Understanding the effects of migration background on internal migration behavior

1. Introduction

About 80% of Europeans move within their country at least once after leaving home (Bernard 2017; Bernard and Kolk 2020). Internal migration is fundamental for countries and economies, as it facilitates the efficient distribution of people, expertise, and capital to their most required destinations. For individuals, the ability to move to different geographical locations is important in achieving their goals and fulfilling their needs by customizing their housing, neighborhood, and location preferences (Mulder and Hooimeijer 1999) and matching their economic and occupational expectations with their skills (Borjas et al. 1992).

Recent literature on internal migration reveals differences in the migration propensities between migrant communities and the majority population (Finney and Catney 2012; Finney and Simpson 2008; Zorlu 2009). A common finding is that first-generation migrants tend to move more often than natives (Finney 2011; Schündeln 2014; Vidal and Windzio 2012), particularly during the initial stages of settling down (Reher and Silvestre 2011; Vidal and Windzio 2012). However, while there is much evidence of ethnic internal migration, and internal migration patterns of migrants have been particularly explored, there is limited understanding of the migration behavior of the second generation. The lack of research on the second generation is surprising because comparing individuals of native origin with children of migrants is more appropriate than comparing them with first-generation migrants as they possess distinct motivations for internal migration (Finney and Catney 2012). For example, migrants may move more often to find the best place to settle down upon arrival, and

less often for education or family formation since they are less likely to encounter these life transitions in the host country compared to individuals born in that country.

The few existing studies have indicated that children of migrants are more likely to migrate internally than individuals of native origin (for Germany: Vidal and Windzio 2012; for Turkish and Moroccans in the Netherlands: Zorlu 2009). However, upon accounting for differences in population composition, this association is reversed, revealing that children of migrants are, in fact, less mobile (Vidal and Windzio 2012). It has been speculated that structural differences such as economic resources, preferences for living near family, or institutional discrimination in accessing education, occupation or housing may explain why children of migrants are less likely to migrate than individuals of native origin. Lower internal migration rates of second-generation migrants entail several significant implications. Foremost, they could underly differences in location preferences and access (or barriers) to migration. Second, they could offer valuable insight into future expectations regarding the distribution of the population across geographical areas and the overall extent of population movement within countries.

This present study has two overarching aims. The first aim is to assess whether there are disparities in the likelihood of internal migration among adult children of international migrants and individuals with native descent. To further advance our understanding of the underlying reasons for these differences, the second aim is to explore the role of economic resources and family ties as potential competing explanations for variations in migration propensity between these groups.

The study focuses on the Netherlands, comparing Dutch-born children of natives and Dutch-born children of migrants from Turkey and Morocco. This choice of context is interesting for several reasons. First, the Netherlands is an illustrative example of a

Western European country that has witnessed a significant increase in diversity, with a growing proportion of migrants and their descendants over the past few decades. The Dutch population currently includes approximately 2 million Dutch-born children of migrants, accounting for about 12 percent of the total population (Statistics Netherlands, 2023). Among this group, nearly a quarter are offspring of post-WWII so-called 'guestworker' migrant communities from Turkey and Morocco, many of whom have transitioned into adulthood in recent decades. Second, children of Turkish and Moroccan migrants may particularly exhibit distinct preferences regarding living close to family members (Kalmijn 2022) and may have fewer economic resources to accommodate their housing and location preferences (Arends-Tóth and Van de Vijver 2008).

Previous studies often had to compromise on a sample size that was too small to allow analysis to be broken down by migrant generations and origin, or cross-sectional data sources. To overcome these limitations, we use longitudinal population register data and follow the internal migration trajectories of the entire adult population (under study) in an observation window of 16 years (between 2006 and 2022). Distinguishing between children of Turkish and Moroccan migrants and individuals of Dutch origin, we estimate the difference in internal migration probability over the life course. Finally, we disentangle the relative contribution of economic resources and family ties in explaining these group differences.

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

Migration involves making multiple relocation decisions (Mulder and Hooimeijer 1999). One central consideration in migration decision-making is the geographical distance of a potential move. Unlike long-distance migrations, short-distance moves may not

necessarily imply changes in daily routines. Therefore, people are usually hesitant to relocate over a longer distance unless the benefits of the new location outweigh the costs of leaving a familiar environment (Sjaastad 1962).

