

Masaryk University
Faculty of Economics and Administration
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THE INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION OF WOMEN

Mezinárodní migrace žen

Diploma Thesis

Thesis Supervisor:

Mgr. Martin Guzi, Ph.D.
professor Hannu Laurila

Author:

Bc. Adriana GRAJCIAROVÁ

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University of Tampere

School of Management

Public Economics and Public Finance

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Adriana Grajciarova

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Supervisor (FI): Hannu Laurila

Supervisor (CZ): Mgr. Martin Guzi, Ph.D.

University of Tampere

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Anotace

Feminizácia migrácie označuje narastajúci celosvetový trend v medzinárodnej migrácii žien. Diplomová práca skúma ekonomické motívy a charakteristiky inštitucionálneho prostredia, ktoré rozdielne ovplyvňujú migráciu žien a mužov. Dve krajiny, Česká republika a Fínsko sú v práci porovnané z pohľadu žien migrantiek. Obe krajiny majú podobné množstvo migrantov a vysoké percento migrantov prichádzajúcich z krajín mimo EU. Ekonomické a inštitucionálne vlastnosti sú však v týchto krajinách veľmi odlišné. V práci prezentujem demografické profily migrantiek a ich úspešnosť na trhu práce. Z výsledkov vyplýva, že Fínsko priťahuje prevažne migrantky s nižším vzdelaním, ktoré vykazujú horšie uplatnenie na trhu práce. Česká republika je úspešná v lákaní vysokokvalifikovaných migrantiek, avšak výrazne zaostáva v oblasti integrácie migrantov do spoločnosti.

Annotation

The term *feminization of migration* reflects the increasing global trend of female migration. The thesis examines economic motives and institutional background which influence women and men differently. The Czech Republic and Finland are compared and contrasted from the perspective of female migration. There are many similarities in migration patterns into the countries. Both have low number of migrants coming to the country while the percentage of migrants coming from outside EU is quite high. However, economic and institutional characteristics are different. The thesis presents demographic profiles of female migrants and their success in the labour market. According to the findings, Finland attracts migrants with lower attained education who are less successful in the labour market. The Czech Republic attracts highly qualified female migrants; however it lags behind Finland in the integration of the migrants into the society.

Klí ová slova

migrácia, migrácia žien, motívy migrácie, ekonomická migrácia, migra né toky, profil žien migrantiek, inštitúcie migrácie, teórie migrácie

Keywords

migration, female migration, motives of migration, economic migration, migration patterns, profile of female migrants, migration institutions, migration theories

Declaration

I hereby declare that I have developed and written the thesis independently, using only the sources listed, in accordance with Czech legal regulations and the internal regulations of the Masaryk University and the Faculty of Economics and Administration.

In Brno, December 2015

Author's signature

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INTRODUCTION

Migration is an important phenomenon of the globalizing world. According to the data from the United Nations organization the numbers of women and men who moved to another country remained comparable over decades. Female migrants comprise 49% of migrant population, which is a significant number concerning all the aspects of role of women in society¹ (UN DESA, 2013). Although the development of the proportion of women has remained stable ever since 1960 (at around 49%), the proportion varies in different countries or regions (World Bank, 2015). The statistics on international migration document persistent gender differences in the number of migrants with respect to nationality. According to UN IANWGE² (2004) the forces that make women move differ from those that affect men. The distinctive motives of men and women were not assumed in the migration research for a long time (Martin, 2004; Pessar & Mahler, 2003). The thesis aims to discuss the motives of women to migrate and identify factors to which women are more sensitive than men. Thesis demonstrates the topic on the example of Finland and the Czech Republic. Both countries are similar in the size of migrant population but very different in the composition.

Several definitions of migration are in use. The International Organization for Migration defines migration very broadly as *the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State* (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 62). According to this any kind of population movement irrespective of its length, composition, and causes is considered, including refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, or tourists. UNESCO³ (2014) understands international migration as *territorial relocation of people between nation states*. This definition is more restrictive because it excludes: *a territorial movement which does not lead to any change in ties of social membership, such as tourism. Second, a relocation in which the individuals or the groups concerned are purely passive objects rather than active agents of the movement, such as organized transfer of refugees* (UNESCO, 2014). The definition of migration is often derived from the definition of migrant as those terms relate closely.

¹ Even though the role of women has been changing in the developed countries towards higher participation and gender equality, their role is considered to be different to that of men. Women for example still have primary responsibility for taking care of their children (Rosaldo, 1974). Furthermore, according to the study by UN DESA (2009b, p.5), women are underrepresented in decision making which allocates the financial and economic resources.

²United Nations, Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality

³United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

In the literature, there are several definitions of migrant used. The *United Nations defines migrant as an individual who has resided in a foreign country for more than one year irrespective of the causes* (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 62). This definition excludes all the individuals travelling for shorter periods as tourists or businesspersons but authors include short-term migrants (i.e. seasonal workers). The reasons for migration are insignificant according to this definition. UN Commission on Human Rights (1998, p. 10) agreed that *the term -migrant- should be understood as covering all cases where the decision to migrate is taken freely by the individual concerned, for reasons of 'personal convenience' and without intervention of an external compelling factor*. This definition considers the reason for movement important, while the length of stay being insignificant. The term migrant does not apply to people who are forced to leave their homes such as exiles or refugees.

UN Commission on Human Rights (1998) defines migrant with respect to the reasons for their movement, but the term migration is broader and includes also refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people together with economic migrants.

An important distinction is the purpose of migration when labor migration is the migration of persons for the purpose of employment (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011). According to the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Article 2: *The term -migrant worker- refers to a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or had been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national* (OHCHR⁴, 1990). This definition includes the migrants who become self-employed in the destination country. The definition which is also accepted by OECD is that foreign migrant workers are *foreigners admitted by the receiving state for the specific purpose of exercising an economic activity remunerated from within the receiving country. Their length of stay is usually restricted as is the type of employment they can hold* (UNDESA, 1998, p. 14).

The focus of the thesis is on voluntary migration. I consider international migration as the movement of a person or a group of persons leaving their country of origin and crossing an international border for more than one year. The decision to migrate is taken freely by the individual concerned, for reasons of *personal convenience*. Labor (or economic) migrant is a foreign national engaged in a remunerated activity residing in a state for more than one year.

⁴Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights

The terms immigrant and emigrant refer to the inflow or outflow of migrants. Immigrants enter a foreign country while emigrants leave their country of origin.

In the light of recent discussions concerning the so called *refugee crisis*⁵ in Europe the topic of migration is gaining an increasing interest. However, the thesis does not aim to describe either refugee motivation or short-term fluctuations. It is rather aimed at long-term trends and economic migrants.

Thesis is structured into five parts. Chapter 2 sets the background for further analysis. It reviews terminology, migration theories, and discusses the factors that affect women's migration choices. Push and pull factors as identified in the literature are surveyed and the importance of institutional factors, such as minimum wage, employment protection and family policies is highlighted.

Chapter 3 presents the migration data to illustrate international differences in gender distribution with particular emphasis on *female attractive* destination countries.

Chapter 4 explores the aspects of female immigration in the Czech Republic and Finland. The composition of immigrants is discussed with respect to their country of origin. The role of relevant economic and institutional factors is discussed in the light of previous findings.

Chapter 5 concludes the findings and provides recommendations for national migration policies.

⁵for example in BBC News (2015); Escritt & Behrakis (2015); The Economist (2015)

1. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION: THE THEORIES AND THE EVIDENCE

1.1 Theories of the initiation and perpetuation of migration flows

The motives of migration are various. People may change residence because of their economic situation, job opportunities, bad political situation in their home country, and others may migrate to follow their family members. Different types of migration are identified in the literature taking into account several criteria such as the length of stay (permanent, short-term or seasonal), rights to entry the country (regular or irregular) and the level of consent to migrate (forced, voluntary) (Ghosh, 2009).

Standard model of migration is described in general terms and does not distinguish specific motives of women. One of the first migration theory, published by Ravenstein (1885) referred to the *rules* or *principles* of migration. His work created a basis for further migration research (Grigg, 1977). The impact of migration on economy was studied by Sjaastad (1962), who was also one of the first migration researchers.

Migration was studied by many scholars and several theories explaining labor migration were developed. Massey et al. (1993) gives a review on theories that explain both the initiation of migration and the perpetuation of migration flows. Authors emphasize the need to survey migration from both perspectives. Theories explaining the initiation of migration include Neoclassical micro and macro models, The new economics of migration, Dual labor market theory, and World systems theory. Second, the theories of perpetuation of migration include Network theory, Institutional theory, Cumulative causation, and Migration systems theory. All the theories will be further discussed.

The individual choices to migrate between countries and the choice of destination are studied within the micro economic theory. Individuals are assumed to maximize their utility or net returns from migration taking into account education, wage rates, and employment rates. Based on the evidence in US data Borjas & Freeman (1992) show that migrants behave rationally as they move to destinations with the higher expected returns. They explain that migrants evaluate potential benefits and costs of migration and they also compare the opportunities in different countries. The economic and political conditions are potentially the determinants of their decision. Macroeconomic theory explains the causes of international

migration by differences in employment opportunities among countries. The supply and demand factors – such as GDP and unemployment were identified significant in explaining migration flows (Massey et al., 1993).

The new economics of migration developed by Oded Stark explains the migration decision from the view of a family or household. The migration decision is achieved jointly by household members in order to maximize profits and to minimize risks. Those risks may include losing a job, poor harvest for farmers, political problems in the country, and many others. The key insight is that the migration decision is made concisely in larger groups of related people rather than by individuals (Massey et al., 1993).

Standing apart from rational choice theories is the Dual labor market theory pioneered by Piore (1979) who postulates that there are certain characteristics of migration. First, the employers search for sources of new labor force. Second, migrants take jobs that the natives refuse to accept. Third, the immigrants initially consider themselves as temporary workers, but eventually their migration becomes permanent. Fourth, migrants are unskilled and do not speak the language of the country to which they migrate. Generally, the industrialized economies benefit from inflow of uneducated and illiterate workforce. Immigrants are considered as the source of cheaper labor force for employers in industrialized countries, but over time the work done by immigrants becomes unacceptable to local residents (Massey et al., 1993).

The final theory of initiation of migration described in Massey et al. (1993) is the World systems theory. According to this theory, migration is a natural result of capitalist market creation. The theory of world systems was initially developed by Immanuel Wallerstein in 1974. As the capitalism penetrates to non-capitalist societies it creates mobile population willing to migrate abroad (Massey et al., 1993).

The reasons that initiate the migration are different from those that explain why international migration continues perpetuates, even when the initial reason to migrate diminish. Theories of perpetuation or continuation of migration include Network theory, Institutional theory, Theory of Cumulative causation, and Migration systems theory.

Social networks represent interpersonal ties that connect migrants. Network theory claims that migrants and non-migrants create networks, that help to lower the costs and risks for new incomers (Massey et al., 1993). Migration to the United States from Mexico has been analyzed and authors claim that social networks facilitates immigration by providing information and assistance for aspiring migrants and support migration in the destination country (Fussell & Massey, 2004). Furthermore, social networks may decrease the cost of migration and therefore reduce inequality. Large networks spread the benefits of migration to poorer households, making migration possible for them (Mckenzie & Rapoport, 2007, p. 3). The research shows that larger family networks increase the likelihood of migration and help new migrants to find a job in the destination country (Dolfin & Genicot, 2010). In the sample of EU 28 countries Kahanec, Zimmermann, & Pytliková (2014) confirm that networks play an important role in perpetuating migration. Furthermore, their results indicate that *a 10% increase in the stock of migrants from a certain country is associated with an increase of around 52% in the emigration rate from this country, ceteris paribus* (Kahanec, Zimmermann, & Pytliková, 2014, p. 21).

The institutional theory states that the international migration has started the creation of institutions to satisfy the excessive demand caused by limited number of immigrant visas. Black market in immigration may be created and afterwards humanitarian organizations arise to help victims. The international flow becomes more institutionalized and independent of the factors that originally caused it (Massey et al., 1993). Institutional theory as well as the networks theory lowers the costs of migration for potential migrants. This can be seen on institutions created to help migrants to integrate, find a job, to provide legal assistance and other forms of support for migrants in the Czech Republic. There are several non-profit organizations that provide assistance to migrants (e.g. International organization for migration in the Czech Republic, Association for integration and migration). There are also organizations for immigrants from specific countries like for example Association of Vietnamese with Czech citizenship or Polish club in Prague. Those institutions make migration easier in a similar way as networks do.

The Cumulative causation theory states that additional to networks and institutions, which make migration more likely, migration sustains in other ways. The process of cumulative causation is described by Myrdal (Massey et al., 1993). Several macroeconomic factors are identified to have cumulative effect on migration such as *the distribution of income, the*

distribution of land, the organization of agriculture, culture, the regional distribution of human capital, and the social meaning of work (Massey et al., 1993, p. 451). Another example of those factors could be the formation of *immigrant jobs*. Once a significant number of immigrants were recruited for certain positions, those may become labeled as *immigrant jobs*, consequently native workers do not want to take those positions anymore, as they are viewed as inappropriate for native workers (Massey et al., 1993). The study by the Center for Immigration Studies, however, observes that there is only a small number of occupations dominated by immigrants in the US. Of the total of 465 recognized occupations only four have majority of immigrant workers (i.e. less than 1 percent of the total U.S. workforce, (Camarota & Jensenius, 2009). Similarly in the UK, occupations with the highest proportion of migrants in 2013 were elementary occupations. Thus, majority of workers in all occupations, according to the classification, were native born (Rienzo, 2014). Furthermore, Fussell & Massey (2004) observed little or no increase in migration to the United States from urban Mexico that could be attributed to cumulative causation.

The last theory explaining the perpetuation of migration is Migration systems theory. According to this theory migration is created among the systems of countries. The system consists of receiving country and several sending countries that are linked by unusually large flows of migrants. The countries do not need to be geographically close to each other (Massey et al., 1993). An example of the system could be the Vietnamese migrants living in the Czech Republic. In 2013 Vietnamese nationals constituted the third largest group of migrants in the Czech Republic with the share of 13% (Czech Statistical Office (2015a). The top destination countries for Vietnamese are Korea, Germany, and the Czech Republic. In no other European country is there such a significant number of Vietnamese migrants. Similarly, in 2014 80% of Turkish population living abroad lived in Germany (OECD, 2015). The largest group of migrants in Germany is from Turkey (19% of all migrants living in Germany), followed by EU nationals (45%) with Polish nationals being the most numerous (8%) (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2015).

The theories do not explain motives separately. People may have various motives to migrate and varied individual circumstances influence their decisions to migrate. The decision to migrate is a major life decision. It might affect not only the migrants themselves but also their families or community in which they live. Thus it is important to look on all the possible theories and evaluate each case individually.

Several recent models explain voluntary migration supporting the earlier theories. According to The Global Commission on International Migration (2005) the main forces driving international migration are differences in development, demography, and democracy, so called *3Ds*. It means that the level of development of a country causes people to move, naturally to more developed countries. The level of democracy or lack of democracy may drive people to migrate but on the other hand it may also stop them or forbid them to move. The research of United Nations organization showed that only a third of all migrants moved from a developing to a developed country; however more than two thirds of migrants moved to countries with a higher level of human development ⁶ (United Nations, 2009). People in poor countries, who are supposed to migrate from the economic perspective, are least mobile. For example, according to United Nations (2009) fewer than one percent of Africans have moved to Europe over time, meaning that less than one percent of Africans live in Europe.

Four pathways based on division of countries to *South* and *North* are often used to describe the migration flows between countries (Bradatan & Sandu, 2012; Habti, 2012; IOM, 2013; United Nations, 2009). The classification to *North* and *South* was used by Brandt (1980) and it divides countries to wealthy developed countries and poorer developing countries. The main corridors are North-North, South-South, South-North, and North-South. The North-North migration is represented by flows from Germany to the US, the United Kingdom to Australia and Canada, and the Republic of Korea and the United Kingdom to the US. The South-South movement is for example Ukraine to Russia, Bangladesh to Bhutan, Kazakhstan to Russia and Afghanistan to Pakistan. The South-North movement is from Mexico to the US, Turkey to Germany and China, the Philippines and India to the US. The last pathway is the North-South, from the US to Mexico and South Africa, Germany to Turkey, Portugal to Brazil, and Italy to Argentina (IOM, 2013). There are said to be two main pathways of migration to Europe: South-North (African immigrants) and East-West (Eastern Europeans and people from former USSR Republics) (Bradatan & Sandu, 2012).

⁶Human development is defined by the United Nations as *the process of enlarging people's choices. Their three essential choices are to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living. Additional choices, highly valued by many people, range from political, economic and social freedom to opportunities for being creative and productive and enjoying personal self—respect and guaranteed human rights* (United Nations, 1997, p. 40).

1.2 Principles of women migration

Some authors criticize economic migration theories which are not based on gender. According to a research conducted by The World Bank the key elements of individual migration models are different for women and men (Morrison, Schiff, & Sjöblom, 2007). As women are studied in the thesis further analysis of motives of migration will be discussed in the following chapter.

The reasons for migration as stated before can be various, basic typology of reasons for migration which takes into account specifications of female migration includes:

- Migration of women to husband's residence.
- Migration as part of a family, because of voluntary family movement.
- Individual migration under the family reunification.
- Forced migration alone or as part of a family.
- Migration for education.
- Voluntary migration for work.
- Involuntary migration for work, through coercive pressure, because of debt bondage, or as part of a trafficking network.
- Return migration after a period spent away from home (Ghosh, 2009)⁷.

It is believed that the first theorist who pointed out women migration was Ravenstein who observed that in the United Kingdom women were more migratory than men. He claimed that women were more migratory within one country while men migrated internationally (Ravenstein, 1885). However, the research of Ravenstein was not subsequently followed by researchers and few of them tested his gendered laws of migration (Donato, Gabaccia, Holdaway, Manalansan, & Pessar, 2006). The fact that women began to engage in research much more was important for the initiation of research based on gender. By the 1970s, feminist historians of migration criticized treatment of migrants as genderless in scholarly literature (Sinke, 2006). Even though there were efforts of female researchers to create multidisciplinary or even interdisciplinary field of migration studies, their research had little impact on contemporary migration studies (Donato et al., 2006). Nowadays the term *feminization of migration* is used by researchers (for example UN INSTRAW⁸, 2007; Marinucci, 2007; Caritas Internationalis, 2010; Moya, 2012). This term refers to an increasing

⁷For more information see Appendix 1.

⁸United nations International research and training institute for the advancement of women

proportion of women migrants or to a change in analytical criteria with regard to gender (Marinucci, 2007).

The need to support a family may be an important motive of female migration, however poverty does not necessarily lead to migration (Caritas Internationalis, 2010). According to WIDE's report (2010) it is important to study state policies which include both the emigration policy of a sending country as well as immigration policy in a receiving country. Both those policies have large impact on the decision of women to migrate and where to migrate (Franck & Spehar, 2010). The factors that influence the migration decision exist in the sending as well as in the destination country. The policies are often defined as push and pull factors, with former concerning sending country and latter host country (Gubert & Nordman, 2009).

