



**FACES OF  
MIGRATION**

**Governance of Migrant Integration  
in the Czech Republic:  
Monitoring report on progress towards  
the 2030 Agenda in relation to migration**





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# GOVERNANCE OF MIGRANT INTEGRATION IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC:

## Monitoring report on progress towards the 2030 Agenda in relation to migration

### Introduction

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This report evaluates the migration situation in the Czech Republic through the lens of Sustainable Development Goals. These goals represent 17 universally agreed objectives intended to be achieved by the year 2030. The report focuses specifically on the following goals (1) No Poverty (3) Good Health and Well-being, (4) Quality Education, (5) Gender Equality, (8) Decent Work and Economic Growth, (10) Reducing Inequality, (16) Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions, (17) Partnerships for the Goals.

Sustainable Development Goals are dedicated towards reaching the long-term targets. The report describes the main developments of migrant integration in the Czech Republic between 2015 and 2019. The covid-19 pandemic slowed economic growth, increased unemployment and has had a damaging effect on many people. The immigrants have been documented as being more sensitive to changes in labour market conditions. The economic fluctuations caused by the coronavirus situation in 2020 may therefore have a greater influence on immigrants, but these effects have yet to be evaluated.

Over the last two decades, the Czech Republic has become a favourite destination for immigrants. The inflow of immigrants largely accelerated in the economically-successful years preceding the Great Recession in 2009. The number of immigrants residing in the country decreased temporarily after 2009 and started to rise again in 2015. In 2019, the number of legally residing immigrants reached a historic high of nearly 600,000 that represents 5.6% of the Czech population.<sup>1</sup> The majority of foreign nationals are concentrated in the capital city of Prague and in large urban areas. Half of the immigrants in the Czech Republic have a permanent residence permit, and the other half are temporary residents, including third-country nationals (TCN) or EU Member State-registered nationals and their relatives.

The report is structured into five chapters that provide a summary of the developments and most important changes related to migrant rights and social inclusion, access to education and health care, political participation, labour market integration, development cooperation and gender equality.

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<sup>1</sup> Migration statistics are collected separately by several Czech institutions which may create confusion. The statistics by the Ministry of Labour refer to employed foreigners (based on work permits) and the statistics by the Czech Statistical Office refer to residence permits (and likely underestimates the number of EU nationals). The number of illegal immigrants is very low and the latest statistics from 2019 refer to 5,667 illegal immigrants.

## A. SOCIAL INCLUSION AND THE RIGHTS OF IMMIGRANTS

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This chapter addresses social inclusion and the integration of immigrants in the Czech Republic. The importance of integration is highlighted in several targets of Sustainable Development Goals including Goal 1.3 (*Implement social protection systems for all*), Goal 3 (*Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages*), Goal 4 (*Ensure an inclusive and quality education for all*), and Goal 11 (*Make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable*).

### A.1. Immigrants' rights and integration policies

EU nationals enjoy free access to the labour market in all EU member states and can apply for temporary residence permit. TCNs are eligible to work in the Czech Republic only with an employment contract, which is a necessary precondition upon which a long-term residence permit is granted. In the event of a job loss, the residence permit of an immigrant expires after 60 days if the migrant does not find a new job. Another way to remain in the country is to gain economic status through self-employment arrangements (by obtaining a trade license) or to apply for permanent residence (Drbohlav and Valenta, 2014a). Permanent residence is thus a much 'safer status' that allows TCNs to also remain in the country if they become unemployed. In 2018, two thirds of TCNs had permanent residence, and the rate was the highest for Vietnamese (84%) and Ukrainian (65%) nationals. For comparison, less than 40% of EU nationals have permanent residence.

Foreign residents are permitted to apply for permanent residence permit after 5 years of continuous residency in the Czech Republic. In the case of family reunification, foreigners may apply for permanent residence after 2 years of continuous residence. In June 2014, the administrative burden for TCNs declined due to the introduction of the 'dual card' approach whereby one card combines both the residence and work permits. In 2014, the Act on Czech Citizenship was amended to allow dual citizenship. This change of legislation led to a steep rise of recipients of Czech citizenship from 2,514 in 2013 to 10,016 in 2014. The number of people getting Czech passports has stabilized between 5,000 and 6,500 per year since 2015.

The successful integration of immigrants and their children is vital for social cohesion, and contributes to the population's acceptance of further immigration. The Migrant Integration Policy Index (MIPEX) measures the quality of legal frameworks to promote migrant integration. MIPEX is based on a wide range of 167 policy sub-indicators determined on the basis of leading experts on integration policies in eight policy areas: labour market mobility, family reunion, education, long-term residence, political participation, access to citizenship, health and anti-discrimination (Solano and Huddleston, 2020). The overall MIPEX score has increased from 45 to 50 (out of 100), between 2014 and 2019. Based on MIPEX, Czech integration policies are more advanced than in other countries in Central and Eastern Europe but they are average for Europe.

Based on the comparison of MIPEX 2014 and 2019 it follows that the Czech Republic has improved the policy in education and health areas. Improvements in the area of education include educational guidance at all levels and teacher training to reflect diversity and language instruction, though a greater focus is needed on access, segregation and intercultural education. In the area of health, information provided to immigrants has improved but access remains limited. In 2019, two policy areas evaluated as low include access to citizenship (assessed as unfavourable), and political participation (assessed as critically unfavourable). Integration policies in those

two areas are also weak in other countries across Central Europe. On the positive side, the integration policies in anti-discrimination, education, family reunion, and health domains are assessed as slightly favourable. The policies in the area of labour market mobility and permanent residence are assessed as halfway favourable. The scores are presented in *Figure 1*. The recommendations based on MIPEX 2019 on how to further strengthen the integration policy in eight areas are summarized in *Table 1*.

The integration of immigrants in the Czech Republic is organized within 18 regional Foreigner Integration Centres. These centres were established in 2009 and are funded by the Ministry of the Interior. Immigrants receive free Czech language and interpretation services, legal counselling, an information service, and assistance when dealing with public institutions. The Strategy for Migration Policy document approved in 2015 by the Czech government confirms the efforts to support the legal immigration and integration of immigrants (Ministry of Interior, 2015). Priority areas for integration include knowledge of the Czech language, economic self-sufficiency, awareness of the Czech cultural environment, and interactions between foreign residents and the Czech society (Drbohlav and Janurová, 2019).

The steps towards a more liberal immigration policy introduced in 2019 were accompanied with policies strengthening the integration of immigrants. A good example in this area is the *Welcome to the Czech Republic* adaptation-integration course funded by the Ministry of the Interior.<sup>2</sup> The course was provided free of charge and 1,246 foreigners attended the course in 2019. Starting from January 2021, immigrants with long-term or permanent residence permits will have to attend an integration-adaptation course that was optional before. It is scheduled for four hours in a single day and foreigners have to pay the attendance fee (1,500 CZK). The course informs foreigners about their rights and duties during their stay, and provides practical information about employment, housing, education, cultural and religious events, domestic violence and equal treatment issues. The fine for not attending the course is up to 10,000 CZK but it shall not have a negative impact on residence permits.

## A.2. Integration of immigrants in education system

Children of foreigners have access to free public schools in the Czech Republic. School attendance is compulsory until the age of 17. According to school registry data, there were 95,357 foreign children, pupils and university students (identified by citizenship) enrolled in all Czech schools in the 2018/2019 school year (see *Table 2*). Approximately 70% of all foreign children enrolled in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools originate from countries outside the EU.

The number of foreign children and pupils enrolled in pre-schools and primary schools shows an increasing trend. This provides tentative evidence that immigrants are increasingly arriving to Czechia together with their children and families and residing longer in the country. The number of foreign children enrolled in kindergartens has increased from 8,302 in 2015 to almost 12,000 in 2019, while in primary schools the number of foreign pupils increased from 18,281 to 26,527 and in secondary schools the enrolment of foreign students has increased from 8,763 to 9,496.

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<sup>2</sup> Courses are promoted at website <http://www.vitejtevcr.cz/en/>.

Foreign pupils and students are counted in administrative data based on their citizenship. The true number of children enrolled in schools with another native language than Czech is therefore larger but it is not systematically recorded. The survey organized by the Czech School Inspectorate in 2015 revealed that a third of children enrolled in kindergartens, a quarter of pupils enrolled in primary schools and a fifth of students enrolled in secondary schools have Czech as their second language but do not have foreigner status in the administrative records.

The Czech School Inspectorate reports that foreign children are enrolled in 40% of kindergartens and about a quarter of foreign children have a low language proficiency and require some support. Around 40% of kindergartens with foreign children provided language courses and most kindergartens provide support to children on an individual basis. Around half of kindergartens reported a lack of finances, teacher capacity and supporting materials to provide adequate language training and support to foreign children.

The language proficiency of foreign pupils in primary schools is better than in kindergartens but around a quarter of foreign students require some form of language support. In 2015, half of Czech primary schools had at least one foreign pupil enrolled. The foreign pupils with sufficient command of Czech language attend the class appropriate to their age. Those with insufficient language skills attend a class one year below their age (a quarter of cases). The Czech School Inspectorate reports that only 4.1% pupils follow an individual study plan due to low language ability. Foreign students have the right to free Czech language courses (minimum of 70 hours in six months) that are usually provided at their schools (or other selected schools in the region). In 2015, around 10% of all foreign pupils (1,614) attended these courses. The School Inspectorate concludes that language courses are not systematically provided to foreign pupils in many places and that there is room for improvement. The major barriers reported by school directors include a lack of finances, not enough teachers, insufficient state guidance, and a lack of supporting materials for teachers. The state financial support to schools for foreign pupils is not guaranteed, which creates uncertainty for school directors about the organization of supporting measures. In 2015, the Czech School Inspectorate visited 48 primary schools and confirmed that the majority of them have a regular systematic support of foreign students and help them to integrate. In around a quarter of schools, the support is not systematic but provided on an individual basis. Leontiyeva et al. (2018) found that the majority (over 80%) of Czech children between 6-18 years old are involved in regular after-school activities, while it is only a half of immigrant children in Ukrainian and Vietnamese communities. Lower participation is driven by personal preferences, a lack of information, and financial costs.

In 2019, there were 2.2% of foreign students enrolled in Czech secondary schools, but approximately 70% of schools have at least one foreign student enrolled. In 2015, the Czech School Inspectorate found that 7.5% of foreign students enrolled in secondary schools require language support and almost all of them receive the support on an individual basis. Foreign students enrolled in secondary schools typically reside longer in the country, attended Czech primary schools and they are often proficient in Czech language.