Whether, where to, and how far people migrate depend on individual differences in location preferences (Mulder and Hooimeijer 1999). Such preferences are determined by specific features of a particular area, such as the availability of green spaces or its proximity to important life domains, like work or family. While it may be challenging to replicate social and familial ties in a new location, other desirable location characteristics may be found elsewhere. Therefore, individuals who prioritize living close to their relatives may need to compromise on other preferences.

Nonetheless, achieving one's desired location through migration is not always accessible to everyone due to the financial demands it entails. The process of relocating can be quite expensive, involving unavoidable expenses like transfer taxes, hiring real estate agents and lawyers, and setting up the new residence. Consequently, individuals with greater financial means are more likely to translate their relocation aspirations into action (Coulter and Van Ham 2013), thus converting location preferences into actual migration behavior.

Following these theoretical lines, we can try to explain variations in internal migration behavior between children of migrants and individuals of native origin. As earlier studies speculated, we argue that cultural differences in preferences concerning living proximity to family ties and differences in economic resources are two main potential explanations for group differences in migration behavior. In the following, we formulate hypotheses justifying these arguments.

2.1 Economic resources and migration

The economic incorporation of children of migrants has been of particular concern to scholars in Western Europe because equal economic opportunities imply a successful integration of migrant communities. However, despite being born in the country and having local education and language, children of non-European migrants are disadvantaged in the labor market (Algan et al. 2010; Gracia et al. 2015; Langevin et al. 2013; Lefranc 2010; Piton and Rycx 2021; Rooth and Ekberg 2003; Van Ours and Veenman 2004). Compared to individuals of native origin, people with non-European background exhibit a significantly lower likelihood of obtaining higher education, being employed, or holding professional and managerial occupations.

One reason for these disparities is socioeconomic background. In part, parental education, employment and occupation explain ethnic inequalities in labor market outcomes (Gracia et al. 2015; Langevin et al. 2013; Van Ours and Veenman 2004). Another reason is discrimination in the labor market. Experimental studies show that having a non-European name, especially a Muslim, is a drawback in job applications (Ahmad 2020; Carlsson and Rooth 2007). As a result, ethnic minorities accumulate disadvantages through longer spells of unemployment, leading to future lower wages and fewer labor market possibilities (Birkelund et al. 2016).

Internal migration is closely related to individual's economic conditions (Mulder and Hooimeijer 1999). On the one hand, with more resources, people can better adjust their housing and location preferences. Moreover, resourceful households are more likely to be able to realize moving intentions as they can mitigate some of the perceived nonmonetary costs of migration using additional funds to receive external help. Conversely, people with more resources are also better positioned to secure satisfactory housing and may be less inclined to leave their current residences. Additionally, low-income household migrate in respond to different push and pull factors than affluent

households, such as leaving deprived areas, which further motivate them in moving (Nord, 1998).

Several studies have highlighted the association between economic resources and housing trajectories. Overall, while people in poverty move as often as people with higher income (Nord, 1998), with increased wealth people tend to migrate more often, and those in the upper-income quintile are the most likely to follow through on migration plans (De Groot et al., 2011). It is therefore seeming that the relationship between wealth and internal migration is not linear. Moreover, it is contingent on housing tenure (Ioannides, 1987). Wealthier households are more likely to move between rental properties as well as moving into an owner-occupied home. The transition to homeownership may require an additional move into a new property, but it may also mark the end of a housing career. Homeowners, in general, are less mobile than renters, and higher wealth may even lead to lower mobility. This may be because homeownership typically involves financial and non-financial commitments that tie people to their homes (Saunders 1990). Among homeowners, wealthier households can make more modifications to their homes to meet their preferences, further increasing their attachment to their properties.

The role of economic resources in internal migration differentials between children of migrants and individuals of native origin has not been tested yet, though it is potentially highly relevant. Ethnic minorities may have a stronger desire to leave, given their often-poorer neighborhood and housing quality, but lower expectations to do so (Coulter et al. 2011), suggesting they feel less capable of achieving their housing preferences than natives. In fact, ethnic minorities in the Netherlands are less likely to move out of deprived neighbourhoods (Bolt and Van Kempen 2003). The unfavorable

economic position of children of migrants may underly this mismatch between desires and expectations and imply lower migration rates among that group.