1.3 Push factors of international migration

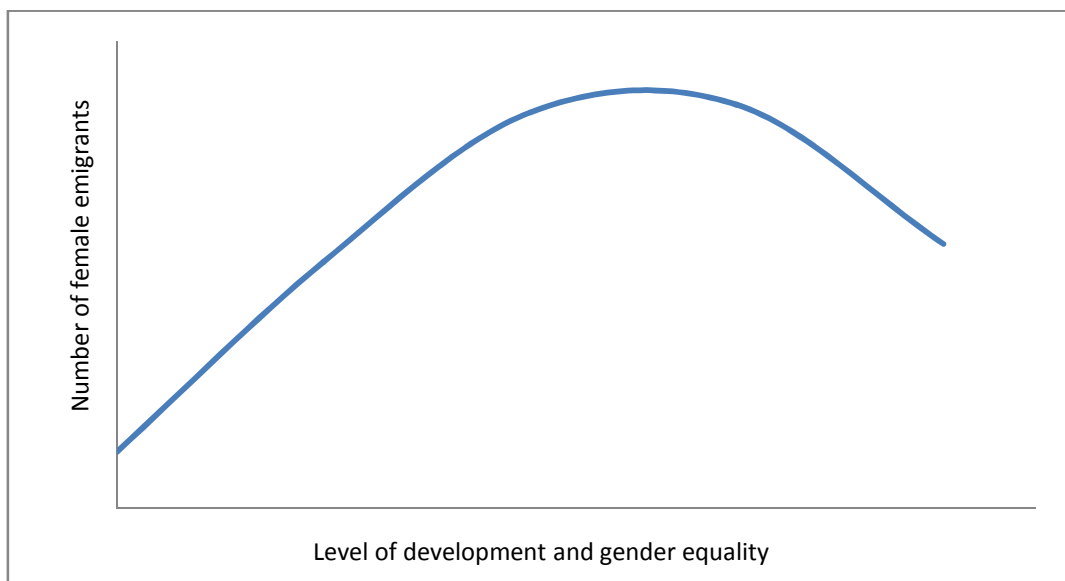
Migration push factors are the factors which make women leave their country of origin irrespective of the country of their destination. Definition says that push factors are those life situations which make someone be dissatisfied with the place where he or she lives (Dorigo & Tobler, 1983). Another definition defines the push factor as *a feature or event that encourages a person to leave his or her country (high unemployment, poverty, famine, drought, natural disasters, political oppression or persecution, and so on)* (Gubert & Nordman, 2008, p. 2).

Among the push factors for developing countries are population growth, unemployment, poverty, and political instability (Gubert & Nordman, 2009). According to Boyd (2006) the push factors of women migration include one more important factor, that is gender equality or women's empowerment⁹. World bank defines empowerment as the capabilities of people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable those institutions that influence their lives (Narayan-Parker, 2002). Most definitions of women's empowerment have in common concepts like options, choice, control, and power (Morrison et al., 2007). Morrison et al. (2007) also considers women's empowerment as one of the determinants of female migration, however the gender equality determines migration of women to the extent that higher gender equality is associated with higher wages for women.

⁹Gender empowerment is mostly measured by the Gender Empowerment Measure used by the UN. It consists of three components, political representation, representation in senior positions in the economy, and power over economic resources (Klasen & Schüler, 2009).

As mentioned above important push factors identified to increase the women migration are poverty and gender inequality (Boyd, 2006; IOM, 2008; Jennissen, 2004). Meaning that higher poverty and gender inequality push migrants to leave their country of origin. However, women need to have certain rights to be able to migrate as well as they need to have resources to be able to migrate, that is not only financial resources, but also information or education play an important role in migration decision (Boyd, 2006). According to the Boyd (2006) the relationship between the number of female migrants and the development of a country is shown in the following Figure 1.1, in so called migration hump. It shows that in the early stages of the countries development there are only a few female emigrants as they may not have enough resources or rights to migrate. As the country becomes more developed more women migrate as now they have enough resources and presumably better education, or their status improves. Educated women are more able to escape the bad situation they must endure in many developing countries (Docquier, Lowell, & Marfouk, 2009). As the country becomes developed the initial motives for women to migrate diminish, thus the number of emigrants decreases. Even though in theory the migration hump may describe the processes, there is scarce empirical evidence to support the theory (Dayton-Johnson, Pfeiffer, Schuettler, & Schwinn, 2009).

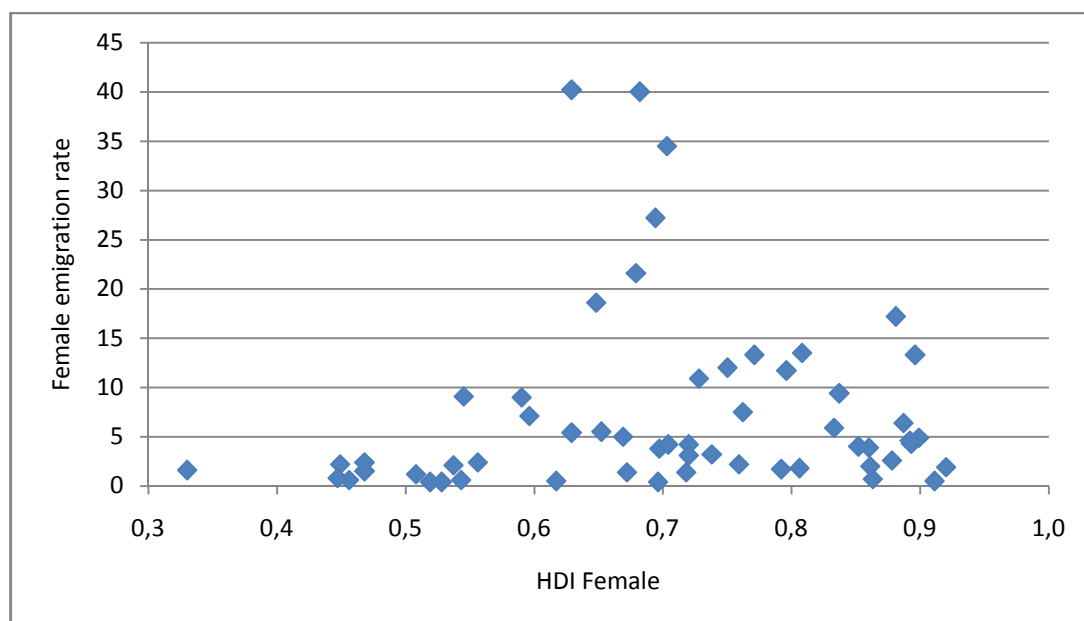
Figure 1.1. Theoretical relationship between level of development, gender equality, and female emigration - Migration Hump



Source: adapted from Boyd (2006, p. 40)

The migration hump shows that more women are likely to emigrate when the level of development and gender equality is higher, however, only to a certain level, as after some level the initial reasons to migrate do not exist anymore. Empirical data of emigration from selected countries to OECD countries in relationship with Female Human Development Index is shown in the following Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 Female emigration rate (to OECD countries) in relationship with Female Human Development Index in the country of origin



Source: OECD, UN

The data on emigration from selected countries to OECD countries show that the female emigration rate is quite low in the countries with very low gender-related development index results, higher for the countries with middle results (however there are many countries in this category which have very low emigration), and the maximum migration falls for the countries with the highest results. There are many countries where the emigration rate remains low independent of their GDI Female level, which can be also caused by restricting immigration policies in the OECD countries or restrictive emigration policies from those countries.

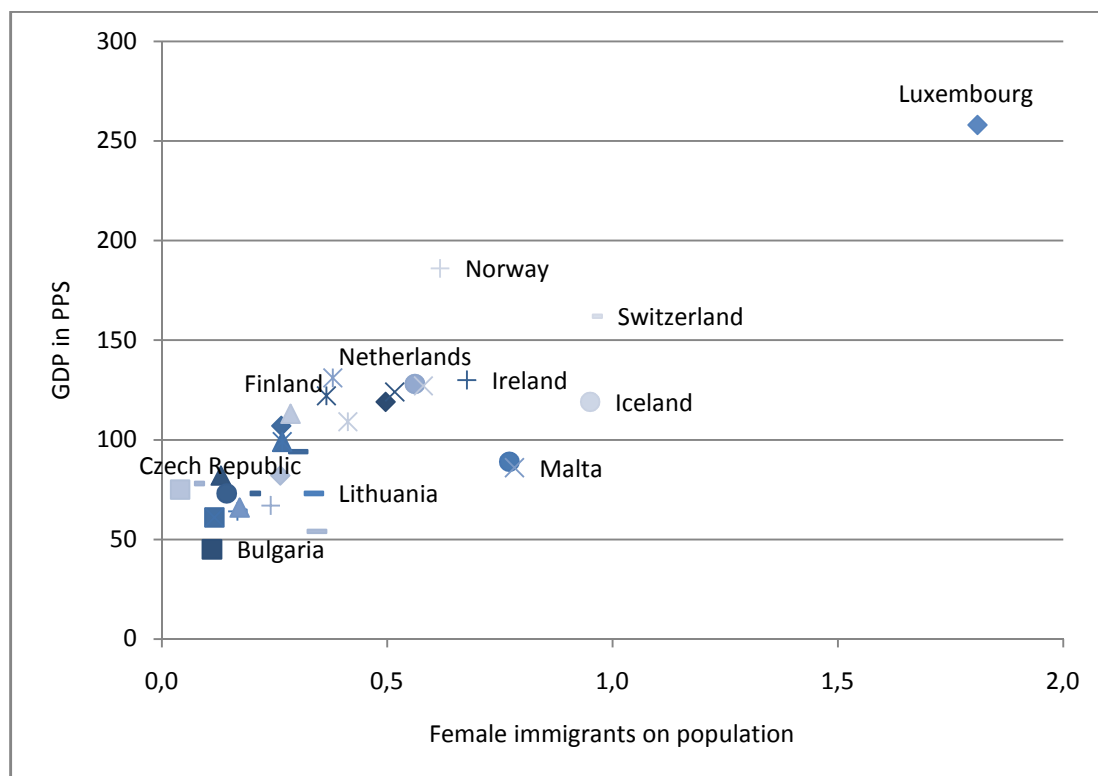
According to Mayda (2005) the effect of push factors (levels of GDP per worker in the origin country) is smaller than the effect of pull factors. Next, the pull factors are examined in more details.

1.4 Pull factors of international migration

When people decide to leave their home country, they also choose the country where they move. Thus, pull factors from outside are important and they may become critical not only for the choice of migration destination but also for the decision to migrate alone. The pull factors are then defined as factors which make distant places appear appealing (Dorigo & Tobler, 1983). Another definition explains a pull factor as *a feature or event that attracts a person to move to another country* (Gubert & Nordman, 2008, p. 2).

Broader view suggests that migrants are considering the economic conditions in their country of origin as well as the conditions in the country of destination. Emigration is more likely when the economic conditions decline and less likely when they improve, similarly, immigration is more likely when conditions in the destination country improve and less likely when they decline. This means that migrants are responding to fluctuations in economic conditions (Jenkins, 1977). So a stronger GDP growth and lower unemployment lead to further immigration (Kahanec et al., 2014). Similarly, the migration is said to be correlated with GDP per worker. According to a study by Mayda (2005) if the GDP per worker in the destination country increases by 10%, the emigration rate increases by 19%. To test those presumptions on empirical data, the relationship between the GDP in PPS in 2013 (for a better comparison among countries) in EU countries and the number of female immigrants who came to those countries in 2013 is examined. Based on the data available there is a significant correlation between the number of female immigrants who arrived in the year on population and GDP in PPS in 2013 in EU countries. The following Figure 1.3 shows female immigrants as a percentage on population and GDP in PPS as of 2013.

Figure 1.3 The relationship between female immigrants as a percentage on population and GDP per capita in PPS in EU countries, Switzerland, Iceland, and Norway in 2013



Source: Eurostat

The highest GDP per capita in PPS as well as the % of female immigrants on population was in Luxembourg. On average, richer countries also have the higher percentage of female immigrants on population. The causality direction is not definite because the female immigrants may contribute to higher GDP.

Another indicator discussed in the literature, which has impact on the immigration, especially of lower skilled workers, is the level of minimum wage. The analysis performed based on the data available from Eurostat, shows that there is a significant correlation between the percentage of female immigrants on population and the level of minimum wage in PPS in EU countries with the statutory minimum wage in 2013. The higher level of minimum wage may reflect the overall wage level in the country so an increase in minimum wage may lead to an increase in the number of immigrants if other indicators remain unchanged.

The level of empowerment or gender inequality can have an impact on the migration of women, not only as a push factor but also as a pull factor. In the following Table 1.1 the

countries are divided according to their ranks in Gender Inequality Index. The differences among the groups are observed in the estimated number of female migrants, female migrants as percentage on population, international migrants as percentage on the population, and female migrants as a percentage of all international migrants.

Table 1.1 Female migration indicators in countries grouped by rank in Gender Inequality Index, 2010

Rank in Gender Inequality Index (2013)	Estimated number of female migrants at mid-year (sum)	Female migrants as percentage on population (average)	International migrants as a percentage of the population (average)	Female migrants as a percentage of all international migrants (average)
Top 30	31,683,436	7.2	13.8	52.0
Top50	61,310,126	6.6	14.2	50.5
Middle51	23,608,605	2.9	6.0	50.0
Bottom 51	13,392,550	1.7	4.8	44.8

Source: United Nations

There were almost three times more female migrants in the countries ranking among the first 50 countries than in those ranked in the middle (51st to 101st). Similarly, countries which ranked in the bottom 50 in inequality index exhibit the lower number of female migrants relative to countries in the top 100. The percentage of female migrants on population is the highest in top 50 countries, and it is even higher when considering top 30 countries. When comparing with all international migrants on population, female percentage on population is the highest in top 30 countries, while all international migrants have highest proportion on population in top 50 countries. The proportion of women on all international migrants is also highest in the top 30 countries, descending with lower rank in Gender Inequality Index. This exercise does not imply that countries that score higher in the Gender Inequality Index would have more female migrants. Because countries with higher Gender Inequality Index usually have also higher Human Development Index there are other confounding factors important for the relationship.

The distance between the source and the host country plays a role in migration decision. Longer distance decreases the number of emigrants, however, common border does not seem to play an important role as well as past colonial relationships (Mayda, 2005). Another study shows that the distance and also linguistic proximity play a role in migration decision,

meaning that shorter distance and more similar language lead to more migration flows (Kahanec et al., 2014). Speaking a language that is linguistically close to the language in the destination country may decrease the migration costs by easier learning of the language and may imply higher success in the labor market (Adsera & Pytlikova, 2012). Previous research however assigned lower importance on language (Mayda,2005).

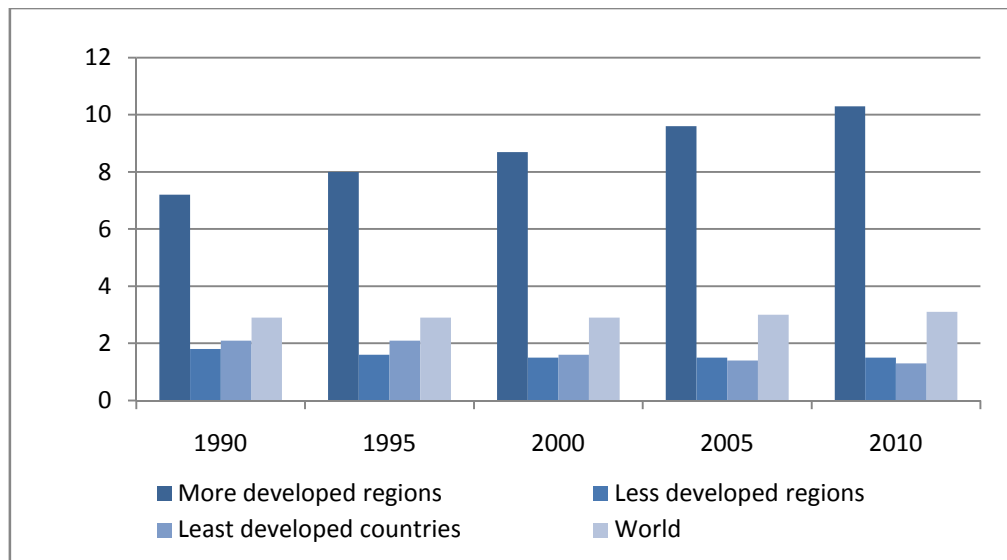
Migration networks can also be an important factor when explaining migration decision. Morrison et al. (2007) claims that social networks (proxied by contacts with family members who are already living abroad) play a more important role in migration decision than macroeconomic or policy variables. The networks are more important for women because they rely more strongly on their family and friends for help, information protection or guidance when migrating (Docquier et al., 2009). Women are said to be more committed to their family and community back home, thus their networks are deeper than those of men (Morrison et al., 2007).

Researchers investigated to what extent security systems and social institutions could be pull factors, influencing the migratory decision of women. According to Gubert & Nordman (2009) the institutional pull factors include social security systems (i.e. high wages, political stability, past colonial relationship or common culture). First, it is important to take into consideration whether migrants have an access to those institutions, then it is possible to compare different countries. The distinction between law and real respect of the law is also important to be taken into consideration, however, it is difficult to observe.

2. THE FEMALE FACE OF MIGRATION

It is estimated that there were 231 million migrants or 3% of world population in 2013. The number includes all persons born in a country other than that in which they live (UN DESA, 2013). The real numbers of migrants can be higher because the official estimates do not include illegal and temporary migrants. The number of migrants may differ from country to country as well as with the change in development of a country. In the following Figure 2.1, the number of international migrants in regions with different level of development is shown, measured as a percentage of migrants in the population.

Figure 2.1 The share of migrants in the destination by the level of development



Source: UN DESA

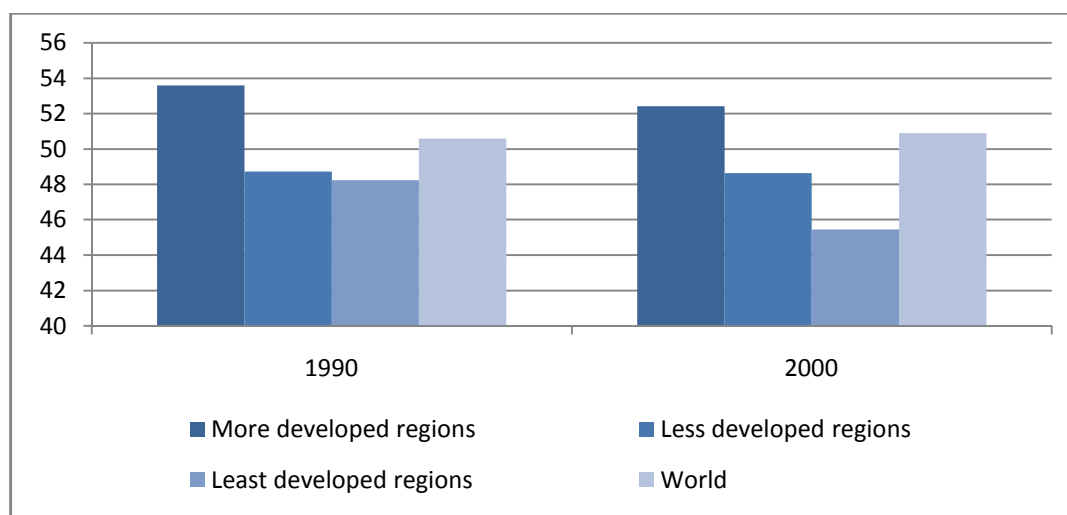
Based on the data by United Nations shown in the figure above, it can be seen that the percentage of international migrants on population has been growing very slightly in the world from 2.9% in 1990 to 3.1% in 2010. More developed regions have higher proportion of migrants on population and it has been constantly growing since 1990, from 7% in 1990 to 10% in 2010. The lowest proportion of migrants on population in 2010 was in the least developed regions, only 1.3%. The overall number of migrants has also been growing since 1990 mainly because of an increase in the number of migrants in more developed regions, their number increased by 45 million (from 82 million in 1990 to 128 million in 2010). The number of migrants increased in less (from 73 million to 86 million) and the least developed regions (from 11 million to 11.5 million) as well. However, the increase in least developed

regions was least significant (by only 412 thousand). Even though, in some years the absolute number of migrants in both those regions grew, their proportion on population remained the same or even decreased.