The two largest Czech cities, Prague and Brno, are considered as some of the most attractive and popular student destinations in Europe for university education. In 2019, there were 46,441 foreign students (16% of all students) enrolled in Czech higher education institutions. Around 45% of foreign students originate from neighbouring Slovakia, 10% from other EU countries and 45% from countries outside the EU. Slovak students prefer Czech universities for their good reputation, and they have no problem to take courses taught in Czech. The study at public university in the Czech program is free but foreign language programs have tuition fees. Based on administrative records, there were around 8,000 foreign students enrolled in programs with a tuition fee in 2019 (up from 5,610 in 2015). Most foreign students enrolled in paid programs originate from Germany, India, China, the United Kingdom, Russia, and Italy and most of them choose to study medicine, economic fields or natural sciences.

In 2019, the Czech National Agency for International Education conducted a survey exploring studying and living in the Czech Republic from the perspectives of foreign students (Kudrnáčová et al. 2020). Replies obtained from 6,975 students enrolled in universities show that majority of students are satisfied and rate the study positively in terms of value for money. When focusing on foreign students who do not come from Slovakia, half (54%) of students do not feel integrated among Czech students. Very few (13%) students had the opportunity to use a buddy programme that connects Czech and foreign students. Likely due to the lack of integration, more students consider pursuing their career in another foreign country in the future. Some other problems cited by students refer to the teachers' standard of English, accommodation, while two-thirds of students consider the recognition of previous education to be demanding. The issue of the visa requirement is cited by 83% students who consider the visa process time-consuming and administratively demanding. About half (49%) of students stated that they were satisfied with the communication received from the Asylum and Migration Policy Department of the Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic.

### **A.3. Integration of immigrants in the health system**

Every foreigner staying in the Czech Republic over 90 days is obliged to have comprehensive medical insurance, which is issued only by a Czech insurance company. EU nationals, TCNs with permanent residence, TCNs with an employment contract, asylum seekers, and persons born to a foreigner who has a permanent residence permit can be insured by public health insurance. All other migrants, including TCNs who are self-employed and TCNs with a study visa, family reunification visa or other visa are not eligible for public health insurance and are thus forced to buy private health insurance or remain without any insurance, which is against the law. This situation is unsatisfactory, also because the private health insurance is more expensive, and some situations may not be covered by the insurance.

The health insurance is a precondition when foreigners apply for long-term residency or for an extension of a long-term residency permit. It means that TCNs without an employment contract (e.g., self-employed, students, family members) need to buy private (commercial) insurance for the entire length of their intended stay (most often for one year) to obtain a visa. They are, however, not allowed to cancel the commercial insurance contract upon becoming employees or when obtaining permanent residence. In this way, immigrants are forced to pay for both commercial and public health insurance, which is clearly discriminatory. In addition, immigrants face the risk of not receiving the same level of healthcare due to a combination of several factors, including legal status, language and cultural barriers, whilst mostly occupying low-qualified and high-risk jobs.

A study by Dzurová et al. (2014), including a sample of 912 Vietnamese and Ukrainian workers who reside in the Czech Republic for more than 1 year, finds that only one half of TCNs were insured under the public insurance system, 37% had private insurance, and 12% were not insured. The authors find that poor knowledge of the Czech language significantly increases the risk of being uninsured, even for migrants with permanent residence or with an employment contract. Similarly, when both spouses in a marriage are foreigners, the risk is higher.

Moreover, the limited access to health care negatively influences the reproductive health of migrant women. There are cases of complicated births and neonatal care caused by limited access to prenatal care for migrant women (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015).

#### **A.4. Integration of immigrants in the public welfare system**

Immigrants in the Czech Republic exhibit high economic activity and rely minimally on social benefits. In 2015, only around 1.2% of all social benefits were received by TCNs (Pytlíková, 2018). Drbohlav and Valenta (2014b) state that a third of TCNs are not eligible for public employment service assistance and must rely on NGOs and regional Foreigner Integration Centres. A report by Jungwirth et al. (2019, p. 28) states that immigrant workers face a higher risk of becoming victims of fatal or serious injuries in the workplace. There is some scattered evidence that immigrants work long hours, live in overcrowded dormitories, face exploitation by employers and do not receive the agreed wages or compensation. In general, however, the working conditions are worse in low-paid occupations and they concern both Czech and immigrant workers.

The income situation of immigrants is presented in *Table 3* based on a representative survey of households.<sup>3</sup> Indicators are presented for the Czech population and two immigrant groups (EU nationals and TCNs distinguished by the country of birth). In general, immigrants face a higher risk of income poverty, have more difficulty making ends meet and a lower capacity to deal with unexpected financial expenses. The TCNs are identified as being most vulnerable relative to Czech nationals and immigrants from EU countries.

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<sup>3</sup> Statistics on income and living conditions (SILC)

Eurostat defines indicators to measure the housing costs overburden rate (households which allocate 40 % or more of their disposable income to housing costs) and overcrowding rate (the percentage of the population living in an overcrowded household). Immigrants face a two times higher housing overburden rate and are also more likely to live in an overcrowded household. Leontiyeva et al. (2018) confirms that the housing costs are difficult to pay for 43% of immigrants relative to other expenses. The expenses for children's education, and their activities are considered a burden for 12% of immigrants, while health and food expenses are difficult to pay for around 20% of immigrants.

Interestingly, the rates to afford a one-week holiday away from home are very similar for Czechs and immigrants (*Table 3*). Leontiyeva et al. (2018) find that for half of immigrants the travel costs to their country of origin are difficult to pay for.

### **A.5. Language as a barrier to integration**

Learning the language of a host country is considered an important prerequisite for successful migrant integration and, since 2009, the Czech language test is also a necessary condition for being granted permanent residence. Language as a barrier to integration is identified by immigrants in several surveys organized in the Czech Republics. The Czech language is a minority language and it is not easy to learn outside the Czech Republic.

Schebelle et al. (2012) survey 343 foreigners of Russian, Ukrainian, and Vietnamese origins residing in the Czech Republic for more than six years. The immigrants report the knowledge of Czech language and hostile attitudes towards foreigners as the major barriers to integration. The economic, cultural or administrative barriers to integration are cited less. The insufficient knowledge of Czech language was related to higher social and economic marginalization of foreigners. Hostile behaviour towards foreigners was identified more among lower educated and low-income groups, who also have insufficient language skills even when holding a permanent residency permit.

Leontiyeva et al. (2018) surveyed 1,150 foreigners originating from 54 countries living in Prague in 2017. They found that 80 % of foreigners speak Czech at work (at least 50 % of the time) and 30 % of foreigners attended a Czech course for at least 4 months (the attendance is higher for skilled workers). Foreigners identified the communication with public institutions and doctors as the most problematic with respect to the use of Czech language. A fifth of immigrant parents report a language barrier in the communication with schools and some perceive unfair behaviour due to their foreign origin. Bernard and Mikešová (2014) find that the integration of Vietnamese immigrants is significantly improved with the integration of their children. The role of schools is therefore important in this process.

### A.6. Political participation of immigrants

Foreigners without a permanent residence permit cannot participate or be elected in a local election. According to the survey of TCN in 2013, the majority (72%) expressed no interests in political affairs in Czechia (Schebelle et al. 2012). Political interests are higher among foreigners with a tertiary education, females (36%), and those with a permanent residence permit (57%). Around a quarter of foreigners exhibit an interest in voting in local elections. Higher interest in voting in local elections is documented among tertiary educated (49%), and those in a better financial household situation.

#### Recommendations:

- Overall, the Czech Republic promotes a comprehensive approach to integration, but current legislation does not fully guarantee equal rights, opportunities and security for immigrants (Goal 10.2 *Empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status*).
- The policies most unfavourable toward immigrants are identified in the access to nationality domain and political participation domain (Goal 10.3 *Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard*).
- The integration measures and language support programs for foreigners are most necessary at the lower education levels in kindergartens and in primary schools also because the number of foreign children and pupils enrolled in these facilities is increasing. (Goal 4.1 *ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes*).
- The equal access to the public health insurance system for all temporary immigrants from countries outside the EU and their families is currently not established in the legislation (Goal 3.8 *Achieve universal health coverage, including financial risk protection, access to quality essential health-care services and access to safe, effective, quality and affordable essential medicines and vaccines for all*).
- The school survey identified that the major barriers which prevent the adequate support to foreigners relates to a lack of finances, state guidance and supporting materials for teachers (Goal 4.7 *Ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development*).
- Facilitate the visa administration process for foreign university students.

## B. ECONOMIC INTEGRATION OF IMMIGRANTS

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This chapter previews the situation of immigrants in the labour market that is connected with Goal 8 (*Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all*) and 16 (*Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels*).

### B.1. Economic integration of immigrants

The Czech labour market in 2019 was characterized by low unemployment (the lowest in the EU for several years in a row) and a record-high number of job vacancies. In December 2019, Czech employment offices posted more than 340,000 vacancies. Most vacancies reported to employment offices require workers with low education and in low-skilled occupations (ISCO 7, 8, 9 categories<sup>4</sup>). Around half of vacancies were for jobs in industry and construction, and more than two thirds of vacancies require only a basic education. University education was required only by approximately 3.6% of all job vacancies. However, as companies do not report all vacancies for qualified employees to employment offices, the real shortage of skilled-workers was likely higher.

Most immigrants (80%) in the Czech Republic are in their working age (15-64 years old) and their employment rates are higher than those of native-born Czechs. Immigrants aged over 64 are just 5 percent of all immigrants. In 2019, immigrants comprised 5.6% of the Czech population but more than 13% of the workforce. The majority of the immigrant population in the Czech Republic originates from countries outside the EU. In 2019, three out of four TCNs residing in the Czech Republic originated from five countries: Ukraine (around 145,500), Vietnam (62,000), Russia (38,200), Mongolia (9,850) and China (7,700). TCNs mostly work in manual, low paying, low quality positions that are less attractive to the Czech labour force. Immigrant labour is thus perceived more as complementary rather than as competitive to the Czech labour force.

Immigrants are perceived to be highly entrepreneurial, contributing to economic growth and innovation. In 2019, there were 93,781 foreigners (a third are women) with a trade license that allows entrepreneurial activities. The foreign self-employed account for 4.6% of all self-employed. However, as some of these entrepreneurs may also work as employees, the statistics need to be taken with caution. Most trade licenses are owned by Slovaks (20%), Vietnamese (22%) and Ukrainians (24%), which indicates their high entrepreneurial tendency.

The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (2019) operates the employment registrations database of all foreigners together with their occupation and the sector of employment (see *Tables 4 and 5*). TCNs are employed in unskilled occupations (ISCO 9) with a six times higher intensity compared to Czech workers and are half as likely to take skilled jobs (ISCO 1-4). *Table 4* reveals that the employment patterns of TCNs are most comparable to Czech nationals in the service workers category (ISCO 5), and TCN and EU nationals are equally likely to work in plant and machine operator (ISCO 8) occupations.

