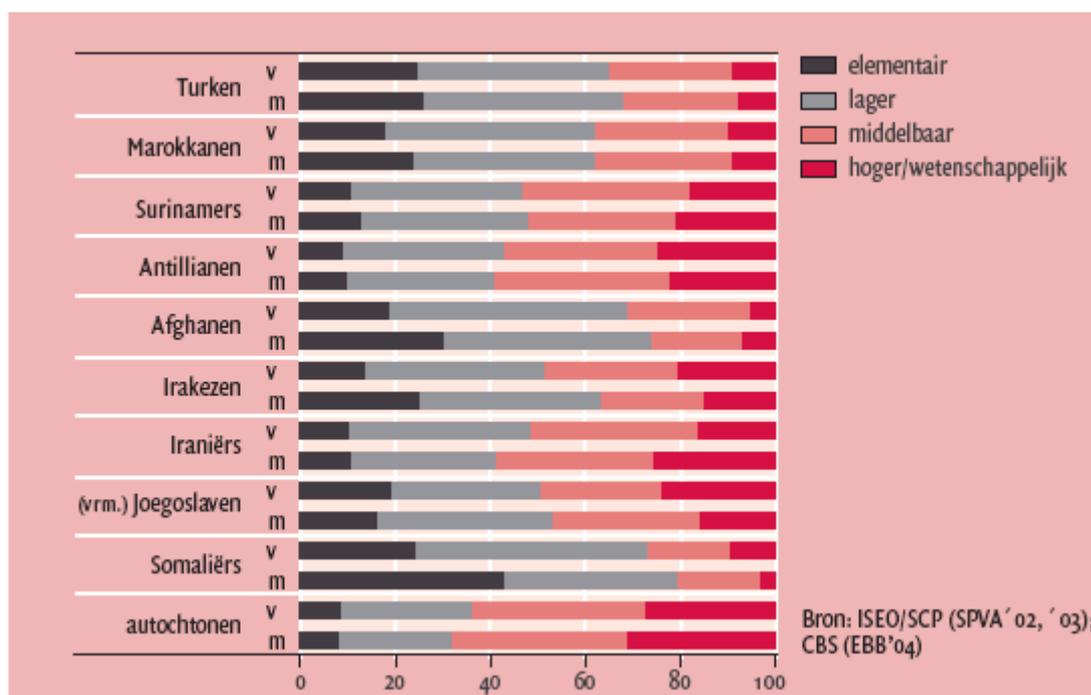
²⁸ Acronym : Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.

motivation among female students attending Dutch universities. The University Research Policy (1979) encouraged the entrance of women into the staff and advisory bodies for science policies. During the 1980s, Women's studies received special attention and this resulted in the appointment of several women to the position of Professor either specifically for Women's Studies, or they were integrated into other disciplines. The situation for Dutch female academics and researchers throughout the 1980s and 1990s continued to contradict the international reputation of the Netherlands as an equal and tolerant society. In addition, heavy budget cuts followed the preceding period of advancement where many women with lesser seniority found their faculty positions dissolved. As of 1998, the (OCW²⁹) Dutch ministry for Education Culture and Science began to take into account the issue of gender mainstreaming and integration into the OCW formation of long-term national policies, which aimed to encourage and promote female PhD students and researchers. However, gender equality in the sciences became quite a crucial matter after the European Technology Assessment Network conducted research in 1999. The results painted a dismal picture concerning the situation of women scientists in the Netherlands. The report showed that women scientists constituted a mere **0.4%** (one out of 237) of the total scientific personal in the Netherlands (Osborne et al. 2000). The report also indicated that the tendency towards gender imbalance in academia was already noticeable at the graduate level. As indicated by (Table 9), during the late 1990s, females comprised only **40%** of the PhD students, **32 %** post-Doctorates, **21%** Assistant Professors, **8 %** of the Associate Professors, and a mere **5%** of Full Professors (Van Dijk & Webbink 2000). It is also important to note that these statistics do not indicate whether or not these numbers include **BMR** women.

3.3 Statistics Overview on the Education of BMR Women in the Netherlands

In comparison to other "non-Western" migrant groups, Somali an, Afghan, Turkish and Moroccan women are located on the lowest profession levels within the labour market (based on education in the Netherlands). Antillean females appear to score equal with "native" Dutch females, which are located on the highest profession level. Surinamese, Iranian, Iraqi and Yugoslavian females scored somewhat lower than their Antillean/Aruban "native Dutch counterparts.

²⁹ Dutch Acronym for Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap.

Source Table 8: Social atlas of women from ethnic minorities

v=females, m=males, elementair=elementary, lager=lower prof., middelbaar= middle prof., hoger/wetenschappelijk= academic.

Source: SCP 2006, p. 81

3.4 Statistics Overview on Academic and Research Employment

3.4.1 National Level

Categories of Staff at Dutch universities.

The categories of academic staff members at Dutch Universities can be ascertained from table 9 below. The academic staff consists of Professors: Associate and Assistant, research staff members and Doctoral students.

Table 9: Women scientists in the Netherlands in 1998

Age-cohort	Total	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Postdoc and other	PhD students	NWO/ KNAW
≤ 29 years	6535	0	2	129	1705	4602	97
30-34	3474	20	41	653	1727	856	177
35-39	2952	100	210	1129	1237	137	139
40-44	2602	244	394	1134	724	37	69
45-49	2371	432	491	910	481	14	43
50-54	2737	662	693	970	391	3	18
55-59	2226	624	593	732	250	0	27
≥ 60	955	392	199	273	82	0	9
Total	23852	2474	2623	5930	6597	5649	579
% Women	25.9	5.4	8.2	21.2	32.4	39.9	30.3

Source: CPB Report 00/4 van Dijk and Webbink, p.14.

NOW: Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research

KNAW: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.

According to table 9, we see that in 1998 Full female Professors were a mere **5.4%**, female Associate Professors, **8.2 %**, female Assistant Professors **21.2 %**, female Post doctorates **32,4 %** and female PhDs **39.9%**. Furthermore, table 9 point to not only the small percentages of women attaining the level of Full Professor, but it also indicates a significant age difference and distribution between Full and Associate Professors than the other positions.

3.4.1 Breaking through the Glass Ceiling

In order to rectify the gender imbalance in the upper echelons of the sciences, more female students needed to pursue and complete doctoral degrees. Table (10) below indicates a slow but steady increase since 1998 in the number of female students acquiring PhDs. The previous table (9) underlines the slight increase from 1998-2003. These statistics indicate not only an increase in women acquiring doctoral degrees, but they are also indicative of the lagging tendencies i.e., in Engineering and preferences, i.e., Humanities and Social Sciences, towards certain academic disciplines. Moreover, in the discipline of education, She Figures (2006) data indicated a negative percentage (-%) of female PhDs in the Netherlands selecting the discipline of education, whereas in the same discipline in neighbouring States such as Germany (**52%**), France (**49%**) and Belgium (**43.8%**), the percentages in the aforementioned countries exceeded (**40%**).

Table 10: Female PhD graduates in the Netherlands (2003)

Female PhDs in %	Humanities and the Arts	Social Sciences Business and Law	Science Mathematics and Computing	Engineering Manufacturing and Construction	Agriculture	Health and Welfare
The Netherlands	43.8	48.5	40.1	19.9	44.3	48.7

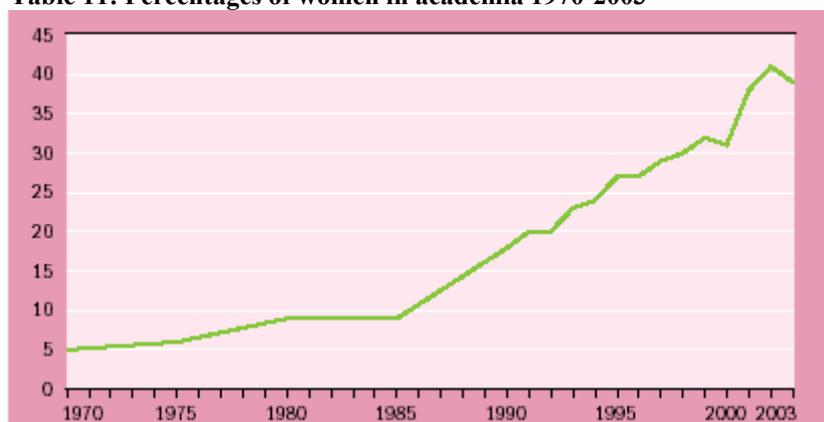
Source: EC-She Figures 2006 p.39.

3.4.1 Moving up the Ladder : ASPASIA (Promotion Programme)

Launched in 1999, the ASPASIA program (named after the ancient Greek female philosopher) was instituted in the Netherlands with the aim to create and implement the means to solve the “critical” situation of female academics in the Netherlands. The dire situation and dismal statistics of female academics became evident in the European Commission’s report titled “*Science Policies in the European Union. Promoting Excellence Through Mainstreaming Gender Equality*”(EC 2000). The report’s findings brought to light the less than optimal situation of females in the science disciplines (Bosch 2002:484). The Ministry of Education, the Association of Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU) and the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO) joined together to take a pro-active stance in order to modify the pyramidal career structure of the male-dominated upper echelons of academia. The program’s main objective entails assisting female academics to advance up the ladder of the academy by providing research grants for female scholars and researchers enabling them to advance from the position of senior lecturer, Assistant Professor (UD) to associate professor (UHD), and from Associate Professor to the rank of Full Professor (See www.now.nl/subsidiewijzer.nsf).

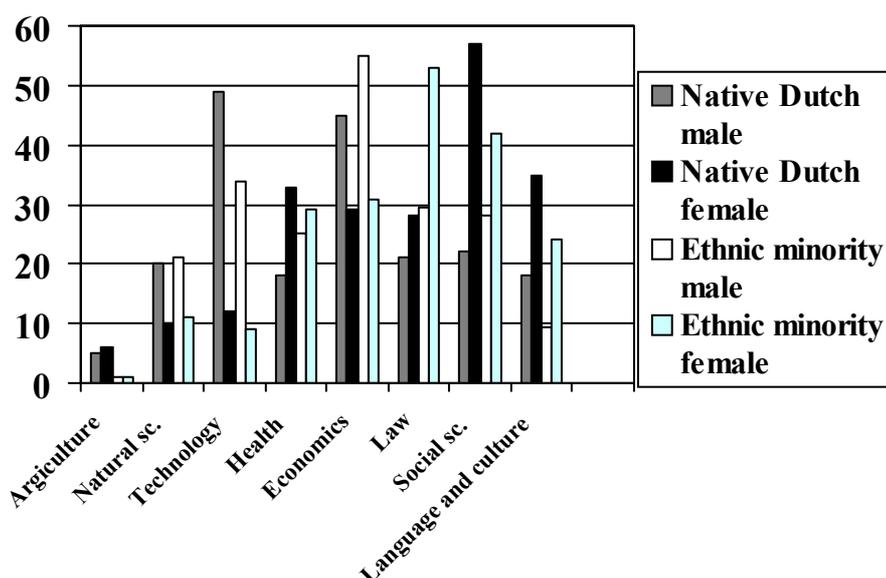
Below tables 11 and 12 illustrate the success of the ASPASIA programme. Since 1999, the number of women academics promoted to the position of Senior Lecturer or Professor has doubled in the Netherlands. Moreover, the statistics indicate not only an increase in women academics (scientists), but also within the disciplines where especially female academics are most concentrated. Although the programme has made strides in lessening the gender disparity, budgetary constraints have somewhat limited the program's ability to assist all qualified applicants. Moreover, several female beneficiaries and participants of the program mentioned that they often encountered anger and disapproval from their male colleagues, who found that this form of "affirmative action" was unfair and even unlawful (Rohn 2003 www.sciencecareers.org).

Table 11: Percentages of women in academia 1970-2003



Source: CBS education statistics.

In looking at table 12, the preference for certain academic disciplines of BMR students as opposed to white "native Dutch underlines the scarcity of BMR students in the Humanities at the university level. Further qualitative and quantitative research could provide insightful information regarding the preferences for and significant representation of women in certain disciplines, and perhaps also examine why the majority of **BMR** female and males students often pursue the study of Law and Economics at the HBO level and are not readily found in the Humanities at Dutch universities.

Table 12: Student preferences for academic discipline by gender and ethnicity

Source: CBS Report “Allochtonen in Nederland” 2003, p. 71.

Table 13 points to the high concentration of female academic staff in the Humanities (16%) as opposed to Natural Sciences (5.3%) where the numbers of female academics amount to one third (1/3) of that of the Humanities.

Table 13: Proportion of high-level women scientists in the various academic disciplines 2004

Academic female staff	Natural Sciences	Engineering Technology	Medical sciences	Agricultural Sciences	Social Sciences	Humanities
The Netherlands	5.3%	3.1%	6.3%	11.0%	11.5%	16.3%

Source: EC report -She Figures 2006.

3.4.2 Categories of Academic Staff on the National Level

According to the information supplied by the VSNU Association of Dutch Universities, academic staff members at thirteen³⁰ of the universities in the Netherlands work either under permanent or limited contractual agreements. More in depth information regarding the numbers of hours of work entailed in these contracts per week, or the “ethno-racial”³¹ backgrounds of its academic personnel was not available at the time of this writing. On an average, table 14 indicates that the majority of academic personnel have limited contracts with Dutch universities.

³⁰ There are a total of seventeen universities in the Netherlands, University of Twente, Kampen Theological University, Kampen Theological University of the Reformed Church and the Hague Academy of Law were not included in this list.

³¹ The term “ethno-racial” is used here as delineated in the introduction of this report.

Table 14: Academic personnel in the Netherlands

Academic personnel in the Netherlands	Permanent contracts	Limited contracts
University of Leiden	22,3%	32,4%
University of Utrecht	23,7%	30,6%
University of Groningen	26,0%	25,9%
Erasmus University Rotterdam	24,0%	35,6%
Maastricht University	21,3%	31,0%
University of Amsterdam	30,9%	25,3%
Free University of Amsterdam	25,3%	29,0%
Radboud University Nijmegen	23,6%	27,0%
Tilburg University	26,9%	28,9%
Delft University of Technology	23,8%	32,8%
Eindhoven University of Technology	19,3%	42,7%
Wageningen University	22,7%	30,2%
Open University of the Netherlands	37,6%	6,0%
Total	24,3%	30,5%

Table 14: Source VSNU, WOPI 2005 31.12.2005

3.4.2 Numbers of Academic Staff at Dutch Universities

The number of female and male academic and research staff gainfully employed as of 2005 by Dutch universities can be ascertained from the table (15) below. In looking at table 12, the disparity in the presence of female academics in comparison to their male counterpart is striking. Although some strides have been made since the late 1990s (5%) (see table 9&11), Female academics, who have attained the rank of Full Professor constitute **9.8%** of the total number of Full Professors in the Netherlands.

Numerical information and the categorisation of academic staff at Dutch universities is indicated in table (15) below:

Table 15: Academic staff at Dutch universities by gender

Academic grade	Females	Males
Professors	221	2,017
Associate Professor	325	1,746
Assistant Professors	1, 173	3,023
PhDs	3,100	4,375
Academic teaching staff	884	1,241
Academic research staff	1,069	2,008
Remaining academic staff	201	389

Source: www.vsnu.nl³², 2005

In looking specifically at the numbers of female academic staff in terms of percentages, table 16 indicates a five-year overview data regarding the percentages of female Professors- (Hoogleraar), UHD- Associate Professors, UD-Assistant

³² VSNU is the Dutch acronym for the Association of Universities in the Netherlands.

