

EU-MIDIS II



Transition from education to employment of young Roma in nine EU Member States



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Contents

INTRODUCTION	5
1 EDUCATION	9
Educational outcomes	9
Differences in educational outcomes between women and men	11
Factors associated with educational attainment	11
2 TRANSITION INTO THE LABOUR MARKET	13
Young people who are neither in work nor in education or training	13
Young people who are in employment	15
Differences in employment outcomes between women and men	15
3 FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH BEING NEITHER IN WORK NOR IN EDUCATION OR TRAINING	17
Socio-economic characteristics	17
Socio-demographic characteristics	19
Multivariate assessment	20
4 FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH QUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT	23
Socio-economic characteristics	25
Socio-demographic characteristics	26
Differences in quality of employment between women and men	28
Education and functional literacy	28
Multivariate assessment	29
Discrimination and employment	31
CONCLUSIONS	35
REFERENCES	37
ANNEXES	39
Annex 1: The survey in a nutshell	39
Annex 2: Statistical analysis	39

Figures and tables

Figure 1:	Level of completed education among Roma who are no longer in education (%)	9
Figure 2:	Education attendance status of 16- to 24-year-olds, by highest level of completed education (%)	10
Figure 3:	Education level attended by 16- to 24-year-olds with ISCED 0-2 as highest level of completed education (%)	10
Figure 4:	Structure of female/male population by educational level attained (ISCED 0-2 or ISCED 3+) and by age groups (%)	11
Figure 5:	Highest completed level of education among Roma aged 16-24 by different vulnerability factors (%)	12
Figure 6:	Roma aged 16-24 year by main activity status (%)	15
Figure 7:	Young people aged 16-24 years who are not in work or education or training as their main activity (proxy of Eurostat's NEET rate), 2016 (%)	16
Figure 8:	Young Roma aged 16-24 years who are neither in work nor in education or training as their main activity (proxy of Eurostat's NEET rate) by gender, 2016 (%)	16
Figure 9:	Early school leavers from education and training 18-24 by EU Member State (%)	17
Figure 10:	Young Roma aged 16-24 in employment (%)	18
Figure 11:	Employment among Roma women and men aged 16-24 (%)	18
Figure 12:	Activity status of Roma aged 16-24 by living conditions (%)	20
Figure 13:	Activity status of Roma aged 16-24 by socio-demographic characteristics (%)	21
Figure 14:	Quality of employment among Roma in employment as their main activity by age, type of occupation, and type of contract (%)	26
Figure 15:	Quality of employment among Roma aged 16-64 who are in employment as their main activity - type of occupation and type of contract by country (%)	27
Figure 16:	Quality of employment among Roma aged 16-24 in employment as main activity by living conditions (%)	28
Figure 17:	Quality of employment among Roma aged 16-24 who identified their main activity as being in employment by socio-demographic characteristics (%)	29
Figure 18:	Employment status by sex among young Roma aged 16-24 years (%)	30
Figure 19:	Main activity status of Roma household members aged 16-24 by respondents' experience of harassment/violence or discrimination on the basis of being Roma in the last 5 years (%)	33
Figure 20:	Quality of employment of Roma aged 16-24 by experience of harassment/violence or discrimination on the basis of being Roma in the last 5 years (%)	34
Figure 21:	Experience of discrimination when looking for work and at work by age group (%)	35
Table 1:	Socio-economic and socio-demographic correlates of being neither in work nor in education or training multinomial regression analysis with being neither in work nor in education or training as reference category (n = 3,250/5,054)	23
Table 2:	Socio-economic and socio-demographic correlates of quality of work - working with a permanent contract; binary logistic regression analysis with working with a permanent contract as reference category (n = 616/1,805)	32



Introduction

Integrating Europe's most deprived and disenfranchised communities remains a pressing issue across Member States. This report serves as a follow-up to the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) EU-MIDIS II Report on Roma, which identified several problematic areas. A major concern is low levels of economic and social participation in communities, particularly among young Roma (aged 16–24 years). This report identifies a worrying disconnect in the transition from education to employment, with many young Roma leaving school early (before upper secondary) but remaining unemployed.

Employment plays an important role in fostering integration in societies, as it functions not only as a source of monetary income, but also as a tool of social inclusion. Employment – in particular in decent work – builds material, human and social capital and provides opportunities for interaction, thereby reinforcing social cohesion.

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO), 'decent work'¹ reflects the aspirations of people in their working lives. It is work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organise and take part in the decisions that affect their lives. In addition, decent work ensures equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men. Consequently, it comes as no surprise that addressing the challenges of achieving greater employment has been a top priority for the current Commission from the outset.

Legal basis for social inclusion

The need to combat exclusion and discrimination is emphasised in Article 3 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU (TFEU). Although primarily a responsibility of Member States, the Treaty provides for EU shared competence to act in the area of social policy (Article 4, TFEU), as well as for coordinating, supporting and supplementing action of Member States to implement social inclusion policies (Article 153, TFEU). EU institutions and Member States, when implementing EU law, are also bound by the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union which lays down several social rights and principles, such as those included in Article 34 (3), referring to combating social exclusion and poverty.

Exercising the EU competence in the area of exclusion and discrimination will gain new impetus with the joint proclamation of the European Pillar of Social Rights on

17 November 2017. The Pillar is an opportunity for a more "social Europe", with stronger social rights protection both at the EU and the national level. It could be the occasion to renew and intensify the efforts to promote the implementation of the human rights approach enshrined in the Charter of Fundamental Rights, in particular for Roma and other groups at risk of marginalisation. With the joint proclamation of the European Pillar of Social Rights on 17 November 2017, the EU institutions brought the issue further to operationalisation.

Policy context

One of the key Europe 2020 targets is to achieve a 75 % employment rate for the working-age population (20–64 years), with youth having a special place within this agenda.²

Young people across the EU have difficulties entering the labour market. In an attempt to address these, the European Commission launched two flagship initiatives in 2010 – An Agenda for New Skills and Jobs: A European Contribution Towards Full Employment³ and Youth on the Move.⁴ The 2012 communication⁵ on 'job-rich recovery' further raised the profile of the issue, helping to deliver on Europe 2020 targeted flagship initiatives, including Youth on the Move and the European Platform Against Poverty and Exclusion.⁶ On 22 April 2013, the European Council adopted its Recommendation on establishing a Youth Guarantee,⁷ which was complemented in December 2013 by the Youth Employment initiative⁸ – one of the main EU financial resources to support the implementation of Youth Guarantee schemes.

On terminology

This report refers to Roma following the term 'Roma and Travellers' used at the Council of Europe to encompass the wide diversity of the groups covered by the Council's work in this field. It covers, on the one hand, groups such as (a) Roma, Sinti/Manush, Calé, Kaale, Romanichals, Boyash/Rudari; (b) Balkan Egyptians (Egyptians and Ashkali); and (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 people who identify themselves as Gypsies.

² European Commission (2010a).

³ European Commission (2010b).

⁴ European Commission (2010c).

⁵ European Commission (2012a).

⁶ European Commission (2012b).

⁷ Council of the European Union (2013a).

⁸ The European Parliament and the Council of the European Union (2013).

¹ International Labour Organization.

Although young Roma are entitled to enjoy the same rights and benefit from the same initiatives as any other EU citizens, in reality they are doubly disadvantaged. They face the typical challenges relating to entry into the labour market⁹ but, in addition, many live in poverty on the margins of European societies and suffer from discrimination and prejudice driven by anti-Gypsyism. In stark contrast to the values on which the EU is founded, an unacceptably high proportion of Roma live at risk of poverty (on average, 86 % in 2011 and 80 % in 2016¹⁰).

The social marginalisation of Roma undermines social cohesion, hampers competitiveness and ultimately generates costs for European society as a whole. In response to these challenges, in 2011 the European Commission proposed an EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies up to 2020.¹¹ To improve their socio-economic chances and living conditions, the framework aims to ensure Roma's equal access to four key areas – education, employment, healthcare, housing, as well as other essential services. The 2011 communication highlights that Europe 2020, the EU's strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, leaves no room for the persistent economic and social marginalisation of Europe's largest ethnic minority. Building on the EU Framework for National Roma Integration Strategies up to 2020, the Council of the EU adopted a Recommendation on effective Roma integration measures in the Member States¹² on 9 December 2013. The recommendation aims to guide Member States in enhancing the effectiveness of their measures to achieve Roma integration. Two of its four priority areas are education and employment.

The areas of education and employment are emphasised in all national Roma integration strategies (NRIS) or strategic policy documents that have been adopted since 2011. Member States have implemented both targeted and mainstreamed measures and allocated significant resources to both of them. The nine EU Member States included in this report allocated €1.4 billion for the 2014–2020 programming period (i.e. 7.5 % of the total allocation for social inclusion under thematic objective 9, 'Promoting social inclusion, combating poverty and any discrimination' in the European Regional Development Fund, European Social Fund and European Agricultural Fund for Rural Development) to the investment priority 9.2 explicitly referring to Roma.¹³

The EU and Member States invested considerable funds over the previous decades in Roma inclusion, in

particular ahead of the 2004 and 2007 enlargement. In December 2010, the Commission established a Roma Task Force following a proposal by Vice-President Viviane Reding, EU Justice Commissioner; László Andor, EU Commissioner for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion; and Cecilia Malmström, EU Commissioner for Home Affairs (IP/10/1097). The Task Force asked Member States regarding their use of EU funds to address the situation of Roma and found that Member States "do not yet properly use EU money for the purpose of an effective social and economic integration of Roma".¹⁴ However, the Court of Auditors' report¹⁵ noted in June 2016 that "EU policy initiatives and EU-funded projects to promote Roma integration have made significant progress, but there are still obstacles and dilemmas which prevent the money from having the greatest possible impact." FRA's data show that between 2011 and 2016 there was no change in the proportion of Roma who indicated their main activity as paid work – and there was an important gender gap, despite additional funding available through the European Structural and Investment Funds. The proportion of young Roma aged 16–24 years, particularly women, who are not in work or education or training as their main activity (a proxy for Eurostat's NEET – not in employment, education or training – rate) also remains both high and in stark contrast to the corresponding rate observed among the general population.¹⁶ However, it should be noted that comparison between EU-MIDIS II and the Eurostat NEET rate is restricted by their different definitions and age bands. Taking 15-year-olds into account would give 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.

Some progress was made in the area of education between 2011 and 2016.¹⁷ Although modest, the improvement in educational achievement among Roma brings cautious hope that the young generation may also achieve better employment outcomes once they complete their education. Given the central role of education in employability and competitiveness in the labour market, improving the educational attainment of young Roma is critically important for their upward intergenerational social mobility. The wider European society also benefits from greater social inclusion of Roma. Not only do education and employment prevent a waste of human talent, but they are also associated with better social skills and greater flexibility in the

9 ILO (2017).

10 FRA (2018), p. 33.

11 European Commission (2011).

12 Council of the European Union (2013b).

13 Authors' own calculations based on European Commission (2016a,b) and European Commission (2017).

14 MEMO/10/701, Brussels, 21 December 2010.

15 European Court of Auditors (2016), Special Report 'EU policy initiatives and financial support for Roma integration: significant progress made over the last decade, but additional efforts needed on the ground'.

16 FRA (2018), pp. 34–38.

17 Ibid., pp. 25–31.

face of a dynamically changing world, which helps increase social cohesion.

Aim, target group and analytical approach

Although necessary, education alone is not sufficient to ensure a smooth transition into the labour market. Other factors also influence the employment outcomes among young Roma (and, in particular, their chances of achieving meaningful and decent work). This report aims to identify the extent to which socio-demographic characteristics, socio-economic status and discrimination are associated with educational attainment – and, consequently, the employment of young Roma aged 16–24 who have completed their education. The analysis uses data from the 2016 EU-MIDIS II survey conducted among Roma in nine EU Member States (Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Spain) and publicly available Eurostat data for the general population.

This analysis looks at three groups of Roma aged 16–24: those who are in education, those who are in employment and those who are neither in work nor in education or training. Ideally, young people should continue their education beyond the age of 16 if they are to be competitive in the labour market. Leaving school early to join the labour force is sub-optimal, although it still can have certain positive implications regarding income and living standards. The worst case scenario is being stuck in the process of transition – not in education anymore, but not yet in work.

The assessment of the factors affecting the transition of young Roma into the labour market builds on the concept of human capital formation and utilisation. Human capital refers to individuals' knowledge, skills and capabilities that together improve their life chances.¹⁸ Education is an investment in the stock of human capital that young people can use to gain employment,

which is understood here as making use of human capital. The analysis is based on the idea that the ability of individuals to successfully develop and then make use of their human capital is partly dependent on their social context. In other words, a set of common factors influence both human capital formation (education) and its use (decent employment). These factors encompass material conditions (i.e. socio-economic background¹⁹), individual knowledge, and their relevance to the needs of the labour market. In the case of young Roma, they also include exposure to discrimination driven by anti-Gypsyism, harassment, or worse, violence.

