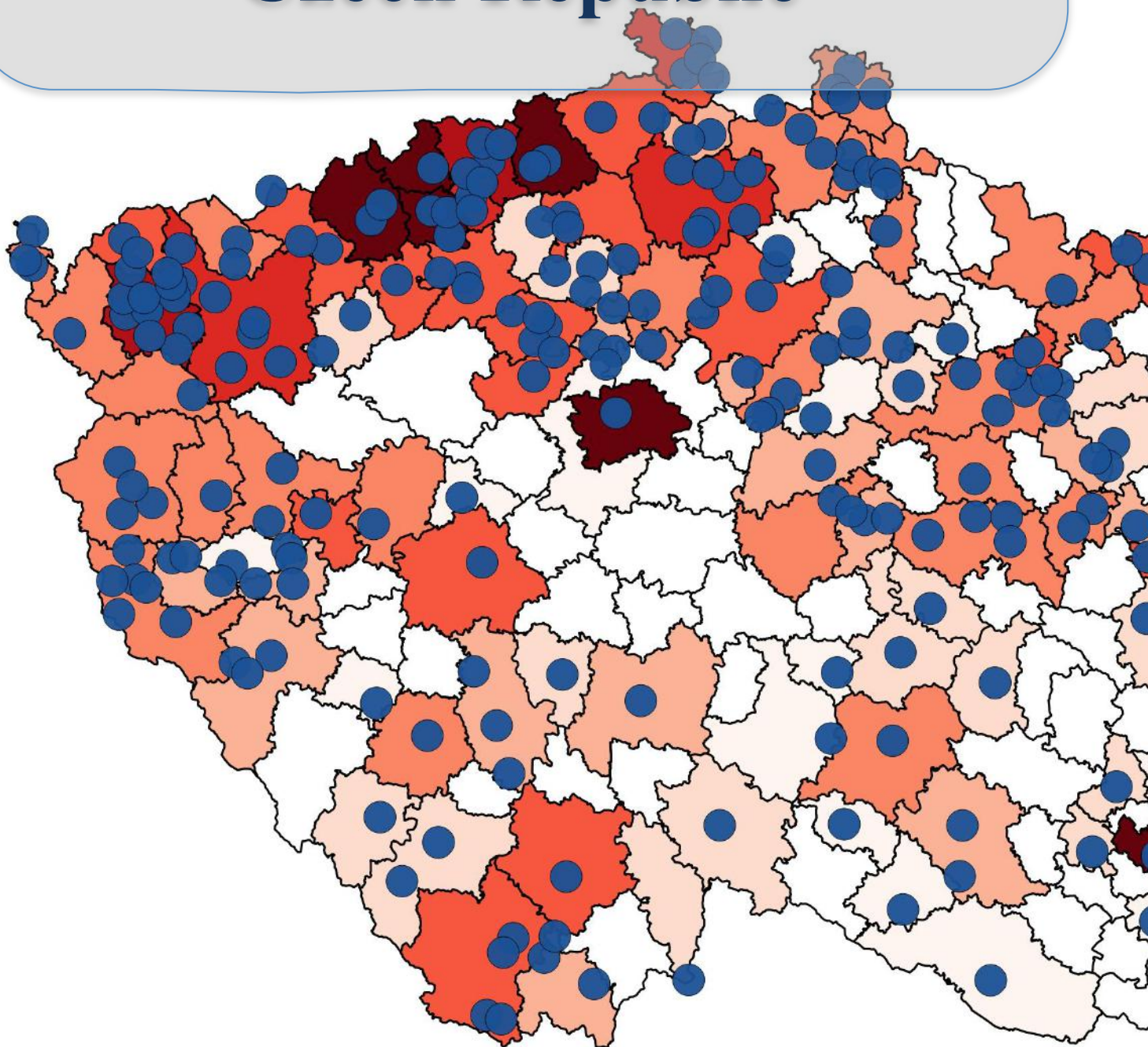


Analysis of Socially Excluded Localities in the Czech Republic



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Main author and editor:

Mgr. Karel Čada, Ph.D.

Co-authors:

Mgr. Daniela Büchlerová, Mgr. Zuzana Korecká, Mgr. Tomáš Samec

Main authors of Chapter 4.2. TERRITORIAL DISTRIBUTION OF PHENOMENA LINKED TO SOCIAL EXCLUSION:

Doc. RNDr. Martin Ouředníček, Ph.D., Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Authors contributing to Chapter 5. IMPACTS AND NEEDS OF INCLUSION POLICIES AND PROJECTS:

Mgr. Jaroslava Barbara Sporková, PhDr. Jarmila Tinlová

Project supervision:

PhDr. Ivan Gabal, Mgr. Eva Bělinová

Authorship of maps:

Map design:

Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká, Doc. RNDr. Martin Ouředníček, Ph.D.

Graphic and cartographic processing:

Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Execution:

GAC spol. s r. o.

IČ: 27087581

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Managing Director: Lenka Kadeřávková

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Preface by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs

The first publication and presentation of the results of the large-scale *Analysis of Socially Excluded Roma Locations and Absorption Capacity of Entities Involved in this Field* was made public in 2006. The executor of this research project, commissioned by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, was the research agency GAC spol. s.r.o. (Gabal Analysis and Consulting).

We are now entering a new era in terms of using the resources made available by the European Structural and Investment Funds, which creates a need for up-to-date and comprehensive information about the development and character of social exclusion in the Czech Republic, from 2006 until today. In the course of the two last programme periods (2004-2006 and 2007-2013), the European Social Fund has become, thanks to the volume of the funds allocated, a key resource in supporting not only social integration and employability, but also education. In order to use the money available during the 2014-2020 programme period effectively, we intend to rely on this newly available information and set up new calls for proposals in accordance with the outputs of the new *Analysis of Socially Excluded Localities in the Czech Republic* conducted this year; the key conclusions and findings from this analysis, which are often surprising, are presented to you in this publication.

We hope that you will find this text to be an interesting source of information, connections and inspiration, just as we did. The data it contains are an important and interesting source of information; it shows, for example, how many socially excluded localities there are in the Czech Republic and how many people live in them. We suggest that you approach the contents of this publication as something that continues to undergo dynamic changes, as evidenced by the developments we have seen over the last decade. Figures, statistical data and summaries are an integral part of the text; however, we need to realize that these are likely to change even over the short-term. Also, we cannot only pay attention to numbers, simply comparing them with the 2006 results. It is evident that although much has been done and that in many aspects we have seen positive changes, overall the situation of social exclusion in the Czech Republic has not improved and many might find the numbers presented at the beginning of this publication “shocking”. Still, in order to understand the development and the overall scale of the problem, we must take into account other factors and the entire context.

Analysis of socially excluded localities in the Czech Republic

The publication contains a large amount of methodologically substantiated, high-quality and widely applicable information and analyses. It shows us ways in which the individual phenomena determining the process of social exclusion are interrelated and it also focuses on findings in key areas such as education, housing and the labour market (the economic situation of the inhabitants of socially excluded localities). Last but not least, the report presents recommendations for adjusting support during the 2014-2020 programme period, based on an assessment of the projects funded by the Human Resources and Employment Operational Programme.

As a parallel and purely practical output, the *Analysis of Socially Excluded Localities in the Czech Republic* also includes the Map of Socially Excluded Localities in the Czech Republic, which is available online at esfcr.cz. The map has been created on the basis of broad-scale field research and additional research work, which was conducted in municipalities with one or several socially excluded localities. It provides a further insight into the scale and regional distribution of social exclusion, as well as the individual localities and their specificities. The *Analysis of Socially Excluded Localities in the Czech Republic* was commissioned by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; it was again executed by the research agency GAC spol. s r.o. using funds from the European Social Fund and the State Budget of the Czech Republic. We would like to thank especially to the staff of the Agency for Social Inclusion and the Government Council for Roma Minority Affairs for their help in implementing and supervising the entire process of this complex and comprehensive public contract; in practical terms our thanks go to the various departments of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and other experts and entities involved in this project.

On behalf of the project team of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs

Mgr. Jana Jirků

Management Department of the Human Resources and Employment Operational
Programme

1. Introduction

Poverty and social exclusion represent one of the key problems faced by the Czech society today. This was already the conclusion of the 2006 *Analysis of socially excluded localities* (Analysis 2006 below) and it would appear that since its publication the problem has not become any less pressing. Quite the contrary: the share of persons at risk of poverty or social exclusion in the Czech Republic currently reaches 14.6%. It is true that this puts the Czech Republic below the EU-28 average, which is 24.7%¹, but this is no great reason for optimism. In today's Czech Republic, poverty or social exclusion threaten approximately 1.5 million people, including nearly 100,000 children below 6 years of age and almost 180,000 of people over 65 years of age. Moreover, we should not feel reassured by international comparisons. Statistics define the state of being at risk of poverty based on the median income. However, even if adjusted for local costs, the Czech median income is much lower than the European average. In real terms, a Czech household at risk of poverty is therefore significantly poorer than a household at risk of poverty in Germany or Sweden.

As the sociologist Daniel Prokop points out², Czech poor households are much more affected by price increases. For example, in the years 2005-2012 the prices of food went up by more than 25%, housing and energy prices increased by 60% and healthcare costs by 62%. Thus, for pensioners and poor people, for whom these costs amount to a great share of their household budgets, the increase in the cost of living was more than 1.5 times greater than for the average Czech citizen. The level of indebtedness of poor households has also grown significantly over the last decade. In addition, a number of studies comparing different education systems have clearly shown that in the Czech Republic the generations growing up in poverty have a hard time escaping it. The Czech education system does not offer everyone equal educational opportunities and students' results are greatly influenced by the social status of their parents.³

¹ See the results of the EU-SILC statistical research from 2013.

² Prokop, D. (2013): *Zdroje tekutého hněvu. Už nezapírejme chudobu*. Altualne.cz.

³ ČŠI (2014): *Sekundární analýzy výsledků šetření PISA 2012*. Praha: Česká školní inspekce.

In terms of poverty, social exclusion represents, in a sense, the tip of the iceberg, in which material deprivation combines with the barriers on the open labour and housing markets, with limited access to public services, with low levels of political participation and also, in many cases, with the geographical segregation and symbolic stigmatization of the people living in these conditions. In the Czech context, where the majority of people living in more than 50% of the socially excluded localities are Roma, we must also add the phenomenon of ethnic discrimination.

Although the problem of poverty cannot be reduced to the socially excluded localities alone, they represent its most visible and also most debated form. Their territorial distribution reflects larger structural differences between the different Czech regions. On the temporal level, they also constitute areas in which we can observe the effects that larger economic and social changes have on the most vulnerable and least powerful members of our society. From this perspective, we consider this analysis to be crucial in understanding the social dynamics of today's Czech society and the measures targeting these localities as crucial in the fight against poverty and social exclusion.

The aim of this publication is to summarize the outcomes of the field research carried out as part of the commissioned *Analysis of socially excluded localities in the Czech Republic*. Since the beginning of the study in January 2014, the following tasks have been carried out: (1) Task 1 – Evaluation of findings; (2) Task 2 – First localization of the current distribution of socially excluded localities in the Czech Republic; (3) Task 3 – Field research in the identified localities; (4) Task 4 – additional research to evaluate the interventions carried out by the Human Resources and Employment Operational Programme (HREOP); (5) – Verification of municipalities that were not included in the main field research, but where the data suggested a potential existence of socially excluded localities.

The publication is structured as follows: (2) summary of key findings; (3) methodology and project solution, (4) presentation of key findings (including graphs and maps), conclusions and recommendations – comparison with 2006,⁴

⁴ When comparing with the year 2006, we focus on the following areas: (1) the size of the SELs examined; (2) the share of the Roma among the total population of an SEL; (3) the development of the SEL; (4) the property ownership structure; (5) the degree of spatial exclusion of the SEL; (6) the condition of the houses and flats

regional structuring and migration, housing, the labour market, education, services of inhabitants of socially excluded localities, delinquency and safety, public perception of the problem. In these sections, we present the key findings in these respective areas; we confront them with the results of other studies or supplement them with the latter's outputs. Chapter five of the publication focuses on the **evaluation of policies and projects.** In the sixth and final chapter we offer a number of **preliminary recommendations.**

The publication aims to identify and describe socially excluded localities and compare their current state with the year 2006, when the last extensive mapping was carried out. The goals are: (1) to evaluate the development and changes in the distribution of excluded localities from the situation reflected in the original analysis until today and with a view to the current or expected emergence of new localities; (2) to identify the factors leading to the emergence, displacement or disappearance of excluded localities. To achieve these, more than 20 researchers were involved in a field study carried out in a total of 306 municipalities. A subsequent verification by means of a telephone survey was then conducted in additional nearly 100 municipalities. In twenty municipalities we carried out a deeper qualitative research, focusing on projects that target the socially excluded. During the preparation stage, we studied over 250 documents.

What our research has found is that the tempo of social exclusion cannot be counted only in years, but its effects can be perceived over the course of months or days. Only during the period of the field research, three localities ceased to exist. The researchers had begun their work in these places, but when they visited them again in a month's time, they were no longer inhabited. The difficulties in defining the geographical borders of socially excluded localities and their gradual blending into the surroundings areas, as well as the existence of larger areas affected by some manifestations of social exclusion and situated mainly on the peripheries of regions, have shown us the need to redefine the concept of socially excluded localities – previously seen as areas with sharply

within the SEL; (7) the equipment and facilities available; (8) the size of the municipality that includes the SEL. These comparisons will be presented as graphs. A comparison between the different types of localities will also be carried out.

defined borders -- in favour of a more dynamic and spatially more flexible concept. In the future more attention will need to be paid to monitoring the territorial distribution of the individual phenomena linked to social exclusion, their mutual dynamics and the overlaps between the different territories, as well as the structural characteristics of larger territorial units.

We hope that the quality and scale of the information in this publication will contribute to the improvement of the living conditions in socially excluded localities and help bring about efficient measures to resolve the situation of their inhabitants. This was, after all, the primary motivation for most members of our research team, a goal that spurred us on and helped us resolve the various difficulties involved in this research project.

2. Summary of key findings

- **We can presume that the number of people living in socially excluded localities is between 95,000 and 115,000. Altogether, we have identified 606 socially excluded localities and approximately 700 dormitories in the total of 297 towns and municipalities.⁵**
- **Compared to 2006, the total number of localities has nearly doubled (from 310 to 606). The number of localities has grown in all regions; however, in the Karlovy Vary region and Moravskoslezský region it has more than tripled.**
- **The number of inhabitants living in socially excluded localities has increased by nearly one half. The 2006 analysis estimated that altogether 60,000-80,000 persons were living in circumstances of social exclusion. In absolute numbers, we have seen the largest increases in the Ústecký and Moravskoslezský regions. Social exclusion therefore has a tendency to replicate in regions that saw above-average levels of social exclusion already in 2006.**
- **While in 2006 there was approximately one socially excluded locality per 271 inhabitants, in 2014 this number has dropped to 188. Hence we can argue that socially excluded localities are generally becoming more fragmented, disintegrating into an ever-greater number of smaller units. The socially excluded tend to relocate or be relocated to more isolated**

⁵ The numbers of people living in these localities are derived from estimates made in the context of field research. These estimates were based on observations carried out by researchers and on information provided by local actors. It is crucial to keep in mind that no absolutely reliable official statistics exist (for example, the data on permanent residence is inadequate, the 2011 Census of population and housing no longer reflects the current situation). Only those dormitories that have been identified as housing socially excluded persons were taken into account. However, not all of them are used exclusively by the socially excluded. Some are used by migrant workers or as temporary housing for individuals who do not show signs of social exclusion.

municipalities with less functional infrastructure. Social exclusion in the Czech Republic is losing its predominantly urban character.