On the other hand, with fewer economic resources, children of migrants may have less access to homeownership. Indeed, in the Netherlands, among individuals aged 30-45, 69% of Dutch origin are homeowners, while this percentage is 47% for children of Turkish and 15% of Moroccan migrants (Statistics Netherlands 2022). These differences suggest longer renting trajectories and more frequent relocations among children of migrants, but also imply that individuals of Moroccan origin may have more financial constraints than those of Turkish origin or hold different preferences concerning their housing careers.

2.2 Family ties and migration

People rely on social ties to provide support, comfort, and a sense of belonging. However, the significance attached to social ties is believed to vary by culture (Triandis 1989; Triandis 1995). Some cultures prioritize collectivism and community welfare, while others highly value individualism and self-reliance. These cultural values shape people's beliefs and behaviors towards kinship and the community. In collectivist societies, individuals are expected to be loyal to and responsible for other ingroup members, more so than in individualistic cultures. While North-Western European mainstream cultures are characterized by individualism, where individuals tend to rely less on the community and the family as a support system, non-European migrant groups in these countries often originated from more family-oriented and collectivist societies (Hofstede 2001; Reher 1998).

Several studies have documented differences in attitudes toward kin. Immigrants from the ‘global south’ and their children emphasize family solidarity and

familial responsibility more than people of native European origin (Arends-Tóth and Van de Vijver 2008; Schans and Komter 2010). In practice, they more often live near their parents (Chan and Ermisch 2015; Kalmijn 2022) and are more involved in intergenerational instrumental support, such as grandparental childcare (Bordone et al. 2020) and filial care for older parents (Hansen 2014; de Valk and Schans 2008). Besides the immediate family, migrants and children of migrants are more oriented toward their community (Kalmijn 2022) and are more likely to leverage their social networks for job seeking and economic advancement (Battu et al. 2011) than people of native origin.

Family ties play a significant role in migration decision-making. People generally prefer residing close to their relatives to maintain face-to-face contact, share resources and exchange emotional and practical support (Mulder 2007). On the one hand, distant nonresident family members act as an attraction factor in *motivating* migration, either by paving the way to a new location or pulling back from a migration destination to the place of origin. On the other hand, living nearby family members may *discourage* migration because potential migrants may prioritize preserving their family networks over pursuing better economic or employment prospects elsewhere. DaVanzo (1981) coined the term *location-specific capital* to emphasize the importance of local ties in keeping people rooted in a specific place. It includes assets like family, property, and local knowledge that are hard to replace elsewhere. This attachment to a place can make it challenging for individuals to leave, even in the face of economic or job-related difficulties (David et al. 2010).

Numerous empirical studies have demonstrated the importance of living in proximity to kin for (re)location decisions (Clark et al. 2015; Ermisch and Mulder 2019; Mulder and Malmberg 2014; Mulder et al. 2020a; Mulder et al. 2020b; Michielin et al. 2008; Pettersson and Malmberg 2009; Thomas and Dommermuth 2020; Thomasson

2021). Family roots constitute motives for staying as well as reasons for not leaving when migration is considered. In turn, people who live far away from their parents and siblings are more likely to relocate closer to them. Moving towards familial locations is especially pronounced when parents and siblings are co-located, with increasing distance, and with life events that often necessitate support, such as childbirth or divorce. Many of these moves towards family, however, are a return to the place of origin, thus, may also be motivated by community ties or other location preferences. Nevertheless, people with siblings living in a new location are inclined to migrate to that location instead of other areas in the country, implying that family ties may promote migration even to unfamiliar places.

Cultural differences in attachment to nuclear and extended family members may in part explain differences in migration propensity between children of migrants and individuals of Dutch origin. Since Turkish and Moroccan cultures emphasize familialism, local family ties can have a larger deterring effect on migration for children of migrants than for individuals of Dutch origin. Zorlu (2009) has demonstrated that, especially for Turkish and Moroccan migrants in Amsterdam, the presence of parents and siblings in the city discouraged moving elsewhere. Moreover, ethnic minorities usually report greater levels of neighborhood social cohesion and place attachment than people of native origin (Dekker and Bolt 2005; Kohlbacher et al. 2015; Finney and Jivraj 2013), which may be in part explained by concentrations of familial ties. Alternatively, children of migrants who live far apart from their family may be more likely than individuals of Dutch origin to be "pulled back" by their family ties (Thomas and Dommermuth 2020). However, it is expected that children of migrants are less likely to leave their place of origin in the first place, thus the motivating effect of distant family ties may not level off the deterring effect of living nearby family.