Professors as well as Promovendi- PhDs at Dutch Universities. However, this data is nearly two years old and does not indicate the percentile of **BMR** academic staff members within these percentages. This fact further underlines the necessity for more recent data, which considers not only gender when looking at the position of women in the realm of academia, but also data which considers the intersections of gender with ethnicity and “race” along with the diversity of the various migratory contexts of female migrants in the Netherlands, i.e. refugees. While table 16 points to an increase in female Professors; it also indicates a **2.7%** decrease in female PhDs at Dutch Universities. Here, again we mention that these figures do not provide us with concrete information as to whether or not the decrease entails female PhDs stemming from **BMR** backgrounds.

Table 16: Numbers of female academic staff in %

% Females	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Full Professors	6,3	7,1	8,1	8,5	9,3	9,9
Associate Professors	10,7	11,2	13,7	14,2	14,2	15,7
Assistant Professors	22,4	22,7	23,3	24,5	26,9	28,0
PhDs	44,2	41,0	41,3	41,5	41,4	41,5

Source VSNU, WOPI 2005, cut-off date 31 December 2005.

The following table (17) presents the most recent available data indicating the percentages of female Full Professors at fourteen of the seventeen Dutch universities; we see that Utrecht University (38) and University of Amsterdam (36) employ more female Full Professors than the other twelve universities listed in the table below. The data below must be considered in accordance with the various *HOOP*³³ *gebieden* (*Hoger Onderwijs en Onderzoek Plan*) determined by the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. Moreover, this table also underlines that the minimal influx of female PhD students in the disciplines of natural sciences and technology is reflected in the percentages of female academics advancing to the level of Full Professor in those disciplines at Dutch technical universities.

³³ HOOP is a policy document issued periodically by the Dutch Ministry of Education Culture and Science OC en W.

Table 17: Percentages of female Full Professors at fourteen of the seventeen Dutch universities

Full Professors	Total	Women	Men	% Women
Leiden	194	27	167	14,1
Utrecht	291	38	252	13,2
Groningen	249	27	222	10,7
Erasmus	99	5	93	5,4
Maastricht	105	7	98	7,0
Univ. Amst.	271	36	235	13,4
Free Univ. Amst.	193	19	174	9,8
Radboud	184	26	158	14,0
Tillburg	117	7	110	6,3
Delft	188	8	180	4,0
Eindhoven	110	2	108	1,8
Twente	122	6	116	4,9
Wageningen	100	12	89	11,6
Open	16	1	15	6,2
Total	2,238	221	2017	9,9%

Source: Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren 2006.

While researching the situation of female academics in the Netherlands, it also became noticeable that certain Dutch academic institutions appeared to be more “woman friendly” than others. By this we mean that female academics attaining high-level academic positions e.g. Full Professors. For example, the universities of Leiden, Radboud, Utrecht, Amsterdam and Wageningen all exceed the Dutch national average (9,9%) for female Professors.

Further in depth research is necessary in order to conclusively comment on this trend at certain Dutch universities. Here, it would be helpful to look specifically at hiring practices not only at the national level, but also to examine individual Dutch universities and to conduct quantitative and qualitative research with the female academic staff. Looking at table 18, one can see not only the aforementioned increase in female Full Professors at the above-listed universities, but also the percentages in female Associate, Assistant Professors and PhDs at fourteen Dutch universities. The percentage of female PhD students demonstrates parallels and similarities with universities where female Full Professors are on the increase.

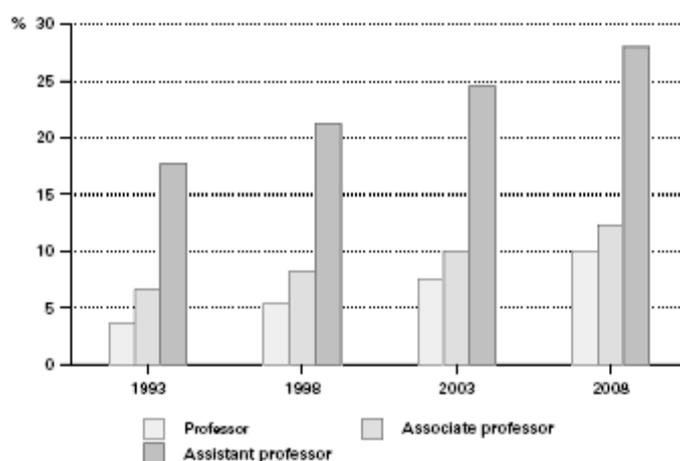
Table 18: Percentages of Female Professors and their rank at 13 Dutch Universities

	%Full Prof.	%Associate Prof.	%Assistant Prof.	%PhDs
Leiden	14,1	22,7	32,8	49,2
Utrecht	13,2	19,4	33,7	47,2
Groningen	10,7	20,1	31,3	43,8
Erasmus	5,4	9,0	26,6	51,9
Maastricht	7,0	22,3	33,6	58,2
Univ. Amst.	13,4	21,7	29,3	44,4
Free Univ. Amst.	9,8	15,6	29,9	43,2
Radboud	14,0	18,0	20,3	44,7
Tillburg	6,3	14,1	33,4	53,4
Delft	4,0	6,9	17,4	23,3
Eindhoven	1,8	3,0	13,1	25,3
Twente	4,9	10,1	21,8	29,0
Wageningen	11,6	11,7	22,1	44,5
Open	6,2	14,4	40,1	*
Total	9,9%	15,7%	28,0%	41,5%

*indicates that the number were too few to calculate. Source- Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren 2006, p.15.

In terms of predicting future prospects for female academics at Dutch universities, table 19 below provides a comparative (1993,1998,2003) as well as futuristic (2008) look at the situation of women holding permanent academic positions i.e. Professor, Associate Professor and Assistant Professor, from 1993-2008. According to the data compiled by van Dijk and Webbink (2000:16), it is expected that the percentage of women in permanent academic positions will increase. The authors predict that the strongest growth will be noticeable among the positions of professor and associate professor.

Table 19: Figure participation of women in permanent academic positions 1993-2008 (% of total labour years)



Source van Dijk and Webbink CPB Report 00/4 p. 16.

However, despite these encouraging predictions, van Dijk and Webbink contend that females holding higher academic positions will remain under-represented in comparison to their male counterparts. Table 19 also indicates a predicted estimate growth of about 3% from 2003 to 2008. Again these calculations and estimates do not indicate ethno-“racial” backgrounds or differences amongst female academics in the Netherlands, and are also dependent upon the actual numbers of Professorship appointments.

3.4.2 Work Time of Academic and Research Staff

On the average women are often found holding part-time employment positions. According to the *Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren 2006*, sixty-six percent of working females were employed in 2003 on a part-time basis, while 15% of their male counterparts worked part-time. In the case with universities, it is not easy to ascertain percentages in relation to part or full time employment. In the Netherlands the part-time factor for academic personnel is 0,87 fte³⁴. The part-time factor for females is 0,85 fte and for males 0,88. Female academic personnel tend to work more often part-time than their male colleagues. This factor is often used as a means to explain the lower participation of females in higher academic functions and positions.

³⁴ F.t.e means full time equivalent.

The appointment to Full Professor entails a work-time of 1,0 fte. The table below (20) indicates that the scale of appointment for female Full Professors on the average entails (0,83fte), is than female Associate Professors (0,87 fte). According to the table 19, Male Full Professors work 0,81 fte., but are positioned at a higher salary scale than their female counterparts, who work 0,83, are equally qualified, but earn noticeably less. On the level of Associate Professor, the difference in the part-time factor between females and males is large. Female Associate Professors work on the average four days (4) per week (0,81 fte) while male Associate Professors work 4,5 days (0,88fte). The disparity between female and male Assistant Professors as indicated by the table below is somewhat greater.

Table 20: depicts the Dutch National Average

	Total	Females	Males
Full Prof.	0,81	0,83	0,81
Associate Prof.	0,90	0,87	0,90
Assistant Prof.	0,86	0,81	0,88
Research staff	0,87	0,85	0,88

Source- Monitor Vrouwelijke Hooglerarer 2006, p. 16.

3.4.2 Salary Scale of Female and Male Academic Staff in the Netherlands:

Each of the three higher functions at Dutch universities: Full, Associate and Assistant Professor and the remaining academic staff are divided into two functions based upon different duties. The salary scale ranges from 10-18, 18 being the maximum on the salary scale as of 2005. It is noticeable that female academic staff members are found often in lower functions and salary scales at Dutch universities than males. Higher functions are for the most part accompanied by higher salaries. The result of this constellation is that male academic staff often receives higher salaries than their female colleagues. This salary disparity is most noticeable among Full Professors. Male Full Professors (**43,1%**) are classified three times more often at the higher salary scale (21) than their female colleagues (**15.2%**). In addition, the salary discrepancies between female and male Associate Professors indicate a similar tendency that we have seen. At the Full Professor level- women Professors have equal qualifications, but receive less pay.

Table 21: Salary Scale of Female and Male Academic Staff in the Netherlands

Salary scale	Professors		Associate		Assistant	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
10					5.5%	2.7%
11	0.2%		0.3%	0.1%	43.9%	31.5%
12			0.2%	0.6%	49.3%	62.0%
13	0.5%		35.6%	24.8%	1.2%	2.9%
14	0.6%	0.3%	62.8%	72.0%	0.1%	0.9%
15	2.7%	1.8%	0.9%	2.0%		
16	78%	52.5%	0.2%	0.5%		
17	2.8%	1.5%	0.1%			
18	15.2%	43.1%				
Diverse	0.1%	0.8%				
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: *Monitor Vrouwelijke Hooglerarer 2006*, p. 17.

3.4.3 BMR Individuals and Higher Education

From Basic to Higher Education:

Levels of higher education among **BMR** groups in the Netherlands are on the average lower than “native” Dutch. During the 1970s and 1980s school officials were confronted with **BMR** (primarily Turkish and Moroccan) parents, who did not see the necessity for their daughters to complete higher education. Moreover, the dropout rate among **BMR** male students was significantly higher than that of “native Dutch” male students (SCP 2006:45). **BMR** females attending school were less inclined to dropout of school than their male counterparts (Gijsberts & Hartgers 2005). The advancement in higher levels of education attained among **BMR** groups is most noticeable among first and second-generation migrants (see table 22). In particular, individuals of Turkish and Moroccan backgrounds attain on the average lower-levels of education than the Surinamese and Antilleans/Arubans. In 2005 **40%** of Turkish and Moroccan females had completed a primary education. Turkish and Moroccan males attained somewhat higher levels than the females from these communities. Gijsberts (2004:37) states that on the average male married migrants tended to be better educated than their female partners, and are on the average less educated than their same aged counterparts of the second generation (Table 22). The pursuit over all nationally of an education among **BMR** female and male students has significantly increased. **BMR** students comprise **15%** of the primary and secondary current student population. Although these figures indicate an increase in the **BMR** student population; language and study skills have been noted as part of the problematic facing and hindering the advancement to higher education of **BMR** students (SCP 2006:41).

3.4.4 Different Levels of Education of the Entire Population in the Netherlands:

Table 22 :Education levels of BMR groups aged 24-65 in the Netherlands in %

	bo	vbo	mavo	havo/vwo	mbo	hbo	wo	totaal
vrouwen								
totaal	13	16	12	8	28	15	8	100
autochtonen	12	17	12	7	29	16	7	100
allochtonen	16	10	8	15	25	11	11	100
eerste generatie	20	10	6	17	25	7	11	100
tweede generatie	9	11	11	11	26	20	11	100
niet-westerse allochtonen	26	12	5	16	23	7	8	100
eerste generatie	28	12	5	16	21	6	7	100
tweede generatie	9	8	10	13	34	15	9	100
Turken	42	15	4	14	14	3	3	100
Marokkanen	46	17	3	7	18	3	3	100
Surinamers	16	10	10	12	33	14	3	100
Antillianen/Arubanen	9	10	10	17	28	14	7	100
overige niet-westerse allochtonen	18	10	3	23	22	6	16	100
mannen								
totaal	9	14	6	7	34	17	12	100
autochtonen	8	15	6	6	35	19	11	100
	bo	mavo	vbo	havo/vwo	mbo	hbo	wo	totaal
allochtonen	12	5	11	14	29	11	16	100
eerste generatie	15	4	11	16	30	7	14	100
tweede generatie	7	7	12	10	27	20	18	100
niet-westerse allochtonen	18	4	13	16	27	8	11	100
eerste generatie	19	4	13	16	27	6	10	100
tweede generatie	6	6	11	12	28	21	16	100
Turken	24	4	14	18	25	5	5	100
Marokkanen	32	4	14	14	21	4	6	100
Surinamers	13	8	14	11	34	12	6	100
Antillianen/Arubanen	8	4	12	12	38	16	8	100
overige niet-westerse allochtonen	10	3	11	19	26	7	21	100

Source: CBS population survey 2005.

English definitions for table 22

Mannen= males, vrouwen=females, eerste generatie=first generation, tweede generatie=second generation, autochtone= "native" Dutch, niet-westerse="non Westerners". bo= basic ed., vbo=preparatory vocational ed., mavo= lower general ed., HAVO= upper general ed., vwo=pre-university ed., wo= university.

The acquisition of language and study skills and the compensation for arrears" (socio-economic underprivileged backgrounds) is a significant factor, but not the sole factor in determining the success rate of BMR girls in primary and secondary education, and their access to the tertiary level. It is equally important to cast a look at some of the characteristics of the Dutch higher education system in order to better understand why BMR students are so under-represented in Dutch Academia. Critical analysis of the situation of BMR students points to the tendency of the Dutch Ministry of Education to overlook the disadvantaged position, by this we mean, the socio-economic disparities within Dutch society. Instead, the Ministry tends to address mainly technocratic issues Wekker (2007:6-7).

Measures that are intended to bridge the gap are simply drawn up before having posed relevant questions regarding the specific needs, demands and potential futures of BMR students. According to Wekker (Ibid), this avoidance approach points to an unease in confronting issue of the distribution of power, because it enables those, who are in positions of power within the Dutch education system to avoid the contentious subject of gendered and racialized power distributions within Dutch society. Particularly in regard to higher education, the Dutch educational system departs from the idea that the higher realms of academic are achieved due to individual merit and basically ignore the socio-economic contexts and trajectories of individuals (Wekker 2002).

In 2003, ECHO³⁵ published a qualitative study “*Blijvers en uitvallers in het hoger onderwijs*”, which examined the various barriers and obstacles encountered by **BMR** students in higher education. The study looked specifically at the increased influx of **BMR** students in higher education, and it also investigated the problematic of high dropout rates among **BMR** students.

The report pointed out that Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban students already comprised part of the growing **BMR** student population. Turkish and Moroccan students (primarily the descendants of former guest workers) constituted for the time being, a new group among the **BMR** student population.

In looking at the problems faced by **BMR** students in the Dutch school system, insufficient language skills were noted as one of the most common reasons for delayed completion of studies, and that many were deprived of the intellectual skills that would enable them to attain higher levels of education. In addition, the bi-culturality and bilingualism of many **BMR** students are not recognized or appreciated as socio-cultural or intellectual enhancements. Instead these additional linguistic and cultural skills are viewed rather as hindrances. Less than optimum interaction and understanding with “native Dutch”, fellow students, school advisors and teachers were also noted as part of the problem hindering their advancement. (ECHO report 2003:1). The aforementioned study functions as an assessment of the situation of **BMR** students in and their access to higher education. Moreover, under-representation of **BMR** students in Dutch academia and the sciences underlines the sparse representation of **BMR** academics and scientists.