The outcomes analysed in this report are educational attainment (in the first part) and employment. Using a number of socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics is an attempt to better understand which factors play the most important role in completing higher levels of education, in being in employment and the quality of employment of young Roma. [Annex 2](#) gives detailed descriptions of the variables used in the analysis.

The structure of the report reflects the logic above. [Chapter 1](#) outlines the educational status of young Roma aged 16–24. It then explores the educational, socio-economic and discrimination-related differences between those who have achieved lower secondary education at most (completed International Standard Classification of Education, ISCED 2 or lower) and those who have completed at least upper secondary education (ISCED 3 or higher). [Chapter 2](#) and [Chapter 3](#) focus on the factors that differentiate among young Roma who are in education, those who are in employment and those who are neither in work nor in education or training. [Chapter 4](#) looks at how socio-demographic, socio-economic and discrimination-related factors influence the quality of employment among Roma who have completed the transition into the labour market. The concluding section summarises key findings and identifies areas of possible priority intervention that might facilitate young Roma's transition from education into employment.

¹⁸ Becker (1994).

¹⁹ Sirin (2005).

1

Education

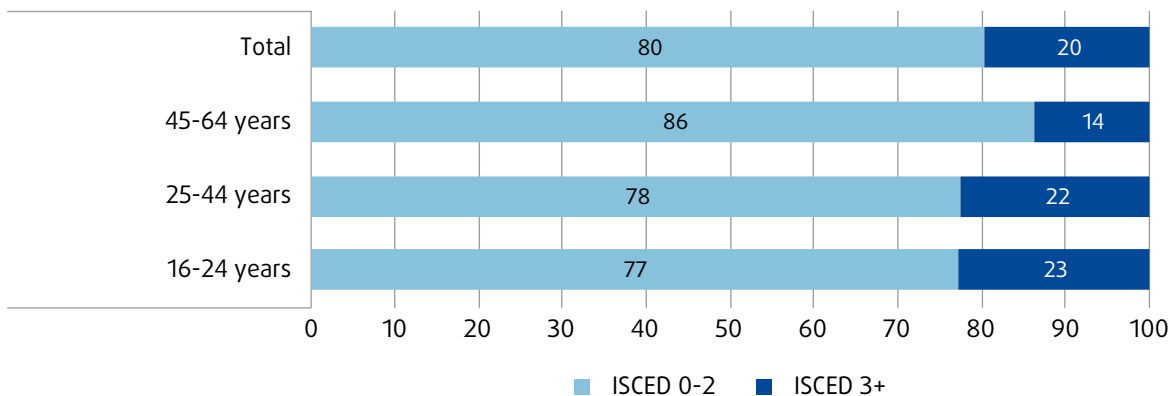


This chapter presents the profile of the young people aged 16–24 who have completed their education and are transitioning into employment. It differentiates between two main groups: young Roma who have achieved at most lower secondary education and those who have completed upper secondary education or higher. The EU considers that completing upper secondary education is not just an important step for successful entry into the labour market, but also a basic requirement for participating in the kind of further training that is necessary to succeed in a knowledge-based society.²⁰

Educational outcomes

Among the young Roma aged 16–24 who are no longer in education, more than three quarters have completed at most only lower secondary education (ISCED 2). Data summarised in Figure 1, however, suggest that certain improvements can be observed over time: when compared with the oldest age cohort of people aged 45–64, more Roma of the two younger cohorts have completed at least upper secondary education (23 % and 22 % of people aged 16–24 and 25–44, respectively, as opposed to only 14 % among people aged 45–64). Although there is no remarkable difference between the two younger cohorts, it would be misleading to assume

Figure 1: Level of completed education among Roma who are no longer in education (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all household members aged 16–64 in Roma household who are not in education (n = 19,379); weighted results.

^b ISCED 0–2, highest level of education achieved ISCED 0, ISCED 1 or ISCED 2; ISCE 3+, highest level of education achieved ISCED 3 or higher.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

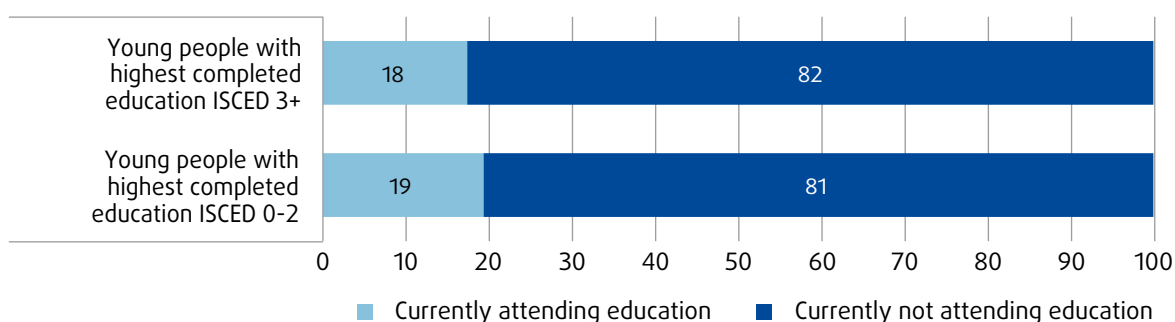
²⁰ Council of the European Union (2003).

that improvement in education levels has somewhat stalled in the youngest cohort. In fact, the situation is more promising.

A significant proportion of young Roma aged 16–24 is still in education – 18 % of those who have completed at least upper secondary education (ISCED 3+) and 19 % of those who have completed at most lower secondary education (ISCED 0–2, Figure 2). As shown in Figure 3, the majority of the young Roma who are still in education,

and who have completed at most lower secondary education, are attending upper secondary level (ISCED 34) or vocational training (ISCED 35). Furthermore, while on average only 3 % of Roma aged 20–24 are still in education, this proportion among Roma aged 16–19 is 34 %. Therefore, it is likely that in only a few years the share of Roma who completed ISCED 3+ education will exceed the 23 % that is currently observed among 16- to 24-year-olds.

Figure 2: Education attendance status of 16- to 24-year-olds, by highest level of completed education (%)^{a, b}

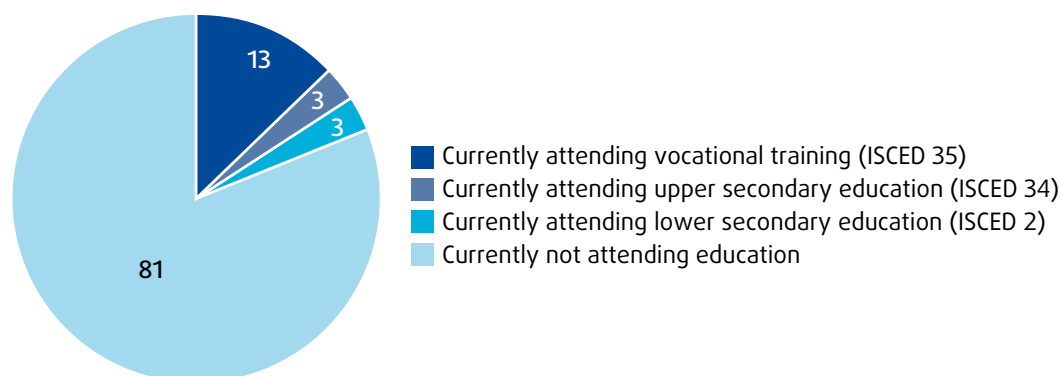


Notes: ^a Out of all household members aged 16–24 in Roma households (n = 5,567); weighted results.

^b ISCED 0–2, highest level of education achieved ISCED 0, ISCED 1 or ISCED 2; ISCED 3+, highest level of education achieved ISCED 3 or higher.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Figure 3: Education level attended by 16- to 24-year-olds with ISCED 0–2 as highest level of completed education (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a For the pie chart: out of all household members aged 16–24 who have completed at most lower secondary education (ISCED 0–2) in Roma households (n = 4,525). For the bar chart: out of all household members aged 16–24 in Roma households who have completed at most lower secondary education (ISCED 0–2) and are still attending education (n = 767). Both pie chart and bar chart show weighted results.

^b ISCED 0–2, highest level of education achieved ISCED 0, ISCED 1 or ISCED 2.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Differences in educational outcomes between women and men

On terminology

The terms 'sex' and 'gender' are frequently used interchangeably. The two concepts overlap, but they are not synonymous. Gender refers to societal roles performed by women or men while sex is primarily a biological category (i.e. female or male). The survey assesses the education and employment status of women and men, but both education and employment are affected by gender roles. This is why, whenever possible, 'differences between women and men' is used when reporting on the main activity status and 'gender differences' when reporting on the factors that are associated with the main activity status.

As shown in [Figure 4](#), both women and men made progress over time in terms of highest level of education achieved. However, only 21 % of Roma women and 25 % of Roma men aged 16–24 have completed ISCED 3 or higher. Very low educational attainment may cause difficulties in finding high-quality employment (which meets the criteria of the ILO's 'decent work').

Factors associated with educational attainment

The EU-MIDIS II data summarised in [Figure 5](#) point to the relationship between different socio-demographic and

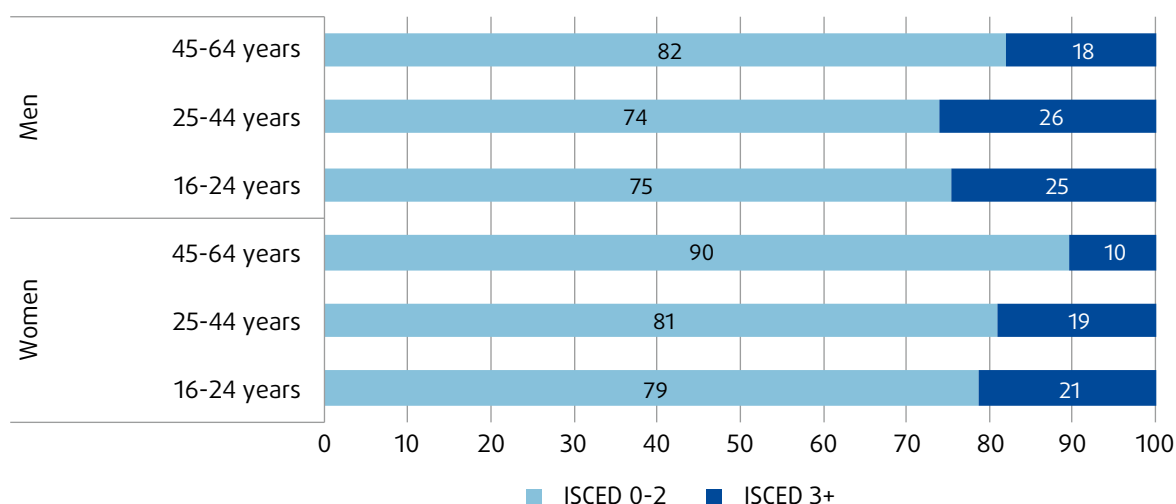
socio-economic factors and the highest level of education achieved. On average, a higher proportion of Roma men complete higher levels of education, compared to Roma women. Those living at risk of poverty after social transfers, in rural areas, in overcrowded households, in ethnically segregated areas or in neighbourhoods where all residents are Roma, are also less likely to complete upper secondary education or higher.

On terminology

The term 'ethnically segregated' area is related to, but not identical to 'concentration of one ethnicity in a locality'. The first is based on the interviewer's assessment, while the latter is based on the respondent's answer to the question "In the neighbourhood where you live, how many of the residents would you say are of the same Roma background?" The answer options were 'all of the residents', 'most of them', 'some' or 'none of them'.

There are certain elements that differentiate between young Roma who have completed lower levels of education and those who have attained higher levels of education. [Figure 5](#) demonstrates that determining factors include living in a household that is at risk of poverty and living in an overcrowded household. A higher proportion of Roma youth who do not live at risk of poverty or in an overcrowded household completes at least upper secondary education, compared to young Roma who live at risk of poverty or in an overcrowded household.