- **In remote areas or inner peripheries we sometimes see the emergence of clusters of socially excluded localities, which are perhaps less densely populated, but cover a larger total area than those situated in urban localities. Due to poor social services and transport provision, socially excluded families will migrate within these clusters, moving from one inadequate accommodation to another.**
- **In terms of age structure, the number of elderly people living in socially excluded localities (SEL) has been on the rise, although it is still the case that compared to the majority population, in the SEL this age group represents a significantly lower percentage (7% compared to 24% in the population as a whole).**
- **Compared to 2006, there has been an increase in the localities without a majority Roma population, although such localities are still in the minority. In general, the localities have seen a rise in poor and frequently unemployed people, whose living circumstances essentially replicate the situation of the Roma (high levels of debt, poor education, etc.). There has also been an increase in the number of elderly people from the majority population.**
- **We have identified an enormous increase in the number of people living in dormitories. In 2008, 7,115 adults and 3,912 children (11,027 persons in total) were living in other forms of accommodation (which include dormitories) and receiving the housing supplement. In December 2014, this number had already grown to 28,600 housing supplement recipients, i.e. a total of 47,500 persons if we including those assessed jointly. Out of this total, 27,000 people, including jointly assessed persons, were living in dormitories. Among the housing supplement recipients living in other forms of accommodation, 7,300 were responsible for a dependent child, of which 2,700 were living in dormitories.**

- **In socially excluded localities, the unemployed make up on average around 80-85% of the population. The rate of unemployment is higher in ethnically more homogeneous localities and in rural localities, where there is a lack of jobs. The highest average rate of unemployment was found in the municipalities in Moravskoslezský, Ústecký, Karlovarský and Olomoucký regions.**
- **For approximately 15-20% of the socially excluded, entering the labour market has not been a sure means of escaping the socially excluded environment. The majority of employment is short-term or obtained for an uncertain length of time and brings in a very low wage.**
- **The total majority of the adults living in socially excluded localities have only a basic level of education. There is even some evidence that over the last two decades the level of education has dropped.**
- **The academic achievement of socially excluded children is influenced by kindergarten attendance. However, this influence is significantly stronger following the amount of time that children spend in pre-school institutions.**
- **Households in socially excluded localities are generally less well equipped to prepare children for school. Of all pupils growing up in the socially excluded environment, 22% are educated in schools with a high degree of ethnic homogeneity. In absolute numbers this may represent a total of 3,000 to 3,500 pupils.**
- **In smaller towns and remote regions the social service provision is limited. On the level of regions and municipalities with extended competence, social service provision is uneven, especially in terms of social prevention and counselling.**

3. Research and methodology: a reflection

3.1 Social exclusion and socially excluded localities

For the purposes of the Analysis of socially excluded localities in the Czech Republic, a socially excluded locality or a locality at risk of social exclusion is defined as a location with a more than 20% concentration of persons living in inadequate conditions (indicated by the number of recipients of the living allowance) and inhabiting a physically or symbolically delimited space (indicated by external identification).

Based on the analysis of documents and studies concerning social exclusion, a **definition of a SEL was created, which not only permits a comparison with the 2006 map, but also reflects the changing character of social exclusion.** An SEL denotes, either explicitly or implicitly, a space (a house, street or neighbourhood) with a high concentration of people in whom we can identify the signs linked to social exclusion. The surrounding populations denote these places symbolically as negative (“bad address”, “problematic locality,” etc.).

Based on foreign studies, for example Steiner and Pilgram (2003)⁶, we can also define social exclusion as a gradual and increasing exclusion from one’s full participation in social, material and symbolic resources, which are produced, shared and consumed by the mainstream society in order to ensure good living conditions, organize social life and participate in decision-making. Generally speaking, social exclusion happens once a person is faced with a complex of problems such as unemployment, discrimination, poor level of qualification, poor quality of housing, poor health or family breakdown. The mutual and interdependent combination of these problems then creates a vicious circle that the socially excluded persons find difficult or even impossible to break. According to the British social geographer Danny Dorling⁷, the primary factor of social exclusion is high debt. He argues that if people have access to credit, low income does not automatically lead to the restriction of consumption. However, it is precisely the

⁶ Steinert, H. & Pilgram, A. (2003). *Welfare from Below: Struggles Against Social Exclusion in Europe*. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Limited, str. 5.

⁷ Dorling, D (2010). *Injustice: Why social inequality persists*. Bristol: Polity Press.

resulting debt that becomes a trap difficult to escape. Likewise, other authors see the reproduction of education inequality⁸ or spatial segregation⁹ as the foundations of the vicious circles of social exclusion.

Generally we come across three main ways of distinguishing between poverty and social exclusion:¹⁰ (1) while poverty only concerns economic conditions, social exclusion reflects the larger living circumstances of individuals, households and communities (social exclusion always contains a dimension of poverty; however, some poor people may not be socially excluded); (2) poverty is seen as a static phenomenon existing at a given temporal moment, while social exclusion is understood as dynamic concept allowing us to study the factors behind someone's fall into social exclusion, which include poverty; (3) social exclusion represents an extreme form of poverty.

The basic characteristic of social exclusion is a combination of factors¹¹ that significantly limit one's possibilities in terms of: **(1) access to the open labour market; (2) access to public services**, including social services or education; **(3) contact with the social surroundings; (4) resolving personal crises; (5) political participation**; or they limit one's skills and abilities to make use of these possibilities. **Ethnicity** plays a specific role in social exclusion.

⁸ E.g. Alexiadou, N. (2002) Social inclusion and social exclusion in England: tensions in education policy, *Journal of Education Policy*, 17(1): 71–86; Whitty, G. (2001) Education, social class and social exclusion, *Journal of Education Policy*, 16(4): 287–95, etc.

⁹ Např. Cameron, S. and Field, A. (2000) Community, ethnicity and neighborhood, *Housing Studies*, 15(6): 827–43; Byrne, D.S. (1997) Chaotic places or complex places: cities in a postindustrial era, in S. Westwood & J. Williams (Eds.) *Imagining Cities: Scripts, Signs and Memories*. London: Routledge, 50–72 or Massey, D. & Denton, N.A. (1993) *American Apartheid*. London: Harvard University Press.

¹⁰ Spicker, P, Leguizamon, S. A., & Gordon, D. (2007). *Poverty: An International Glossary*. London, New York: CROP International Studies in Poverty Research.

¹¹ *The UK Poverty and Social Exclusion (PSE) Survey*¹¹ from 1999 defines four types of indicators: (1) lack of material resources; (2) exclusion from the labour market; (3) exclusion from the use of public and private services (including education); (4) exclusion from social relations. In addition to consumption, economic production and the level of involvement in social relations, other authors also include among their measurable dimensions (5) political participation, which is measured as participating in decision-making on both the local and national level.

However, not all researchers have welcomed social exclusion as the new dominant definition of poverty with great enthusiasm. Some of them consider the emphasized distinction between poverty and social exclusion to be purely rhetorical.¹² They point out that the elusive nature of the concept of social exclusion only contributes to legitimizing inequalities in the rest of the society. The social exclusion rhetoric presents only the extreme forms of poverty as worthy of our attention and interest and, at the same time, dismisses other forms of social inequality as common and normal aspects of the late-modern capitalist state. It also presents the socially excluded as culturally distinct from the rest of the mainstream society and focuses primarily on the issues of the poor, rather than the functioning of the society as a whole.¹³

Ruth Levitas¹⁴ defines three main political approaches to the issue of poverty: (1) the redistribution approach, which is based on the assumption that in order to fight poverty, we must get rid of income and opportunity inequalities; (2) the “moral underclass” approach, which assumes that the root of poverty and social exclusion lies in the moral weakness and bad behaviour of the poor; and (3) social exclusion, which emphasizes work and education as key paths towards social integration.

However, when trying to employ low-skilled individuals in order to integrate them, we often run into what the American legal scholar Joel Handler¹⁵ has called the “paradox of inclusion”. The goal of an active policy aimed at eradicating social exclusion is to encourage the long-term unemployed to accept jobs on the labour market that are still significantly worse than those of others. Not only may these positions be at odds with human dignity, but they may also not guarantee a satisfactory income. Recent British

¹² Peace, R. (2001). Social Exclusion: A Concept in Need Of Definition? *Social Policy Journal of New Zealand*, 22 (16), 17–36; Levitas, R. (1996). The Concept of Social Exclusion and the New Durkheimian Hegemony. *Critical Social Policy*, 16(46): 5–20; Percy-Smith, J. (ed.). (2000). *Policy Responses to Social Exclusion. Towards Inclusion?* Buckingham: Open University Press.

¹³ Levitas, R. (2005). *The Inclusive Society? Social Exclusion and New Labour*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

¹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁵ Handler, J. F. (2004): *Social Citizenship and Workfare in the United States and Western Europe: The Paradox of Inclusion*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

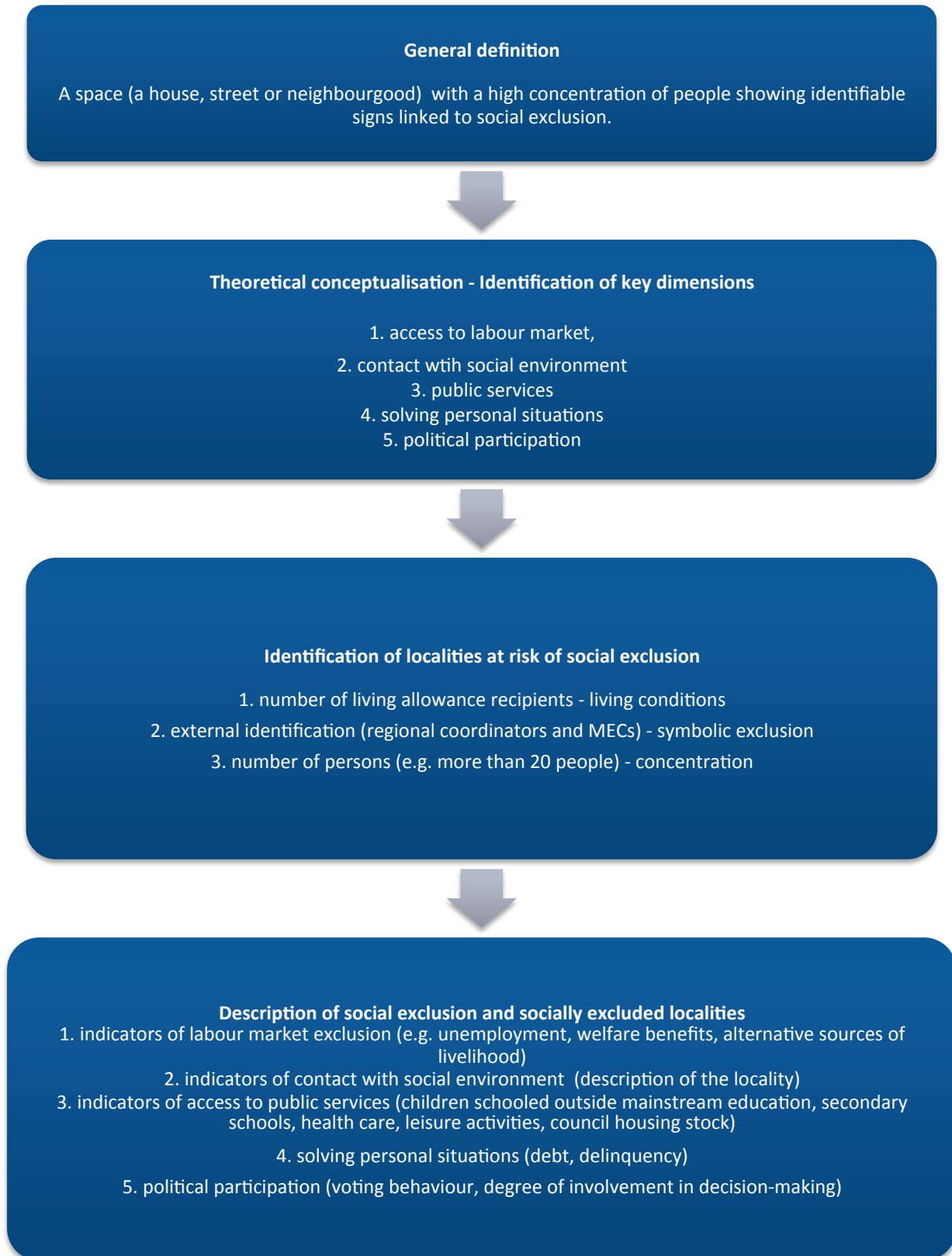
studies monitoring poverty and social exclusion¹⁶ have questioned the link between work and one's integration into mainstream society. They have argued that we are seeing a rise in the number of households living below the poverty line, where nevertheless at least one family member is in work. The share of these households in the total number of poor households has increased, from the original 44% in 1996 to 57% today. The same study has shown that at the present time we cannot speak about long-term unemployment in the classical sense, but rather about individuals who oscillate between periods of unemployment and periods of low-skilled and low-paid work.

In the Czech context, the concept of social exclusion has been clearly dominant in both the analytical and the practical approach to poverty. Czech studies reveal certain characteristics that are specific to the domestic environment. Firstly, the definition is founded primarily on the **material and spatial dimensions of social exclusion**. In this case, a socially excluded locality (SEL) equals a neglected locality. In addition to the material and spatial dimensions, these definitions also foreground the **symbolic dimension**. SELs are seen as "Roma" localities -- even those in which the Roma do not constitute a statistical majority. Their boundaries can also be symbolic (e.g. the locality is perceived as "a bad address"; people describe it as "the house of horror", "ghetto", "Bronx", and so on). This definition carries the risk that simply any Roma-inhabited area will be perceived as an SEL. Another aspect of the SEL definitions in individual studies is the **concentration of particular social characteristics**. For example, the updated SEL map of the Karlovarský region¹⁷ defines an SEL as a place with 25 and more inhabitants who struggle with structural (unemployment) and personal problems (debt). The surrounding populations then designate these places symbolically as negative ("bad address", "problematic area", etc.). According to the authors, the 25-person limit was chosen based on the **expert-defined threshold beyond which a municipality requires external aid and tools**, so as to be able to effectively solve the problems of the socially excluded. Based on our own empirical experience we have set a slightly lower threshold – 20 inhabitants.

¹⁶ MacInnes, T., Aldridge, H., Bushe, S., Kenway, P. and Tinson, A. (2013). *Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion 2013*. London: John Rowntree Foundation.

¹⁷ Dvořáková, T. – TD kontext (2013): *Analýza sociálně vyloučených romských lokalit v Karlovarském kraji*. Commissioner: Krajský úřad Karlovarského kraje.

Fig. 3.1 Steps in building the SEL definition



The situation reports produced by the Demographic Information Centre¹⁸ distinguish between **economic** exclusion (the marginalisation resulting from not being able to access either the primary or the secondary labour market, which manifests as unemployment or, at times, a complete withdrawal from the labour market), **spatial** exclusion (involuntary segregation or a forced aggregation of a certain group of people within the limits of a geographical area, based on their social status and/or and ascribed group), **cultural** exclusion (limited access to education, knowledge and information, resulting in a difference in the character and composition of the marginalized persons' cultural capital, which is not positively valued by the general population), **social exclusion strictly speaking** (the group's social capital is structurally different from the majority society) and **symbolic exclusion** (various expressions of a stigma based on the economic, spatial, cultural and social exclusion, which manifests in everyday behaviour, but also in the creation of concept materials and policies by local and state authorities).

In the process of defining localities for this research, there were **four main stages in the operationalization of the definition of a socially excluded locality**: **(1)** a general definition of a socially excluded locality; **(2)** a theoretical conceptualization of the definition; **(3)** a definition for identifying localities at risk of social exclusion; **(4)** a definition for the purposes of field research. **The different steps** in creating the definition are shown in Figure 3.2. (p. 16)

In other words, our research did not focus solely on mapping poverty or identifying places inhabited by the Roma, but instead aimed to map social exclusion as a multifactorial concept. In addition to the indicators of the degree of social exclusion, we also looked at secondary indicators: the description of the locality, the context of the socially excluded localities and the absorption capacity of subjects active around the excluded localities, as well as the tools to address them.