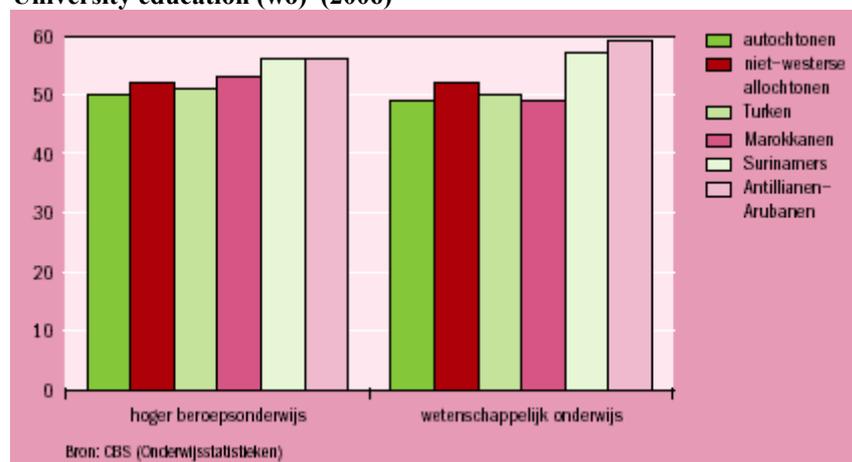
3.4.5 **BMR Students and Higher Secondary Education:**

Looking at the data presented in table 23, the over-representation of **BMR** students on the HBO level becomes quite noticeable, particularly, in the case of Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban students. During the academic year 2005/2006, **281,000** students were registered as full time HBO students (higher vocational education). From this quoted figure (**281,000**), **51%** were female HBO students (Emancipatie Monitor 2006:45).

³⁵ Dutch Acronym for Expertisecentrum voor Allochtonen in Hoger Onderwijs.

Since 1997 the number of female HBO students has continued to exceed male HBO students. According to the Emancipatie Monitor 2006 Female Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban female students comprise the majority of the **BMR** student population on the HBO level (Ibid). However, this information cannot be ascertained from table 23.

Table 23: Percentages of BMR students in higher professional education (HBO) and University education (wo) (2006)



. Source: Emancipatie Monitor 2006, p.46

3.5.3 BMR Students and Women in Academia:

According to data obtained from the latest ECHO report *Met vallen en opstaan* (Wolff 2007:79, the influx of BMR students on the wo level points to a steady increase. In 1997 more than **15,000** full time³⁶ “Native” Dutch students entered university level education in the Netherlands (CRIHO³⁷). By 2005 the numbers of “Native Dutch students rose to over **20,000**. An increase in **BMR** students at the tertiary level was also ascertainable for the same time period. In 1997 **1.278** BMR students were matriculated at Dutch universities. By 2005 these numbers rose to **2,352** (table 24).

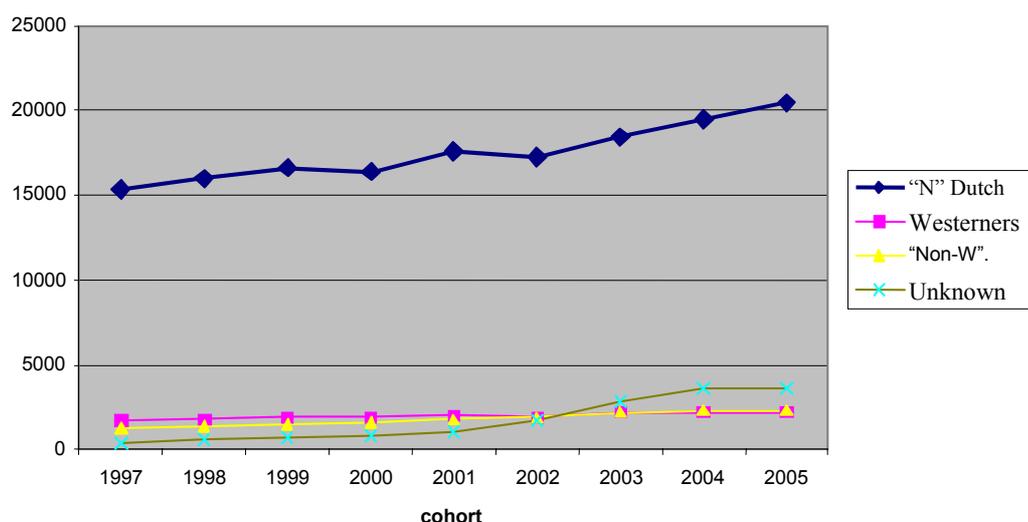
Table 24 Influx of WO students according to origin (in absolute numbers)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	15355	16017	16645	16466	17547	17269	18384	19517	20421
Western migrants	1743	1816	1860	1929	2033	1910	2179	2203	2255
“Non-Western” migrants	1278	1379	1533	1626	1850	1906	2216	2383	2352
Unknown	427	593	712	798	1106	1714	2900	3565	3641

Source: IBG, calculations IMES

³⁶ Our investigative focus within the scope of this report is limited to full time university students.

³⁷ CRIHO= Centraal Register Inschrijvingen Hoger Onderwijs. CRIHO is the Dutch national registry for higher education.

Graphic depiction of table 24 : Source: IBG, calculations IMES

However, despite the steady increase, the disparity between “native Dutch wo (university) students and **BMR** wo (university) students remains large. With the meagre numbers in 2005 of female and male **BMR** students **8%** (table 25) and **11%**³⁸ first year registered students in 2006 attending Dutch universities, it is of no surprise that **BMR** scientists, particularly women, are equally under-represented in the higher echelons of academia.

Table 25 Influx of WO full time female and male students based on origin.

%	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native Dutch	82	81	80	79	78	76	72	71	71
Western migrants	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	8	8
“Non-Western” migrants	7	7	7	8	8	8	9	9	8
Unknown	2	3	3	4	5	8	11	13	13

Source: IBG: calculations IMES

³⁸ According to the VSNU website, BMR first year students comprise 11% of the entire university student population at Dutch universities <http://www.vsnul.nl/web/show/id=76936/langid=43> .

Graphic depiction of Table 25

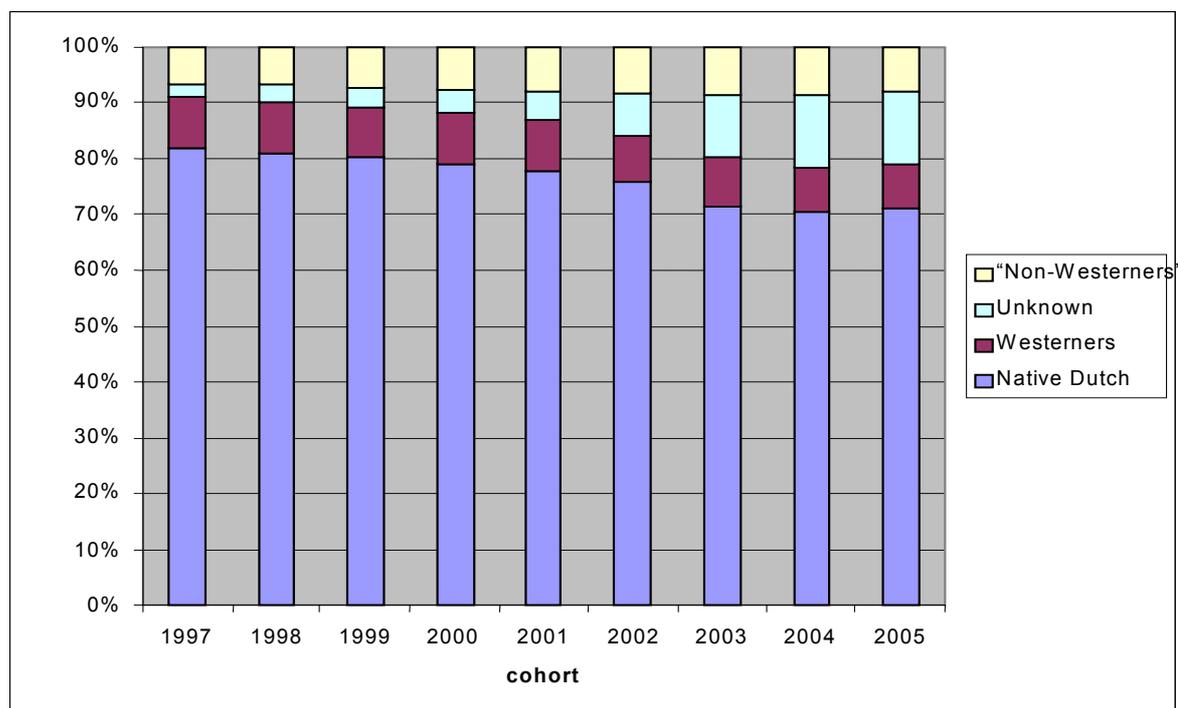


Table 26 underlines fluctuations regarding the percentages of **BMR** wo (university) level during the last decade. Moreover, table 26 also underlines the differences between the four largest **BMR** groups in the Netherlands. Female and male students of Surinamese descent have consecutively constituted the majority of **BMR** students at the WO (university) level. However, these numbers fell from **24%** (1997) to **19%** (2005), and point to fluctuations within this particular **BMR** student population. We also see in table 26 that WO (university) level students (both genders) of Moroccan descent (**10% in 2005**) are in the minority among the four largest **BMR** groups.

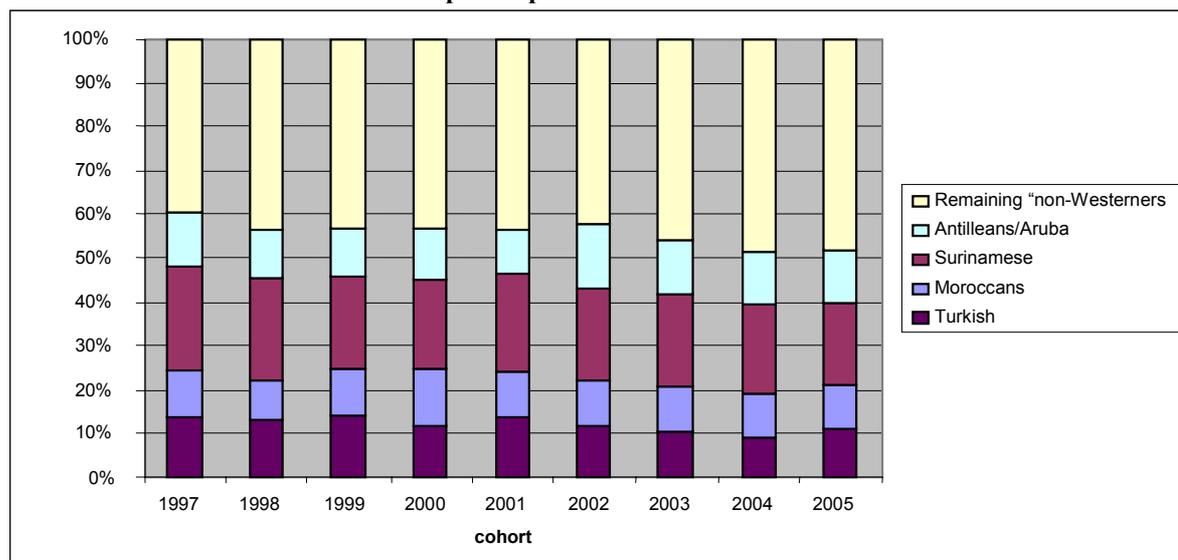
Table 26 WO³⁹ influx of “non-western” full-time female and male students in percentages

%	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Turkish	14	13	14	12	14	12	10	9	11
Moroccan	11	9	10	13	11	11	11	10	10
Surinamese	24	23	21	21	22	21	21	20	19
Antillean/Aruban	12	11	11	12	10	15	12	12	12
Remaining “non-Westerners”	40	44	43	43	43	42	46	48	48

Source: IBG: calculations IMES.

³⁹ WO= university level

Graphic depiction of table 26



Source: IBG: calculations IMES.

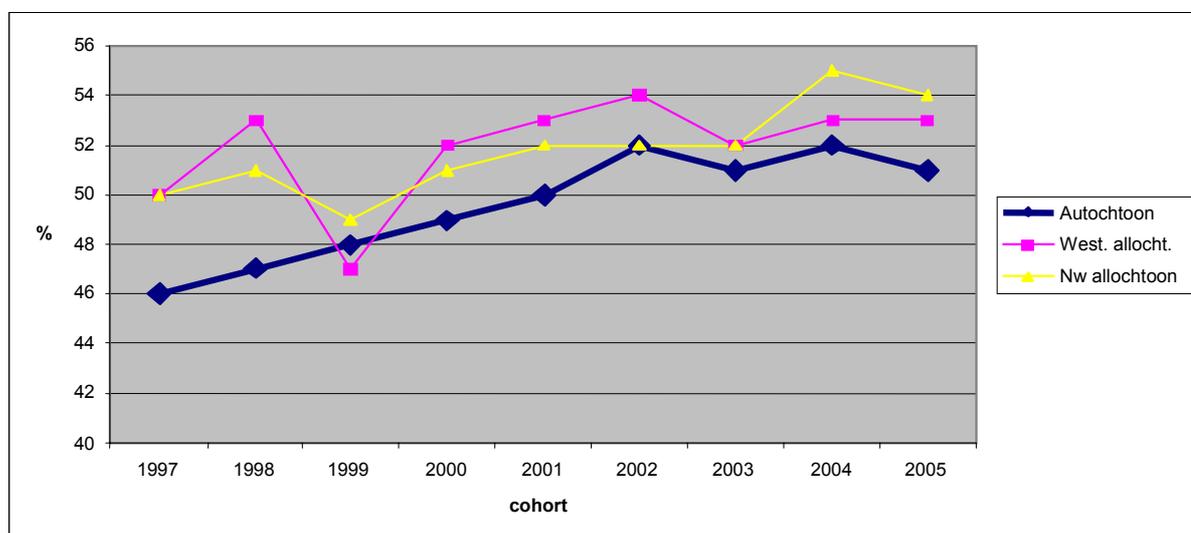
In looking specifically at the influx of **BMR** females at the WO-level, the ECHO Report 2007 indicates that **BMR** female students constituted a consistent increase from **50%** (1997) to **54%** in (2005) (table 27) of the entire **BMR** student population at the university (WO) level. Most recent figures (ECHO Report 2007:85) show that female students of Surinamese descent comprise (**55-60%**) of the total student population at the WO level, and that Antillean/Aruban (**60-65%**) female WO students tend to outnumber Turkish (increase from **42% in 1997 to 54% in 2005**) female university (WO) students. Only amongst Moroccan female students has a structurally steady increase at the WO level not been attained.

Table 27 Influx of female students at the WO level according to origin (percentages from the entire group)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	46	47	48	49	50	52	51	52	51
“Western” migrants	50	53	47	52	53	54	52	53	53
“Non-Western” Migrants	50	51	49	51	52	52	52	55	54

Unfortunately the available data (table 27) regarding the influx of BMR female students at the WO-level only delineates the groups into Western and “Non-Western” and does not specify or categorize the female WO students according to their specific groups of origin i.e., Turkish, Surinamese etc..