2.1 Origins and destination of women migrants

In the world there were 111.2 million female migrants in 2013 with the share of 48% on total migrant population. However, the percentage varied with the level of development of the country. In general, female migrants are attracted to more developed regions (52%) and their presence is lowest (43%) in the least developed parts of the world. Over two decades the proportion has changed only mildly. The largest decrease of women migration compared to men is observed in the less developed regions, from 46% in 1990 to 43% in 2013 (UNDESA, 2013). Docquier, Lowell, & Marfouk (2009) studied the proportion of international migrants arriving to OECD countries, distinguishing their region of origin. Figure 2.2 shows the proportion of women to men migrants to OECD countries based on the region of their origin in 1990 and 2000.

Figure 2.2 The proportion of women migrants in the migration population in the OECD countries, by the region of origin¹⁰



Source: Docquier et al. (2009)

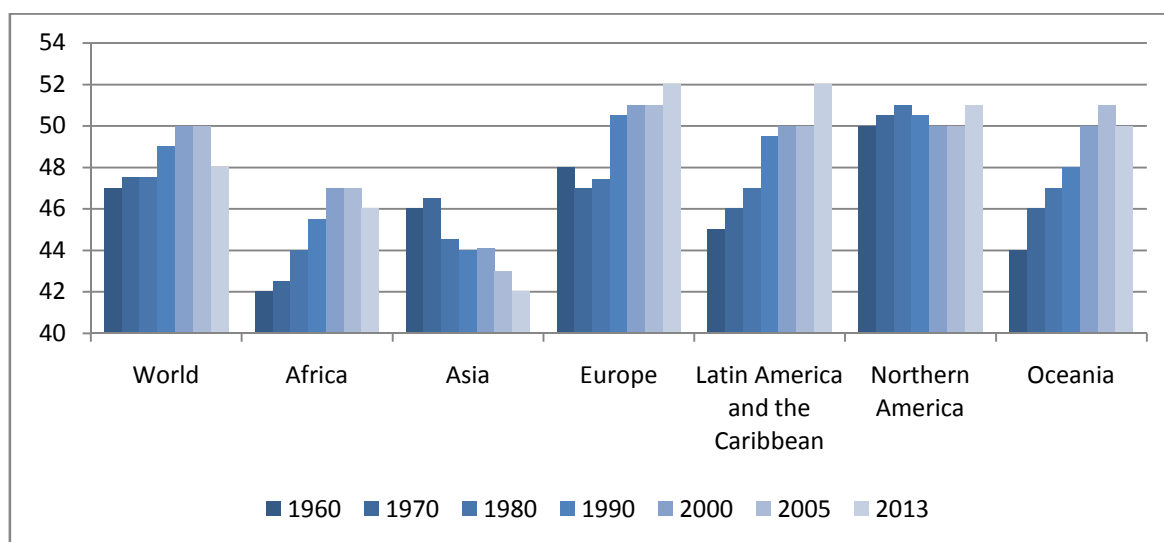
In 2010 women constituted 51% of all international migrants in OECD countries. More women than men came from more developed countries (52%) in 2000, their proportion

¹⁰Countries division based on United Nation, World Urbanization Prospects. The 2009 Revision Population Database. For more information see: <http://esa.un.org/wup2009/unup/index.asp?panel=5>

decreased slightly compared to 1990. Again, the proportion of women on all migrants changed most significantly for the migrants coming from the least developed regions. While in 1990 women constituted 45%, in 2010 it was 48%. However, the proportion of population of the least developed countries was approximately 11% (United Nations, 2009). Thus, the increase in proportion of women from those countries was not reflected in significant change in proportion of world migrants.

The fact that more developed countries seem to be attracting a higher share of women can be explained by several factors. This may be due to immigration laws, better opportunities for education and employment, higher stage of individual autonomy and equality, and so on (Morrison et al., 2007). However, the proportion of women migrants varies not only based on the level of economic development but also on different geographical areas (continents). Mainly because the economic development also differs among continents/regions, even though particular countries in the regions may have higher level of economic development, the average for the region may differ substantially. Figure 2.3 documents the differences in the proportion of female migrants in different continents/regions over the long period from 1960 until 2013.

Figure 2.3 The proportion of women in migrant population by region, 1960 - 2013



Source: retrieved from United Nations Population Fund (2006) and UN DESA (2013)

The highest increase in the proportion of women to men migrants over the time period is observed in Oceania (from 44% in 1960 to 51% in 2005), Latin America and the Caribbean

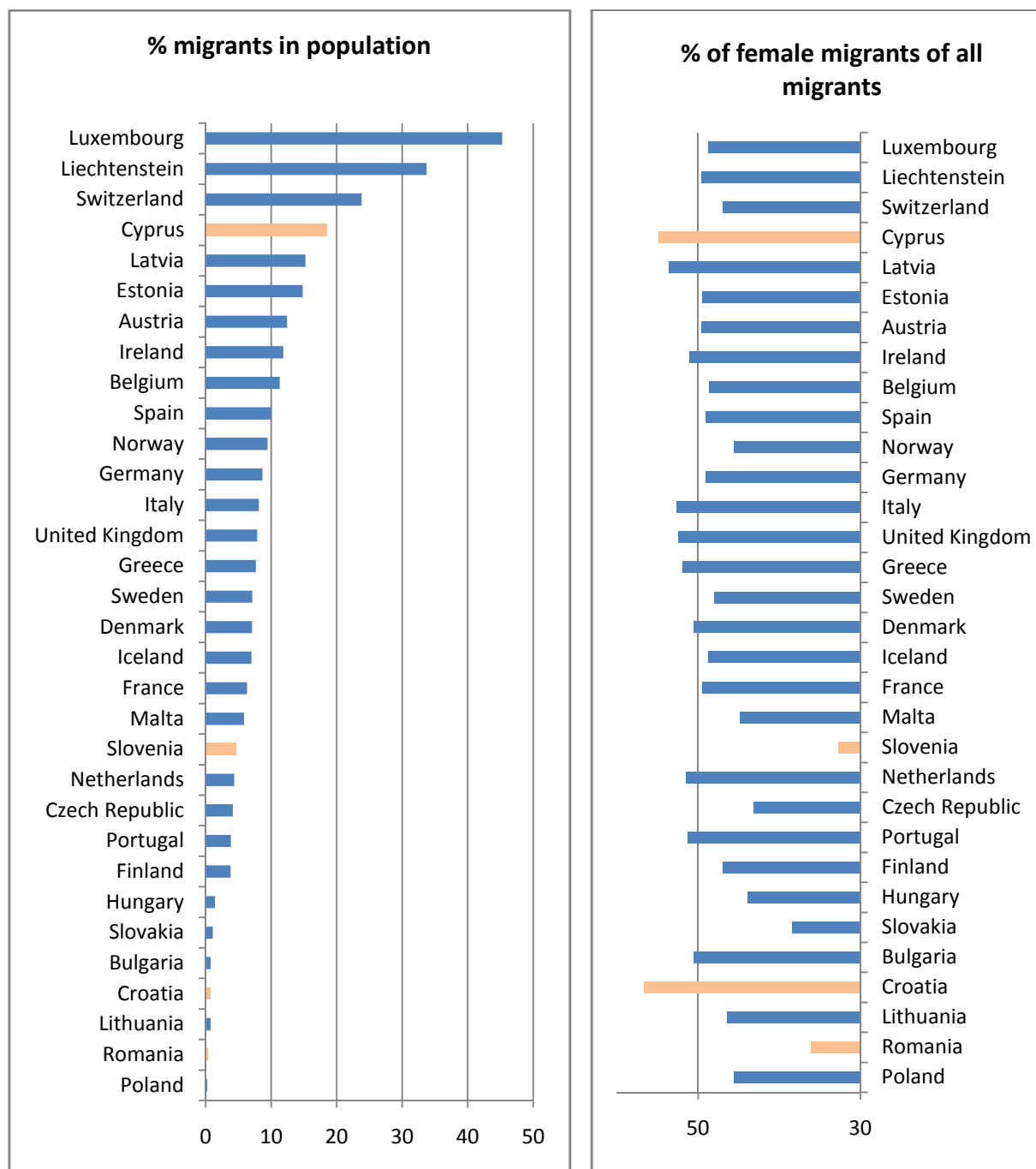
(from 45% in 1960 to 52% in 2013), and Africa (from 42% in 1960 to 47% in 2005). The only region that registered a drop in the share of female migrants was Asia (from 46% in 1960 to 42% in 2013). More female migrants than male in 2013 were in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Northern America, more men migrated in Asia and Africa and equal number of women and men migrated in Oceania. The figure shows that the proportion of women on the world migration was continuously increasing until 2005 and then slightly dropped in 2013. The highest difference in proportion between women and men during the period was only 3 percentage points.

Based on the data obtained from UN DESA (2009a) the country with the highest proportion of female migrants on all migrants in 2010 was Nepal. Their proportion to men was 68%, and declined from 72% in 1990. Based on World Bank (2015) data, the high proportion of women was primarily caused by Indian women migrants as they made up to 97% of female migrants to Nepal, and their proportion to Indian men was 71% in 2000. Second country with the highest proportion of women migrants on all international migrants was Mauritius, then Barbados, Estonia, and Latvia. On the opposite side of the scale is Bangladesh with only 14% of female to all migrants, followed by Bhutan, Oman and Qatar (UN DESA, 2009a).

Countries where the proportion of women who left the country for the purpose of migration until 2000 is the highest, are Ukraine 61% of women to men emigrated (mainly because of higher emigration of women to Russia, Poland, United States and Kazakhstan), Philippines (61%) and Singapore (60%). Countries with the lowest proportion of emigrating women to men are Egypt (26%), Yemen (29%) and Malawi (32%) (World Bank, 2015).

Figure 2.4 shows the proportion of migrants on population in EU countries, Liechtenstein, Switzerland and Norway ordered by highest to lowest proportion. At the same time the figure shows the percentage proportion of women on the migrants living in the country.

Figure 2.4 Percentage share of migrants living in EU countries and percentage proportion of women on all migrants living in the country, 1 January 2014



Source: Eurostat

When only EU countries are considered, the highest proportion of migrants on population is in Luxembourg (44%), and the lowest in Poland (0.3%). The countries with the highest and lowest proportions of women to men migrants living in the country are highlighted in the graph. The highest proportion of women to men can be observed in Cyprus and Croatia (55%)

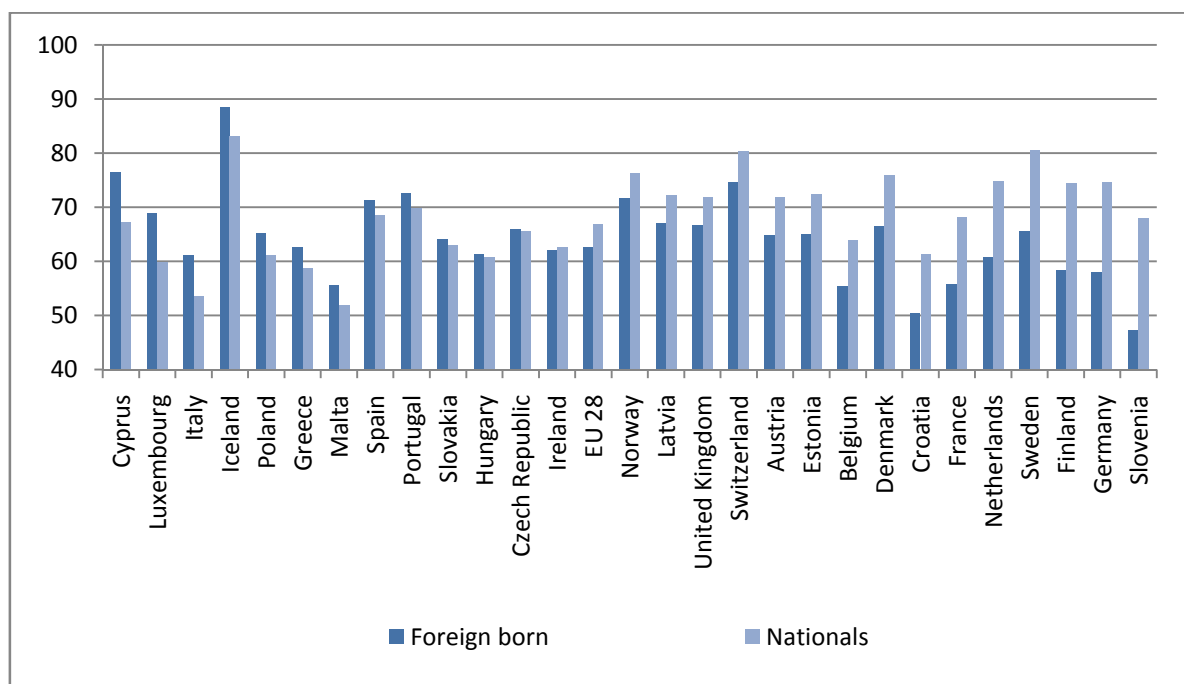
and 57% respectively) and the lowest proportion was in Slovenia and Romania (33% and 36% respectively). The proportion of women in countries that have more migrants on population than the average seems to be varying only mildly from 46% to 55%. However, the differences among countries which have lower number of migrants on population than the average, the proportion of women is varying more wildly from 33% in Slovenia to 57% in Croatia.

2.2 The success of women migrants in the labor market

According to studies, the main occupational sector of female migrant workers is the service sector, while men migrate to a variety of sectors. Women migrants hold positions such as contract and hotel cleaners, waitresses, entertainers, and sex workers. They can be also found in retail sales, and in labor-intensive manufacturing (textile and garment industry). However, the demand for women is increasing in care services such as a domestic work (home cleaning and child care), and in valued occupations such as nurses, and private institutional health care workers (Chammartin, 2006). It is important to note that not only migrant female workers are represented in the service sector. At the global level half of the employed women were employed in service sector, a third in agriculture and a sixth in industry. The largest differences in the number of women and men employed in a sector are in the construction sector, where man participation is higher than woman, women participate more in health and social work, and education (ILO, 2012).

One of the indicators of labor market position of female migrants is activity rate, which represents the percentage of active persons (the sum of employed and unemployed) on relevant population (in the thesis 15-64 year olds) (Eurostat, 2014a). The activity rate differs across different EU countries. The following Figure 2.5 shows the differences between activity rates of native and foreign born female population in EU countries.

Figure 2.5 Activity rate of women by origin, 2014

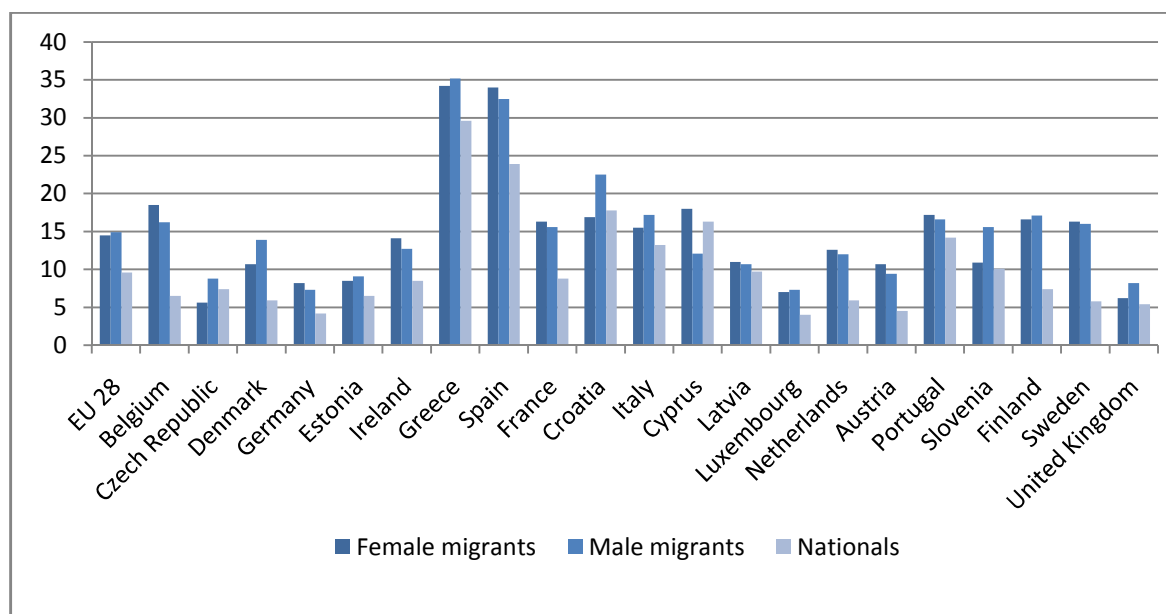


Source: Eurostat

From the figure above it can be observed that there are large differences in activity rates of foreign born females across countries. In the EU 28 countries overall the activity rate of female nationals is slightly higher than the activity rate of foreign born female population, however in many countries higher percentage of foreign born women are active. The largest difference between activity rate of foreign and native born women, where more nationals than people coming from foreign county are active, is in Slovenia (20 percentage points). The activity rate of foreign born women is higher in 12 countries and the difference between the activity rate of foreign born and native women, where more foreign women are active than native, is the highest in Cyprus (9.3 percentage points).

The unemployment rate of migrants tends to be higher than the one of the native born population. At the same time the unemployment is higher for females than males. The following Figure 2.6 shows the unemployment rate of migrants living in the country and natives by sex in EU 28 countries in which the data is available.

Figure 2.6 Unemployment rates in EU 28 by sex and origin, 2014¹¹



Source: Eurostat

Figure 2.6 shows that the unemployment of foreign born women in EU 28 countries is higher than the unemployment of native born females. The difference is around 7 percentage points, while the difference between women and men unemployment is much lower. Even though the activity rate of migrant females was higher in many countries, the unemployment rate of foreign women is lower in only one country, Cyprus and almost the same in the Czech Republic, in all the other countries it is higher than the unemployment rate of native females.

¹¹EU 28 countries for which data is available on Eurostat

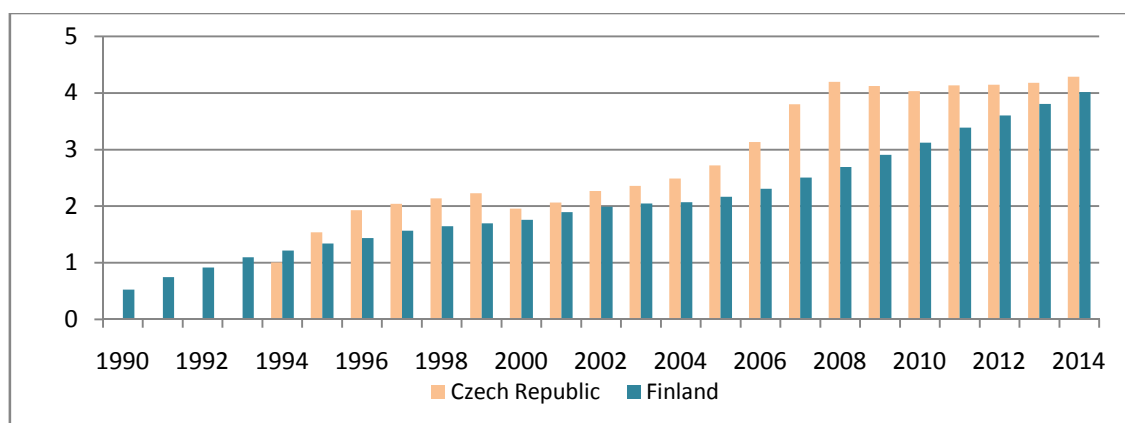
3. WOMEN MIGRANTS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC AND FINLAND

This chapter discusses the migration to the Czech Republic and Finland by emphasizing the female perspectives. I present migration flows and the determinants of migration decision of women as well as the role of institutions.

3.1 Development and composition of migration flows

With 10.5 million inhabitants, the Czech Republic is the middle sized European country and two times larger relative to Finland (population 5.4million). In 2014 there were 452 thousand migrants living in the Czech Republic. This included both long-term and permanent stays in the country but excluded the asylum granted. According to Statistics Finland (2015) there were 220 thousand people with foreign nationality in 2014 in Finland. In both countries migrants made up around 4 % of total population.