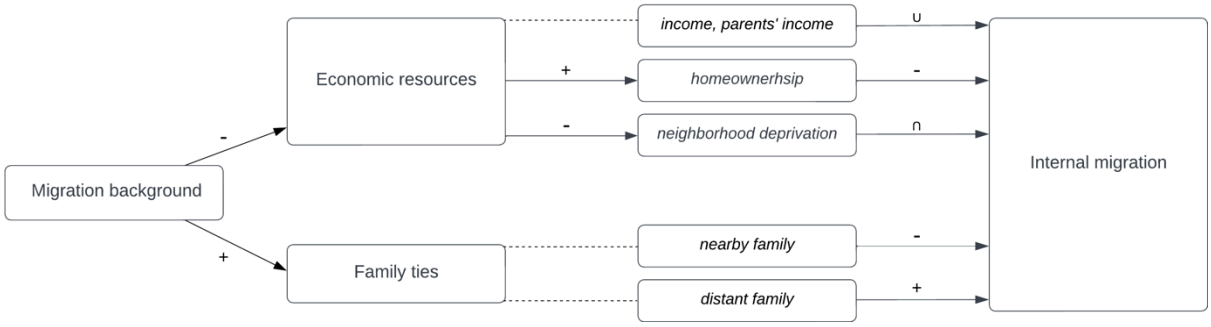
2.3 This study

This study explores the association between international migration background and internal migration. In light of the above theoretical framework, we expect that economic resources and family ties will overall ***mediate*** **(*suppress*)** an observed negative (positive) association.

Regarding economic indicators, with more resources individuals are more likely to acquire a home and live in less disadvantaged neighborhoods. We therefore expect that housing tenure will ***suppress*** **(*mediate*)** an observed negative (positive) association. Since the relationship between neighborhood disadvantage and internal migration is expected to be nonlinear with a low turning point, such that leaving the least disadvantaged neighborhood is not reasonable whereas as disadvantage increase escaping deprivation become more difficult, we expect that neighborhood disadvantaged will ***mediate*** **(*suppress*)** an observed negative (positive) association. As the remaining effect of income and parent's income is also expected to be nonlinear with low turning point, we expect that it will ***mediate*** **(*suppress*)** an observed negative (positive) association. Overall, the effect of economic resources is expected more prominent among children of Moroccan than for children of Turkish migrants.

Regarding family ties, we expect that living nearby family members will ***mediate*** **(*suppress*)** an observed negative (positive) association, whereas distant will ***suppress*** **(*mediate*)** an observed negative (positive) association. However, since we expect that children of migrants are more likely to live nearby family members after leaving the parental home, the deterring effect of nearby family is expected to be stronger than the motivating effect of distant family in explaining the association. Figure 1 illustrate this conceptual model.

Figure 1 Conceptual model for internal migration of children of migrants and individuals of native descent



3 Data and Methods

3.1 Data and analytical sample

For this study we used individual-level, full population data from the System of Social Statistical Datasets (SSD) provided by Statistics Netherlands, covering the period from 2006 to 2022. The SSD contain details on individuals possessing a Dutch social security number, which is assigned to every citizen at birth and to anyone else with legal residence in the Netherlands. They combine information from different administrative registers, including municipal registers of addresses, education registers, tax authorities, and social insurance bank (Bakker et al. 2014).

Our study population include individuals born in the Netherlands to two Dutch parents or to at least one parent who was born in Turkey or Morocco, whose ages fell within the range of 18 to 50 during the years spanning from 2006 to 2022. From this population, we randomly selected 5% of the children of Dutch parents and kept all children of migrants. The upper age limit was restricted primarily due to the relatively lower number of individuals in the category of children of Moroccan migrants who exceeded this threshold. Besides the lower age limit representing adulthood initiation, we further restricted the population to individuals who had already left the parental

home to ensure we capture independent migration decisions. Furthermore, we omitted observations of individuals living with their parents to address "boomerang mobility," where individuals temporarily return home and resume dependent living, occurring often among those who have not yet achieved economic independence (Olofsson et al. 2020). Next, we restricted our population to individuals observed at least at two consecutive time points. Finally, we removed all observations with missing income or housing tenure information. The entire procedure resulted in a study population of 535,132 individuals (nD=354,426; nT=96,299; nM=84,407). We followed them over a period ranging from 1 to 16 years (11.6 years on average), resulting in 4,960,142 person-year observations.