Graphic depiction **Influx of female students at the WO level according to origin (percentages of from the entire group)**
Table 27



Source IBG, calculations by IMES.

Autochtoon= "Native" Dutch, West. allocht.= "Western" migrants, Nw allocht.= "Non-Western" migrants.

Chapter 4

4. Structure of the Higher Education and Research System in the Netherlands

Seventeen Universities are located in The Kingdom of the Netherlands. There are two main types of tertiary education, which train students for the independent practice of science. Diplomas are awarded to students upon completion of a four-year Bachelor programme at universities of applied sciences, and after three years at classical universities. Higher education is heavily subsidized in the Netherlands. However, in the last decade Dutch universities have endured budget cutbacks and restrictions. Universities belong to the public sector and are therefore accessible for students of various economic backgrounds.

Here, a list of the seventeen universities and their corresponding cities in the Netherlands:

- [Delft University of Technology](#) (Technische Universiteit Delft, [Delft](#))
- [Erasmus University Rotterdam](#) (Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam, [Rotterdam](#))
- [Hague Academy of International Law](#) [The Hague](#)
- [Leiden University](#) (Universiteit Leiden, [Leiden](#))
- [Eindhoven University of Technology](#) (Technische Universiteit Eindhoven, [Eindhoven](#))

- [Kampen Theological University](#) (Theologische Universiteit Kampen, [Kampen](#))
- [Kampen Theological University of the Reformed Church \(Liberated\)](#) (Theologische Universiteit Kampen voor de Gereformeerde Kerken (Vrijgemaakt), [Kampen](#))
- [Open University of the Netherlands](#) (Open Universiteit Nederland, [Heerlen](#))
- [Radboud University Nijmegen](#) (Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen (former Katholieke Universiteit Nijmegen), [Nijmegen](#))
- [Tilburg University](#) (Universiteit van Tilburg (former Katholieke Universiteit Brabant), [Tilburg](#))
- [Maastricht University](#) (Universiteit Maastricht) ([Maastricht](#))
- [University of Amsterdam](#) (Universiteit van Amsterdam) ([Amsterdam](#))
- [University of Groningen](#) (Rijksuniversiteit Groningen, [Groningen](#))
- [University of Twente](#) (Universiteit Twente, [Enschede](#))
- [Utrecht University](#) (Universiteit Utrecht, [Utrecht](#)) which includes two international honours colleges which are [Roosevelt Academy](#) and [University College Utrecht](#).
- [Vrije Universiteit: Free University of Amsterdam](#) ([Amsterdam](#))
- [Wageningen University](#) ([Wageningen](#))

Universities in the Netherlands are centres of teaching and research, and their financial make-up is based largely upon the numbers of students in attendance. Thirteen (13) of the seventeen Dutch (17) universities devote their primary focus to research. In 2006 the total public budget for research funding amounted to 500 million Euros. Dutch universities have formed an umbrella organisation known as the Association for Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU). The VSNU is responsible for the fiscal structure, staff contracts and the quality of audits in research and teaching in Dutch universities. Research funding at Dutch universities is managed mainly by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. In the case of additional funding, Dutch universities may seek additional funds at the following organisational bodies (Mottier 2002:5):

1. NWO: Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research
2. KNAW: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences
3. Third parties for contract research i.e. private industry, European Commission.

4.1 Professional Hierarchy in Higher Education in the Netherlands

The completion of a Master's degree is a prerequisite for admission to a Doctoral programme in the Netherlands. Candidates entering a Dutch PhD programme should have completed a Master's degree at an accredited national or international university. Persons educated outside the Netherlands are eligible to pursue a doctorate provided they are granted exemption from the legal Dutch educational MA requirement. Each Dutch university may also have additional stipulations for admission.

Once a Professor has accepted a student, the student begins conducting the required research. Many PhD students in the Netherlands also function as teaching assistants. The period of research and completion of the Doctoral thesis entails a period of nearly four to five years with the possibility of one year extension. The majority of PhD students are (AIOs) Assistant in Opleiding in the. The progressive posts according to seniority at Dutch universities are as follows:

1. University lecturer (universitair docent) UD
2. Senior lecturer (universitair hoofddocent (UHD)
3. Professor (hoogleraar) This category entails also ordinary Professors (gewoon hoogleraar and extra-ordinary Professors (bijzonder hoogleraar)

University lecturers in most cases, but not always, have tenure positions. Contrary to the German system, the Dutch system does not demand the "Habilitation" (Postdoctorate degree or publication) in order to appoint an individual as a Professor.

Professors in The Netherlands

Professors in the Netherlands are qualified experts who may perform the following:

- conduct **lectures** and **seminars** in their field of study .In the basic fields of **science** or **literature** or the applied fields of **engineering**, **music**, **medicine**, **law**, or **business**;
- perform advanced **research** in their fields.
- provide **pro bono community service**, including consulting functions (such as advising government and nonprofit organizations);
- train young or new academics (**graduate students**).

The balance of these four classic fields of professorial tasks depends heavily on the institution, place (country), and time. For example, professors at highly research-oriented universities in the U.S. and all European universities are promoted primarily primarily on the basis of their research achievements as well as their success in raising funds from sources outside the university.

It is common that the members of the academic staff have teaching and research obligations. However, this division varies among Dutch universities.

4.2 Rules and Practices of Recruitment

4.2.1. Legal Rules

Vacancies at Dutch faculties are filled via a selection process conducted by a selection committee. Qualified candidates seeking a position (commonly announced in scholarly and important Dutch periodicals) as Professor, are asked to submit their curricula vitae to a selection committee, which is responsible for selecting candidates. After several interview sessions, the selection committee (consisting of Professors from the faculty, some staff members, one student and at least one Professor from another Dutch faculty) usually makes a list with one to three names. The first name on the list is in most cases the preferred candidate. The list makes its way to the board or faculty and is then submitted to the parliament of the faculty (Faculteitsraad). In the case of a positive response by the various faculties and the board of the university, the candidate is then appointed as a Professor.

4.2.2. Informal Rules

Theoretically speaking, candidates educated at other faculties in the Netherlands and from foreign universities have an equal chance to be selected as a candidate. However, it is common practice to nominate an internal candidate rather than candidates from elsewhere.

In terms of looking at the situation of BMR women in the realm of the Dutch academy, this practice would most likely not be very conducive to the promotion of BMR candidates into these positions, because BMR women are greatly under-represented in faculties at Dutch universities.

4.3 Recruitment and Promotion:

The *Mozaiek* (Mosaic) Project: (Recruitment)

As we have already pointed out in this report, **BMR** researchers are currently under-represented in academic research in the Netherlands. The Dutch Organisation for Scientific Research (NWO) has made an effort to promote diversity within the realm of academia in the Netherlands. In 2002 the organisation commissioned an investigation concerning the possible causes for the under-representation of **BMR** researchers employed by Dutch universities. The survey indicated that almost none of the universities' academic staff stemmed from the four largest minority groups in the Netherlands. These findings are in stark opposition to the increase in **BMR** student enrolment at Dutch universities and their completion of tertiary degrees. The main question of the NWO investigation sought to discover why **BMR** university students were not advancing to doctoral research. The findings rendered a multi-layered problem: Dutch academic institutions have proved deficient in identifying potential among talented **BMR** students and unable to persuade **BMR** students to pursue Doctorate degrees. In August 2003, the NWO announced its intention to implement a programme with measures specifically designed to attract BMR graduate students into research. Launched in 2004 by the NWO, the (*Mozaiek*) Mosaic project received

during its first year nearly two hundred applicants. Of the forty applicants that made it through the initial evaluation process that year, twenty-one AIO⁴⁰ (doctoral research) positions were awarded. Along with the two million Euros subsidy provided by the NWO, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OCW) matched the funds provided by the NWO with an additional two million Euros. Due to the success of the programme, a decision was made to conduct a selection process again in 2005. Information provided by the NWO website indicates that during the first selection round in January 2005, the Mozaiek programme received 142 applicants. Many of the hopeful future researchers were of Western and “non-Western descent: Turkish (20%), Moroccan (13%), Surinamese (11%), Iraqi/Iranian (10%), Indonesian (6%) and Chinese (6%). Female applicants were in the majority, constituting (61%) of the entire potential grant recipients (Kleurrijk Talent in de Wetenschap: www.nwo.nl/nwohome.nsf/Pages/NWOP). The areas of discipline most popular among the applicants were social and behavioural sciences (44%), bio-medical (32%), technical (10%) and the Humanities (14%).

Despite sharpened stipulations, which were implemented in 2005, the NWO reported receiving 121 applicants for the Mozaiek programme selection rounds in 2006. While interested applicants of Turkish (15%) and Moroccan (14%) origin remained in the majority, data compiled by NWO points to an increase in applicants of Iraqi and Iranian descent from 10% in 2005 to 13% in 2006. Female applicants were again in majority with a (1%) increase from 2005 (61%) to (62%) in 2006. Since the selection process is still underway (as of this writing), no detailed information is yet available regarding the ethnic composition of the applicant pool. However, according to the NWO website, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OCW) and the NWO have both allotted two million Euros in order to fund an additional twenty-one doctoral research positions for the 2007 academic year.

Structure and Stipulations of the Mozaiek (Mosaic) Programme:

The programme offers multiple day workshops designed to assist forty selected BMR students draft detailed research proposals. A letter of recommendation from a Professor (prospective PhD supervisor) and mentor⁴¹ must accompany each applicant’s file. Both Professor and mentor must be affiliated with one of the thirteen Dutch universities involved in research. The thirteen research universities in the Netherlands are:

1. Erasmus University
2. Tilburg University
3. University of Nijmegen
4. University of Groningen
5. Delft University of Technology
6. Eindhoven University of Technology
7. Wageningen University and Research Centre
8. University of Twente
9. Leiden University
10. Maastricht University
11. Utrecht University

⁴⁰ AIO is the Dutch acronym for *Assistent in Opleiding*.

⁴¹ The prospective PhD Supervisor may also be the applicant’s mentor.

12. University of Amsterdam
13. Free University of Amsterdam

After undergoing competitive assessment procedures, (proposals are assessed by external advisors) twenty-one authors of the best applications will receive a research position at the university of their choice. The guidelines of the research grants stipulate that the applicants must have completed her/his education in the Netherlands, or obtained a Masters Degree from a Dutch university. In addition, the recipient must have resided legally in the Netherlands for a minimum of five years or the applicant and minimally one parent must have been born in one of the countries specified by the *Wet Samen*⁴².

Mozaiekprijs (Mosaic Prize):

The Mozaiek Prize was conceived to stimulate and reward excellence in scientific research among researchers with **BMR** backgrounds. According to the NWO website for the Mozaiek Programme, female as well as male promising researchers in science and technology with BMR backgrounds have been awarded grants. However, as indicated by the website, recipients of the Mozaiek Prize have only been females. Untill now, five young **BMR** female researchers were awarded the Mozaiek Prize between 2004 and 2005 in the following disciplines at Erasmus University in Rotterdam: (

1. Tha-In, Thanyalak (born in Thailand)- Transplantation medicine,
2. El Hachioui, Hanane (Moroccan descent born in Rotterdam)- Neurology,
3. Alic, Lejla (born in Bosnia) Medical Informatics and Radiology,
4. Silva, Lindsay- (Cape Verdian descent, born in Rotterdam) Public Health,
5. Ta, Van (Vietnamese descent, born in Spijkenisse) Immunology.

An Additional Incentive: The Echo Award

The Echo Award is a yearly national incentive award given to **BMR** talented students in higher education. The ECHO award constitutes a part of the measures undertaken by the ECHO foundation to promote educational advancement and recruitment among talented **BMR** students. Two recipients are selected from the HBO (higher secondary education) and WO (university –level) streams within the Dutch education system. The ECHO award consists of a summer course at UCLA University of California at Los Angeles in the United States.

⁴² See Appendix for the countries listed by the *Wet Samen* (Wet Stimulerend Arbeidsdeelname Minderheden).

Chapter 5

5. Studies on BMR Female Academics in the Netherlands

In this Chapter will offer an overview of the scientific literature dealing with the career situation of BMR academics. Scientific literature examining the current and prospective career situation of **BMR** female students and academics consists of quantitative and some qualitative data. This data consists of studies and reports published by external research organizations, media articles (Internet as well) and books. As of this writing, few qualitative studies e.g., ethnographic interviews, on this topic have been conducted. Further in depth research is required in order to assess the actual numbers of **BMR** individuals (female and male) employed by Dutch universities and research institutions, and also to contact these individuals for the purpose of conducting interviews. Quantitative data is indeed useful and provides objective hard data in order to determine the actual numbers and percentages of **BMR** academics in the Dutch academy.

However, only qualitative data opens a window into the meanings, concepts, characteristics of **BMR** individuals might possibly ascribe to their experience(s) within the Dutch academy. While conducting research on the career situation of BMR female students and academics, we came across several investigative reports. These books and reports (often in book form) contain mainly quantitative data and constitute part of the seminal research conducted on this topic.

5.1. Quantitative and Qualitative Research Sources:

In order to respect the privacy and identity of these women, we will present this information in a manner in which these women are not readily identifiable. Moreover we have grouped them according to rank and their “ethno-racial”⁴³ backgrounds

Female Professors of “non-Western” Backgrounds in the Netherlands

There are five (5) female Full Professors and Associate Professors, as far as we know and have been able to ascertain, currently employed by various universities in the Netherlands. The categorization used here is in accordance with the delineations of ethnic minority populations as defined by the *Wet Samen*⁴⁴. In looking at the total number of female Full Professors in the Netherlands (221) and the five (5) **BMR** who have achieved the title, we see that **BMR** women constitute a minuscule 0.0000226 % of female Full Professors at Dutch universities.

Full and Associate Female Professors of “Western” and “Non-Western” Migrant Backgrounds

⁴³ See introduction for an explanation of our use of the term ethno-racial.

⁴⁴ Wet Stimulerende Arbeidsdeelname Minderheden. Regulation for the increase in employment participation of minorities.

There are six (6) female Associate Professors listed below are of Western and “non-Western” backgrounds. With a total number of 325 female Associate Professors in the Netherlands, **BMR** women comprise (0.01%) less than 1% of that total.

Women Associate Professors of Eastern European Backgrounds

Although the target groups of this research have been primarily the four largest migrant groups in the Netherlands, the presence of women academics of Eastern European backgrounds cannot go unnoticed. To our knowledge, there are four (4) female Assistant and Associate Professors of Eastern European descent in the Netherlands. Further in depth research would be necessary and important in order to examine the specificities of Eastern European female academic migrant trajectories. The data regarding female academics stemming from Eastern European backgrounds was compiled either via information from Dutch university websites, students or by their colleagues, who made these women known to us.

Female Lecturers, Researchers and PhDs: BMR and Eastern European Origin.

We have attempted to calculate the number of **BMR** female lecturers, researchers and PhD's. This list is merely a tentative one and points to the known female academics at several Dutch universities. This information was obtained via what is referred to as the “snow-ball” method. Here, we reiterate that further in depth research and examination of the personnel registries of Dutch universities might possibly uncover female academics that are unknown to us as of the time of this writing.

According to available sources, there are four (4) female BMR lecturers, researchers and PhDs .

