



A persisting concern: anti-Gypsyism as a barrier to Roma inclusion



FRA

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A persisting concern: anti-Gypsyism as a barrier to Roma inclusion

Foreword

The scourge of anti-Gypsyism has proven to be a formidable barrier to efforts to improve the life chances and living standards for Roma, with many facing discrimination, harassment and hate crime because of their ethnic origin. As a result, significant parts of the Roma population continue to struggle with challenges we like to believe no longer exist in the EU. Homes without running water or electricity, lack of health insurance, and even hunger continue to be realities for unacceptable shares of the Roma community in one of the richest regions in the world.

The EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) prepared this report in response to a request from the European Parliament to examine how persistent anti-Gypsyism affects Roma inclusion efforts across the EU. The report draws on hard data collected by FRA through its large-scale surveys conducted in 2016 and 2011 in those Member States where the majority of Roma live. This evidence shows that Member States' investments to reduce Roma people's poverty levels, improve their access to employment, ensure their right to adequate housing and quality education, and tackle anti-Gypsyism, did not achieve the goals set in the EU Framework of April 2011.

The report also reviews the data from a global perspective. It looks at how Roma in EU countries fare compared to the general population with respect to select United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. Focusing on a number of specific goals related to education, access to clean water and employment, our analysis highlights glaring inequalities within the EU between Roma and the general population.

The inability – or unwillingness – to address anti-Gypsyism in order to ensure equal opportunities for Roma is unacceptable. But an important opportunity lies ahead, as the 2011 EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies completes its cycle in 2020 and the EU will soon need to review it. Our analysis makes clear that the process of Roma inclusion cannot continue as 'business as usual'. It requires an honest and open debate on failures and a renewed stronger political commitment to fulfil the promise of the EU Framework "to make a tangible difference to Roma people's lives". Only with such commitment will it be possible to tackle the pervasive phenomenon of anti-Gypsyism and improve the dire realities Roma people continue to encounter.

Michael O'Flaherty
Director

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Introduction

Despite ambitious initiatives, the fundamental rights situation of Roma in the European Union (EU) remains profoundly troubling. The persisting phenomenon of anti-Gypsyism has proven to be a barrier to efforts to improve the life chances and living standards for Roma. Many continue to face discrimination, harassment and hate crime because of their ethnic origin. As a result, significant parts of the Roma population struggle with challenges – homes without running water or electricity, lack of health insurance, or even hunger – that one would believe no longer exist in the EU. This report examines the persisting phenomenon of anti-Gypsyism and its effect on Roma inclusion efforts.

In June 2011, the European Council endorsed the European Commission's proposal for an EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies up to 2020.¹ This proposal, first of all, calls on EU Member States to ensure that Roma are treated like any other EU citizen with equal access to all fundamental rights as enshrined in the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights. In addition, it urges action to break the vicious cycle of poverty passed on from one generation to the next. The communication spells out ambitious EU-wide goals for Roma integration to be achieved not just at aggregate, national level, but also across individual regions and localities. As the European Commission pointed out, these can only be reached with a clear commitment from Member States and national, regional and local authorities, coupled with the active involvement of Roma civil society organisations. Following the communication, Member States prepared and adopted their respective National Roma Integration Strategies or sets of policy measures.

In December 2013, the Employment, Social Policy, Health and Consumer Affairs Council of the EU went a step further by adopting a Recommendation on effective Roma integration measures in the Member States (the 2013 Council Recommendation), which provides detailed guidance on implementing Roma integration measures and monitoring. The first substantive policy issue that the 2013 Council Recommendation addresses concerns the promotion of full equality for Roma in practice. In this context, Member States were asked to “take effective policy measures to ensure their equal treatment and the respect of their fundamental rights, including equal access to education, employment,

healthcare and housing [...] paying special attention to the gender dimension”.²

On 25 October 2017, the European Parliament adopted a resolution on fundamental rights aspects in Roma integration in the EU. The resolution calls on the EU, the European Commission and the Member States to take bold action against anti-Gypsyism, as well as on the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights to prepare a study on anti-Gypsyism and focus on anti-Gypsyism in its work on Roma.³

Equality and non-discrimination of Roma: EU and international legal frameworks

EU Member States are bound by the provisions on equality and non-discrimination enshrined in international human rights law, in particular by the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD); the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR); the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR); the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) (formally the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms); and the European Social Charter (ESC), alongside a range of Council of Europe recommendations and resolutions produced over the past 50 years by Council of Europe bodies.

Equality and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities, are founding values of the European Union, as enshrined in Article 2 of the Treaty on European Union (TEU). Combating discrimination and social exclusion is one of the main aims of the European Union, set out in Article 3 of the TEU.

Moreover, the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU) provides that, in defining and implementing its policies and activities, the Union shall aim to combat discrimination based on racial or ethnic origin (Article 10). It shall also take into account requirements linked to the promotion of a high level of employment, the guarantee of adequate social protection, the fight against social exclusion and a high level of education, training and protection of human health (Article 9).

1 The term ‘Roma and Travellers’ is used at the Council of Europe to encompass the wide diversity of the groups covered by the Council of Europe’s work in this field: on the one hand a) Roma, Sinti/Manush, Calé, Kaale, Romanichals, Boyash/Rudari; b) Balkan Egyptians (Egyptians and Ashkali); c) Eastern groups (Dom, Lom and Abdal); and, on the other hand, groups such as Travellers, Yenish, and the populations designated under the administrative term ‘Gens du voyage’, as well as persons who identify themselves as Gypsies.

2 For the full text of the recommendation, see the [Council’s website](#).
3 Committee on Civil Liberties, Justice and Home Affairs (2017), *Fundamental rights aspects in Roma integration in the EU: fighting anti-Gypsyism. European Parliament resolution of 25 October 2017 on fundamental rights aspects in Roma integration in the EU: fighting anti-Gypsyism (2017/2038(INI))*, P8_TA-PROV(2017)0413.

Article 21 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights prohibits discrimination based on any ground, such as sex, race, colour, ethnic or social origin, genetic features, language, or membership of a national minority.

Secondary EU law also provides protection against racial or ethnic discrimination and obliges Member States to effectively combat these phenomena, namely: Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin and Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law.

The preamble of the 2013 Council Recommendation on effective Roma integration measures in the Member States refers to this legal framework. In so doing, it places discrimination against (and marginalisation of) Roma firmly within a fundamental rights framework acknowledging the obligation of the Union and its Member States, as 'duty bearers', to uphold the fundamental rights of Roma people in light of the violations motivated by anti-Gypsyism, which FRA's surveys have documented to a great extent.

On terminology: anti-Gypsyism

The European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) of the Council of Europe defines anti-Gypsyism as a "specific form of racism, an ideology founded on racial superiority, a form of dehumanisation and institutional racism nurtured by historical discrimination, which is expressed, among others, by violence, hate speech, exploitation, stigmatisation and the most blatant kind of discrimination".

See ECRI (2011), On Combating Anti-Gypsyism and Discrimination against Roma, September 2011. Several spellings of "anti-Gypsyism" are in use. While FRA's report uses ECRI's approach, the agency welcomes an inclusive debate on the issue, such as the discussion initiated by the Alliance against Antigypsyism – summarised in its reference paper.

Gauging progress

This report helps gauge the impact of the EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies so far, providing useful evidence for the upcoming debate on future EU policy on Roma inclusion.

The analysis builds on the understanding of anti-Gypsyism as a key **structural** driver of Roma exclusion that undermines the **process** intended to decrease Roma deprivation. Unless tackled explicitly, anti-Gypsyism waters down the **measures** adopted in the specific thematic areas and dramatically reduces the prospect of improving **outcomes** in various areas of life (education, employment, healthcare, or housing). This reinforces the generational deprivation of Roma and confines them to the margins of society, further exacerbating prejudice and discrimination.

This is the complex context in which the specific measures intending to break the vicious cycle of Roma exclusion need to be implemented and their results monitored. The report's structure reflects this complexity. It starts with an overview of the available indicators of key manifestations of anti-Gypsyism, namely discrimination, harassment and hate crime against Roma. It then examines the situation of Roma in education, employment, poverty, healthcare and housing – the core priority areas in which anti-Gypsyism has had a negative toll on progress.

The concluding chapter of the report frames the issue of Roma exclusion and deprivation in a broader – global – context. We calculate selected United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals indicators for Roma and present them in the context of global rankings to identify the countries in which average living standards are closest to the living standards of Roma in the EU. The findings suggest that even in developed economies and mature democracies (as the EU) significant parts of the population struggle with challenges usually associated with low income countries. Future Roma inclusion efforts cannot afford to ignore this troubling reality.



FRA ACTIVITY**Generating data on the fundamental rights situation of Roma**

In 2016, FRA completed the Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EU-MIDIS II). The survey incorporates the second wave of the agency's Roma-targeted survey, which collected information on almost 34,000 persons living in Roma households in nine Member States: Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Spain.

EU-MIDIS I, conducted in 2008, was the first effort to provide comparative evidence on the Roma's situation. FRA also carried out a Roma pilot survey in 2011, which covered 11 Member States (the countries specified above as well as France, Italy and Poland). This report draws on data from both EU-MIDIS II and the 2011 Roma survey. The 2011 Roma data were weighted to ensure comparability with the 2016 data set. This is why the indicators for 2011 in the current report diverge from those published in earlier FRA publications analysing data from the 2011 Roma survey.

For more information, see FRA (2016), Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EU-MIDIS II): Roma – Selected findings, Publications Office of the European Union (Publications Office), Luxembourg, 2016; and FRA (2014), Roma survey – Data in focus: Discrimination against and living conditions of Roma women in 11 EU Member States, Publications Office, Luxembourg, 2014.

Key findings and FRA opinions

The following FRA opinions are based on the statistically robust evidence collected in the agency's surveys. They are informed by the obligations set out in international human rights instruments that are highlighted in the introduction. The opinions provide guidance for improving respect for fundamental rights across the EU, outlining steps to take to more potently implement the 2013 Council Recommendation on effective Roma integration measures in the Member States. Such measures can be implemented in different ways, tailored to national and local specificities to take into account the differences in the situation of Roma across the EU countries presented in this report. They should be developed and implemented based on the Common Basic Principles on Roma Inclusion,⁴ in particular Principles No. 1 (constructive, pragmatic and non-discriminatory policies), No. 2 (explicit but not exclusive targeting), No. 5 (awareness of the gender dimension) and No. 10 (active involvement of Roma). Bold and effective measures acknowledging and combating anti-Gypsyism should accompany any Roma inclusion strategy, measure or action. The opinions also refer to the United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The EU and its Member States are committed to implementing the Sustainable Development Agenda, which implies that its goals need to be reached for all EU citizens.

Discrimination, harassment and hate crime

The data indicate that the most heinous forms of anti-Gypsyism, hate-motivated crime and harassment, continue to hamper Roma inclusion. The results of the EU-MIDIS II survey, conducted in 2016, are worrying. They show that, despite several years of inclusion efforts, on average, one out of three Roma surveyed had experienced some form of harassment – either offensive or threatening comments in person, threats of violence in person, offensive gestures or inappropriate staring, offensive or threatening e-mails or text messages, or offensive comments about them online. More worryingly, four per cent experienced physical violence motivated by anti-Gypsyism – and, of those, only one in three reported this to any organisation, including the

police. This shows that insufficient attention has been paid to manifestations of anti-Gypsyism in the form of hate crime against Roma. Unsurprisingly, this diminishes Roma people's trust in their public institutions, in particular law enforcement and justice, seriously undermining social inclusion efforts.

FRA opinion 1

The existing evidence of wide-spread discrimination against Roma suggests that the Racial Equality Directive (2000/43/EU) is not effective – at least with respect to that particular group. Critical assessment by both the EU and the Member States is needed of why this is the case and what measures are required to remedy the existing situation.

FRA opinion 2

EU Member States and the EU should invest in monitoring and understanding anti-Gypsyism. Questions that would yield robust data for estimating the severity of anti-Gypsyism – as well as hostility towards other groups in vulnerable situations – should be asked regularly in the standard EU surveys (e.g. Eurobarometer). In-depth research applying comparable methodologies across countries should be encouraged to understand the complex drivers of anti-Gypsyism to inform policies to effectively address it.

FRA opinion 3

EU Member States should develop concrete measures to tackle hate crime and hate speech motivated by anti-Gypsyism. Such measures should ensure that Roma, like everyone else, are aware of and can benefit from the protection of the law against hate crime and hate speech. They should also ensure that law enforcement applies effective hate crime recording practices based on the principles endorsed by the EU High Level Group on combating racism, xenophobia and other forms of intolerance. National Roma integration strategies should include an explicit component on measures to tackle hate crime and harassment caused by anti-Gypsyism. This could include specific actions that law enforcement in cooperation with equality bodies could take to foster an environment where Roma, like everyone else, feel confident about reporting incidents of hate crime and discriminatory treatment, including discriminatory ethnic profiling, in the knowledge that their complaints will be taken seriously and followed up by the competent authorities.

FRA opinion 4

EU Member States should complement law enforcement with deliberate efforts to dismantle the social construct of the "Gypsy" and the association of Roma with marginalisation. Tens of thousands of Roma are qualified professionals, but they remain invisible because of the "Gypsy" stigma. Making the

4 The 10 Common Basic Principles on Roma Inclusion were annexed to the Council Conclusions of 8 June 2009. These are: 1) constructive, pragmatic and non-discriminatory policies; 2) explicit but not exclusive targeting; 3) inter-cultural approach; 4) aiming for the mainstream; 5) awareness of the gender dimension; 6) transfer of evidence-based policies; 7) use of EU instruments; 8) involvement of regional and local authorities; 9) involvement of civil society; and 10) active participation of Roma.

general population aware of their stories will boost the effectiveness of awareness-raising campaigns and will additionally motivate young Roma to embark on professional development paths.

Education

The data collected by FRA show that, while in some Member States Roma children's participation in education improved over time, the gap in educational attainment between Roma and non-Roma children remains high, especially beyond compulsory education. Encouragingly, between 2011 and 2016, participation in early childhood education increased in six out of the nine countries surveyed – but still lags behind the general population average. Improvements in participation in compulsory education were also encouraging, although it remains below the general population average in most countries. Also, between 2011 and 2016, the number of Roma pupils who left education at the level of secondary school on average decreased – from 87 % in 2011 to 68 % in 2016. In terms of experiences of direct discrimination, the overall share of Roma who felt discriminated against when in contact with schools has not changed since 2011 – totalling 14 % in 2016. Meanwhile, the proportion of Roma early school leavers compared to early school leavers in the general population across all countries surveyed remains unacceptably high. In respect to school segregation, the share of Roma attending classes where “all classmates are Roma” on average increased from 10 % in 2011 to 15 % in 2016 underlining the need for more decisive action in this area. Achieving this would also contribute to fulfilling Sustainable Development Goal No. 4: “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all”.

FRA opinion 5

EU Member States should prioritise measures to combat anti-Gypsyism in education by eliminating any form of school or class segregation of Roma in line with the 2013 Council Recommendation. To achieve this, the educational authorities should implement a wide range of measures actively involving local stakeholders, particularly Roma parents and children, as well as community organisations. Awareness-raising actions on anti-Gypsyism should particularly target parents, teachers and children from non-Roma backgrounds.

FRA opinion 6

EU Member States should ensure that Roma children receive high-quality teaching. Schools with large shares of Roma students should not be substandard educational facilities. Member States should provide the resources necessary for their refurbishment and supply them with modern equipment, particularly in terms of information technology. They should

also ensure teacher training to improve the quality of education provided to all children through, for example, project- and problem-based learning, on-the-job experience, community service learning, as well as by providing life-long learning opportunities. This can make these schools more attractive to non-Roma parents and reduce the phenomenon of ‘white flight’.

FRA opinion 7

EU Member States should consider taking measures explicitly targeting Roma students at every educational stage. Particular attention should be given to early childhood education and care, given its critical role in avoiding disadvantages at the early stages and fostering positive learning habits and social skills.

FRA opinion 8

EU Member States should adopt concrete measures to tackle early school leaving by Roma students – such as those proposed in the European Toolkit for Schools. In particular, they should accommodate Roma students' diversity and set challenging expectations based on the principle that quality education should fit the learner rather than requiring them to fit into an existing system.

FRA opinion 9

EU Member States should address the poverty- and severe-housing-deprivation-related difficulties many Roma children face at school. They should do so through measures that compensate, at least partially, for the legacy of historical deprivation that Roma children experience even today. Such measures could include individualised social and learning support at school and at home to offset the multiple disadvantages affecting Roma children and to boost their opportunities for an equal start; as well as providing educational scholarships through grant schemes explicitly targeting Roma students, or other forms of targeted support.

FRA opinion 10

EU Member States should integrate modules on Roma history and culture in teaching programmes in mainstream secondary education. This would not just boost Roma children and youngsters' self-esteem but would also be key to tackling anti-Gypsyism and the subconscious societal consensus to exclude Roma.

FRA opinion 11

EU Member States' educational authorities should monitor the enrolment, attendance and educational outcomes of Roma students at all educational levels. This would help determine the extent to which education systems currently meet their needs. They should also, as recommended by the Organisation

for Economic Co-operation and Development, set clear equity goals for their education systems and use relevant indicators to monitor achievement of these goals.

Poverty

Poverty is both an outcome and a driver of exclusion in education, employment, health and housing. A key target of the EU 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth is to lift 20 million people out of risk of poverty; addressing poverty among Roma would be an important contribution to meeting this target. The data analysed in this report show that the EU Member States are still far from coming even close to that target with respect to their Roma citizens. With few exceptions, poverty rates among Roma have not declined between 2011 and 2016. An overwhelming proportion of Roma – on average, 80 % in the nine Member States surveyed in 2016 – still live at risk of poverty. Moreover, an average of 27 % of Roma live in households where at least one person had to go to bed hungry at least once in the previous month; in some Member States, this proportion is even higher.

This calls for poverty reduction policies that blend diverse approaches to fulfilling the rights and principles of the European Pillar of Social Rights – for example, the right to adequate minimum income benefits ensuring a life in dignity at all stages of life; effective access to enabling goods and services for everyone lacking sufficient resources; the right of all children to protection from poverty; and the right of children from disadvantaged backgrounds to specific measures to enhance equal opportunities. Such policies would directly contribute to EU Member States' commitment to meeting the Sustainable Development Goals, namely Goal No. 1: "End poverty in all its forms everywhere".

FRA opinion 12

EU Member States should embark on comprehensive and effective poverty-reduction policies blending social protection and active labour market policies. To that end, they should use the full potential of the European Structural and Investment Funds (ESIF), as well as the Fund for European Aid to the Most Deprived (FEAD), to assist Roma who live in conditions of severe material and/or housing deprivation.

FRA opinion 13

EU Member States should ensure that social protection systems are effective in reaching all those in need of support, including Roma. To that end, EU Member States should strengthen poverty reduction efforts through social investment measures, such as those recommended by the 2013 Council Recommendation. Such measures could

be specific for Roma or mainstreamed targeting Roma explicitly, but not exclusively, in accordance with the 3rd Common Basic Principle on Roma inclusion. The procedures for claiming social benefits and other entitlements linked to these rights should be simple, and relevant information should be easily accessible for Roma people.

FRA opinion 14

EU Member States should prevent phenomena of in-work poverty, as suggested also in Commission Recommendation 2008/867/EC54 of 3 October 2008. In-work poverty is particularly damaging for Roma since it contributes to their marginalisation, reinforces the vicious circle of exclusion, and further fuels anti-Gypsyism. On-the-job training and work placements boosting skills and qualifications may break this circle, making quality jobs with adequate remuneration, safe working conditions and career prospects available also for Roma. In designing such measures, Member States should take into account the June 2016 Council Conclusions on Combating Poverty and Social Exclusion: an Integrated Approach. They stress that preventing and fighting in-work poverty requires acknowledging the multidimensional nature of poverty and its impacts on employment, health and long-term care, reconciliation of work and family life, education and housing, as well as the different risks of poverty for women and men throughout the life cycle, from early childhood to old age.

FRA opinion 15

Eurostat should monitor systematically the outcomes of poverty alleviation measures and structural reforms on vulnerable populations, such as Roma. The results should be reported in the context of the European Semester to avoid fiscal measures that could have a negative impact on poverty levels of the most vulnerable, which affects Roma disproportionately. EU Member States should reflect the "no one should be left behind" principle in their SDG monitoring and reporting mechanisms. This entails, apart from the national aggregates, monitoring relevant goals and targets also for specific groups facing particular risks of discrimination and marginalisation, such as Roma, but also people with disabilities, children, or older people. Monitoring progress on group-specific targets should be matched by monitoring policies and measures that ensure genuine progress towards these targets.