Figure 3.1 The stock of foreign-born persons in the Czech Republic and in Finland, [% of total population, 1990-2013]



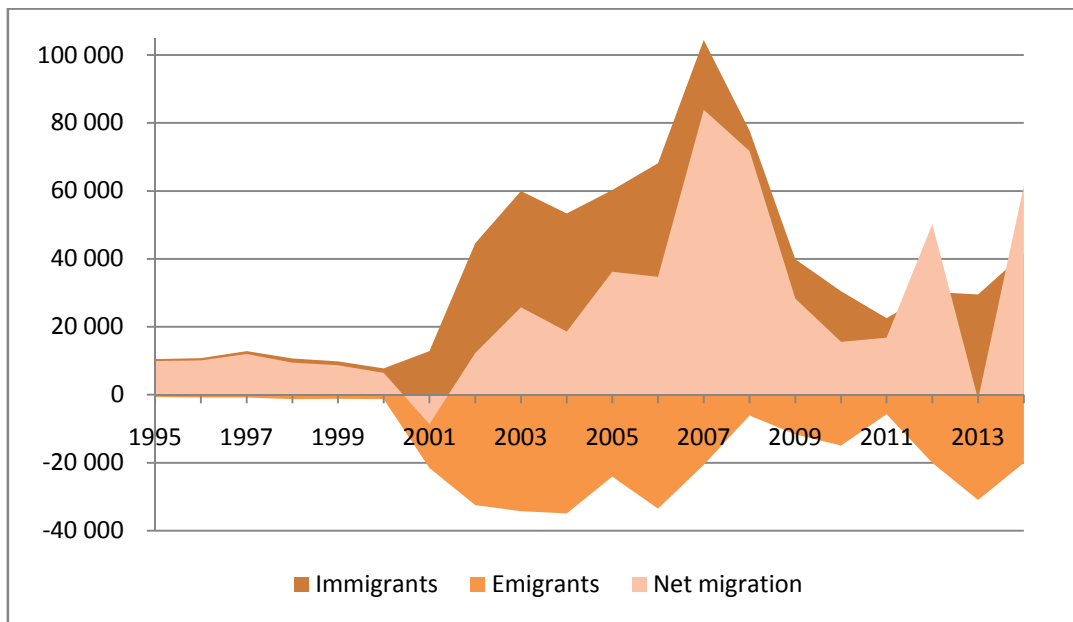
Source: Czech Statistical Office, Official Statistics of Finland (OSF)

Note: Figures exclude the asylum granted.

Figure 3.1 illustrates that in Finland the share of foreigners on total population was rising continuously over the time and the pace increased after 2004. The Czech Republic joined European Union in 2004 and was registering the increase in the flow of foreigners until 2008. The Great Recession in 2009 led to the stabilization of migrant population.

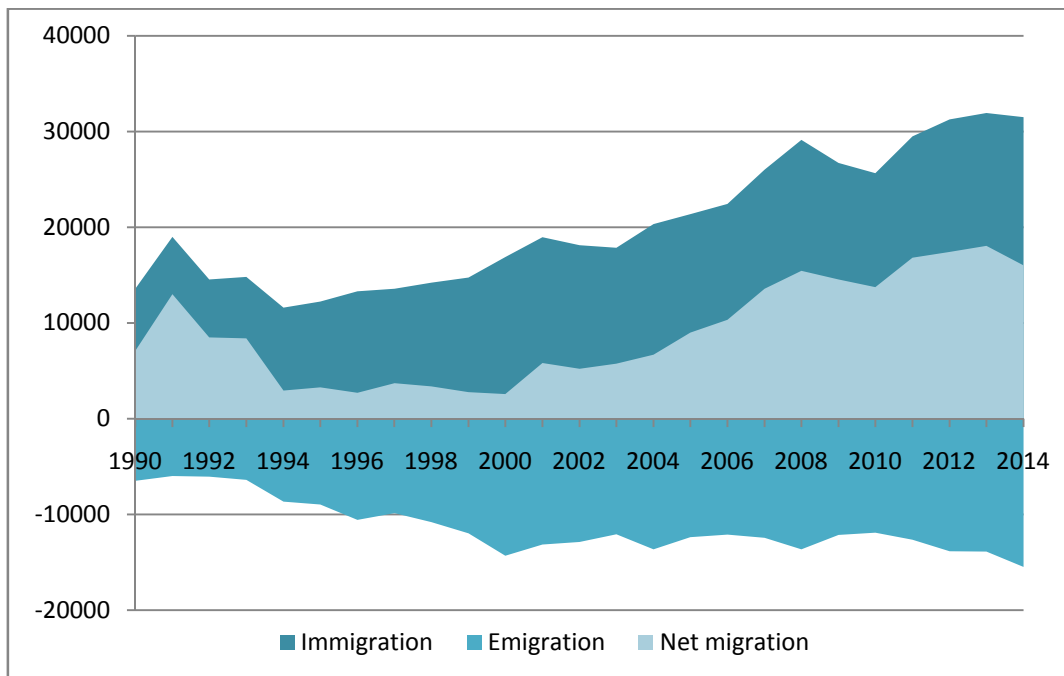
The theory of migration cycle predicts that the migration in the European countries is a cyclical process with periods of emigration followed by period of immigration (Okólski, 2012). Figure 3.2 illustrates that the Czech Republic has been a country of immigration. With an exception of the year 2001 every year more people immigrated than emigrated from the country. On 21 December 2007 the Czech Republic became full-featured member of the Schengen area, which meant the end of security controls at borders with neighboring countries. The process was completed in 2008 when the controls of passengers within the Schengen area at international airports were abolished (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2008). The inflow of immigrants increased rapidly in 2007 and 2008 and it stabilized during the Great recession. For example the immigration from Ukraine (top immigration country during the period from 2003 to 2009) increased by 82% over the average of the period while in 2009 it fell back by 80% in comparison with the year 2007. Similar patterns are observed for immigration flows from other countries. The development of the female migration was comparable to the total migration (Czech Statistical Office, 2012). The year 2013 was the first when the Czech Republic experienced the negative net migration.

Figure 3.2 Net migration, the Czech Republic 1995 - 2014



Source: Czech Statistical Office

Figure 3.3 Net migration, Finland 1990 - 2013



Source: Official Statistics of Finland (OSF)

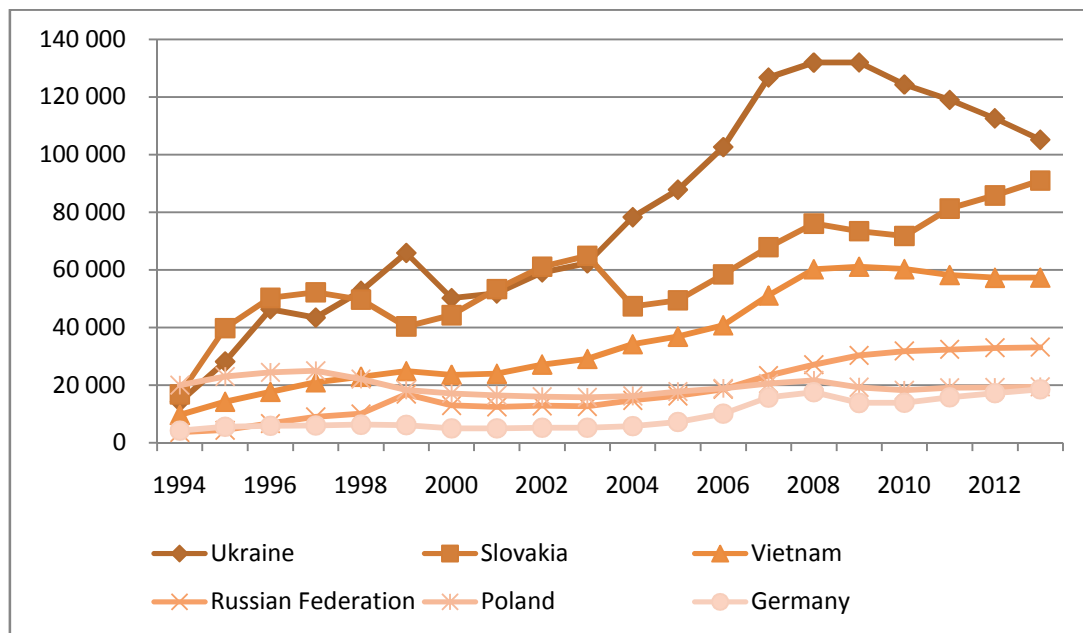
Finland is also the country of immigration, which means that more people immigrate than emigrate from the country. While the number of immigrants was growing during the period

from 1990 until 2014, the number of emigrants was quite stable, thus the net migration is also growing. The number of immigrants, emigrants, and net migration is shown in the Figure 3.3. Finland joined the European Union in 1995 and became a member of the Schengen area in 1996. However, this did not bring such a significant change in number of migrants as it did in the case of the Czech Republic.

In comparison with EU 28 countries the proportion of migrants on population in both countries in 2014 was below average (8%). According to the proportion of migrants the Czech Republic ranked 21st and Finland ranked 23rd among 28 countries. The share of migrants from non-EU countries was above 60% in both countries (Eurostat, 2014b). The proportion of women to men migrants living in Finland was slightly higher (47%) than in the Czech Republic (43%). Which is again lower than the average in the observed countries (48%). Even though the Czech Republic has a higher proportion of migrants on population than Finland, there is a lower proportion of women on all migrants (Eurostat, 2014b). It seems that compared to the other observed European countries Finland and the Czech Republic are not very attractive for women migrants as they are not for all international migrants. However, it is necessary to examine migrants coming from different countries as they might show significant differences in their migration patterns. Furthermore, it is necessary to examine if the institutions make it possible for migrants to either enter or reside in the country since the country might be attractive but not accessible for women migrants or for migrants in general.

The composition of migrant populations differ between the two countries. In general, the most numerous foreign community living in the Czech Republic are the Ukrainians. Essentially, one in every five migrants is a Ukrainian. The top 10 countries constituted 80% of all migrants living in the country. Migrants from top 6 countries (mentioned in the Table below) made up 74% in 2013. Furthermore, 45% of all migrants were from top 2 countries (Ukraine and Slovakia). Figure 3.4 plots the changes in the composition of migrants from 1994 until 2013.

Figure 3.4 Migrants living in the Czech Republic by citizenship 1994-2013 (top 6 nationalities in 2013)

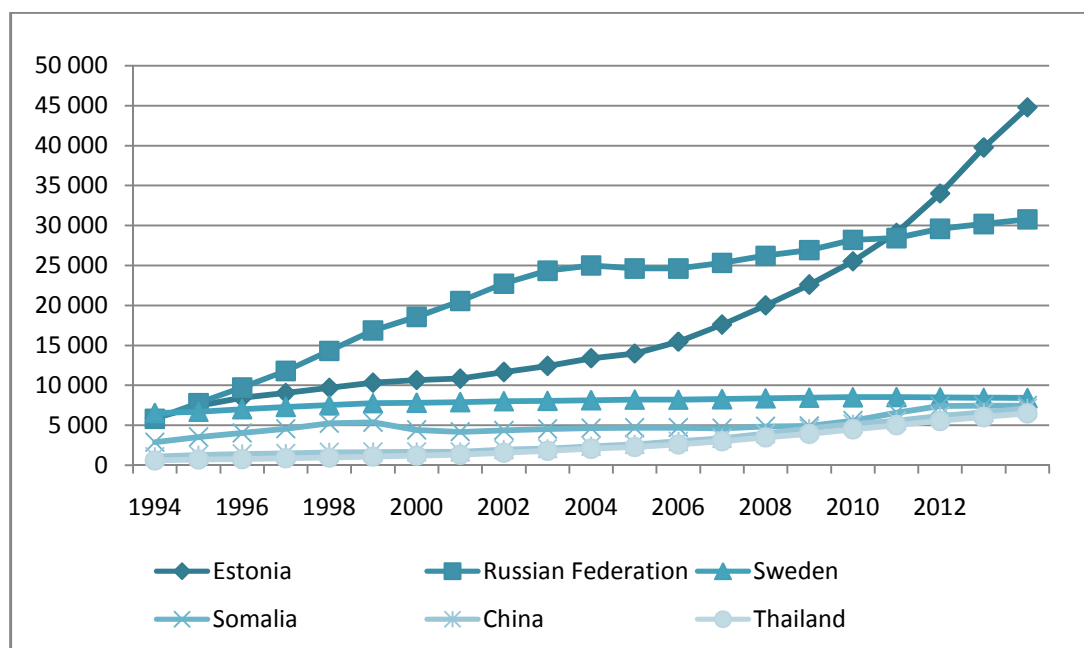


Source: Czech Statistical Office

Apparently, most migrants living in the Czech Republic in 2013 were from Ukraine, Slovakia, Vietnam, Russian Federation, Poland, and Germany. Although the number of migrants coming from those top countries has had a rising tendency, the number of Ukrainian nationals has decreased since 2009, as well as nationals of Vietnam, even though the change in their number was not as significant as for Ukrainian nationals.

Top 10 countries of migrant's nationality in Finland constituted 60% of all migrants living in Finland in 2013. At the same time top 2 countries made up 36%. Nationality of migrants is thus more diversified in case of Finland than it was in case of the Czech Republic. Changes in numbers of migrants coming from top 6 countries for the period of 1994 to 2013 is shown in the Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 Migrants living in Finland by citizenship 1994 - 2013 top 6 countries in 2013



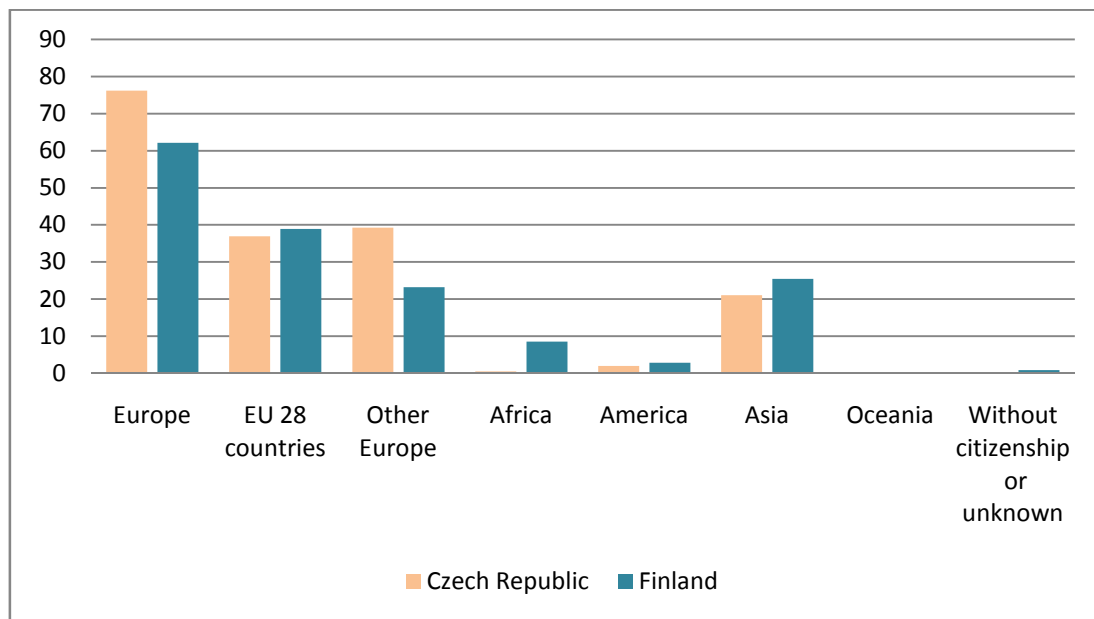
Source: Statistics Finland

Most migrants living in Finland in 2013 were from Estonia and Russian Federation, followed by Sweden, Somalia, China, and Thailand. The number of migrants from top 2 countries had a rising tendency for most of the time during the selected time period. Especially the number of nationals from Estonia have been rising sharply since 2006 (Statistics Finland, 2014).

Although both countries, Finland and the Czech Republic are countries of immigration, the migration rates are low in comparison with other European countries. The ethnic diversity of migrants according to their nationality or country of birth is higher in Finland. However, in both countries more than 50% of migrants are from 10 countries.

In 2014 there were 196 thousand of female migrants (or 2% of the population) living in the Czech Republic out of which 118.9 thousand (or 61 %) were permanent stay right holders (Czech Statistical Office, 2015a). In Finland there were 103.1 thousand of female migrants living in 2014 (or 2% of the population) (Statistics Finland, 2015). Most female migrants living in Finland and in the Czech Republic came from European countries. In the following Figure 3.6 the proportions of female migrants from particular regions on all female migrants are shown.

Figure 3.6 The composition of female migrants by origin, Finland and the Czech Republic, 2014



Source: Statistics Finland, Czech Statistical Office

In the Czech Republic, 76% of female migrants were from Europe and in Finland it was 62%. If Europe was further divided into EU 28 countries and the rest of Europe, most female migrants in Finland came from EU 28 countries, while in the Czech Republic they were from other European countries (mainly from Ukraine). Besides Europe, most female migrants in both countries came from Asia.

A significant proportion of female migrants living in the Czech Republic come from the top two countries. The percentage of female migrants from those two countries (Ukraine, Slovakia) constituted 47% of total number of female migrants living in the Czech Republic in 2014. Female migrants from Vietnam made up 13% and from Russia it was 10% (Czech Statistical Office, 2015a). The origin of women migrants living in Finland in 2014 was slightly more diversified than the one of those living in the Czech Republic. Women migrants from the top two countries (Estonia, Russia) made up 41% of all international female migrants (Statistics Finland, 2015).

The proportion of female migrants to men living in the Czech Republic in 2013 was 43%. However, the percentage varied for nationals of different countries. If we consider only the top 15 countries, the highest proportion of women to men was from Belarus; they made up

59% of all migrants from the country. More women than men migrants came from Russia, Poland, Kazakhstan, Mongolia, and already mentioned Belarus. The lowest proportion of women was from Germany; women constituted 20% of all migrants coming from Germany. When the origin countries with at least 500 people residing in the Czech Republic are compared as of 2013 the highest proportion of women to men on all migrants was from Thailand (92%), and the lowest proportion of women to men was from Algeria (8%).

In Finland the proportion of women in the migration population is higher (47%) than in the Czech Republic. When looking at the top 15 countries by the origin more women than men is from Estonia, Russian Federation, China, Thailand, and Vietnam. The highest proportion of women to men was from Russia - 57%, and the lowest from the United Kingdom - 20%. In comparison with the situation in the Czech Republic much higher proportion of women to men were from Germany, it was higher by about 20 percentage points. Finally when the origins with at least 500 people residing in Finland are considered, the highest proportion of women to men is from Thailand (87%) and the lowest from the United Kingdom (20%). Interestingly, the proportion of British women migrants is very similar in both countries

When comparing top 15 source countries of immigrants who arrived in 2013, the highest proportion of women coming to the Czech Republic in 2013 was from China, as 62% of all immigrants from China coming that year were women. However, the change comparing to the year 2003 was significant; their proportion grew from 40% in 2003. There are also countries from which the proportion of women decreased, like Mongolia (from 67% in 2003 to 51% in 2013). Another example is Germany where the proportion of women fell by 10 percentage points from 2003 till 2013. Changes in the proportion of women on total immigrants from the countries which have more than 1,000 migrants in the Czech Republic can be seen in Table 3.1. The countries are ordered by the number of female migrants living in the country. The number of women coming to the Czech Republic in 2013 by nationality is shown in the last column.