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<sup>4</sup> International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) divides jobs into nine major groups: ISCO1 – Legislators, senior officials and managers; ISCO2 – Professionals; ISCO3 – Technicians and associate professionals; ISCO4 – Clerks; ISCO5 – Service workers and shop and market sales workers; ISCO6 – Skilled agricultural and fishery workers; ISCO7 – Craft and related trades workers; ISCO8 – Plant and machine operators and assemblers; ISCO9 – Elementary occupations.

The manufacturing sector is very important to the Czech economy (industry stands at 35%, services at 62.3%, and agriculture at 2.8%). The most important part is the automotive industry producing 1.5 million vehicles annually and employing over 130,000 workers. In 2018, around 30% of all migrants (25% of all TCNs) worked in the manufacturing sector. Many industrial companies recruit immigrants through employment agencies, and, because these workers are agency employees, they do not appear in the manufacturing sector numbers. *Table 5* shows that 18% of foreign nationals (both EU and TCN) are recruited by employment agencies (Administrative and support service sector) that is seven times more than by Czech nationals. Consequently, many of these employees work for industrial companies, but the data do not trace their real occupations. There is some evidence that immigrants hired via employment agencies face exploitation in terms of fees and working conditions (Drbohlav and Janurová, 2019). Relative to Czech nationals, TCN workers are more concentrated in construction (Ukrainians), accommodation and food services (Ukrainians, Vietnamese and Chinese), and real estate services (Ukrainians and Russians). TCN and Czech nationals are equally likely to work in agriculture, wholesale and retail trade, transport, and ICT. It is important to think about these rates as raw comparisons that do not assume the personal characteristics and qualifications of workers.

More detailed information on the working conditions of immigrants is obtained from the Czech Labour Force Survey 2018. The sample includes a fraction of 0.6% dwellings from the Population and Housing Census, hence the coverage of marginalized and ethnic groups without regular accommodation may not be representative. Immigrant status is defined by the country of birth. The demographic and employment characteristics of the working-age population are presented in *Table 6* separately for Czech, EU nationals, the three largest TCN groups, and other TCNs. The sample size of foreigners does not allow for a finer division. Foreigners captured in the LFS sample are more established in the country, and a third of them have already acquired Czech citizenship. Consistently with the figures presented above, TCNs have high employment activity and higher self-employment relative to the Czech born population.

Statistics in LFS confirm that agency work is a used strategy of employment for TCNs and mostly for Vietnamese and Russian workers. Vietnamese workers typically work long-hours in family-run small businesses, and they are least likely to take high-skilled jobs. Ukrainians work more in larger companies in low- and middle-skilled occupations. TCNs typically work longer hours than native Czech but all prefer to work fewer hours. The majority of workers have a full-time permanent contract, which is a norm in the Czech Republic. Russian nationals are exceptional – they have a lower participation rate and also work fewer hours relative to other workers. It should be noted that the data capture predominantly the working conditions of more established foreigners that may differ from those of more recent migrant workers.

The Ukrainian and Vietnamese communities are long established in the Czech Republic, and their integration in the labour market and in society are extensively studied in literature. Ukrainians are the most numerous migration group, well established in the Czech Republic for more than 20 years (around 132 000 in 2018 or 39% of TCNs). The historical legacy, language similarity, common Slavic culture, and well-connected transport system offer Ukrainians an easy way to enter the country. Ukrainians come for economic and work-related reasons. Many of them are young people; students and family members of those already in Czechia. The Ukrainian diaspora has already built a tradition in various sectors of the economy, mostly in less-skilled professions and positions. Males are mostly attracted to manual positions in construction and some industrial sectors, while females mostly work in private-services sectors. The study by Drbohlav and Dzúrová (2015) shows that Ukrainian workers primarily take unskilled, manual, low paid jobs, i.e., so-called “3D” (demanding, dirty and dangerous) jobs. Bernard and Mikešová (2014) find that the integration of Ukrainian immigrants largely improves with the length of residence. Valenta and Drbohlav (2018) shows that 80% of tertiary-educated foreign workers, but only 45% of tertiary-educated Ukrainian workers, are matched with their qualification level. One half of tertiary-educated Ukrainian workers are overqualified for their positions, and most of them take jobs in the manufacturing sector, sales activities, or work via employment agencies. These agencies typically provide temporary job opportunities with limited prospects for future career promotions. However, employment agencies may provide easier access to jobs for Ukrainian workers who consider their stay in the country temporary without seeking a long-term career.

The first immigrants from Vietnam arrived in Czechoslovakia in the 1970s and 1980s under bilateral agreements on scientific and technological cooperation. They came as students, apprentices and guest workers and remained in the country following the end of communism. The first-generation immigrants remain relatively isolated from the wider Czech society and mostly work as street-market vendors and in small trades and services. During the 1990s and 2000s, Vietnamese mainly sold textiles, electronics and groceries, and their communities were evenly distributed across the country. Recently, Vietnamese businesses have become more varied and they are increasingly working as translators, in social care, or running small restaurants. The second and third generations of Vietnamese origin children show a high level of integration in terms of language, social networks and cultural habits (O’Connor, 2007; Svobodová and Janská, 2016).

Illegal or undeclared work in the Czech Republic is defined as any paid work that is legal, but is not reported to public administration. The most common form of illegal work consists of using self-employment contracts in place of employer-employee contracts, or the presence of employer-employee relations without written employment contracts. The State Labour Inspection Office annually performs inspections targeted at illegal employment practices. Since 2012, the inspectorates performed 123,000 inspections with undeclared work being identified in 21,000 cases out of which half concerned foreign nationals. A large proportion of the foreign workers did not have a valid work permit, and the second largest group of foreigners had all the necessary permits but worked without proper contractual arrangements. In 2018, the inspectorates investigated 7,621 economic subjects for undeclared work of which 1,048 subjects were identified with illegal employment. Inspectors identified 4,583 undeclared persons of which 3,595 were TCNs. It is difficult, however, to generalize these numbers because inspections target workplaces that are the most likely to be in breach of employment legislation.

**Recommendations:**

- Strengthen the protection of foreign workers at the workplace, their work safety, and the right to decent work standards to comply with Goal 8.8 (*Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular female migrants, and those in precarious employment*).
- Monitor activities of employment agencies that arrange work for foreigners. Ensure that agency employees receive the same employment conditions (e.g., working hours, wage) as comparable permanent employees of the user. (Goal 16.b *Promote and enforce non-discriminatory laws and policies for sustainable development*)
- Organize information campaigns to raise the awareness of migrants about their rights and working conditions. Prevent exploitation of labour.

## C. REGULAR PATHWAYS FOR MIGRANTS BETWEEN OUR COUNTRIES AND THIRD COUNTRIES TARGET

**Author: Mgr. Martin Guzi, Ph.D.**

This chapter previews the immigration programmes, the purpose of immigration, international protection, and public views on migration relating to Goal 10.7 (*Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies*).

### C.1. Old immigration programmes

The labour immigration programmes have been created and implemented since 2012. Before the extensive amendment to the Act on the Residence of Foreign Nationals in September 2019, there were seven different migration programmes facilitating the application process for residence and work permits for TCNs. Each programme defines specific conditions for the entry of TCNs and the number of applications is limited by a quota system.

First, the *fast-track* programme was launched in 2012 and targeted highly skilled workers, and scientists. More than 1,000 immigrants mostly from India, Russia the US, and Ukraine entered the Czech Republic through it. Second, the *Welcome package for Investors Project* programme was established in 2013 to help multinational corporations relocate their employees and over 330 managers and specialists have participated in it since its introduction. Third, the *Ukraine and India* programme targeted high-skilled workers from these two countries. Since its introduction in 2015, the programme has facilitated the immigration of more than 1,900 workers, mostly IT specialists. Fourth, *Ukraine Regime* allowed 2,630 Czech companies to hire more than 51,000 skilled workers (ISCO groups 4-8) from Ukraine between 2016 and 2019. Fifth, the *Other States Regime* launched on 1 May 2018 defined the annual quotas for the immigration of medium- and low-skilled workers from Mongolia (quota was 1,000 persons), Philippines (1,000) and Serbia (2,000). In each month, only the proportional part of the annual quota is available. During 2018 and 2019, more than 150 firms and more than 4,300 immigrants were included in it. Sixth, the *Training* programme was established in 2014 to facilitate the posting of workers for a maximum of six months training or internship. Seventh, the *Farmer* programme, operating from 1 January 2018 to 31 July 2019, recorded 1,187 applications from 215 employers in agriculture, the food industry or forestry to employ workers from Ukraine. The quota in this programme was set at 2,000.

These migration programmes facilitate immigration and help companies hire workers under specific conditions but the administrative procedures (e.g., work and residence permits, visa, or employee card) took an average of four to six months (Drbohlav and Janurová, 2019). There is some evidence of circumventing the lengthy immigration process by the posting of Ukrainian workers in the Czech labour market via a Polish short-term visa. The Polish migration policy is more liberalized and work permits in less qualified jobs are easier and faster to arrange in Poland. In 2017, around 7,000 posted workers were employed typically in low-qualified jobs without proper employment contracts (e.g., with fake or no A1 forms) in the Czech Republic (Trčka et al., 2018). TCNs employed in another EU Member State do not need any further authorization (i.e., work or residence permit) to work as part of posting. The duration of the posting in the Czech Republic is limited to a maximum period of 90 days (during each 180 days) to comply with the maximum length of temporary stay. The employment of posting workers may also be economically motivated because the Czech law does not apply for posting workers (e.g., labour costs are lower in Poland due to lower social insurance payments).

## C.2. New immigration policy

In 2019, unemployment dropped to below 2% and similarly youth unemployment (of people under age 25) remained one of the lowest in the EU. The struggle to find workers and fill open vacancies has become one of the Czech economy's main challenges, pushing up wages and denting its competitiveness and attractiveness to foreign investors and companies. In September 2019, an amendment of Act No. 326/1999 Coll., on the Residence of Foreign Nationals on the Territory of the Czech Republic came into force. The existing migration programmes were transformed into three newly created programmes for economic migration. In December 2019, the fourth program *Special Work Visa* was added to deal with the acute shortage of workers in the agriculture sector. The new legislation enlarges the number of countries from which employers may attract workers, it introduces a transparent regulation of migration and unifies the criteria for entry for employers and foreign employees. A foreign worker is included in the programmes based on the application filed by the employer. Workers cannot change employer earlier than 6 months after they receive their first employee card. Programmes guarantee full-time employment contracts at least for a period of one year and a salary above a defined threshold to foreign workers.