3.2 Measures

Our dependent variable of internal migration was measured using the addresses file. This longitudinal file contains the registered date of residences, and for every address, it identifies the neighborhood, municipality and region using a unique address identifier. We restricted the file to match a person-year structure, such that for every individual, we capture annually the exact address on January 1st. The file disregards multiple changes of addresses within one calendar year, and thus, measures of residential change may underestimate the overall number of moves. *Internal migration* was measured as the annual change of address to a different municipality within the Netherlands (*N=342)*.

International migration background was measured as a categorical variable distinguishing between (1) people of Dutch origin (ref. group), (2) children of Turkish migrants, and (3) children of Moroccan migrants.

Income decile was measured as the combined yearly total of labor earnings, business income, and investment income for all household members, accounting for taxes and transfers, expressed in Euros. Adjustments were made based on household composition using a Netherlands-specific equivalence scale. Adults were given a weight of 1, children under 18 a weight of 0.8, and income was divided accordingly after scaling (Siermann et al. 2004). Based on the standardized-equivalized household income, private households were divided into 100 groups of equal sizes, from which income deciles were computed. *Parents income decile* was measured as the average standardized household income decile of parents rounded to integers. In the case where no parents lived in the Netherlands, we used single imputation method, applying 'last observation carried forward', and 'regression imputation' when no such last observation was recorded. While acknowledging that single imputation does not consider stochasticity, we opted for this method over multiple imputation due to its computational efficiency. Additionally, our choice was influenced by the use of population data and thus the relatively lower importance of standard errors in presenting our results. *Housing tenure* was measured as a binary indicator of rented (0) versus owned (1) property assigned to the household unique identifier. *Neighborhood disadvantage index* was measured as a standardized scale at the neighborhood-year level, using four dimensions of neighborhood stratification (Sampson 1997): the proportion of single-parent households, households in the bottom two income deciles, owner occupied household, and first-generation immigrants *(Cronbach's alpha range = 0.66-0.77).*

To measure the motivating and deterring effect of living proximity to family members we used the addresses file, child-parent file, and the family network file. The parent-child file links individuals with their living and registered parents. The family

network file, an extension of the child-parent file, links individuals to nuclear and extended family members, such as siblings, uncles, and aunts, and this information is available since 2009. Changes in the family network file between successive years occur due to events like births, deaths, emigrations, or immigrations of family members. For computational energy efficiency, we use the network file to identify adult siblings, uncles, and aunts only in three time points, 2009, 2015, and 2020. For instance, a person family linkage in 2014 is assumed to be unchanged since 2009. This decision only affects our proximity measures when a relative (sibling, aunt, or uncle) both entered the data (by turning 18 or immigrating to the Netherlands) and left the data (such as through death or emigration) between two of the chosen time points. In such cases, we inadvertently overlook that specific relative. Matching the family network file with the addresses file, we measured living proximity to parents, siblings, and uncles/aunts in two different ways. The first approach involved three scales that summed up the number of family members *(i) in the neighborhood, (ii) in a different neighborhood within the same municipality, or (iii) in a different municipality*. Based on kin obligation ratings obtained from the work of Rossi and Rossi (2018), we adjusted the weighting of these scales, attributing a weight of 8.3 to parents, 6.9 to siblings, and 4 to uncles/aunts. By using the scaled approach, we could measure the impact of family network *size* on relocation decisions. The second method entailed utilizing a series of nine binary variables to signify whether individuals had *(i) a parent, (ii) a sibling, (iii) an uncle/aunt residing (i) in their immediate neighborhood, (ii) in a different neighborhood within the same municipality, or (iii) in a different municipality.* By employing these indicators, we were able to infer the relative importance of different kin to migration behavior.

All models accounted for a set of control variables. *Sex* was measured as a time-constant binary indicator of (0) male versus (1) female. *Age* was measured in years. *Year* was measured as a categorical variable from 2006 (ref.) to 2021. *Level of education* was measured as a categorical indicator, distinguishing between people who obtained (1) non-university education (ref. group), (2) a university degree, or (3) missing. *Main activity* was measured as a categorical indicator, distinguishing between people who are (1) out of workforce (ref. group), (2) employed, (3) unemployed, 0r (4) enrolled in education. *Partnership/parental status* was measured as a categorical indicator, distinguishing between people who are (1) single (ref. group), (2) partnered without children, (3) partnered with children, and (4) single parent. *Municipality population density* was measured as a categorical variable of the number households per km^2 in the municipality, ranging from (1) less than 500 to (5) more than 2500. *Big four cities* indicates whether a person lives in one of the four largest cities in the Netherlands, namely Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, and The Hague.