Table 3.1 The percentage of female immigrants on total migrants' inflow to the Czech Republic

Nationality	% of female migrants with the same nationality coming in the year			Number of female immigrants coming in the year
	2003	2009	2013	2013
Ukraine	34	43	49	1,836
Slovakia	30	49	47	3,074
Viet Nam	47	44	49	587
Russian Federation	50	53	59	1,798
Poland	18	39	42	249
Germany	25	13	15	257
Bulgaria	30	40	39	374
Mongolia	67	54	51	75
United States	41	55	49	394
Kazakhstan	55	51	57	351
Belarus	51	56	59	227
China	40	49	62	234
Moldova	37	35	53	109
Romania	30	30	33	305
United Kingdom	26	22	26	94

Source: Czech Statistical Office

Note: Table includes only source countries with more than 1,000 female migrants as of 2013.

When each year (2003 - 2013) is taken into account the highest proportion of women on all immigrants from the same country was in case of Mongolia in 2003. 66% of immigrants from Mongolia were women. According to OECD (2015) data since 2003 Korea, the Czech Republic, and Germany have been the top destination countries for Mongolian women. In 2007 the number of them emigrating from the Czech Republic peaked and it was even the second top destination country for Mongolian women - 1,828 women migrated in that year. However, their number decreased significantly after 2008. In 2012 only 337 of them migrated to the Czech Republic. Their proportion in comparison with men was decreasing as well. Yet, the proportion of female emigrants from Mongolia was around 70% in the given period. On contrast the proportion of female emigrants from Mongolia to Korea was around 50% or less. In 2012 it was only 40%. The lowest proportion of women on total international immigrants from the same country to the Czech Republic was from Germany. In 2013 women made up only 15%, however when we consider destination countries were at least 2,000 immigrants

from Germany migrated more women than men in 2012 migrated to Belgium, Spain, Sweden and the United States.

The following Table 3.2 shows the proportion of women immigrants to men to Finland over the period from 2003 until 2013 by nationality. Only those countries with over 1,000 female migrants living in Finland are considered. In the table they are ordered by the number of female migrants living in Finland in 2013. The number of women coming to Finland in 2013 according to nationality can be seen in the last column.

Table 3.2 The percentage of female immigrants among all migrants' inflow to Finland

Nationality	% of female migrants among all migrants with the same nationality coming in the year			Number of female immigrants coming in the year
	2003	2009	2013	2013
Estonia	47	48	49	3,082
Russian Federation	62	57	57	1,655
Thailand	73	72	72	593
China	56	55	54	516
Somalia	50	45	44	172
Sweden	48	46	47	1,273
Iraq	50	26	29	253
Viet Nam	63	62	60	247
India	36	38	43	292
Germany	51	50	52	416
Afghanistan	41	47	42	115
Turkey	40	35	47	285
Poland	43	43	42	230
Ukraine	54	52	50	182
Former Serbia and Montenegro	56	50	43	80
Philippines	62	66	60	211
Iran, Islamic Republic of	56	46	48	265

Source: Statistics Finland

Note: Table includes only source countries with more than 1,000 female migrants as of 2013.

The highest proportion of women to men in 2013 was 72% of women from Thailand and the lowest from Iraq, 29%. The sharpest decrease of the proportion was of female migrants from Iraq. In 2003 there was 50% of women immigrants to Finland and in 2013 there were only 29% of them. More women than men migrated in 2013 from Russia, Thailand, China,

Vietnam, Germany, and Philippines. However, the percentage has been changing significantly over the years.

An interesting observation is made when comparing the proportion of women from those nationalities which both have over 1,000 migrants living in both the Czech Republic and Finland. The proportion of female migrants on the yearly inflows of migrants based on nationality is shown in the following Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 The percentage of female immigrants on total migrant's inflow to the Czech Republic and Finland, migrants living in both countries

Nationality	Czech Republic			Finland		
	2003	2009	2013	2003	2009	2013
Ukraine	34	43	49	54	52	50
Vietnam	47	44	49	63	62	60
Russian Federation	50	53	59	62	57	57
Poland	18	39	42	43	43	42
Germany	25	13	15	51	50	52
China	40	49	62	56	55	54

Source: Czech Statistical Office, Statistics Finland

Note: Table includes only source countries of both the Czech Republic and Finland with more than 1,000 female migrants as of 2013.

From most of the compared source countries more women than men came to Finland, while the opposite situation was in the Czech Republic, where more men than women immigrated from most compared countries. The proportion of women to men coming to Finland was in most cases higher than that of women coming to the Czech Republic, with an exception of China and Poland in 2013, however the proportion was higher in Finland in 2003 and 2009. The most significant difference can be seen in the proportion of immigrating women from Germany as in 2013 only 15% of them came to the Czech Republic, while 52% to Finland. In general Finland seems to be more attractive for female migrants than the Czech Republic.

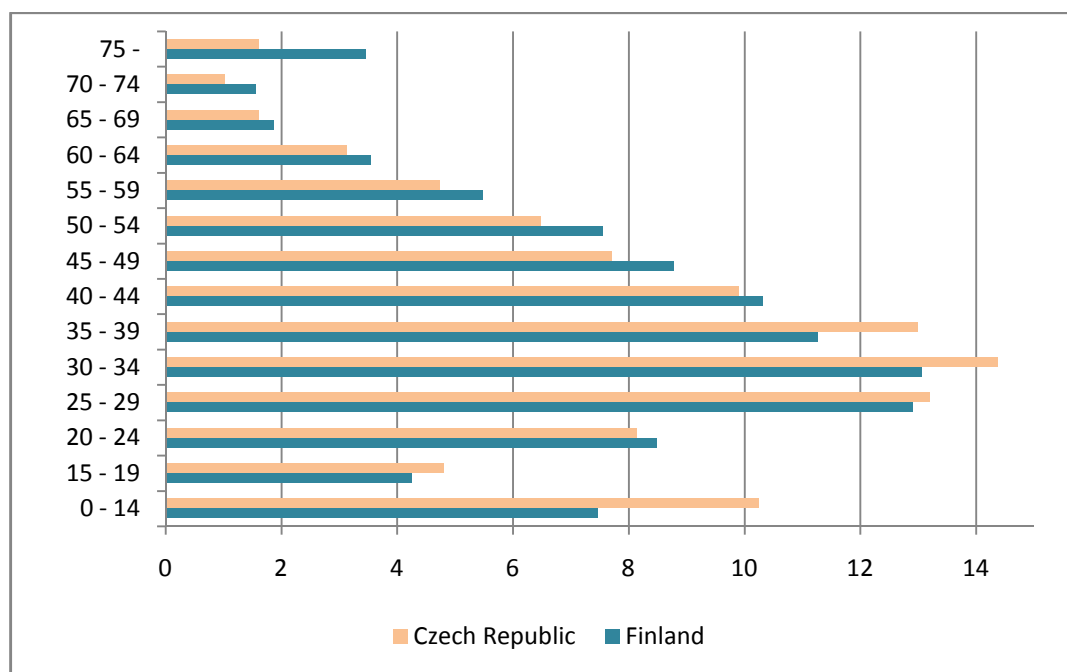
3.2 The migrant characteristics and labor market performance

In this section I describe the demographic and employment characteristics of female immigrants to the Czech Republic and Finland. I will focus on the most numerous groups, i.e.

Ukrainian and Slovak migrants in the Czech Republic and Estonian and Russian migrants in Finland.

According to Eurostat (2014) in 2012 the average age of immigrants into EU 27 countries was lower than the age of residents. Median age of immigrants ranged from 26 to 40 years, while the median age of EU 27 population was 42 years. Median age of female immigrants to the Czech Republic and to Finland was the same, 27 years (Eurostat, 2014). The most numerous group of female migrants living in the countries is in the age between 25 and 39 years in both countries. Figure 3.7 contrasts the age structure of female migrants in both countries¹².

Figure 3.7 The age structure of female migrants in the Czech Republic and Finland [% of all female migrants, 2013]



Source: Statistics Finland, Czech Statistical Office

The figure above illustrates that the age structure of foreign women living in Finland and in the Czech Republic are very comparable, only that the Czech Republic has larger proportion of the younger (25 - 39) female migrants than Finland where those over 44 constitute 43% while in the Czech Republic it is 36%. According to Official Statistics of Finland (2013) one

¹²For differences in age group definitions of people under 15, those from 0 - 14 years old were put into one group therefore the first group in the Figure is quite numerous as well.

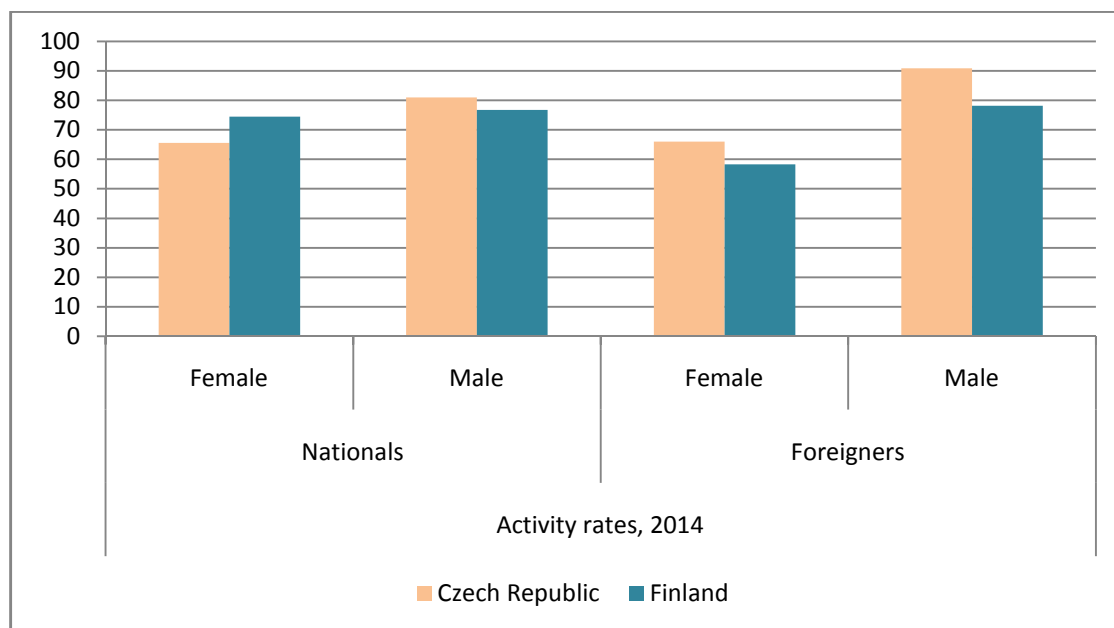
in 10 people living permanently in Finland in the age between 25 to 34 was of a foreign origin in 2012.

The comparison by education levels reveals that higher percentage of migrants than natives in the Czech Republic have tertiary education while in Finland it is vice versa (i.e. there are more natives with tertiary education attained). The differences between sexes in both countries within groups of nationality are not as significant as the differences between nationals and migrants.

The employment rates are often taken as a measure of migrant integration in the country (Guzi, Kahanec, & Kureková, 2015). Out of 190,663 female migrants (excluding granted asylums) in the Czech Republic in 2013, 26 520 women were holding a valid trade license and overall employment of female migrants was 66% (Czech Statistical Office, 2015b). Figures are less favorable in Finland as the employment rate was 53% as of 2013. Approximately 9% of employed female migrants were entrepreneurs (Statistics Finland, 2014). The comparison with native workforce reveals that employment rates of migrant women are slightly higher in the Czech Republic and lower in Finland in comparison to the native women.

Another indicator of labor market performance is an activity rate, which represents the proportion of economically active population (labor force - employed and unemployed, excludes economically inactive population) on comparable population (Eurostat, 2014a). In the thesis, the active persons were compared to the population in the age between 15 and 64 years. Figure 3.8 contrasts the activity rate of migrants and nationals by sex in Finland and the Czech Republics.

Figure 3.8 Activity rates of migrants living in the country and nationals by sex in the Czech Republic and Finland in percentage, 2014, from 15 to 64 years



Source: Eurostat

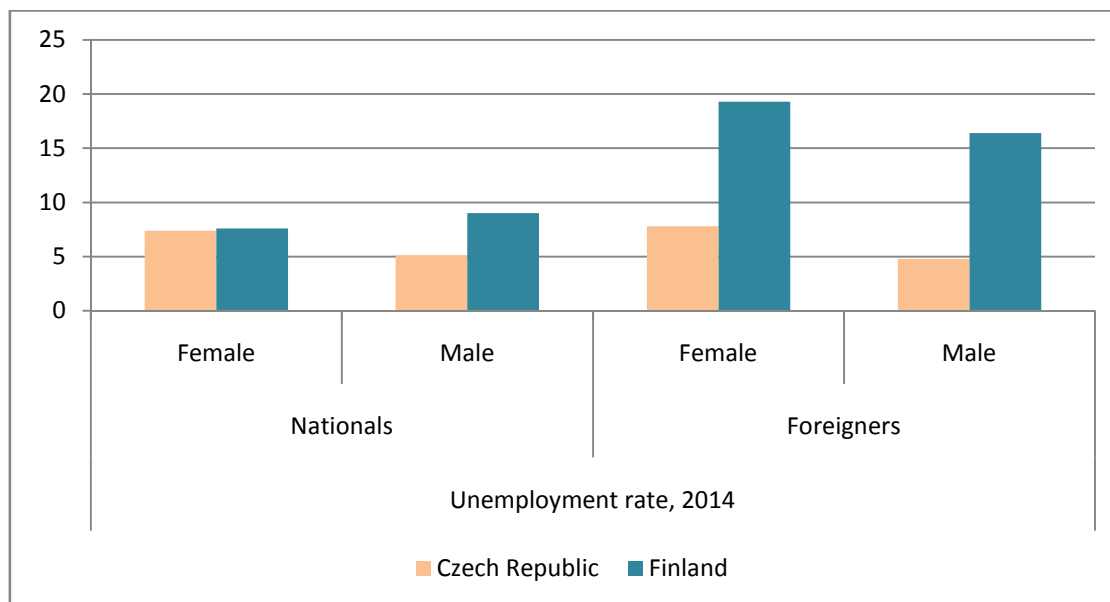
Female activity rate (migrants as well as nationals) was lower than male in 2014 in Finland as well as in the Czech Republic. While male migrants had a higher activity rate than nationals in both countries, the activity rate of female migrants was higher than the one of nationals in the Czech Republic, but lower in Finland. The difference between female migrants and nationals in the Czech Republic was very small, though.

Although the economic development of a country may be high, the wealth may not be available to all its population equally. All things being equal, being a migrant on labor market bears negative effect for both men and women (Kahanec, Zimmermann, & Zaiceva, 2010). It is thus important to study the gap on labor market between nationals and migrants to find out which countries might be more attractive for migrants.

The unemployment rate of migrants in Finland in 2011 was 22% according to employment statistics and 17% according to the Labor Force Survey. Their unemployment rate was higher than that of Finnish nationals by approximately 10 percentage points. Most of the foreign job seekers were in the fields of scientific, technical and art work, and service work, however the most numerous group of job seekers were those whose professions could not be established because they had no documents showing their employment histories (Ministry of the Interior

Finland, 2012). The unemployment rate of nationals and migrants in the Czech Republic and in Finland is shown in the following Figure 3.9.

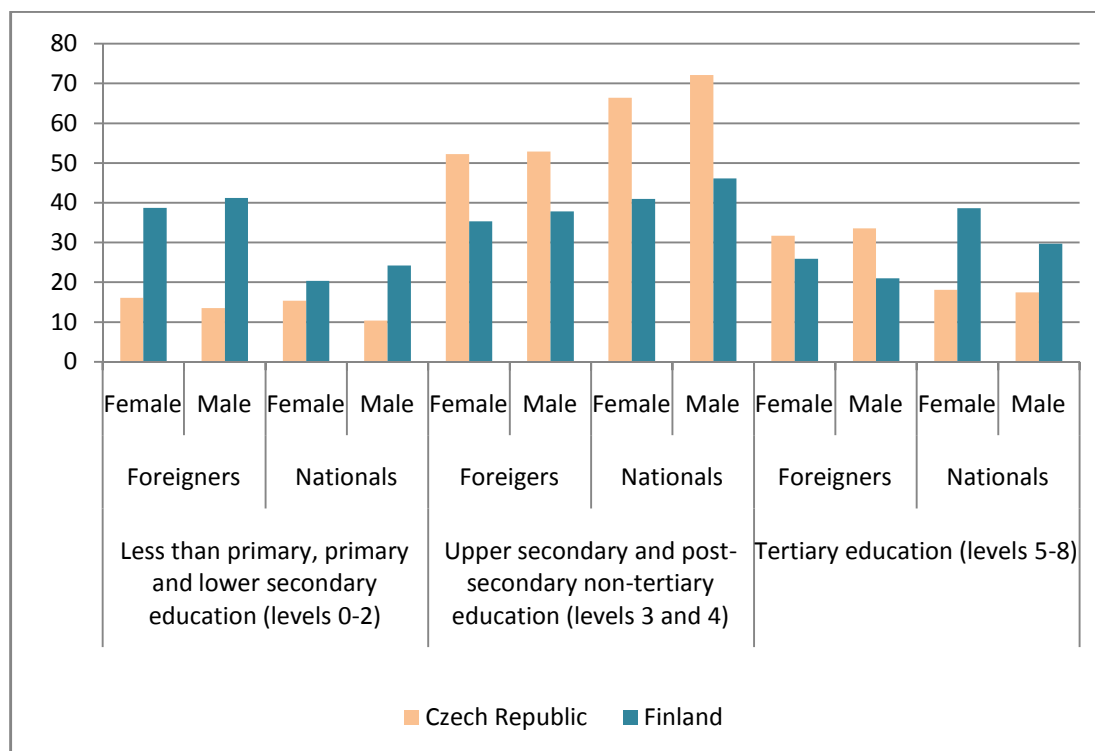
Figure 3.9 The unemployment rate of migrants living in the country and nationals by sex in the Czech Republic and Finland in percentage, 2014



Source: Eurostat

Figure 3.9 compares the unemployment rate of nationals and migrants by gender in Finland and in the Czech Republic. The unemployment rate in 2014 is higher in Finland. An interesting pattern emerges that the unemployment of native women in Finland is lower relative to the unemployment of native men, but foreign women unemployment was higher than male. The difference in unemployment between nationals and migrants was much more considerable in Finland, where it was much higher for the later in 2014. In the Czech Republic the unemployment rate of foreign women was only slightly higher than that of nationals, and foreign male unemployment was even lower than the one of nationals. The level of education attained may have an impact on the employability of either nationals or migrants. The following Figure 3.10 shows the highest level of education attained by nationals and migrants in Finland and in the Czech Republic.

Figure 3.10 Population by educational attainment level, sex and citizenship, Finland and the Czech Republic in percentage, 2014



Source: Eurostat

In the Czech Republic more detailed statistics are available about employment characteristics of migrant workers. According to occupation classification (ISCO) the most migrant women in the Czech Republic work as unqualified workers and machine workers (ISCO-9 group¹³). Women migrants also dominate in occupations that include researchers and experts, technicians, medical personnel and educators. According to the industry classification NACE most female migrants are employed in the manufacturing industry (Czech Statistical Office, 2015b). Nonetheless, main occupations of female migrants vary across different countries of origin. In 2011, for example, most women coming to the Czech Republic from Ukraine were unqualified, helping personnel (50%) or machine operators (15%), from Poland 16% of women migrants were unqualified, helping personnel and 46% are machine operators, female migrants from Slovakia are unqualified, helping personnel (18%), retail and services staff (18%), machine operators (16%), education, technical or health workers (16%), and science and research staff (15%).

¹³ISCO 9 represents elementary occupations like cleaners and helpers; agricultural, forestry, fishery labors; food preparation assistants, etc.