Figure 4: Structure of female/male population by educational level attained (ISCED 0–2 or ISCED 3+) and by age groups (%)^{a, b}

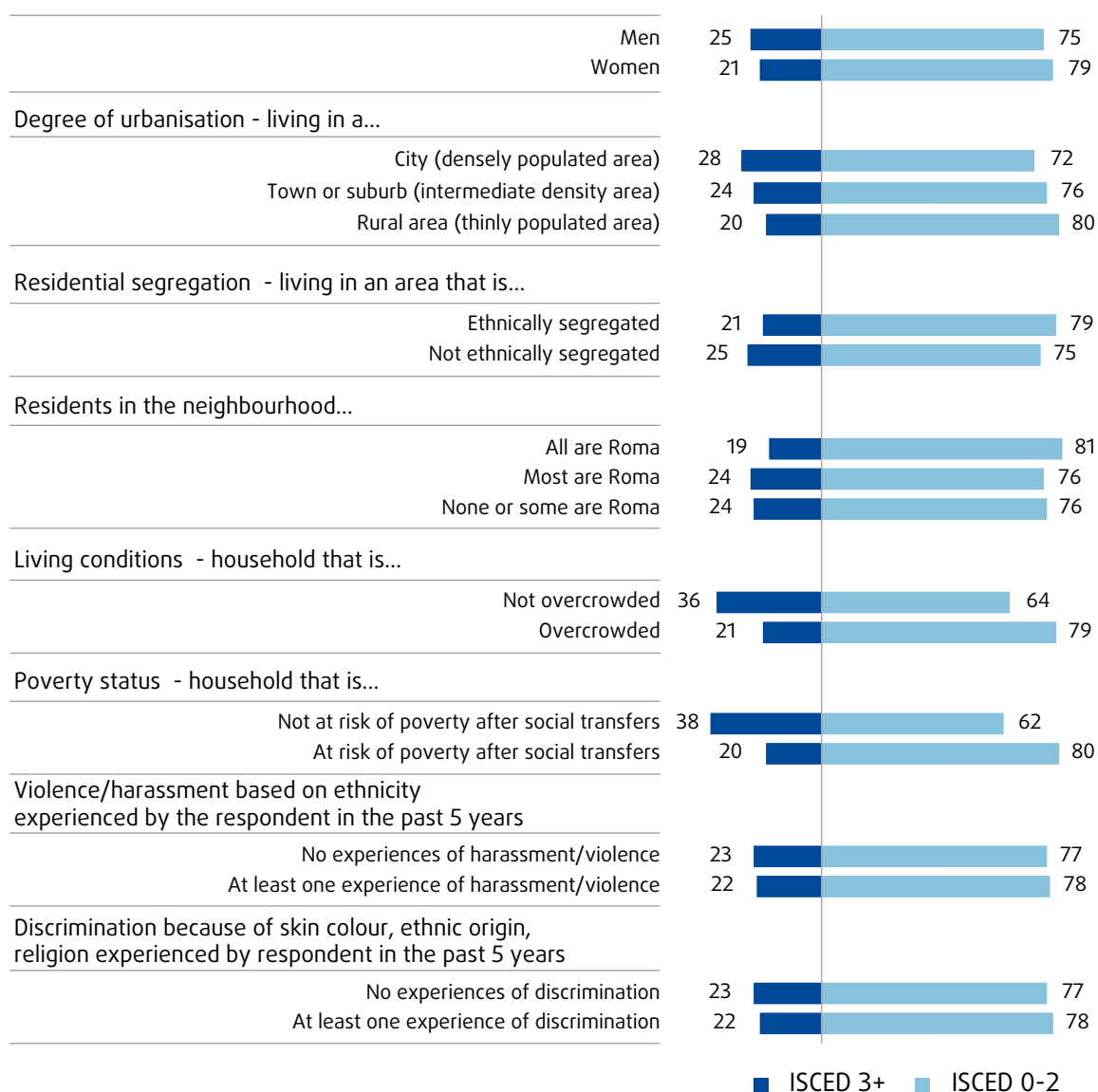


Notes: ^a Out of all household members aged 16–64 in Roma households who are not in education (n = 19,379); weighted results.

^b ISCED 0–2, highest level of education achieved ISCED 0, ISCED 1 or ISCED 2; ISCED 3+, highest level of education achieved ISCED 3 or higher.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Figure 5: Highest completed level of education among Roma aged 16-24 by different vulnerability factors (%)^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



Notes: ^a Out of all household members aged 16-24 in Roma households who are not in education as main activity (n = 4,677); weighted results.
^b ISCED 0-2, highest level of education achieved ISCED 0, ISCED 1 or ISCED 2; ISCED 3+, highest level of education achieved ISCED 3 or higher.
^c Residential segregation is based on the interviewer's assessment of the area where the household is living; ethnic composition of the neighbourhood is based on the respondent's answer to the question "In the neighbourhood where you live, how many of the residents would you say are of the same Roma background?"
^d At-risk-of-poverty 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).
^e Experience of discrimination encompasses housing, education (self or as parent) and public/private services (night clubs, bars, restaurants, hotels, administrative offices or public services, public transport and shops) on the basis of Roma origin in the five years before the survey. Experiences of discrimination, measured at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregated values for all members of the household.
^f Experiences of violence/harassment, measured at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregated values for all members of the household.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

2

Transition into the labour market

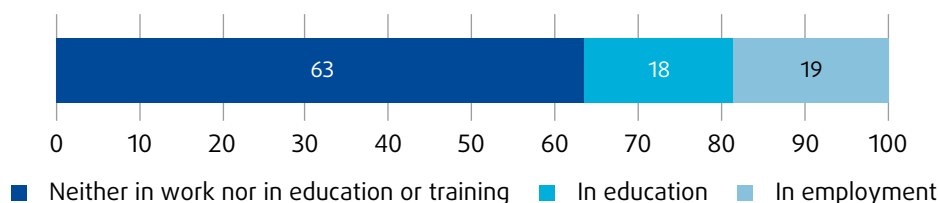


The EU-MIDIS II survey included a question on the main activity status. This question is used to categorise study participants into three groups: those who are in education (i.e., pupils, students or those in training), those who are in employment (i.e. in paid work, self-employed, helping in the family business (unpaid) or in the military/other community service), and those who are neither in work nor in education or training as their main activity. This section first explores the factors that differentiate between young Roma who are neither in work nor in education or training and those who are in education or in employment. Focusing our analysis only on Roma who identified their main activity as being in employment, the final section looks at the correlates of the two indicators of quality of employment: working with a permanent contract and working in a non-elementary occupation.

Young people who are neither in work nor in education or training

Almost two-thirds (63 %) of young Roma aged 16-24 are neither in work nor in education or training, with the remaining one-third either in school or in employment (Figure 6). Although there is some variation, this is the case for more than half of young Roma across all Member States surveyed. The disparity between the Roma and the general population is particularly striking: the proportion of young people aged 15-24 (the age group observed by Eurostat data) who are neither in employment nor in education or training (abbreviated as NEET) does not exceed 18% (Figure 7) in any of the surveyed Member States.

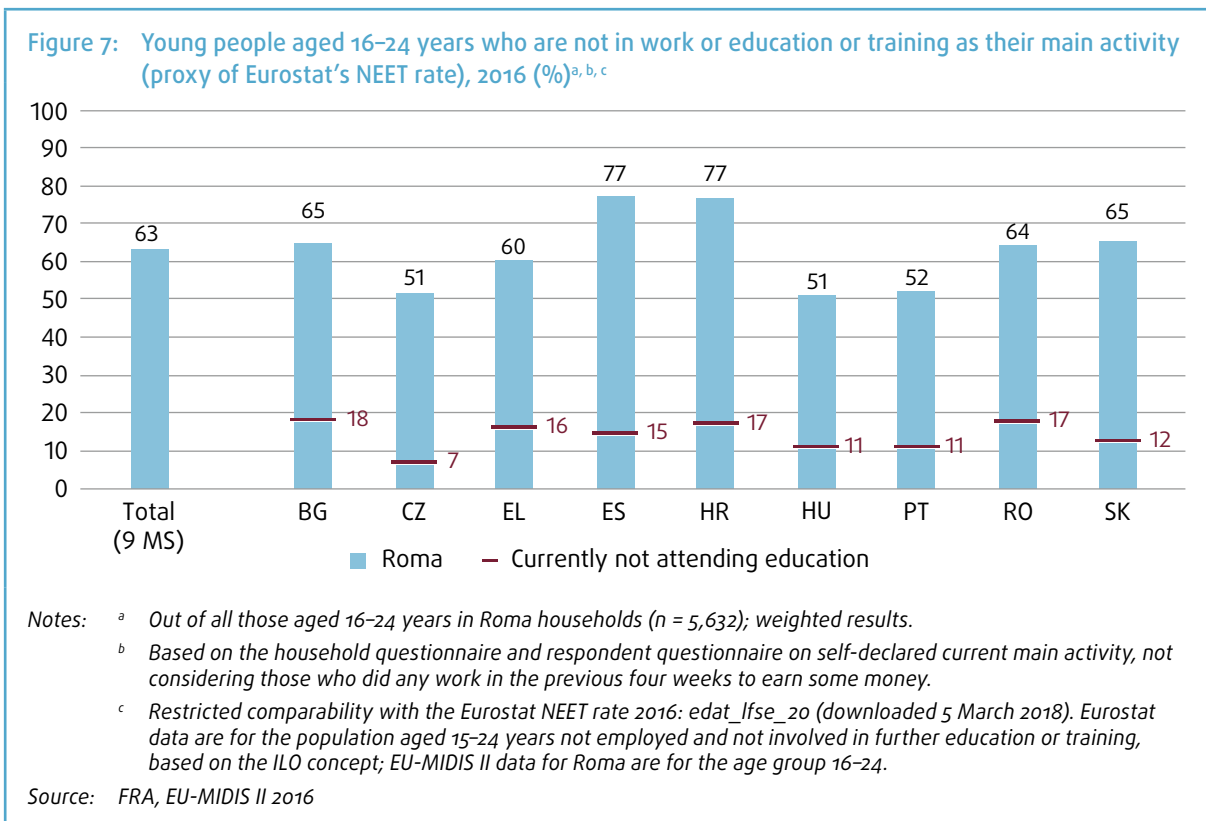
Figure 6: Roma aged 16 -24 year by main activity status (%)^{a, b}



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

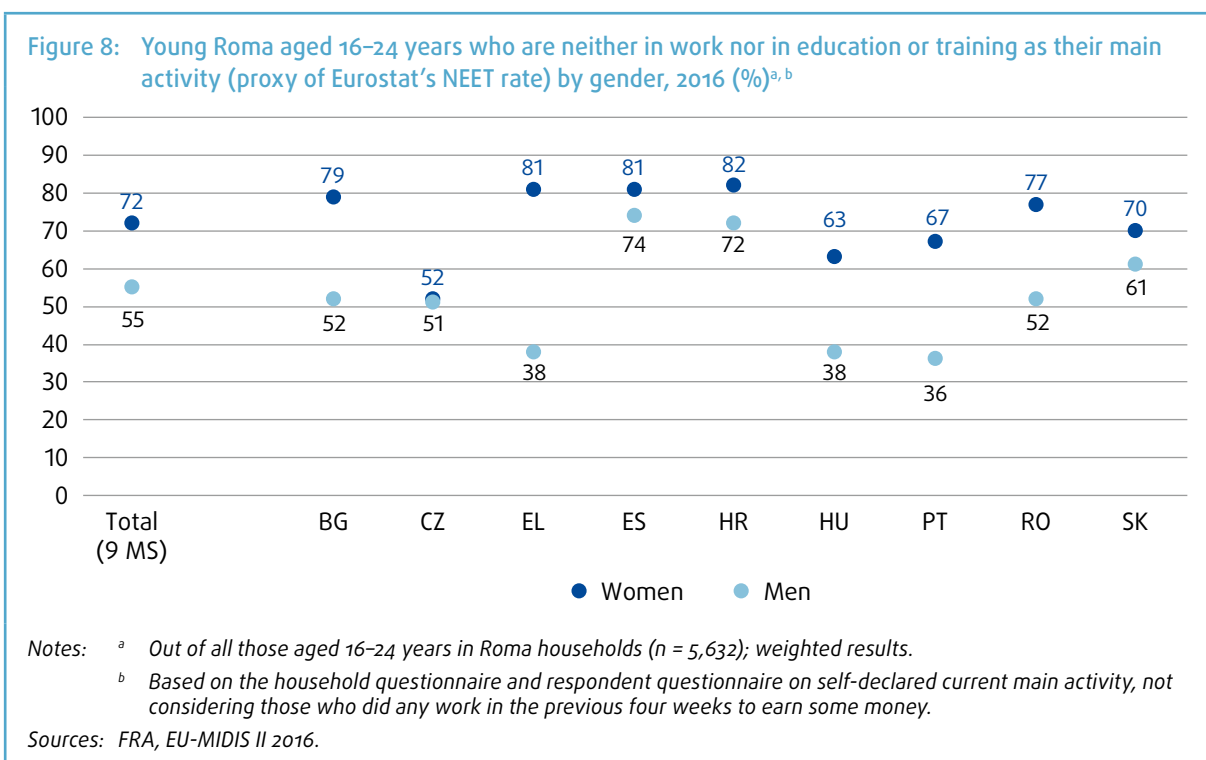
^b Based on the household questionnaire and respondent questionnaire on self-declared current main activity, not considering those who did any work in the previous four weeks to earn some money. 'In education' encompasses those whose current main activity is education; 'in employment' encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service; 'Neither in work nor in education or training' encompasses those who are not in either of these two groups.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016



The results also show considerable differences between young Roma women and men. The proportion of young Roma women who are neither in work nor in education or training considerably exceeds the corresponding rate

for young Roma men in most Member States surveyed (see Figure 8). The gender gap is highest in Greece (43 percentage points) and the lowest in the Czech Republic and Spain (1 and 7 percentage points respectively).