3.3 Analytical strategy

We used discrete-time event history analysis with logit regression and standard errors clustered at the individual level to model the annual rate of internal migration, comparing children of migrants and people of Dutch origin. We employed a stepwise model specification strategy to empirically investigate the role of economic resources and proximity to family members in explaining group differences in migration behavior. We delineated our approach into three models: In Model 1 we adjusted for migration background and the control variables. In Model 2 we expanded our adjustments to include income, parents' income, housing tenure, and neighborhood disadvantage index to evaluate the explanatory role of economic resources. In Models 3a and 3b we

accounted for living proximity to family members using the scaled approach (a) and the binary approach (b) to assess the explanatory role of family ties. To determine the collective impact of each set of explanatory variables, we provide results for migration background in Average Marginal Effects (AME), ensuring comparability across nested models within the logistic regression framework (Mood, 2010). In a final step, we estimate the relative contribution of each economic component and family scales to group differences in migration behavior, by decomposing the effect change using the KHB method for mediation analysis (Karlson et al. 2012).

4. Results (without elaborations)

4.1 Descriptive results

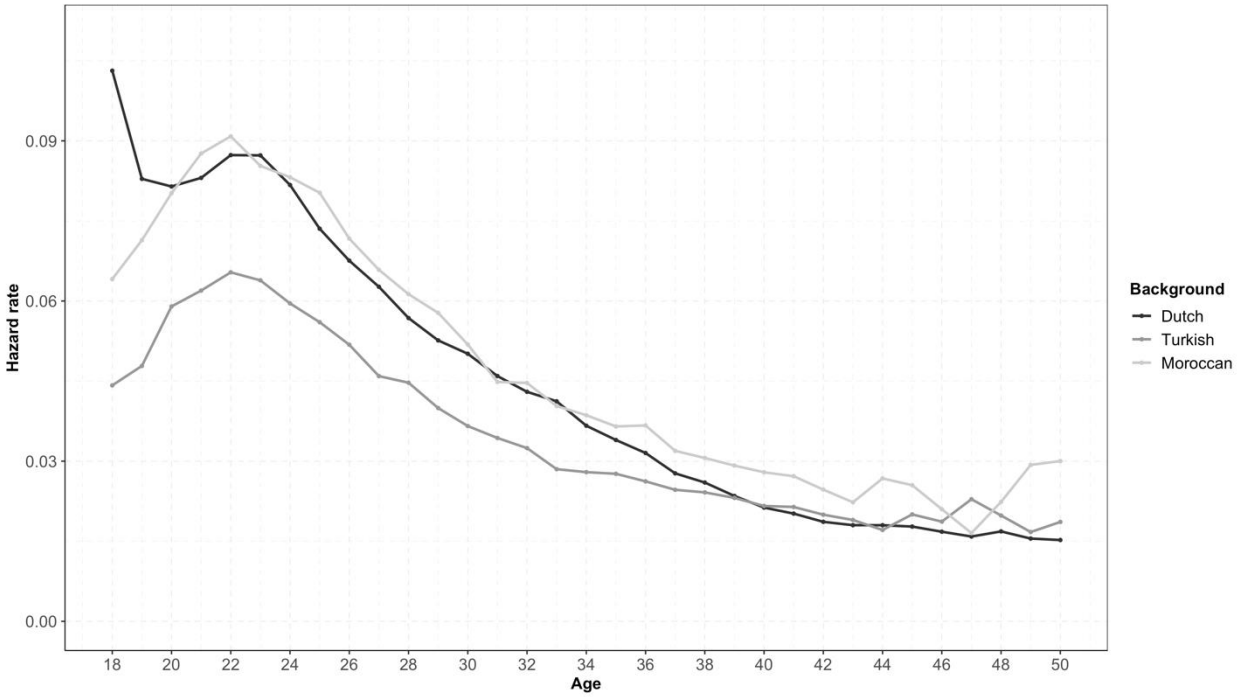
Table 1 Descriptive statistics by background group.