The majority of studies on migrant and ethnic minority populations in the Netherlands are conducted mainly at three institutions located at within three Dutch universities. Founded in 1994-till present, IMES⁴⁵ (Institute for Migration and Ethnic Studies) at the University of Amsterdam, ERCOMER in 1993-till present (European Research Centre on Migration and Ethnic Relations at Utrecht University and ISEO 1986-till present (Institute for Sociological and Economic Research at Erasmus University in Rotterdam, are the three Dutch universities currently conducting research on the degree of integration and equality for ethnic minority groups in sectors such as labour, education, social security and health in the Netherlands (Essed& Nimako 2006:293-295). Many of the reports and articles listed below contain quantitative as well as some qualitative data. The content of these publications will be indicated by the terms quantitative, qualitative, or both “q+q”.

Books: (all titles appear in bold)

1. **Tijd voor Diversiteit.** Een onderzoek naar diversiteit in de Curricula van de Faculteit Letteren. Dicke, E. & Wekker, G. (2004). Een Project van E-Quality, ECHO, De Wetenschapswinkel Letteren en GEM. Utrecht: Universiteit Utrecht. **(some “quantitative” data and served as potential policy draft)**

⁴⁵ The IMES followed in the footsteps and replaced in 1994 the CRES (1984-1991-Centre on Migration and Ethnic Relations).

2. **Miskend Talent. Op zoek naar de allochtone medewerkers van de Universiteit Utrecht.** Droogh, C.A.J. & van Liemt, K.E.M. (2003), Universiteit Utrecht. (“q+q”)
3. **Kleurrijk Talent, Allochtonen werkzaam in wetenschappelijk onderwijs en onderzoek. (2002) Instituut voor Migratie en Etnische Studies Crul et al. (“q+q” and policy recommendations)**
4. **Sociaal Atlas van vrouwen uit etnische minderheden. (2006) Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau. Den Haag: SCP Publicatie. (a national report, containing quantitative data.**

Reports and Articles Print and Internet Sources:

Bink, S. (2005), **Niet stigmatiseren, maar stimuleren. In- en doorstroom van allochtone studenten binnen het hoger onderwijs.** Utrecht: Miramedia. (a report with references to some quantitative data)

Bosch, M. (2002), **Women and Science in the Netherlands: A Dutch Case?** in *Science in Context* 15 (4), 483-527. (report/ some quantitative data)

--- Bosch, M & Potting, M.(2001), **Vrouwen moeten door dat plafond heen: Evaluatie van het ASPASIA programma, eerste ronde: ervaringen, resultaten, effecten.** Maastricht: Centrum voor Gender en Diversiteit, Universiteit Maastricht. (“q+q”)

Centraal Statistiek Bureau: **Jaarboek onderwijs in cijfers 2005, 2006. (quantitative data)**

Essed, P. & Nimako, K. (2006) **Designs and (Co)Incidents, Cultures of Scholarship and Public Policy on Immigrants/Minorities in the Netherlands,** in *International Journal of Comparative Sociology* Vol. 47 (3-4) 281-312. (An article/ some quantitative data)

--- Essed, P. (1999), **Ethnicity and Diversity in Dutch Academia,** in *Social Identities,* Vol. 5, No. 2, p.211-225. (an article/ some quantitative data)

“Euro-women in Science” (2002). *Science* (295), p.41-41.(An article with references to quantitative data

Expertisecentrum Allochtonen Hoger Onderwijs (ECHO report) (2004). **‘Blijvers en uitvallers naar de achtergronden van uitval van allochtone studenten in het hoger onderwijs. (Qualitative).**

Garssen, J. **Demographie van Nederland,** (2006) CBS - revised version of *Demografische ontwikkelingen in Nederland,* in Nimwegen, N. en I. Esvelt (eds.) **Bevolkingsvraagstukken in Nederland anno 2006. Werkverband Periodieke Rapportage Bevolkingsvraagstukken,** nr. 71., NIDI, Den Haag. (Report containing quantitative data)

Gijsberts, M. (2004). **‘De onderwijspositie van vrouwen uit etnische minderheden’.** In: M. Gijsberts en A. Merens (red.). *Emancipatie in estafette. De positie van vrouwen uit etnische minderheden* (p. 31-58). Den Haag/Rotterdam: Sociaal en

Cultureel Planbureau/Instituut voor Sociologisch-Economisch Onderzoek. **(Report containing some quantitative data)**

Herfs, P.G.P. (2003). **Retention Policy for Ethnic Minority Students in *Higher Education in Europe***, Vol. XXVIII, No. 3 October 2003, p.361-369. **(An article citing some quantitative data)**

Herpen et al.(2006) **Onderwijs in Sociaal Cultureel en Planbureau Report. (Report based on quantitative data)**

Langenberg, H. & Lautenbach, H. (2006). **Beroepsniveau niet-westerse allochtone lager. Report for the Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek**, p.36-45. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Lutz, H. (1997) **The Limits of European-ness: Immigrant Women in Fortress Europe**, in *Feminist Review*, No. 57 Autumn p. 93-111. **(An article citing some quantitative data)**

---(1994. **“Allochtone vrouwen en Nederlandse arbeidsmarkt: beeldvorming en beleid”**. In : R.F. van der Erf eb C.A. Liefbroer 9red.), *Allochtone vrouwen: thuis in Nederland?* Den Haag: NIDI, 1994 (boekaflevering Bevolking en gezin. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Mottier, I. (2002) **Women in Science: Review of the Situation in the Netherlands**. Helsinki Group on Women and the Science May2002, www.cordis.europa.eu/pub/improving/does/woman7national report NL. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Obbrink, H. 2003. **Gaat allochtoon talent verloren?** ScienceCareers.org Arbeidsmarktnieuws januari 2003: http://www.sciencecareers.sciencemag.org/career_development. **(Online article based on quantitative data.**

Osbourne et al. 2000. **“Science Policies in the European Union: Promoting Excellence Through mainstreaming Gender Equality”**. A report from the ETAN expert working group on women and science, the European Commission. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Turkenburg, M. Gijsberts, M. (2006) **Onderwijs en inburgering in Sociaal Atlas van vrouwen uit etnische minderheden**. Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau, p. 39-41. Den Haag: SCP Publicatie. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Wekker, G. (2006) Forthcoming publication 2007: **“Where the Girls are...” Some Hidden Gendered and Ethnicized Aspects of Higher Education in the Netherlands**. Rosenberg Publishers & Unisia Press, South Africa. **(An article citing some quantitative data)**

---(2002) **Nesten bouwen op een winderige plek. Denken over Gender en etniciteit in Nederland**. Oratie Universiteit Utrecht. (Building Nests in a Windy Place. Oration, University of Utrecht. **(An article citing some quantitative data)**

---(2001) **Van monocultuur naar caleidoscoop. De noodzaak van diversiteit in het zorgcurriculum**. *Tijdschrift voor Humanistiek Speciaal nummer over Diversiteit*, 2 (6),

26-33. (An article citing some “quantitative” data and served as potential policy draft)

---(2001) Wekker, G. &Lutz, H. **Een Hoogvlakte met koude Winden. De geschiedenis van het gender en etniciteitsdenken in Nederland.** In Botman, M.N. Jouwe en G.Wekker, red. *Caleidoscopische Visies. Zwarte, Migranten-en Vluchtelingen Vrouwenbeweging in Nederland.* Amsterdam:KIT,pp.25-49. **(An academic article citing some quantitative data)**

Van Dijk, M. & Webbink, D. (2000) **Shortages of Scientists.** CPB Report 00/4, p.14-17. **(Online article based on quantitative data.**

Vogel, R. (2006) **Even vaak hoogopgeleid maar zelden hoogleraar.** Sociaal Culturele Planbureau Report. **(Report based on quantitative data)**

Willemse, L. (2006) **Nul Mannen** (Mozaiekprijs), Erasmus Monitor, jaargang 35, no.1 Jan/feb/Mrt 2006. **(Online article)**

Wolff, R. (2007) **Met Vallen en opstaan. ECHO Report** (forthcoming 2007), Expertisecentrum Diversiteitsbeleid, Utrecht. Instituut voor Migratie en Etnische Studies (IMES) van de Universiteit Amsterdam **(Report based on quantitative data from the CRIHO: Dutch Central Registry for Higher Education).**

Recent Dutch Newspaper Articles Concerning BMR Students and Education:

The following press articles cited mainly quantitative data from the CBS. None of these articles contain qualitative data e.g. interviews.

1. De Volkskrant (13.3.2007): **Bestrijd over –en onderadvisering**. Forum; Blz. 12.
2. Trouw (23.2 2007): **De school moet slimme allochtone leerlingen juist aanmoedigen**, Vandaag; Blz. 2-3.
3. De Volkskrant (22.2.2007), **Het juiste vervolgonderwijs vinden geen geringe opgave**, Binnenland; Blz. 3.
4. Trouw (22.2.2007) **De leraar discrimineert**, Deverdieping; Blz. 2-3.
5. Algemeen Dagblad (21.2.2007), **Lager schooladvies voor allochtonen bij gelijke Cito-score**.

5.2. Issues Addressed in the Research on BMR Female Academics

1. Acknowledgement of the problem: deficient representation in tertiary education (student as well as academic personnel),
2. reasons for high drop out rate among **BMR** students at the HBO level (higher secondary level) and reasons why **BMR** do not remain in research at universities and proceed to the doctorate level,
3. development and implementation of strategic policy measures,
4. socio-economic situation and location of **BMR** communities,
5. existence of various forms of discrimination and barriers within Dutch society,
6. problematic of Dutch governmental agencies in successfully dealing with the issue of multiculturalism and integration on various levels in the Netherlands

5.3 Categories of Migrant Trajectories of Target Groups in the Netherlands :

1. Labour migrants: Turkish
2. Colonial migrants: Surinamese
3. Labour migrants. Moroccan
4. Colonial migrants: Dutch Antillean/Aruban
5. Colonial migrants: Indonesian/Indo-Dutch
6. Political Refugees: Iraqis, Iranian, various African nations and several other “non-Western” groups as determined by the Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek and the Wet Samen.

5.4 Minority Groups Concerned:

As indicated in the introduction of this report, the focus of our research in regard to female academics, examined primarily the four largest “non-Western” minority communities in the Netherlands. However, our research also pointed to the presence of Eastern European female academics. Here, it would be important to further examine the migrant as well as educational trajectories of female migrants stemming from former Communist/Socialist States. Moreover, the most recent data regarding the 2006 *Mozaiek* applicants, indicates an increased interest in the pursuit of doctoral studies by Iraqi and Iranian students. Future research would be needed in order to examine the situation of students coming from minority groups positioned within the “non-Western” migrant category.

Methodological Aspects:

As stated in earlier in this report Chapter 4 and in this Chapter, section 5.1, concrete existing data concerning **BMR** female academics, was either ascertainable via the “snow ball” method (in the form of interviews). Unfortunately, due to time constraints, no qualitative research or quantitative research i.e., surveys among this target group were conducted. Moreover, as we have pointed out earlier, the existing statistical data compiled either by European Commission research institutes i.e., “She Figures” by Science and Society, or by Dutch universities, looks mostly at gender, but has failed to give attention to or mention the social categories of “race” and ethnicity and their intersections.

5.6 Policy Recommendations

The studies and reports, which have made policy recommendations, are listed in section 5.1. These are as follows:

5. **Tijd voor Diversiteit.** Een onderzoek naar diversiteit in de Curricula van de Faculteit Letteren. Dicke, E. & Wekker, G. (2004). Een Project van E-Quality, ECHO, De Wetenschapswinkel Letteren en GEM. Utrecht: Universiteit Utrecht. (some “quantitative” data and served as potential policy draft)
6. **Kleurrijk Talent, Allochtonen werkzaam in wetenschappelijk onderwijs en onderzoek. (2002) Instituut voor Migratie en Etnische Studies Crul et al. (“q+q” and policy recommendations)**

Wekker, G. (2001) **Van monocultuur naar caleidoscoop. De noodzaak van diversiteit in het zorgcurriculum.** *Tijdschrift voor Humanistiek Speciaal nummer over Diversiteit*, 2 (6), 26-33. (An article citing some “quantitative” data and served as potential policy draft)

Chapter 6

Policy Recommendations:

6.1. *Good Practices*

In Chapter 3 we presented the ASPASIA programme and in Chapter 4, the *Mozaiek* programme. Many of the studies listed in the first part of this Chapter have contributed to policy recommendations for the promotion of women in academia. Several of these have been evaluated and implemented by governmental bodies, agencies and research institutes. For example i.e. ASPASIA OCW (Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science) and *Mozaiek* from the NWO (Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research) programmes are linked to the two investigative reports listed below, which were conducted during the mid 1980s and in the early part of this decade:

- Expertise Centrum voor Allochtonen Hoger Onderwijs (ECHO) Grenzeloos talent. **Hoogopgeleide nieuwe Nederlanders in beeld**. 2001
- Instituut voor Migratie – en Etnische Studies: **Kleurrijk Talent** 2002 (financed by the NWO).

These policies and measures target specifically **BMR** students, who demonstrate academic potential. However, the programme is geared towards both female and male students and does not give priority only to potential doctoral female students.

The ASPASIA (see Chapter 3) programme targets, encourages and enables female academics to become Professors, but the programme does not entail a special section exclusively for female academics stemming from **BMR** backgrounds.

6.2 *Bad Practices*

In looking at practices, which would discriminate or restrict the increase of **BMR** students and academics, we have briefly pointed to (Chapter 1) the socio-economic backgrounds and positioning of **BMR** groups in the Netherlands. In terms of “bad practices”, we will point to the lack of academic role models for **BMR** students and to the incidences where talented **BMR** students have received insufficient and incorrect scholastic guidance and advice. According to the sources used, this “mis-guidance” did not occur with only one specific **BMR** group, instead this tendency appears to be a contributing factor in lower educational achievement levels with **BMR** students across the board.

More in depth research is required in order to ascertain the individual experiences – good and bad practices- experienced by **BMR** academic personnel in the Netherlands.

There is an additional issue that we will address in regard to “bad practices”. This issue deals with the prevalent Dutch self-image and self-representation, which are projected and as considered the “norm” in terms of high achievement and success. It has often been the case that individuals with **BMR** backgrounds are seen as “token” oddities within the realm of academia, and that their positions

have been granted on the bases of fulfilling ethnic or “racial” quotas, rather than intelligence and merit. Here, academics stemming from **BMR** descent are faced with the long standing “scientific” view of white European towards individuals of colour. By this we make reference to Modernity’s biological racist view, which associated blackness or non-whiteness with inferior intelligence. The dominant Dutch image of a Professor intersects implicitly and explicitly with the construction of whiteness and heterosexual male-ness (Wekker 2002: 10-11).

Chapter 7

Existing Academic/Scientist Networks

In this Chapter, we will introduce and discuss the various existing networks which function as a forum for female academics in the Netherlands. However, in looking at the organisations listed below, only E-quality appears to have placed the issue of **BMR** women at the forefront of its activities. The websites that were reviewed showed primarily photos of white female academics. This, we believe, underlines the prevalent imagery within academia. Until recent, the dominant image of a female Dutch Professor has been a white female. As our research has shown, the discussion of women in academia tends to focus primarily upon gender as the sole/main determinant of a female academic’s quest to ascend to the upper ranks of Dutch academy. The intersections of gender with “race” and ethnicity have been routinely omitted from the academic discussion. Moreover, the networks listed here do not cater specifically to, nor do they address the situation of **BMR** female academics or engage their experiences in Dutch academia.