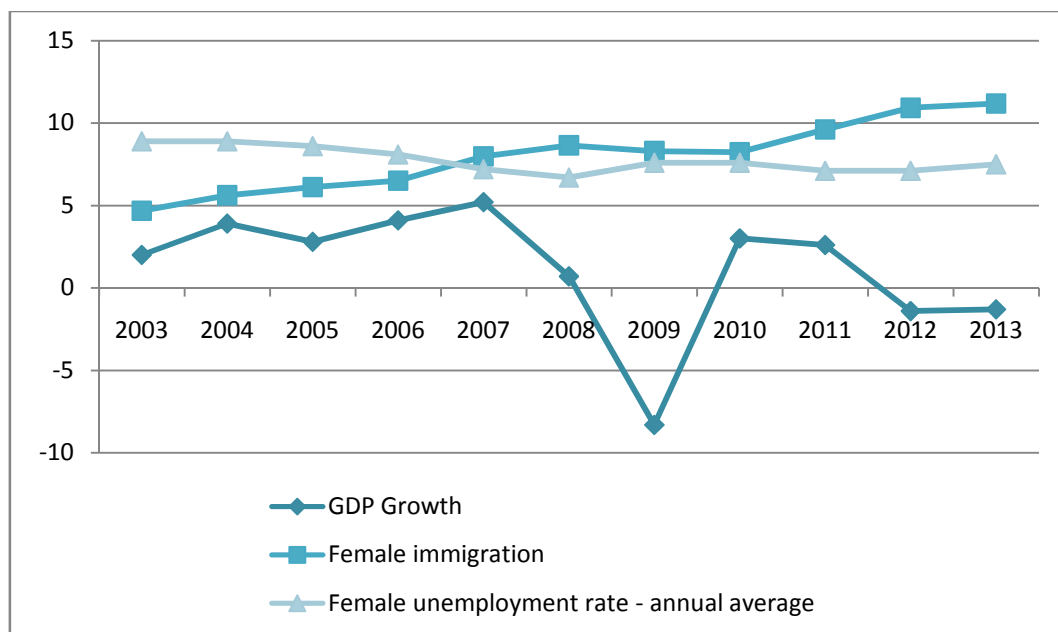
4. DETERMINANTS OF FEMALE MIGRATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC AND IN FINLAND

In the previous chapters I discussed the factors that have influence on migration decision and I contrast the migration patterns in the Czech Republic and in Finland. This chapter focuses on the role of migration policies and institutions.

4.1 Economic pull factors

In the previous chapter I stressed the importance of economic pull factors such as GDP growth, unemployment, GDP per worker and wage level in the destination country. Higher GDP per capita or worker and higher wage levels and lower unemployment attract more immigrants to the country (Adsera & Pytlikova, 2012; Mayda, 2005). The size of the migrant flow correlates with the economic situation in the country of destination. Figure 4.1 illustrates the relationship between GDP growth and unemployment and the female immigration flows to Czech Republic and Finland.

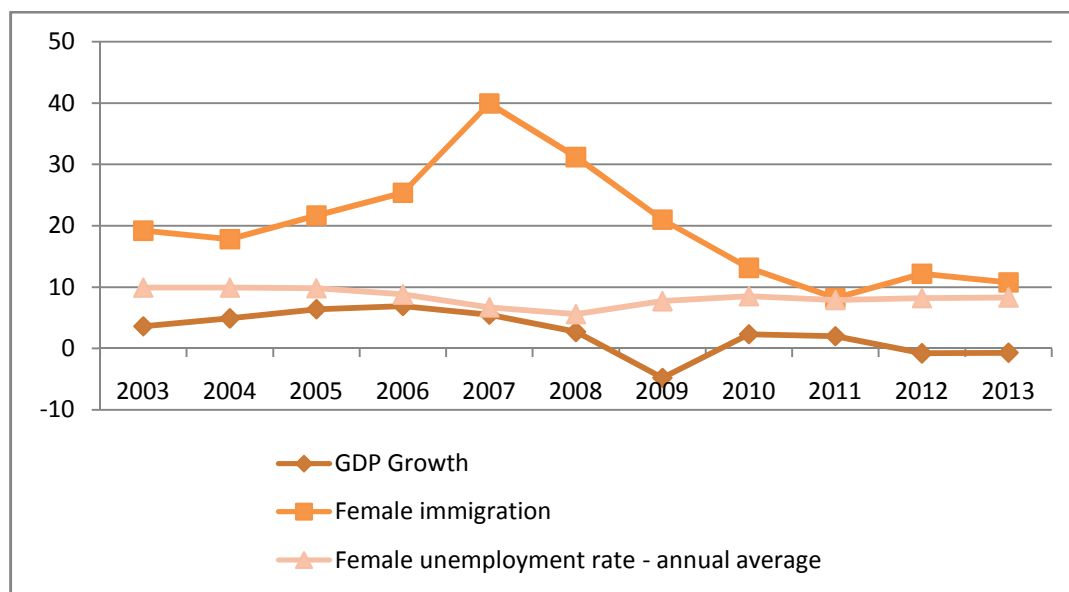
Figure 4.1 Finland GDP growth, female immigration (in thousands) and female unemployment rate, 2003 - 2013



Source: Eurostat

Female immigration seems to be following the changes in female unemployment rate. Pearson's correlation¹⁴ coefficient of 0.818 suggests a significant correlation between those two variables in Finland. The GDP growth is not confirmed to be a strong predictor of the immigration flows (Pearson's correlation coefficient is 0.408). In 2009 the GDP growth was negative but the immigration grew or remained steady. Figure 4.2 repeats the analysis for the Czech Republic. The situation in the Czech Republic seems to be rather specific as the immigration increased rapidly in 2007 followed by a rapid decrease in the following years. The economic growth was positive until the Great Recession in 2009. After 2010 the GDP growth was mild and close to zero in the recent years. The unemployment rate of women remained quite stable over the period.

Figure 4.2 the Czech Republic GDP growth, female immigration (in thousands) and female unemployment rate 2003 - 2013



Source: Eurostat

I conclude that the relationship between female unemployment and female immigration is stronger in Finland. The reaction of immigration to change in GDP growth caused by the crisis in 2009 does not seem to be significant in any of the countries. However, when analyzing the relationship between GDP per capita in PPS and the volume of female immigrants in EU countries, the correlation is strong (higher in the Czech Republic). The

¹⁴Pearson's correlation refers to coefficient of strength of linear relationship(Lane, n.d.).

studied period is very short and changes in GDP per capita were not so dramatic as to have a substantial impact on the migration decision. Other pull factors are prevailing.

Another factor which might influence female migration is the distance between the source and the destination country. Empirical data shows, that most female foreigners in Finland come from Russia, Estonia and Sweden (Statistics Finland, 2014). Both Sweden and Russia are neighboring countries, while Estonia is located close to Finland (within 90 kilometers). It seems to prove the theory that the distance is significant for destination choice, however, the distance as an explaining factor must be accompanied by other factors to explain the destination choice among similar distances within different possible destinations.

4.2 Bilateral agreements and institutional pull factors

As mentioned above the gender inequality is smaller in Finland than in the Czech Republic. To be able to see the impact the gender equality has on female migrants, countries with best and worst ranking were added to the Table 4.1 showing the Gender Inequality Index rank and female migration indicators.

Table 4.1 Female migration indicators, 2013 and Gender Inequality Index, 2013 Slovenia, Finland, the Czech Republic, and Yemen

Country	Gender Inequality Index rank	The number of female migrants	Female migrants on population in %	Female migrants on all international migrants in %
Slovenia	1	76,314	4.8	42.7
Finland	11	144,271	2.7	49.2
Czech Republic	13	183,681	1.7	42.4
Yemen	152	198,209	0.5	40.7

Source: United Nations

The gender inequality is slightly higher in the Czech Republic relative to Finland. The proportion of women to men migrants is higher in Finland as well as their proportion on population. However, it is important to notice that the difference in gender inequality is only slight. Thus Slovenia, ranking 1 was added to the Table. There the difference in the number of female migrants on population is higher, however their percentage to men is lower than in

Finland and almost the same as in the Czech Republic. On the other hand, Yemen is on the other side of the Table as it has the highest gender inequality among observed countries. The proportion of women migrants on population is significantly lower, as well as their percentage on all international migrants. The gender inequality seems to have an impact on the number of female migrants on population, however, again there are other aspects that must be taken into account. The gender inequality may not itself explain the female migration, however it can be one of the pull factors.

Bilateral agreements are another form of attracting migrants with certain background or from a particular country. The Czech Republic had several bilateral labor agreements, the most significant being with Slovakia. In 1993 the agreement which included semi-free movement of workers was implemented. This agreement also included several other benefits migrating people obtained, including the right to enter the territory of the other country without visa for unlimited time (Meduna, 2004). Most of those rights, however, now have all the EU nationals. Other countries with which the Czech Republic signed bilateral agreements (excluding stagier, trainee and apprenticeship) are Bulgaria, Germany, Mongolia, Poland, Russian Federation, Ukraine, and Vietnam, however, those agreements include yearly quotas and maximum time of work-permit renewal (Meduna, 2004). As shown earlier in the paper, the countries with bilateral agreements were also among the top sending countries of migrants (male and female) to the Czech Republic with Ukraine, Slovakia, Vietnam, and Russian Federation being top four sending countries in 2009 (Czech Statistical Office, 2013). In 1990s Finland signed bilateral labor agreements (again excluding stagier, trainee and apprenticeship) with Estonia, Russian Federation, and Australia and trainee and apprenticeship agreements with several other countries (Albrecht, 2004). Again, the top sending countries of migrants, women as well as men, living in Finland are Estonia and Russia (Official Statistics of Finland (OSF), 2013).

4.3 The role of integration policies

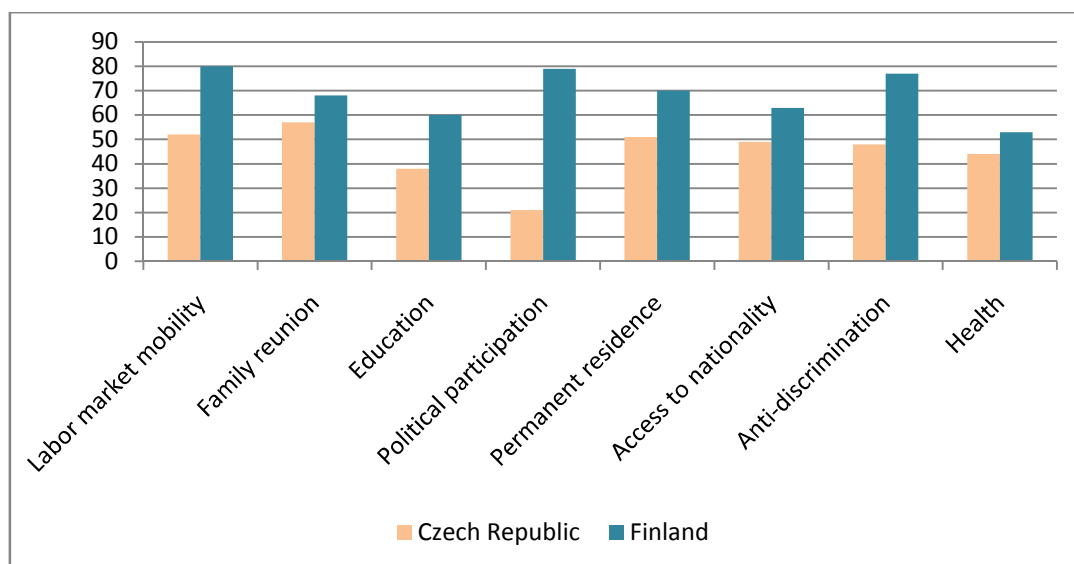
For the purpose of comparison and evaluation of different migration policies the Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) will be used. MIPEX measures the integration policies in 38 countries including all the EU member states, it is conducted by Barcelona Centre for International Affairs (CIDOB), and Migration Policy Group (MPG). It measures 167 indicators in 8 policy areas. Each of the indicators is evaluated by country experts, the results are then averaged to produce aggregate scores in the 8 policy areas from 0 to 100. The overall

score is calculated by averaging the policy areas. According to the score the policies can be marked as favorable (score above 80), slightly favorable (score 60-79), halfway favorable (score 41-59), slightly unfavorable (score 21-40), unfavorable (score below 20), and critically unfavorable (0) (Huddleston, Bilgili, Joki, & Vankova, 2015).

The overall score reached by Finland in 2014 was 71, which means that its policies towards integration and equal opportunities of migrants are slightly favorable. Finland ranks 4th overall among all 38 surveyed countries. Reaching the score 45, the Czech Republic ranks 23rd and its policies are halfway favorable. Compared with 2014 the Czech Republic improved the overall score (without education) by gained 7 points since 2007. Finland improved by 3 points from 2007 to 2014 (Huddleston et al., 2015).

MIPEX evaluates migrant integration policies for 8 areas: labor market mobility, education, political participation, access to nationality, family reunion, health, permanent residence, and anti-discrimination. The results in those areas for Finland and the Czech Republic can be seen in Figure 4.3

Figure 4.3 MIPEX scores, Finland and the Czech Republic, 2014



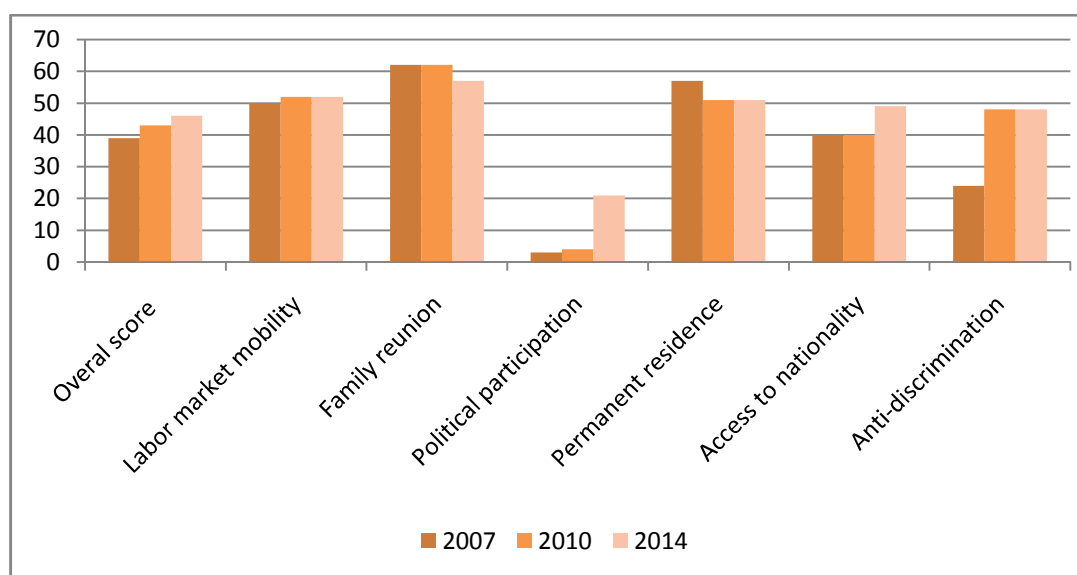
Source: MIPEX

The Czech Republic scored lower than Finland in all observed categories. The largest gap between the two countries is in the category of political participation while the smallest difference is in the health category (notice that Finland achieves the lowest score in the area

of health). The policies in most areas are evaluated as halfway favorable in the Czech Republic. The worst results were achieved in the area of education and political participation in the Czech Republic, both categories being assessed as slightly unfavorable. Most Finland integration policies are rated as slightly favorable with the worst result in the category of health, however still assessed as halfway favorable. Health and family reunion policies are potentially more important for women migrants. Family reunion is assessed as slightly favorable in Finland, while in the Czech Republic both policies are assessed as halfway favorable.

There were some changes in the results between 2007 and 2014. The changes over the time period in the Czech Republic can be seen in the following Figure 4.4¹⁵.

Figure 4.4 MIPEX scores, the Czech Republic, 2007-2014



Source: MIPEX

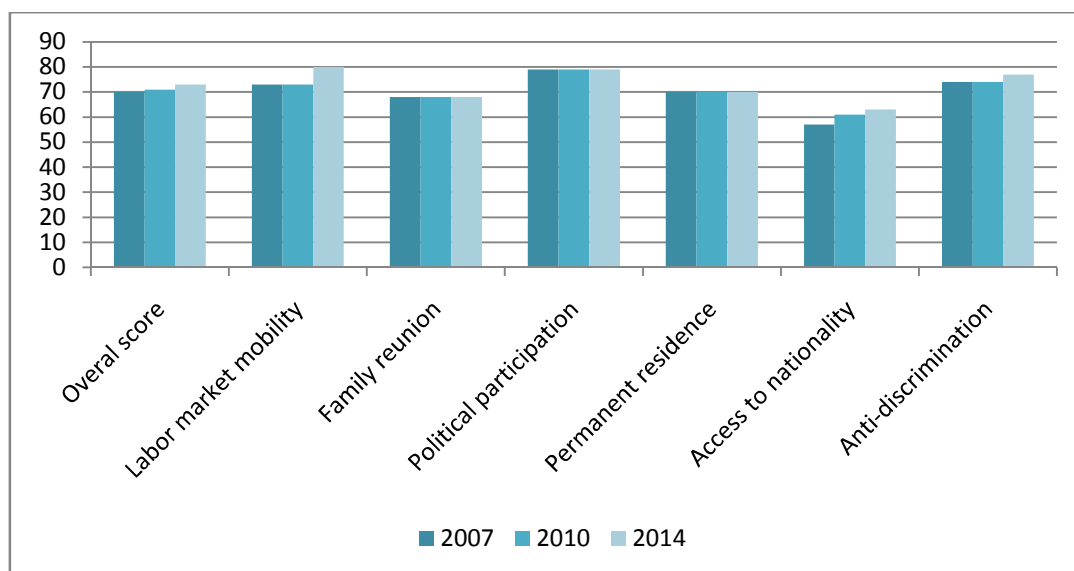
The Czech Republic improved the overall score (excluding education) by 7 points from 2007 until 2014. Labor market mobility increased by 2 points from 2007 to 2010 caused by better targeted support to immigrants. The score increased even though there were also minor restrictions on non-EU members' access to labor market. The decline in the family reunion policy in 2014 is caused by the amendments in 2013 which require non-EU families to pay higher fees and have greater incomes than is required of Czech families. Political participation

¹⁵As education and health categories were not included in the research in 2007, they are not included in the Figure 4.2; the overall score is without education.

is the category with the worst results, and the Czech Republic ranks second least favorable of all countries. The government responded to the situation with concrete measures and improved the score by 18 points from 2007 to 2014. During this period non-EU migrants were guaranteed some basic political liberties, bodies of integration offices for migrants were opened, migrants got support to represent the interests of migrants civil society by themselves. Still, non-EU citizens are not allowed to vote in local elections in the Czech Republic. In contrast, in Nordic countries the right to vote is fully implemented. In the area of permanent residence the Czech Republic lost 6 points caused by slightly more restrictive requirements. The Nationality Act in 2013 slightly improved the access of migrants to nationality thus the Czech Republic gained 9 points in the category of access to nationality. The score of anti-discrimination doubled in 2009 because of the Anti-Discrimination Law change, dedicated to anti-discrimination measures (Huddleston et al., 2015).