Employment

Overall employment rates for Roma remain low compared to the general population. The data show no change in the proportion of Roma who indicated that their main activity was 'paid work' between 2011 and 2016 – with an important gender gap. In the five years between the two surveys, EU Member States implemented a range of initiatives to increase Roma

employment, mostly addressing the employability of Roma – but there is little evidence of measures to tackle anti-Gypsyism in the labour market. The proportion of young Roma aged 16 to 24 years, particularly women, who are not in employment, education or training (NEET rate) remains high – in stark contrast to the corresponding rates for the majority population. This could partly be attributed to the impact of anti-Gypsyism, as well as other factors related to persisting social exclusion, such as poor functional literacy, inadequate qualifications, or poor social skills, as well as traditional gender roles still common in Roma communities. The rates of experiences with discrimination due to being Roma when looking for work and while at work remain, on average, very high. Many Roma across the EU engage in entrepreneurial activities, but the employment potential of this entrepreneurial activity is not utilised in full.

FRA opinion 16

EU Member States should strengthen measures to improve the access of Roma to the labour market – for example, measures supporting first work experience or providing on-the-job training using the full potential of the European Social Fund (ESF). Member States should consider how measures in the context of the Microfinance and Social Entrepreneurship axis of the Employment and Social Innovation programme (EaSI) could target Roma explicitly to improve their access to microfinancing for setting up business or micro-enterprises. In addition, Member States should consider measures facilitating access of Roma job seekers to public sector employment to improve diversity and inclusion in public sector workplaces.

FRA opinion 17

EU Member States should ensure that young Roma benefit from measures implementing Council Recommendation of 22 April 2013 on a Youth Guarantee, which calls on Member States to ensure that all young people under 25 receive an offer of good quality employment, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship. To achieve this in respect to Roma youth, Member States should reach out systematically to young Roma to ensure that they register with employment services to benefit from the support measures available to all young people.

FRA opinion 18

EU Member States should reach out to Roma communities to ensure that Roma are informed about measures under Council Recommendation of February 2016 on the integration of long-term unemployed into the labour market, which include in-depth individual assessments and guidance covering their employability prospects, barriers to

employment and previous job-search efforts. Such individual assessment processes would also improve the sensitivity of public employment services to direct or indirect forms of ethnic discrimination. Furthermore, Member States could consider collecting statistical data disaggregated by ethnic background when monitoring the implementation of this Council Recommendation in the framework of the European Semester.

Health

The proportion of Roma assessing their health as “very good” or “good” increased significantly between 2011 and 2016 in most EU Member States surveyed, and is on average similar to the general population. However, self-reported health insurance coverage on average did not change significantly over the same period, totalling 74 % in 2016. There are important country differences in self-reported medical insurance coverage. In its paper on the European Semester and Roma health issued in November 2016, the European Public Health Alliance (EPHA) notes that, in respect to health, European Semester Country Specific Recommendations (CSRs) in the social realm lack clear targets; remain largely non-binding; and, for three of the countries studied (Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia), were not particularly effective. The paper cites FRA data, arguing that Roma face disproportionate barriers to accessing health services. These barriers are exacerbated by a lack of insurance or personal identification documents but also due to distance or discriminatory attitudes. Addressing these challenges would contribute to fulfilling Sustainable Development Goal No. 3: “To ensure healthy lives and to promote well-being for all at all ages”.

FRA opinion 19

EU Member States should develop measures, in line with the European Pillar of Social Rights, to improve access to good quality and affordable preventive and curative healthcare for Roma, in particular women, children, older people and persons with disabilities. Key in that regard is improving access to health services – both physical access and removing the intangible barriers among which prejudice plays an important role.

FRA opinion 20

EU Member States where Roma are not fully covered or are not aware that they are covered by free medical insurance should take specific measures to ensure that Roma, like everyone else, enjoy the right to access quality medical care when needed. Such measures should take into account that a disproportionate number of Roma are not employed or not regularly employed in the formal labour market.

FRA opinion 21

EU Member States should ensure preventive health measures for all Roma – in particular women, children, older people and those with disabilities – providing systematic medical check-ups free of charge, as well as pre- and post-natal care, family planning and immunisation, especially to those Roma who live in severely deprived housing conditions with limited access to clean potable water and sanitation. To improve access to health services and raise healthcare professionals' awareness of their duty to non-discrimination, Member States should consider using community health workers where appropriate, in particular for facilitating the engagement of Roma at different levels in health services, boosting prevention and healthy lifestyle habits.

FRA opinion 22

EU Member States should develop measures to improve the housing conditions of Roma, namely by eliminating any spatial segregation and promoting desegregation and non-discriminatory access to social housing, as well as ensuring access to public utilities and infrastructure. Member States should provide everyone in need with access to social housing or housing assistance of good quality.

FRA opinion 23

EU Member States should target Roma explicitly with measures to improve or develop their social housing stock. They should match investment in the improvement of housing stock, improvements in local infrastructure and job creation at local level, engaging Roma in the implementation of Roma-targeted housing projects.

FRA opinion 24

EU Member States should respect, as required by the European Pillar of Social Rights, the right of persons in vulnerable situations, such as many Roma, to appropriate assistance and protection against forced eviction. The latter should be an instrument of last resort and applied strictly in line with international standards, especially regarding the rights of the child.

Housing

The data show that housing conditions for Roma did not change significantly between 2011 and 2016. For many, the right to social and housing assistance to ensure a decent existence for all who lack sufficient resources – guaranteed by the Charter of Fundamental Rights – remains unfulfilled. This means space limitations in their homes; no regular access to sanitation (potable water, toilets, showers, bathrooms inside the dwelling); and no electricity supply. The results show that some progress achieved was not uniform across all countries, with deterioration in some. A high share of Roma still have no regular access to basic sanitation or live in overcrowded conditions, hampering progress in other areas, such as education, health or employment. Moreover, the share of Roma experiencing discrimination in housing increased in a number of countries. With respect to the space available to each person in a dwelling, the results show a large, persisting difference from the general population average. A third of the Roma surveyed continue to live in housing that has no tap water inside the house; 38 % do not have a toilet, shower or bathroom inside their home – in stark contrast to the general population average recorded by Eurostat. There is no change in perceived discrimination when looking for housing between 2011 and 2016, though there are important differences between Member States.

Improving the housing situation of Roma would contribute to fulfilling Sustainable Development Goal No. 11: “Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable”. To that end EU Member States should make full use of the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and the European Social Fund (ESF). They should take stock of the European Economic and Social Committee’s opinion on the advantages of Community-led Local Development (CLLD) approach when developing housing measures in the context of integrated local and rural development, fostering the involvement of all residents, including Roma.



1

Manifestations of anti-Gypsyism



Anti-Gypsyism manifests itself in various forms, including discrimination, harassment or hate crime against Roma. Racism and xenophobia are key drivers of anti-Gypsyism – but not the only ones. Mistrust of the “other”, scorn for the poor (described already by Adam Smith in his “Theory of Moral Sentiments”), and the entrenched social construct of “the Gypsy” living on the margins of society reinforce the sheer racism closing the Roma in a vicious circle of exclusion.

The principle of non-discrimination, as enshrined in EU primary law and in particular the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, calls for the adoption of specific measures to combat race-motivated harassment and crime. In this context, the Racial Equality Directive (2000/43/EU) qualifies as prohibited discrimination any act of harassment on the grounds of race or ethnic origin (Article 2 (3)). Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA obliges Member States to also use criminal penalties to fight against racism.⁵ Hence, Member States are bound to penalise hate speech and to consider race motivation an aggravating circumstance in other types of offences or such motivation may be taken into consideration by the courts when determining penalties (Articles 1 and 4).

Pan-European surveys capture the magnitude of anti-Gypsyism. Data from the fourth wave of the European Values Survey, which was conducted in 2008, show that Roma are among the groups least wanted as neighbours (Figure 1). Across the countries, only “drug addicts”, “heavy drinkers” and “people with a criminal record” were deemed less desirable neighbours than Roma. Although the next wave of

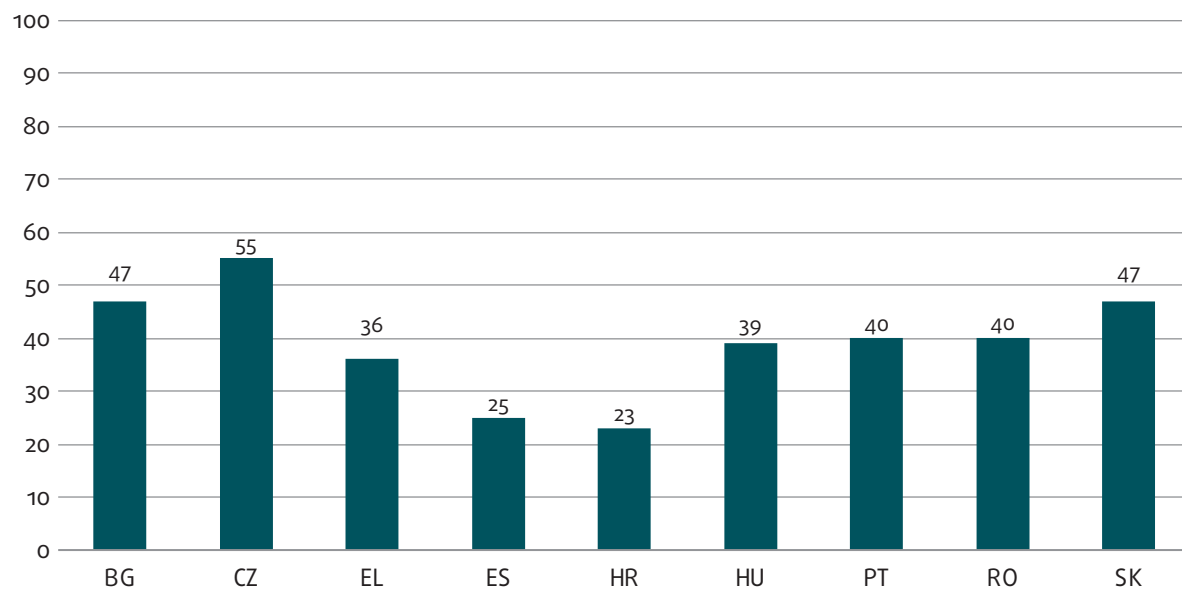
the survey is currently underway, there is little evidence that attitudes towards Roma have changed significantly since 2008.

The European Commission’s most recent Eurobarometer survey on discrimination in Europe, conducted in 2015, confirms the persistence of anti-Roma prejudice. On average (in the EU-28), 20 % of the respondents would feel uncomfortable if one of their colleagues at work were Roma. Less than half (45 %) would be comfortable or indifferent if their son or daughter had a relationship with a Roma person, and only 18 % have friends or acquaintances who are Roma.⁶ In the countries included in FRA’s survey, the share of respondents in the Eurobarometer survey who said they were indifferent to or comfortable with working with a Roma person were the highest in Spain and Portugal (70 % and 66 %, respectively), and the lowest in the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Bulgaria (29 %, 41 %, and 43%, respectively). Similarly, across the nine countries included in the FRA survey, the highest share of Eurobarometer respondents who said they felt uncomfortable working with a Roma person was observed in the Czech Republic (52 %), and the lowest in Spain (7 %).⁷

5 Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law, OJ L 328, 6.12.2008, p. 55–58.

6 European Commission (2015a).
7 European Commission (2015b).

Figure 1: People who would not like to have “Gypsies” as neighbours, 2008 (%)



Source: *European Values Study 2008, Atlas of European Values*

Discrimination

Discrimination at school

Legal context

The principle of non-discrimination is among the founding values of the EU (Article 2 of the Treaty on European Union (TEU)) and its promotion one of the main objectives of the Union (Article 3(3) of the TEU and Article 10 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU)). Article 21 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights explicitly prohibits any discrimination on grounds such as race or ethnic origin. Moreover, the area of education falls within the scope of Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (Racial Equality Directive) (Article 3 (1) (b), (g)).

Overall, the share of Roma who felt discriminated against when in contact with schools⁸ did not change

8 ‘Discriminated at school’ refers to the share of people who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when in contact with schools as parent or student in the past 5 years, respondents, 16+ (%), and on the prevalence of a child from the interviewed household experiencing verbal harassment while in school in the past 12 months (second variable available for 2016 only).

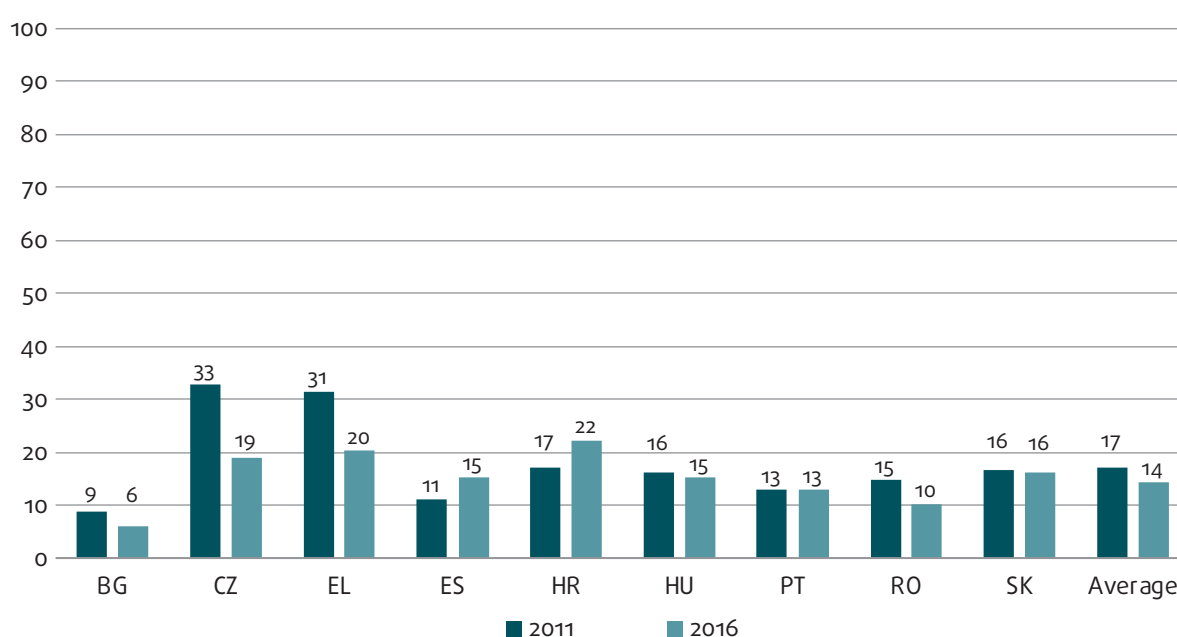
between 2011 and 2016⁹ (Figure 2). An increase was registered only in Croatia¹⁰ (from 17 % in 2011 to 22 % in 2016). The Czech Republic experienced the sharpest reduction in such perceived discrimination (from 33 % in 2011 to 19 % in 2016), followed by Greece (decline of 11 percentage points). Nevertheless, despite the improvement, the level of discrimination in these countries was among the highest in 2016. The share of people who felt discriminated against when in contact with schools was lowest in Bulgaria in both years, reaching 6 % in 2016.

Not surprisingly, the rates of children from a particular household being verbally harassed in school are largely similar to the rates of discrimination encountered by members of that household when in contact with schools. However, the relationship between verbal abuse and the characteristics of a family’s neighbourhood is more nuanced (Figure 3). In the Czech Republic and in Portugal – and, to a lesser extent, in Bulgaria and Romania – there are considerably more

9 All sample surveys are affected by sampling error, as the interviews cover only a fraction of the total population. Therefore, all results presented are point estimates underlying statistical variation. Small differences of a few percentage points between groups of respondents are to be interpreted within the range of statistical variation and only more substantial divergence between population groups should be considered as evidence of actual differences. A difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values may be assessed as ‘no change’.

10 Croatia was not covered by FRA’s 2011 Roma pilot, and UNDP survey data were used in this report to determine 2011-2016 trends. This is also why the average for 2011 in the figures showing changes between 2011 and 2016 in this report does not include Croatia.

Figure 2: Respondents (16+) who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when in contact with schools as parents or students in the past five years (%)^{a,b,c}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents at risk of discrimination on grounds of Roma background in the past 5 years (2011 n=3,446; 2016 n=3,363); weighted results.

^b Survey question: "Over the last 5 years in [COUNTRY] [or since you have been in the country if less than 5 years] have you ever been discriminated against because of being Roma by people working in a school or in training? This includes schools, colleges and other further education. This could have happened to you as a student or as a parent."

^c Croatia was not covered by FRA's 2011 Roma pilot and UNDP survey data were used in this report to determine 2011-2016 trends. This is also why the average for 2011 does not include Croatia.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

such harassment incidents in neighbourhoods where only some or none of the inhabitants are Roma. The opposite is the case in Greece, Slovakia and Spain. That Roma children face similar risks of verbal abuse at school regardless of the type of neighbourhood they live in suggests that the abuse might be driven by their Roma identity and not by marginalised living conditions. In other words, such abuse might boil down to anti-Gypsyism.

Discrimination in the labour market

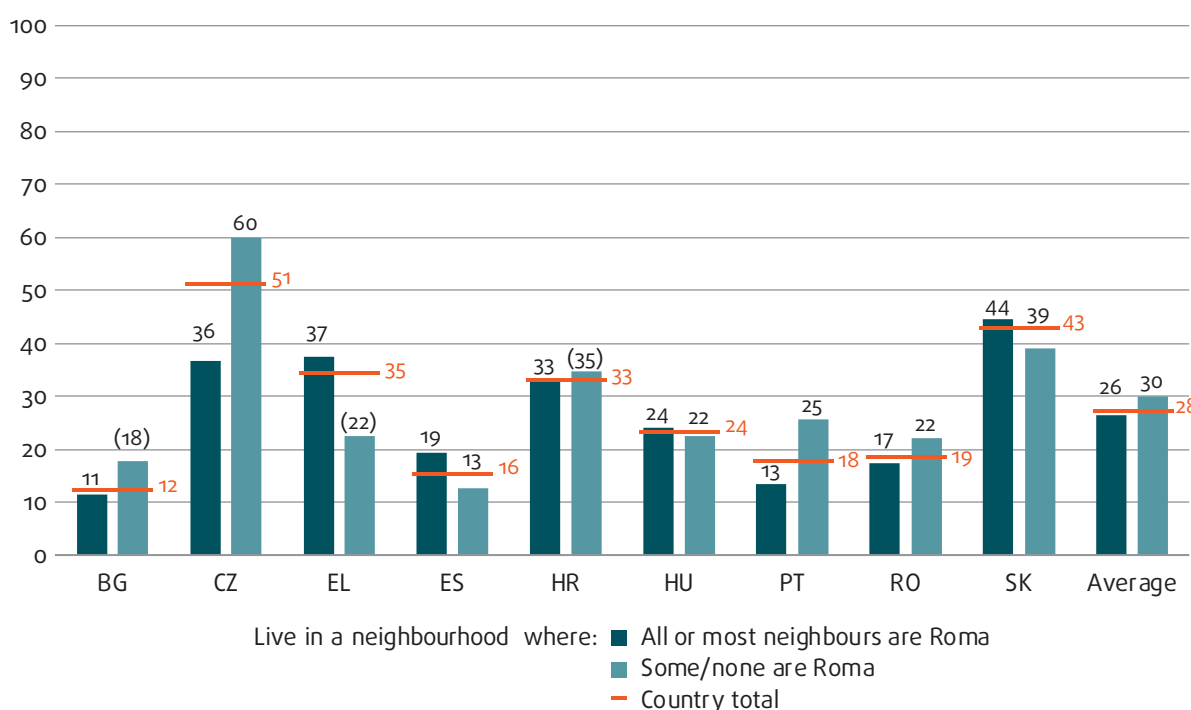
Legal context

According to the Racial Equality Directive, the non-discrimination and equal treatment principle – as enshrined in EU primary legislation and in particular the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights – also covers the area of employment and working conditions, including dismissals and pay (Article 3 (1) (c)).

The rate of perceived discrimination "when looking for a job" or "at work"¹¹ in the five years preceding each of the two surveys highlights the magnitude of the challenges Roma face in the labour market. As Figure 4 shows, the share of Roma who felt discriminated against when looking for a job is persistently higher than the share of those who felt discriminated against at work in all countries – this was the case both in 2011 and 2016. However, the trends over time regarding these two indicators do not follow similar patterns. The perceived discrimination rate when looking for a job increased in Croatia and Portugal – by 13 and 18 percentage points, respectively. It declined in Bulgaria, Hungary and the Czech Republic – by 18, 16 and 10 percentage points, respectively. In the remaining countries, this indicator did not notably change between 2011 and 2016. Meanwhile, no clear trends emerged in terms of perceived discrimination rates at work. This rate increased in Greece, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and

¹¹ Discrimination when looking for a job: share of people who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when looking for a job in the past 5 years, respondents, 16+ (%). Discrimination when at work: share of people who felt discriminated against at work in the past 5 years due to being Roma, respondents, 16+ (%).

Figure 3: Prevalence of verbal harassment of children while in school in the past 12 months, out of all respondents who are parents/guardians of school-age children, by type of neighbourhood, 2016 (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents who are parents/guardians of school-age children (n=3,238); weighted results.
^b Survey questions: “To the best of your knowledge, has your child/have your children experienced any of the following situations at school in the past 12 months? Name-calling because of their Roma background; Someone making jokes about them (ridiculing) because of their Roma background; Offensive comments and/or verbal insults because of their Roma background?”; “In the neighbourhood where you live, how many of the residents would you say are of the same Roma background as you: all of the residents, most of them, some or none of them?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data)

Spain – with the biggest increase observed in Portugal (from 15 % to 40 %). Conversely, the biggest declines in perceived discrimination at work were reported in the Czech Republic and Croatia (by 19 and 12 percentage points, respectively). In Hungary, the decline was more modest, at six percentage points.