Depending on their theoretical premises, the field research indicators provided by the client can be divided into four main areas: (1) primary indicators of the degree of social exclusion; **(2)** secondary indicators of the situation inside the socially excluded

¹⁸ E.g. Situation analysis Duchcov, Situation analysis Krupka or Situation analysis Větrní. These analyses were elaborated as part of the "Situation analyses in localities selected in 2011", a project commissioned by the Office of the Government of the Czech Republic, Agency for Social Inclusion in Roma Localities.

localities; **(3)** the context of socially excluded localities; **(4)** absorption capacity of subjects active in the vicinity of the excluded localities. The primary indicators which indicate the degree of social exclusion can further be divided according to the key areas structuring social exclusion: **(1) exclusion from the labour market; (2) contact with the social environment; (3) access to public services; (4) ways of resolving personal situations; (5) degree of political participation.** The division of these indicators is shown in Table 3.2

Table 3.2 Types of indicators according to the key dimensions of social exclusion

Types of indicators and dimensions of social exclusion		Indicators
Primary indicators : indicate the degree of social exclusion	<i>01. Labour market exclusion</i>	Estimated rate of unemployment among the inhabitants of the locality; Barriers to access to the labour market affecting the inhabitants of the locality and a description of the specifics of unemployment; Characteristics of local job-seekers; Estimated share of legally employed inhabitants of the locality; Alternative sources of livelihood; Use of Assistance in material need
	<i>02. Contact with social environment</i>	Type of locality; Location within the municipality; Degree of spatial exclusion; Distance from the nearest non-excluded place within the municipality/region; Civic amenities provision; Estimated number of inhabitants of the locality; Estimated share of Roma among the total population of the locality; Inner structuring of the locality
	<i>03. Access to public services</i>	Educational structure within the locality; Educational institutions used and their distance from the locality; The “ghettoization of local schools”; Number of children schooled according to the Curriculum framework for children with slight mental disability and the Curriculum framework “Special Schools”; Number of Roma students attending secondary schools; Healthcare availability in the locality; Availability of council flats
	<i>04. Ways of resolving personal situations</i>	Number of tenants in rent arrears or owing for other rent-related services in the locality; Delinquency rate affecting the inhabitants of the locality and its character (committed criminality); Over-indebtedness and its severity
	<i>05. Degree of political participation</i>	Electoral participation rate; Involvement in community planning; Involvement in decision-making; Municipal and other policies potentially leading to segregation or amplifying the factors leading to social exclusion; Other relevant high-level mechanisms identified as having an impact on the creation, spreading and maintenance of the phenomena of social exclusion in the localities

<p>Secondary indicators: indicative of the situation in socially excluded localities</p>	<p>Factors affecting the creation of the locality and a description of the dynamics; Factors affecting the disappearance of the locality and the departure of the inhabitants from it; Forms of transport to schools; Number of houses/flats in the locality, percentage of inhabited buildings; Ownership structure - number of flats; Types of tenancy agreements in rental housing in the locality; Characteristics of the built-up areas in the locality; Description of houses and their condition; Number of dependents in the municipality; Number of dependents in the locality; Use of disability allowances in the locality; Problems related to health insurance; Incidence rates of infectious diseases among the inhabitants of the locality; Presence of gambling establishments in the locality or its vicinity; Incidence rates of gambling problems and their severity; Substance abuse and the degree of severity; Problems identified based on the registry maintained by the Department for Social and Legal Child Protection (OSPOD); Delinquency rates affecting the inhabitants of the locality and their character (effect of criminality)</p>
<p>The context of socially excluded localities</p>	<p>Total unemployment rate in the municipality/region and the percentage of non-skilled workers; Number and structure of jobs vacancies according to education; Number of job seekers registered with the Labour Office; Number of recipients of unemployment benefit; Average cost of housing in the different housing segments - comparison and description of possible differences between the excluded locality and the rest of the municipality; Main initiator of creation and implementation of integration policies</p>
<p>Absorption capacity of subjects and the tools of fighting against social exclusion</p>	<p>Existence of a key external employer open to employing the inhabitants of the locality; Existence of social businesses in the locality offering jobs to inhabitants and ways of their financing; Representation of the inhabitants of the locality in the instruments of an active employment policy; Existence of other programmes helping to bring down the general barriers to the labour market; Number of children attending maternity schools or pre-school clubs; Number of children attending preparatory classes; The use of the Teaching Assistant Programme for socially disadvantaged children; Number of schools participating in the Inclusive Education Support Centres projects; Number of schools using the Ministry of Education's Development plan for schools implementing inclusive education; The use of the subsidy programme Support of Roma secondary-school pupils; Availability of tutoring schemes for local children and their participation rates; Availability of leisure activities for local children - types</p>

	<p>and participation rates; Development and use of other measures promoting inclusive education; Existence of dormitories in the locality as a potential housing alternative for the inhabitants and of other dormitories in the vicinity; Availability and existence of social housing; Procedures used in resolving rent arrears; Availability of the health and social assistant programme; Availability of public services; Provision of social services compliant with the Social Services Act No. 108/2006 Coll.; Existing programmes aimed at the social integration of the inhabitants of the locality beyond the scope of the Social Services Act; Field social work; Application of regulatory measures against gambling machines in the locality or the entire municipality; Measures to help improve security in the location; Addressing the situation of the inhabitants of the socially excluded Roma locality in the integrated municipal development plan or a larger strategic regional development plan; Activities of the Agency for Social Inclusion in the Roma localities of the given municipality; Addressing the situation of the socially excluded inhabitants of the locality in the mid-term social services development plan; Existence of a Roma integration strategy; Appointment of a Roma integration worker in the municipality with extended competence; Activities of municipal field workers in the locality; Coordination between the procedures of key subjects when dealing with the specific issues of SEL inhabitants; Development of alternative forms of integration measures; Use of subsidies from the European structural funds to implementing integration measures aimed at improving the situation of the inhabitants of a Roma SEL</p>
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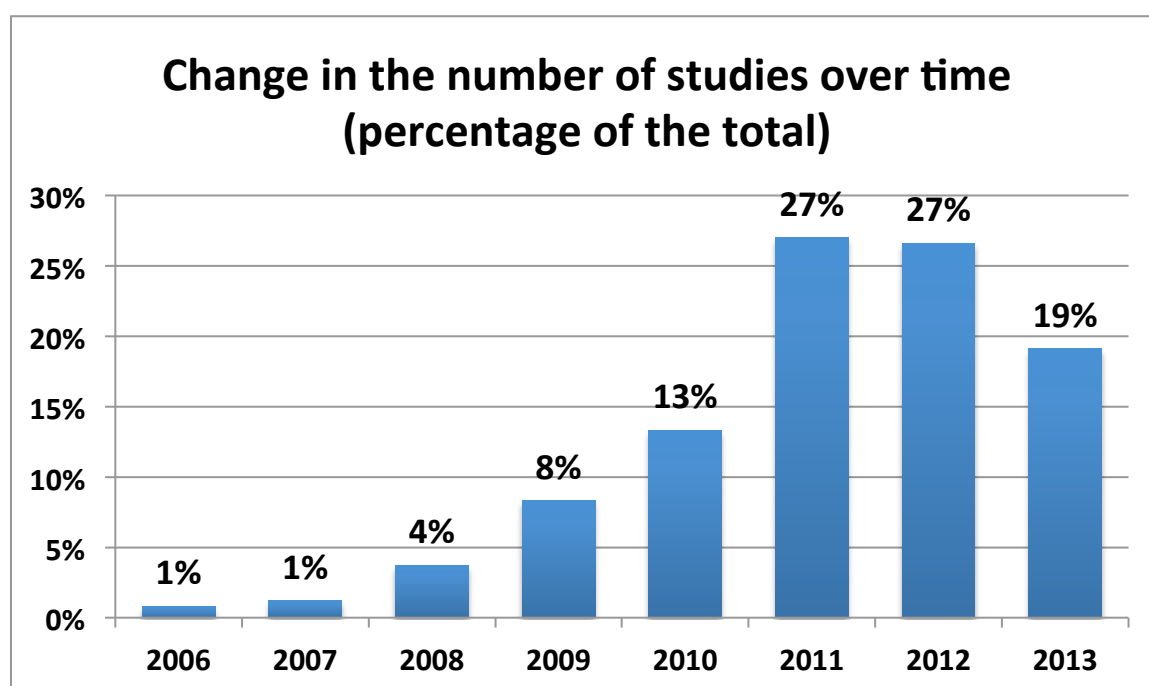
3.2 Review of research work to date

In the first stage of the project, we were able to identify a total of **259 key documents (research studies, situation analyses, reports or strategy papers)** that address the questions of social exclusion and its previously described dimensions. As part of this research, we undertook a **basic classification of the documents** (based on content-related criteria, the year of origin, authorship, region, etc.), as well as a **subject-specific indexation of key quantitative and qualitative findings** and information sources, in order to simplify our research and analysis. In order to identify the documents, we contacted actors on the level of central administration (ministries, the Agency for Social Inclusion, the Czech Academy of Sciences and institutions and NGOs working on the

national level) and also key local actors identified by regional Roma coordinators, asking them to provide us with studies they had carried out or commissioned. We specifically contacted academic institutions that conduct research on social exclusion and the related phenomena. The body of research we collected helped us identify the key characteristics of the knowledge about social exclusion, its dimensions and forms.

Since the publication of the *2006 Map* until today, the corpus of knowledge about social exclusion has been built most intensely over the last three years, which saw the completion of more than a half of the studies identified (see Figure 3.3). In many cases, the resulting analyses were carried out by private agencies (GAC, Sociofactor, Sociotrendy, etc.) or by non-profit subjects (People in Need, Demographic Information Centre, SPOT, Mezanin and others). The Institute of Sociology (Public Opinion Research Centre with regards to public opinion and the Socio-Economic Panel in the field of housing), the Masaryk University in Brno and the University of Ostrava were the most frequent academic executors.

Fig. 3.3 Change in the number of studies over time



A key role in commissioning these studies has been played by the **Agency for Social Inclusion** (hereafter referred to as Agency), which has become a dominant actor in creating knowledge about social exclusion. Over the given period, the Agency commissioned more than a half of the identified studies, both situation papers and

specific analyses. It is followed by the Government Council for Roma Minority Affairs and individual government departments (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Internal Affairs and others). In recent years, regional councils have also become important commissioners of research studies. The *2006 Map* has been fully updated in the Plzeňský¹⁹, Karlovarský²⁰, Liberecký²¹ a Moravskoslezský²² regions; in the Olomoucký region a number of situation analyses were carried out covering the territories of specific MECs - Přerov, Šternberk, Šumperk, Uničov (Sociofaktor 2011).

One-fifth of these studies are devoted to the entire territory of the Czech Republic; others concern the four regions most affected by social exclusion – Ústecký (17%), Karlovarský (10%), Olomoucký (9%) and Moravskoslezský (8%). A number of reports focus on a combination of **subject areas**, especially in the case of situation papers and the updated maps of social exclusion. Figure 3.4 shows that in relative terms housing is the most researched subject area, followed by education, social services, the labour market and demographic characteristics. On the other side of the imaginary range we find the relatively less well-researched areas such as indebtedness, support for ethnic culture, support for Roma political participation, regional differences and migration.

The majority of the studies analysed were case studies. There were distinctly fewer review studies. Likewise, relatively fewer works compare the effectiveness of the different tools to fight social exclusion. A fairly small number of studies deal with the process of policy-making, such as issues of public participation in decision-making or of the active involvement of target groups. **In general, there is a lack of studies that could provide a systematic assessment of the impact of different social policies, including those of welfare reforms.**

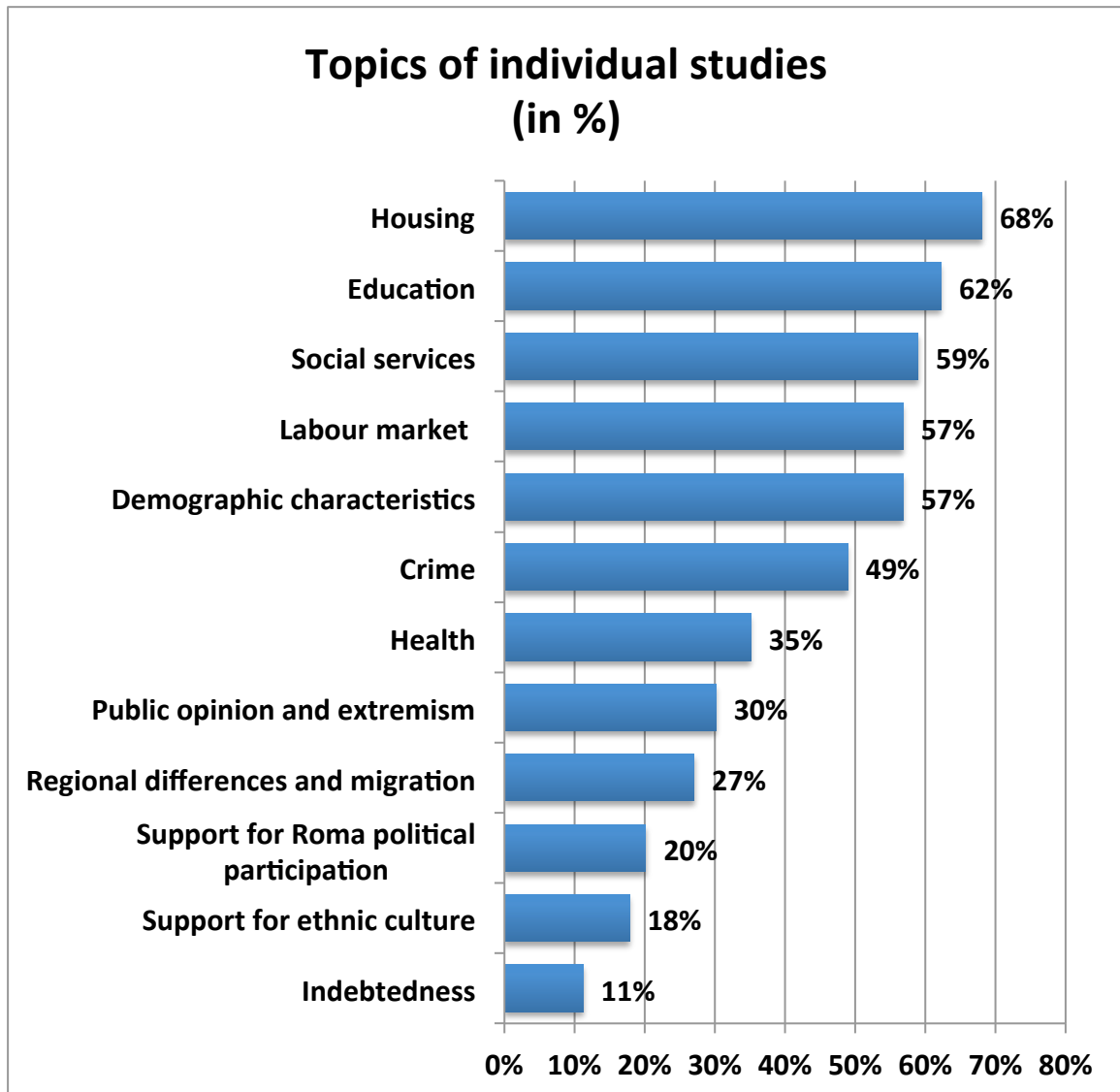
¹⁹ People in Need Association, local office in Plzeň (2014): *Monitoring aktuální situace v sociálně vyloučených lokalitách Plzeňského kraje*. Commissioner: Krajský úřad Plzeňského kraje.

²⁰ Dvořáková, T. – TD kontext (2013): *Analýza sociálně vyloučených romských lokalit v Karlovarském kraji*. Commissioner: Krajský úřad Karlovarského kraje.