First, the *Highly Qualified Worker* programme (replaces the Ukraine and India programme) is intended for highly skilled workers (ISCO groups 1-3). The programme is open to the nationals of all third countries and along with employed persons includes their closest family members as well. From September till December in 2019, 270 candidates mostly in the field of IT and healthcare were involved in it. Workers under this programme shall receive a wage corresponding at least to the average earnings of the relevant ISCO group.

Second, the *Qualified Worker* programme (replaces Ukraine Regime and Other States Regime) is intended for medium- and low-skilled workers (ISCO groups 4-8) in the manufacturing industry, services or the public sector. The programme is open to candidates from eight countries selected for their cultural closeness, political stability, and skilled workforce. Immigration is regulated by an annual quota: for Ukraine the quota is 40,000; for Montenegro and Serbia, the quota is 2,000; for the Philippines, Moldova and Mongolia, 1,000 each; for India, 600; and for Kazakhstan, 300. The number of currently available applications is published online at the Czech Ministry of Industry and Trade website. From September till December in 2019, more than 10,100 workers from Ukraine and 2,200 from other eligible countries participated in it. Workers under this programme shall receive a wage that is at least 20% above the guaranteed minimum wage for the corresponding occupation.

Third, the *Key and Research Staff* programme (replaces the Fast Track and Welcome Package) is intended for investors, start-ups, research organizations and technology companies to employ high-skilled specialists. Administrative requirements are simplified and the residence permit is handed over within 30 days after submission (fast-track). The program is open to all TCNs and 356 candidates and 56 companies were already involved in the programme in 2019. Workers under this programme shall receive a wage corresponding at least to the average earnings of the relevant ISCO group.

Fourth, the *Special Work Visa* programme was established in December 2019 and is intended for Ukrainian nationals working in agriculture, the food industry or forestry. The monthly quota is set at 125 candidates (1,500 annual quota) and the programme is set to run to the end of 2022.

### C.3. The purpose of migration

Foreign nationals from EU countries most often reside in the Czech Republic on a temporary basis (62%), while the majority of third-country nationals (60%) reside in the Czech Republic on a permanent basis. The permanent-residency status is safer to TCNs since it provides them with a right to claim unemployment benefits and a right to remain in a country after job loss, and access to public health insurance.

The purpose of immigration is stated in the visa application. The short-term residence permit gives TCNs a right to stay for up to 90 days in the territory of the Schengen. In most cases, short-term visa applications are processed within 15 days. In the visa application, half of applicants report employment and business, a quarter report family reunification, a sixth report study, and less than a tenth report other purpose of stay. Employment and business as the purpose of stay is frequent among immigrants from Belarus, Mongolia and Ukraine. The study is dominant among immigrants from Kazakhstan, Russia, and the USA. Family reunification is more often stated among immigrants from Korea and Vietnam.

TCNs who reside in the Czech Republic over 90 days and plan to stay at least for one year need to apply for a long-term residence permit. The applications are decided within 90 days and the approval rate is high (81% in 2019). The number of applications for long-term residence has tripled from 22,483 in 2015 to 68,154 in 2019. While in 2015 and 2016 the majority of long-term permits were given for studying purposes, starting from 2017 most long-term residence permits are granted for work reasons (62% in 2019). A quarter of applicants report education and a tenth of applicants report family reunification as the purpose of stay. The approval rate is similar to all categories and it seems that no purpose of stay is preferred.

### C.4. International protection

In contrast to the labour migration policy, the process of granting asylum or international protection in the Czech Republic is more restrictive. A total of 83,203 persons applied for such status between 1997 and 2015, but only 2,394 (i.e., 2.9%) of applications were approved (Drbohlav and Seidlová, 2016). In Spring 2014, the conflict between Ukraine and Russia escalated and most asylum applications during 2014 and 2015 were submitted by Ukrainians (1,208), of which only 32 (2.6%) persons were granted asylum (Drbohlav and Seidlová, 2016). The extremely low share of asylum grants reflects the anti-migration feelings in the public discourse. The number of applicants for international protection in the Czech Republic (1,922 in 2019) has been steadily increasing over the last decade but is very low relative to other EU countries.

In 2018, there were 1,731 new applications submitted and 47 persons received the status. Most applicants for asylum are from Ukraine (25%), Georgia (10%), Cuba (9%), Armenia (7%) and Vietnam (6%). Asylum was granted most frequently to citizens of China (8), Myanmar (5), Syria (6), and Ukraine (6). The Czech Republic maintains relationships with the countries of the former Soviet Union and refugees from these countries are more accepted relative to refugees from other countries. Between 2000 and 2018, there were 2,365 recognized asylees in total and most granted asylums were to citizens from Belarus (336), Russia (384), Ukraine (195), Iraq (185) and Myanmar (176).

### C.5. Public attitudes towards migrants

Public views are important contributors to immigrants' social and economic integration into the host country. The high inflows of people arriving in the European Union in 2015 and 2016 caused a significant turn in public opinion on migration, immigrants, and refugees in the Czech society. Despite the fact that the country was little affected by high immigration, the topic of migration resonated strongly in the public discussions. Migration also became a source of polarization during parliamentary election in 2017 and presidential election in 2018. According to Eurobarometer surveys, Czechs hold some of the most negative attitudes in the European Union toward immigrants and refugees. Most of the Czech respondents perceive migration as a problem and express a negative attitude toward immigrants. In 2016, the Czech Republic together with the other CEE countries, ranked among the 10 countries least accepting of migrants among 138 countries in the Migration Acceptance Index prepared by Gallup World Poll.<sup>5</sup>

It is likely that some steps of Czech decision makers, such as negation of the EU's 2015 refugee quota policy do not have a positive effect on the picture of migrants and refugees in the Czech society. It turns out that the public awareness about migration issues has been below the EU average (European Commission, 2018). Czechs tend to overestimate the numbers of migrants and refugees in the country (often as much as three times higher than reality), in part because of incomplete or biased information presented in the media. One in four Czechs report to be well informed about immigration and integration related matters compared to the EU average of 37% (European Commission, 2018)

#### Recommendations:

- Bring statistical information on foreign nationals from population registers, residence permits, and employment offices in the one database. Make the information easily available to the academic community in order to stimulate research on migration.
- Organize an information campaign to address disinformation and highlight the positive outcomes expected from properly managed migration.
- Present stories of successful and integrated migrants in the mainstream media to reduce the threat of immigration to public order, national identity and security.
- Promote interactions between migrants and Czech society at the local level to break down barriers and dispel xenophobic sentiments. This will help to build a cohesive society that benefits everybody.
- Reconsider the stringent international protection and asylum policy (Goal 10.7 *Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies*).

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<sup>5</sup> <https://news.gallup.com/poll/216377/new-index-shows-least-accepting-countries-migrants.aspx>

## D. INTERNATIONAL PARTNERSHIP SDG17 AND DIASPORAS

**Author: Lucie Macková, M.A., Ph.D.**

This chapter addresses the migration-development nexus in the Czech Republic. In particular, it focuses on the policies of the Czech government regarding development cooperation and its possible contribution to sustainable development. The Czech Republic traditionally supports emerging democracies and builds on its own experience in transitioning to market economy. However, when it comes to addressing migration and the role of diasporas, their importance in sustainable development has often been sidestepped and omitted in its official documents. Therefore, policy coherence in this respect will be an important task of the bodies involved in the Czech development assistance. This chapter will inquire about the Czech policies connected to migration, diasporas and sustainable development and it will provide some recommendations for the Czech Republic to be on track to achieve Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially the overarching Goal 17 – *Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development*.

The SDGs should be actively promoted by the Government Council for Sustainable Development of the Czech Republic. This Council attempts to integrate the goals into the governmental policies and cross-cutting agendas and monitor their progress (Government of the Czech Republic, 2020). While the formal framework exists for the inclusion of Agenda 2030, the question is how effective it is. The Czech Strategic Framework 2030 (Government of the Czech Republic, 2017) cites the following two limitations which relate to the willingness and administrative capacities of the Council and the ministries – first, the policy cohesion is limited due to the limited interest of key executive actors; second, the capacity of ministries and their willingness to cooperate and coordinate their action is lacking. Therefore, there is a need for overarching governance mechanism which would integrate SDGs into their agenda.

The Czech Republic is a member of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) and was last peer reviewed in 2016. The review found that the national Framework for Agenda 2030, its target setting and annual monitoring should address the global dimensions of the SDGs (OECD, 2016). Moreover, it added that the Czech Republic should focus more on the aspirations of developing countries and increase its awareness of the impact of Czech policies on the developing countries. Hence, there should be more monitoring and evaluation of the development programmes which might have an impact on migration. One of the weaknesses of the Czech Republic is its low budget spent on Official development assistance (ODA), which was at 0.13% ODA/GNI in 2019 (OECD, 2020). However, the commitment should be more ambitious in the future, which has also been recommended by OECD (2016) and is in line with the Sustainable Development Goal 17.3 (*Mobilize additional financial resources for developing countries from multiple sources*). The Czech government has committed to reach the target of 0.33% ODA/GNI by 2030 (Government of the Czech Republic, 2017). However, despite the recent increase in the budget, the current growth rate is insufficient to meet the target by 2030. Reaching this target will be a key factor influencing the effectiveness of the Czech development assistance in the future.

When it comes to international partnerships (also those involving diasporas or international migration), it is necessary to evaluate the impact of the Czech development assistance. As has been proposed by OECD (2016), the Czech Republic *“should use its increase in bilateral aid to achieve a critical mass, broader scale and impact in partner countries or territories, including by taking a more programmatic approach.”* The Czech Republic focuses its official development assistance on six priority countries (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Georgia, Moldova, and Zambia), three of which are the least developed countries (LDCs). This report will use the case study of Ethiopia as an example of development aid being used with the rationale to prevent migration.

The Czech Republic attempts to invest in projects that aim at assisting people in the source countries and preventing them from migrating abroad. This is also in line with its official governmental policy. The development project titled *Job Creation for Potential Migrants in Addis Ababa* was implemented by one Czech non-governmental organization in 2018 and was also supported by other donors such as the European Commission in the form of the trilateral aid (Czech Development Agency, 2020). While the rationale of the project *“to stem migration”* resonates with the Czech policy makers and the public, it is not necessarily the most efficient or sustainable form of development aid because it might not reach the most vulnerable populations outside the capital. It has been repeatedly shown that the poorest population is unable to migrate (de Haas, 2010) and it might also be outside the scope of policy interventions aimed at international migration.

The role of the diasporas is especially important in the development of countries of origin. Mongolia, a country with a relatively large diaspora in the Czech Republic, is not supported by any project funded by the Czech Development Agency in connection with its international migration and the important role of the diaspora. However, the project such as *“Ice Hockey Stadium Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia”* has been given the green light. The role of public-private partnerships is important, but it is also important to untie aid and help Czech organizations understand that they can be equal partners rather than business contractors (OECD, 2016). Therefore, the OECD recommendation *“to untie aid, use partner systems, and contribute to harmonised funding arrangements in line with Busan commitments”* can serve as a guideline here.