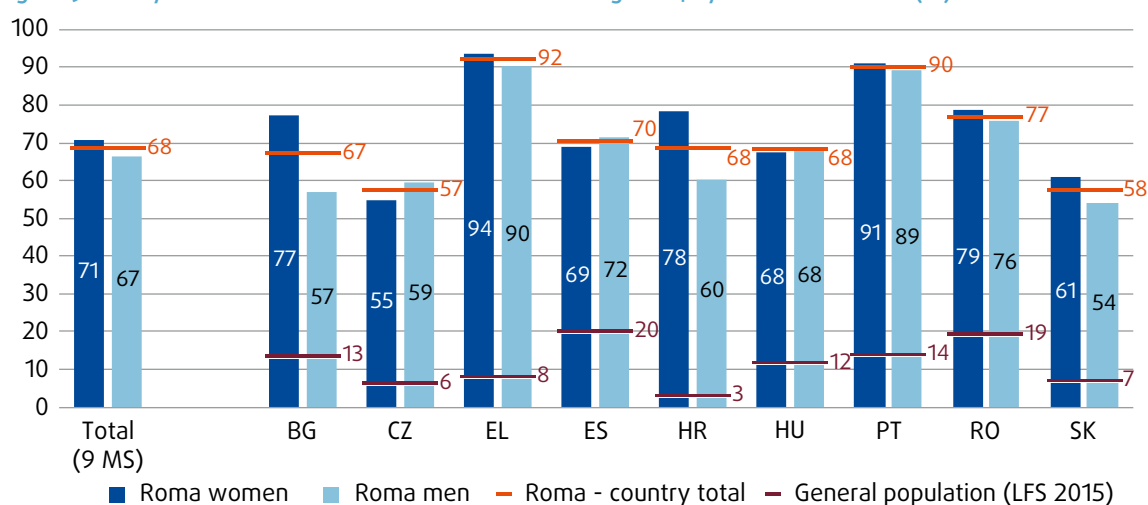


Young people who are in employment

On average, across the nine Member States surveyed, 19% of young Roma aged 16-24 identified their main activity as being *in employment* (i.e. in paid work, self-employed, helping in the family business (unpaid) or in the military/other community service). The main concern is not just the low proportion of young people in employment (which would be desirable if they were still in education), but the high proportion of young

Roma who leave education early. Figure 9 shows that a majority of young Roma leave school before having completed at least upper secondary education. In some of the surveyed Member States, as many as one in five Roma aged 16-19 are already in employment (Figure 10). Although this is certainly preferable to being unemployed and out of education, the harsh reality is that many of these young people are not in so-called “decent-work”. Instead, many work in low-skilled or hard labour jobs with little opportunity for career progression.

Figure 9: Early school leavers from education and training 18-24 by EU Member State (%)^{a, b, c, d}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all persons aged 18-24 years in Roma households ($n = 4,152$); weighted results.
 - ^b Based on household questionnaire. 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.
 - ^c Eurostat rate 2015: *edat_lfse_14* (download 12/09/2016). Percentage of the population aged 18 to 24 years having attained at most lower secondary education and not being involved in further education or training.
 - ^d Early leavers from education and training denotes the percentage of the population aged 18-24 years having attained at most lower secondary education (ISCED 2011 levels 0, 1 or 2) and not being involved in further education or training. There are some deviations from the Eurostat definition. Eurostat includes persons who are not in education and training (neither formal nor non-formal) in the four weeks preceding the LFS survey. EU-MIDIS II asks for “currently attending school or vocational training” and not asking explicitly for non-formal education.

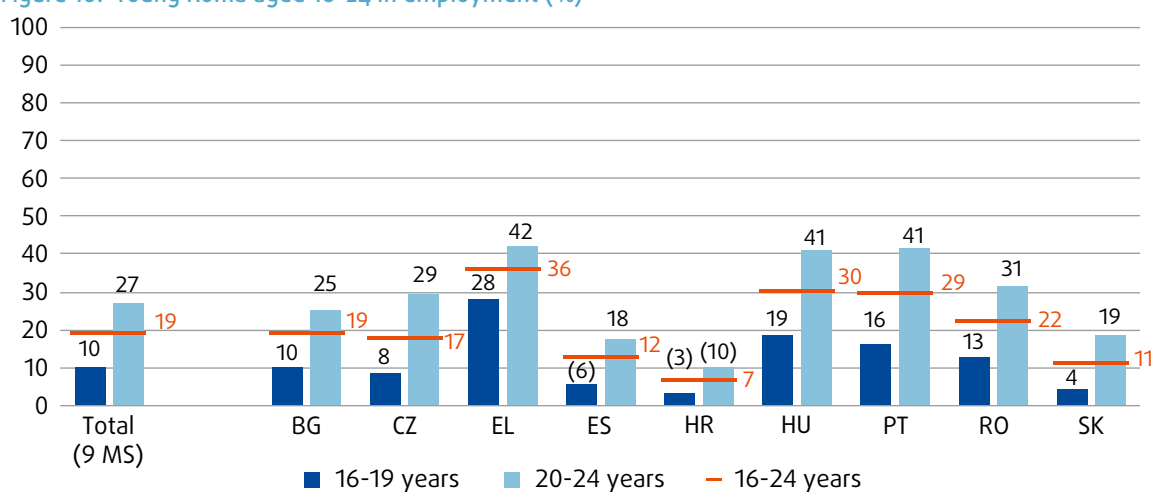
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016, Roma; Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2015, General population

Differences in employment outcomes between women and men

In all Member States surveyed, the share of Roma men whose main activity is ‘in employment’ is consistently higher than that of Roma women, suggesting

that young Roma women may face additional, gender-specific barriers to employment. Across all nine Member States, on average, more than twice as many Roma men are in employment than Roma women, 26 % and 11 % respectively. The observed gender gap is smallest in the Czech Republic (at 4 percentage points) and greatest in Greece, where the difference between women and men reaches 41 percentage points (Figure 11).

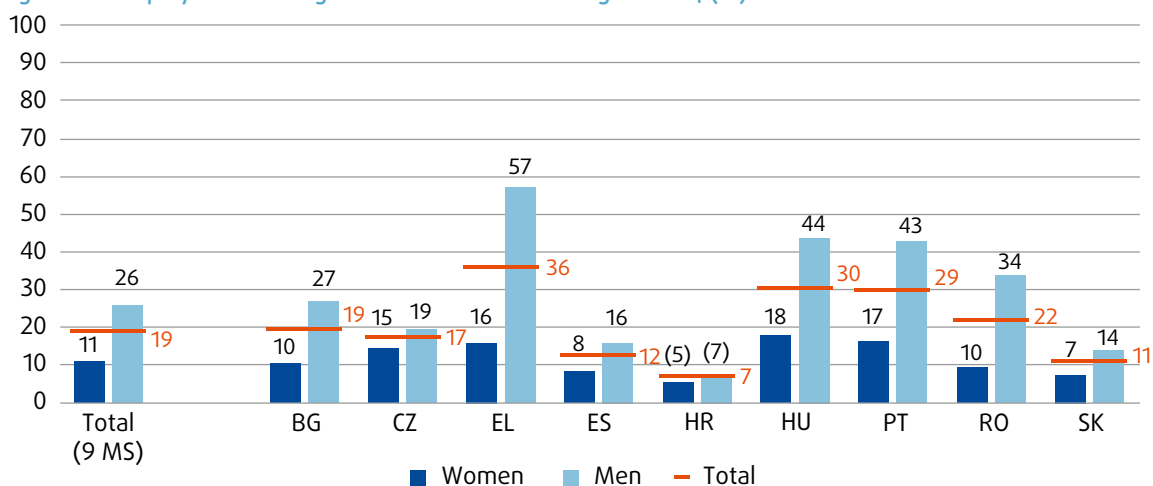
Figure 10: Young Roma aged 16–24 in employment (%)^{a, b, c}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all household members aged 16–24 in Roma households (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. Specifically, ‘in employment’ encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.
 - ^c 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.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Figure 11: Employment among Roma women and men aged 16–24 (%)^{a, b, c}



- Notes:
- ^a Out of all household members aged 16–24 in Roma households (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. Specifically, ‘in employment’ encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.
 - ^c 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.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

3

Factors associated with being neither in work nor in education or training



As described in the introduction, the report aims to assess the socio-economic, socio-demographic, and discrimination-related factors that may either facilitate or hinder young Roma's chances of being in employment or in education. Therefore, it first explores the differences between young Roma who are neither in work nor in education or training, and those who are in education or in employment.

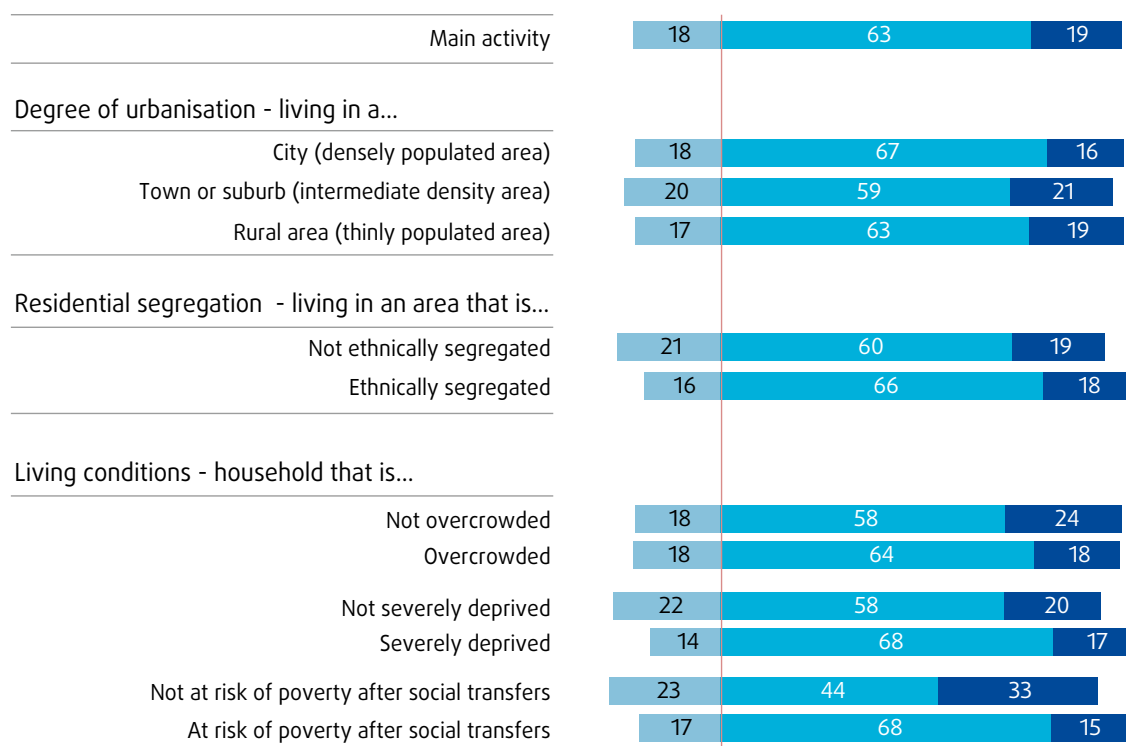
Socio-economic characteristics

The results of the bivariate analyses presented in [Figure 12](#) suggest that young Roma living in a city have slightly higher chances of being neither in work nor in education or training and lower chances of being in employment. This could be due to several factors. For example, the labour market tends to be more competitive in cities. In addition, the intensified migration and flow of labour towards big metropolitan areas may lead to a shortage of labour in rural areas, increasing the chances of Roma to get paid work outside cities. Our definition

of being in employment should also be considered, as 'in employment' also includes those persons who identified their main activity as 'helping in the family business' – an activity that is more frequent in rural areas where opportunities for small-scale farming or subsistence agriculture exist.

Living in an area that is ethnically segregated seems to be another barrier to being in education, one that also increases the chances of young Roma to be neither in work nor in education or training. Finally, and unsurprisingly, living in an overcrowded household, in severely deprived housing or at risk of poverty was associated with both variables: not being in education and not being in employment. Most probably, the higher proportion of respondents in employment among those not at risk of poverty illustrates the relationship between the two factors. On the one hand, living in poverty is associated with marginalisation and may negatively affect the chances of completing higher levels of education, thereby reducing employability. On the other hand, employment provides income and reduces the likelihood of living in poverty.

Figure 12: Activity status of Roma aged 16–24 by living conditions (%)^{a, b, c, d, e, f}



Notes: ^a Out of all those aged 16–24 years in Roma households (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. 'In education' encompasses those whose current main activity is education; 'in employment' encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.

^c Residential segregation is based on the interviewer's assessment of the area where the household is living.

^d Living in a severely deprived housing is defined as living in an overcrowded dwelling that has either a leaking roof, no bath/shower and no indoor toilet, or it is considered too dark.

^e At-risk-of-poverty 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).

^f Some bars do not add up to 100 %; this is due to rounding of numbers.