The existing networks are the following

1. **Centre for Gender and Diversity:** Maastricht- brings together teaching and research in Women’s Studies

www.genderdiversiteit.unimaas.nl/pages/frameset-uk.htm

2. **Institute for Gender Studies:** Radboud University of Nijmegen- engages in education and research on women, sexuality and gender. The institute employs one female Full Professor, three female Associate Professors and ten female lecturers.

www.ru.nl/genderstudies

3. **VHTO:** Netherlands WiTEC: National Organisation for Women in Higher Technical Education and Positions- the VHTO has compiled a significant amount of quantitative and qualitative data concerning female technology students and engineers and prospective employment.

www.vhto.nl

4. **Expertisecentrum Allochtonen in het Hoger Onderwijs (ECHO)-** conducts research and is a centre of advice and innovation in encouraging the influx of aspiring **BMR** students into institutions of higher learning.

www.echo.nl

5. **Priority for Participation EQUAL project** (end date 2007)

www.gendergap.nl and www.participatiealprioriteit.nl

6. **Female Faculty Network** : Twente University:

The goal of the Twente Female Faculty Network is further development of professionalism of female faculty. The network wants to achieve this goal by providing a platform for:

1. Networking between female faculty from the University of Twente, as well as other academic women (business, governance) in Twente;
2. Organizing professional development events, such as workshops and presentations;
3. Organizing activities that would stimulate other women towards education, academic careers and professional development;
4. Exchanging ideas on research and management styles;
5. Social meeting other academic women.

Key objectives of the Network are: to create a network where academic women can meet and exchange ideas and experiences; to provide female faculty with professional training; to advise UT Management Board about female faculty issues; to raise awareness about female faculty issues (both among women and men); and to monitor the implementation of female faculty-friendly measures.

www.utwente.nl/ffnt

7. **Royal Academy of Sciences**: Issues an annual report and maintains a website containing basic information about Dutch universities.

www.onderzoekinformatie.nl

8. **Stichting Landelijke Netwerk Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren-The National Network of Female Professors-**

- aims to strengthen the disciplinary as well as interdisciplinary link between female Professors
- increase the influx of female academics to higher posts within Dutch universities
- cooperation with comparable institutions in the areas of science, research and education,
- strives towards equal representation of women in scientific advisory commissions and bodies.

www.Invh.nl

9. **De Beauvoir Foundation**: named after the French Feminist thinker, Simone De Beauvoir, the network aims to improve the participation of female academics in the sciences. The Foundation also issues the yearly Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren (Monitor of Women Professors).

ww.stichtingdebeauvoir.nl

We would like to mention one last aspect here in regard to the topic of networking among female academics stemming from **BMR** backgrounds. Two of the Full Professors that were consulted on this topic expressed interest in the creation of such a network, but they also raised three important points, which need to be fully explored

and critically examined. These concerns were prompted by one female Professor's experience in the field of academia in the Netherlands:

1. How would it be possible to increase the attractiveness of such a network without creating additional work or responsibilities? Efforts made towards the creation and maintenance of a network for BMR female academics should be considered equal and comparable to gainful employment, and not as an extra-curricula activity performed on a volunteer basis.
2. In terms of practicality, what benefit would its potential members receive from such a network?
3. How might potential members approach conceptual and theoretical aspects? Aspects, which might lead to division, strife and unnecessary time consumption. One example of this is the categorisation of European versus Non-European. The determination of an individual's identity is dependant upon the individual's life trajectory and is perhaps best left to personal choice. One Professor with a **BMR** background commented that she identified as a European academic and did not wish to be categorized as a migrant either of first or second-generation origin.

There is much to be said in regard to potential networking among **BMR** female academics. However, further in depth research would be required in order to thoroughly examine the academic landscape where female academics of **BMR** located, unbeknownst to us as of this writing, might be active.

Chapter 8

National Specificity

European Union regulations in regard to the recognition of foreign secondary education diplomas and university degrees within the European Union are seen as instruments to facilitate the encumbered movement of students and graduates within the Union's member States. On 18-19 June 1999 European Ministers of Education in Bologna, Italy signed the Bologna Declaration. The Bologna Declaration aimed to promote harmonization between Europe's diverse systems of higher education, thus recognizing academic degrees obtained in the various European Member States. However, the academic degrees of highly qualified individuals from outside the EU are examined in order to evaluate their equivalency with Dutch educational requirements. According to our research, female academics stemming from **BMR** backgrounds appear either to have completed their tertiary studies at Dutch universities or have foreign degrees equivalent to degrees awarded in the Netherlands. Further in depth research is required in order to ascertain the situation of highly qualified women with **BMR** backgrounds, who might have had to accept employment below their educational qualifications.

Chapter 9

Recommendations

In what follows, based upon previous studies and the research conducted for this report; we will sketch a tentative outline for suggestions regarding the future recruitment of **BMR** students and female academics and equal opportunity policies and measures. This last Chapter addresses the student and academic personnel level and how it might be feasibly possible to propel **BMR** women higher up in echelons of the Dutch academy. It is not only important that female academics of **BMR** descent become more visible, but also to extend an effort to strengthen and empower **BMR** students to pursue careers in academia.

The suggestions made here were contemplated with the intent of implementation not only on the national level, but on the EU level as well.

1. **Mandatory coursework:** engagement in education from a multicultural perspective and working in a multicultural context is not an issue solely related to **BMR** students or educational staff. Adequate knowledge needs to be gained concerning the pertinent issues of gender, ethnicity/"race" and nationality. In addition, it is equally important to examine and realize that these issues are inextricably interwoven into Western society and how these axes of social signification influence, mould the personal trajectories and positioning of all its members. Such a course or a course block would be particularly helpful if students and professionals should one day enter into and practice professions related to education, research, medicine/healthcare or the justice administration. It would be welcomed if a mandatory course/ course block for all students and staff members of all faculties would be introduced.
2. **Better access to information:** Many **BMR** students are simply misinformed concerning the numerous possibilities that would enable them to pursue careers in academia. Hommad el Allai, a global telematics researcher portrayed in the 2002 publication *Kleurrijk Talent*, stated that many **BMR** students are in a type of "sleep/dream state" when it comes to information regarding the pursuit of academic careers. The directors of the GEM programme (Gender, Etniciteit en Migratie) at Utrecht University have recommended the organisation and introduction of information caravans, which visit middle schools and give **BMR** students the latest information concerning careers in academia. Given the meandering path of many **BMR** students, these caravans should not be limited. It would be a good idea to continue disseminating this information not only till the VWO-level (pre-university level), but also VBO level (preparatory vocational education) students should be targeted. Since **BMR** academic assistants, research staff, Associate and Assistant Professors are already overloaded, in terms of their labour, this would have to be work, which is financially compensated.
3. **Unused Potential:** At the present time, the numbers of highly educated job seekers exceeds their demand in the academia job-market. However, according to the CPB, in the coming ten years, a deficiency in the areas of research will occur. This has been linked with the numbers in aging staff holding permanent positions and to the not so attractive image of universities in the labour market. **BMR** female academics and talented **BMR** youth constitute an unused

and overlooked source from which to gain future academic staff in the coming ten years.

4. The directors of the GEM programme at Utrecht University have witnessed a recurring phenomenon where many talented **BMR** students have been prematurely plucked from universities, because their talents (multicultural competency and skilfulness) are in great demand in numerous sectors of society. It has been GEM's experience that several promising **BMR** students did not complete their studies and succumbed to the temptation of employment opportunities offered by media and cultural institutions. The greater appeal of early gratification (gainful employment) rather than later (long period of study without guaranteed employment) has prompted some promising **BMR** students to veer away from a future in academia. GEM recommends that a study be conducted examining to which degree this phenomenon occurs in other sectors than in culture related sectors, and how to hinder the further decrease within the academic pool of **BMR** potential. The failure of talented **BMR** students to complete their university studies may bring a short-lived advantage e.g. a paid position, for **BMR** students and for the institutions that employ them, but for universities, this phenomenon points to a disadvantageous situation, which universities, given the insufficient attention given to diversity, played a detrimental role.
5. Academic Advancement EU and National Level: In Chapter 3 the ASPASIA programme was outlined and discussed. A programme at the EU and national level, similar to ASPASIA could be created and instituted specifically to enable the advancement of **BMR** female academics in all the EU Member States.

BMR Doctoral Commission: A committee consisting of academics and intellectuals of **BMR** backgrounds, who would stimulate and accompany **BMR** students throughout their doctoral studies Prof. Ruben Gowrichern has already pointed to such a body in the publication *Kleurrijk Talent in de Wetenschap* (2002:19). There now exists such a program at the Tilburg University . This is envisioned as a mixture of both mentoring and recruitment. The potential candidate would have access to a committee comprised of white Dutch doctoral committee members and a commission with members are of **BMR** backgrounds.

6. Academic Advancement Program: For example UCLA (University of California at Los Angeles) has instituted a programme consisting of students from ethnic minorities, who undergo an intense program where they receive guidance from mentors (upper year students) regarding academic writing, how one conducts a presentation, ICT's etc. The mentoring group consists of older students, who have maintained a high grade point average (3.0 with 4.0⁴⁶ as the maximum). These students are referred to as teaching assistants and are compensated for their work. The advantages here are that the curricula and methodology are still relatively fresh in the minds of the teaching assistants,

⁴⁶ Four (4) would be the equivalent of the score of 10 in the Netherlands.

and they can also share their recent experiences with those students that they mentor.

7. Mentoring Program: **BMR** Professionals can also function as mentors for talented **BMR** students. It would be advisable to create and stimulate groups within faculties where **BMR** students are at various stages in their studies. Here, the image of a honeycomb comes to mind where students can fly in and out in order to receive support in the area of their studies. An additional advantage here would be that students would have the possibility to build networks in the early stages of their studies, coming into contact with good study methods and learning how to give presentations.
8. Supplementary/complementary education for teachers: educational staff would partake in courses aimed at the promotion of gender awareness and knowledge in regard to multiculturalism within Dutch society. We suggest that research be conducted to examine what happens when white “native” Dutch teachers teach **BMR** students. We are curious to ascertain what happens with white “native” Dutch when the “ethno-racial” composition (meaning **BMR** students are equal to or outnumber white “native” Dutch students) of the classroom changes? Do white “native” Dutch teachers possess the competency to deal with the multicultural context of their classrooms?
9. Diversity in academic personnel at Dutch universities: the recruitment of more **BMR** university students could be assisted by having more and increasing the visibility of **BMR** lecturers at universities. **BMR** students are more likely to feel more drawn to attending universities when the university personnel consists of **BMR** Professors and lecturers and not merely **BMR** individuals employed in low-level positions e.g. catering and household.
10. Transparency in the collection of data on the national and EU level: Utrecht University is one of the few universities in the Netherlands that has collected statistical data regarding the presence of **BMR** personnel and **BMR** student population. Our inquiries have pointed out that the majority of Dutch universities do not collect data regarding the “racial” or ethnic backgrounds of their academic staff.

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Appendix

List of countries defined as “non-Western” by the WET SAMEN

Afghanistan	Falkland Islands	Montserrat	Tunisia
Algeria	Philippines	Mozambique	Turkey
Angola	French Guyana	Myanmar	Turks- and Calicos Islands
Anguilla	Gabon	Namibia	Uganda
Antigua and Barbuda	Gambia	Dutch Antilles + Aruba	United Arab Emirates
Argentina	Ghana	Nepal	Uruguay
Bahama's	Grenada	Nicaragua	Venezuela
Bahrein	Guadeloupe	Niger	Vietnam
Bangladesh	Guatemala	Nigeria	Zambia
Barbados	Guinea	North Korea	Zimbabwe
Belize	Guinea-Bissau	Oman	
Benin	Haiti	Pakistan	
Bermuda	Honduras	Panama	
Bhutan	Hongkong	Paraguay	
Bolivia	India	Peru	
Botswana	Irak	Puerto Rico	
Brazil	Iran	Reunion	
British Territory in the Indian Ocean	Israel	Rwanda	
Brunei	Ivory Coast	Saint Kitts and Nevis	
Burkina Faso	Jamaica	Saint Pierre and Miguel	
Burundi	Jemen	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	
Cambodia	Jordan	Sao Tome and Principe	
Cayman Islands	Cameroon	Saudi Arabia	
Chad	Qatar	Senegal	
Republic of Central Africa	Kenya	Seychellen	
Chile	Kuwait	Sierra Leone	
China	Laos	Singapore	
Colombia	Lesotho	Saint-Helena	
Comoren	Lebanon	Saint Lucia	
Congo	Liberia	Sudan	
Democratic Republic of the Congo	Libya	Somalia	
Costa Rica	Macau	South Africa	
Cuba	Madagascar	South Korea	
Djibouti	Malawi	Sri Lanka	
Dominica	Maldives	Suriname	
Dominican Republic	Malaysia	Swaziland	
Ecuador	Mali	Syria	
Equatorial Guinea	Morocco	Taiwan	
Egypt	Martinique	Tanzania	
El Salvador	Mauritania	Thailand	
Eritrea	Mauritius	Timor Leste	
Ethiopia	Mayotte	Togo	
	Mexico	Trinidad and Tobago	
	Mongolia		

Table 1: Country of origin⁴⁷ and gender.

Country of Origin	Total population in the Netherlands	First generation		Second generation	
		Females	Males	Females	Males
“Native”Dutch	13,184,447				
Total “non-Western”	1,722,500				
Turkey	368,718	94,265	101,003	83,937	89,513
Suriname	333,478	101,783	84,374	72,780	74,541
Morocco	329,634	78,652	89,447	79,556	81,979
Dutch Antilles and Aruba	129,590	40,330	38,353	25,124	25,783

Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen 2007-02-12

Table 2: Country of origin, age and gender:

Source: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, Voorburg/Heerlen 2007-02-12

Netherlands				Nationalities and migrant groups						
Dutch		Turkey		Surinam		Morocco		Dutch Antilles/Aruba		
Age groups	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
0-10	744,162	779,232	34,482	32,783	21,903	23,383	37,030	38,326	10,621	10,908
10-20	756,117	791,684	36,179	33,672	26,879	27,460	30,051	31,611	11,671	12,203
20-30	711,961	738,983	33,227	34,366	28,688	26,791	32,484	28,123	13,748	13,653
30-40	897,699	923,720	36,426	34,577	30,615	26,509	27,051	30,246	10,292	10,687
40-50	1,019,866	1,045,288	27,965	22,016	31,635	25,814	15,541	20,903	8,881	8,431
50-60	932,793	956,924	9,972	10,973	19,635	17,459	9,221	9,191	6,187	5,390
60-70	708,066	691,127	9,615	7,355	9,025	7,915	5,234	9,786	2,767	2,270

Table 3: Position of BMR individuals (females and males) in the labour market 2002/2005

Country of Origin	Percentages in the labour market
“Native Dutch	83,5%
Turkish	1,5%
Surinamese	2,0%
Moroccan	1,1%
Dutch Antillean/Aruban	0,7%
Western “allochtone” ⁴⁸	9,0%
Other “non-Westerners” ⁴⁹	2,2%

⁴⁷ First and second generation applies only to migrant groups.

⁴⁸ This group includes Indonesians/Indo-Dutch and Western Europeans, i.e. Germans, Belgians, Japanese, North Americans etc.

⁴⁹ This includes individuals from Africa, Asia (exception Indonesia), Middle East and South America

Source: Langenberg& Lautenbach report based on data CBS- Socio-economic trends first quarter 2007

Complementary source to table 3: Source CBS Yearbook 2006, p.89.