²¹ Sociofaktor (2013): *Analýza sociálně vyloučených lokalit a dostupnosti sociálních služeb prevence v těchto lokalitách v Libereckém kraji*. Commissioner: Krajský úřad Libereckého kraje.

²² Augur (2014): *Analýza sociálně vyloučených lokalit v Moravskoslezském kraji*. Commissioner: Krajský úřad Moravskoslezského kraje.

Fig. 3.4 Topics of individual studies



3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Methods of cartographic data processing

We were able to obtain **statistical data** in a satisfactory measure and structure from the General Directorate of the Labour Office and the Ministry of Labour. However, no data was available regarding the payments of benefits for 2012 and 2013.²³ The Czech Social Security Administration refused to cooperate with us or provide any data. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports has given us data on primary schools and their curriculum frameworks. We were also able to come to an agreement with the authors of the Criminality map of the Czech Republic (Czechcrime.org, Open Society Association) regarding the provision and use of their data. In analysing this data, GAC worked jointly with the research team of the Urban and Regional Laboratory (URRlab) of the Department of Social Geography and Regional Development at the Faculty of Sciences, Charles University Prague.

Our aim was to map the **current state and development of the indicators crucial to identify an SEL and describe its present situation**. We analysed statistical data on **living allowance payments, housing supplement payments**, as well as statistics on **youth delinquency**. This data was then used to create map sheets, the purpose of which was primarily to display the position of the monitored indicators in the last available period. Whenever possible and in order to assess the development of the monitored phenomena, we divided the data into two different time periods and also produced maps for the previous period and the evolution of the given indicator between these two periods. The data first had to be adjusted so as to allow their further statistical and cartographic processing. The individual municipalities were assigned codes, making it possible to link them to spatial data using the cartographic and analytical software ArcGIS.²⁴

²³ Because of a transfer of the data on benefit recipients between different data system operators, it is now the case that following a change in the company responsible for their management the data for these two particular years are not available to either the Ministry or any other public administration entity.

²⁴ The cartographic mapping using the ArcGIS software was mostly based on combinations of cartograms showing intensive (relative) indicators and cartograms showing the absolute values of the phenomena monitored. In some cases, the values per individual municipalities were so low in a given year that we had to use a multi-

As our primary method of statistical presentation we chose the **localisation quotient**, which compares the values of individual territorial units to the average national value. The values of the localisation quotient were calculated using the following formula: $LQ_i = R_i/R$; where R_i – the share of the monitored phenomenon in the territorial unit i (e.g. the proportion of households receiving living allowance in a given municipality); R – the share of the monitored phenomenon over the entire territory (e.g. the proportion of households receiving living allowance in the Czech Republic as a whole).

Compared to the higher territorial unit (Czech Republic), the municipalities with a localisation quotient over 1 had a higher proportion of households (persons) with the given characteristic (e.g. a higher rate of households receiving living allowance). This approach was especially useful in comparing indicators in their development, as well as individual indicators with each other. We also suppressed the influence of extreme values in the map keys, plus the relativization using the national average limits the effect of possible changes in the methods used to calculate the indicators. We provided the maps with additional analytical texts, which describe their methodology, the construction of the indicators and the changes in the methods of calculating the indicators monitored. The majority of characteristics are presented on the level of municipalities: this makes it possible to see the spatial differentiation in detail and indicate potentially problematic localities; however, it also makes it more difficult to interpret the maps. Therefore, we have also added tables referring to the level of the municipalities with extended competence (MEC) and their perimeters; contrary to the 6250 municipalities, MECs can give us an idea – based on their location and other conditions -- of the context of the monitored indicators.

3.3.2 Data collection methods

During the preparatory stage of the research, we used the previous document research and secondary analyses of selected key sources to create a **working list of**

year average. This was done in order to eliminate large amounts of zero values in many municipalities and also prevent random oscillations of extreme values caused precisely by these small numbers. The maps also show municipalities where the reference population shows very low numbers (e.g. municipalities with less than 50 households).

municipalities with one or several identified socially excluded localities. For the purposes of comparison and of changes in numbers and structures, the list also included localities detected in 2006 that had not been identified in any other secondary source (publications, reports, analyses etc.).

The municipalities were put on the list based on identification in the following sources:

- 1) Municipalities with excluded localities identified in the status reports on the Roma minority, specifically in the last report available (NB: in the case of the Olomoucký region we also used a number of situation analyses of MECs).
- 2) A questionnaire given to regional coordinators, in which the Roma regional coordinators identified municipalities with socially excluded localities and their locations (streets, parts of towns).
- 3) Municipalities targeted by the Agency for Social Inclusion (includes municipalities identified since the creation of the Agency).
- 4) Municipalities that were identified and included in the 2006 map. Simultaneously, we indicated municipalities that were not included in any of the current sources and are therefore hypothetically defunct.
- 5) Municipalities included in the Report on Liaison Officers for minorities and their working groups for the second half of 2012, which includes excluded localities identified by Liaison officers based on their own experience and assessment.
- 6) Municipalities identified by different analyses of SELs and similar analyses commissioned by regional administrations or by situation analyses executed by external subjects on behalf of the Agency.
- 7) Municipalities identified on the basis of additional consultations with the Agency (information was provided by the Local conceptions unit).

At the time of elaborating the first working database of municipalities with SELs we were able to identify, using the secondary sources available, a total of 406 municipalities, in which one of the sources had detected the presence of either one or several socially excluded localities; out of which 201 municipalities were listed in the status reports on the Roma minority (the rest came from the coordinators'

questionnaires or other sources) and 68 municipalities were identified because they had previously worked with the Agency (from its creation until today). Out of the total of 168 municipalities identified by the 2006 analysis, 28 localities had probably become defunct (were not identified in the sources available). **The total number of socially excluded localities identified on the basis of our review at this stage of the research process was 574 localities, including dormitories.**

In the next stage, we carried out **field data collection in a total of 205 municipalities.** In the first stage, we carried out data collection in 204 municipalities, in the second stage the collection in the town of Ostrava was finalized and we carried out research in the capital Prague. The municipalities were selected based on the criterion of representativity to include all regions and the different municipality size types. The field research was carried out by nine pairs of researchers and two groups of three, of which each team collected data in twenty or ten municipalities. The researchers were university graduates with a background in the social sciences and each unit had at least one researcher with proven research experience in the field of social exclusion (a number of researchers had experience with conducting situation analyses for the Agency for Social Inclusion or with the regional updates of maps of socially excluded localities). In addition to sociologists and social anthropologists, the team also included social workers. Two of the total number of researchers declared to be of Roma nationality. The outputs from the data collection were processed by the researchers in the form of record sheets, also adding a qualitative report for each municipality or locality.

The field research comprised of the following activities: selection of researchers and their division into pairs or groups of three; selection of localities and their distribution among the different research teams; preparation for data collection – the creation of record sheets; determination of the range of priority indicators, creation of planning sheets for the researchers, creation of a model qualitative report, creation of a researcher's identity document and a certificate of the interview conducted; training of researchers and their familiarization with the research tools (workshop at the executor's headquarters); field data collection in the 204 selected municipalities – carrying out observation and individual interviews with a pre-selected range of expert actors, individual interviews with the inhabitants of the locality, collection of statistical

data and official documents; on-going workshop for all of the research teams with the participation of the commissioner and the Agency for Social Inclusion, in order to share on-going methodological reflections (at the executor's headquarters); communication with the central organs of public administration regarding the provision of their data; management of the data collected (verification of the data collected, communication with researchers regarding the completion of data, adjustments of the record sheets, completion of the data provided by the of the General Directorate of the Labour Office and the Ministry of Education); processing the collected data for the purposes of the preliminary report; administration of the field data collection (professional contracts for the researchers, travel orders and so on).

3.3.3 Data collection

The project specification and its methodological solution was in line with the pre-existent knowledge about socially excluded localities and was derived from the original 2006 *Analysis of socially excluded Roma localities and absorption capacity of the entities involved in this field*. During the fieldwork, it became obvious that a revision of this approach was needed due to the changes in the character of social exclusion in the Czech Republic. **The growing levels of migration** of the socially excluded, their **increased diffusion into isolated rural houses**, the dispersal into **smaller localities in larger cities**, the unstable **situation at the dormitories** or the **structural impact on entire regions** made it imperative to revise the concept of the socially excluded locality.

As part of the study, field research was commenced in two localities that then ceased to exist during the data collection stage. In several places it was impossible to precisely define the boundaries of the locality. We therefore chose to define a larger territorial unit and try to determine the proportion of the socially excluded in it, or we conducted research in several smaller localities within a single municipality.

Individual **municipalities** were greatly distinct in terms of **the support and information that their representatives were willing to provide to the researchers**. While in a number of places public administration was very helpful, in about one-third of the municipalities it either denied the existence of social exclusion completely or refused to provide the researchers with data, or would only supply those strictly necessary. This turned out to be crucial problem in a number of smaller rural localities, where the

researchers were unable to rely on any information from non-profit non-governmental organizations (NNOs)

Due to a **high number of dormitories and their complicated ownership structures**, obtaining data about dormitories was quite problematic. We also included dormitories that local actors designated as socially excluded localities in their own right. In the case of others we focused on determining the basic number of dormitories. However, even in medium-sized cities researchers identified dozens of dormitories, which were very different in relation to their use by the socially excluded: some of them primarily focused on migrant workers, others would set precise accommodation criteria (lack of debt, deposits, families without children and so on) and finally some constituted substandard forms of housing used exclusively by the socially excluded. This housing segment would deserve a separate study, which should identify the different types of housing, quantify their occurrence and describe the conditions of their housing provision, including material amenities.

Due to the timing of the fieldwork (June-September) and the relative reluctance of the interviewees, we had difficulties getting data from schools. Representatives of schools repeatedly expressed their hesitancy to provide us with estimates of the proportions of pupils from different sociocultural backgrounds. Some of these representatives told us that for several years they have been constantly flooded with requests to contribute to various research projects, which reduces their willingness to participate.

The ambivalence of the information obtained from the actors and the complexity of relationships was also manifest in the researchers' difficulties in trying to reduce the findings in order to make them "fit" the required indicators. We resolved this situation by elaborating qualitative reports, which were then used for a more context-sensitive data processing of data in further analyses. The **extensive list of indicators** also turned out to be an issue: in places where the local actors themselves did not have the required knowledge capacity, researchers were unable, given the parameters of the research, to obtain all the indicators with the same degree of reliability.

3.3.4 Methods of evaluating projects funded by the Human Resources and Employment Operational Programme

Additional field research in order to evaluate the intervention of the Human Resources and Employment Operational Programme (HREOP) was carried out in twenty selected municipalities. The research focused specifically on assessing the benefits and effectiveness of projects implemented as part of No 3.2 of the HREOP (Support to social integration of the members of Roma localities). In this context, we also looked at the impact of these projects on the life circumstances of the target group, the degree to which they meet the needs of inhabitants of socially excluded localities, the factors influencing the success of the projects, the degree of complexity of the support provided to the target groups and the significance of the supported projects for local integration policies.

Based on the findings from the field research, the Commissioner of the research and the Advisory Committee were given a draft list of twenty-five municipalities intended for further study. The Advisory Committee approved **twenty of the selected municipalities, in which research was then carried out.**

Table 3.5 Selection of municipalities

Suggested municipalities	Final selection of municipalities
Bílina, Brno-sever, Hradec Králové, Cheb, Chomutov, Chrudim, Javorník, Jihlava, Kojetín, Liberec, Slezská Ostrava, Přerov, Tábor, Toužim, Uničov, Ústí nad Labem – Neštětice, Vítkovice, Domažlice, Vsetín, Zlín, <i>Broumov, Horní Moštětice, Kolín, Roudnice n. L., Semily</i>	Bílina, Brno-sever, Hradec Králové, Cheb, Chomutov, Chrudim, Javorník, Jihlava, Kojetín, Liberec, Slezská Ostrava, Přerov, Tábor, Toužim, Uničov, Ústí nad Labem – Neštětice, Vítkovice, Domažlice, Vsetín, Zlín

In processing the data we **focused on the following questions:** **(1)** What impact did the projects have on the target groups' circumstances? **(2)** To what extent did HREOP projects address the needs of the inhabitants of socially excluded localities? **(3)** What factors influence the success of HREOP projects? **(4)** How did the project implementers ensure that the target group is given complex support? **(5)** To what extent are HREOP projects key to local integration policies and the continuity of integration processes? **(6)**

Which projects falling under one of the relevant areas of HREOP support were implemented in the locality? **(7)** Do multiple projects give rise to any synergic effects? **(8)** What are the attributes of these possible synergies? **(9)** What factors did contribute to the emergence of a potential synergy? **(10)** What are the main reasons for the absence of synergies between projects implemented as part of these support areas? Subsequently, we created **five case studies**. Our departure point in choosing the topics of the case studies was the need to assess the differences in the projects' impacts on the target group (the success of the project, its sustainability, its effectiveness and so on). However, we also took into account the variety of the projects implemented in response to the various HREOP calls.

During this research stage, we carried out a total of **forty-five individual interviews, seven group interviews and four focus groups**. The interviews were essentially conducted in a standardized format; however, the interviewer chose from a pre-defined set of questions depending on the type of respondents (project implementer, another local social work actor, member of a target group) and the level of their knowledge about the project, so that the interview would provide the most effective results possible. The aim was also to compare the ways in which the same service or activity was perceived by the project implementers and by its actual participants. Another source of information from the field work were **questionnaires sent out to significant actors in the selected localities**: local NNOs active in similar fields, municipal and regional administrations, contact centres of the Labour Office and other subjects, whose function or focus gave them grounds to evaluate the overall local situation, especially in terms of the synergic effects of project work. Through the questionnaires completed by different project implementers we measured specifically the respondents' level of awareness and knowledge about the implementation of the surveyed projects in their locality and the preferences regarding the different areas of services for the inhabitants of socially excluded localities. During the research a total of 112 questionnaires were sent out; the total response was 48 questionnaires, i.e. about 43%.

3.3.4 Verification of socially excluded localities identified in the previous stages of research

Based on the outputs from the preparatory stage of research, **a total of 407 municipalities were identified** as including at least one locality showing signs of social exclusion. However, the research specification, which was reflected in the executor's proposition, had been based on the assumption that field research would be carried out in only 205 municipalities. This was also reflected in the project schedule and budget. The research team therefore came to an agreement with the Commissioner of the research that it would conduct at least a basic survey of the remaining municipalities, in which there was an identified risk of the existence of a SEL, beyond the framework of the original commission. In the so-called **verification stage**, which was carried out by means of a quick terrain screening, we did not focus on identifying all indicators, but only on verifying the key indicators to determine the presence of an SEL. This helped us ensure the relevancy of the mapping for the entire national territory, as well as the reliability of the total number of SELs in the Czech Republic.