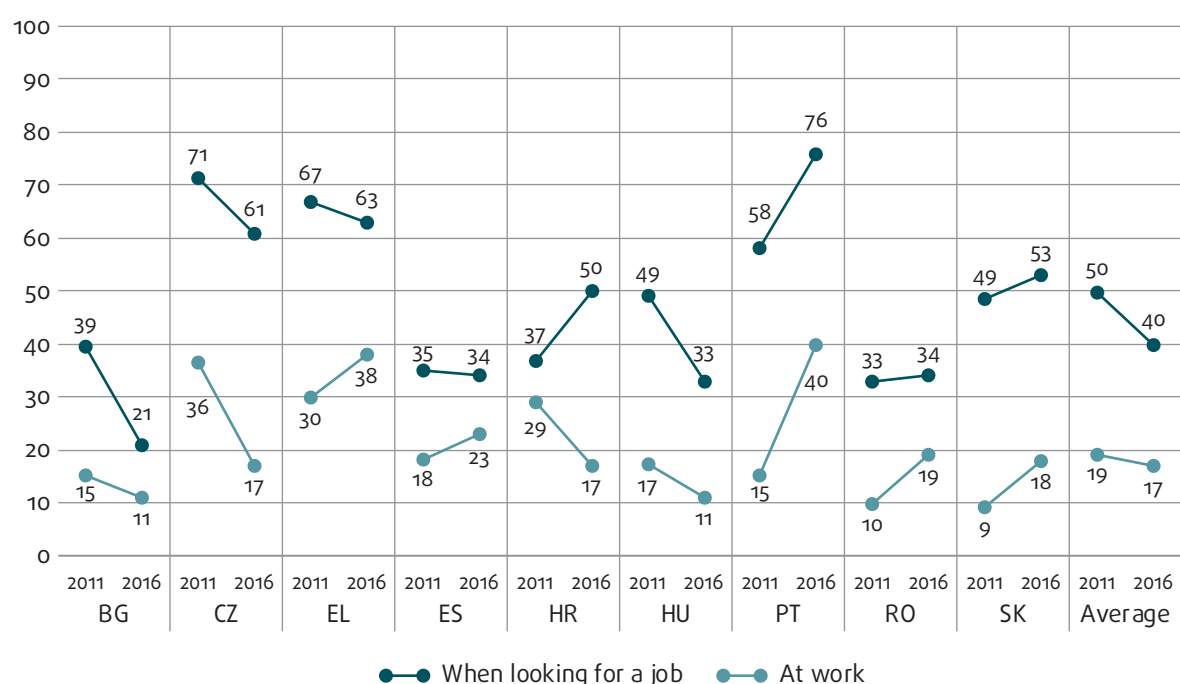
Why is the rate of discrimination when looking for a job persistently higher than when at work? Apart from the fact that more Roma are looking for work than are at work, the gap between the two might suggest that potential employers are prejudiced against Roma. Potential employers might tend to build their judgments on a mix of racial bias and a social construct of “the Gypsies”. Deciding on a job application rarely entails personal knowledge of the applicant’s personality, skills, or motivation – hence myths may strongly influence the decision. Once at work (and actual encounters with a real person replace social constructs), discrimination may diminish.

Promising practice

Tracking anti-Gypsyism to better understand it

The latest European Value Survey results for **Slovakia** (2017) show that 62 % of the population over 18 years of age opposes having Roma as their neighbours – an increase by 15 percentage points since 2008. Similarly, a survey conducted annually in the **Czech Republic** on the Czech public’s attitudes towards national minorities in the country in 2017 found that 76 % of the population older than 15 years old “dislikes” or “strongly dislikes” Roma. Unlike in Slovakia, the survey showed a slight improvement in attitudes towards Roma between 2013 and 2017.

Both surveys capture the magnitude of anti-Gypsyism, but not what sparks such sentiments. The annual survey on coexistence with Roma through the eyes of Czech citizens goes further in this direction. In 2017, on average, 47 % of respondents aged 15 years or older considered coexistence with Roma to be “rather bad” and 27 % deemed it “very bad”. However, among

Figure 4: Respondents (16+) who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when looking for a job^a and when at work^b in the past five years (%)


Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents at risk of discrimination on grounds of Roma background in the past 5 years (2011 n=4,684; 2016 n=3,987); weighted results. Survey question: "Over the last 5 years in [COUNTRY] [or since you have been in the country if less than 5 years] have you ever been discriminated against because of being Roma when looking for paid work?"

^b Out of all Roma respondents at risk of discrimination on grounds of Roma background in the past 5 years (2011 n=3,598; 2016 n=4,068); weighted results. Survey question: "Over the last 5 years in [COUNTRY] [or since you have been in the country if less than 5 years] have you ever been discriminated against because of being Roma when at work by people who you work for or with?"

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

respondents with Roma as neighbours, these values drop to 35 % and 23 %, respectively. Personal interaction makes even more of a difference – 1/3 of respondents with Roma friends characterise coexistence as "rather good" or "good" – compared to 1/6 without such friends.

The available data make it possible to capture the magnitude of, and trends in, anti-Gypsyism, but do not provide much insight into its driving factors – at least not yet. Looking at how personal experiences with Roma – rather than abstract social constructs of "Gypsies" – affect attitudes is a first step. Further exploring the reasons underlying the continuing exclusion of Roma from mainstream society would boost the effectiveness of anti-discrimination policies, and not just in the case of Roma.

Sources: EVS Slovakia 2017; Public Opinion Research Centre (Centrum pro výzkum veřejného mínění) (2017), *The Czech public's views of ethnic groups living in the Czech Republic (full text available in English)*, March 2017; Public Opinion Research Centre (Centrum pro výzkum veřejného mínění) (2017), *Romanies and coexistence with them in views of Czech Public (Romové a soužití s nimi očima české veřejnosti) (full text available in Czech only)*, September 2017.

Discrimination in access to health services

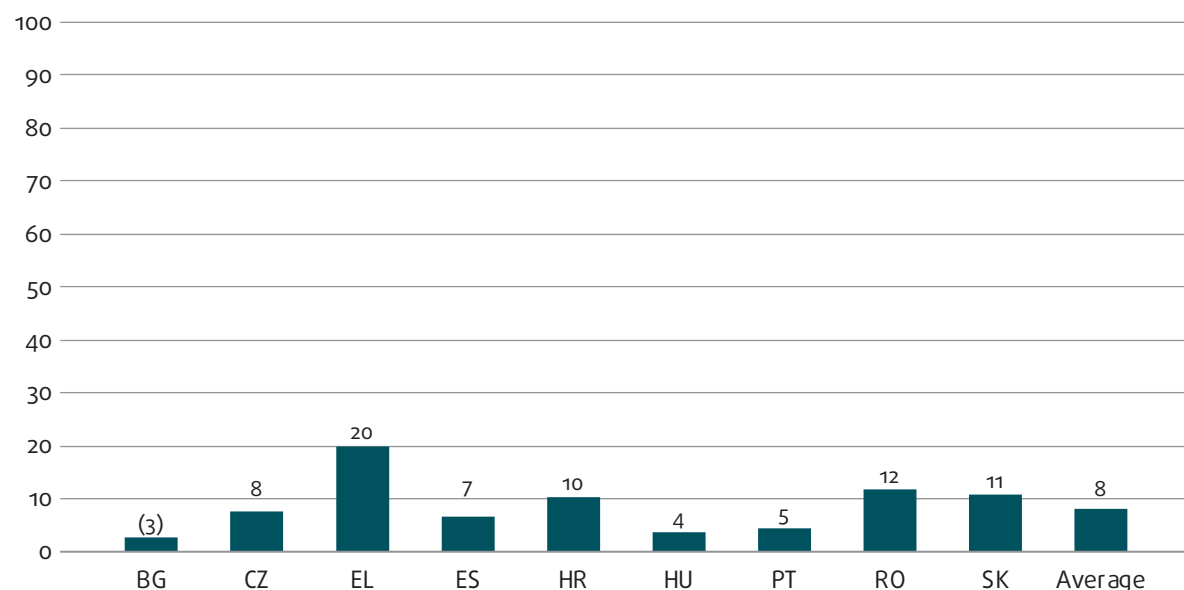
The results show that Roma also face discrimination when accessing health services. On average, 8 % of Roma felt discriminated against when accessing health services in the 12 months before the 2016 survey (Figure 5). The highest rates of perceived discrimination in health were reported in Greece (20 %), Romania (12 %) and Slovakia (11 %).

Discrimination in housing

Legal context

Discrimination in housing falls within the scope of the Racial Equality Directive, as part of access to and supply of goods and services that are available to the public (Article 3 (1) (h)).

Figure 5: Respondents (16+) who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when accessing health services in the 12 months before the survey, 2016 (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents at risk of discrimination on grounds of Roma background aged 16+ (n=3,796); weighted results.

^b Survey question: "In the past 12 months have you ever felt discriminated against because of skin colour/ethnic origin/religion when using healthcare services?"

Source: FRA, EU-MIDS II 2016, Roma (weighted data)

The rate of perceived discrimination in housing¹² declined considerably only in Slovakia, where 30 % of Roma felt discriminated against in 2016 (down from 44 % in 2011). The rate was low in Hungary both in 2011 and 2016, reaching 22 % in 2016. Meanwhile, it increased in the Czech Republic (from 52 % to 65 %), Spain (from 35 % to 45 %) and Portugal (from 67 % to 75 %, the worst score in both years).

Results for Bulgaria and Romania cannot be compared due to the small sample of observations in 2011 and 2016. Nor can those for Greece or Croatia, due to the small number of observations in 2011. The results for these countries are therefore indicated in brackets in Figure 6.

Harassment and hate-motivated violence

Harassment

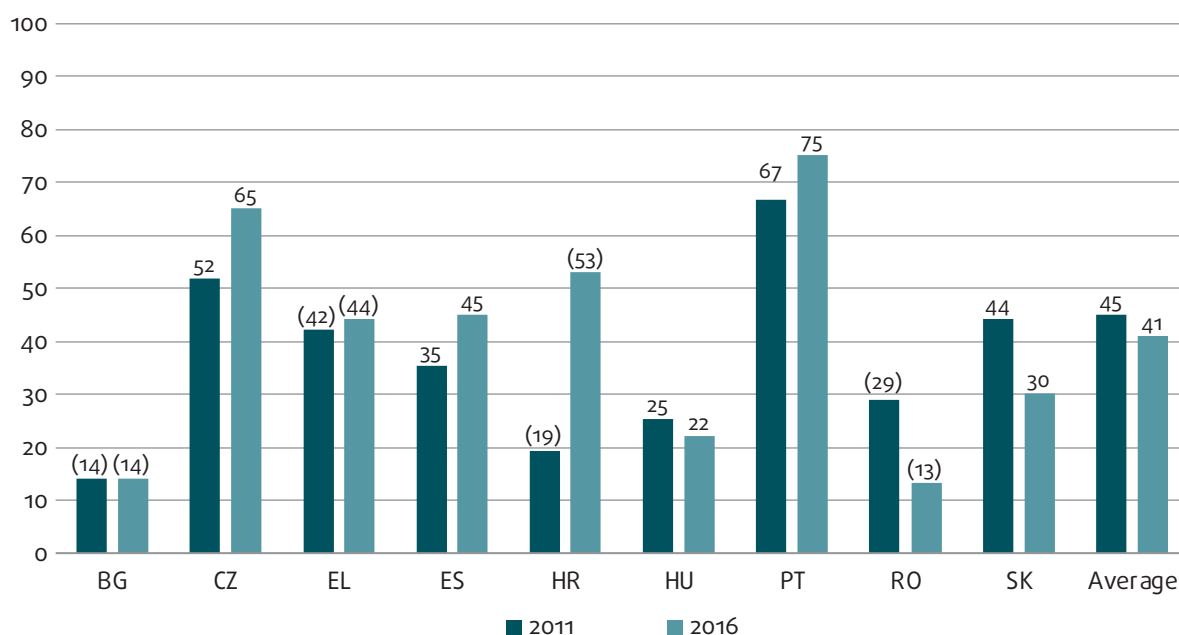
Harassment can take place in various situations, in person and online. To reflect this reality, EU-MIDIS II respondents were asked about five forms of harassment: offensive or threatening comments in person;

threats of violence in person; offensive gestures or inappropriate staring; offensive or threatening e-mails or text messages; and offensive comments made about them online. This means that, to qualify as harassment, the incident had to involve actions that the respondent found 'offensive' or 'threatening', as opposed to actions that could be considered a normal part of everyday life. Specifically, respondents were asked whether, in the 12 months before the survey, they experienced harassment that they felt was triggered by their Roma background.

Prevalence of harassment

Almost every third Roma respondent (30 %) experienced some form of harassment that they felt was due to their ethnicity in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 7), with similar rates for females and males. Roma in the Czech Republic (56 %), Greece (50 %) and Slovakia (37 %) reported experiencing the most hate-motivated harassment. By contrast, only 12 % of Roma respondents in Bulgaria noted such experiences. Gender differences regarding the prevalence of experienced hate-motivated harassment are almost non-existent – with the exception of Croatia (women: 24 % and men: 40 %) and Portugal (women: 23 % and men: 16 %).

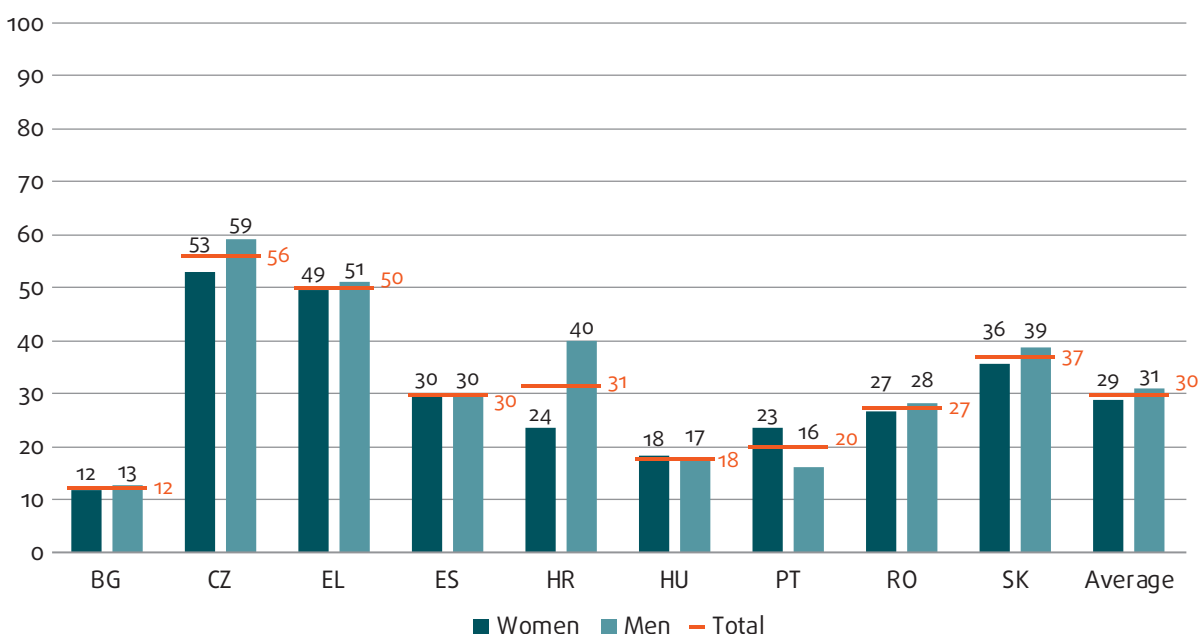
¹² 'Discrimination in housing' refers to the share of people who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when looking for housing in the past five years, respondents, 16+ (%).

Figure 6: Respondents (16+) who felt discriminated against due to being Roma when looking for housing in the past five years (%)^{a,b}


Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents at risk of discrimination on grounds of Roma background in the past 5 years (2011 n=862; 2016 n=1,030); weighted results.

^b Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

Figure 7: Prevalence of harassment experienced due to Roma background in the 12 months before the survey, by gender, 2016 (%)^{a,b}


Notes: ^a Out of all respondents in Roma households (n=7,947); weighted results.

^b Question: "How many times have such incidents [that is, each of the five acts of harassment asked about in the survey] related to your Roma background happened in the past 12 months?" The five acts of harassment include offensive or threatening comments, being threatened with violence, offensive gestures or inappropriate staring, receiving offensive emails or text messages, and finding offensive, personal comments on the internet.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data)

Frequency of harassment

The data further suggest that, for almost three quarters of the Roma respondents across the surveyed countries, harassment due to their ethnicity is a recurring experience – 76 % experienced such incidents more than once in the 12 months before the survey. Harassment due to their ethnicity is a recurring experience for as many as 94 % of Roma men in Portugal, 93 % of Roma men in Greece and 90 % of Roma men in Croatia; and 90 % of Roma women in Greece. By contrast, 35 % of Roma women and 32 % of Roma men in Romania; 33 % of Roma men in Hungary; and 30 % of Roma women in Bulgaria experienced such harassment only once in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 8).

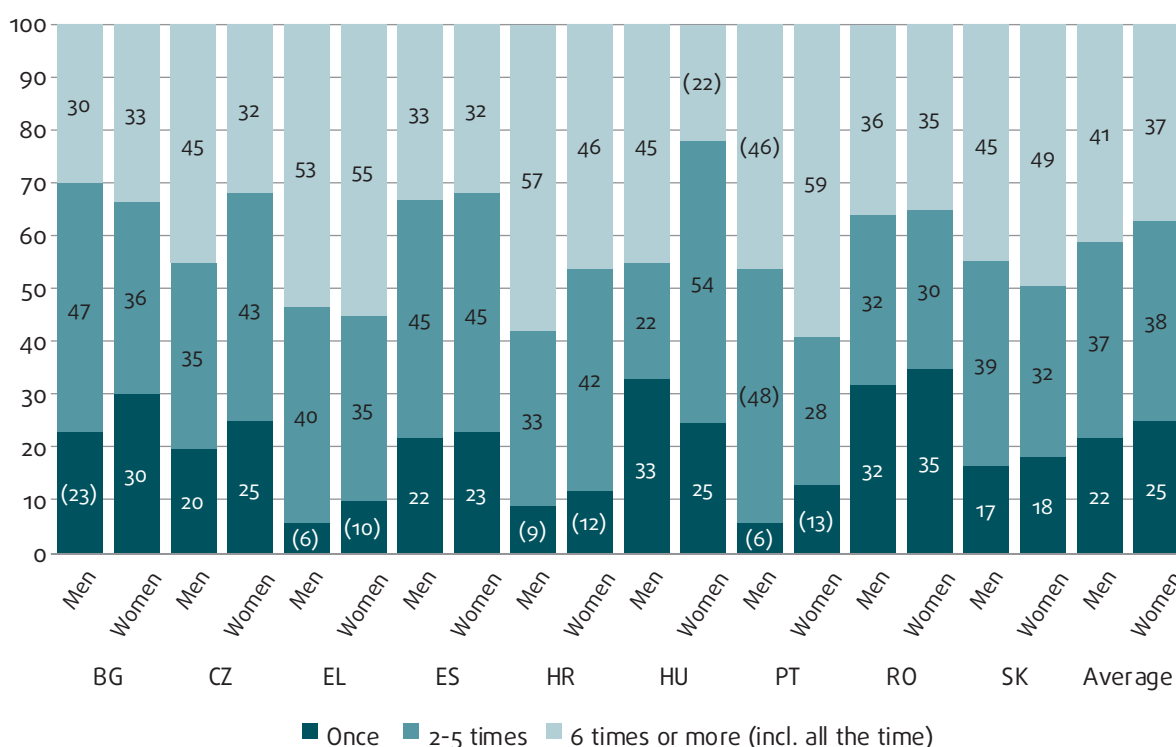
perceived to have occurred because of their Roma background and involved somebody physically attacking them – for example, a perpetrator hitting, pushing, kicking or grabbing the respondent.