9.12 Unemployment (*unemployed labour force as a % of the labour force*)

	1995	2000	2004	2005
Men	6.2	2.7	5.8	5.6
Women	11.1	5.4	7.4	7.7
15–24 yrs	13.2	6.7	13.5	13.1
25–34 yrs	8.2	3.3	6.0	5.8
35–44 yrs	7.9	3.5	5.8	5.9
45–54 yrs	6.1	3.3	5.0	5.1
55–64 yrs	4.2	3.0	4.9	5.8
Native Dutch	6.7	3.0	5.3	5.2
Western foreign background	11.0	5.1	8.4	9.1
Non-western background	26.3	11.0	16.1	16.4
Turkish	31.2	9.1	13.9	14.4
Moroccan	31.9	13.0	22.1	19.9
Surinamese	18.9	9.1	11.7	12.2
Antillean/Aruban	23.3	8.7	15.7	17.6
other non-western	31.6	13.9	18.5	19.1
Primary education	16.0	7.6	13.3	13.3
Junior secondary education	11.6	6.2	8.5	9.6
Junior vocational training	9.3	4.2	7.9	8.5
Senior secondary education	12.1	5.1	8.6	9.0
Senior vocational training	6.0	2.7	5.5	5.6
Higher professional education	5.8	2.8	4.2	3.8
University education	6.3	2.6	5.0	5.0
Total	8.1	3.8	6.5	6.5

Table 4

Dutch Unemployment in %		2006
Native Dutch	Age 25-64	4,3
“Non-Westerners” (total groups)	Age 25-64	15,5
Turks	Age 25-64	14
Surinamese	Age 25-64	12
Moroccans	Age 25-64	17
Dutch Antilleans/Arubans	Age 25-64	18

Source: CBS Unemployment figures for 2006.

Table 5: Position in the labour market based on levels of education in %

Females	Elementary	Lower Professional	Middle Professional	Higher Professional	Academic
“Native“ Dutch	6	23	40	23	7
Turkish	31	28	30	9	2
Moroccan	27	39	30	10	3
Surinamese	11	29	38	17	5
Antilles/Aruba	12	27	36	18	7
Males	Elementary	Lower Professional	Middle Professional	Higher professional	Academic
“Native“ Dutch	6	23	39	23	10
Turkish	22	41	27	9	1
Moroccan	28	38	23	7	3
Surinamese	14	30	36	16	4
Antilles/Aruba	17	24	38	15	6

Source: CBS statistics 2006

Table 6: Working population by sex, origin and level of education 2006

Personal characteristics	% Gross labour⁵⁰ participation	Net labour⁵¹ participation	Percentage unemployed
Females			
Educ. level: hbo ⁵² , wo bachelor	80.6	77.9	3.4
Educ. level: master, doctor	82.0	78.0	4.9
Educ. level unknown	44.8	35.9	19.9
“Native” Dutch	61,3	57.9	5.6
“Non-Western” ⁵³ foreign background	45,9	37,8	17.8
Turks	37,4	29,7	20.6
Moroccans	29,4	22,8	22,6

Source: CBS statistics 2006

⁵⁰ Gross labour participation is expressed as a percentage of the potential labour force. This includes persons working at least twelve hours per week and anyone who has accepted employment for twelve hours per week. Individuals, who are available and prepared to actively look for employment are also include in this category (CBS: www.cbs.nl).

⁵¹ Net labour participation refers to the employed labour force as part of the total population and includes only persons employed for a minimum of twelve hours per week. Person employed less than twelve hours per week are not included in the labour force statistics. (CBS: www.cbs.nl).

⁵² HBO- *Hogere Beroeps Opleiding* is a former of higher education, but not the equivalent of WO *Wetenschappelijke Opleiding*.

⁵³ This includes individuals with Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban backgrounds.

Continuation of table 6

Personal characteristics Males	% Gross labour participation	Net labour participation	Percentage unemployed
Educ. level: hbo, wo bachelor	86,8	84,3	3,0
Educ. level: master, doctor	88,9	86,4	2,8
Educ. level unknown	71,7	65,8	8,2
“Native” Dutch	78,4	75,8	3,3
“Non-Western” ⁵⁴ foreign background	64,3	55,4	13,9
Turks	65,0	57,2	12,1
Moroccans	62,6	53,3	14,9

Source: CBS statistics 2006

Table 7

Distribution of “native” white Dutch and ethnic minority students in the four big cities			
Level of education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
“Native” Dutch	25%	50%	94%
Ethnic minorities	70%	45%	6%

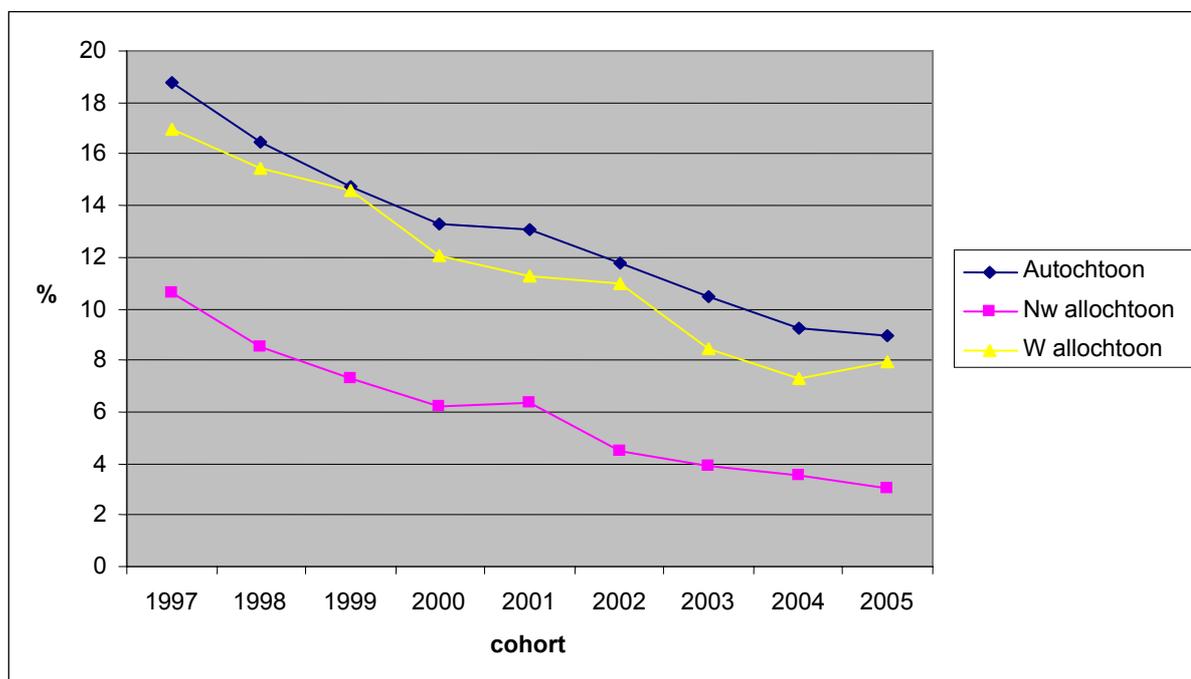
Source: Tupan 2006, based on CBS data

Table 7a Hbo- influx of students with pre-university education according to their origin (percentage of the total influx per group)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	19	16	15	13	13	12	10	9	9
Non-Westerners	11	9	7	6	6	4	4	4	3
Westerners	17	15	15	12	11	11	8	7	8

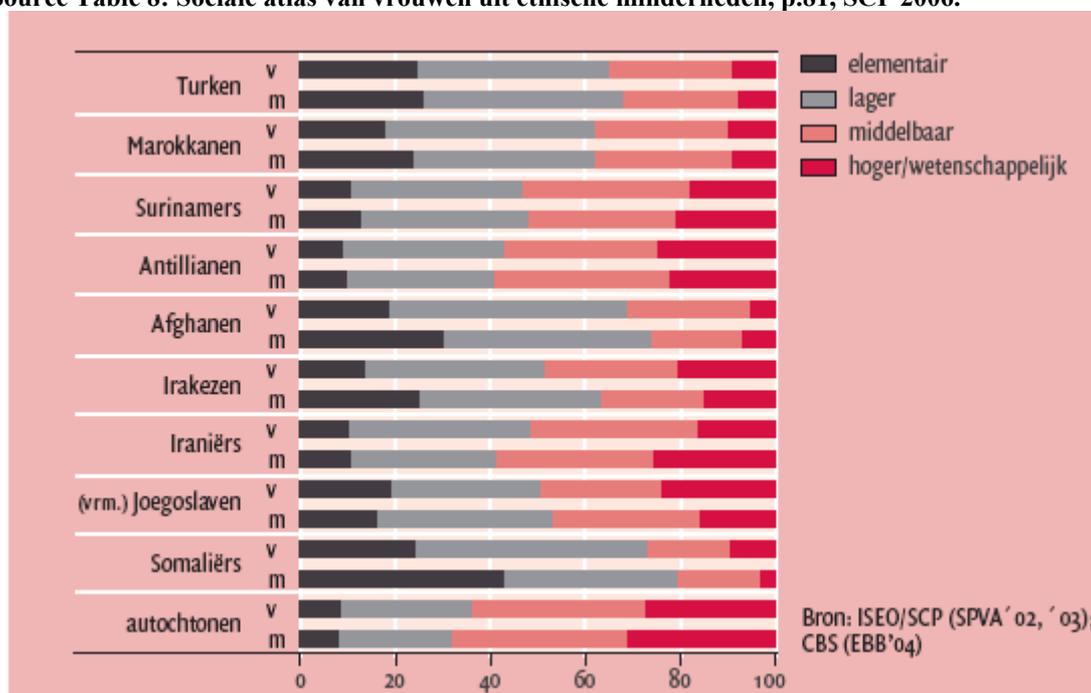
⁵⁴ This includes individuals with Surinamese and Antillean/Aruban backgrounds.

Figure of 7a Hbo- influx of students with pre-university education according to their origin (percentage of the total influx per group)



Source: IBG, Calculations: IMES

Source Table 8: Sociale atlas van vrouwen uit etnische minderheden, p.81, SCP 2006.



v=females, m=males, elementair=elementary, lager=lower prof., middelbaar=middle prof., hoger/wetenschappelijk= academic.

Table 9: Women scientists in the Netherlands in 1998

Age-cohort	Total	Professor	Associate Professor	Assistant Professor	Postdoc and other	PhD students	NWO/ KNAW
≤29 years	6535	0	2	129	1705	4602	97
30-34	3474	20	41	653	1727	856	177
35-39	2952	100	210	1129	1237	137	139
40-44	2602	244	394	1134	724	37	69
45-49	2371	432	491	910	481	14	43
50-54	2737	662	693	970	391	3	18
55-59	2226	624	593	732	250	0	27
≥60	955	392	199	273	82	0	9
Total	23852	2474	2623	5930	6597	5649	579
% Women	25.9	5.4	8.2	21.2	32.4	39.9	30.3

Source: CPB Report 00/4 van Dijk and Webbink, p.14.

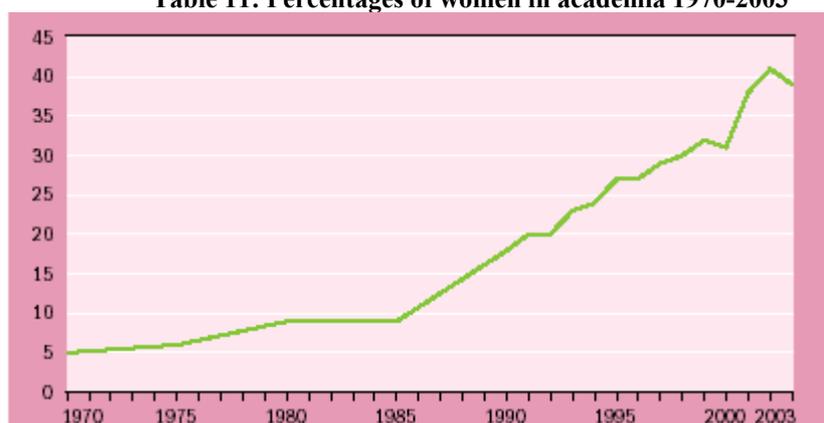
NOW: Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research

KNAW: Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Table 10: Female PhD graduates in the Netherlands (2003)

Female PhDs in %	Humanities and the Arts	Social Sciences Business and Law	Science Mathematics and Computing	Engineering Manufacturing and Construction	Agriculture	Health and Welfare
The Netherlands	43.8	48.5	40.1	19.9	44.3	48.7

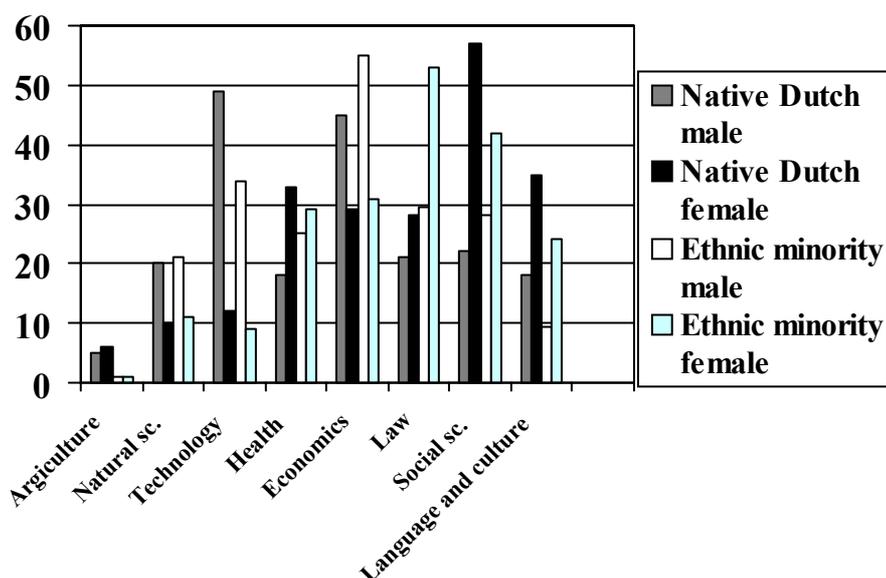
Source: EC-She Figures 2006 p.39.

Table 11: Percentages of women in academia 1970-2003

Source: CBS education statistics.

Table 12

Source: CBS Report "Allochtonen in Nederland" 2003, p. 71.

**Table 13: Proportion of high-level women scientists in the various academic disciplines 2004**

Academic female staff	Natural Sciences	Engineering Technology	Medical sciences	Agricultural Sciences	Social Sciences	Humanities
The Netherlands	5.3%	3.1%	6.3%	11.0%	11.5%	16.3%

Source: EC report -She Figures 2006.

Table 14: Academic personnel in the Netherlands

Academic personnel in the Netherlands	Permanent contracts	Limited contracts
University of Leiden	22,3%	32,4%
University of Utrecht	23,7%	30,6%
University of Groningen	26,0%	25,9%
Erasmus University Rotterdam	24,0%	35,6%
Maastricht University	21,3%	31,0%
University of Amsterdam	30,9%	25,3%
Free University of Amsterdam	25,3%	29,0%
Radboud University Nijmegen	23,6%	27,0%
Tilburg University	26,9%	28,9%
Delft University of Technology	23,8%	32,8%
Eindhoven University of Technology	19,3%	42,7%
Wageningen University	22,7%	30,2%
Open University of the Netherlands	37,6%	6,0%
Total	24,3%	30,5%

Source VSNU, WOPI 2005 31.12.2005

Table 15: Academic grade

Academic grade	Females	Males
Professors	221	2,017
Associate Professor	325	1,746
Assistant Professors	1, 173	3,023
PhDs	3,100	4,375
Academic teaching staff	884	1,241
Academic research staff	1,069	2,008
Remaining academic staff	201	389

Source, www.vsn⁵⁵.nl 2005

Table 16: Source VSNU, WOPI 2005, cut-off date 31 December 2005.