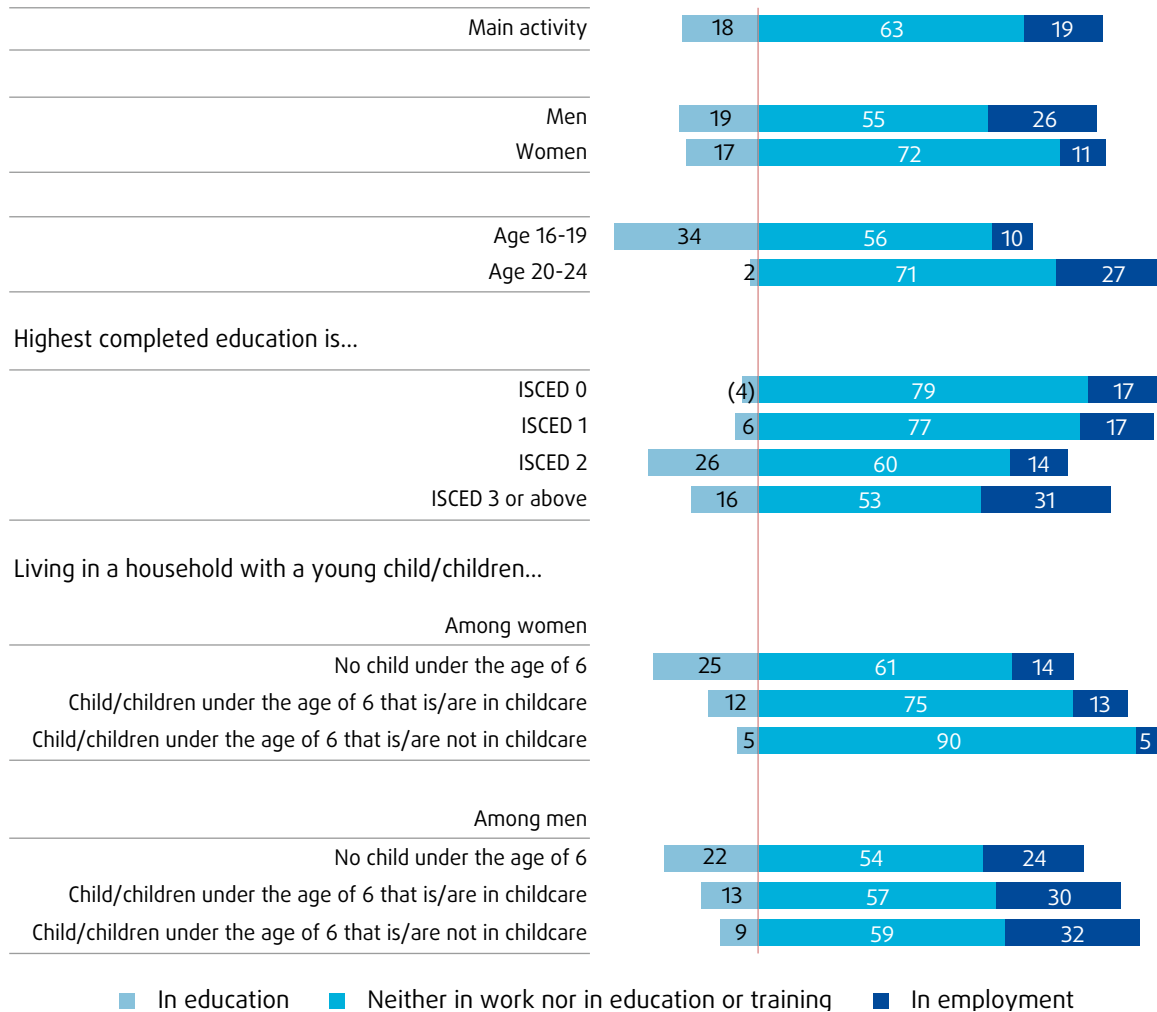
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Socio-demographic characteristics

Figure 13 shows the differences among young Roma in education or employment, and those neither in work nor in education or training, with regard to several socio-demographic factors. The correlation between their

main activity and socio-demographic factors seems to be much stronger than it was with regard to living conditions (referred to in Figure 12). Although young Roma who live in cities, those in overcrowded households and those who are at risk of poverty after social transfers seem to be less likely to be employed, the results suggest that gender, age and level of education predict employment outcome with greater accuracy.

Figure 13: Activity status of Roma aged 16–24 by socio-demographic characteristics (%)^{a, b, c}



Notes: ^a Out of all those aged 16–24 years in Roma households (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. 'In education' encompasses those whose current main activity is education; 'in employment' encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.
^c 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

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

At the bivariate level, a much higher proportion of young Roma women is neither in work nor in education or training compared to young Roma men (respectively, 72 % and 55 %, [Figure 13](#)). This gap is mostly due to the fact that young Roma men are more likely to be in employment than young Roma women.

Living in a household with a child or children younger than six years was also associated with main activity, in either gender. Specifically, both men and women who lived in such a household were less likely to be in education, with women also being less likely to be in employment. Young Roma men, on the other hand, who lived in a household with a young child were more likely to be in employment, compared to men who did not live in households with young children.

Age and education were also found to be related to the main activity. Not surprisingly, Roma aged 20 and older, and those who completed only lower levels of education, were more likely to be neither in work nor in education or employment.

Multivariate assessment

Socio-economic and socio-demographic factors described in [Figure 12](#) and [Figure 13](#) were assessed

using multivariate analysis. The results of the multinomial logistic regression analysis ([Table 1](#)) confirmed the bivariate findings.

Among the strongest effects observed in the model are those of age, education and sex. Roma in education are more likely to be younger than Roma who are neither in work nor in education or training – unlike Roma in employment, who are more likely to be older. In addition, Roma in employment are more likely to have completed at least upper secondary education and they are more likely to be men.

Roma in education and Roma in employment are also more likely to live in housing that is not severely deprived and in a household that is not at risk of poverty, compared to Roma who are neither in work nor in education or training. In addition, Roma in education are also more likely to live in an area that is not ethnically segregated.

Furthermore, Roma in education are less likely to live in a household with a young child or children. With regard to employment, if they lived in a household with a small child, Roma women were less likely to be in employment and Roma men were more likely to be in employment.



Table 1: Socio-economic and socio-demographic correlates of being neither in work nor in education or training multinomial regression analysis with being neither in work nor in education or training as reference category (n = 3,250/5,054)^{a, b, c, d}

	'Being in education' compared to 'being neither in work nor in education or training' (n = 808) AOR ^b (95% CI) ^c	'Being in employment' compared to 'being neither in work nor in education or training' (n = 996) AOR ^b (95% CI) ^c
Bulgaria	1.50 (1.07, 2.12) *	0.93 (0.68, 1.25) ns
Czech Republic	2.22 (1.56, 3.15) ***	0.89 (0.63, 1.27) ns
Greece	0.41 (0.25, 0.69) **	3.44 (2.56, 4.64) ***
Spain	0.54 (0.37, 0.80) **	0.49 (0.34, 0.69) ***
Croatia	1.28 (0.88, 1.86) ns	0.25 (0.15, 0.40) ***
Hungary	2.28 (1.67, 3.13) ***	2.40 (1.83, 3.16) ***
Portugal	2.59 (1.67, 4.00) ***	3.12 (2.15, 4.52) ***
Slovakia	2.01 (1.47, 2.74) ***	0.44 (0.31, 0.62) ***
Romania = reference		
Residential segregation (living in a segregated area = reference)	1.25 (1.03, 1.51) *	1.08 (0.90, 1.29) ns
Severe housing deprivation (living in a severely deprived housing = reference)	1.89 (1.57, 2.28) ***	1.31 (1.11, 1.56) **
Poverty (living in a household at risk of poverty after social transfers = reference)	1.51 (1.18, 1.94) **	2.89 (2.31, 3.62) ***
Sex (female = reference)	1.08 (0.89, 1.31) ns	2.46 (2.02, 2.99) ***
Age (20 - 24 = reference)	23.30 (16.92, 32.09) ***	0.53 (0.44, 0.63) ***
Education (ISCED 3+ = reference)	0.81 (0.64, 1.03) ns	0.45 (0.37, 0.55) ***
Living in a household with a child younger than six years of age not in childcare (men living in such a household = reference)	0.65 (0.47, 0.89) **	1.28 (1.03, 1.59) *
Living in a household with a child younger than six years of age not in childcare (women living in such a household = reference)	0.24 (0.17, 0.33) ***	0.22 (0.16, 0.30) ***
Experience of discrimination in the household (respondent experienced discrimination = reference)	1.25 (1.02, 1.51) *	1.05 (0.87, 1.25) ns

Notes: ^a Out of all household members aged 16–24 in Roma households (n = 5,054); weighted results.

^b AOR = odds ratio adjusted for the contribution of other independent variables.

^c CI = confidence intervals.

^d Experiences of discrimination and violence/harassment, measured at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregated values for all members of the household.

^{ns} Not significant.

* P < .05.

** P < .01.

***P < .001.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

4

Factors associated with quality of employment



Respondents who identified their main activity as being in employment were asked two additional questions about their job, to assess the quality of employment. The respondents reported on the type of their occupation that was categorised later on, using ILO's standardised International Standard of Classification of Occupations (ISCO). Given that a majority of Roma said they worked in elementary occupations (defined by ILO as "those that consist of simple and routine tasks which mainly require the use of hand-held tools and often some physical effort"), type of occupation was dichotomised into 'working in an elementary occupation' or 'working in a non-elementary occupation'. Job security was also assessed, by asking respondents what type of contract, if any, they had in their job. The analysis differentiates between respondents who 'work with a permanent contract' and those who 'work with a temporary contract', with an 'ad hoc contractual arrangement' or 'without a contract'.

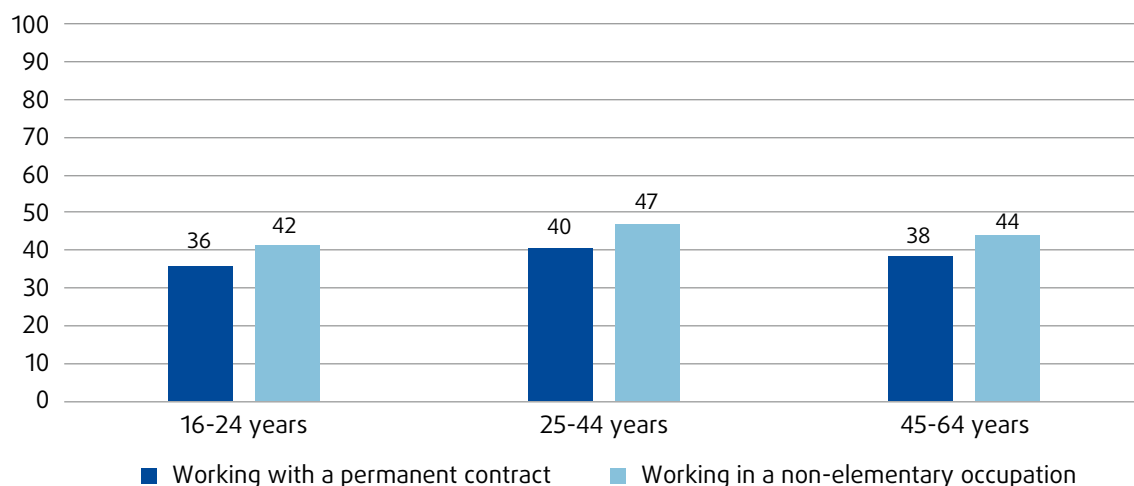
Figure 14 shows that the percentages of those working with permanent contracts and those working in

non-elementary occupations are similar across the three age cohorts of Roma (persons aged 16-24, 25-44, and 45-64 years). In all three cohorts, fewer than half of those who identified their main activity as being in employment were working in a non-elementary occupation and even fewer were working with a permanent contract. The lowest shares were represented in the youngest age cohort. Using data from Eurostat, Cedefop reported that among the general adult population in the EU (persons aged 15 years and over), less than 10 % of people employed are working in elementary occupations – in contrast to as many as 55 % of Roma women and men in employment.²¹ The disparity between the Roma and the general population is just as high with regard to employment with a permanent contract. Although not entirely comparable, in 2016, the percentage of the EU general population with temporary contracts within total employment was on average 12 % among persons aged 15-64 years and 41 % among youth aged 15-24 years.²²

²¹ Cedefop (2011), p. 22.

²² Eurostat (2016), [lfsi_pt_a](#) (downloaded 29 May 2018).

Figure 14: Quality of employment among Roma in employment as their main activity by age, type of occupation, and type of contract (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents aged 16-64 in Roma households who are in employment as their main activity ($n = 1,950$, working with a permanent contract; $n = 1,947$, working in a non-elementary occupation); Employment as main activity encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service; weighted results.

^b Employment with a permanent contract ($n_{16-24} = 304$; $n_{25-44} = 1,126$; $n_{45-64} = 520$); Performing non-elementary work ($n_{16-24} = 303$; $n_{25-44} = 1,122$; $n_{45-64} = 522$).