This part of research concerned **233 municipalities across all regions of the Czech Republic**. The first step consisted in using detailed desk research and telephone interviewing to create an updated list of 100 municipalities with the presumed existence of a socially excluded locality. The next step was to verify the existence of socially excluded localities in the identified municipalities through field research. During this stage, fifteen municipalities were eliminated from the list because the existence of an SEL was not confirmed. After the data was collected in the field, it was then cleansed and partially standardized. We created an indicative assessment of the technical condition of buildings, to which we then added a more detailed description and possible characteristics of the houses in the given locality. The outputs were also standardized as to the nature of the locality (house, group of houses, etc.) and the spatial non/exclusion of the locality, where we also took into account its location within the given municipality and the context of the municipality's own location within a region, as well as its infrastructure accessibility. In addition to creating a complete list of municipalities with their data, this stage of research also involved the elaboration of the outputs for the interactive map of socially excluded localities. Based on all of the research stages described, we came to the final conclusion that **the number of municipalities which**

do include socially excluded localities and which were not part of the field research is 95, while the number of socially excluded localities in these municipalities is 148 in total.²⁵

²⁵ The verification showed that the highest percentage of the municipalities eliminated from the list because of a non-existence of an SEL are located in the Olomoucký region. This specificity can firstly be the result of the fact that within the Olomoucký region, the Jesenicko area represents a specific context for what we could understand as a socially excluded locality, i.e. a *concentrated* socially excluded locality. In other words, in many municipalities in the Jesenicko area we can identify persons at risk of social exclusion; however, their situation is not sufficiently critical for us to be able to designate the entire municipality as a socially excluded area, also because the buildings in which they reside are part of the same neighbourhoods as those inhabited by non-excluded persons. Jesenicko has a poorer structural and infrastructural provision than other regions as well as much higher levels of poverty. At the same time, there is also the fact that the area has a much higher number of people at risk of being socially excluded from the mainstream population who are not Roma and in some cases much harder to identify because in many cases, the communication partners associate the concept of “social exclusion” with the members of the Roma ethnicity. Another reason for the elimination of a high number of municipalities in the Olomoucký region is that in many cases these were so-called *microlocalities* – places inhabited by less than 20 people and thus not consistent with the definition of an SEL. In addition, we must also mention the important role played by the regional context. A place that would be designated as a socially excluded locality (or one at risk of social exclusion) in the Jihočeský or Vysočina regions does not represent a socially excluded locality in Jesenicko. Although we are unable to describe these distinctions in great detail, we can interpret this situation precisely in relation to the (1) different economic situation of the individual regions and (2) the cultural perception of the “problematic” category. The context-specific adjustments in the identification of the localities are nevertheless limited in order to ensure maximum objectivity in including the localities in the list of municipalities. At the same time, we cannot quite exclude the context-specific nature of the designation and definition of localities because most often local actors base their understanding of the given issues precisely on the local context and their own everyday experience.

4. Presentation of key findings

4.1 Changes in the number and territorial distribution of SELs

In total, we identified **606 socially excluded localities** and **approximately 700 dormitories**.²⁶ Compared to the year 2006, the total number of localities has nearly doubled (from 310 to 606). The number of localities has grown in all regions, but in the Karlovarský and Moravskoslezský regions it has more than tripled. The changes in the numbers of SELs are presented in the table below.

Table 4.1 Changes in the number of SEL in individual regions

Region	Number of localities		
	2006	2014	Index of change
City of Prague	6	7	1.17
Jihočeský	16	38	2.38
Jihomoravský	11	28	2.55
Karlovarský	18	61	3.39
Královéhradecký	25	36	1.44
Liberecký	26	48	1.85
Moravskoslezský	28	72	2.57
Olomoucký	27	62	2.3
Pardubický	15	24	1.60
Plzeňský	17	42	2.47
Středočeský	36	64	1.78
Ústecký	63	89	1.41
Vysočina	11	13	1.18
Zlínský	11	22	2.00
TOTAL	310	606	2.01

²⁶ However, not all dormitories are only inhabited by the socially excluded. Some are used by migrant workers or as temporary accommodation for inhabitants who do not show signs of social exclusion.

The increase in the number of localities is also reflected in the number of their inhabitants. **It can be assumed that the number of SEL inhabitants is currently between 95,000 and 115,000.** The total number of inhabitants of all localities has grown by nearly a half. In 2006, the number of socially excluded people was estimated to be between 60,000 and 80,000. In absolute numbers, we have seen the largest increase in the socially excluded in the Ústecký and Moravskoslezský regions; in relative terms in the Zlínský region (the index of change in the number of inhabitants was 2.38) and the Karlovarský region (the index of change in the number of inhabitants was 2.21). On the contrary, the Jihomoravský region and the City of Prague saw the greatest decrease in the number of the socially excluded, which can be attributed to the processes of gentrification²⁷ currently under way in both the Bohemian and Moravian capitals. In relative terms there was a decrease in the number of the socially excluded not only in the Jihomoravský region (0.31) and in Prague (0.79), but also in the Vysočina region (0.75).

More than one half (51%) of all localities emerged as the result of “natural” relocation due to lower costs of living (especially rent) and of migration for the purpose of finding accommodation; another 35% were created by managed relocation from other parts of the municipality or other municipalities, most often due to measures taken by municipalities or property owners. In regions with a higher number of people living in socially excluded localities this number tends to have increased in 2014 compared to 2006. Together, the Ústecký and Moravskoslezský regions have more socially excluded people (approximately 58,000 to 64,000) than the remaining parts of the Czech Republic. Social exclusion therefore shows a clear tendency to replicate in regions where it has traditionally been present. The changes in the number of inhabitants and localities are presented in the following table.

²⁷ The term gentrification stands for the changes in the urban space whereby the wealthier social strata or commercial business buy up property in previously less attractive areas. On the one hand, this process coincides with an improvement in the condition of these areas and their increased attractiveness; on the other hand, it helps drive the less wealthy outside these zones and into less prosperous neighbourhoods or regions.

Table 4.2 Changes in the numbers of SEL inhabitants in individual regions²⁸

Region	Number of SEL inhabitants			Average per locality		
	2006	2014	Index	2006	2014	Index
City of Prague	9,000 – 9,500	5,400 – 7,400	0.79	1,433	971	0.68
Jihočeský	1,500 – 2,000	2,000 – 2,600	1.05	131	58	0.44
Jihomoravský	5,000 – 5,500	8,000 – 9,500	0.31	491	61	0.12
Karlovarský	3,500 – 4,000	6,000 – 8,000	2.21	183	120	0.65
Královéhradecký	2,000 – 2,500	2,500 – 3,000	1.29	84	75	0.89
Liberecký	2,000 – 2,500	3,000 – 4,000	1.74	81	77	0.95
Moravskoslezský	10,000 – 10,500	19,000 – 23,000	2.07	393	317	0.81
Olomoucký	4,500 – 5,000	3,000 – 5,000	0.91	159	63	0.39
Pardubický	1,000 – 1,500	1,500 – 2,000	1.36	93	79	0.85
Plzeňský	1,500 – 2,000	2,000 – 3,000	1.32	112	60	0.53
Středočeský	3,000 – 3,500	4,000 – 5,500	2.10	83	98	1.18
Ústecký	21,000 – 22,000	36,000 – 38,500	2.0	333	471	1.41
Vysočina	1,500 – 2,000	600 – 1,000	0.75	145	92	0.63
Zlínský	500 – 1,000	2,000 – 2,500	2.38	73	86	1.19
TOTAL	60,000 – 80,000	95,000 – 115,000	1.56	271	188	0.77

There are likely to be multiple reasons for the increase in the number of the socially excluded. One reason is the **economic crisis**, which has contributed to the worsening of labour and economic conditions in certain regions. However, a more significant factor seems to be a **simple reproduction of the socially excluded inhabitants**. This means that new generations are growing up in socially excluded environments, born into them without a real chance of escaping the cycle of social exclusion.

In general, localities tend to get smaller; the number of localities is growing, but the average number of their inhabitants is declining. In the recent years, their inhabitants **have been moving to more remote municipalities with less functional infrastructure**. In other words, social exclusion in the Czech republic is losing its predominantly urban character. These findings have also been confirmed by our own **analysis of welfare benefits recipients**, which **identified an increase in the recipients of the living allowance and housing supplement after 2010** and observed

²⁸ The index of growth in the number of inhabitants and the differences in the local averages were calculated from the original estimates before their interval adjustment. Where the original estimates had already been given in the form of intervals we used the mean value.

a **deterioration in the sphere of the so-called inner peripheries located at the borders of multiple regions** (see the following chapter).

Compared to 2006, the number of inhabitants of SELs has dropped significantly in 61 municipalities, where we can speak about a degressive trend; in 78 municipalities the number has increased. There was a total of 158 new municipalities with socially excluded localities (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Types of localities in individual municipalities divided by the region²⁹

Region	Municipalities in Total	Degressive	Progressive	New
City of Prague	1	100%	0%	0%
Jihočeský	19	21%	26%	53%
Jihomoravský	12	33%	25%	42%
Karlovarský	28	21%	29%	50%
Královéhradecký	21	14%	33%	52%
Liberecký	22	23%	36%	41%
Moravskoslezský	27	7%	30%	63%
Olomoucký	36	14%	22%	64%
Pardubický	13	23%	23%	54%
Plzeňský	27	15%	4%	81%
Středočeský	30	30%	27%	43%
Ústecký	38	21%	45%	34%
Vysočina	10	50%	0%	50%
Zlínský	13	15%	15%	69%

Overall, socially excluded localities are to be found in 71% of all municipalities with extended competence.³⁰ In a total of 60 municipalities with extended competence we did

²⁹ A municipality with degressive localities is defined as having seen a decrease in the number of socially excluded inhabitants, while a progressive municipality is one that has seen an increase. The newly emerging localities did not exist in 2006.

³⁰ Compared to other municipal authorities, the municipal authorities of municipalities with extended competence (the so-called Level III municipalities) have a number of additional competencies, which concern not only their own administrative units, but also the units of other municipalities in the vicinity. There are 205 municipalities of this kind in the Czech Republic.

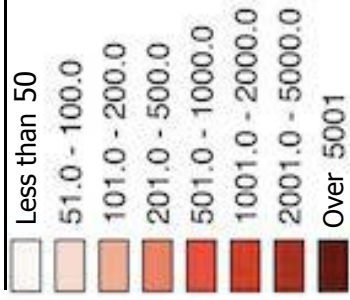
not identify any socially excluded localities, or only those that did not meet our definition (usually small localities with less than 20 people).³¹ The highest number of socially excluded localities are found in the MEC Sokolov (21), followed by the MECs Rumburk and Jeseník (14), Česká Lípa and Ostrava (13) and Karlovy Vary (13). The highest number of socially excluded inhabitants resides in the MECs Ústí nad Labem (around 8,200), Brno (8,000), Ostrava (around 7,800), Chomutov (around 6,300), Litvínov (around 6,000) and Most (around 5,500).

The socially excluded localities have also been increasingly moving to smaller municipalities. Compared to the year 2006, the number of municipalities with less than 5,000 inhabitants and including an SEL has increased by 5%. In relative terms, the number of municipalities with an SEL and a total population of 5,001-20,000 has increased as well.

The following graph (Graph 4.4) shows the structure of the municipalities with SELs according to the total number of inhabitants living in the municipality. Each municipality is represented only once, regardless of the number of localities existing inside its boundaries.

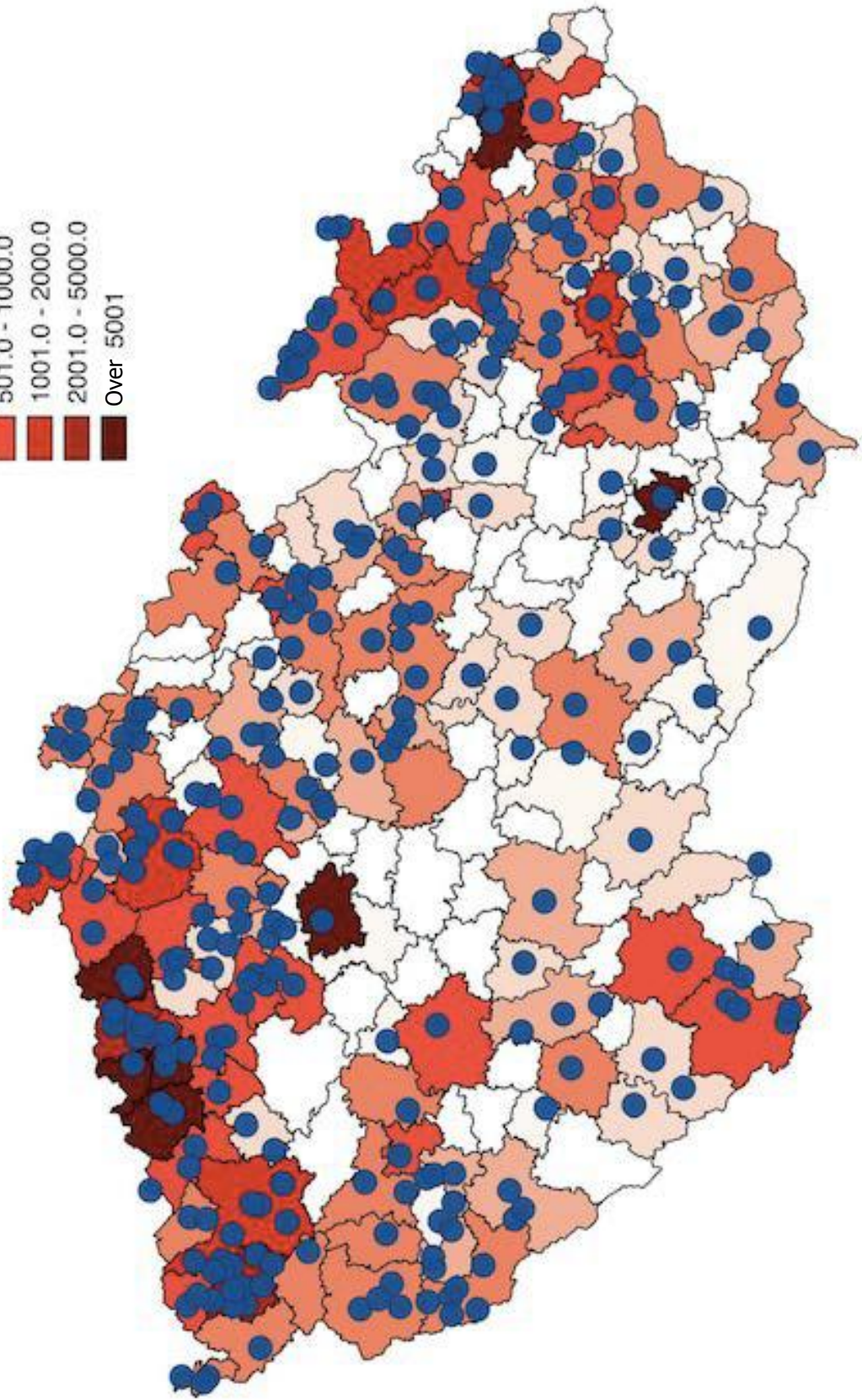
³¹ These were the following municipalities with extended competence: Benešov, Beroun, Bílovec, Blatná, Blovice, Boskovice, Brandýs nad Labem-Stará Boleslav, Bystřice nad Pernštejnem, Český Brod, Český Těšín, Dačice, Dobříš, Dvůr Králové nad Labem, Frýdlant nad Ostravicí, Hlinsko, Hlučín, Holic, Hustopeče, Ivančice, Jablunkov, Jilemnice, Králíky, Kralovice, Kravaře, Kuřim, Kyjov, Litomyšl, Litovel, Luhačovice, Mikulov, Mohelnice, Moravský Krumlov, Náměšť nad Oslavou, Nepomuk, Nová Paka, Nové Město na Moravě, Nové Město nad Metují, Pacov, Pohořelice, Polička, Přelouč, Rakovník, Říčany, Sedlčany, Šlapanice, Slavkov u Brna, Soběslav, Sušice, Světlá nad Sázavou, Trhové Sviny, Turnov, Týn nad Vltavou, Velké Meziříčí, Vizovice, Vlašim, Vodňany, Votice, Vrchlabí, Žamberk and Železný Brod.