% Females	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Full Professors	6,3	7,1	8,1	8,5	9,3	9,9
Associate Professors	10,7	11,2	13,7	14,2	14,2	15,7
Assistant Professors	22,4	22,7	23,3	24,5	26,9	28,0
PhDs	44,2	41,0	41,3	41,5	41,4	41,5

Table 17: Source- Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren 2006.

Full Professors	Total	Women	Men	% Women
Leiden	194	27	167	14,1
Utrecht	291	38	252	13,2
Groningen	249	27	222	10,7
Erasmus	99	5	93	5,4
Maastricht	105	7	98	7,0
Univ. Amst.	271	36	235	13,4
Free Univ. Amst.	193	19	174	9,8
Radboud	184	26	158	14,0
Tilburg	117	7	110	6,3
Delft	188	8	180	4,0
Eindhoven	110	2	108	1,8
Twente	122	6	116	4,9
Wageningen	100	12	89	11,6
Open	16	1	15	6,2
Total	2,238	221	2017	9,9%

⁵⁵ VSNU is the Dutch acronym for the Association of Universities in the Netherlands.

Table 18: Source- Monitor Vrouwelijke Hoogleraren 2006, p.15.

	%Full Prof.	%Associate Prof.	%Assistant Prof.	%PhDs
Leiden	14,1	22,7	32,8	49,2
Utrecht	13,2	19,4	33,7	47,2
Groningen	10,7	20,1	31,3	43,8
Erasmus	5,4	9,0	26,6	51,9
Maastricht	7,0	22,3	33,6	58,2
Univ. Amst.	13,4	21,7	29,3	44,4
Free Univ. Amst.	9,8	15,6	29,9	43,2
Radboud	14,0	18,0	20,3	44,7
Tillburg	6,3	14,1	33,4	53,4
Delft	4,0	6,9	17,4	23,3
Eindhoven	1,8	3,0	13,1	25,3
Twente	4,9	10,1	21,8	29,0
Wageningen	11,6	11,7	22,1	44,5
Open	6,2	14,4	40,1	*
Total	9,9%	15,7%	28,0%	41,5%

* indicates that the number were too few to calculate.

Table 19: Figure participation of women in permanent academic positions 1993-2008 (% of total labour years) Source van Dijk and Webbink CPB Report 00/4 p. 16.

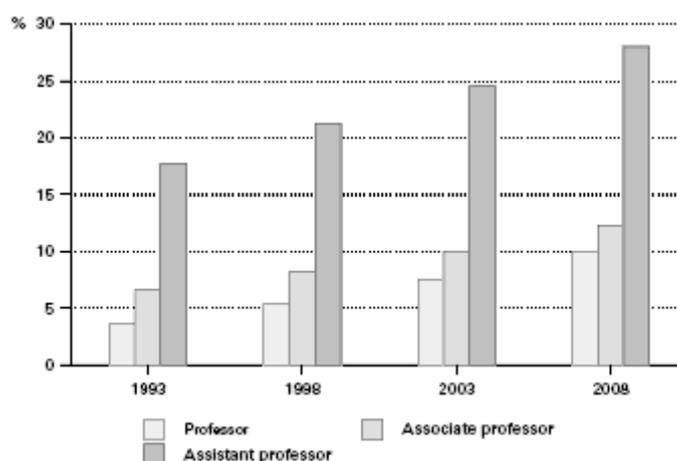


Table 20 depicts the Dutch National Average:

Full Prof.	Total	Females	Males
Associate Prof.	0,81	0,81	0,83
Assistant Prof.	0,90	0,90	0,87
Research staff	0,86	0,88	0,85

Source- Monitor Vrouwelijke Hooglerarer 2006, p. 16.

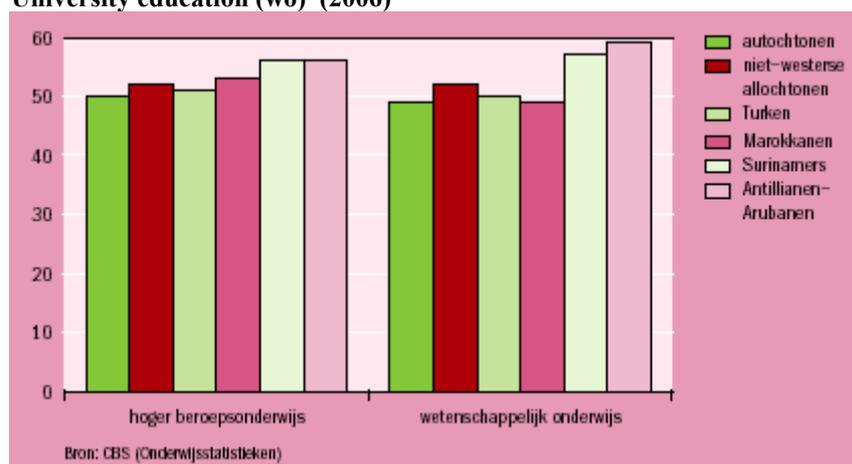
Table 21 :Education levels of BMR groups aged 24-65 in the Netherlands in %

	bo	vbo	mavo	havo/vwo	mbo	hbo	wo	totaal
vrouwen								
totaal	13	16	12	8	28	15	8	100
autochtonen	12	17	12	7	29	16	7	100
allochtonen	16	10	8	15	25	11	11	100
eerste generatie	20	10	6	17	25	7	11	100
tweede generatie	9	11	11	11	26	20	11	100
niet-westerse allochtonen	26	12	5	16	23	7	8	100
eerste generatie	28	12	5	16	21	6	7	100
tweede generatie	9	8	10	13	34	15	9	100
Turken	42	15	4	14	14	3	3	100
Marokkanen	46	17	3	7	18	3	3	100
Surinamers	16	10	10	12	33	14	3	100
Antillianen/Arubanen	9	10	10	17	28	14	7	100
overige niet-westerse allochtonen	18	10	3	23	22	6	16	100
mannen								
totaal	9	14	6	7	34	17	12	100
autochtonen	8	15	6	6	35	19	11	100
allochtonen	12	5	11	14	29	11	16	100
eerste generatie	15	4	11	16	30	7	14	100
tweede generatie	7	7	12	10	27	20	18	100
niet-westerse allochtonen	18	4	13	16	27	8	11	100
eerste generatie	19	4	13	16	27	6	10	100
tweede generatie	6	6	11	12	28	21	16	100
Turken	24	4	14	18	25	5	5	100
Marokkanen	32	4	14	14	21	4	6	100
Surinamers	13	8	14	11	34	12	6	100
Antillianen/Arubanen	8	4	12	12	38	16	8	100
overige niet-westerse allochtonen	10	3	11	19	26	7	21	100

Source: CBS population survey 2005.

English definitions for table 22

Mannen= males, vrouwen=females, eerste generatie=first generation, tweede generatie=second generation, autochtone= "native" Dutch, niet-westerse="non Westerners". bo= basic ed., vbo=preparatory vocational ed., mavo= lower general ed., havo= upper general ed., vwo=pre-university ed., wo= university.

Table 23: Percentages of BMR students in higher professional education (hbo) and University education (wo) (2006)

Source: Emancipatie Monitor 2006, p.46

Source: IBG, calculations IMES

Tabel 24 Influx of WO students according to origin (in absolute numbers)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	15355	16017	16645	16466	17547	17269	18384	19517	20421
Western migrants	1743	1816	1860	1929	2033	1910	2179	2203	2255
“Non-Western” migrants	1278	1379	1533	1626	1850	1906	2216	2383	2352
Unknown	427	593	712	798	1106	1714	2900	3565	3641

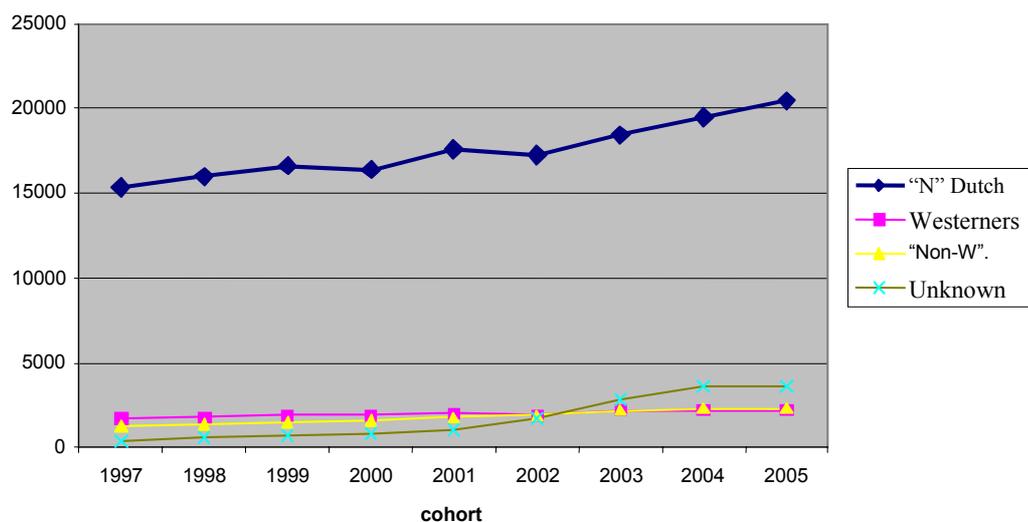
Graphic depiction of table 24 : Source: IBG, calculations IMES

Table 25 Influx of wo full time female and male students based on origin.

%	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native Dutch	82	81	80	79	78	76	72	71	71
Western migrants	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	8	8
“Non-Western” migrants	7	7	7	8	8	8	9	9	8
Unknown	2	3	3	4	5	8	11	13	13

Source: IBG: calculations IMES

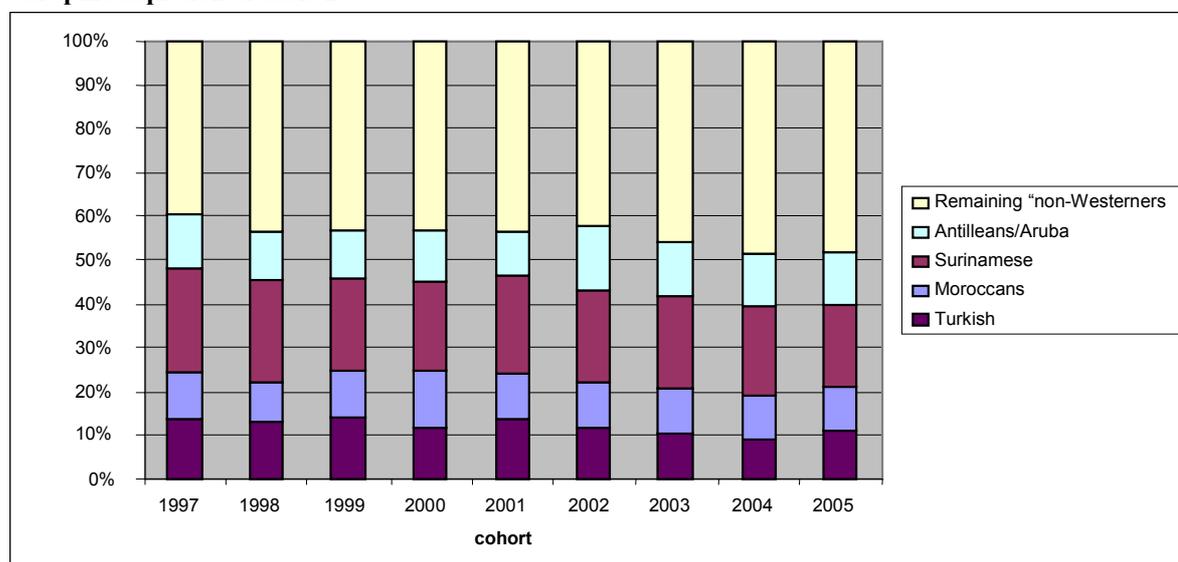
Graphic depiction of Table 25

Table 26 WO⁵⁶ influx of “non-western” full-time female and male students in percentages

%	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Turkish	14	13	14	12	14	12	10	9	11
Moroccan	11	9	10	13	11	11	11	10	10
Surinamese	24	23	21	21	22	21	21	20	19
Antillean/Aruban	12	11	11	12	10	15	12	12	12
Remaining “non-Westerners”	40	44	43	43	43	42	46	48	48

Source: IBG: calculations IMES.

Graphic depiction of table 26



Source: IBG: calculations IMES.

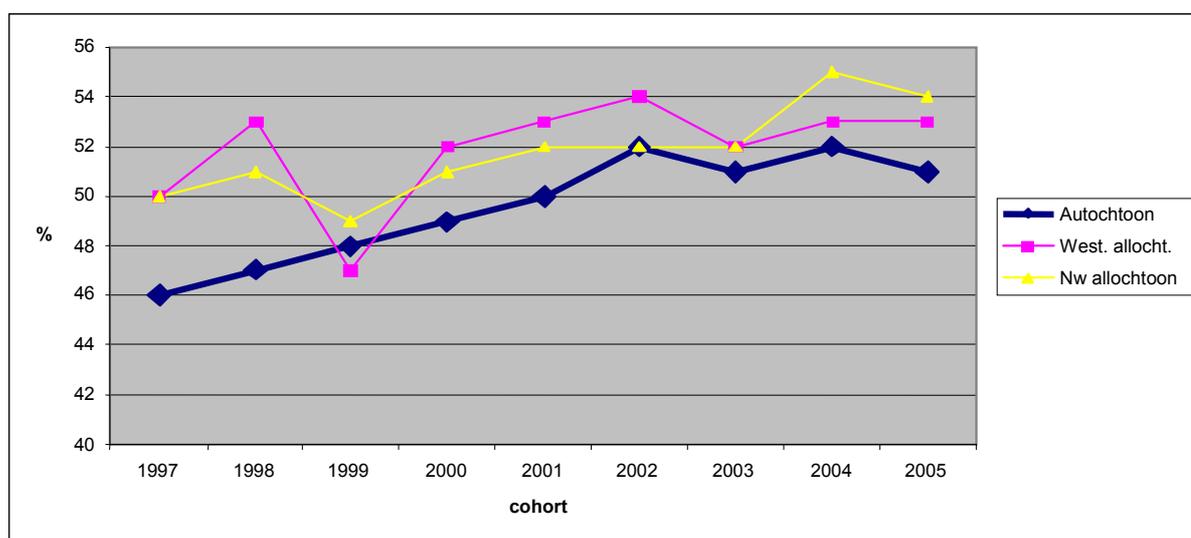
⁵⁶ Wo= university level

Table 27 Influx of female students at the WO level according to origin (percentages from the entire group)

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
“Native” Dutch	46	47	48	49	50	52	51	52	51
“Western” migrants	50	53	47	52	53	54	52	53	53
“Non-Western” Migrants	50	51	49	51	52	52	52	55	54

Graphic depiction of Influx of female students at the WO level according to origin (percentages of from the entire group)

Table 27



Source IBG, calculations by IMES.

Autochtoon= “Native” Dutch, West. allocht.= “Western” migrants, Nw allocht.= “Non-Western” migrants.