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Quality of employment, however, varies considerably across the countries included in the survey. As shown in Figure 15, the proportion of Roma working with a permanent contract ranges from as low as only 4 % and 5 % in Portugal and Greece, respectively, to about half of the working population in Bulgaria (49 %), the Czech Republic (46 %), and Hungary (44 %). Among the nine Member States surveyed in EU-MIDIS II, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Hungary are also among the countries with the lowest proportion of temporary contracts within total employment among the general population.²³ With regard to the type of occupation, the proportion of employed Roma working in non-elementary

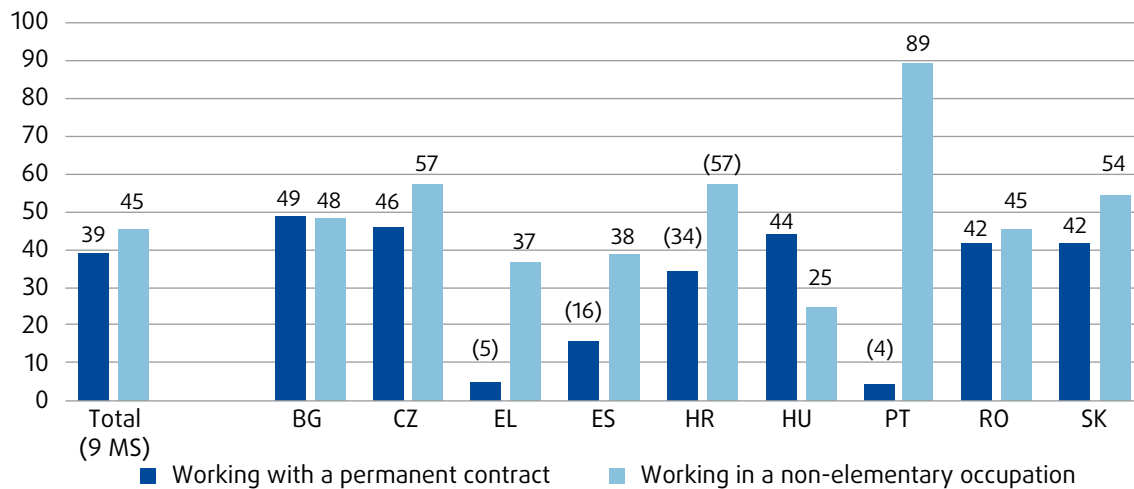
occupations ranges from one in four (25 %) in Hungary to as many as nine in ten (89 %) in Portugal.

It is important to consider also the country-specific differences between the two 'quality of employment' indicators. Specifically, in Portugal, Greece and Spain, in particular, many Roma are working in non-elementary occupations, but very few work with a permanent contract. One possible explanation of this finding could be the seasonal work pattern that has previously been observed as a common practice in these three countries.²⁴

²³ Eurostat (2016), *lfsi_pt_a* (downloaded 29 May 2018).

²⁴ See, for example, *Local Engagement for Roma Inclusion (LERI)* (2013).

Figure 15: Quality of employment among Roma aged 16–64 who are in employment as their main activity – type of occupation and type of contract by country (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents aged 16–64 in Roma households who are in employment as their main activity ($n = 1,950$ (working with a permanent contract); $n = 1,947$ (working in a non-elementary occupation)); Employment as main activity encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service; 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.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

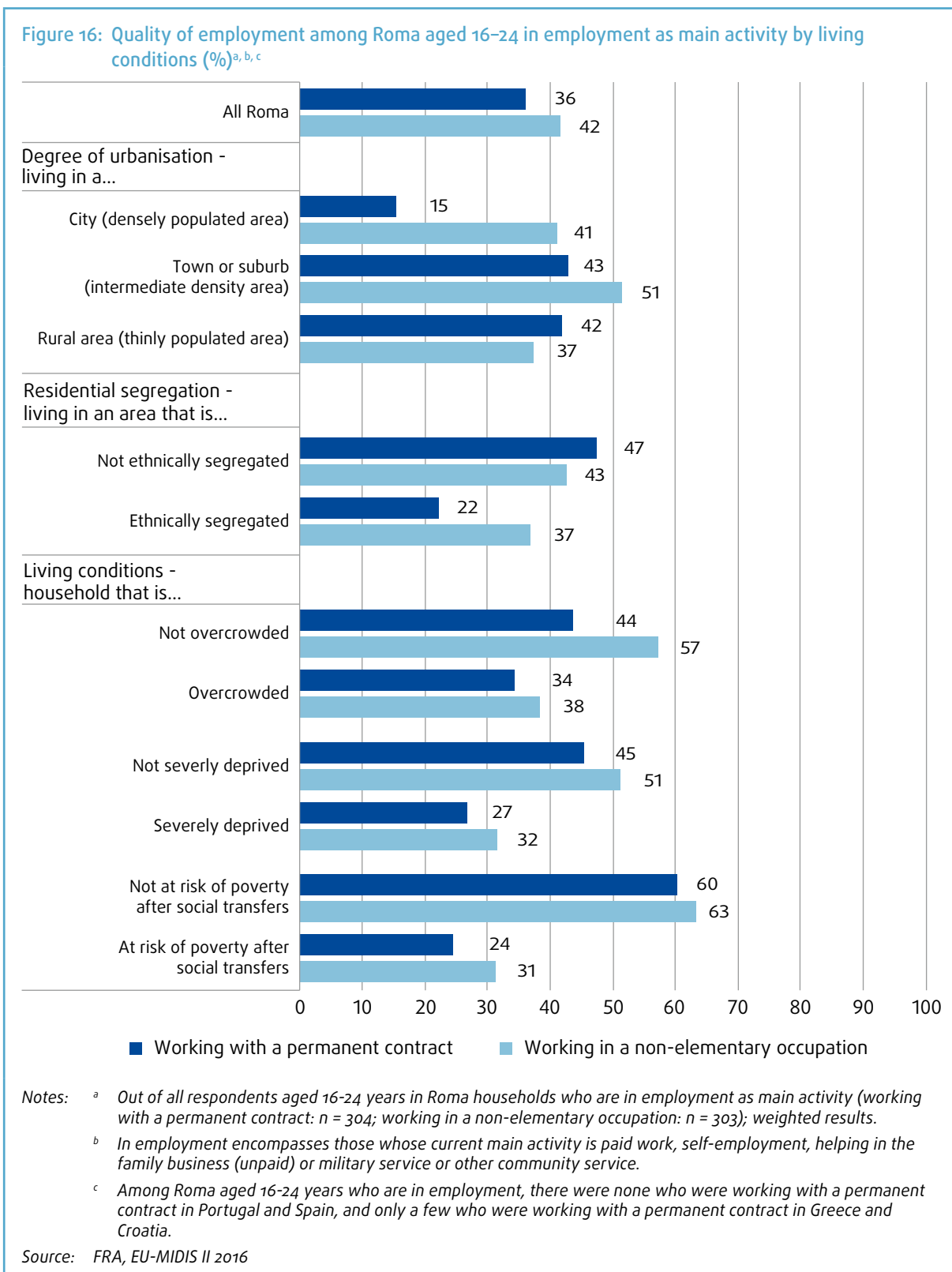
Socio-economic characteristics

Focusing only on the youngest age cohort, Figure 16 shows the differences in quality of employment arranged according to living conditions, while Figure 17 arranges these data according to socio-demographic characteristics.

With regard to the first indicator of quality of work, compared to young Roma living in cities, those who live in rural or suburban areas were more likely to work with a permanent contract. In addition, results suggest

that living in an ethnically segregated area, in an overcrowded household, in an severely deprived housing and being at risk of poverty after social transfers are all negatively associated with having a permanent contract.

With regard to type of occupation, young Roma living in ethnically segregated areas were slightly less likely to be working in a non-elementary occupation. At the bivariate level, the association between living in an overcrowded household, in severely deprived housing and being at risk of poverty after social transfers was again negatively related to the quality of employment, namely working in a non-elementary occupation.

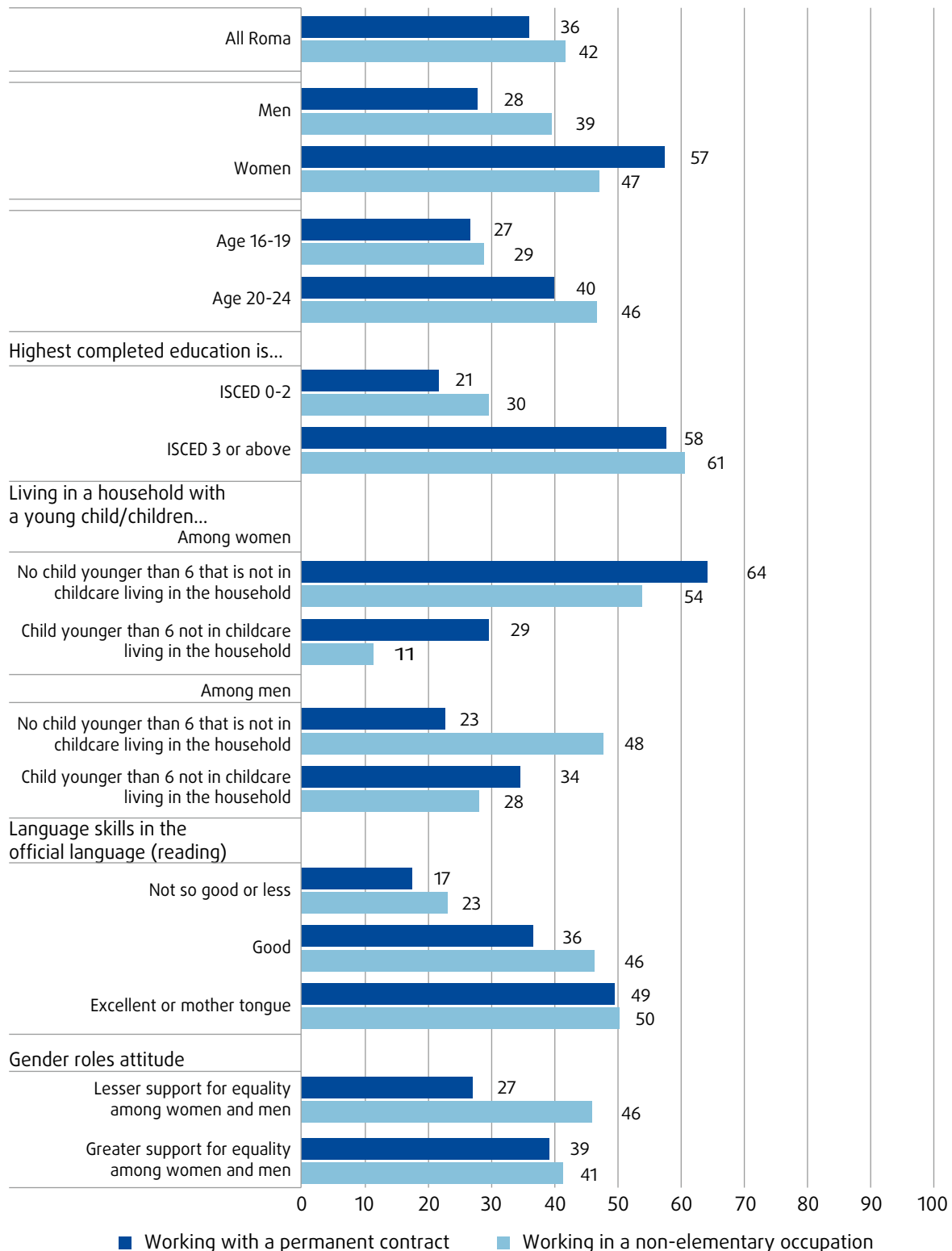


Socio-demographic characteristics

Figure 17 shows the association between socio-demographic characteristics and the quality of employment.

Being female, older, having completed a higher level of education and possessing better language skills in the official language were positively associated with both permanent contracts and with working in a non-elementary occupation.

Figure 17: Quality of employment among Roma aged 16–24 who identified their main activity as being in employment by socio-demographic characteristics (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents aged 16-24 years in Roma households who are in employment as main activity (working with a permanent contract: n= 304; working in a non-elementary occupation: n = 303); weighted results.

^b In employment encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.

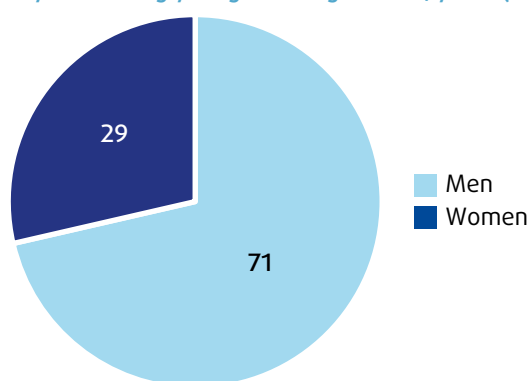
Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Differences in quality of employment between women and men

As summarised in Figure 13, overall, young Roma men are much more likely to be 'in employment' as their main activity, compared to young Roma women. Of those persons who are in employment, as many as 71 % are men (Figure 18). As previously mentioned, this might be related to the broader engagement of Roma women in household work or in raising children.

On the other hand, when they move to employment, Roma women are more likely to be working both with a permanent contract and in a non-elementary occupation, compared to young Roma men (Figure 17). The reason may be that there are higher opportunity costs for women to be 'in employment' (negotiating the division of household tasks) or there is an availability of alternatives (if they are engaged in the household work already, Roma women may be more carefully choosing if and when they move into employment).