To empower remitting of diasporas is an important part of the development agenda but it needs to be supported by targeted policies and easy ways to transfer money. Migrants and returnees can contribute to socio-economic development in their countries of origin by means of transferring money and also by sharing their know-how and ideas, in the form of social remittances. They can also contribute through returnee entrepreneurship, after return to their countries of origin. The Czech Republic should support this type of returnee engagement through various programmes aimed at returnee reintegration, which can contribute to circulation of knowledge and ideas.

The Czech Republic currently aims to attract circular migration in the less skilled professions and similarly, there should be an incentive for the highly skilled workers to return to their countries of origin to disseminate the knowledge gained in the Czech Republic. Given that, there is surprisingly little mention of the possibilities of the Ukrainian diaspora in the development of the country and its strategic engagement, especially when it could benefit both the receiving countries and the country of origin, in the form of social remittances. This is connected with the Goal 17.16 *Enhance the global partnership for sustainable development, complemented by multi-stakeholder partnerships that mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, in particular developing countries.*

There are some *ad hoc* activities when it comes to the area of promoting human rights and democracy (e.g. the work of Czech organizations with dissent in Cuba or Belarus) but they are sporadic at best. These activities are connected with the Goal 17.17 *encourage and promote effective public, public-private, and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships.* One practical issue how to support the migrant and later returnee engagement is through the recognition of skills. The migrants can use their knowledge and they can later contribute with higher qualifications in case they decide to return. However, many migrants face problems regarding the recognition of their skills and qualifications and the Czech policies are not helpful in this respect. The Czech Republic encourages skilled migration and has various avenues for skilled workers but for those who decide to come through the standard immigration pathways, it is often difficult to get their skills recognized once in the Czech Republic.

The Goal 17.13 (*Enhance global macroeconomic stability, including through policy coordination and policy coherence*) is important for the issue of remittances and how they could be harnessed to provide an effective tool to poverty reduction. Remittances can play an important role when it comes to addressing socio-economic situation in the countries of origin but more targeted policies are needed for their effective use. The highest amount of remittances from the Czech Republic is sent to Ukraine, which is the country with the largest diaspora in the Czech Republic. Between 2014 and 2018, personal remittances to Ukraine as a share of GDP increased from 5.5% to 11.2%, according to the World Bank data (World Bank, 2020a). While Poland is a more important target country of migration than the Czech Republic, the Czech Republic is still significant when it comes to the total amount of remittances sent to Ukraine. However, there are high transaction costs which disable effective transfer of remittances. The online services with transaction costs below 5% are available in the Czech Republic but most remittance corridors have costs above 5%. The SDG 10 aims to work with this issue (*10.c Reduce to less than 3 per cent the transaction costs of migrant remittances and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5 per cent*). Yet as can be seen, there is no corridor to send money from the Czech Republic to Ukraine, which would fulfil these criteria (World Bank, 2020b).

It is important to gather precise data on migration, especially when it comes to the migration status of individuals. The Goal 17.18 (*Enhance capacity-building support to developing countries to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts*) is concerned with the data on migration that can be used as effective benchmarks for policies. Even in the Czech context, there is a lack of aggregate data, which would consider migratory status along with other characteristics. Insufficient knowledge of the migration topic is a problem, which should be addressed as there are many misconceptions, which are partly disseminated through some political parties. As a result, the Czech public is extremely polarized around these issues (similarly to other V4 countries). For example, Drbohlav and Janurová (2019) argue that there is a need for more rational and evidence-based arguments in the public debate about migration to the Czech Republic so that it can fulfil its responsibilities vis-à-vis the European Union and other stakeholders.

Finally, it should be acknowledged that migration has various benefits, for example, diffusion of skills and knowledge, among others. Yet the Czech Republic refused to adopt the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (GCM) approved by the majority of states in 2018. Some of its goals relevant for this chapter included: (18) *Invest in skills development and facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competences*, (19) *Create conditions for migrants and diasporas to fully contribute to sustainable development in all countries*, (20) *Promote faster, safer and cheaper transfer of remittances and foster financial inclusion of migrants*, (21) *Cooperate in facilitating safe and dignified return and readmission, as well as sustainable reintegration*. These goals are also interlinked with the SDGs and can lead to our better understanding of the issue of migration and diasporas. The possibility that the Goals will be met by the Czech Republic by 2030 remains quite distant.

### **Recommendations:**

- The Government Council for Sustainable Development should be more proactive and the Czech policies regarding migration and diasporas should be more outspoken and coherent. The government, ministries and key stakeholders should integrate migration agenda into its governance mechanisms. Migration, diaspora and asylum issues should be included within the national implementation of Sustainable Development Goals.
- Additional development assistance resources should be mobilized, with targets and indicators in line with the Sustainable Development Goals. The impact of development projects connected with migration should be evaluated.
- Recognition and transfer of skills should be simplified. There should be policies that would enable faster access to skills recognition even after migration.
- Promote more efficient and cheaper channels to transfer remittances, in line with the Sustainable Development Goals.
- The collection, analysis and dissemination of data on migration should be accounted for in the policy-making. There should be an active communication and awareness raising about migration issues, also on the municipal level. Non-governmental and civil society organizations as well as the local municipalities should be consulted about the issues pertaining to migration.

## E. SITUATION OF MIGRANT WOMEN IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC

**Author:** Mgr. Eva Čech Valentová

This chapter addresses the intersectionality of migration and gender equality in the context of social and economic integration of migrant women in the Czech Republic. After an overview describing the situation of migrant women in general terms, further details on the policy approach and legal limitations for family migration explain the basic grounds of the disadvantaged position of these women. Specific situations, in many aspects implying multiple disadvantages or discrimination, apply to migrant women particularly with regard to their participation at the labour market, their social rights and access to health. Therefore, it is also important to see the active role of migrant women when seeking for equal opportunities within the Czech society and to outline some recommendations for the Czech Republic to be followed in order to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), in this case merely the Goal 5 – *Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls*.

### E.1. General overview of migrant women's situation in the Czech Republic

Approximately 253,000 migrant women resided in the Czech Republic as of 31 December 2019, representing 42,65% of migrant population (595 881 persons) and approximately 2,3% of the total population in the country (Czech Statistical Office, 2019). While in the early 10s years of 21<sup>st</sup> century, the number of migrant women was rapidly increasing, this inflow has slightly slowed down within the monitored period (Czech Statistical Office, 2019; IOM, 2019). However, considering the trend of migrant women to settle down in Czechia permanently, the feminization of *migration* is undeniable.

As elsewhere in Europe, also migrant women in Czechia face multiple disadvantages due to structural, societal, linguistic and cultural barriers. These women thus live in a clearly unequal position, both socially and economically, compared to men and other women from the majority society. Such inequality increases the risk of their social exclusion and creates particularly vulnerable situations often linked to gender-based violence or multiple discrimination based on gender, social group membership, ethnicity or migration status grounds (Hradečná et al., 2016). With little visibility in the political sphere minority and migrant women in the Czech Republic have little control over policies in place, which directly influences their wellbeing (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015).

Despite some progress, the state instruments in the field of migrant integration or equal rights, as well as the activities of NGOs, social or other public services remain insufficient in order to systematically moderate disadvantages of migrant women in Czechia. At the same time, following the increased migratory flows to Europe after 2015, social tensions have raised up in the country, which heightened some negative phenomena such as xenophobia, racism or any kind of hate speech and violence, affecting particularly Muslim women and other racialized groups (HateFree, 2018). Racial profiling or institutionalized stereotypes can be demonstrated by the well-known case of "headscarf at school" where the courts did not admit, in several instances, discrimination to access to education of the plaintiff Muslim girl (Office of the Government of the Czech Republic, 2017).

## E.2. Policy level

From a broad perspective, the Czech Republic still stays behind the European standards in gender equality issues (EIGE, 2020). Consequently, the Covid-19 pandemic significantly unveiled the gender inequalities in the mainstream society (Social Watch, 2020). Even though the pandemic has seriously impacted also migrant women, this disadvantaged group was not included in the government's protection measures in employment or social affairs to overcome their difficulties arising from the lockdown. Such invisibility of migrant women in current affairs reflects the wider reality that they have been generally overlooked in social and other related public policies. Until recently, no evaluation reports or situational analyses would mention that this target group has been facing problems both at the legislative and social levels (Hradečná et al., 2016), including the *Strategic Framework Czech Republic 2030*.

In particular, the Czech state integration and migration policies had for long remained gender blind for identifying possible problems related to integration of migrant women, often trapped in vulnerable situations, into the host society (Hradečná et al., 2016). It was only in 2012 when the government's strategical material *Updated Policy for Integration of Immigrants* recognized their specific situation and the possibility of involving them in the local labour market in general terms (Government of the Czech Republic, 2016), but without any visible impacts on their lives (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015). The so far latest version of the strategy as of 2016 identifies migrant women as one of the vulnerable groups and addresses their specific needs in some areas: *"Emphasis is placed especially on measures enabling their participation in integration activities and reducing the risk of their isolation with the help of targeted information and targeted offer of integration measures, especially teaching Czech and orientation in society"* (Ministry of the Interior, 2019). However, the integration strategy still lacks of sufficiently specific, measurable and enforceable measures from the perspective of individual rights and social integration of migrants in some crucial areas such as employment, education, healthcare, social rights and most of all civil and political participation (Dumont in: Consortium, 2018). Adopting such measures would comply, among others, with the recommendations embodied in the Sustainable Development Goal 5.c – *Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels*.

A positive signal at the policy level can be seen in the recent activities of the Government of the Czech Republic. Its Strategy for Gender Equality 2014–2020 clearly draws attention to the problem of unavailability of public health care for migrant women and to their multiple discrimination on the labour market (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015). Intersectionality newly appears as a horizontal criterion within the Gender Equality Strategy 2021+ to recognise, among others, the multiple disadvantages of migrant women and other vulnerable groups. This criterion is further developed in several targeted measures under some priority areas such as employment, elimination and prevention of gender-based violence, health and others (Office of the Government of the Czech Republic, 2020), which is in line with the target 5.1 – *End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere*.

### E.3. Structural limitations in the immigration policy and legislation

First and foremost, it is the immigration policy and legislation, which, by determining the conditions for entry and residence of migrants, establishes certain adaptation limitations and various legislative barriers for integration (Consortium, 2015). Considering that family migration belongs among the most common pathways of legal migration to Czechia, these structural barriers affect the migrant women even more than migrant men, especially when it comes to the situations their residency is dependent on the status of their spouses or partners.