● Municipalities with socially excluded locations
The number of inhabitants of SELs within the MEC area

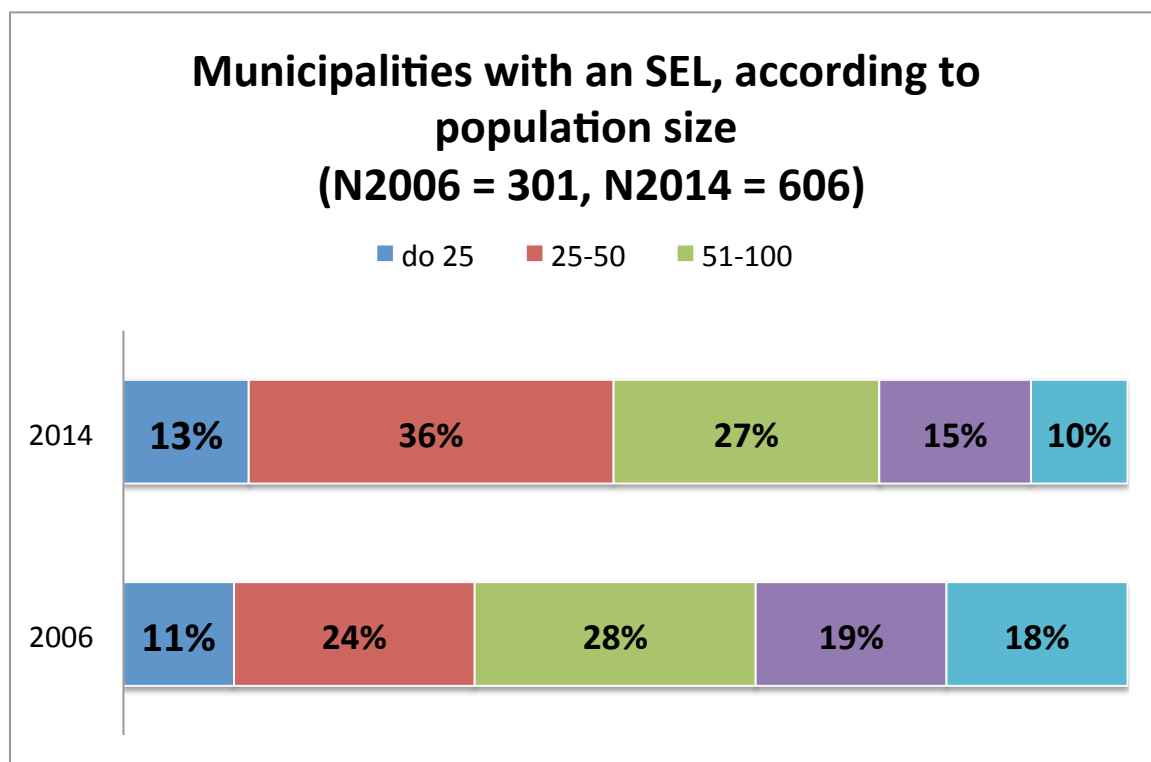


Municipalities with identified socially excluded localities in the Czech Republic

Municipalities with socially excluded localities (SEL) identified as part of the Analysis of the socially excluded in the Czech Republic and the areas of municipalities with extended competence (MEC) according to the number of inhabitants of socially excluded localities

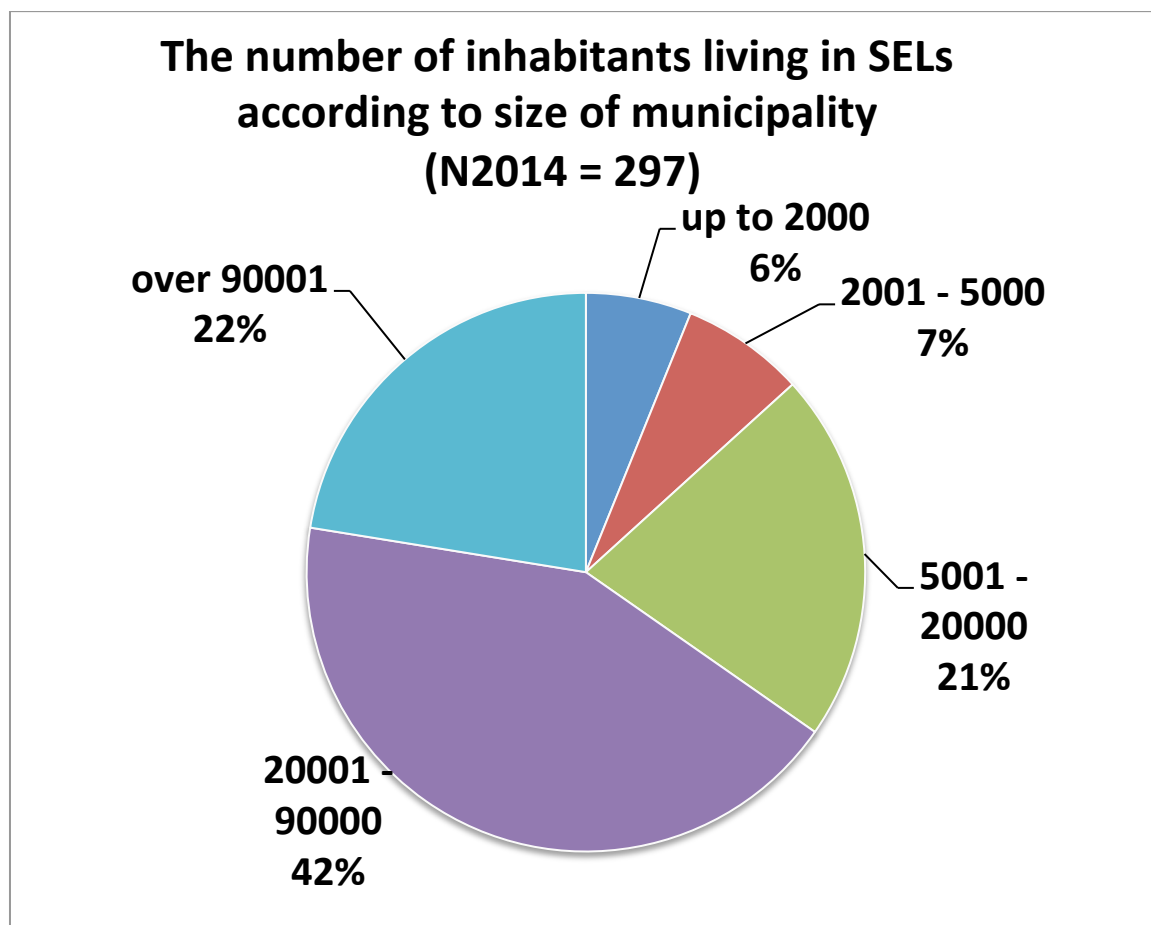


Graph 4.4 Municipalities with an SEL, according to population size



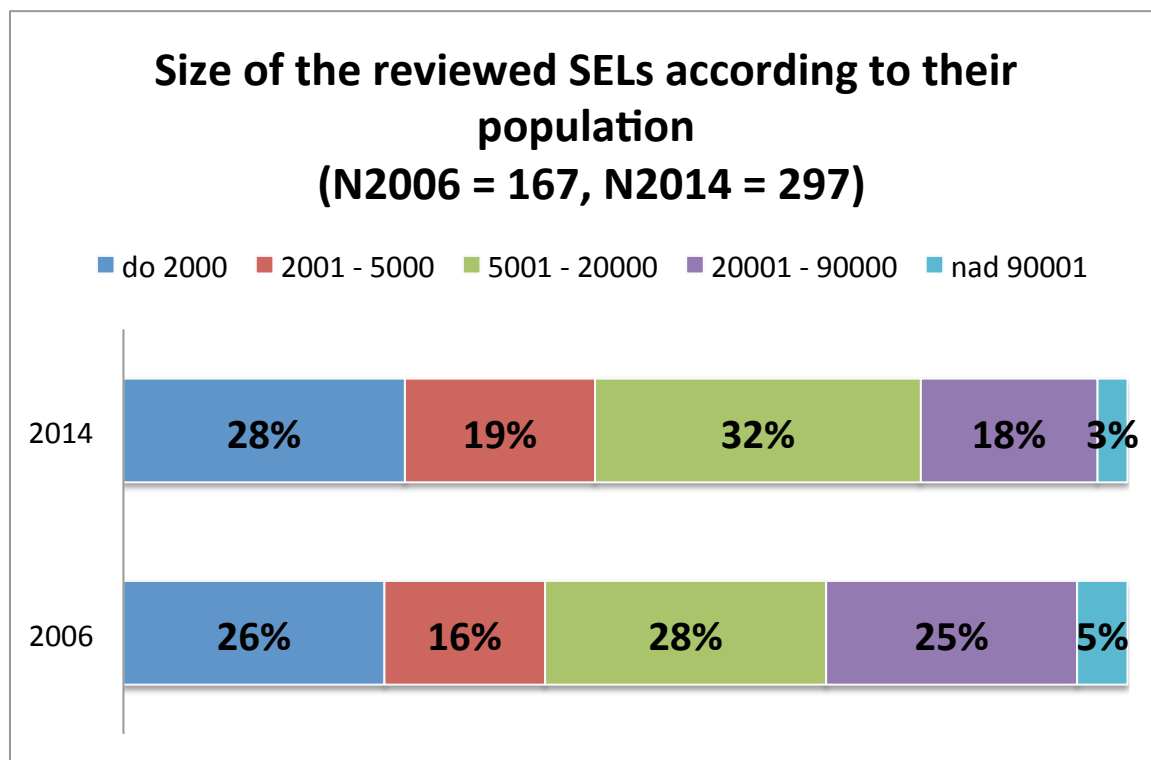
Although municipalities with a total population of less than 5,000 represent almost one-half of all municipalities with an SEL, their socially excluded inhabitants make up only 13% of the totality of SEL inhabitants. The majority of the inhabitants remains concentrated in cities with more than 20,001 inhabitants, although their concentration has decreased since 2006.

Graph 4.5 The number of inhabitants living in SELs according to size of municipality



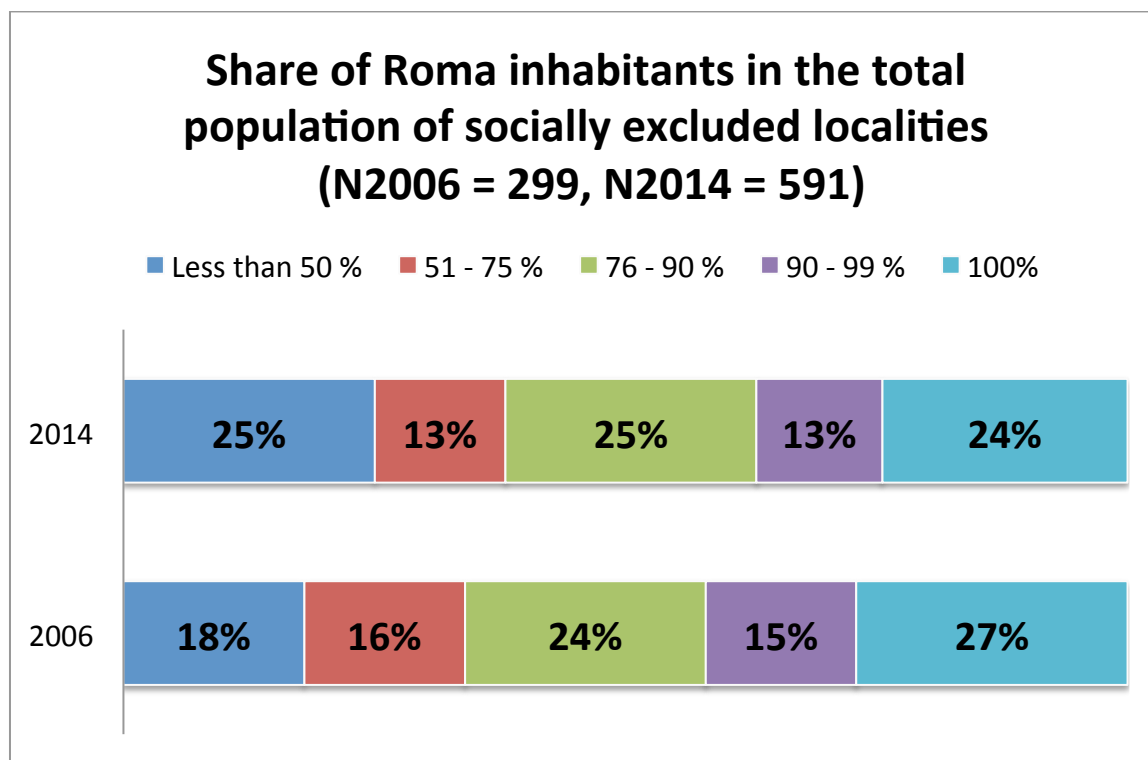
Compared to 2006, the structure of SELs in terms of their size has also changed. The following graph is a comparison of the proportions of different size categories of SELs according to the number of socially excluded inhabitants. The following graph suggests that compared to 2006, there has been a relative increase in the number of smaller localities with 25-50 inhabitants; at the same time, there are comparatively fewer larger localities with more than 300 inhabitants.

Graph 4.6 Size of the reviewed SELs according to their population



Compared to 2006, the degree of ethnical homogeneity inside the socially excluded localities has also changed. Although localities with a Roma majority are still predominant, there has been a rise in the localities with a sizeable non-Roma population living in the conditions of social exclusion. The localities have been categorized according to the estimated share of the Roma in the total population of the locality. Compared to 2006, the share of SELs with a non-Roma majority has increased. While in 2006 they made up 18%, in 2014 it was one quarter of all SELs.

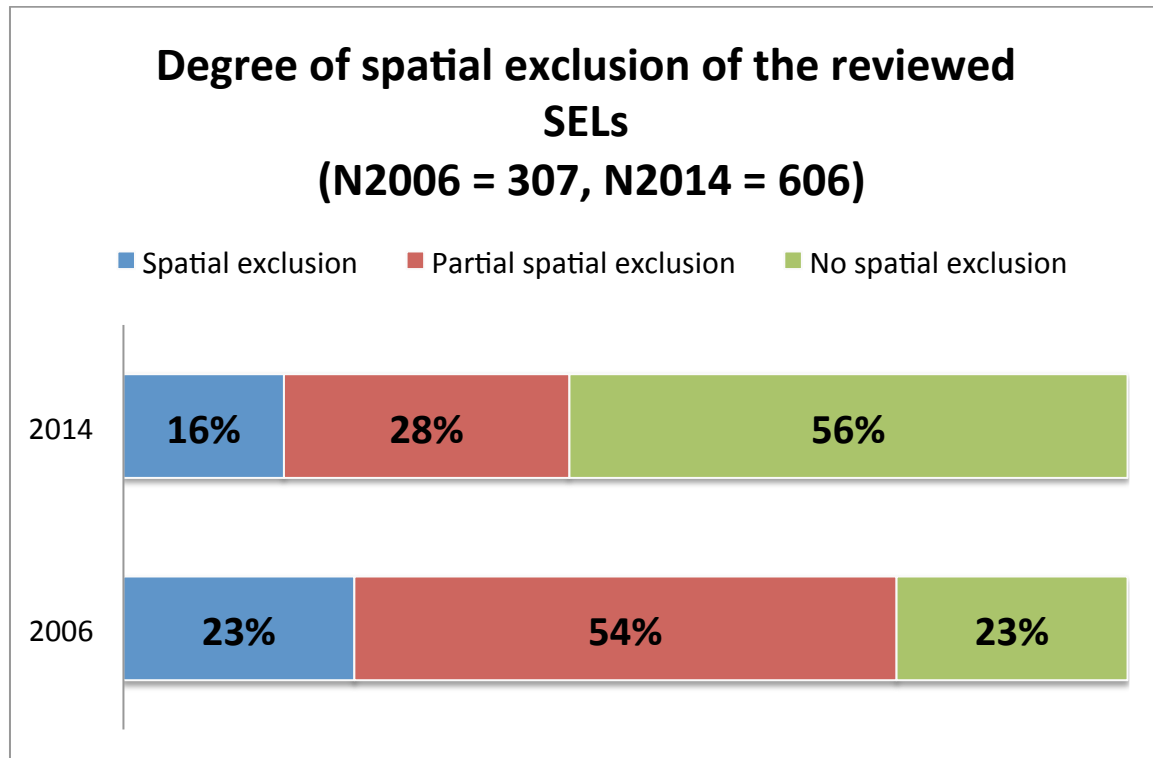
Graph 4.7 Share of Roma inhabitants in the total population of socially excluded localities



We have also seen a shift with respect to spatial exclusion. It is still the case that the prevalent share of socially excluded localities are not spatially excluded and are instead dominated by the characteristics of social, economic or symbolic exclusion. However, there has been an increase in the number of cases where the boundaries of socially excluded localities have been blurred and begin to blend into the surrounding society. Both the data and the experience of our researchers suggest that it is becoming increasingly more difficult to clearly define the borders of most of the socially excluded localities. Not only they are blending into their surroundings, but also the people living around them also fit some of the characteristics of the socially excluded environment. The areas of Šluknovsko, Jesenicko či Osoblažsko, which have overall been affected by structural problems, represent a case in point. In other, structurally better-equipped regions, they would as a whole fit some of the criteria of an SEL, given their specific parameters such as unemployment rate or the number of benefit recipients. This confirms the well-known fact that social exclusion is always context-relative – what can

be considered an SEL in some regions may be perceived as a normal settlement in others.