Figure 18: Employment status by sex among young Roma aged 16-24 years (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all those aged 16-24 years in Roma households (n = 1,083); 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. 'In employment' encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Looking at the gender-specific differences in the types of work undertaken by young Roma, the bivariate analysis also suggests a relationship between the presence of a young child or children (under the age of six) in the household and the quality of employment of either sex. The effect is strong and negative among women – there are twice as many women working either with a permanent contract or in a non-elementary occupation among those who do not live with a young child, compared to women who live in households with a young child. Among men, the effect is similar with regard to the type of occupation. On the other hand, there is a different correlation regarding the type of contract. Young Roma men who live in a household with a young child are more likely to work with a permanent contract, compared to young Roma men who do not live with a young child.

EU-MIDIS II also asked respondents about their perception of gender roles (for a more detailed description of the indicator see Annex 2). As shown in Figure 17, young Roma who expressed a greater support for equality among women and men are more likely to work with a permanent contract and somewhat less likely to work

in a non-elementary occupation. In addition, it should be mentioned that overall, among both Roma aged 16-24 years and among those aged 16-64 years, support for gender equality was high. More specifically, as many as three in four Roma women and men agree or strongly agree that 'Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person', 'Both the husband and wife should contribute to household income', 'Men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children', and that 'It is important that both girls and boys stay in education for the same length of time'.

Education and functional literacy

The level of completed education is also associated with job quality. Of the young Roma who completed at least upper secondary education and are working, 58 % work in permanent contracts and 61 % work in non-elementary occupations. In contrast, the proportions of young Roma who completed at most lower secondary education are respectively 21 and 30 % (Figure 17).

One of the important factors that is associated with a better quality of employment is functional literacy

and the ability to communicate in the official language of the country, defined here as the level of the ability to read in the respective official language. The results suggest that young Roma whose level of knowledge of the official language is at least 'good' are more likely to be working in non-elementary occupations than the young Roma whose ability to communicate in the official language of the country is 'not so good or less' (Figure 17). With regard to the type of contract, there is a gradient. Young Roma whose level of knowledge of the official language is 'excellent or mother tongue' are more likely to be working with a permanent contract than those whose level of knowledge is 'good,' who are again more likely to be working with a permanent contract than those whose knowledge of the official language of the country is 'not so good or less'

Multivariate assessment

Multivariate logistic regression analysis was conducted to confirm the bivariate findings. As there were too few persons aged 16–24 who were working with a permanent contract, the calculation basis was the sample of respondents aged 16–64, with age included as a covariate in the model (Table 2).

The results were similar to the bivariate findings, with a few exceptions. Roma who live in cities and towns are more likely to work with permanent contracts than those who live in rural areas. In addition, Roma women who live in households with a young child or children were more likely to work with a permanent contract.

Overall, socio-demographic characteristics are more strongly associated with the quality of employment than socio-economic factors. For example, living in severely deprived housing and living in a segregated area are negatively associated with having a permanent contract, but the effect of these factors was not as large, in comparison to the effects of socio-demographic factors.

Roma men and youth are less likely to work with a permanent contract. Interestingly, although women across all age groups are more likely than men to work with a permanent contract, the effect is somewhat smaller among Roma aged 25–44, suggesting that the gender gap in the quality of employment is not as large in this age cohort compared to the gender gap observed within the older and within the younger cohorts.

Education and functional literacy are strongly associated with having a permanent contract. Persons who completed at least upper secondary education are two times more likely to work with a permanent contract than those who completed lower secondary education or less. Being able to communicate in the official language of the country is another strong predictor of quality of employment. Roma whose reading skills in the official language are at least 'good' are up to twice as likely to work with a permanent contract, compared to those who have lesser knowledge of the official language.

Finally, persons who did not experience ethnic origin-based violence, harassment or discrimination are more likely to work with a permanent contract. The effect of discrimination, however, is somewhat smaller than those observed for sex, age, education, and functional literacy.

Table 2: Socio-economic and socio-demographic correlates of quality of work – working with a permanent contract; binary logistic regression analysis with working with a permanent contract as reference category (n = 616/1,805)^{a, b, c}

	Working with a Permanent Contract AOR^b (95% CI)^c
Bulgaria	1.07 (1.04, 1.09) ***
Czech Republic	0.86 (0.84, 0.89) ***
Greece	0.09 (0.08, 0.10) ***
Spain	0.17 (0.17, 0.10) ***
Croatia	0.30 (0.25, 0.36) ***
Hungary	0.81 (0.79, 0.83) ***
Portugal	0.05 (0.05, 0.06) ***
Slovakia	0.65 (0.63, 0.67) ***
Romania = reference	
Degree of urbanisation	
City (densely populated area)	1.25 (1.22, 1.28) ***
Town or suburb (intermediate density area)	1.07 (1.05, 1.09) ***
Rural area (thinly populated area) = reference	
Residential segregation (living in a segregated area = reference)	1.36 (1.34, 1.38) ***
Severe housing deprivation (living in a severely deprived housing = reference)	1.06 (1.04, 1.08) ***
Sex (female = reference)	0.50 (0.48, 0.53) ***
Age	
25-44	1.12 (1.0, 1.17) ***
45-64	2.12 (2.03, 2.22) ***
16-24 = reference	
Education (ISCED 0-2 = reference)	2.12 (2.08, 2.16) ***
Living in a household with a child younger than six years of age not in childcare (men living in such a household = reference)	0.86 (0.84, 0.87) ***
Living in a household with a child younger than six years of age not in childcare (women living in such a household = reference)	0.45 (0.44, 0.47) ***
Violence or harassment (personal experience of violence or harassment = reference)	1.61 (1.58, 1.64) ***
Discrimination (personal experience of discrimination = reference)	1.22 (1.19, 1.24) ***
Language skills in the official language (reading)	
Good	1.42 (1.39, 1.44) ***
Excellent or mother tongue	1.90 (1.85, 1.94) ***
Not so good or less = reference	
Gender roles attitude (greater support = reference)	0.41 (0.41, 0.42) ***
Interaction between sex and age	
Male sex * Age 25-44	1.59 (1.51, 1.67) ***
Male sex * Age 45-64	0.55 (0.52, 0.58) ***

Notes: ^a Out of all respondents aged 16-64 who are in employment as their main activity (n = 1,805); weighted results.

^b AOR = odds ratio adjusted for the contribution of other independent variables.

^c CI = confidence intervals.

*** P < .001

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Discrimination and employment

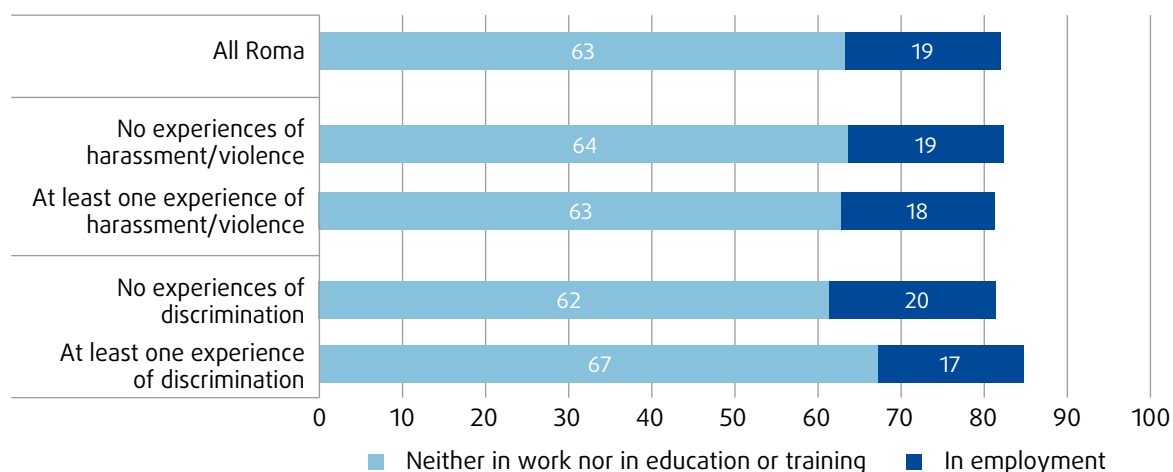
On methodology

EU-MIDIS II measured discrimination by asking respondents about their personal experiences of discrimination on the basis of skin colour/ethnic origin/religion in the past five years in accessing housing, education (self or as a parent) and public/private services (night clubs, bars, restaurants, hotels, administrative offices or public services, public transport and shops). To reflect various situations where harassment can take place – both online and in person – 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 emails or text messages (SMS); and offensive comments made about them online. Experience of violence was defined as a physical attack; it includes incidents where the perpetrator hit, pushed, kicked or grabbed the respondent. The EU-MIDIS II *Main results* report goes into more detail on experiences of violence. In household-level analyses, the experiences of discrimination and violence/harassment, measured at the respondent-level, were included as aggregate values for all members of the household.

Figure 19 shows the young Roma's main activity status by experiences of harassment/violence and discrimination. As mentioned previously, discrimination and violence/harassment neither in the bivariate nor in the multivariate analysis appears to be associated with the likelihood of being in employment among young Roma. The multivariate analysis, however, did suggest that young Roma in education are somewhat more likely to be living in a household where the respondent did not experience discrimination, compared to Roma who are neither in work nor in education or training (see Table 1).

Anti-Gypsyism is often manifested in discrimination or harassment, the effects of which are more notable in regards to the quality of employment, specifically the type of contract. The proportion of young Roma working with a permanent contract is 17 percentage points higher for those who in the last 5 years have not experienced harassment/violence or discrimination on the basis of being Roma (Figure 20).

Figure 19: Main activity status of Roma household members aged 16–24 by respondents' experience of harassment/violence or discrimination on the basis of being Roma in the last 5 years (%)^{a, b, c}



Notes: ^a Out of all persons aged 16–24 years in Roma households ($n = 5,632$); weighted results.

^b Experiences of discrimination and violence/harassment, measure at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregate values for all members of the household.

^c Main activity status is 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. "In employment" encompasses those whose current main activity is paid work, self-employment, helping in the family business (unpaid) or military service or other community service; "neither in education, nor in training or employment" encompasses those who are neither in education nor in training or employment.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

However, no relationship between experience of harassment/violence or discrimination and working in a non-elementary occupation was observed. A possible conclusion to draw from this, is that people with permanent contracts experience less discrimination, but this relationship does not hold for people working in non-elementary occupations.

Finally, Figure 21 shows the proportion of respondents who personally experienced discrimination in work-related situations – at work or while looking for work – in the five years preceding the survey. Across all age cohorts, the proportion of Roma who experienced discrimination in work-related situations is high. Among those who worked in the five years before the survey, about one in five Roma experienced ethnically-based discrimination. The proportion is somewhat higher among the two younger cohorts, compared to Roma

aged 45 – 64 years. Among Roma who looked for work in the five years before the survey, more than one-third experienced ethnically-based discrimination. The proportion is somewhat lower among the youngest cohort, compared to Roma aged 25 and above.

However, the difference is more likely due to the shorter length of time spent by young Roma in the labour market (and thus to their reduced chances of experiencing discrimination) than it suggests progress in fighting discrimination. The multivariate analysis also suggested that discrimination and violence/harassment may have a more subtle manifestation in the context of the quality of employment. Roma who did not experience ethnic origin-based violence, harassment or discrimination were somewhat more likely to work with a permanent contract (Table 2).