Generally, conditions for family migration are assessed as slightly favourable in the international context as long as *“families have right to reunite, if they can meet tougher requirements introduced in 2013”* according to the MIPLEX study (Migration Policy Group, 2020). It implies disproportionately high fees and income requirements for the sponsor and a too long nine-month administrative period for processing the application for long-term residence permit for the purpose of family reunification (OPU, 2016). Particularly the waiting time for decision on any residence permit in Czechia could become very unpredictable due to previous frequent non-compliance with deadlines for granting or renewing the residence permits by the ruling Ministry of the Interior, which led to interventions of the ombudswoman (Public Defender of Rights, 2016). Similarly, the non-transparent and insufficiently functional Visapoint registration system at the Czech embassies in some countries of origin restrained many individuals from entry to the Czech Republic or significantly postponed their application procedure over several years. The problem concerned, among others, Vietnamese applicants for family reunification (Public Defender of Rights, 2017).

Apart from these limitations, the Czech immigration law provides for a very restrictive definition of the family members, which affects most often the elderly EU nationals residing in the Czech Republic who need care of an adult family member who is not a Czech/EU national. Vice versa, non-EU migrant women, typically parents of an adult EU national's family member, would not be eligible for family reunification if they cannot prove that they are dependent on sustenance or necessary care provided by their child or his/her spouse and only desire to be in the vicinity of their closest relatives (Hradečná et al., 2016). Also, the mixed and unmarried couples struggle to get reunited in Czechia since they must overcome large discretionary powers of decision-making authorities who tend to assume the claimed relationship or marriage are conventional and thus subject to potential refusal of residence granting (Government of the Czech Republic, 2015).

On the other hand, the beneficiaries of family reunification schemes, mostly women, can change the purpose of their stay or divorce only after several years under Czech immigration law. Otherwise, any disruption of family ties with the sponsor may lead to the withdrawal of their residence permit. The residence permit of family members is hence dependent on the recognised family ties, which reinforces dependency of migrant women on their partners and their vulnerability to violation of rights, sometimes even to cases of domestic violence. Nowadays, the law provides for some protection rules within the decision-making of immigration bodies to ensure a more sustainable status for these family members (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015, Hradečná et al, 2016).

According to the MIPLEX study, little has been done by the government to improve access to rights and long-term settlement for immigrants over the last five years (Migration Policy Group, 2020). Therefore, many migrants, often women, frequently seek for permanent residence status to enjoy similar rights as the Czech citizens, especially the unlimited access to the labour market and guarantee of acquiring all social rights, including access to the public healthcare system (Government of the Czech Republic, 2016). However, in order to get the permanent residence, migrants must meet quite strict conditions proving a certain level of integration to the society and rely on large discretionary power of the ruling authorities. Women most often struggle to meet the requirements of language proficiency at the level A2 and economic self-sufficiency. These barriers concern also the EU nationals who are excluded from the state integration measures, thus, have no access to some public services such as free legal counselling or Czech language courses (Consortium, 2015).

#### **E.4. Triple invisibility of migrant women at the labour market**

The participation in the labour market constitutes one of the most efficient means of migrants' integration into society, so is the case for women. Since the adhesion of the Czech Republic to the EU, the economic migration has prevailed among the immigration motives, which resulted in high participation of migrants at the labour market, both men and women. The unemployment rates of foreign nationals are either lower (for EU-nationals) or equivalent (for non-EU nationals) compared to the unemployment of native-born population, both for men and women. The unemployment rate of migrant women in the Czech Republic has even decreased the most over ten years from 2007 to 2017 thorough the EU 25 (OECD, 2017).

Despite the favourable economic conditions of the country, migrant women, just like women from the majority society, more often work on a short-term and uncertain employment contract, they have lower pay for comparable jobs as well as lower or no pensions. While gender inequality in the workforce effects all women in the Czech Republic, it is elevated for migrant and minority women by inequalities between the mainstream and minority society as well as by structural inequalities and legislative barriers regarding access of migrants to employment (Hradečná et al., 2016).

Anthropologist Petra Ezzeddine (2011) explains the position of migrant women in the labour market through the *theory of triple invisibility*, based on which migrant women in local and global markets are invisible at three levels – class, ethnicity and gender. This “invisibility” causes their professional segmentation into several sectors of the economy, such as the textile industry, cleaning and hospitality services, or care and domestic work (Mathéová, 2016). It is then very difficult to move to another sector of the economy, even if they complete re-training and language courses. Further barriers to their professional growth lay in the bureaucratically demanding process for recognition of foreign qualification or education and lack of support in childcare (Leontiyeva and Pokorná, 2014). In result, migrant women often do not use their qualification, can find only low-skilled positions and are frequently subject to poor working conditions, exploitation from employers (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015).

Particularly vulnerable is the situation of migrant women performing domestic and care work, which happens mostly as part of shadow economy due to unregulated status of work. The most affected are those who live in the same household with their employers where it is extremely difficult to control the compliance with labour law regulations or to seek for protection against any abuse (Ezzeddine and Semerák, 2014). Lately, researchers observe increasing commoditization of the care work for seniors to be performed by Ukrainian migrant women. This trend reflects incapability of the Czech social system to provide such adequate care within its own structures (Ezzeddine, 2019). In this context, it seems unfortunate that the Czech government refused to ratify the ILO Convention on Decent Work for Domestic Workers, the adoption of which would strengthen the rights of migrants and their possibilities to enforce them (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015).

Performing precarious work combined with discrimination hinder migrant women from finding balance between their work and family life. Reports (OPU, 2016) indicate for example cases when childcare facilities refuse to enrol migrant children. As for middle-aged women, this group struggles to remain in the labour market until the retirement age due to multiple discrimination, including ageism. Being under pressure to financially support their adolescent children and to manage transnational care for sick parents in the country of origin, they are often willing to accept any job, regardless of their level of education, their original occupation and also their employment rights. On the contrary, it is not exceptional when retired senior women with migrant background have to return to work because of extremely low retirement pension they receive in consequence of inefficient coordination of social security systems between the Czech Republic and the countries of origin (Hradečná et al., 2016). To avoid the trap of occupying the low skilled positions in the so-called ethnicised sectors, young Vietnamese migrants move between their two identities to overcome potential disadvantages and seek to acquire the highest possible education and position in prestigious professions (Formánková and Lopatková, 2018).

In general, the above described situations demonstrate that the Czech Republic still needs far to go for gender equality in its social and employment policies and should adopt targeted measures according to the Goal 5.4 – *Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate* and 5.a – *Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.*

### E.5. Barriers and potentials of migrant women's civil participation

The Czech integration strategy states that “*measures must be taken to support the orientation of migrants in society, taking into account the needs of women*” – e. g. to support migrants' involvement in local community events (Government of the Czech Republic, 2016). Even though this strategic goal is not followed by further concrete measures, the policy has overcome the previous consideration of migrant women as passive followers of migrant men or victims of human trafficking, or only in connection with their reproductive role (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015). Most often migrant women can experience slower integration into host society if they arrive to the country as family member of their spouses who had already integrated to some extent earlier. Ignorant of the language and the Czech environment, the women may remain strongly dependent on their spouses, lose the working habits, which disrupts their integration potential in a long run (OPU, 2016). On the other hand, immigration can be emancipatory, in particular for women who gain thanks to this experience economic independence (e. g. Ukrainian mothers chose migration as a strategy to leave a dysfunctional or even violent relationship) (Formánková and Lopatková, 2019).

The non-profit organisations also had some stereotypical views of migrant women when they organised retraining courses for them (Czech Women's Lobby, 2015). Significantly supportive in increasing sensitivity of these organizations to gender have been projects funded roughly since 2012 from the European Social Fund or Norway Grants, and specifically intended for migrant women (Hradečná et al., 2016). This helped to gradually expand involvement of migrants in the activities of non-profit sector and social enterprises, for example in the provision of intercultural work services and community interpreting, or in organizing community events. Besides that, volunteering represents the most common form of civic participation of foreigners, whether formal or informal. The struggle is that available funding resources are limited and do not provide for sustainable projects with long-term continuity. Another challenge pertains to the attitude of migrants as such who do not take much civic initiatives, neither they make much use of civil society services for improving their position. The younger migrant generations bring a certain shift to this trend by establishing their own civil society organizations, among which the entities led by migrant women focus mainly on health issues, motherhood and childcare. Some migrant women have been also hired at some local authorities in the Prague metropolis as focal points for migrant integration agenda (Čech Valentová in: Consortium, 2018).

**Recommendations:**

- The Updated Policy for Integration of Immigrants, the Government Strategy for Equality of Men and Women and any other relevant strategies should address all the needs of migrants with tailored policies and the positive actions approach. All measures on migrant integration should follow a sex-disaggregated approach and gender mainstreaming. Protection measures specifically applying to migrant women are required in the areas of reproductive rights and gender-based violence.
- There is a constant need to systematically push for adopting legislative commitments related to the rights of migrant workers. It would be appropriate to professionalise and remunerate the work by establishing adequate minimum wages and stipulating the rights and protection provided by the Labour Code in selected industries (care and domestic work, agriculture or restaurant industry) where migrant women often work in precarious conditions.
- More emphasis should be put on qualification recognition, validating skills and upskilling of those migrants working below their skill level. It is also crucial to direct resources to supporting the women with the history of employment and established skills in entering the job market before they have lost these skills. Integration measures, labour market policies and programmes should also target low-skilled, older and long-term unemployed women to increase their chances of entering the labour market and practice meaningful social participation in the Czech society (i. e. by means of mentoring, assisted volunteering, pre-employment training, job placements, specialised language courses, vocational training, etc.).
- Migration data disaggregated by sex, age, ethnicity and migration status must be available for policymakers to be able to develop evidence-based responses and policies as well as to facilitate the monitoring of the integration outcomes of migrants/refugees.
- It is also essential to have the required financial support, both from the European funds as well as from the governmental resources. According to the European Economic and Social Committee, one of the conditions for a better integration of migrant women into the labour market (and beyond) is to ensure that at least 50% of financial instruments earmarked for integration of immigrants is allocated to the integration of women.

## CONCLUSIONS

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“Leave no one behind” is the guiding principle of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Many targets in the Agenda are relevant to migration or mobility, including Goal 10.7 to *facilitate orderly, safe, regular, and responsible migration*, Goal 4.b on *the expansion of transnational scholarship programmes*, Goal 8.8 regarding *the protection of migrants’ labour rights*, and Goal 10.c, which seeks to *reduce the fees for sending remittances to countries of origin*.