Council Framework Decision of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law requires effective, proportionate and dissuasive penalties for natural and legal persons who committed or are liable for publicly inciting violence or hatred. In addition, it obliges Member States to ensure that racist and xenophobic motivation is considered as an aggravating circumstance or is taken into account in determining penalties for all criminal offences. The 2012 Victims' Rights Directive requires that "victims who have suffered a crime committed with a bias or discriminatory

Physical violence motivated by hatred

Physical violence against Roma motivated by hatred is a hate crime and particularly worrying manifestation of anti-Gypsyism. It concerns incidents that respondents

Figure 8: Number of harassment incidents experienced due to Roma background in the 12 months before the survey, by gender, 2016 (%)^{a,b,c}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents in Roma households who experienced harassment related to their ethnicity in the past 12 months (n=2,339); weighted results.
^b Question: "How many times have such incidents [that is, each of the five acts of harassment asked about in the survey] related to your Roma background happened in the past 12 months?"
^c Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Results are flagged if they are based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data)

motive” receive an individual assessment to identify specific protection needs they may have (Article 22).¹³

Despite these measures over the past years, on average, 4 % of Roma respondents across the surveyed countries experienced hate-motivated violence in the 12 months before the survey, and 13 % were aware of such experiences in their circle of family or friends (Figure 9). While the shares of Roma who experienced hate-motivated physical violence are highest in Slovakia and Croatia (11 % and 7 %, respectively), over one third of Roma respondents in the Czech Republic were aware of such experiences in their circle of family or friends (25 % in Slovakia, 22 % in Croatia and 21 % in Greece). Equally worrying, EU-MIDIS II results on Roma indicated that incidents of hate-motivated violence often remain unreported (and, accordingly, unrecorded). Of those who experienced such incidents, only 27 % reported them to any organisation, including the police.

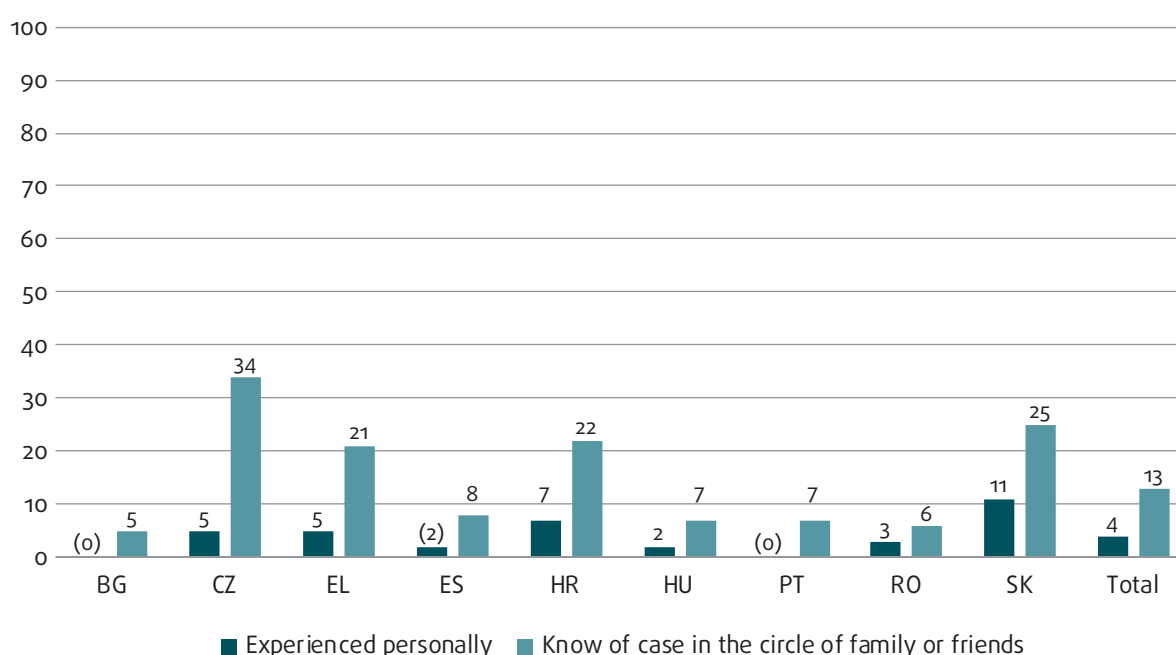
Promising practice

Targeting hate speech at an early stage

A joint project by UNICEF and the National Network for Children in Bulgaria – called “Searchers of (non) equalities” (“Търсачи на НЕ/Равенства”) – is based on the premise that efforts to curb expressions of discrimination and anti-Gypsyism should start in schools and involve Roma and non-Roma youth. The project began by working with youth in schools to identify and describe examples of negative attitudes and hate speech towards Roma children. The examples are discussed and models developed to engage with youth at the community level, with the ultimate goal of transforming acts of hate – whether they take place in schools, on public transport or in hospitals – into acts of mutual understanding.

For more information, see National Network for Children (Национална мрежа за децата) (2017), *Searchers of Non/Equalities* (Търсачи на НЕ/Равенства).

Figure 9: Prevalence of physical violence motivated by victim’s Roma background, and awareness of family members or friends being physically attacked because of their Roma background in 12 months before the survey, 2016 (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents in Roma households (EU MIDIS II n=7,947); weighted results.

^b Questions: “How many times has this happened [that is, hate motivated physical attack] in the past 12 months because of your Roma background?”; “In the past 12 months, have you heard of anyone in your circle of family or friends being physically attacked because of their Roma background?”

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data)

¹³ Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA, OJ L 315, 14 November 2012.

2

Effects of anti-Gypsyism



Anti-Gypsyism strongly affects all aspects of Roma's lives. It contributes to deprivation in key areas, such as education, employment, living standards, as well as health and housing. Extreme poverty, low quality jobs, sub-standard education in segregated schools – these are hardly circumstances to which anyone aspires. But, with Roma long having faced historical disadvantages, such deprivation is often seen as 'normality' – contributing further to their stigmatisation and social exclusion. Such social exclusion ultimately reinforces resentment against Roma, making their marginalisation socially acceptable and further bolstering anti-Gypsyism.

This is why, without targeted social inclusion policies, efforts to address anti-Gypsyism will be short-lived and incomplete. The following sections outline the changes in the situation of Roma in key priority areas of the EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies between 2011 and 2016. The data clearly suggest that Member States have achieved some progress in most of these areas. But the progress reflected in the data remains insufficient, underscoring the persistence of anti-Gypsyism.

Education

Legal context

Article 14 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights provides that education is a fundamental right for everyone. Article 21 explicitly prohibits discrimination on grounds such as race or ethnic origin. Article 2 of the Treaty on European Union (TEU) enshrines the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities, as values on which the Union is founded.

Article 3(3) calls for combatting social exclusion and discrimination and protection of the rights of the child, which includes the right to education.

Strategic visions

All targets of UN Sustainable Development Goal No. 4 (*Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all*), as well as the EU 2020 targets on education, are relevant for Roma.

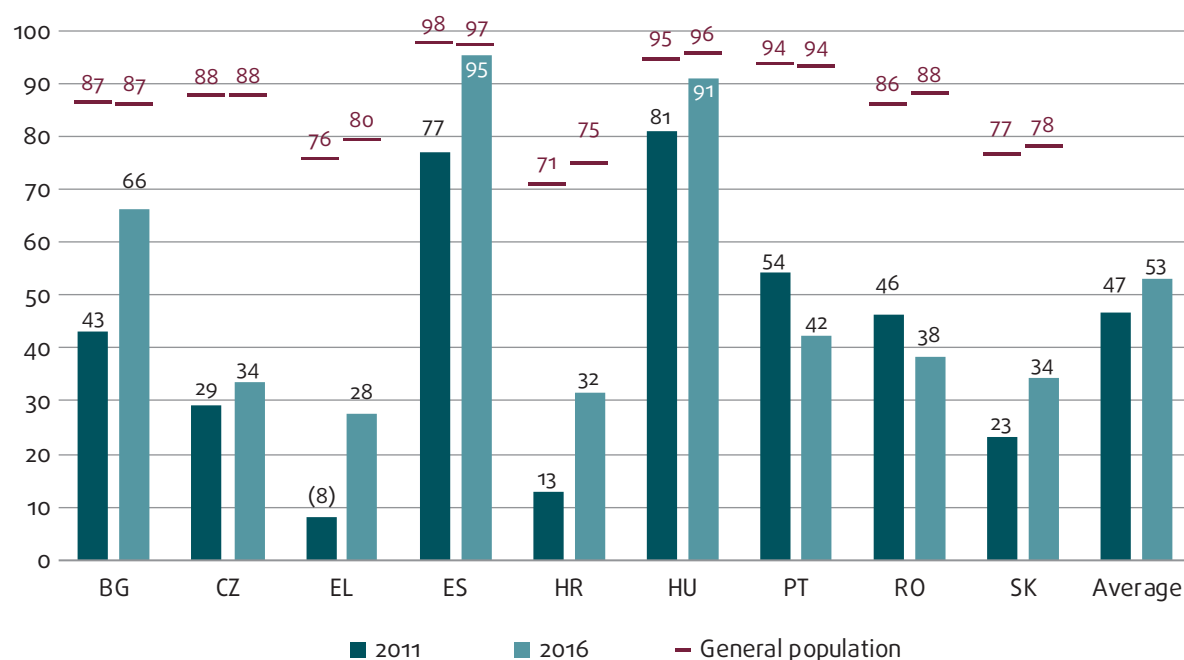
Enrolment rate in early childhood education

Between 2011 and 2016, enrolment in early childhood education¹⁴ increased among Roma in six of the nine countries surveyed (Figure 10).¹⁵ The trend is similar to that among the general population. However, for the Roma population, it declined in two countries. In Portugal, it went down from 54 % to 42 % and in Romania, from 46 % to 38 %. Overall, the share of Roma children attending pre-school increased from 47 % in 2011 to 53 % in 2016. However, the progress in individual countries varies due to different specific conditions. The enrolment rate tripled in Greece – but from a very low base (with the caveat that the number of observations in 2011 was small and the value for that year is statistically less reliable). Developments in Croatia were similar (increase from 13 % to 32 %). By contrast, Spain and Hungary, which had the highest enrolment rates in 2016

¹⁴ Share of children of pre-school education age (between 4 years of age and the compulsory age for starting primary education valid for a given country in a given year). European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice (2011 and 2015).

¹⁵ As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.

Figure 10: Children, aged between 4 and the compulsory age to start primary education, who participated in early childhood education (household members, %) ^{a,b,c,d,e,f}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged between 4 years and the country-specific starting age of compulsory primary education in Roma households (2011 n=2,295; 2016 n=1,776); weighted results.
^b Survey question filled in by respondent for all children if they regularly attend public or private childcare (including nursery, preschool, etc.).
^c Different age groups for participation in early childhood education in countries: 4-6 years in Bulgaria and Croatia; 4-5 years in remaining countries. Age is calculated on an annual basis, hence the figures do not consider earlier or delayed start in primary education of an individual child.
^d Eurostat: 2016 - Education and Training 2020 target -educ_uoe_enra10 (downloaded 06/03/2018); 2011 - educ_ipart (downloaded 06/03/2018); using data from education facilities' registers.
^e Latest available data for the general population in the Czech Republic, Greece, Portugal and Slovakia are from Eurostat, 2015.
^f Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat 2016, General population; Eurostat 2011, General population

(95 % and 91 %, respectively), already had high bases in 2011 (77 % and 81 %, respectively).

In terms of gender differences in early childhood education enrolment, the disparities between Roma boys and girls in most of the surveyed countries did not exceed a few percentage points in either year – with the Czech Republic and Portugal being the only exceptions (Figure 11). The enrolment rates of boys and girls in the Czech Republic notably converged between 2011 and 2016; the boys' enrolment rate almost caught up with the girls' rate, despite starting at a considerably lower point in 2011 (a 10-percentage-point difference). The opposite can be said for Portugal, where the gender disparity appears to have widened considerably. However, results for Roma girls in Portugal (2016) and in Croatia and Greece (both boys and girls in 2011) are based on small samples of observations and therefore

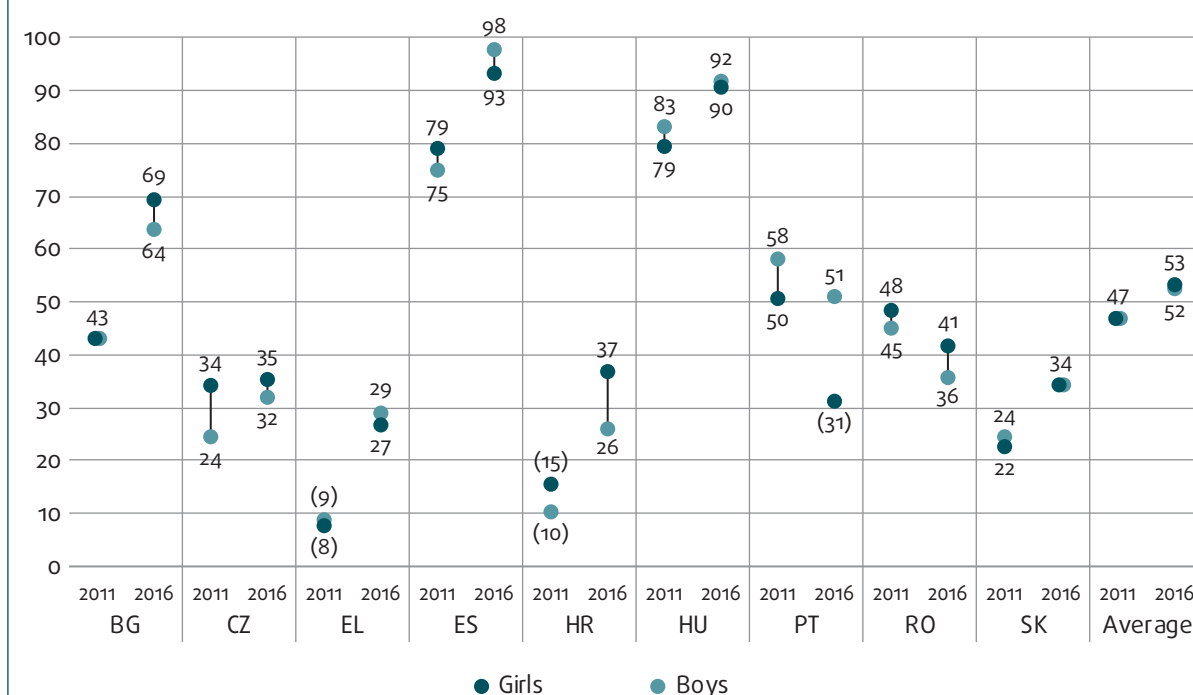
should be treated with caution (used for illustrative purposes only). In Croatia, in 2016, 37 % of girls attended early childhood education, as opposed to 26 % of boys.

Enrolment rate in compulsory education

Legal context

The promotion of a high level of education and training is among the requirements that the EU is bound to take into consideration in defining and implementing its policies and activities (Article 9, Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU)).

Figure 11: Gender gap in share of children, aged between 4 and the compulsory age for starting primary education, who participated in early childhood education (household members, %), by gender^{a,b,c,d}



- Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged between 4 years and the country-specific starting age of compulsory primary education in Roma households (2011 n=2,295; 2016 n=1,776); weighted results.
- ^b Survey question filled in by respondent for all children if they regularly attend public or private childcare (including nursery, preschool, etc.).
- ^c Different age groups for participation in early childhood education in countries: 4-6 years in Bulgaria and Croatia; 4-5 years in remaining countries. Age is calculated on an annual basis, hence the figures do not consider earlier or delayed start in primary education of an individual child.
- ^d Results based on a small number of responses are statistically less reliable. Thus, results based on 20 to 49 unweighted observations in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted observations are noted in parentheses. Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted observations in a group total are not published.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

Moreover, Article 14 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights provides that education is a fundamental right for everyone, including the possibility of every person to receive free compulsory education. This entails a right of every child to have the possibility of attending a schooling establishment free of charge.

The share of Roma children attending compulsory schooling-age education did not change between 2011 and 2016 (Figure 12).¹⁶ The situation improved in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, and Portugal, while no notable changes in either direction occurred in the remaining countries. Roma enrolment rates in compulsory

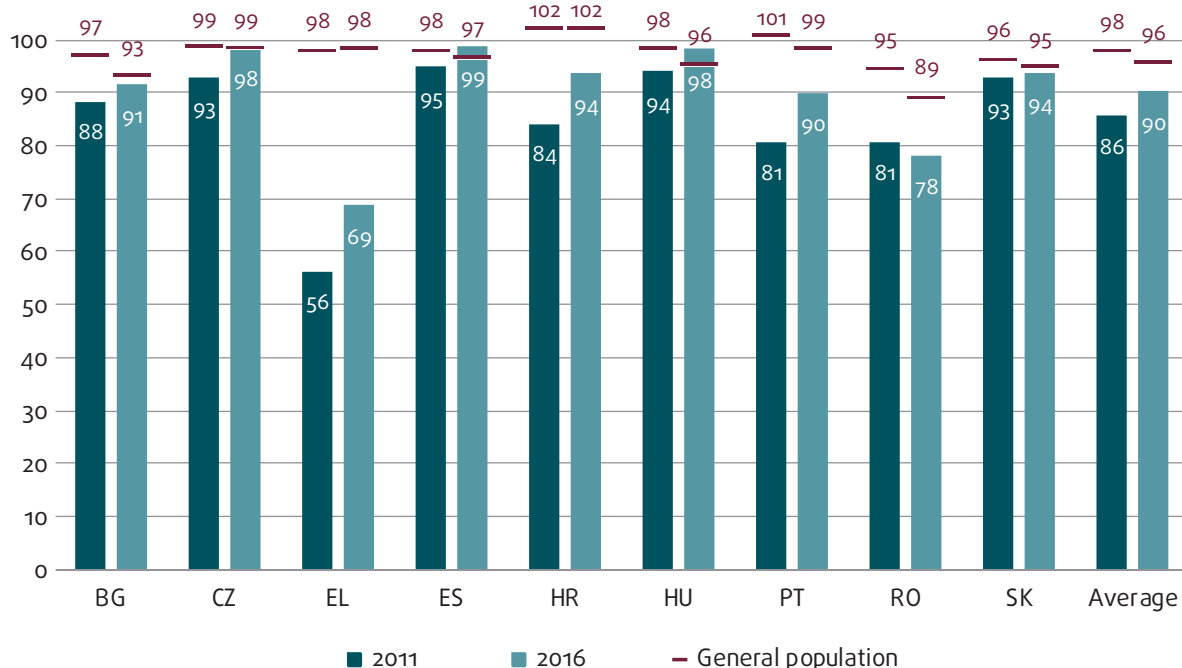
education¹⁷ were at 90 % or above in seven countries in 2016 (Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Portugal, Slovakia and Spain). By contrast, the enrolment rate remained the lowest in Greece, where only 69 % of Roma children were attending school in 2016 (56 % in 2011). Enrolment rates were highest in Spain and Hungary, where, respectively, 99 % and 98 % of Roma children of compulsory-schooling-age were attending school in 2016. Among the general population, this rate is close to or even exceeds 100 %, ¹⁸ meaning the gaps between Roma and non-Roma

¹⁷ 'Enrolment rate in compulsory education' refers to the share of compulsory-schooling-age children attending education, household members, aged 5-17 years (depending on the country) (%).

¹⁸ Enrolment rates for the general population may exceed 100 % if the number of students enrolled exceeds the number a school is supposed to enrol (e.g. in case of students from other countries or students attending before or after the compulsory education age).

¹⁶ As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.

Figure 12: Children of compulsory-schooling age participating in education (household members, 5-17 depending on country, %) ^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons of a country-specific compulsory schooling age in Roma households (2011 n=9,092; 2016 n=7,364); weighted results.
^b Age is calculated on an annual basis, hence the figures do not consider earlier or delayed start in primary education of an individual child.
^c General population: calculated from number of pupils in a country specific compulsory schooling age enrolled in education in school years 2010/2011 (*educ_enr1tl* - downloaded 23/05/2017) and 2015/2016 (*educ_uoe_enra12* - downloaded 06/03/2018) and total population in a given country-specific compulsory schooling age as of January 1 of a given year (2011 and 2016 - *demo_pjan*, downloaded 06/03/2018); using data from education facilities' registers; latest available data for the Czech Republic for school year 2014/2015 and for Greece for school year 2013/2014.
 Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat 2016; Eurostat 2011

results from low enrolment rates among Roma. This gap was highest in Greece in 2016 (almost reaching 30 percentage points), followed by Romania (more than 10 percentage points).

Early leavers from education and training

Legal context

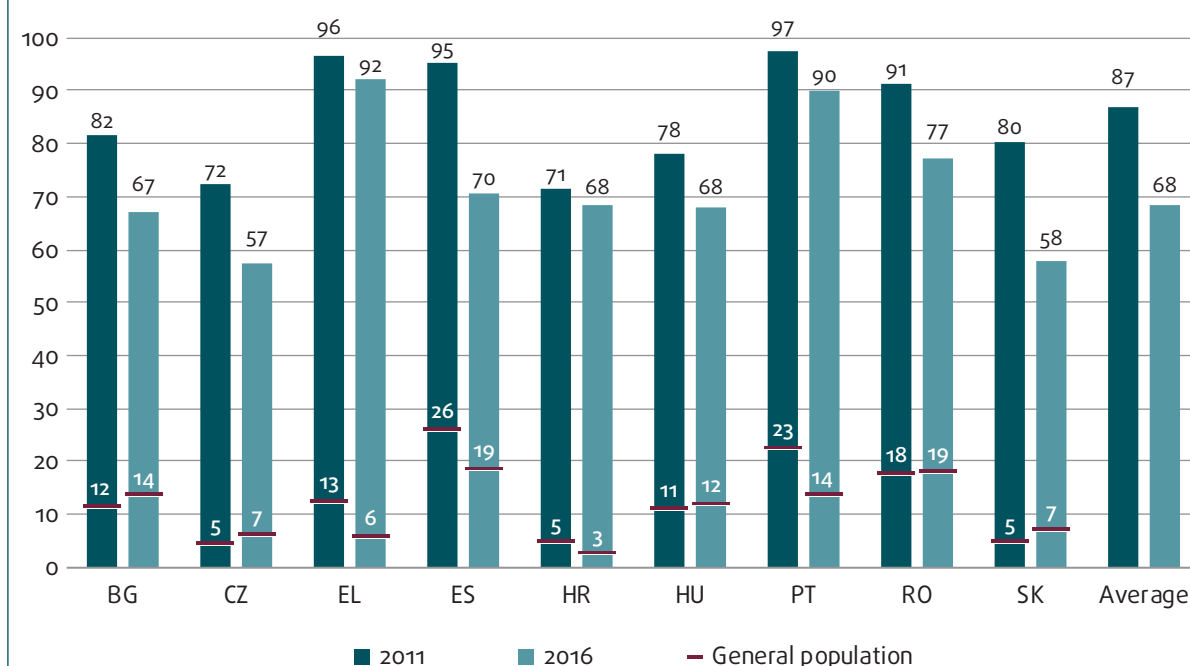
The right to education under Article 14 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights includes the right of everyone to have access to vocational and continuing training.