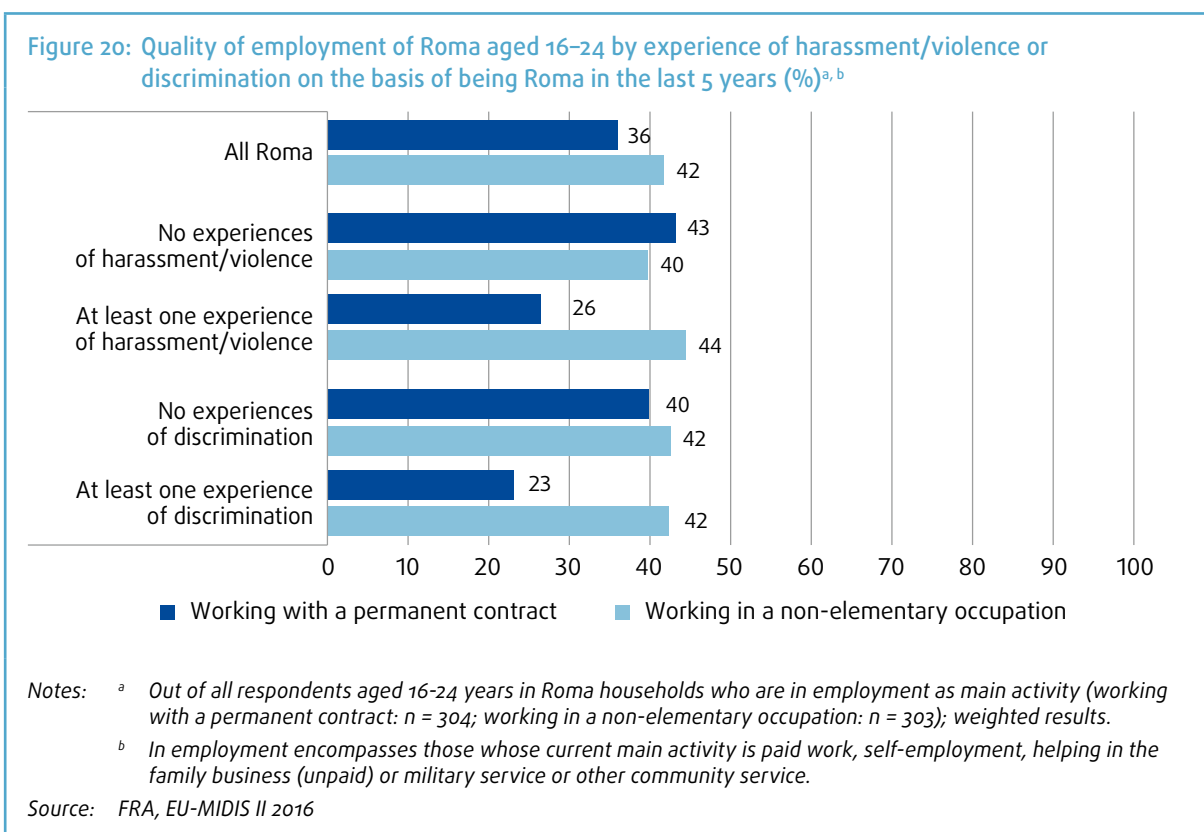
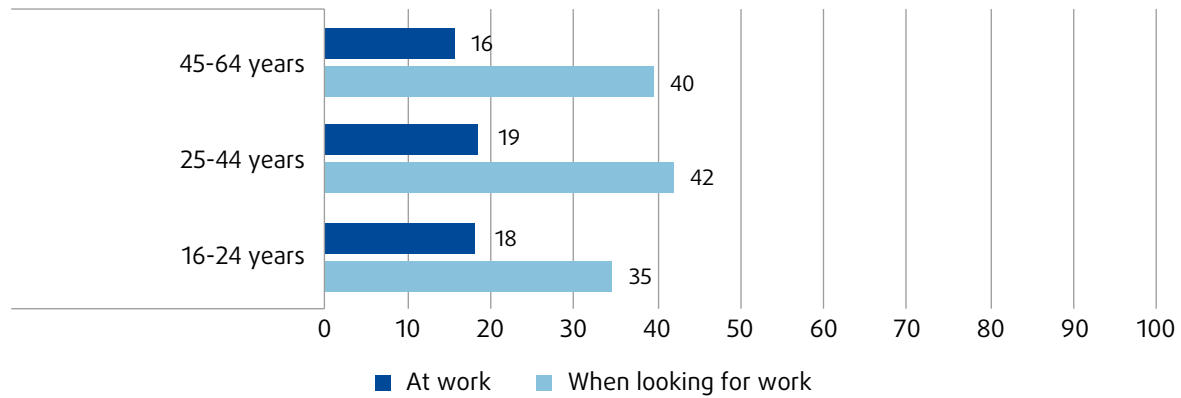


Figure 21: Experience of discrimination when looking for work and at work by age group (%)^{a, b}



Notes: ^a Out of all respondents aged 16-64 in Roma households who said they worked ($n = 3,855$) or looked for work ($n = 3,940$) in the past five years; weighted results.

^b At work ($n_{16-24} = 567$; $n_{25-44} = 2,099$; $n_{45-64} = 1,189$); Looking for work ($n_{16-24} = 758$; $n_{25-44} = 2,199$; $n_{45-64} = 983$).

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS II 2016

Conclusions

This report outlines the key factors associated with levels of completed education, with being in education or in employment, and with the quality of employment among young Roma living in nine EU Member States. Using data from the EU-MIDIS II survey, the analysis explores the relationship between socio-demographic characteristics, socio-economic status or discrimination and educational attainment as well as employment of young Roma aged 16–24 who are transitioning into the labour market.

The analysis suggests that socio-economic factors are much more related to young Roma's educational outcomes than socio-demographic characteristics. For example, living in severely deprived housing, in a household at-risk-of-poverty and in an area that is residentially segregated is related to completing only lower levels of education.

Although socio-economic factors influence young Roma's employment status, the factors that stand out in the process of transition from education to employment are, in fact, socio-demographic characteristics, such as sex, education, and living in a household with a child or children of pre-school age that do not attend early childhood education and care. Gender is also strongly related to being in employment. Traditional gender roles increase men's chances of being in employment more than women's. Removing the existing barriers preventing Roma women from entering the labour force appears to be a particular priority.

Still looking at the role of gender, the analysis finds that among Roma who are in employment (two-thirds of which are men), Roma women were more likely than Roma men to work either in a non-elementary occupation or with a permanent contract. Given the fact that more and more women are in education – and, potentially, becoming more competitive in the labour market – supporting them in completing the transition to employment is critical. In particular given the fact that the cost of moving to employment is higher for women, as the responsibility of taking care of the household and children still mostly falls on them.

Making early childhood education and care more accessible to Roma is particularly important for the transition to employment among Roma women. Apart from the benefits for the children's long-term educational opportunities (human capital formation), the measures supporting Roma children attending early childhood education and care could positively affect Roma women's employment opportunities. This would also

have wider positive implications in the areas of poverty and gender roles.

Education is another strong predictor of employment – but not all levels of education have the same effect. The results suggest that the skills and knowledge associated with upper secondary education and higher matter most for the successful transition from education to employment.

Living in marginalised conditions and poverty affects young Roma's employment opportunities in multiple ways. At the educational stage, poverty weakens human capital formation and prevents young people from gaining the knowledge they need to successfully compete in the labour market. But poverty also affects the very process of transition and its ultimate outcome leading to waste of human capital. Therefore, poverty should be addressed as a multidimensional phenomenon matching active labour market policies (to facilitate access to better quality jobs) and social policy instruments (to address the negative implications of poverty for human capital formation while the impact of better quality jobs and higher incomes comes into effect).

Discrimination also affects educational and employment outcomes, although not as strongly as expected. In line with other research and field observations, for example in the context of qualitative research conducted by FRA (Local Engagement on Roma Inclusion) a major outcome of discrimination is lower quality of employment in terms of job security, benefits and income.

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Annexes

Annex 1: The survey in a nutshell

The selected findings presented in this report are based on a survey of Roma in nine EU Member States in 2016 (Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Spain). The survey on Roma was a part of FRA’s EU-MIDIS II survey, which collected data on immigrants’ and ethnic minorities’ experiences and opinions in all 28 EU Member States. The methodology used in EU-MIDIS II built upon experience gained through the implementation of FRA’s first survey on immigrants and ethnic minorities in 2008 (EU-MIDIS I) and the Roma survey in 2011. Compared with earlier surveys, in EU-MIDIS II the set of questions was extended and the coverage of the survey’s target groups was improved through the use of advanced sampling approaches. For more details, see each survey’s technical report.²⁵

Annex 2: Statistical analysis

Only one person per household was interviewed in Roma households, while a number of questions in the survey asked about the situation of each household member. The EU-MIDIS II survey collected information on 7,947 Roma households, including 33,785 household members in total. Therefore, depending on the type of

analysis (respondent-level versus household-level), the results presented in this report are based either on the experiences of the respondents (one per household) or of all individuals living in Roma households. The number of respondents available as a basis for the presented results is indicated under each table and figure.

Multivariate analysis

Given that household-level models contain one or more persons per household, the assumption that residuals are independent will be violated, due to between-household heterogeneity. Clustering data causes an overestimation of the true sample size and hence an underestimation of standard errors of effect estimates. The effect of clustering was therefore slightly larger for household-level variables (e.g., country, residential segregation) than for individual-level variables (e.g., age, education). However, due to the large number of households ($n = 3,499$) and the fact that only a few and strongly significant effects were considered in the analysis, neglecting the clustering of data did not have any substantial impact on the results, for reasons of simplicity of the model, was ignored. Respondent-level models are not affected by clustering because data from only one household member is included in the analysis. When building the final models, variables with non-significant ($p > 0.05$) effect sizes were excluded step by step. In all models, the country was included as a fixed effect to account for any heterogeneity between countries.

Variable	Description
<i>Data collected at the household-level</i>	
Age	Age of an individual is categorised into 0 = 16–19 and 1 = 20–24 among youth and 1 = 14–24, 2 = 25–44, 3 = 45 – 64 among Roma aged 16–64.
Sex	Sex of an individual is coded as 0 if an individual is male and 1 if an individual is female.
Level of completed education	The highest level of completed education is categorised into 1 = no formal education, 2 = ISCED 1 (primary education), 3 = ISCED 2 (lower secondary education) and 4 = ISCED 3+ (upper secondary education or higher). For the multivariate analyses, the highest level of completed education attained is categorised into 0 = ISCED 0-2 or less (lower secondary education or less) and 1 = ISCED 3+ (upper secondary education or higher).
Degree of urbanisation	The degree of urbanisation (DEGURBA) is categorised into 1 = city (densely populated area), 2 = town or suburb (intermediate density area) and 3 = rural area (thinly populated area).
Living in a segregated area	Interviewer’s assessment of the area where the household lives is categorised into 0 = not segregated and 1 = segregated.

25 For 2011, see FRA (2013); for 2016, see FRA (2017b).

Variable	Description
Severe housing deprivation	Living in a severely deprived housing is coded as 1 if the household is living in an overcrowded dwelling that also either a leaking roof, no bath/shower and no indoor toilet, or it is considered too dark).
At risk of poverty after social transfers	At risk of poverty based on the EU-MIDIS II survey are all people with an equivalised current monthly disposable household income below one 12th of the national at-risk-of-poverty threshold for 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 modified OECD equivalence scale (1-0.5-0.3).
Children younger than 6 years of age living in the household, who are not in childcare	Combined effects for gender, age of youngest household member and childcare were categorised into not living in a household with a child younger than six years of age, living in a household with a child younger than six years of age that is in childcare, and living in a household with a child younger than six years of age that is not in childcare. For the multivariate analyses, men and women were each differentiated into two groups: no children or children older than five years or children under six years in childcare, and children under six years not in childcare.
<i>Additional data collected at the respondent-level</i>	
Functional literacy	Reading proficiency in survey country's national language is categorised into 1 = no skills or not good at all or not so good, 2 = good, 3 = excellent or mother tongue
Gender roles attitudes	Gender roles attitude was assessed by four items: 'Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person'; 'Both the husband and wife should contribute to household income'; 'Men should take as much responsibility as women for the home and children'; and 'It is important that both girls and boys stay in education for the same length of time'. Respondents indicated their answers on a four-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 4 = strongly agree. The gender roles attitudes measure was then constructed by taking the mean value of the items. For those respondents who did not provide an answer to all items, the mean value was calculated using those items for which they provided an answer. Overall, the support for equality among women and men is high. For the composite scale ranging from 1 to 4, the average value among youth was $M = 3.19$ ($SD = 0.77$; $Mdn = 3.25$) and among Roma aged 16-64 it was $M = 3.18$ ($SD = 0.74$; $Mdn = 3.25$). The gender roles attitude measure is dichotomised into 0 = score of less than 3 and 1 = score of 3 or more on the composite measure, with as many as 77 % of youth and 75 % of Roma aged 16-64 were showing greater support for equality among women and men.
Experience of violence or harassment on the basis of Roma origin	Experience of violence or harassment is coded as 1 if an individual had experienced violence or harassment and 0 if an individual had not. To reflect various situations where harassment can take place – both online and in person – 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 (SMS); and offensive comments made about them online. Experience of violence was defined as a physical attack, i.e., it includes incidents where the perpetrator hit, pushed, kicked or grabbed the respondent. Experiences of violence/harassment, measured at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregated values for all members of the household.
Experience of discrimination on the basis of Roma origin	Experience of discrimination is coded as 1 if an individual had experienced discrimination on the basis of Roma origin in the five years before the survey and 0 if an individual had not. Experience of discrimination encompasses housing, education (self or as parent) and public/private services (night clubs, bars, restaurants, hotels, administrative offices or public services, public transport and shops). Experiences of discrimination, measured at the respondent-level, were included in the household-level analysis as aggregated values for all members of the household.



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

Across the European Union, Member States are faced with the challenge of integrating Europe's most deprived and disenfranchised minority groups. As a follow up to the EU-MIDIS II findings on Roma, this report presents FRA's findings relating to the issues of education and employment. Encouraging Roma participation in education and employment equips communities with higher incomes, better life opportunities and greater social inclusion.

Tackling exclusion, discrimination and anti-Gypsyism is key to achieving this, leading to better job security, benefits and income. There are other significant indicators highlighted in this report: socio-economic factors and socio-demographic factors. Ultimately, whether Roma are in education or employment, and whether their occupations can be described as so-called "decent work", depends on a multitude of factors.

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