Progress and obstacles to the implementation of Agenda 2030 are measured by 169 targets and 244 indicators that specify the content of 17 goals. Indicators do not reflect the specific situation of population groups hence any migration-specific disadvantages may remain hidden behind statistical averages. For instance, Goal 5.6 calls for universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights. Hence it does not create any pressure for governments to address the vulnerability of migrants regarding sexual and reproductive health and especially for female migrants, to increase their access to related health-care services. But universal access is only achievable if migrants are included. The 2030 Agenda promises to leave no one behind hence the migrant population needs to be systematically included in the review of targets. Goal 17.18 emphasizes building the local and national capacity to improve migration data in the future. Monitoring the local and national integration process of immigrants with better data and dedicated financial resources together with publishing data on a regular basis on migration-related topics is an essential prerequisite for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda. Czech institutions collect considerable amounts of data on immigrants, but lack the mechanisms to centralize, disaggregate and cross reference all data collected from various branches of the government. The timely, reliable, and comparable data disaggregated by migratory status are necessary to guide policy makers in implementing plans of action to tackle migration and integration issues.

The Czech Republic currently has data available to measure the progress in 100 out of 169 targets. As of 2019, the Czech Republic has achieved 14 targets and many of the remaining distances to targets are small (*Table 7*). For example, targets currently achieved relate to water stress and water cooperation across borders (targets 6.4 and 6.5), a low unemployment rate (target 8.5) and low government debt (target 17.1). However, the Czech Republic is still far in meeting 4% of the targets (i.e. more than 3 standardised distances away). These include targets relating to tobacco consumption (3.a), inequalities in education (4.5), and the share of women in parliament (5.5).

When aggregated at the Goal level, the Czech Republic is on average closest to achieving goals on Water and Biodiversity (goals 6 and 15), Poverty Eradication (goal 1) and Reducing Inequality (goal 10). On these goals, the Czech Republic outperforms relative to the OECD average. Conversely, the Czech Republic is furthest from reaching the goal on Gender Equality (goal 5), Education (goal 4), Infrastructure (goal 9) and Climate (goals 13). It is important to underscore that this assessment is based on currently available data and a data gaps exists for example on Sustainable Production and Reducing Inequality (goals 12 and 10). Results could change if a more complete data set were available.

Many immigrants in the Czech Republic are becoming permanent residence permit holders, which signals a shift from a temporary and fluctuating nature of migration towards one in which immigrants more often settle. The suggested priorities that Czech policy-makers should focus on are comprised of access to basic state services in education and health care; employment and the protection of workers' rights; enforcement of gender equality; anti-discrimination measures; the containment of xenophobic violence; and access to information.

Sustainable Development Goals were adopted in 2015 to improve people's lives now and in the future. The Agenda states that "Targets are defined as aspirational and global, with each government setting its own national targets guided by the global level of ambition but taking into account national circumstances". This study presents the initial exploration of key strengths and weaknesses in the national processes across the goals and targets relevant for migration. A deeper analysis of trends could be considered for future work.

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## LIST OF TABLES

**Table 1: Recommendation to integration policy, 2019**

Area	Evaluation	Recommendations
Labour market mobility	Halfway favourable	Migrant workers may get trapped in lower-quality precarious jobs because, while they have opportunities to work, they face obstacles to access support and targeted trainings to improve their skills and careers
Family reunification	Slightly favourable	Separated families have right to reunite, if they can meet tougher requirements introduced in 2013
Education	Slightly favourable	Czechia leads Central Europe by improving its support to teachers and immigrant pupils since 2015, but more focus is needed on access, segregation and intercultural education
Health	Slightly favourable	Czechia leads Central Europe by taking the 1st steps to improve health information for migrants, but this support is ad hoc and access is limited
Political participation	Unfavourable	A major area of weakness across Central Europe, immigrant groups in Czechia receive some funding, but limited opportunities to be informed, consulted or active in public life
Permanent residence	Halfway favourable	Non-EU residents can settle long-term, but would benefit from more flexible requirements and more secure status
Access to nationality	Slightly unfavourable	A major area of weakness across Central Europe, since 2013, restrictive requirements bar many immigrants and Czech-born children from acquiring dual nationality and common sense of belonging
Anti-discrimination	Slightly favourable	Potential victims of discrimination have limited awareness and trust of Czechia's below-average 2009 Law, which is relatively young and weak, with gaps in law and weak equality body and policies

Source: [Mipex.eu](http://Mipex.eu)

**Table 2: The enrolment of foreign pupils and students by type of school and citizenship, 2019/20**

School type	Foreigners enrolled	% of total	The origin of foreign pupils and students			
			Slovakia	EU28	Other Europe	Other countries
Kindergartens	11 942	3.3	2 053	1 486	4 269	4 134
Primary schools	26 527	2.8	5 418	2 907	10 456	7 746
Secondary schools	9 715	2.2	1 880	760	4 453	2 622
High vocational schools	732	4.3	270	18	340	104
University	46 441	16.1	21 105	4 235	11 476	9 625

Source: **Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport**

**Table 3: Indicators of poverty and social deprivations by the country of birth, 2018**

Indicator	Country of birth		
	Czech	EU	TCN
At-risk-of-income poverty	0.09	0.11	0.15
Difficulty or great difficulty to make ends meet	0.16	0.19	0.21
Unexpected financial expenses are problem	0.23	0.28	0.28
Housing cost overburden rate	0.13	0.20	0.29
Overcrowded household	0.17	0.19	0.23
Cannot afford one-week holiday away from home	0.21	0.25	0.22

Source: **Authors' elaboration based on SILC**

**Table 4: Employment by occupation categories, 2018**

ISCO	Czech nationals	%	EU nationals	%	TCN	%	TCN/ CZ	TCN/ EU
1	244 996	5%	11 190	3%	5 044	2%	0.5	0.8
2	851 464	16%	42 834	12%	16 598	8%	0.5	0.7
3	914 984	17%	28 829	8%	8 970	4%	0.3	0.6
4	498 915	9%	22 173	6%	9 874	5%	0.5	0.8
5	822 747	16%	28 317	8%	28 975	14%	0.9	1.9
6	66 326	1%	1 311	0%	1 202	1%	0.5	1.7
7	864 840	16%	45 818	13%	19 503	10%	0.6	0.8
8	726 978	14%	81 851	22%	43 554	22%	1.6	1.0
9	287 094	5%	103 632	28%	68 638	34%	6.2	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>5 278 344</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>365 955</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>202 358</b>	<b>1</b>		

Source: Czech Statistical Office database

Note: ISCO1 – Legislators, senior officials and managers; ISCO2 – Professionals; ISCO3 – Technicians and associate professionals; ISCO4 – Clerks; ISCO5 – Service workers and shop and market sales workers; ISCO6 – Skilled agricultural and fishery workers; ISCO7 – Craft and related trades workers; ISCO8 – Plant and machine operators and assemblers; ISCO9 – Elementary occupations.

**Table 5: Where migrants work – sector of employment, 2018**

Sector	Czech	%	EU	%	TCN	%	TCN/ Czech	TCN/ EU
Manufacturing	1 458 434	28%	118 028	32%	49 666	25%	0.9	0.8
Administrative and support service	130 894	2%	65 267	18%	34 548	18%	7.1	1
Wholesale and retail trade	615 589	12%	34 520	9%	21 744	11%	0.9	1.2
Construction	383 976	7%	29 447	8%	22 565	11%	1.6	1.4
Professional, scientific and technical activity	266 559	5%	24 792	7%	8 129	4%	0.8	0.6
Transportation and storage	328 193	6%	18 089	5%	10 923	6%	0.9	1.1
Accommodation and food service	187 270	4%	9 932	3%	17 719	9%	2.5	3.3
Information and communication	169 751	3%	16 737	5%	7 667	4%	1.2	0.9
Other	1 712 308	33%	48 717	13%	23 604	12%		
<b>Total</b>	<b>5 252 974</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>365 529</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>196 565</b>	<b>100%</b>		

Source: Czech Statistical Office database

Note: Sectors with at least 3% of foreign workers are listed separately.

**Table 6: Working conditions by country of birth**

	Czechia	EU-28	Ukraine	Vietnam	Russia	Other TCN
Female	0.49	0.46	0.55	0.49	0.59	0.49
Lower-secondary education	0.08	0.15	0.17	0.53	0.14	0.08
Upper-secondary education	0.33	0.3	0.28	0.15	0.01	0.18
Post-secondary education	0.37	0.27	0.37	0.25	0.31	0.25
Tertiary education	0.22	0.29	0.19	0.07	0.54	0.49
Czech citizenship	1	0.49	0.29	0.3	0.21	0.51
YSM 0-5		0.16	0.2	0.03	0.18	0.17
YSM 6-10		0.16	0.25	0.11	0.39	0.22
YSM 10+		0.69	0.55	0.86	0.42	0.61
Participation rate	0.8	0.8	0.87	0.9	0.75	0.8
Self-employment	0.12	0.13	0.25	0.57	0.25	0.25
High skilled occupation	0.38	0.39	0.18	0.04	0.36	0.5
Medium skilled occupation	0.56	0.54	0.66	0.85	0.47	0.41
Low skilled occupation	0.05	0.07	0.16	0.11	0.17	0.09
Full-time employment	0.94	0.95	0.96	0.89	0.71	0.92
Permanent contract	0.92	0.86	0.85	0.96	0.81	0.91
Agency work	0.01	0.04	0.12	0.18	0.18	0.07
Working hours	40.33	40.08	41.95	46.94	35.87	40.66
Desired hours	38.54	38.29	40.58	44.32	32.96	38.03
Firm size 1-10	0.3	0.29	0.37	0.94	0.43	0.46
Firm size 11-50	0.32	0.23	0.22	0	0.37	0.16
Firm size 50+	0.38	0.48	0.41	0.06	0.2	0.38

Source: **Authors' calculations based on Czech Labour Force Survey data 2018**

Note: **Sample includes employed persons. Three occupational groups by the skill intensity: low (ISCO code 9), middle (ISCO codes 4, 5, 6, 7, 8) and high (ISCO codes 1, 2, 3). YSM indicates years since migration. Population weights are applied.**