The changes in the scores in Finland were less significant than those in the Czech Republic, the policies in more areas achieved the same results in 2007 and 2010, as well as in 2014. The scores over the time period are shown in the Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 MIPEX scores, Finland, 2007-2014



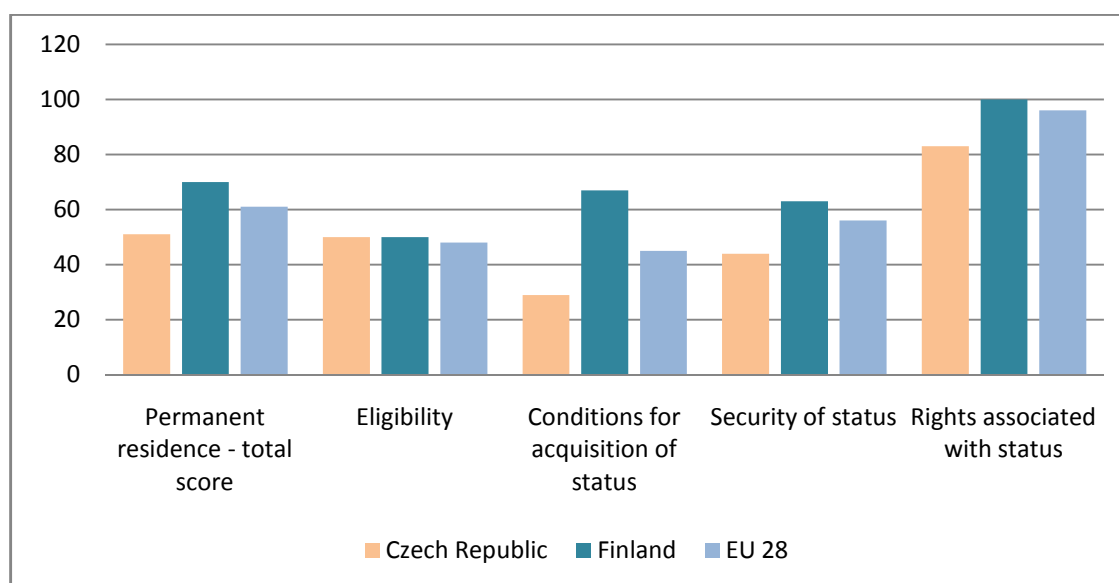
Source: MIPEX

The overall score in Finland changed only slightly, increased by 3 points over the period 2007-2014. The most significant change in the score was in the area of labor market mobility, where 7 points were gained. There was a change in policy in 2010; since then the migrants

have been assessed about their employment, education and language skills, and this information is used to create individual integration plan, the migrants are also individually advised and support is also offered. There was no change in the score reached in the area of family reunion, permanent residence or in the area of political participation. In political participation Finland reached the highest score of EU 28 countries and third largest of all 38 MIPEX countries. In the area of access to nationality 6 points were gained from 2007 to 2014. In 2011 the Nationality Act made the path to citizenship for migrants relatively clear, quick and encouraging. Three points were gained in the area of anti-discrimination by Finland thanks to revision of the Non-Discrimination Act in 2014, which made the laws stronger and provided more support to access justice by the victims of discrimination (Huddleston et al., 2015).

The attractiveness of country for migrants can be assessed along different dimensions. In the next figure I consider the policies that facilitate the long-term stays. The following Figure 4.6 shows the comparison of permanent residence policies of Finland, the Czech Republic, and the average of EU 28 countries. Table A2 in the Appendix provides details about the MIPEX evaluated criteria for the permanent residence category: Eligibility, Conditions for acquisition of status, Security of status, and Rights associated with status.

Figure 4.6 Evaluation of the permanent residence policy (MIPEX score 2014)

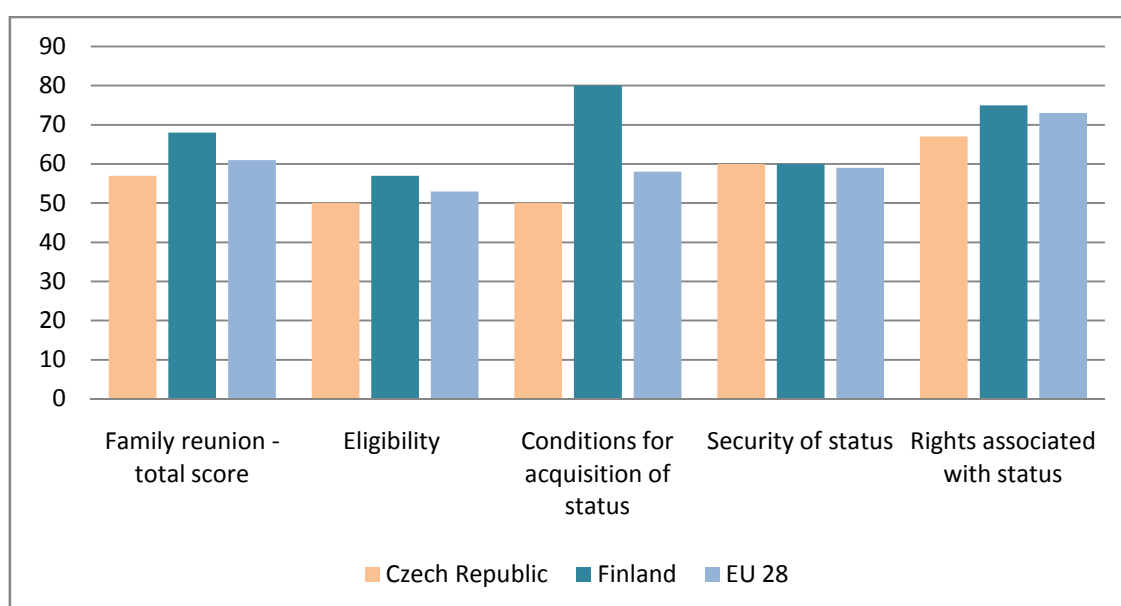


Source: MIPEX

The level of integration of permanent residence policy in the Czech Republic is assessed below the average of EU 28 countries, while the Finland scores above the EU 28 average. When examining the sub-categories the Czech Republic achieved the lowest score (slightly unfavorable) in the subcategory -security of status which is rated as halfway favorable because the migrants with long-term residence permit cannot be certain if their permit will be prolonged and they can be withdrawn on several vague grounds. In overall, the migrants get secure status and near-equal rights as citizens. However, to obtain permanent residence, the migrants have to have a quite high income and pay high fees. Policies are assessed as slightly favorable in Finland that has the stable and clear path for the migrants to permanent residency. The security of their status in Finland is the same as in an average Western European country. The status can be withdrawn even after decades, although personal circumstances are taken into account (Huddleston et al., 2015).

Another important category for analysis of female migration is family reunion. Similarly, the evaluated criteria are eligibility, conditions for acquisition of status, and rights associated with status. Detailed information about evaluated criteria of the category family reunion can be found in Table A3 in the Appendix. Figure 4.7 contrasts the MIPEX scores in Finland and the Czech Republic

Figure 4.7 MIPEX score for family reunion, Finland, the Czech Republic, and EU 28 countries, 2014



Source: MIPEX

As seen before Finland outperforms the Czech Republic but the gap is relatively small in the area of family reunion programs. In reality, family reunion can be a long and costly process. In Finland migrants can reunite with their spouse/partner or minor children but only after they pay the (high) fee and the generally high living expenses. Several obstacles exist in the family reunion programs. It is especially difficult to obtain autonomous residence (the same problem as in many observed countries). In 2013 the Czech Republic introduced new fees (increase by 250% as opposed to 2010) and requires greater resources than are required from Czech families. There is also a delay with the reunion as the sponsors have to wait for 15 months and first become long-term or permanent residents. There has been a significant change in points obtained in the MIPEx study by the Czech Republic in the question of conditions for acquisition of status caused by changes in 2013, since then the non-EU sponsors have not been allowed to reunite with their family in case their incomes come from certain benefits like unemployment, social assistance or child benefits (Huddleston et al., 2015).

When women migrate to another country they may migrate together with their children or they may plan to have children in the future. Thus, the opportunities to attend schools in the destination country may affect their migration decision. In Finland in 2012, 3% of 15 year-old students were immigrants, that is comparable to the Czech Republic (3% of 15 years old were immigrants). These proportions are low relative to the OECD average of 12% (OECD, 2013). According to the Czech legislation not all migrants have access to full education system but when they have, their support is better available than in most Central European countries. Even though compulsory education is available for all the pupils regardless of their status, higher or vocational education is not (Huddleston et al., 2015). The results of PISA 2012 show that in the Czech Republic the equity in education is below average of OECD countries, while in Finland there are high levels of performance and at the same time equity in education opportunities (OECD, 2013). Even though pupils in Finland have the same access to all the levels of education and the conditions are better than in most other countries evaluated by MIPEx, the policies are still only slightly favorable (Huddleston et al., 2015).

4.4 Rights of third country nationals

By January 2014 there were 261.3 thousands of migrants originating from third countries residing in the Czech Republic, which corresponds to 60% of all migrants living in the country. The proportion of third country nationals (59%) was similar to Finland although the absolute number is lower (121.9 thousands). This means that more than a half of all migrants in both countries were from non-EU member country (Eurostat, 2014b). In this part of the thesis I focus on the migration policies that apply to this group. The thesis considers the term “migration policy” as *a set of rules, regulations and practices concerning movement of international migrants across the state borders and their stay in the country of destination* (Drbohlav et al., 2009).

Nationals of EU member countries, Island, Liechtenstein, Norway, and Switzerland are allowed to cross borders without border controls unless using international airport. They need to register at a local police station in case they intend to stay in the Czech Republic for longer than 30 days or in Finland after 3 months of stay (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2011; The Finnish Immigration Service, 2015).

Citizens of non EU countries or so called *third countries* have different alternatives for the entry and stay in the Czech Republic and many of their rights are related to a long-term resident permit attainment. The options are as follows: visa for a stay of up to 90 days (short-term), visa for a stay of over 90 days (long-term), long-term residence permit, employee card, EU Blue card, or permanent residence (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015).

Visas for a stay of up to 90 days include the tourist visa and very-short-term-stay visa. The visa for a stay of over 90 days can be granted for the length of stay up to 6 months. The purposes of stay stated in the law include education, business, family reunification, invitation, and culture. In 2014 this type of visa was replaced by the employee card for the purpose of employment in the Czech Republic (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015).

Long-term residence permits can be given to the people applying for them after being in the Czech Republic on long-term visa for longer than 90 days. In given cases it can be granted without the precondition of long-term visa. The purpose of stay must be one of the following: studies, scientific research, business or family reunification (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015). In 2013 the permission for long-term residence was given to 9,702

migrants, however 17% of applications were either rejected or the process of application was stopped. The reported purpose of stay for the granted permits was most often studying with 37% followed by family reunification 31%, permits for the purpose of employment were granted in only 13% cases (1219 permits). Women were granted 54% of long-term permits in 2013 (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2014).

The Green card, visa for over 90 days for the purpose of employment and the long-term residence permit were replaced by Employee card in 2014. However, the purpose of stay is employment for all of them. The stay is supposed to be longer than 3 months (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015). In 2013 only 120 Green cards were issued, which means that only 41% of the applicants were successful. 54% of all the issued Green cards were granted to the citizens of Ukraine. The applicants from Ukraine were successful in only 29% of cases (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2014).

EU Blue card has been a new form of residential status for a long stay of highly skilled workforce since 2011. No other form of work permission is required for the holders of EU Blue card (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015). In 2013, 74 Blue cards were issued mainly to citizens of Russia and Ukraine. 74% of the cards were granted to men. The data for Finland is not available, however, Eurostat is in the process of gathering the data from all member countries.

To be able to get permanent residence in the Czech Republic several conditions must be met by the migrant. First of all they must prove a continuous residence in the country for minimum of 5 years continuously. They must provide a proof of accommodation, the Czech language exam certificate, the proof of income which must not be lower than the existential minimum plus sum of the normative housing costs which is 11,033 CZK for one person living on his/her own income. Nevertheless, the required monthly income for granting long-term visa is much higher. According to an example shown on the web page of Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic for the stay from 1 January until 30 June, it would be CZK 55,000 (Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic, 2015)

Migrants who reside longer than 90 days in Finland can be granted either permanent or temporary residence permits. The permanent residence permit can be granted to a person who has resided in Finland for four continuous years without interruption on the basis of

continuous temporary permit. The first residence permit is always for a fixed term and it can be granted on various grounds:

1. Family reunion
2. Education
3. Employment
4. Other special grounds
5. Remigration (Ministry of the Interior Finland, 2010)

In the following part the thesis focuses on the permits for employment and family reunion. The definition of a family member is important to family reunion program. Only a spouse, registered partner, cohabitating partner, guardian of a child, or a child are considered as family members for the purposes of residence permit. However, the family members of EU nationals and third country nationals have the same status, the same rights and opportunities. For the purpose of working in Finland, either a residence permit for employment or a residence permit for a self-employed person is needed. In case of the permit for an employed person the employer must confirm that the migrant will be employed and it is granted only for specific professional fields (those are a specialist, a researcher, an employee for religious or non-profit association, traineeship or transfer within a company, a professional athlete, or a coach), or can be granted only for one employer. Permits can also be issued on the grounds of an educational degree in Finland or a high level of competence (EU Blue Card).

In 2014 there were 5,062 first residence permits on the basis of employment issued in Finland. 87% of the applications were successful. On the basis of family ties there were 6,774 applications, out of which 83% were successful. Similarly, 95% of application for student residence permits were successful out of 5,611 applications in 2014. (European Migration Network & Finnish Immigration Service, 2014).

According to the data available on Eurostat, in 2014 the Czech Republic granted 35 thousand first residence permits, out of which 11 thousand (30%) were for family purposes, 6 thousand (17%) for education, 11 thousand (31%) for employment, and 8 thousand (22%) for other purposes. In Finland 22 thousand of first residence permits were issued, out of which 8 thousand (37%) were for family purposes, 6 thousand (26%) for education, 5 thousand (22%) for employment and 3 thousand (15%) for other purposes. It signifies that the Czech Republic

issued most first residence permits for employment or family purposes (61%) while Finland issued most of the permits for family purposes and education (63%) (Eurostat, 2015).

4.5 Social policies and empowerment of women

The migration of women can be more influenced by different policies than the migration of men, for example maternity leave, women education or nurseries. Those policies together with the level of empowerment could have an impact on the migration decision of women, thus they will be further examined in the Czech Republic and Finland.

The social policies concerning maternity and parental leave differ among European countries with sharp distinction among Eastern European and non-Eastern European countries. While Eastern European countries support women to stay with the child for a longer time, non-Eastern European countries rather support women to get back to the labor market (the maternity leave is shorter with more possibilities for part-time jobs and pre-school facilities) (Schulze & Gergoric, 2015). Table 4.2 summarizes the duration and cash benefits for the maternity and parental leave. Maternity leave in Finland is 17.5 weeks long, with 90% of incomes paid for the first 56 workdays and 70% for the rest of the leave, however the percentage decreases with the increasing income. Minimum cash benefit is 24.02 EUR per day. In contrast, the maternity leave in the Czech Republic is longer (28 weeks) but remuneration is lower (70% of the daily assessment base with an upper threshold 39.24 EUR per day in 2014). The parental leave in Finland lasts for 26 weeks with first 30 workdays being paid 75% of the income and 70% for the rest of the leave, and again the percentage changes with increasing income. In the Czech Republic the length of parental leave is maximum 156 weeks with the sum of CZK 220,000 (€8 119) which can be drawn for 2, 3, or 4 years. The combined length of maternal and parental leave in the Czech Republic is one of the longest in the EU member states. Benefits are entitled to permanently resident women, employed persons, and family dependents of a person from EU/EEA state or Switzerland who performs a gainful activity in the Czech Republic. In Finland all residents are entitled to the benefits. However, to be entitled to maternity financial benefits there are further conditions on the length of stay or length of health insurance (European Commission, 2015).

Table 4.2. Maternity and Parental leave duration and the cash benefits paid to the parent in Finland and the Czech Republic, 2015

		Czech Republic	Finland
Maternity leave	Duration	28 weeks	17.5 weeks
	Payments	70% of daily assessment base	90% of incomes for the first 56 workdays and 70% for the rest
Parental leave	Duration	76 156 weeks	26 weeks
	Payments	8 119 EUR divided according to the length of leave, with maximum of 11 500 CZK (415 EUR) per month for 19 weeks and minimum of 7 600 CZK (276 EUR) per month for 9 months and 3 800 CZK (137 EUR) per month for the rest of the leave up to the fourth year of the baby.	30 workdays 75% of the income and 70% for the rest

Source: MISSOC

Note: exchange rate was taken on 2nd January 2015 at CZK/EUR=27.7

When considering the employment of women it is important to consider the possibilities for mothers to return to the labor market or to participate in it during the maternity leave. The pre-school facilities or part-time jobs may help mothers to return to the labor market earlier or without losing their skills. According to MISSOC¹⁶ study children in Finland from 10 months to 6 years have a subjective right to day care arranged by municipalities. In case parents decide to take care for their children by other arrangements they have a right for child home care allowance (when they meet certain conditions) (European Commission, 2015). A different situation is in the Czech Republic, there are insufficient child care facilities for children under 3 years (European Commission EPIC, 2015a).

The part-time contracts are very rare in the Czech Republic- only 11% of women worked part-time in 2013, compared to 20% in Finland and 33% as an average in the European union (European Commission EPIC, 2015b). 41% of respondents of Euro barometer think that one parent should work full time and the other one part-time. In the Czech Republic, health and family reasons are the most commonly cited among both men and women who work part time(European Commission EPIC, 2015a). Kyzlinková & Dokulilová (2007) show that part

¹⁶Mutual Information System on Social Protection (MISSOC) represents system providing information about social protection legislation, benefits and conditions in participating countries. Those include EU, EEA countries and Switzerland (European Commission, 2015).

time work represents a means of acquiring additional earnings, rather than a way of supporting oneself. The family support in Finland is more oriented on reconciling of family life and job, while in the Czech Republic the policies are rather supporting mothers to stay with the child at home, even though the parental leave is quite flexible allowing the parent to choose its length.

The Gender Inequality Index produced by the United Nations is employed to measure the empowerment of women or gender inequality in three aspects: reproductive health, empowerment, and labor market. The Czech Republic ranked 13th and Finland ranked 11th in 2013 out of the 152 measured countries (UN Development Programme, 2013). In Table A3 in the Appendix partial results of Finland and the Czech Republic leading to the Gender Inequality Index are shown.

4.6 Deterrence to migration: health care insurance

One of the issues immigrants into the Czech Republic must face is access to public health care insurance. EU member country residents or residents of Switzerland, Norway, Iceland, and Lichtenstein are eligible to health care upon submitting the European Health Insurance Card. However, for third countries residents the access to health care is not straightforward.

Health care insurance is mandatory for everyone residing in the Czech Republic. The vast majority of population has public health insurance but there is also an option to pay private health insurance. Migrant workers who are employed by an employer registered in the Czech Republic or those who have permanent residency are eligible for public health insurance (Dzúrová, Winkler & Drbohlav, 2014). Migrants from non-EU countries, self-employed persons, children up to 18 years, and international students have a legal duty to subscribe for the private health insurance. Hnilicová & Dobiášová (2011) estimate the number of those migrants between 100,000 - 120,000.

The private health insurance companies act according to market principles, which means they can choose whom to insure and who will be excluded (however there are some exceptions given by law). Thus it may happen that some applicants may be refused and remain uninsured (Hnilicová & Dobiášová, 2011). It is also said that the condition of commercial health insurance companies are significantly worse than public health insurance. However, this situation is not only disadvantageous for migrants, Czech physicians are obliged to treat every

child in the same way, if the child is not insured or does not have sufficient funds, the necessary care provided may remain financially unsettled (Hnilicová & Dobiášová, 2011).

Dzúrová et al. (2014) surveyed 909 migrants from Ukraine and Vietnam in 2013. The results showed that a half of surveyed migrants were covered by public health care insurance, 37% were insured by commercial health companies and 12% were not insured at all. The policy has particularly negative effect on women as they traditionally take care of children and their labor market participation is lower. In addition the policy may influence the migrants' decision to bring their family members to the country.

In Finland the migrants are entitled to public health services if they have a municipality of residence (Infopankki, 2014). Finnish citizens, residents of EU country, Switzerland, Liechtenstein or a Nordic country, those who have a permanent or continuous residence permit or their family members are entitled to the municipality of residence, however, they must move to Finland permanently (Infopankki, 2015). In comparison with the Czech Republic the institutional support is more favorable to women migrants.