The data show that Roma pupils are leaving school early and access universities and other tertiary education establishments and training institutions at very low

rates.¹⁹ However, between 2011 and 2016, the number of Roma pupils who leave education at the secondary school level has on average decreased – from 87 % in 2011 to 68 % in 2016 (Figure 13). Spain achieved the biggest improvement, with a 25-percentage-point decrease in so-called “early leavers” between 2011 and 2016. This is followed by Slovakia, with a decrease of 22 percentage points. The share of early leavers in 2016 was lowest in the Czech Republic (57 %). The situation was the most troubling in Greece and Portugal, where, despite improvements, the share of early leavers from education and training in 2016 was 92 % and 90 %, respectively. Moreover, the progress among Roma in Portugal was more modest than the improvement achieved among the general population.

¹⁹ ‘Early leavers from education and training’ refer to the share of the population aged 18-24 years having completed at most lower secondary education (ISCED 2011 levels 0, 1 or 2) and are not involved in further education or training.

Figure 13: Population that has completed at most lower secondary education and is not involved in further education or training (household members, 18-24, %)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 18-24 years in Roma households (2011 n=4,873; 2016 n=4,152); weighted results.

^b Based on questions on highest achieved education and main activity status used in both 2011 and 2016 surveys. The same definition used as for the general population, with the exception for the participation in non-formal education or training. This was not asked for in EU-MIDIS II, but is considered by Eurostat for the general population (edat_lfse_14, download 05/03/2018).

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2016; Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2011

In 2016, at most 19 % among the general population left school early in the surveyed countries; in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece and Slovakia, this share is below 10 %. If one considers the relatively high share of Roma in the general populations of Bulgaria, Romania or Slovakia, the gap between Roma and non-Roma is even wider than the graph suggests.

Data presented in Figure 14 suggest that, in 2016, in most surveyed countries, there were no large gender disparities among early leavers from education. However, in all countries with a notable gender gap for this indicator in 2016 – namely Bulgaria, Croatia and, to a lesser extent, Slovakia – considerably more women than men were leaving education early. Moreover, in Bulgaria and to a lesser extent in Croatia, the total drop in early leavers since 2011 (reported in Figure 14) is primarily or even exclusively driven by a reduction in men leaving education early.

Promising practice

Opéré Chavalé! Building bridges between Roma communities and higher education

A joint initiative of the Portuguese Platform for Women's Rights and Letras Nómadas Association in **Portugal** aimed to empower young Roma through affirmative action, and explicitly prioritised the gender dimension.

The project aimed to foster integration of Roma communities in higher education. It focused on factors identified as contributing to the marginalisation of Roma communities and to their exclusion from higher formal education: the lack of role models and a lack of motivation. The project was based on 3 pillars: peer mediation; gender equality (with a quota of 40 % women participants); and capacity building through non-formal training courses.

The aim was to bring about substantial change by empowering young participants in various spheres of their lives, particularly through developing so-called soft skills that facilitate the learning process, civic intervention and the attainment of full citizenship. Young Roma were given the opportunity to assume leadership roles in their youth communities and worked together to raise awareness regarding the need of getting more young Roma into school and higher education. The project actively engaged Roma in its planning, implementation and evaluation.

The project was funded by the EEA Grants – Programme Active Citizenship and run by the Gulbenkian Foundation from 2014 until 2016.

For more information, see the website of the Portuguese Platform for Women's Rights.

Promising practice

Offering after-school activities via 'Tanoda' schools

'Tanoda' stands for 'study hall'. The project offers structured afternoon activities to vulnerable children in **Hungary**. It dates back to the early 1990s, when a number of civil society actors realised that bringing children from vulnerable or marginalised backgrounds to school is only the beginning of the long road to their integration. After-school activities (not limited to assistance with homework) is no less important for overcoming deficits in knowledge, social or concentration skills.

When the programme started, it was operated by non-governmental organisations only and funded primarily by private donors. In the 2000s, the proportion of public funding started to increase



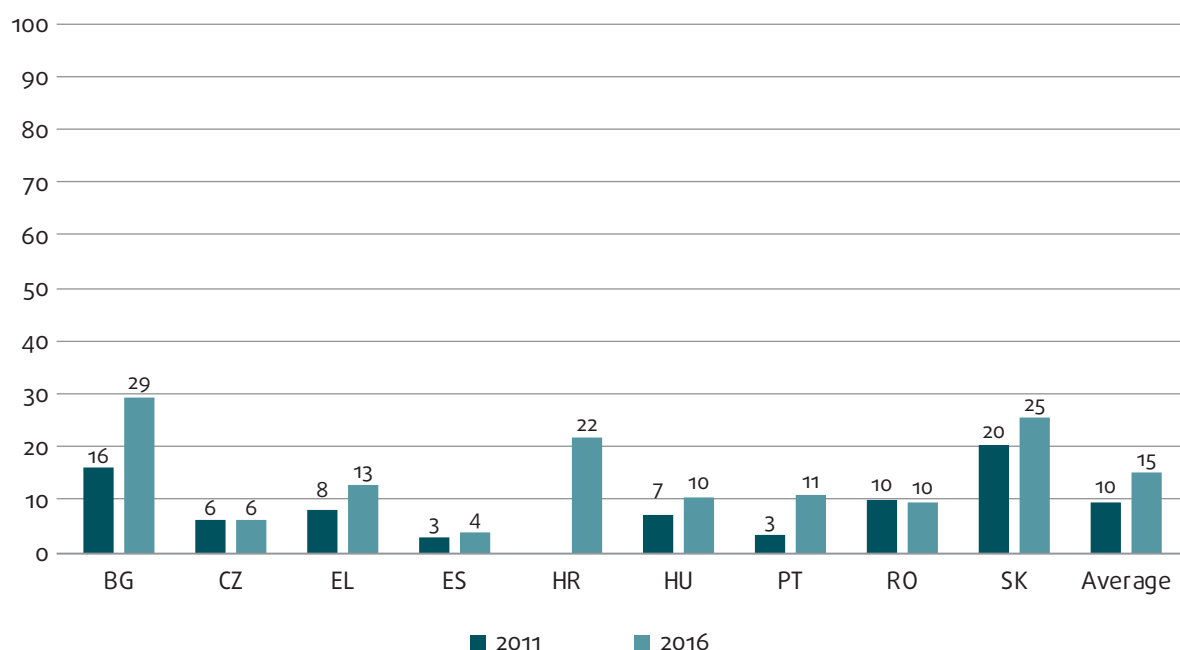
and, in 2012, the government launched a publicly funded 'Tanoda Programme' using European Social and Investment Funds (ESIF). In the first budgetary period, between 2012 and 2014, public spending (from the European Social Fund) reached HUF 5,300 million (about € 17 million). The number of study halls tripled within these two years. In October 2014, 5,000 students were studying in 169 schools or organisations in the framework of the programme. The programme continues today.

For more information, see *State Secretariat responsible for Social Affairs and Social Integration (Szociális Ügyekért és Társadalmi Felzárkózásért Felelős Államtitkárság) (2014), 'Within two years the number of after-schools tripled' (Két év alatt megháromszorozódott a tanodák száma), Press release, 16 October 2014.*

Segregation in education

The share of Roma children attending classes where "all classmates are Roma" captures the phenomenon of segregation in education.²⁰ This has, on average, increased by 50 % between 2011 and 2016 – namely, from 10 % in 2011 to 15 % in 2016 (Figure 15). It is particularly worrying that no country experienced a reduction in segregated education. The share of Roma children attending segregated education increased from 16 % to 29 % in Bulgaria and from 3 % to 11 % in Portugal. Greece and Slovakia both saw an increase of five percentage points, reaching 13 % and 25 % in 2016, respectively. The situation in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania and Spain did not notably change during the specified period. No conclusions can be drawn in regards to Croatia due to the lack of comparable data for 2011.

Figure 15: Roma children, 6 to 15 years old, attending classes where "all classmates are Roma" as reported by respondents (household members 6–15 in education, %)^{a,b,c}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 6-15 years in Roma households who are in education (2011 n=6,960; 2016 n=6,532); weighted results.
^b No data are available for Croatia for 2011.
^c Survey question filled in by respondents for all children aged 6-15 years in education: "Now please think about the school [NAME] attends. How many of the classmates would you say are Roma: all of them, most of them, some or none of them?"

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data)

²⁰ 'Segregation in education' refers to the share of Roma children, 6-15 years old, attending classes where "all classmates are Roma" as reported by the respondents, household members 6-15 years in education (%). Comparability of 2011 and 2016 is limited due to differences in the formulation of questions.

Poverty

Legal context

The EU is bound by its primary law to combat social exclusion and to promote social justice and protection (Article 3 (3), TEU, and Article 9, TFEU). Moreover, combating social exclusion and poverty is the underlying aim of the right to social assistance for people lacking sufficient resources, provided for in Article 34 (3) of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights.

Strategic visions

Combating poverty and social exclusion is at the heart of the EU 2020 Strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth and of the UN Sustainable Development Goals. Goal No. 1 calls for an end to poverty in all its manifestations by 2030, and aims to ensure social protection for the poor and vulnerable and increase access to basic services. Unless Member States achieve substantial improvements in the situation of the Roma, the targets of both will be difficult to reach.

As is further outlined below, the data reveal mixed developments regarding the fight against Roma social exclusion and poverty between 2011 and 2016.

At-risk-of-poverty rates

Three countries saw improvements in 2016 compared to 2011 – the Czech Republic, Romania and Hungary, with 22-, eight- and five-percentage point decreases in the at-risk-of-poverty rates²¹ for their Roma populations, respectively (Figure 16). Meanwhile, this rate increased by 13 percentage points in Greece and eight percentage points in Spain. No notable changes were observed in Bulgaria, Croatia and Slovakia.²² For Portugal, the lack of 2016 data makes it impossible to evaluate whether any progress was made. Overall, the average at-risk-of-poverty rate across all surveyed countries declined by six percentage points, indicating only modest improvements in total. The persistently high levels of Roma at risk of poverty are particularly striking when compared to those of the general population. For the latter, these

21 'At-risk-of-poverty rates' refer to the share of people with an equivalised disposable income (after social transfers) below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income. This indicator does not measure wealth or poverty, but low income in comparison to other residents in that country, which does not necessarily imply a low standard of living (Eurostat).

22 As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.

ranged between 10 % and 25 % in 2016 depending on the country; by contrast, on average across all nine countries, 80 % of Roma lived at risk of poverty.

Hunger

The share of Roma living in households where at least one person had to go to bed hungry at least once in the previous month declined in most countries (Figure 17).²³ The rate nearly halved in Romania – from 61 % in 2011 to 32 % in 2016. In Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Hungary, the rate dropped by over 10 percentage points. In Greece, it dropped by six percentage points. No notable changes were observed in Croatia, Slovakia and Spain.²⁴ As with the 'at-risk-of-poverty-rate', it is not possible to evaluate the situation in Portugal as no 2016 data are available. Overall, the average hunger rate declined from 38 % in 2011 to 27 % in 2016.

Employment

Legal context

The Union aims to combat poverty and social exclusion through achieving a sustainable economy and promoting economic, social and territorial cohesion, and solidarity among Member States (Article 3 (2), TEU). Full employment is one of the objectives of the EU (Article 3 (3), TEU), while the freedom to choose an occupation and the right to engage in work are enshrined in Article 15 (1) of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights. In addition, protection in the case of loss of employment is recognised in Article 34 (1). Article 15 of the Charter protects the right to engage in work.

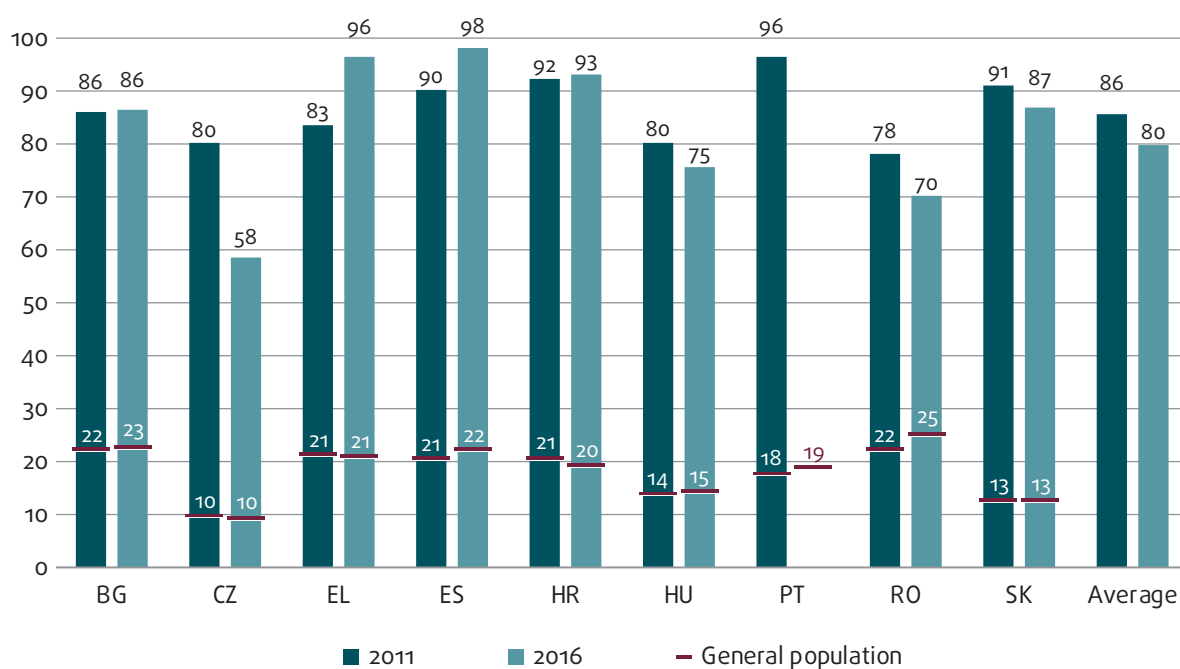
Strategic visions

The EU 2020 Strategy sets raising the employment rate of the population aged 20-64 to at least 75 % as a flagship target. Three of the targets of UN Sustainable Development Goal No. 8 – "Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment and decent work for all" – also focus on labour market participation. All are particularly relevant for Roma but will be difficult to reach unless dramatic progress is achieved in employing Roma in the coming years.

23 The analysis in this section is based on the share of Roma living in households where, in the previous month, at least one person went to bed hungry at least once.

24 As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.

Figure 16: Household members at risk of poverty (below 60 % of national median equivalised income after social transfers) (%)^{a,b,c,d}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=36,438; 2016 n=31,793); weighted results.

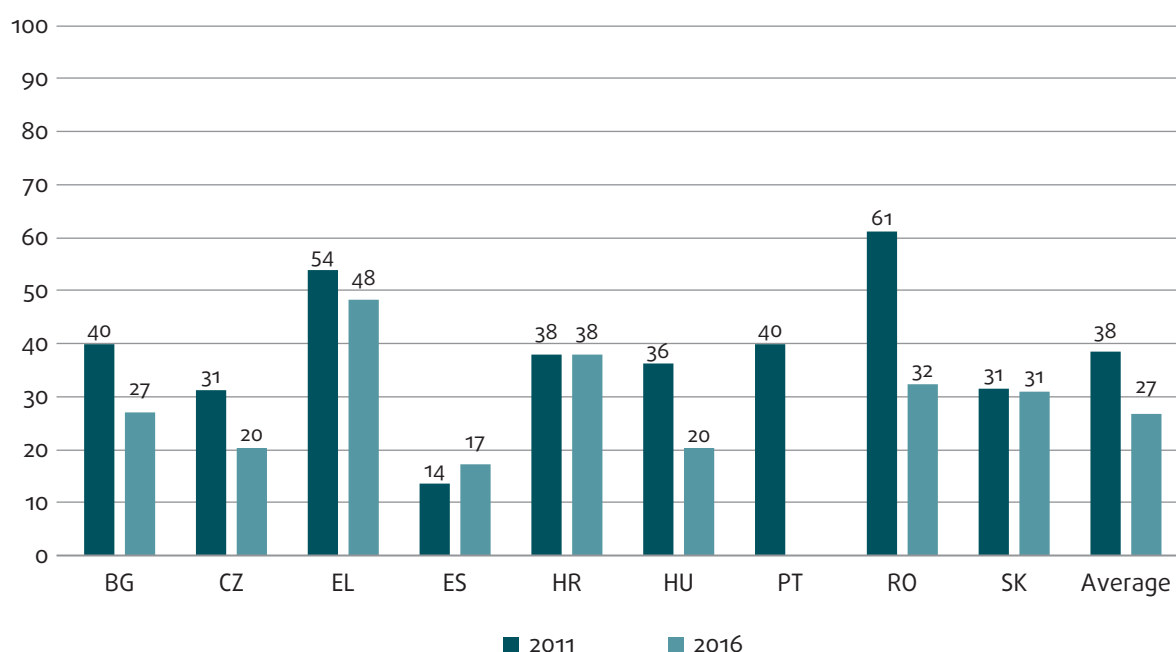
^b Value for Portugal cannot be published because of high number of missing values (>50 %).

^c At-risk-of-poverty based on the EU-MIDIS II survey are all persons with an equivalised current monthly disposable household income below the twelfth of the national at-risk-of-poverty threshold 2014 (published by Eurostat). The equivalised disposable income is the total income of the household, after tax and other deductions, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale (1-0.5-0.3). Eurostat [t2020_52] (downloaded 05/03/2018).

^d The average for 2016 does not include Portugal.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, EU-SILC 2014, General population; Eurostat, EU-SILC 2011, General population

Figure 17: Persons living in households where at least one person had to go to bed hungry at least once in the previous month (%)^{a,b,c}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=39,142; 2016 n=31,793); weighted results.
^b Value for Portugal for 2016 cannot be published because of high number of missing values (>25 %).
^c Survey question: “In the past month, have you or anyone in the household ever gone to bed hungry because there was not enough money for food? If yes, how often did this happen in the past month?”

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

Employment rate

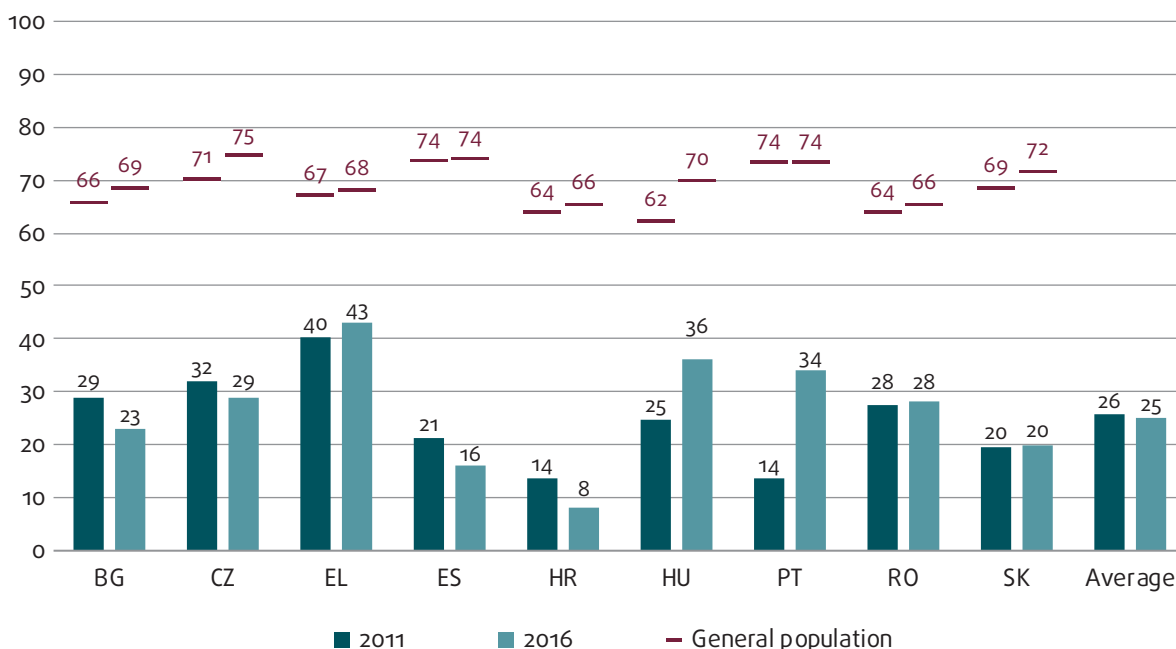
Self-declared main activity “paid work” rates²⁵ among Roma improved considerably between 2011 and 2016 only in Portugal (by 20 percentage points) and Hungary (by 11 percentage points) (see Figure 18).²⁶ The rate decreased in Croatia and Bulgaria (by 6 percentage points) and Spain (by 5 percentage points). In the remaining countries it did not change. The average rate value remained almost the same – 26 % in 2011 and 25 % in 2016. In Greece, the rate for Roma was closest to the rate for the general population – partially due to deterioration of the rate for the general population. On the other hand, the gap between the two groups was the largest in Croatia and Spain, reaching 58 percentage points in 2016.