	Dutch		Turkish		Moroccan			
	M	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	***M***	***SD***	**min**	**max**
Internal migration	0.03		0.04		0.06		0	1
Age	37.58	8.37	30.06	6.83	29.05	6.40	18	50
Female	0.51		0.52		0.53		0	1
Municipality density	3.40	1.26	4.29	0.87	4.40	0.84	1	5
Big four cities	0.11		0.34		0.43		0	1
Education								
No university	0.32		0.64		0.67		0	1
University	0.27		0.16		0.18		0	1
Missing	0.41		0.20		0.15		0	1
Employment								
Out of the workforce	0.11		0.21		0.26		0	1
Employed	0.83		0.63		0.58		0	1
Unemployed	0.02		0.02		0.02		0	1
Enrolled in Education	0.04		0.13		0.14		0	1
Partnership status								
Single	0.22		0.34		0.47		0	1
Partnered w/o chiildren	0.22		0.17		0.14		0	1
Partnered with children	0.52		0.43		0.32		0	1
Single parent	0.05		0.06		0.07		0	1
Income decile	6.17	2.72	4.42	2.75	4.30	2.82	1	10
Income decile parents	5.88	2.54	3.75	2.29	3.19	2.07	1	10
Homeowner	0.70		0.51		0.22		0	1
Neighborhood disadvantage ind.	0.22	0.70	1.10	0.91	1.20	0.91	-1.13	5.50
Family scales								
Same neighborhood	2.87	7.18	5.59	9.72	5.70	10.07	0	112.9
Same municipality	11.43	14.57	17.67	16.36	22.65	21.58	0	163
Different municipality	27.07	20.13	13.89	16.59	22.88	24.13	0	258.1
Parents dummies								
Same neighborhood	0.11		0.15		0.11		0	1
Same municipality	0.34		0.51		0.53		0	1
Different municipality	0.51		0.31		0.37		0	1
Siblings dummies								
Same neighborhood	0.11		0.28		0.33		0	1
Same municipality	0.35		0.52		0.58		0	1
Different municipality	0.66		0.46		0.63		0	1

Uncle/Aunt dummies					
Same neighborhood	0.07	0.11	0.07	0	1
Same municipality	0.29	0.33	0.24	0	1
Different municipality	0.70	0.33	0.31	0	1
N person-years	3,405,067	845,736	709,343		

Notes: Percentages may not add up exactly to 100 due to rounding.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

Figure 2 Crude age-specific hazard rates of internal migration by background group.



Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

4.2 Group differences in internal migration

TABLE 2 Event history model of internal migration.