CONCLUSION

In 2013 there were 231 million of migrants in the world, which corresponds to three percents of the world population (UN DESA, 2013). Women made up 48% of them, however, more women than men (52%) migrated in the more developed regions, while only 43% in less developed regions. In Europe 52% of all migrants are women but proportion varies between countries. Certainly, there are aspects which make more women migrate to particular destination more than to others as well as to leave particular countries.

Population growth, unemployment, poverty, and political instability are important factors that push people to migrate and leave their country (Gubert & Nordman, 2008). For women migrants gender inequality and the low levels of women's empowerment may also constitute relevant push factors. The empirical evidence seems weak to support the theory (Dayton-Johnson et al., 2009). The collected data for OECD countries illustrates only a tentative link between Female Human Development Index and female emigration rate. The importance of other aspects may prevail.

The pull factors for women might include good economic situation, high wages, low unemployment, gender equality, security and social institutions, migration networks, distance, and language proximity. There seems to be a relationship between the level of GDP per capita in PPS and the percentage of female migrants on population, higher GDP meaning higher percentage of female migrants on population. However, the relationship was only tested on EU member countries. There is also a relationship between the number of female migrants and the level of gender inequality, higher equality leading to more women to men immigrants. However, again this applies to countries grouped and averaged, as there might be exceptions. The situation of the Czech Republic and Finland was more deeply analyzed.

There were 452 thousand migrants living in the Czech Republic in 2014, they made up 4% of the population. In that year 220 thousand migrants lived in Finland, making 4% of population. Both countries are well below EU 28 average of migrants on population but they share several similarities with respect to their migrant population. The proportion of women migrants living in the Czech Republic was 43% and 47% in Finland. Interestingly, the gender ratio (proportion of women and men of same origin) differs across nationalities; e.g. in 2013 the ratio was 15/85 for German women in the Czech Republic, but 62/38 in Finland. Similarly,

the ratio of Vietnamese women to men migrating to the Czech Republic was in 2013 49/51, the respective ratio in Finland was 60/40 (Czech Statistical Office, 2015a; Official Statistics of Finland (OSF), 2014). When comparing different countries (with more than 1 000 female migrants living in both countries) from which women migrate to both Finland and the Czech Republic, the ratio of women to men is higher in Finland for most countries of origin.

Women migrants are younger than their local peers. The median age of female immigrants to the Czech Republic and Finland was 27 years in 2014. The most numerous group of female migrants living in both countries were those between 24 and 39 years, however in Finland there were slightly more of older migrants (Eurostat, 2014b). The activity rate of female migrants is slightly higher than the one of nationals in the Czech Republic in 2014, and slightly lower in Finland. The unemployment rate of female migrants is higher than that of nationals in both countries, even though in Finland the difference was much more considerable. The difference in the education levels may explain the gap. Higher percentage of female migrants living in the Czech Republic achieved tertiary education than nationals, in Finland the opposite situation occurred, as there was much higher percentage of female migrants with only less than primary, primary and lower secondary education.

The policies towards migrants' integration are evaluated as more favorable in Finland, with the highest difference in the category of political participation. There are several policies specifically towards women which were compared. The parental leave which is longer in the Czech Republic, is also not dependent on the level of previous income, while in Finland it is, in similar way as maternity leave is. In Finland, however the pre-school facilities are more accessible, so that women can return back to the labor market earlier without much difficulties. Similarly, part-time jobs are much more often offered, even though, still the percentage of women working part time is lower than EU average (European Commission EPIC, 2015a).

Not all the pull factors that were significant when tested on EU countries were also significant in the Czech Republic and in Finland. Mainly because of a significant increase of migrants coming to the Czech Republic in 2007, despite any significant change in unemployment or GDP growth. However, there was some relationship observed between female unemployment, gender inequality, GDP per capita in PPS, and female immigration. An aspect which could play a substantial role in female migration decision is bilateral agreements which

both countries had with their top immigration countries (the Czech Republic with Slovakia, Vietnam, Ukraine, Russian Federation, Mongolia, and Germany; and Finland with Estonia, and Russian Federation) (Albrecht, 2004; Meduna, 2004).

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

EEA	European Economic Area
EMN	European Migration Network
EPIC	European Platform for Investing in Children
EU	European Union
GCIM	Global Commission on International Migration
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
HDI	Human Development Index
IANWGE	Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality
ILO	International Labor Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MIPEX	Migrant Integration Policy Index
MISSOC	Mutual Information System on Social Protection
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OSF	Official Statistics of Finland
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund

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Appendix 1

Factors determining women's migration:

(Retrieved from Gosh, 2009)

- **Migration upon marriage**, to husband' residence. This is typically permanent migration. It can occur within or (less commonly but still extant) across national political boundaries.
- **Migration as part of a family**, because of voluntary family movement, when the head of the household moves for economic reasons such as the search for work, or other voluntary reasons. While circular or seasonal migration can be observed among working families in many developing countries, in general such movement of families rather than individual workers tends to be associated with more permanent migration and less chance of eventual return.
- **Migration by individuals but as part of family reunification**, in case the head of household (typically father or husband) has already migrated. This is also typically permanent migration.
- **Forced migration alone or as part of a family because of involuntary family movement**, due to displacement caused by wars and other violence and strife, natural calamities, loss of land because of development or other projects.
- **Migration for education**. This is a still small but growing proportion of migration by young women. This is usually for a few years at most, but may translate into permanent migration as employment opportunities are found in the destination country or elsewhere as a result of the qualifications gained. Here too, conditions in home and host countries may affect the decision of women to migrate. For example, among the students entering France in 1996, 56 per cent were women. It has been argued that the higher than average share of women (at nearly one-third) among Algerian students was because young Algerian women sought to escape from the very oppressive and potentially dangerous conditions in their home country (Borgogno and Vollenweider-Andresen, 1995, quoted in Kofman, 2000).

- **Voluntary migration for work.** This can be long term or short term. Long term or permanent economic migration for based on projected wage differentials and opportunities for employment is more common among relatively skilled women migrants, largely because of the entry restrictions and immigration controls imposed by many countries, but it can also be found among less skilled workers. Short-term migration for work - currently considered as the *movement of natural persons* (MNP) under GATS – has been a rapidly growing feature of both national and international migration of women in recent decades (Flynn and Kofman, 2004, Durano, 2005).
- **Involuntary migration for work,** through coercive pressure, because of debt bondage, or as part of a trafficking network. While much of this is both desperate and oppressive, there is often a thin line between voluntary migration and trafficking especially where home conditions are difficult and oppressive. There is also some evidence of forced migration not only for work but also for marriage, which in turn may be seen as unpaid work for the women concerned (Torres 2002, Raymond et al 2002).
- **Return migration after a period spent away from the home.** This has received relatively little attention from researchers and policy makers, but it is also a growing phenomenon, often with quite different implications for the women concerned.

Appendix 2

Table A2 MIPEX 2015 Indicators - Permanent Residence Indicator

	100	50	0
PERMANENT RESIDENCE	Do temporary legal residents have facilitated access to a long-term residence permit (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
ELIGIBILITY	Can all temporary legal residents apply for a long-term residence permit (e.g. EU nationals)?		
Required time of habitual residence	< 5 years	5 years	> 5 years
Documents taken into account to be eligible for permanent residence	Any residence permit	Seasonal workers, au pairs and posted workers excluded	Additional temporary residence permits excluded
Is time of residence as a pupil/student counted?	Yes, all	Yes, with some conditions (limited number of years or type of study)	No
Periods of prior-absence allowed	Longer periods	Up to 10 non-consecutive months and/or 6 consecutive months	Shorter periods
CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS	Do applicants for long-term residence have to fulfill the same basic conditions in society (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Form of language requirement (if no measure, leave blank)	No Requirement OR Voluntary course/information	Requirement to take a language course	Requirement includes language test/assessment
Level of language requirement (if no measure, leave blank) (not weighted) Note: Can be test, interview, completion of course, or other forms of assessments.	A1 or less set as standard	A2 set as standard	B1 or higher set as standard OR no standards, based on administrative discretion.
Form of integration requirement ex. not language, but social/cultural	No Requirement OR Voluntary course/information	Requirement to take an integration course	Requirement includes integration test/assessment

<p>Language/integration requirement exemptions (if no measure, leave blank)</p> <p>a. Takes into account individual abilities ex. educational qualifications</p> <p>b. Exemptions for vulnerable groups ex. age, illiteracy, mental/physical disability</p>	Both of these	One of these	Neither of these
<p>Conductor of language/integration requirement (if no measure, leave blank)</p> <p>a. Language or education specialists</p> <p>b. Independent of government (ex. not directly subcontracted by or part of a government department)</p>	a and b, ex. language or education institutes	a but not b, ex. integration unit in government	Neither a nor b, ex. police, foreigners' service, general consultant
<p>Cost of language/integration requirement (if no measure, leave blank)</p>	No or nominal costs	Normal costs ex. If provided by state, same as regular administrative fees. If provided by private sector, same as market price in countries	Higher costs
<p>Support to pass language/integration requirement (if no measure, leave blank)</p> <p>a. Assessment based on publicly available list of questions or study guide</p> <p>b. Assessment based on publicly available course</p>	a and b	a or b	Neither a nor b
<p>Cost of support (if no measure or support, leave blank)</p>	No or nominal costs	Normal costs ex. If provided by state, same as regular administrative fees. If provided by private sector, same as market price in countries	Higher costs

Economic resources requirement	None or at/below level of social assistance and no income is excluded	Higher than social assistance but source is not linked with employment	Linked to employment/no social assistance
Maximum length of application procedure	6 months defined by law	> 6 months but the maximum is defined by law	No regulation on maximum length
Costs of application and/or issue of status	No or nominal costs	Normal costs ex. same as regular administrative fees in the country	Higher costs
SECURITY OF STATUS	Does the state protect applicants from discretionary procedures (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Maximum length of application procedure	6 months defined by law (please specify)	> 6 months but the maximum is defined by law (please specify)	No regulation on maximum length
Duration of validity of permit	5 years	5 years	<5 years
Renewable permit	Automatically	Upon application	Provided original requirements are still met
Periods of absence allowed for renewal, after granting of status (continuous or cumulative)	3 years	< 3 > 1	1 year
Grounds for rejecting, withdrawing, or refusing to renew status: a. proven fraud in the acquisition of permit b. actual and serious threat to public policy or national security, c. sentence for serious crimes, d. Original conditions are no longer satisfied (ex. unemployment or economic resources)	No other than a and/or b	Includes c or d	Includes c and d and/or additional grounds

Protection against expulsion. Due account taken of: a. personal behavior b. age of resident, c. duration of residence, d. consequences for both the resident and his or her family, e. existing links to the Member State concerned f. (non-)existing links to the resident's country of origin (including problems of re-entry for political or citizenship reasons), and g. alternative measures (downgrading to limited residence permit etc.)	All elements	At least b, c, d and e	One or more of b, c, d or e are not taken into account
Expulsion precluded: a. after 20 years of residence as a long-term residence permit holder, b. in case of minors, and c. residents born in the Member State concerned or admitted before they were 10 once they have reached the age of 18	In all three cases	At least one case	None
Legal guarantees and redress in case of refusal, non-renewal, or withdrawal: a. reasoned decision b. right to appeal c. representation before an independent administrative authority and/or a court	All rights	At least a and b are not guaranteed	One or both of a and b
RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS	Do long-term residents have the same residence and socio-economic rights (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Access to employment (with the only exception of activities involving the exercise of public authority), self-employment and other economic activities, and working conditions	Equal access with nationals and equal working conditions	Priority to nationals/ EEA citizens	Other limiting conditions apply
Access to social security, social assistance, health care and housing	Equal access with nationals	Priority to nationals/ EEA citizens	Other limiting conditions apply
Access to housing (rent control, public/social housing, participation in housing financing schemes)	Equal access with nationals	Priority to nationals	Other limiting conditions apply

Source: MIPEx

Appendix 3

Table A3 - MIPEX 2015 Indicators - Family reunion Indicator

	100	50	0
FAMILY REUNION	Do legally resident foreign citizens have a facilitated right to reunite in their families (e.g. like nationals or EU citizens who move from one Member State to another)?		
ELIGIBILITY	Can all legally resident foreign citizens apply to sponsor their whole family (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Residence requirement for ordinary legal residents (sponsor)	No residence requirement	1 year	>1 year
Permit duration required (sponsor)	Residence permit for <1 year (please specify)	Permit for 1 year (please specify)	Permit for > 1 year (please specify)
Documents taken into account to be eligible for family reunion	Any residence permit	Certain short-term residence permits excluded	Permanent residence permit, explicit 'prospects for permanent residence' required or discretion in eligibility
Eligibility for spouses and partners (average)	Eligibility for spouses and partners (average)		
a. Partners Eligibility for partners other than spouses: a. Stable long-term relationship b. Registered partnership or same-sex couples (as legally recognized in national family law)	Both	Only one or certain groups of B (i.e. not all types of couples legally recognized in national family law)	Neither. Only spouses.
b. Age limits Age limits for sponsors and spouses	Age of majority in country (18 years)	18 years< , < 21 years (please specify age)	21 years (please specify age)
Minor children Eligibility for minor children (<18 years) a. Minor children b. Adopted children	All three	Only a and b	Limitations on A or B limitations e.g. age limits <18 years (please specify)

c. Children for whom custody is shared			
Dependent parents/grand parents	Eligibility for dependent relatives in the ascending line	Allowed for all dependent ascendants	Not allowed or by discretion/exception
Dependent adult children Eligibility for dependent adult children	Allowed for all dependent adult children	Restrictive definition of dependency (e.g. only one ground e.g. poor health or income or no access to social benefits)	Not allowed or by discretion/exception
CONDITIONS FOR ACQUISITION OF STATUS	Do foreign citizen applicants for family reunion have to fulfill the same basic conditions in society (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Pre-entry integration requirement (average)			
a. Pre-entry language form Form of pre-departure language measure for family member abroad (if no requirement, skip to question 28c)	No Requirement OR Voluntary course/information (please specify which)	Requirement to take a language course	Requirement includes language test/assessment
b. Pre-entry integration form Form of pre-departure integration measure for family member abroad, e.g. not language, but social/cultural (if no requirement, skip to question 29a)	None OR voluntary information/course (please specify)	Requirement to take an integration course	Requirement to pass an integration test/assessment
c. Pre-entry exemption Pre-departure requirement exemptions a. Takes into account individual abilities e.g. educational qualifications b. Exemptions for vulnerable groups e.g. age, illiteracy, mental/physical disability	Both of these (please specify)	One of these please specify	Neither of these
d. Pre-entry cost Cost of language/integration requirement	No costs	Reduced costs e.g. state intervenes to lower price for applicants (please specify amount)	Cost-covering or market costs (please specify amount)

<p>e. Pre-entry support Support to pass pre-departure requirement</p> <p>a. Assessment based on publicly available list of questions b. Assessment based on free/low-cost study guide</p>	A and B	A or B	Neither A or B
<p>f. Pre-entry courses Which applicants are entitled to state-funded courses in order to pass the requirement?</p>	All applicants	Some applicants (please specify)	None (only ad hoc projects)
Post-entry integration requirement (average)			
<p>a. In-country language form Form of language requirement for sponsor and/or family member after arrival on territory (if no requirement, skip to question 29c)</p> <p>Note: Can be test, interview, completion of course, or other for country of assessments.</p>	No Requirement OR Voluntary course/information (please specify which)	Requirement to take a language course	Requirement includes language test/assessment
<p>b. In-country language level Level of language requirement</p> <p>Note: Can be test, interview, completion of course, or other for country of assessments.</p>	A1 or less set as standard	A2 set as standard	B1 or higher set as standard. OR no standards, based on administrative discretion. (please specify which)
<p>c. In-country integration form Form of integration requirement for sponsor and/or family member after arrival on territory e.g. not language but social/cultural (if no requirement, skip to question 30)</p>	No Requirement OR Voluntary course/information (please specify which)	Requirement to take an integration course	Requirement includes integration test/assessment
<p>d. In-country exemption Language/integration requirement exemptions</p> <p>a. Takes into account individual abilities e.g. educational qualifications b. Exemptions for vulnerable groups e.g. age, illiteracy,</p>	Both of these (please specify)	One of these please specify	Neither of these

mental/physical disability			
e. In-country cost Cost of language/integration requirement	No costs	Reduced costs e.g. state intervenes to lower price for applicants (please specify amount)	Cost-covering or market costs (please specify amount)
f. In-country support Support to pass language/integration requirement a. Assessment based on publicly available list of questions b. Assessment based on free/low-cost study guide	A and B	A or B	Neither A or B
g. In-country courses Which applicants are entitled to state-funded courses in order to pass the requirement?	All applicants	Appropriate accommodation meeting the general health and safety standards	Further requirements (please specify)
Accommodation requirement	None	Appropriate accommodation meeting the general health and safety standards	Further requirements (please specify)
Economic resources requirement	None or at/below level of social assistance and no income source is excluded (please specify)	Higher than social assistance and no income source is excluded	Income source linked to employment or no use of social assistance
Cost of application and/or issue of status	None	Same as regular administrative fees and duties in the country (please specify amounts for each)	Higher costs (please specify amounts for each)
SECURITY OF STATUS	Does the state protect applicants from discretionary procedures (e.g. like EU nationals)?		
Maximum length of application procedure	6 months defined by law (please specify)	> 6 months but the maximum is defined by law (please specify)	No regulation on maximum length

Duration of validity of permit	Equal to sponsor's residence permit and renewable	Not equal to sponsor's but 1 year renewable permit	< 1 year renewable permit or new application necessary
Grounds for rejecting, withdrawing or refusing to renew status: a. Actual and serious threat to public policy or national security, b. Proven fraud in the acquisition of permit (inexistent relationship or misleading information). c. Break-up of family relationship (before three years) d. Original conditions are no longer satisfied (e.g. unemployment or economic resources)	No other than a-b	Grounds include a, b and c	Includes others like d (please specify)
Legal guarantees and redress in case of refusal or withdrawal a. reasoned decision b. right to appeal c. representation before an independent administrative authority and/or a court	All rights	At least a and b	One or both of a and b are not guaranteed
RIGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH STATUS	Do family members have the same residence and socio-economic rights as their sponsor?		
Right to autonomous residence permit for partners and children at age of majority (permit is renewable and independent of sponsor)	After 3 years	After > 3 5 years	After > 5 years, upon certain conditions or no right (e.g. normal procedure for permanent residence)
Right to autonomous residence permit in case of widowhood, divorce, separation, death, or physical or emotional violence	Yes automatically	Yes but only on limited grounds or under certain conditions (e.g. after five years of residence or more)	None
Access to education and training for adult family members	In the same way as the sponsor	Other conditions apply (please specify)	None

Access to employment and self-employment	In the same way as the sponsor	Other conditions apply (please specify)	None
Access to social security (unemployment benefits, old age pension, invalidity benefits, maternity leave, family benefits, social assistance)	In the same way as the sponsor	Other conditions apply (please specify)	None
Access to housing (rent control, public/social housing, participation in housing financing schemes)	In the same way as the sponsor	Other conditions apply (please specify)	None

Source: MIPEX

Appendix 4

Table A3 - Gender Inequality Index, 2013, the Czech Republic and Finland

Gender Inequality Index										
							Population with at least some secondary education		Labor Force Participation rate	
		Gender Inequality Index		Maternal mortality ratio	Adolescent birth rate	Share of seats in parliament	(% aged 25 and above)		(% aged 15 and above)	
		Value	Rank	(deaths per 100,000 live births)	(births per 1,000 women aged 15-19)	(% held by women)	Female	Male	Female	Male
HDI rank	Country	2013	2013	2010	2010/2015	2013	2005-2012	2005-2012	2012	2012
24	Finland	0,075	11	5	9,2	42,5	100,0	100,0	56,0	64,3
28	Czech Republic	0,087	13	5	4,9	20,6	99,9	99,7	50,1	67,8

Source: UN Development Programme