Graph 4.8 Degree of spatial exclusion of the reviewed SELs



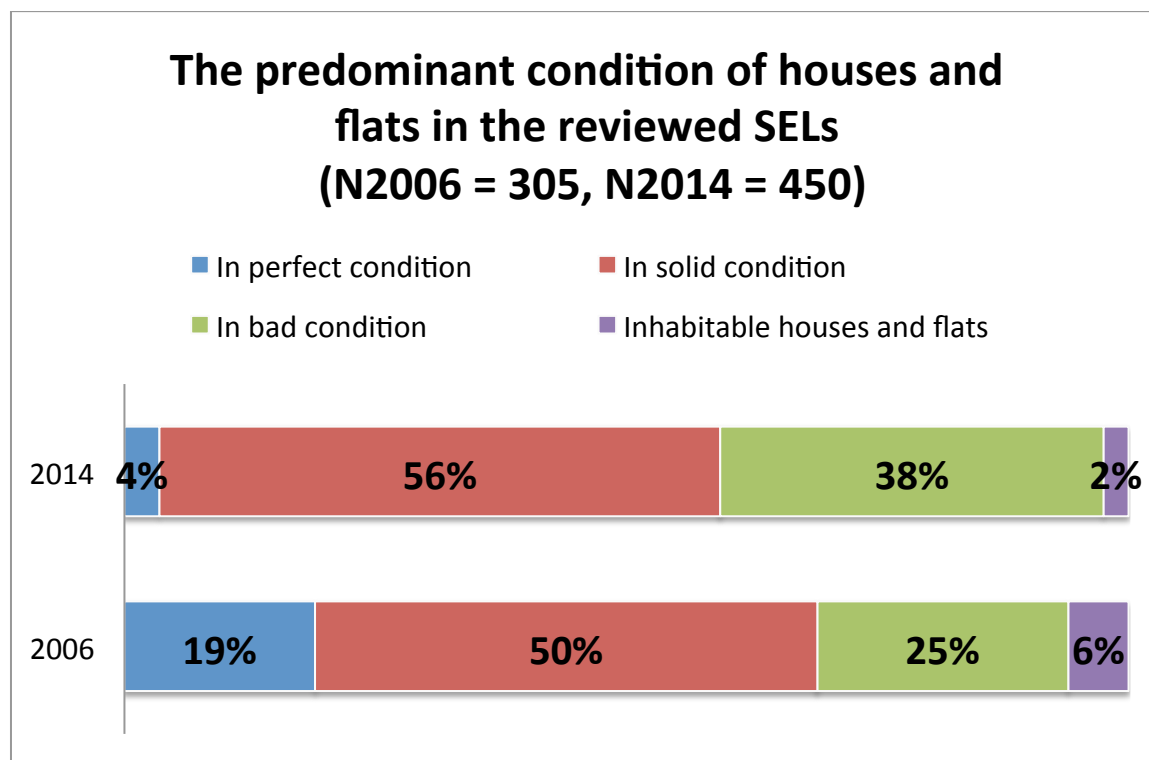
Based on the information from the field, in addition to dormitories there has also been a rise in **private rentals in substandard housing**. More often, the socially excluded move from council flats or dormitories to private renters, in most cases due to debt. The hypothesis of an increased migration within the micro-regions was also confirmed. In terms of **housing strategies**, we encounter a broad range of different situations. The problem cannot be reduced to the dormitory segment alone, although dormitories do represent a significant type of accommodation for the socially excluded. In many cases we find people migrating between private dormitories and other forms of private rentals.

It seems that compared to 2006 there has been a decline in the number of extreme cases. Only a minimal number of localities were described as places where houses and

flats are in perfect condition.³² Their share dropped from 16% in 2006 to the current 4%. This fact can be explained by, one, the growing trend of driving people from better properties towards those of poorer quality and, two, the aging of the buildings in socially excluded localities. At the same time, we have also seen a decrease in the localities where the majority of buildings are not habitable: from 6% in 2006 to the current 2.5%. However, in general we can argue that the conditions of houses and flats have in fact deteriorated. While in 2006 localities with a majority of flats in poor or inhabitable condition made up 31% of the total, eight years later their share has increased by 10%.

³² For the purposes of analysis, we have categorized the state of the buildings as follows: buildings in **perfect** condition may only have minor façade distortions and correspond to the surrounding housing developments without any problems; a **solid** condition means that the buildings may be in a worse state than the majority standard, but easily remain habitable; a building said to be in **bad condition** indicates inadequate situation which involves considerable lack of comfort, although the building still meets the minimum technical parameters for habitation; **inhabitable houses and flats** fail to meet even these minimal criteria.

Graph 4.9 The predominant condition of houses and flats in the reviewed SELs³³

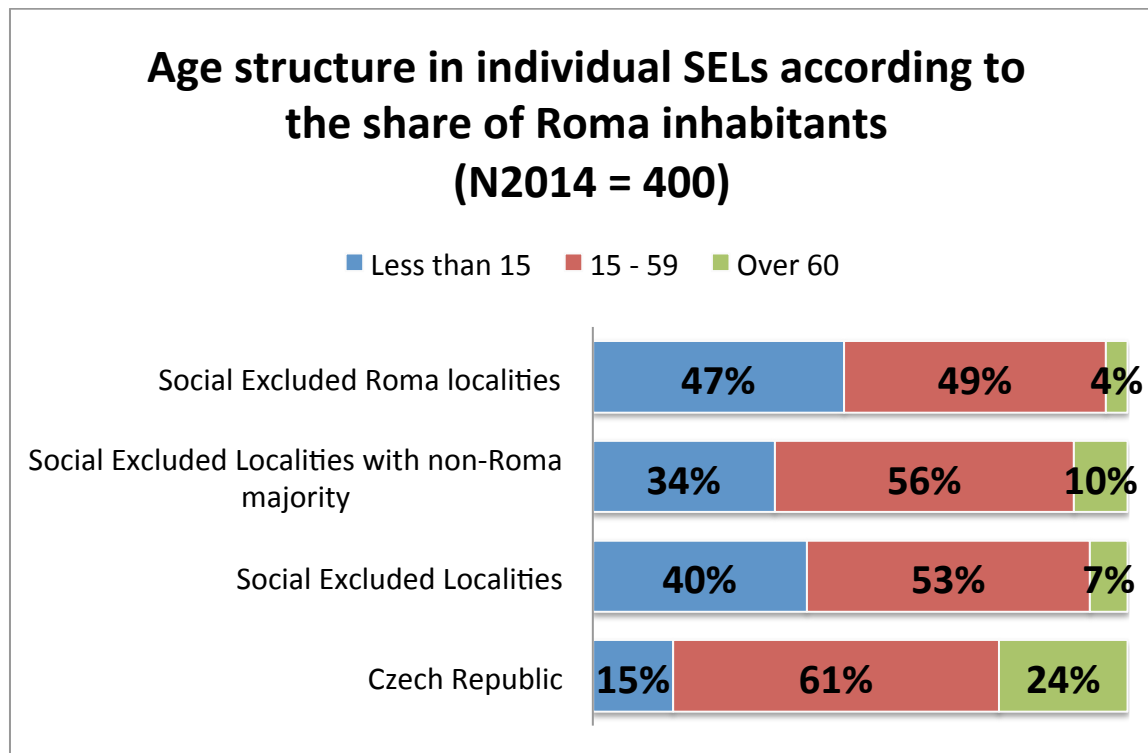


The 2006 map did not pay specific attention to age structure. The comparison of the trends in this area of the research is based on information provided by experts in the field. In terms of the **age structure** prevalent in the socially excluded localities, there has been an increase in the numbers of **elderly people**, although it is still the case that compared to their share in the majority population they make up a significantly smaller proportion. On the other hand, young people (under 15 years of age) represent a significantly higher percentage in the SELs under review. According to the information provided by local NNO experts, growing numbers of seniors are falling into poverty: these come from the majority environment and live outside the socially excluded localities. It is generally true that the larger the share of the Roma among the inhabitants of the locality, the higher the percentage of the young demographic, at the expense of the

³³ For 2014, we only calculated the share based on the SELs in the 205 municipalities that were part of the comprehensive field research. During the verification screening we did not examine the information about houses and flats in detail, which is why the municipalities reviewed in this stage of the project were not taken into account. However, the municipalities reviewed as part of the field work were chosen so as to provide a representative overview for all the SELs in the Czech Republic.

productive and post-productive demographics.³⁴ The average age structure in an SEL as a whole -- for SELs with and without a Roma majority -- is shown in the graph below.

Graph 4.10 Age structure in individual SELs according to the share of Roma inhabitants



The age structure of the non-Roma population in socially excluded localities is significantly different from the structure of the Roma population. Many of those from the majority population living in SELs are pensioners. This is firstly because they often live on the brink of poverty, depending on the relatively low income from their pensions; secondly, they are less horizontally mobile. For people over 60 years of age it is significantly more difficult to change their place residence because of a strong attachment to their current home and, at the same time, a weaker web of attachments to places and people outside their home locality. A specific group of SEL inhabitants over 60 years of age are dormitory residents, who have fallen to the lowest strata of the

³⁴ Pearson's correlation coefficient between the proportion of the Roma inhabitants in a locality and the proportion of persons under 15 years of age is 0.267. The same coefficient between the proportion of the Roma inhabitants in a locality and the proportion of working-age population is negative: - 0.163 (thus indicating indirect proportionality). The same coefficient between the proportion of the Roma inhabitants in a locality and the proportion of people in post-productive age (over 60 years) is also negative- 0.231 (hence also indicating indirect proportionality).

society once they ceased to be economically active and failed to grasp onto any of the security nets provided by state policies.

In addition to the SELs described, the research also identified areas with less than 20 socially excluded people living in a certain locality. These places were not included in the list of the municipalities with SELs because they did not meet our definition of an SEL.

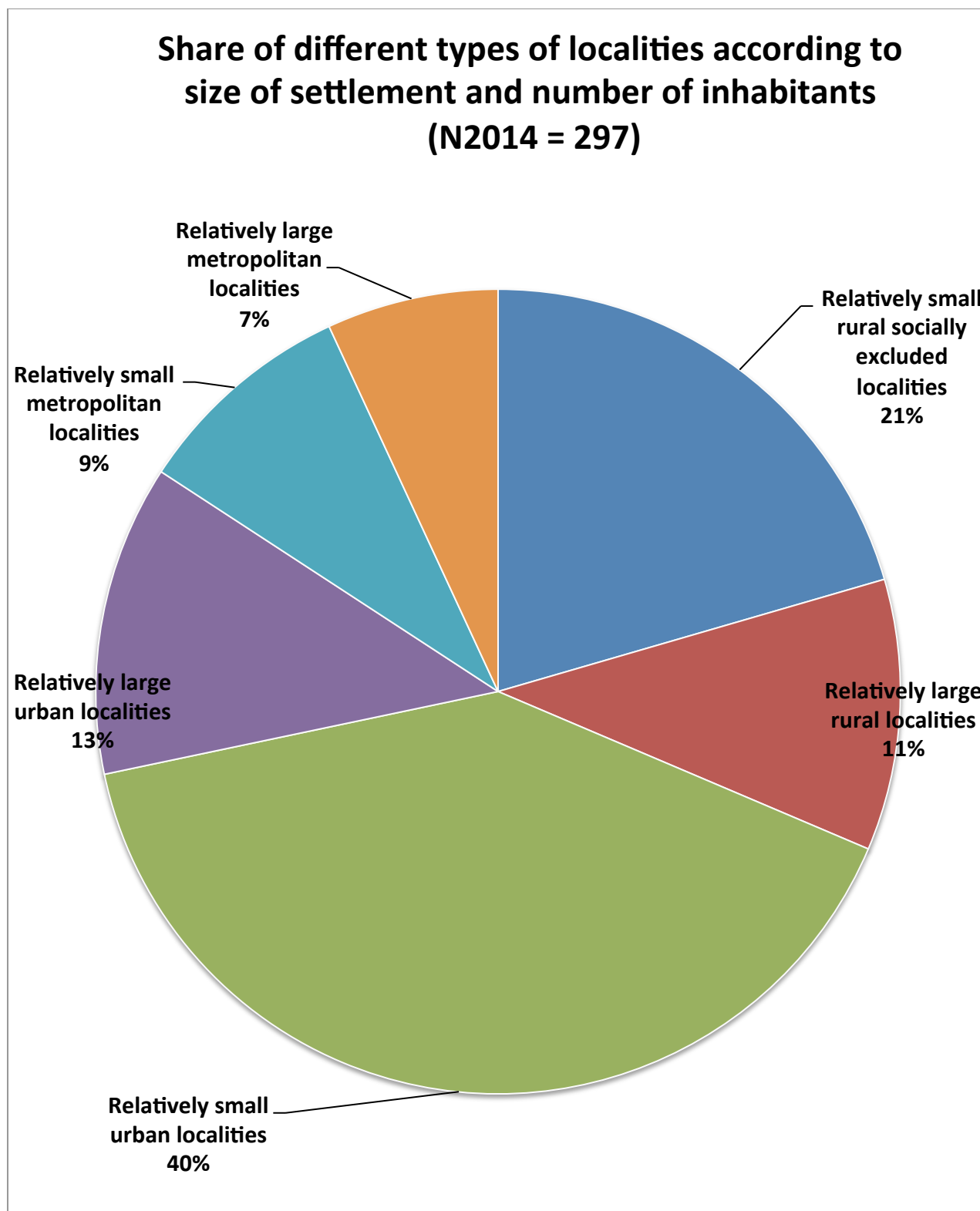
The total number of municipalities in which such places can be found is 35.

Typologically we could divide these “micro-localities” into: (1) family homes inhabited by a single family (part of the regular built-up area in a municipality, but also families living in former railway guardhouses and so on); (2) small dormitories with up to 20 beds or in several cases dormitories used by workers or seasonal workers, where the socially excluded represent a minority; (3) non-standard housing (garden houses, former agricultural compounds, improvised shelters). **For these localities it is generally true that they are more “visible” in the context of small towns and villages** and that is perhaps why the given municipality had been put on the original list of municipalities to be verified, while in a larger town a similar “micro-locality” would not draw much attention and would not have been identified as “problematic”. However, the “problematic” dimension was frequently the criterion used by respondents (most often local representatives) to assess whether to define the inhabitants of a given locality as socially excluded. The “micro-localities” would therefore mostly satisfy this (actors’) definition, but they did not qualify according to the definition used by the research itself, which is another reason why they were excluded from further analysis. However, we should note that, in general, each of these “micro-localities” is home to around one or two families.