On average, the rate of “paid work” for women and men did not change between 2011 and 2016; the gender gap in this area amounted to 18 percentage points in 2016 (Figure 19). Looking at individual countries, Greece stands out. Despite having the highest “paid work” rate both in total and for men, it also has the largest gender disparity: one in five Roma women in Greece were employed in 2016, as opposed to two thirds of Roma men.

²⁵ The ‘employment rate’ refers to the share of people who declared their main activity status as being in ‘paid work’ (including full-time and part-time work, ad hoc jobs and self-employment), household members, 16+ (%). ‘Main activity’ asks all household members for their current status regarding employment. In this report, “employment rate” is used as a proxy of “main activity status – paid work” for the general population.

²⁶ As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as ‘no change’.

Figure 18: Household members (16+) who declared their main activity status as being in “paid work” (%)^{a,b}

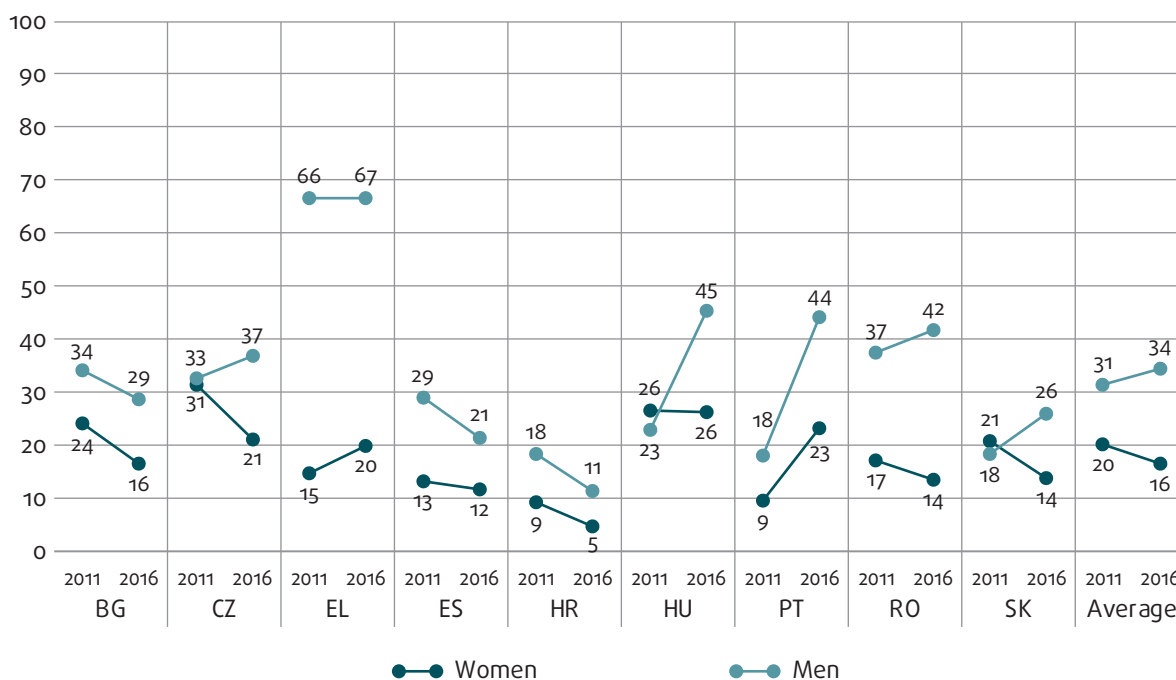


Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 16+ in Roma households (2011 n=24,962; 2016 n=22,091); weighted results.

^b For the general population, “employment rate” was used as a proxy of “main activity status – paid work”, Eurostat [lfsi_emp_a] (download 05/03/2018).

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); General population: Eurostat 2011 and 2016

Figure 19: Household members (16+) who declared their main activity status as being in “paid work” (%), by gender^a



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 16+ in Roma households (2011 n=24,962; 2016 n=22,085); weighted results.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

NEET youth

Expanding young people's chances of gaining productive employment is a key goal of the Europe 2020 Strategy. The share of individuals aged 16-24 years who are not in employment, education or training (the so-called NEET rate²⁷) is an important indicator. It reflects shortcomings in an area that is particularly relevant to vulnerable groups facing prejudice and discrimination. Put simply, prejudice is an important factor demotivating young people to look for jobs (which most probably they would not get) or improve their qualifications (which they would not have the opportunity to apply).

The NEET rate²⁸ for Roma increased in most surveyed countries – even though it remained stable for the general population (Figure 20). Slovakia saw the biggest increase, at 21 percentage points; followed by Hungary (13 percentage points), the Czech Republic (8 percentage points), and Romania and Spain (6 percentage points). Only Portugal

managed to reduce the gap between young Roma and the general youth population, reducing the NEET rate for Roma by 27 percentage points. Finally, rates did not considerably change in Bulgaria, Croatia and Greece.²⁹

In terms of gender, the 2016 NEET rates for women were considerably higher than for men in all surveyed countries – with the notable exception of the Czech Republic, where no gender gap was observed either in 2011 or 2016 (Figure 21). The differences ranged from “only” 7 percentage points in Spain to as many as 43 percentage points in Greece. In the only two countries in which the NEET rate for men was higher than for women in 2011 – Hungary and Slovakia – the situation was reversed by 2016. Furthermore, in the only country with a total drop in the Roma NEET rate – Portugal – the rate of improvement was considerably lower for women than for men. On average, the NEET rate for Roma women increased faster than for Roma men. As a result, the gender gap widened, reaching 17 percentage points in 2016.

Promising practice

Facilitating access to the labour market with an explicit focus on youth

The ACCEDER programme helps Roma and other people in vulnerable situations access the labour market. It goes beyond training courses and requalification, and includes reaching out to employers to facilitate job placements. ACCEDER has been operational since 2000 and is currently present in 14 regions of Spain with 50 employment offices. It is well known, and is notable for at least two aspects: it achieves tangible results and these results can be robustly monitored.

Since its launch in 2000, ACCEDER has served 98,168 beneficiaries. Of these, 68,148 are Roma; 52 % are women. 27,565 people obtained regular employment contracts. 24,303 companies partner with ACCEDER as employers, of which 1,855 have five or more contracts with Roma employees. The results suggest that, once employers have real-life experiences with Roma employees, the intensity of anti-Roma prejudice declines sharply.

Facilitating young people's access to the labour market (a key priority of Europe 2020) is among ACCEDER's leading priorities. Of the 27,565 people who obtained regular employment contracts, 18,425 individuals (69 %) were under 30 years old. Building on this achievement, ACCEDER is currently carrying out specific training and operating employment schemes for Roma youngsters under the youth guarantee scheme known as the *Aprender Trabajando* Initiative ('Learning by Doing').

For more information, see the ACCEDER website.

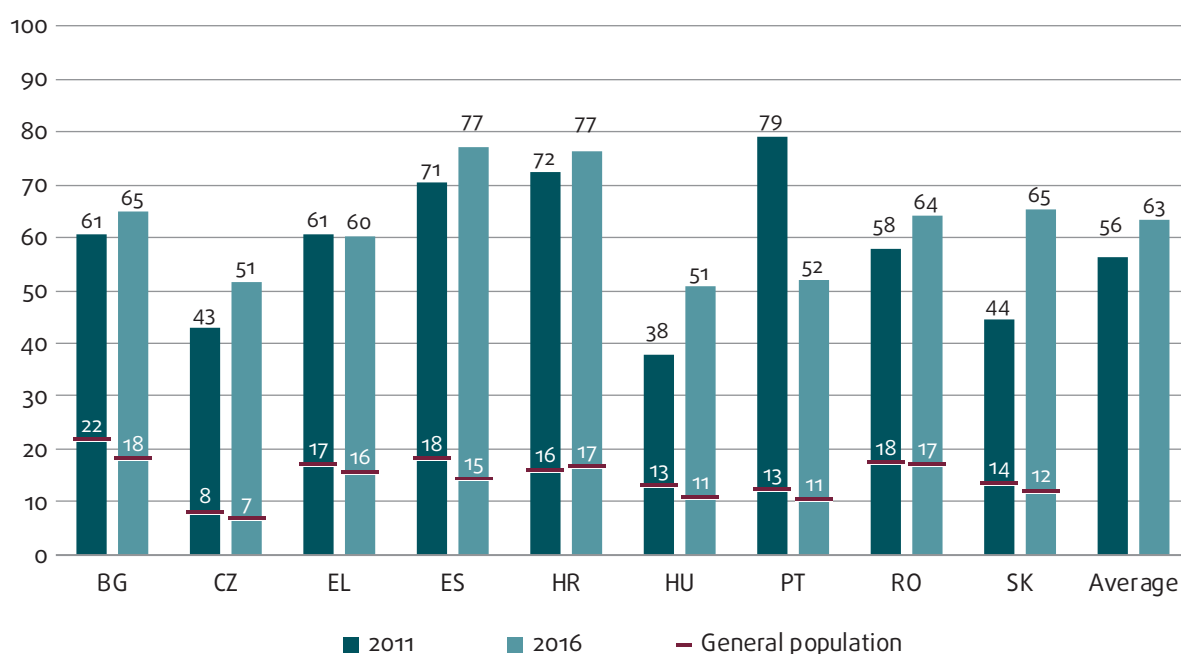
27 'NEET youth' refers to the share of young persons, 16-24 years old, with current main activity being neither in employment nor in education or training, household members (%). Based on the self-declared current main activity. It excludes those who did any work in the previous four weeks to earn some money.

28 Comparability between EU-MIDIS II/Roma Survey and Eurostat NEET rate is restricted due to the different age bands. Taking 15-year-olds into account would show values lower by a few percentage points for those who are not in employment, training or education. The Eurostat NEET rate is based on the ILO concept, which refers to having worked at least one hour in the past week, whereas EU-MIDIS II asked about self-declared main activity and any paid work in the past four weeks.

29 As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.



Figure 20: Young persons, 16-24 years old, with current main activity being neither in employment nor in education or training (%)^{a,b,c}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 16-24 years in Roma households (2011 n=6,907; 2016 n=5,632); weighted results.

^b Based on the household questionnaire and respondent questionnaire on self-declared current main activity, not considering those who did any work in the previous four weeks to earn some money.

^c Restricted comparability with the Eurostat NEET rate 2016: *edat_ifse_20* (downloaded 05/03/2018). Eurostat data are for the population aged 15-24 years not employed and not involved in further education or training, based on the ILO concept; EU-MIDIS II data for Roma are for the age group 16-24.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat NEET rate 2016; Eurostat NEET rate 2011

Promising practice

Fostering better community relations by generating employment at municipal level

The Municipality of Ulič in **Slovakia** developed a model to address long-term unemployment and create employment opportunities for low-skilled and disadvantaged job seekers, such as Roma. This was done through an employment workshop and the subsequent start-up of a municipal firm to provide waste management services in neighbouring villages and heating for municipal buildings in Ulič.

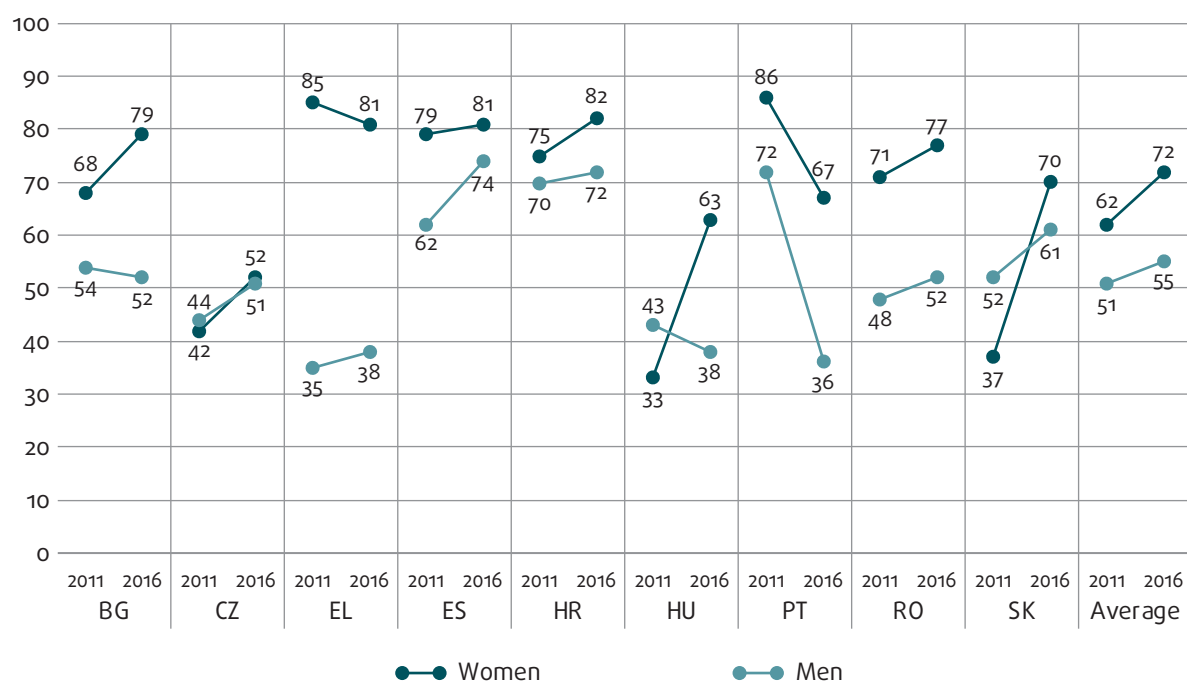
As the firm developed into a self-sustaining company, revenues were used to cover wages, invest in new technologies, and fund a local municipal community centre that provides joint activities for Roma and non-Roma children, youth, adults and seniors. Through the firm and the centre, inter-ethnic relations have slowly improved, and its employees' chances to succeed in the open labour market have increased.

The initiative began in 2006. It was financed by a combination of EU structural and investment funds, as well as the state and municipal budget.

Several other municipalities in Slovakia have developed similar approaches, including Spišský Hrhov and Raslavice.

For more information, see the Ulič municipality's website.

Figure 21: Young persons, 16-24 years old, with current main activity being neither in employment nor in education or training (%), 2011-2016, by gender^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 16-24 years in Roma households (2011 n=6,907; 2016 n=5,632); weighted results.

^b Based on the household questionnaire and respondent questionnaire on self-declared current main activity, not considering those who did any work in the previous four weeks to earn some money, disaggregated by gender.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

Promising practice

Certifying employers for upholding equal treatment at work and during recruitment

The Ethnic Friendly Employer (EFE) project is a response to persistent employment discrimination against ethnic minorities in the **Czech Republic**. It is predominantly – but not exclusively – targeted towards Roma. It attempts to break the vicious cycles of discrimination, mistrust and stereotyping and their impact on employers, customers, as well as demotivated job seekers from minority groups.

Awarding ‘pro-ethnic companies’ that uphold the standards of non-discrimination and equal treatment at the workplace as well as in the recruitment process promotes the principles of social responsibility and active civil society. The widely recognisable EFE label acts as a signal to prospective job applicants and serves as a prestigious PR tool for the employers, bringing together the non-profit, private and public sectors.

The project was initiated by the IQ Roma Service Civic Association (IQRS) in 2006.

For more information, see [The Ethnic Friendly Employer project's website](#).

Health

Legal context

Promoting a high level of human health protection is among the issues for the EU to consider in defining and implementing its policies and activities (Article 9, TFEU). Article 35 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights provides that everyone has the right of access to preventive healthcare. In addition, healthcare and social protection falls within the scope of the Racial Equality Directive (Article 3 (1) (e)).

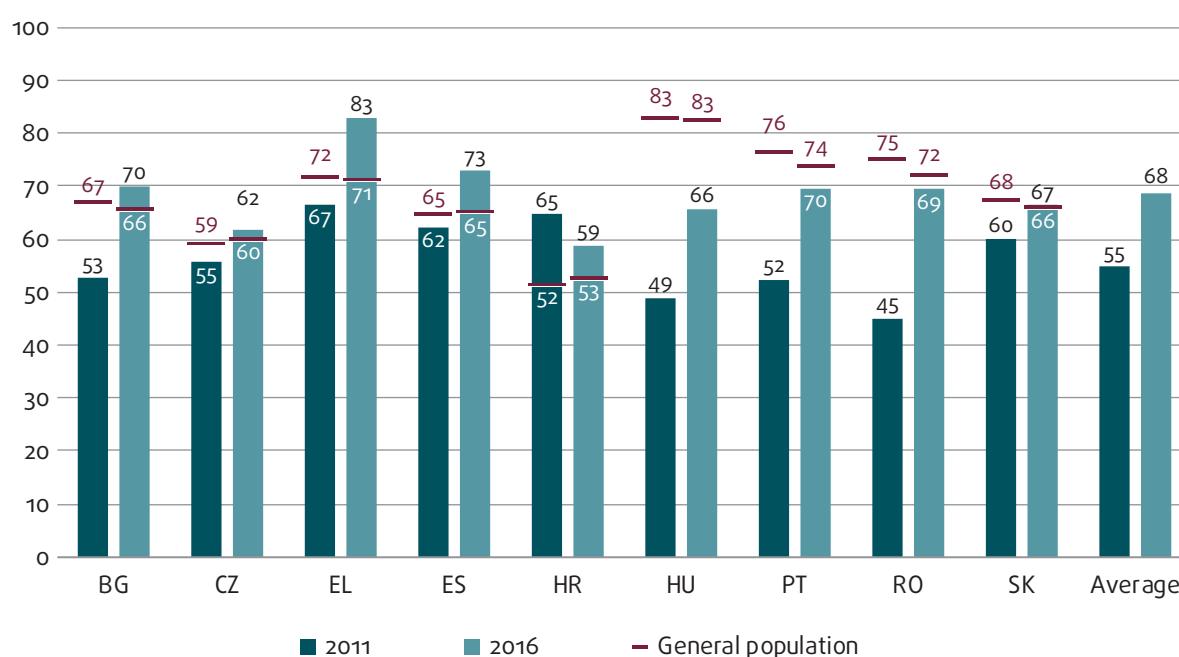
Self-reported health status

Between 2011 and 2016, the number of Roma respondents who self-assessed their health in positive terms (“very good” or “good”)³⁰ increased in all countries except for Croatia (Figure 22). Moreover, the trend for Roma in Croatia was the opposite of that for the general population, whose

perceptions of their own health improved considerably between 2011 and 2016 (according to Eurostat data). In the remaining countries, the magnitude of improvements varied. The Czech Republic and Slovakia experienced the smallest progress, with seven percentage points. On the other end of the spectrum, Roma in Greece assessed their health in positive terms at the highest rates both in 2011 and 2016, at 67 % and 83 %, respectively. Romania exhibited the largest positive change; it reached 69 % in 2016, after starting from the lowest score among all countries in 2011 (45 %). On average, the share of respondents assessing their health as “very good” or “good” increased from 55 % to 68 %.

Disaggregated by gender, the data reveal modest gaps between Roma women and men. In 2016, Roma men reported slightly better health conditions than Roma women in most countries, resulting in a 5-percentage-point difference, on average (Figure 23). The situation improved for both groups in all countries except Croatia.

Figure 22: Respondents (16+) who assessed their general health as “very good” or “good” (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents aged 16+ (2011 n=8,927; 2016 n=7,942), excluding those who declined to answer; weighted results.