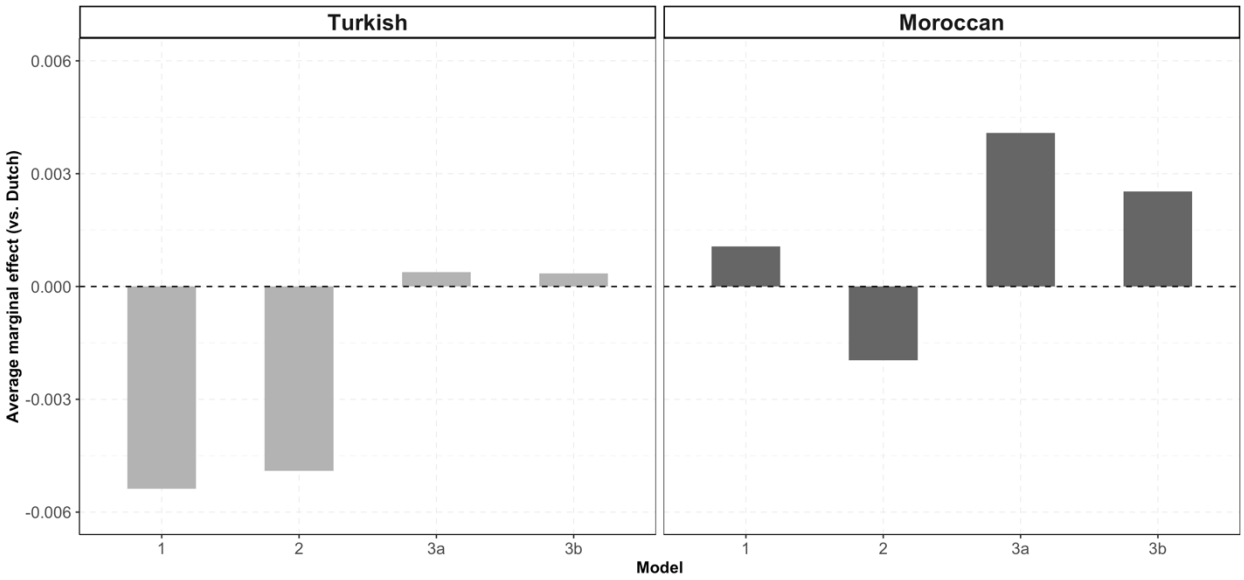
	Model 3a		**Model 3b**	
	Coef.	*se*	*Coef.*	*se*
Background (Dutch)	0		0	
Turkish	0.016	0.009	0.015	0.009
(AME)	*0.0004*		*0.0003*	
Moroccan	0.165	0.009	0.105	0.009
(AME)	*0.0041*		*0.0025*	
Age	-0.001	0.003	-0.002	0.003
Age^2	-0.001	0.000	-0.001	0.000
Female	0.020	0.005	0.021	0.006
Municipality density	0.014	0.003	0.014	0.003
Big four cities	-0.163	0.007	-0.130	0.007
Education (no university)	0		0	
University	0.014	0.003	0.014	0.003
missing	-0.130	0.007	-0.163	0.007
Employment (out of the workforce)	0		0	
Employed	0.073	0.009	0.075	0.009
Unemployed	0.111	0.019	0.108	0.019
Enrolled in Education	-0.216	0.012	-0.233	0.012
Partnership status (single)	0		0	
Partnered without chiildren	-0.393	0.007	-0.384	0.007
Partnered with children	-0.860	0.008	-0.853	0.008
Single parent	-0.396	0.013	-0.377	0.013
Income decile (1)	0		0	
2	-0.248	0.011	-0.246	0.011
3	-0.141	0.011	-0.145	0.011
4	-0.108	0.011	-0.116	0.011
5	-0.105	0.011	-0.115	0.011
6	-0.114	0.011	-0.127	0.011
7	-0.104	0.012	-0.121	0.012
8	-0.045	0.012	-0.066	0.012
9	0.047	0.012	0.020	0.012
10	0.194	0.013	0.159	0.013
Income decile parents	-0.030	0.001	-0.031	0.001
Homeowner	-0.549	0.007	-0.554	0.007

Neighborhood disadvantage ind.	-0.026	0.004	-0.028	0.004
Family scales				
Same neighborhood	-0.028	0.000		
Same municipality	-0.027	0.000		
Different municipality	0.007	0.000		
Parents dummies				
Same neighborhood			-0.667	0.014
Same municipality			-0.473	0.011
Different municipality			0.279	0.011
Siblings dummies				
Same neighborhood			-0.039	0.008
Same municipality			-0.275	0.007
Different municipality			0.219	0.007
Uncle/Aunt dummies				
Same neighborhood			-0.036	0.011
Same municipality			-0.162	0.007
Different municipality			0.123	0.007
Constant	-1.244	0.052	-1.462	0.053
Log likelihood	-740666.1		-739103.1	
AIC	1481424		1478310	
N person-years	4,960,142		4,960,142	

Notes: Coefficients; se: standard error; models controlling for year. Models 3a and 3b are the full models, separately account for family ties using the scaled approach (a) and the binary approach (b). Full stepwise results available in Table A*******
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

4.3 Explaining the differences

Figure 3 Average marginal effect of internal migration by model specification and background group.



Notes: Products of AME from the stepwise specification model. Model 1 adjusts for migration background and all control variables. Model 2 accounts also for the set of economic resources indicators. Models 3a and 3b separately account for family ties using the scaled approach (a) and the binary approach (b). Full stepwise results available in Table A*******
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

TABLE 3 Mediation of group differences in internal migration.

	Turkish	**Moroccan**
	Percentage reduced	Percentage reduced
Economic resources (Model 2)		
Income decile	3.61	-7.54
Income decile parents	-13.25	54.43
Homeowner	-3.93	218.62
Neighborhood disadvantage	15.84	-48.76
Overall mediation/suppression	**2.27**	**216.75**
Family ties (Model 3a)		
Same neighborhood scale	32.43	54.93
Same municipality scale	31.34	146.74
Different municipality scale	44.12	24.94
Overall mediation/suppression	**107.89**	**226.61**

Notes: Products of KHB disentangled mediation analysis.
Source: Statistics Netherlands, own calculations.

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