**Table 7: Average distance from Agenda 2030 targets, by indicator**

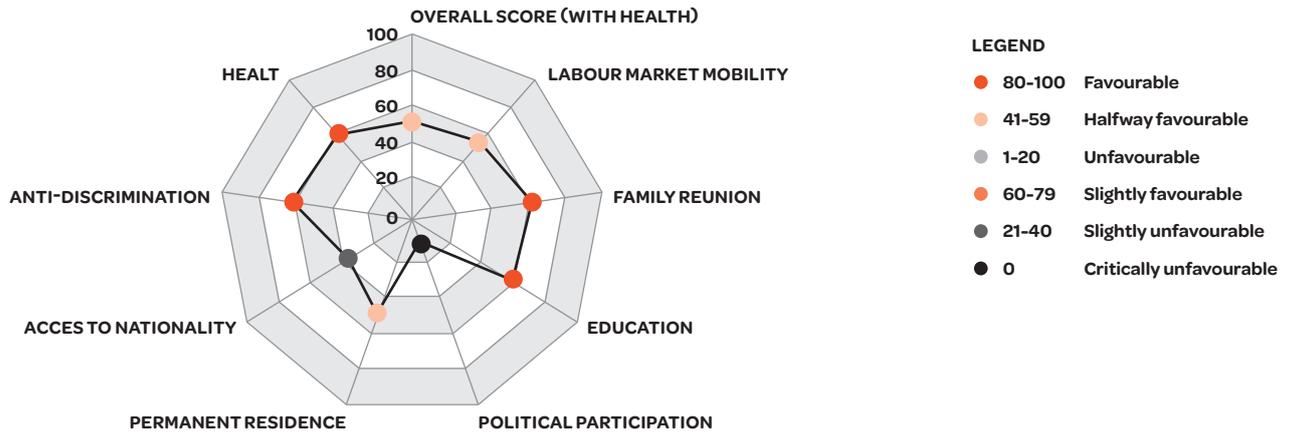
	<b>Indicator</b>	<b>Distance</b>
1.1.1	Proportion of population below international poverty line	0.00
2.1.1	Prevalence of undernourishment	0.00
3.1.1	Maternal mortality ratio	0.00
3.2.1	Infant mortality rate	0.00
3.2.2	Neonatal mortality rate	0.00
6.5.2	Proportion of river and lake basins with an operational arrangement for water cooperation	0.00
7.1.1	Proportion of population with access to electricity	0.00
7.1.2	Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology	0.00
8.5.2	Unemployment rate (15 – 64)	0.00
15.1.1	Land area covered by trees	0.00
15.2.1	Intensity of use of forest resources	0.00
16.10.2	Countries that adopt and implement guarantees for public access to information	0.00
16.3.2	Unsentenced detainees as a proportion of overall prison population	0.00
16.9.1	Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority	0.00
17.1.2	Net lending/net borrowing of general government	0.00
6.4.2	Water stress	0.00
9.c.1	Proportion of population covered by a mobile network	0.02
15.4.1	Average proportion of Mountain Key Biodiversity Areas (KBAs) covered by protected areas	0.03
1.2.1	Relative income poverty rate	0.04
3.8.2	Proportion of population with large household expenditures on health (greater than 25%)	0.07
15.4.2	Mountain Green Cover Index	0.13
16.1.1	Deaths from assault	0.16
3.1.2	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	0.17
3.3.1	Incidence of AIDS	0.18
11.1.1	Dwellings with access to basic sanitation	0.18
6.1.1	Population with access to improved drinking water sources	0.23
3.3.4	Hepatitis B incidence	0.25
3.3.2	Death rate due to Tuberculosis	0.27
15.5.1	Red List Index	0.32
6.4.1	GDP per unit of freshwater abstraction	0.33
8.8.1	Non-fatal occupational injuries among employees, by sex (per 100,000 employees)	0.47
6.6.1	Average annual change in water surface	0.50
8.4.2	Domestic material consumption per GDP	0.51
3.9.2	Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (per 100,000 population)	0.60
3.d.1	Average of 13 International Health Regulations (IHR) core capacities	0.66
10.1.1	Growth rates difference among the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population	0.68
2.5.2	Proportion of local breeds classified as known being not at risk	0.75
5.b.1	Proportion of women using the Internet	0.78
6.3.1	Population not connected to public sewage treatment	0.81
3.c.1	Physicians density	0.82
3.b.1	Proportion of the target population with access to DTP3, MCV2 and PCV3	0.82
7.3.1	Energy intensity, TPES per capita	0.91
3.7.2	Adolescent fertility rate	0.94
8.1.1	15 years average annual growth rate of real GDP per capita	0.95
3.9.3	Mortality from accidental poisoning	0.97
2.5.1	Proportion of local breeds with genetic material stored	1.02
12.4.1	Compliance with the Montreal Protocol, the Basel, the Rotterdam/the Stockholm Convention	1.05
11.6.2	Mean population exposure to PM2.5 in metropolitan areas	1.08
2.1.2	Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the adult population	1.11

	Indicator	Distance
4.6.1	Proportion of adults achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional numeracy skills	1.11
8.2.1	15 years average annual growth rate of real GDP per hours worked	1.16
17.8.1	Share of the population using internet – last 3 months	1.17
5.5.2	Gender gap in the share of employed who are managers	1.20
6.2.1	Population with access to improved sanitation	1.24
16.5.1	Share of the population having confidence in national government	1.28
3.6.1	Death rate due to road traffic injuries	1.32
8.10.2	Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a financial institution	1.34
17.6.2	Total fixed broadband subscriptions per 100 inhabitants	1.34
4.3.1	Participation rate of adults in formal and non-formal education	1.40
4.2.2	Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)	1.40
9.5.1	Gross domestic expenditure on R&D as a percentage of GDP	1.47
8.6.1	Proportion of youth (aged 15–29 years) not in education, employment or training	1.49
11.6.1	Material recovery rate of municipal waste (recycling and composting)	1.52
15.1.2	Protected areas as a share of total land	1.56
3.8.1	Universal health coverage (UHC) service coverage index	1.61
9.5.2	Researchers per capita	1.68
15.6.1	Adopted legislative, and policy frameworks to ensure fair and equitable sharing of benefits	1.71
2.4.1	Nutrient balance (nitrogen, absolute value)	1.77
11.3.1	Average annual change in built area per capita	1.82
3.4.1	Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease	1.84
7.2.1	Renewable energy share in the total electricity generation	1.84
17.15.1	Use of country-owned results frameworks and planning tools by providers of development cooperation	1.96
17.16.1	Effectiveness monitoring frameworks that support the achievement of the sustainable development goals	1.97
8.5.1	Average hourly earnings of managers	2.00
8.10.1	Number of commercial bank branches and of ATMs per 100,000 adults	2.02
4.1.1	Proportion of 15 year-olds achieving at least PISA level 2 in mathematics	2.05
4.4.1	Proportion of adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills	2.06
3.5.2	Alcohol consumption per capita	2.18
3.4.2	Death from intentional self-harm	2.20
1.3.1	Share of the population living below the relative poverty threshold receiving minimum income benefits	2.24
4.c.1	Proportion of teachers who received in-service training in the last 12 months	2.29
13.2.1	Production-based CO2 productivity	2.33
9.4.1	Carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combustion per unit of GDP	2.40
17.2.1	Net official development assistance to developing and least developed countries as a percentage of GNI	2.44
16.1.4	Share of population feeling safe when walking alone at night	2.45
2.2.2	Obesity rate	2.54
16.7.2	External political efficacy	2.54
3.9.1	Age-standardized mortality rate attributed to ambient air pollution (deaths per 100,000 population)	2.60
5.2.1	Proportion of women and girls subjected to physical and sexual violence by an intimate partner	2.71
5.5.1	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	3.04
4.5.1	Socio-economic parity index (based on PISA ESCS Index)	3.42
5.1.1	Existence of legal frameworks governing gender equality	3.93
3.a.1	Tobacco consumption	4.11
16.a.1	Existence of independent national human rights institutions in compliance with the Paris Principles	4.14

Source: See detailed metadata online at [www.oecd.org/sdd/OECD-Measuring-Distance-to-SDGs-Targets-Metadata.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/sdd/OECD-Measuring-Distance-to-SDGs-Targets-Metadata.pdf), [dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933963063](https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933963063)

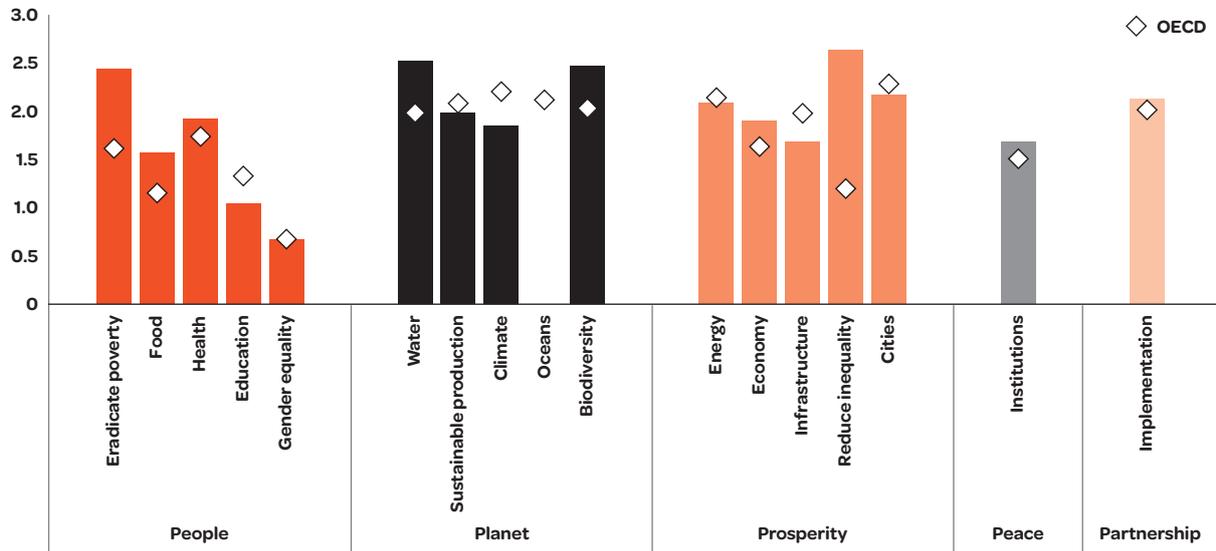
Note: The average distance to reach each target is measured in standardised units with 0 indicating that the target has already been achieved. Only available indicators are shown.

Figure 1: Evaluation of integration policy in the Czech Republic in different domains, 2019



Source: Mipex.eu

Figure 2: The Czech Republic's distance from targets, by goal



Source: See detailed metadata online at [www.oecd.org/sdd/OECD-Measuring-Distance-to-SDGs-Targets-Metadata.pdf](http://www.oecd.org/sdd/OECD-Measuring-Distance-to-SDGs-Targets-Metadata.pdf), [dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933963082](https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888933963082)

Note: The chart shows the average distances to reach each goal measured in standardised units with 0 indicating that the target has already been achieved. Bars show the current level of achievement of the Czech Republic based on available data, and diamonds show the OECD average distance. Targets are clustered by goal, and goals are clustered according to 5Ps (People, Planet, Prosperity, Peace, Partnership) of the 2030 Agenda.



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**Governance of Migrant Integration in the Czech Republic:**  
**Monitoring report on progress towards**  
**the 2030 Agenda in relation to migration**

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