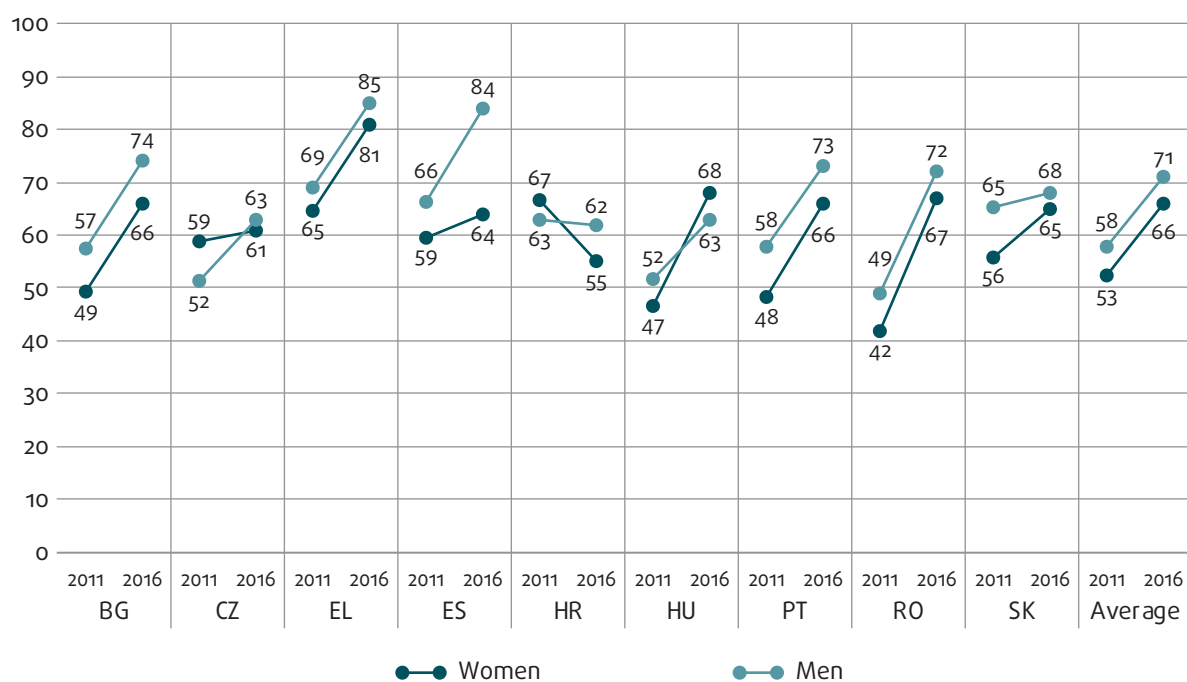
^b Survey question: “How is your health in general? Very good; good; fair; bad; very bad?”

^c Eurostat [hlth_silc_01] (download 05/03/2018).

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, EU-SILC 2016, General population; Eurostat, EU-SILC 2011, General population

³⁰ The ‘self-reported health status’ refers to the share of respondents, 16+, who assessed their health in general as “very good” or “good”.

Figure 23: Roma (16+) who assess their general health as “very good” or “good”, by gender, 2011 and 2016 (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents aged 16+ (2011 n=8,927; 2016 n=7,942), excluding those who declined to answer; weighted results.

^b Survey question: “How is your health in general? Very good; good; fair; bad; very bad?”

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

Medical insurance coverage rates

Legal context

Article 35 of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights sets out a right for everyone to benefit from medical treatment. Article 34 (1) refers to social security and social services in cases such as maternity, illness, industrial accidents, dependency or old age.

Medical insurance coverage³¹ is a necessary precondition for enjoying the right to medical treatment. However, the level of such coverage for Roma remains diverse across countries (Figure 24). The share of respondents (16+) who said that they are covered by medical insurance did not change in six of the nine survey countries.³² Fewer respondents reported having medical insurance coverage in 2016 than in 2011 in the

Czech Republic and Hungary. In Greece, the proportion of those reporting that they have medical insurance improved significantly – from 46 % in 2011 to 79 % in 2016. Almost all respondents in Portugal, Slovakia and Spain said that they are covered by medical insurance; however, only around half of the respondents in Bulgaria and Romania indicated that they had medical coverage both in 2011 and 2016. As a result, the average across all surveyed Member States did not change markedly: approximately 1 in 4 Roma reported that they had no medical insurance in 2016.

Promising practice

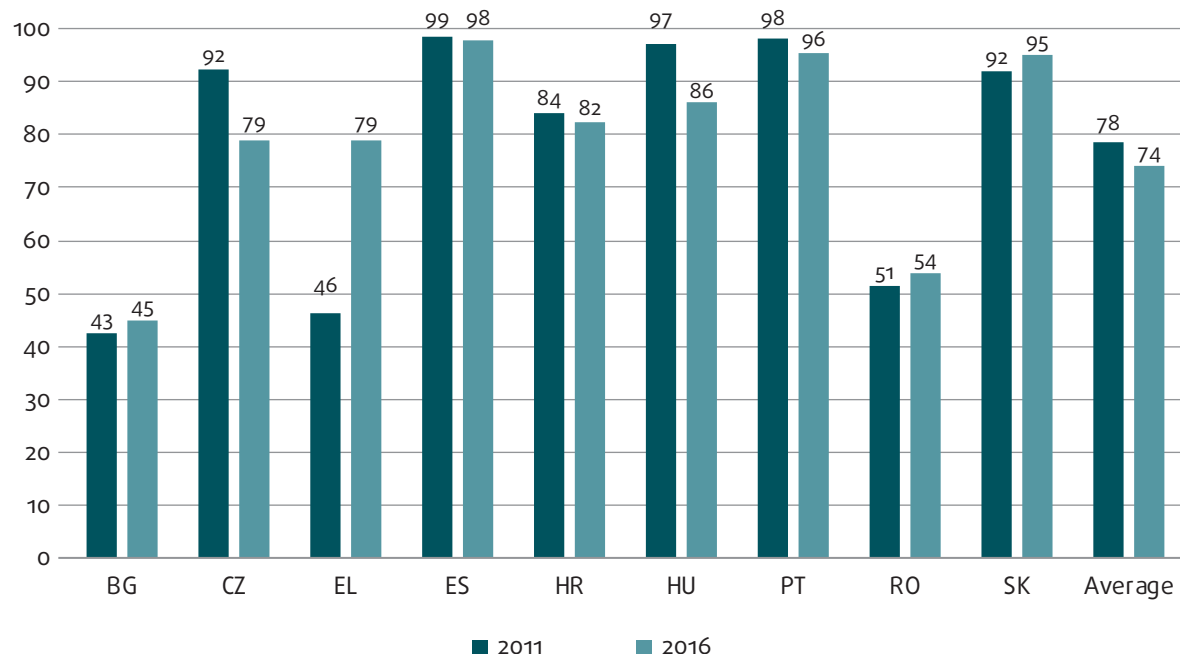
Setting up health mediator networks

Health mediators, or community health workers, are increasingly common in EU Member States. **Bulgaria** is one of the first to test and implement them not just as a system for providing access to health services to marginalised Roma communities, but also as an opportunity for professional development for young Roma working as mediators.

The Ethnic Minorities Health Problems Foundation launched the approach in Bulgaria in 2001. The aim

31 The ‘medical insurance coverage rates’ refer to the share of Roma, aged 16 years or over, who indicate that they are covered by national basic health insurance and/or additional insurance.

32 As already noted, a difference of less than five percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as ‘no change’.

Figure 24: Respondents (16+) with medical insurance coverage (%)^{a,b}

Notes: ^a Out of all Roma respondents (2011 n=8,736; 2016 n=7,826), excluding those who declined to answer; weighted results.

^b Survey question: "Do you have any form of medical insurance in [COUNTRY]? (Cite national examples)"

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data)

was to address discrimination that Roma face in access to health services. The foundation ran a pre-admission scheme that enabled 106 Roma people to study as healthcare professionals: 22 as doctors and the rest as pharmacists, dentists, nurses and midwives. In 2016, a total of 195 health mediators were working in 113 municipalities in Bulgaria, an increase from 109 mediators in 2012. Their positions are funded from municipal budgets. Being part of the community themselves, the health mediators know the specific challenges first-hand, have the trust of the local people and are well equipped to facilitate dialogue and cooperation between the populations in vulnerable situations and the institutions. The implications of such cooperation go well beyond access to health.

A similar approach was adopted in **Slovakia**, where the programme also benefited from the existence of the network of so-called field social workers (employed by municipalities to work predominantly in the field – directly communicating with marginalised families). In Slovakia, the programme relies predominantly on European Structural Funds. In 2016, the NGO Healthy Communities continued to implement the programme in 200 Roma settlements.

It engaged some 200 health mediators, focusing on preventative care and health awareness, with a specific focus on children through vaccinations and regular check-ups.

Sources: Thornton, J. (2017), 'Bulgaria attempts to combat discrimination against Roma', *Lancet*, Vol. 389, 21 January 2017, pp. 240–241; National Network of Health Mediators (2016), 10th National Meeting of the "Initiative for Health and Vaccination Prophylactics" (Десета Национална среща "Инициатива за здраве и ваксинапрофилактика"), 8 December 2016; website of Healthy Communities (Zdravé Komunity)

Housing

Legal context

Combating social exclusion and promoting social justice and protection are among the objectives of the EU (Article 3 (3), TEU). In this context, housing assistance is recognised as a right under Article 34 (3) of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, so as to ensure a decent existence for all those who lack sufficient resources.

Strategic visions

UN Sustainable Development Goals No. 6 and No. 11 also prominently reflect housing issues. Targets 6.1 (universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water), 6.2 (access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all) and 11.1 (access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services, and upgrade slums) are particularly relevant for Roma.

Access to basic sanitation

Households without tap water

Legal context

Access to basic sanitation is an essential component of living a decent existence, according to Article 34 (3) of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights. It enshrines the right to housing assistance for those in need of such support.

Average number of rooms per person

The average number of rooms per person³³ did not change considerably in Roma communities between 2011 and 2016. Where any changes occurred, these did not reduce the large gap between the Roma and the general population on that indicator (Figure 25). The situation for Roma remained similar in all countries except for Romania, which experienced the most notable increase for Roma between 2011 and 2016 (increase of 0.2 rooms per person).

An analysis of the data shows that, as of 2016, a disturbingly high share of the Roma population still lived without tap water in their dwellings.³⁴ Although most countries registered some progress, the gap between Roma and the general population remained (as did considerable differences between countries). This share remained highest in Romania, where, in 2016, 68 % of Roma were living without tap water in their dwelling;

Figure 25: Average number of rooms per person in a given household (excluding kitchens)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=39,844; 2016 n=33,785); weighted results.

^b Based on the mean value of number of rooms per person in the household (without kitchen). Survey question: "How many rooms are there in your accommodation to be used by your household only? Do not count the kitchen, the corridor, the bathroom and rooms rented out or used by persons who do not belong to your household." For the general population, based on Eurostat, EU-SILC 2014, [ilc_lvh003, download 08.09.2016].

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, EU-SILC 2015, General population; Eurostat, EU-SILC 2011, General population

33 Rooms refer to bedrooms, living and dining rooms; kitchens are not included.

34 Share of people living in households without tap water inside the dwelling, household members (%).

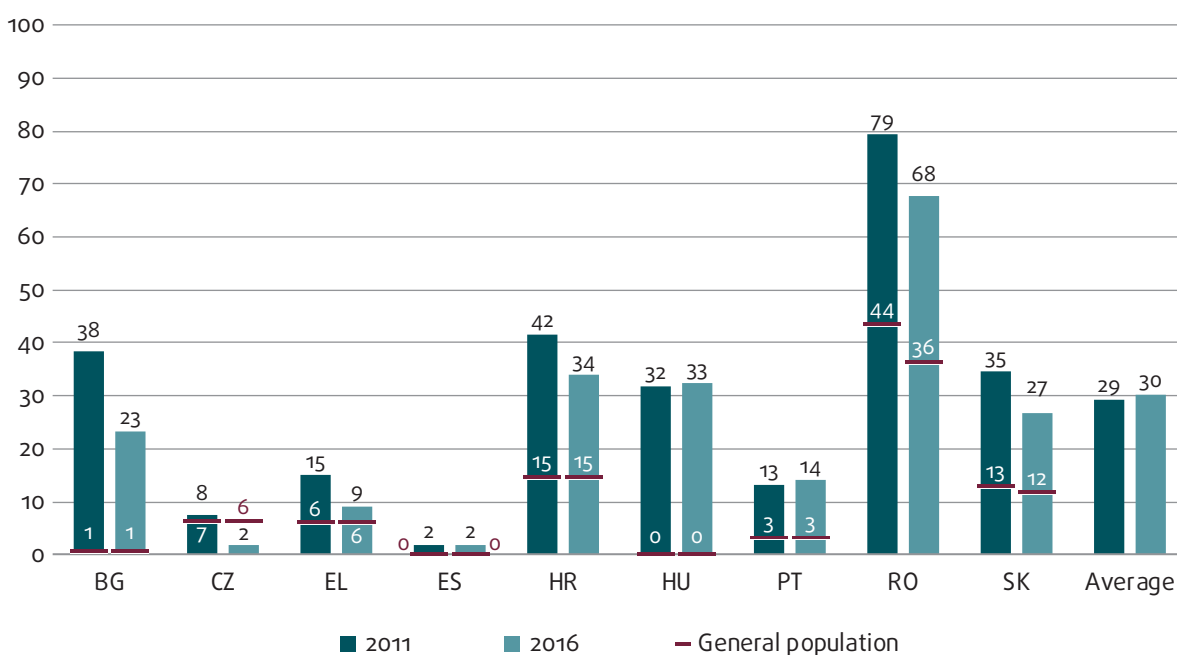
followed by Croatia and Hungary (34 % and 33 %, respectively) (Figure 26). The most visible improvement regarding access to tap water was in Bulgaria and Romania (by 15 and 11 percentage points, respectively). With regards to the general population, most countries have a very low or non-existent share of people living in households without tap water. Nevertheless, in some of the countries with a high share of Roma living in households without tap water (namely Croatia, Romania and Slovakia), a considerable – yet much smaller – share of the general population experiences the same deprivation. It is plausible to assume that Roma are overrepresented in the group without tap water inside their dwellings in the data for the general population. A final interesting observation can be made with regards to the Czech Republic: the higher share of people without tap water inside their dwellings among

the general population most probably reflects the fact that Roma in that country live predominantly in cities, whereas limited access to tap water is more pronounced in rural areas.

People living without toilet, shower, or bathroom inside the dwelling³⁵

This indicator is highly correlated to the share of people living without tap water inside their dwelling. Having running water is a necessary precondition for having indoor toilets, bathrooms or showers. Accordingly, the improvements on this indicator largely mirror those on access to tap water, with slight variations. As a result, the share of Roma living without toilet, shower or bathroom inside their dwelling is higher than the share of the general population living in such conditions.

Figure 26: People living in households without tap water inside the dwelling (%)^{a,b}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=39,657; 2016 n=33,767); weighted results.

^b Based on the share of people living in Roma households without tap water inside the dwelling; for the general population, based on Eurostat, 2015 (latest available), "population connected to public water supply" [env_wat_pop], downloaded 06/03/2018. Latest available Eurostat data for the following countries are as follows: Greece – 2007; Portugal – 2009; Spain – 2010; Croatia – 2011.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, 2015, General Population; Eurostat, 2011, General population

³⁵ Share of people living in households that have neither a toilet nor shower or bathroom inside the dwelling, household members (%).

People living in households with electricity supply

In all surveyed countries, a large majority of the surveyed Roma population lives in households with electricity supply.³⁶ Only in Greece and in Portugal did fewer than 9 out of 10 have electricity in their households in 2016. The changes between 2011 and 2016 are less pronounced than for other indicators. The only country that registered a notable improvement was Romania – by 8 percentage points (Figure 28). None of the remaining countries experienced a notable change.³⁷

Promising practice

Pata-Cluj: designating social housing for Roma

The project on *Social interventions for the desegregation and social inclusion of vulnerable groups in Cluj Metropolitan Area, including the disadvantaged Roma* – known as Pata-Cluj – is an ambitious integrated project piloting various social housing initiatives, both in the city and the metropolitan area of Cluj (**Romania**).

Funded by Norway Grants (with about € 3.5 million over 31 months), it aimed to support Roma families in precarious housing situations – and to learn from the challenges Roma inclusion efforts encounter at local level. For that purpose, 23 apartments were procured in Cluj and two nearby villages, and two blocks of flats with six apartments each were built in a third village near the city.

The idea was simple: construct/procure social apartments, develop a robust methodology for sound eligibility criteria, secure the support of the non-Roma neighbours and move in the families. Actually carrying this out proved far more challenging due to anti-Gypsy attitudes that were stronger than initially anticipated. The news that Roma from Pata Rat would move to the city of Cluj and three villages around Cluj was shocking for many. The project sparked a bitter debate, with openly racist arguments aired both in the mainstream and social media – all with the aim of halting the relocation.

The Pata-Cluj team followed a reactive rather than proactive approach in dealing with the anti-Gypsyism. The four-month delay between the outburst of racist reactions and the families' actual relocation was used to improve relationships and ensure a safe environment for the families.

The message conveyed was simple: all people have the right to decent living conditions and this right should be secured – also bearing in mind the complex situation and the level of resources the families have for ensuring the sustainability of the rented apartments. Moving into social housing was therefore just the beginning of a longer process of family assistance and community facilitation to support both the Roma families and the communities who received them in maintaining the quality of the houses and relations with neighbours.

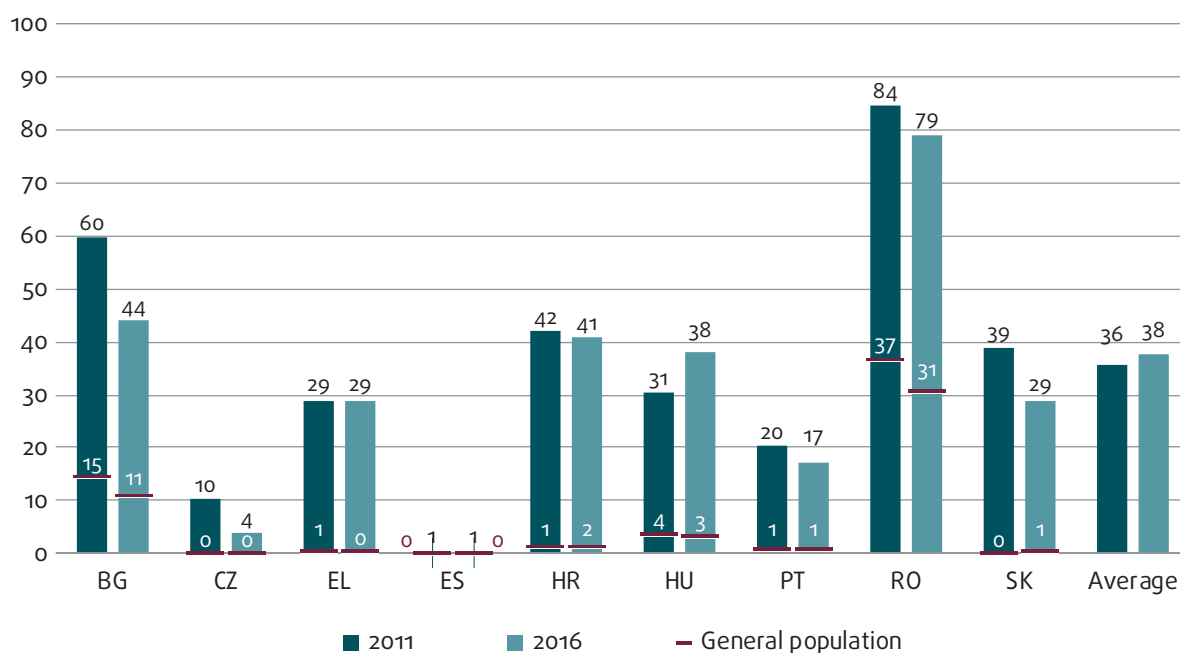
The project highlighted the risks of politicising desegregation in housing, as well as the importance of the case managers' and community facilitators' role in the field for nurturing constructive social relations. Three months after Roma families moved into the new village, the residents' attitude changed, with some even apologising on behalf of their families for their initially negative reactions.

For more information, see the project's website.

³⁶ Refers to the share of people living in households with electricity supply, household members (%).

³⁷ As already noted, a difference of a few percentage points between the 2011 and 2016 values is considered as 'no change'.

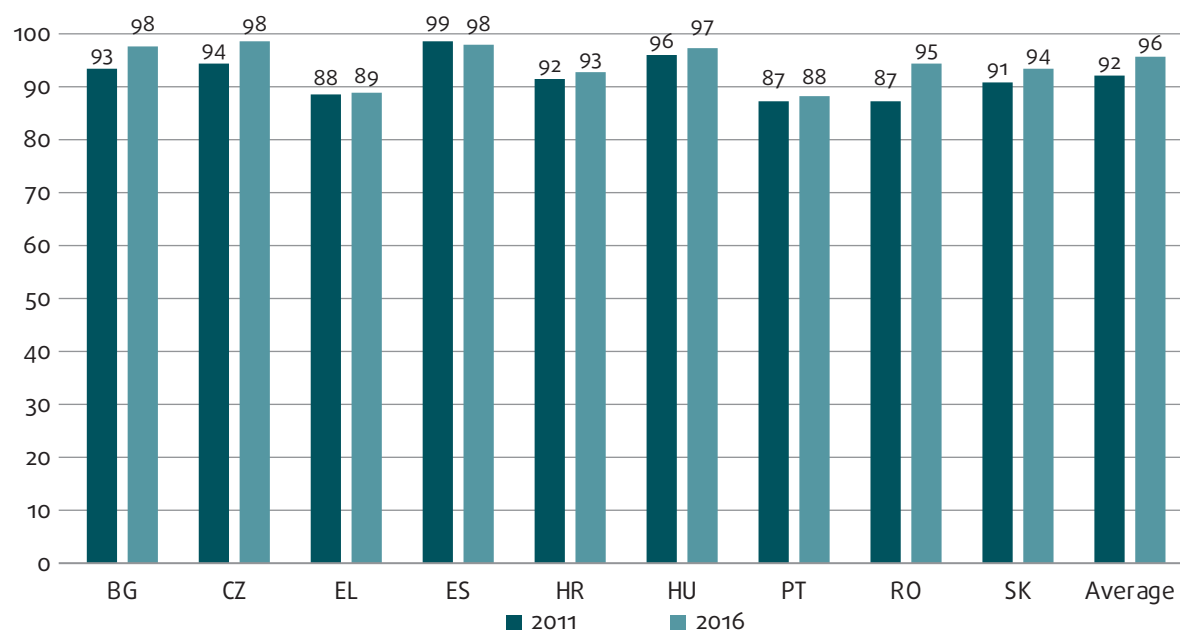


Figure 27: People living in households without a toilet, shower or bathroom inside the dwelling (%)^{a,b}

Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=39,731; 2016 n=33,764); weighted results.

^b Based on the share of people "living in households without toilet or shower or bathroom inside the dwelling". For general population - [ilc_mdhoos, downloaded 08 September 2016].

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, weighted data); Eurostat, EU-SILC 2015, General population; Eurostat, EU-SILC 2011, General population

Figure 28: People living in households with electricity supply (%)^a

Notes: ^a Out of all persons in Roma households (2011 n=39,728 - 2016 n=33,723); weighted results.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); FRA, Roma Pilot Survey 2011 (weighted data); UNDP-World Bank-EC 2011 (for Croatia, (weighted data)

3

Roma deprivation in a global context



The EU and its Member States are committed to implementing the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Integrating the SDGs into all relevant policy frameworks, implementation and monitoring instruments are of particular relevance for achieving Roma inclusion. What does this mean in practice?

A number of goals – already referred to in this report – call for achieving certain levels of wellbeing at individual and/or household level. The UN Economic and Social Council³⁸ suggested that it would be very important to consider mainstreaming SDG indicators beyond gender, age and disability also for minorities and other vulnerable populations, such as the Roma. Disaggregating SDGs by vulnerable groups adds an important dimension to country-level reporting, highlighting inequalities between countries. At the same time, disaggregation helps identify policy priorities within countries. Even a country that meets the individual targets on national average level would still have some work to do in regards to SDGs if a substantive share of its population is falling behind on the respective indicators.³⁹

This is precisely the case of Roma in the EU. Using data from UNSTATS SDG Indicators,⁴⁰ it is possible to get a general idea of how Roma in the EU compare to the general population of a number of countries regarding their living conditions.⁴¹ Three indicators – in the area of education, employment and access to safe water – illustrate this point. The following tables show the countries'

rankings as presented by the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), with the rows with the values for Roma added.

SDG4: Quality education

The respective SDG indicator is "4.2.2 – Participation rate in organised learning (one year before the official primary entry age)". The UN applies the "UNSTATS – SDG Indicator: Participation rate in organised learning (one year before the official primary entry age)". The corresponding indicator from FRA data is "Share of children, aged between 4 and the compulsory age to start primary education, who participated in early childhood education" (Figure 10 in the section on Education). The results presented in Table 1 outline both the scope of the challenges Roma are facing as well as the diversity in the situation of Roma within individual Member States. The average value of pre-school education enrolment of Roma in the nine surveyed Member States falls below the estimated world average. Only Roma in Spain are close to the estimated average for Europe (and Roma in Hungary are close). Roma in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece and Slovakia are in the group of Ethiopia, Sierra Leone, Burundi, Uzbekistan or Azerbaijan for this indicator.

SDG6: Clean water and sanitation

Access to safe drinking water is another area in which Roma are facing severe deprivation. With all the caveats related to definitions and data collection cycles, SDG indicator 6.1.1, "Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services" is comparable to "Share of people living in households with tap water inside the dwelling". Data visualised in Table 2 suggest

38 *Ibid.*

39 FRA (2016b).

40 UNDESA (Department of Economic and Social Affairs), Statistics Division, *SDG Indicators Global Database*.

41 Given the methodological differences and variation in data collection cycles, the analysis in this section does not claim robust statistical comparability. It is suitable, however, for providing a general picture of the deprivation faced by Roma.

Table 1: SDG4, indicator 4.2.2, "Participation rate in organised learning (one year before the official primary entry age)"

Country / Region	Participation rate ^{a, b}
Norway	99.8 %
Sweden	98.3 %
Roma in Spain	95 %
Europe (Estimate)	94.6 % (2014)
Roma in Hungary	91 %
USA	88.4 %
Kyrgyzstan	69.2 %
Turkey	68 %
World (Estimate)	66.6 % (2014)
Solomon Islands	60 %
Marshall Islands	60 %
Northern Africa (Estimated)	60 % (2014)
Equatorial Guinea	58.2 %
Sao Tome and Principe	56.9 %
Palestine ^c	56.8 % (2014)
Niue	55.7 %
Roma in the 9 surveyed EU Member States, average	53 %
Puerto Rico	52.6 % (2014)
Laos	52.2 %
Cameroon	51.6 %
Jordan	50.7 % (2012)
Northern Africa and Western Asia	50.2 %
Iran	47.1 %
Rwanda	46.2 %
United Republic of Tanzania (Estimated)	45.3 % (2014)
Mali	43.5 %
Sub-Saharan Africa (Estimated)	40.8 % (2013)
Ethiopia	38.1 %
Sierra Leone	37 %
Roma in Czech Republic	34 %
Roma in Slovakia	34 %
Burundi	33 %
Roma in Croatia	32 %
Uzbekistan	31.1 % (2016)
Roma in Greece	28 %
Azerbaijan	27.6 %
Tajikistan	14.9 % (2016)
Saudi Arabia	14 % (2014)
Djibouti	10 % (2016)

Notes: ^a Data for individual countries for 2015.

^b Data for Roma for 2016, EU-MIDIS II: Share of children, aged between 4 and the compulsory age to start primary education, who participated in early childhood education.

^c This designation shall not be construed as recognition of a State of Palestine and is without prejudice to the individual positions of the Member States on this issue.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); UNDESA (Department of Economic and Social Affairs), Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database, accessed on 30.01.2018



Table 2: SDG6, indicator 6.1.1, “Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services”

Country / Region	Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services ^{a, b}
USA	99 %
Europe	92 %
Eastern Europe	85 %
Russia	76 %
World average	71 %
Colombia	71 %
Roma in the 9 surveyed EU Member States, average	70 %
Albania	69 %
Latin America & Caribbean	65 %
Nicaragua	59 %
Southern Asia	56 %
Bangladesh	56 %
India	50 %
Ivory Coast	46 %
Congo	37 %
Pakistan	36 %
Bhutan	34 %
Roma in Romania	32 %
Ghana	27 %
Nepal	27 %
Cambodia	24 %
Sub-Saharan Africa	24 %
Nigeria	20 %
Eastern Africa	18 %
Ethiopia	11 %

Notes: ^a Data for individual countries for 2015 (unless specified otherwise).

^b Data for Roma for 2016, EU-MIDIS II: Share of people living in households with tap water inside the dwelling.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); UNDESA (Department of Economic and Social Affairs), Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database, accessed on 30.01.2018

that the average value for Roma in the EU is slightly below the world average. However, Roma in Romania – the country with the highest number of Roma in the EU – enjoy access to safe water in rates similar to those in Bhutan, Ghana or Nepal.

SDG8: Decent work and economic growth

Finding employment – particularly for young people – is a challenge all Roma in the EU face, with minor

differences between individual countries (data visualised in Figure 20 in the section on Employment). On a global scale on this indicator, Roma youth in the EU are close to their peers in Honduras, Yemen, Trinidad and Tobago or Samoa (Table 3).

Calculating a wide range of other SDGs’ indicators is also possible. But these three examples indicate already that even societies with the most developed economies and highest standard of living still face challenges with regard to inequality and sustainable development.

Table 3: SDG8, indicator 8.6.1, “Proportion of youth (15-24 years) not in education, employment or training”

Country / Region	NEET ^{a, b}
Canada	10.9 %
USA	16.5 % (2014)
Ukraine	17.6 %
F.Y.R.O.M	24.7 %
Indonesia	24.8 %
Bosnia and Herzegovina	27.7 %
Republic of Moldova	27.8 %
Bangladesh	28.9 %
South Africa	30.5 %
United Republic of Tanzania	31 % (2014)
Palestine ^c	31.6 %
Albania	32.8 %
Panama	33 %
Armenia	35.6 %
Ivory Coast	36 % (2016)
Honduras	42 %
Yemen	44.8 % (2014)
Roma in Hungary and Czech Republic	51 %
Trinidad and Tobago	52.5% (2013)
Roma in the surveyed EU Member States, average	63 %
Roma in Croatia and Spain	77 %
Samoa	80 % (2012)

Notes: ^a Data for individual countries for 2015 (unless specified otherwise).

^b Data for Roma for 2016, EU-MIDIS II (16-24 years).

^c This designation shall not be construed as recognition of a State of Palestine and is without prejudice to the individual positions of the Member States on this issue.

Sources: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma (weighted data); UNDESA (Department of Economic and Social Affairs), Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database, accessed on 30.01.2018



Technical annexes

Annex 1: Comparing the results of the 2011 and 2016 surveys – methodology

This publication is based on the data from two surveys conducted by two surveying agencies, GALLUP International (2011) and Ipsos MORI (2016). Both followed a similar methodology but 2011 data were not weighed. To ensure comparability of the results and to make tracking progress possible, Ipsos MORI was contracted to weight the 2011 data set and make it more comparable with the 2016 data set. This section summarises the methodology applied.

Both surveys covered Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Spain. In 2016, the Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EU-MIDIS II) collected the data for each country, while in 2011 the FRA Roma Survey gathered the relevant information on all countries except Croatia, which was not an EU Member State at the time. Nevertheless, data on Croatia were available as it was covered under the 2011 UNDP/WB/EC regional Roma survey that coordinated its implementation with the FRA Roma Survey 2011.

Definition of survey population

In 2011 and 2016 alike, the targeted survey population was defined under the following criteria: individuals aged 16 or older who self-identified as 'Roma' or as any of the other groups often subsumed under that term. Examples include, but are not limited to: Sinti, Kalé, Travellers, Gens du voyage, Manouches, Ashkali and Boyash. While there were some slight variations in the descriptions of the populations in each survey's technical report,⁴² they are considered inconsequential by virtue of the respondents' self-identification as 'Roma'.

Sample frames

As the sample frames (sources of data for sampling), primary sampling units (PSUs) and the levels of coverage of the target population varied between surveys, this section briefly analyses these differences and the resulting implications.

With regards to the sources of data sampling, neither survey had access to population registers and therefore could not directly identify eligible individuals to take part in the survey. As a result, the same Censuses (source) but different versions (publication year) were used for most countries between 2011 and 2016. Greece and Portugal used the same version in both years, and the Czech Republic used entirely different sources, constituting the only exceptions.

Both surveys applied a multi-stage sampling process. First, the list of covered municipalities (sample frame) was reduced to exclude areas with relatively low Roma populations. While the precise criteria by which this was carried out varied by country as well as by year, they predominantly followed a common theme of having larger Roma populations (in absolute numbers or in population density) than the national average. [Annex 2](#) indicates the specific criteria chosen for each country, as well as the reported coverage levels for 2011 and 2016.

Subsequently, PSUs were sampled via random probability from the now-reduced sample frame. The following stage however, required for efficiency reasons to single-out locations within the selected PSUs which had settlements with high Roma *population density*. In municipalities with multiple high Roma-density settlements, the largest settlement was selected. The method to then randomly select households from these settlements via random walks varied slightly between the two years, as in 2011 focused enumeration was used in some PSUs, while adaptive cluster sampling was preferred in 2016.⁴³ Finally, individuals to respond to the questionnaire were randomly selected from each household.

Coverage

While surveys in both years reported very high coverage levels of the reduced sample frame, the aforementioned procedures imply that these levels have been overestimated. More specifically, this overestimation stems from the fact that, in many PSUs, only settlements with high Roma populations were covered. This was improved upon in 2016 with the availability of more precise data, which is likely to have resulted in a relatively smaller overestimation of the coverage levels. In the cases of Bulgaria and Hungary, stated coverage accurately reflects the actual coverage levels, as the sample frames were available at a small enough level that it was not necessary to identify Roma settlements in advance – instead, random route procedures could be

⁴² For 2011, see: FRA (2013), *Roma Pilot Survey Technical report: methodology, sampling and fieldwork*. For 2016, see: FRA (2017), *Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey: Technical report*.

⁴³ The weighting required to adjust the adaptive cluster samples was applied in 2016.

used across the full PSUs, giving a chance of selection to every address in the PSU.⁴⁴

Response rates

Looking at the surveys' reported response rates, the – mostly very high – response rates of 2011 dropped in 2016 in all countries except Spain, which saw a slight increase from 52 % to 56 %. The average response rates across all nine countries fell from 77 % to 57 %, with the Czech Republic and Slovakia experiencing the sharpest decreases, going from 70 % and 90 % to 25 % and 35 %, respectively. These differences may have rendered the 2016 survey more vulnerable to non-response bias. However, such an observation cannot be confirmed as, unlike the 2016 survey, the 2011 version included both Roma and non-Roma households in the eligibility rate (from which the response rate is calculated).

Fieldwork protocols

The surveys also varied in terms of fieldwork protocols, as in 2016 an additional un-answered household visit (four visits instead of the three visits which were required in 2011) was required in order to classify a specific address as “non-contact”. This led to an increased number of contact visits per household in 2016. As a result, it is likely that even though the 2016 survey had higher contact rates, the 2011 survey had higher response rates overall, if refusal rates increased over time.

Weighting options for the 2011 data

Data from the 2016 survey went through several stages of weighting; design weights to follow the sample design, non-response weights, and post-stratification weights.

However, replicating the same weighting scheme for 2011 proved challenging. For example, given the lack of reliable Roma population counts, it was not possible to carry out a probabilistic adjustment at the level of the PSU and address selection. Nevertheless, an imperfect⁴⁵ yet helpful solution was found by assigning the 2016 Roma population counts variables (available for only portions of the sample frame) to the 2011 dataset.

44 For more details on the coverage, see FRA (2013), *Roma Pilot Survey Technical report: methodology, sampling and fieldwork* and FRA (2017), *Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey: Technical report*.

45 Areas which were covered by only one of the surveys were dropped from the weighted sample. In some cases, e.g. Greece, this amounted to as much as 31 % of the 2011 sample being excluded as the regions of Anatoliki Makedonia and Thraci were not covered in 2016.

Similarly, performing a response rate adjustment was not possible in 2011.

In contrast, it was possible to directly calculate the probability of selection for (eligible) individuals within their households, as the number of adults in each selected address was noted in both years.

As a result, the two following weighting methods were calculated:

- A. Region/urbanity weight (EU-MIDIS II approach). First, a respondent-level region/urbanity weight was calculated using the EU-MIDIS II approach. This was achieved by initially calculating the adult selection weight.⁴⁶ Subsequently, a post-stratification weight was calculated to adjust the weighted counts of each region/urbanity cell to equal the population counts from the weighted 2016 survey. The same was then done at a household member weight by dividing the respondent-level weight by the total number of people in the household.
- B. Demographic weight. The second weighting method required to adjust the aforementioned 2011 weighted dataset to equal the weighted 2016 dataset on the following demographic variables:⁴⁷
 - Age (categorised in the following age groups: 0-15; 16-24; 25-44; 45-59; 60+);
 - Gender;
 - Household size (categorised by the number of residents: 1-3; 4-5; 6+).

Again, this was carried out at the respondent level as well as on the household level.

Results and conclusions

Despite the differences in the sampling approaches of the surveys, it can be observed that the unweighted samples between the two years are remarkably similar on age and gender, with only moderately larger discrepancies in household sizes.⁴⁸ For example, on age, only Romania (age 0-15) and Portugal (age 0-15 and 60+) had a discrepancy larger than 4 % on any given age category. The comparability regarding the unweighted

46 Equal to the number of adults in the household, capped at the 97,5th percentile of its distribution (as was done in EU-MIDIS II). The capping was intended to reduce variation in the weights.

47 This, however, suppresses any actual variations over time in the population demographics.

48 For more details on the samples, see FRA (2013), *Roma Pilot Survey Technical report: methodology, sampling and fieldwork* and FRA (2017), *Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey: Technical report*.



gender comparisons is even stronger, as only the Czech Republic had a variation exceeding 2 %. In contrast, the largest differences were observed in household sizes, with only Bulgaria and Hungary exhibiting changes smaller than 5 % in each household size category.

Moreover, it was observed that an increase in the number of smaller households was nearly ubiquitous in 2016, as only Hungary and Greece reported an increase in households with 6+ residents and a decrease in households with 1-3 residents. This trend is believed to reflect the more extensive fieldwork protocols introduced in 2016 which, through a more persistent four visits policy, made it easier to contact smaller households.

Finally, it was calculated that the absolute differences between the unweighted 2011 and 2016 samples and the weighted 2011 and 2016 samples are on average exactly the same. Given that the 2011 weights were mostly adjusted to shift the region/urbanity profile, the aforementioned conclusion suggests that the Roma demographic profile in the data set barely varied across region/urbanity cells. This observation may serve to quell concerns regarding a potential coverage bias.

As a result, it can be concluded that weighting the 2011 sample ensures that the 2011 and 2016 data are balanced on regional and urbanity coverage, which can be expected to increase the comparability between the surveys.

Annex 2: Target population characteristics and coverage for the 2011 and 2016 surveys

Country	2011 Roma survey ⁴⁹		2016 EU-MIDIS II survey ⁵⁰	
	Covered population	Reported coverage	Covered population	Reported coverage
BG	Municipalities with the proportion of the Roma at or above the national average (4,71 %) + Sofia	87 %	Areas with at least 10 % concentration of Roma and with at least 20 Roma households in the area	At least 70 %
CZ	All neighbourhoods	100 % ⁵¹	Areas with at least 139 Roma persons (~ 30 households): – In areas with between 139 and 500 Roma persons those with at least 10 % concentration – Areas with more than 500 Roma persons (irrespective of their concentration)	79 %
EL	Municipalities identified to have Roma communities in the background research	96 %	NUTS2 regions: Attiki, Dytiki Ellada, Thessalia, Kentriki Makedonia	64 %
ES	All neighbourhoods with Roma population	100 %	– Areas with more than 200 Roma households (irrespective of their concentration) – In areas with less than 200 Roma households those with at least 10 % concentration	65 %
HR	Municipalities with the proportion of the Roma at or above the national average	93 %	Areas with at least 200 Roma persons (~40 Roma households)	68 %
HU	Municipalities with the proportion of the Roma at or above the national average (1,9 %) + any municipality with at least 1000 Roma	78 %	Areas with at least 10 % concentration	61 %
PT	Municipalities identified in the background research, where Roma populations were available	100 %	– Areas with more than 270 Roma persons (irrespective of their concentration) – In areas with less than 270 Roma persons (~60 Roma households) those with at least 5 % concentration	70 %
RO	Municipalities with the proportion of the Roma at or above the national average(2,5 %) + county capitals	90 %	Areas with at least 150 Roma persons (~ 30 households): – In areas with between 150 and 500 Roma persons those with at least 10 % concentration – Areas with more than 500 Roma persons (irrespective of their concentration)	64 %
SK	All municipalities with Roma population	76 % ⁵²	Areas with at least 180 Roma persons (~ 30 households): – Concentrated areas with more than 180 Roma persons – In ‘dispersed’ areas with between 180 and 1200 Roma persons those with at least 10 % concentration – ‘Dispersed’ areas with more than 1200 Roma persons (irrespective of their concentration)	75 %

49 For more details, see FRA (2013), *Roma Pilot Survey Technical report: methodology, sampling and fieldwork*, p. 10.

50 For more details, see FRA (2017), *Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey: Technical report*, pp. 45-48.

51 100 % of Roma living in socially excluded Roma communities.

52 2011 sampling excel file suggests that only settlements with concentrations above 8 % or with unknown concentrations were covered.

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HELPING TO MAKE FUNDAMENTAL RIGHTS A REALITY FOR EVERYONE IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

Despite ambitious initiatives, the fundamental rights situation of Roma in the EU remains profoundly troubling. This report examines the persisting phenomenon of anti-Gypsyism and its effect on Roma inclusion efforts. It first presents data on key manifestations of anti-Gypsyism, namely discrimination, harassment and hate crime. The report then reviews data on specific areas of life, such as education, employment, healthcare and housing – all areas in which prejudice and racism against Roma continue to undermine true progress. The report also frames the issue of Roma exclusion and deprivation in a global context, looking at how Roma in EU countries fare compared to the general population with respect to select Sustainable Development Goals.



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