In line with the 2006 map, we can distinguish between several **basic types of socially excluded localities**: (1) a relatively small rural socially excluded locality - a locality with up to 50 inhabitants in a municipality of up to 5,000 inhabitants; (2) a relatively large rural locality – a locality of more than 50 people in a municipality of up to 5,000 inhabitants; (3) a relatively small urban locality – a locality of up to 100 inhabitants in a town of 5,001-50,000 inhabitants; (4) a relatively large urban locality – a locality of more than 100 inhabitants in a town of 5,001-50,000 inhabitants; (5) a relatively small metropolitan locality – a locality of up to 150 inhabitants in a city of more than 50,001 inhabitants; (6) a relatively large metropolitan locality - a locality of more than 150 inhabitants in a city of more than 50,001 inhabitants. This typology is shown in the

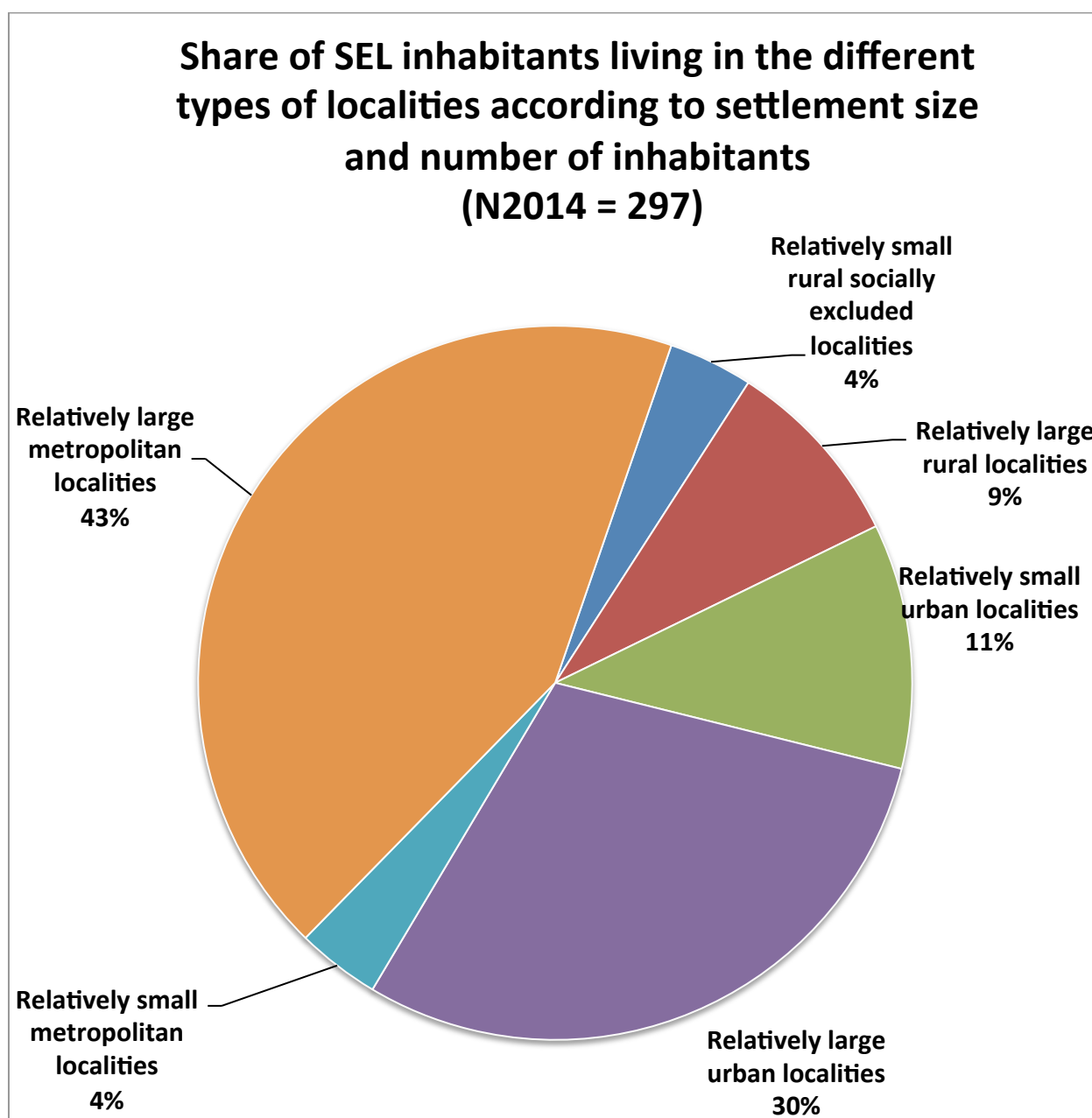
graph below. Two-fifths of the total number of localities are relatively small urban localities; one-fifth are newly emerged rural localities.

Graph 4.11 Share of different types of localities according to size of settlement and number of inhabitants



However, it cannot be argued that the localities with the highest total populations would also have the highest numbers of socially excluded persons. Almost one-half of the total number of the socially excluded continue to live in smaller or larger metropolitan localities, i.e. in localities situated in cities of more than 50,000 inhabitants. The structure according to the share of the different types of localities in the overall number of inhabitants is shown in the graph below.

Graph 4.12 Share of SEL inhabitants living in the different types of localities according to settlement size and number of inhabitants



Diving the localities by size is not solely a theoretical concern because the different types of localities face different problems and challenges from the perspective of integration policies. In the case of **small rural localities**, there is a higher probability that the buildings in the locality are in a poorer physical condition. In many cases, such a locality consists of a single smaller building or a block of flats. Local schools do not use as many inclusion tools and the service provision for people living in or at risk of social exclusion is more limited. A number of these localities have only emerged since 2006. They are relatively more frequent in the Jihočeský region (making up 38% of the localities in this region), Plzeňský region (34% of the localities), Olomoucký region (30%) and Královéhradecký region (30%).

In **larger rural localities** it is also common for buildings in the locality to be in a relatively more deteriorated condition. These are most often groups of houses. Often these localities have existed over long periods of time and compared to the previous type have a higher share of Roma. However, the service provision is usually similar to the previous type. In both cases the phenomenon of dormitories is less frequent than in the following two categories. We find it only in about 20% of municipalities with and SEL. They are relatively more frequent in Karlovarský region (30% of localities in this region).

In **both types of urban localities** we encounter the phenomenon of dormitories, although to a relatively smaller degree than in the metropolitan localities. Issues of delinquency are more common here than in the rural localities. Access to services and inclusion programmes in schools is highly variable and depends on the policies implemented by the given municipality and on the local presence of NNOs.

Smaller urban localities usually consist of individual blocks of flats; in the case of larger localities these are more often made up of a group of houses, a street or several streets. Dormitories can be found in roughly 70% of cities. Smaller urban locations are more frequent in the regions Zlínský (64% of the localities in the region), Jihomoravský (57% of the localities in the region), Pardubický (54% of the localities in the region), Liberecký (50% of the localities in the region) and Vysočina (45% of the localities in the region). Large urban localities are more common in the Ústecký region, where they represent 23% of SELs, and in the Zlínský region, where they make up 22%.

The relatively small metropolitan localities are mostly composed of buildings in a relatively better physical condition. The municipalities in which they are located usually have multiple active NNOs working with the socially excluded. Overall, this is the least common group of localities.

Large metropolitan localities are usually composed of a closed block of houses, a part of a street, neighbourhood or estate. Problems with delinquency and substance abuse are relatively common here. In the case of metropolitan localities, dormitories are present in approximately 85% of cases. Large metropolitan localities are most common in the regions Moravskoslezský (17% of localities in this region) and Ústecký (16%), where they are home to most of the local socially excluded.

4.2. Territorial distribution of phenomena linked to social exclusion

The purpose of **mapping the recipients of the “Assistance in material need”** was to capture the population segment forced to live on insufficient income and its territorial distribution. Because it is very difficult to obtain data on individual or household incomes from commonly available statistical information, the data on the recipients of precisely this type of assistance seemed a suitable option.³⁵ Due to the low levels of the phenomena observed we chose to monitor this indicator by using multi-year averages. As the current time period we choose the years 2010-2011, the previous period was set to be 2007-2009. We also elaborated a developmental map, which shows the change in the values of this indicator between the two chosen time periods. The data was adjusted in order to facilitate their geographical comparison. For this purpose, we selected two indicators of the territorial intensity and relative concentration of the phenomenon: the share of households receiving living allowance³⁶ and a localisation quotient (see the Methodology section).³⁷

³⁵ The maps showing the spatial differentiation of households receiving living allowance were processed based on a dataset provided by the Czech Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. The dataset contained data about the number of benefits paid out in the municipalities between 2007-2011 and then in the year 2014. Unfortunately, the data for 2012 and 2013 were not available throughout the duration of the project.

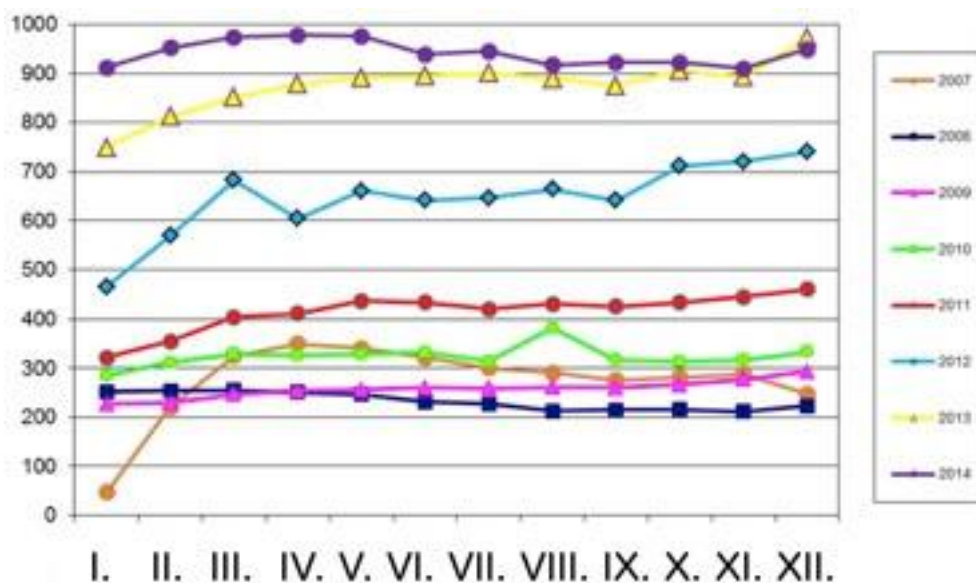
³⁶ The values of this indicator were calculated using the following formula: $i = x/y$; where i = indicator (the share of households receiving living allowance); x = the total sum of living allowances paid out during the average month in 2007-2009 (or 2010-2011); y = the total sum of housekeeping households in 2007-2009 (or 2010-

The reception of welfare benefits is regulated by the Act No. 111/2006 Coll., on Assistance in Material Need, as amended, as well as other regulation, especially Act No. 110/2006 Coll., on the Minimum Subsistence Level and Living Wage, as amended, and the Regulation No. 389/2011 Coll., on the implementation of certain provisions of the Act on Assistance in Material Need. The current legislation is based on the principle that each person who is in work must enjoy better living conditions than one who is not working or possibly avoiding work. The development of the payments for all types of assistance in material need is shown in the graph in Figure 4.13. Detailed data was only available for the years 2007-2011 and then for the year 2014. The graph shows a clear increase in expenditure between the initial period and the year 2014, when the values reached by the payments made during the different months were nearly four-fold.

2011). Given that the number of households is only determined by the Czech Statistical Office during the of population and housing, the numbers of recipient households for 2007-2010 cannot be related to an exact number of households in the municipalities. Data was therefore related to an adjusted number of households, which was calculated based on the number of inhabitants per given year and an average household size for 2011.

³⁷ In terms of cartographic processing, we chose the cartogram method, which allows us to show the intensity of a given phenomenon and its differentiation within the monitored area. The map also shows the values of both of the indicators monitored, i.e. the share of households receiving living allowance in a given municipality, as well as its relation to the national average – the localisation quotient. This is shown using the key to the map, its colour scale and frequency histogram.

Figure 4.13: Expenditure paid out as Assistance in material need, 2007-2014³⁸



4.2.1 Living allowance

The maps showing the spatial differentiation of the households receiving living allowance were elaborated using a dataset provided by the Czech Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.³⁹ The dataset contained information about the number of benefits paid out in a given municipality in the years 2007-2011 and then also in the year 2014. Unfortunately, the data for 2012 and 2013 was not available for analysis. Given the low

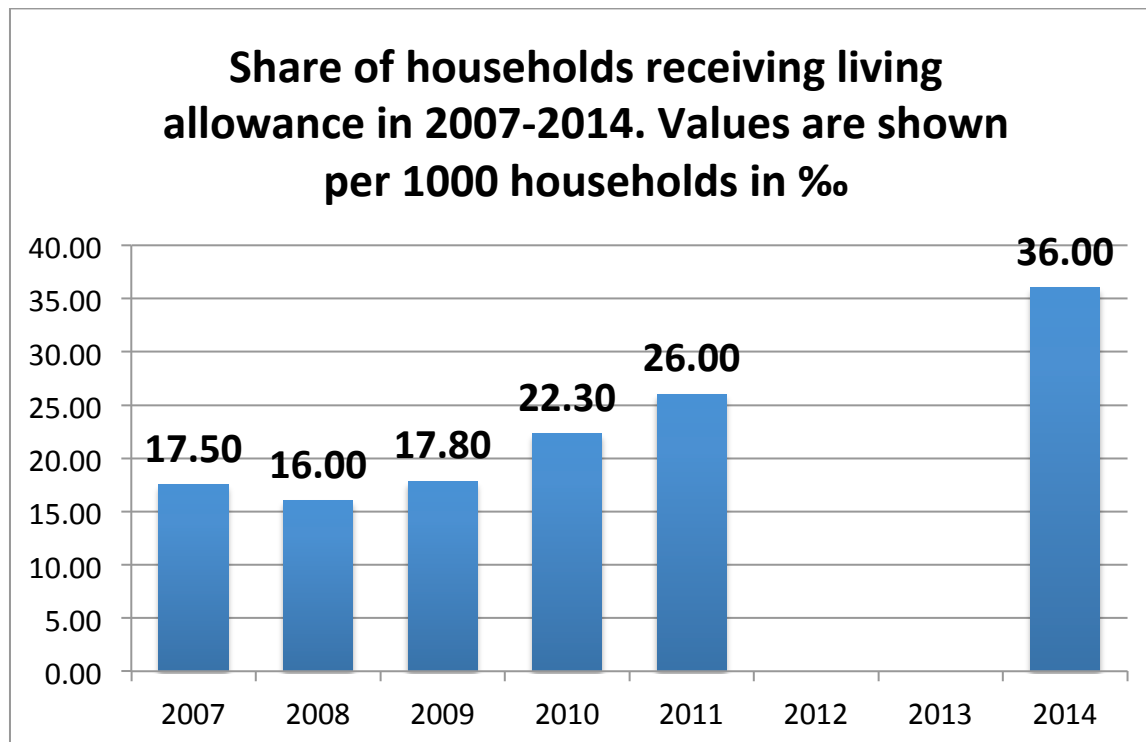
³⁸ Originally published in *Information on benefits paid under the authority of the MLSA in December 2014* [“Informace o vyplacených dávkách v resortu MPSV ČR v prosinci 2014”], page 7.

³⁹ The living allowance is one of the measures used by the Czech Republic to fight against social exclusion. It is a basic form of assistance in material need, which addresses the insufficient income of an individual or a family. The rules on what constitutes a family or jointly assessed persons are set out by the Act No. 110/2006 Coll., on the Minimum Subsistence Level and Living Wage, as amended. An individual or a family are entitled to living allowance if, once the justified costs of housing have been paid, their income does not reach the amount of living. The amount of living is determined on a case-by-case basis, based on a person’s efforts and opportunities. The amount of living for families is determined by the sum of the amounts of living of each family member. The amount of living is derived from the existence minimum and the subsistence minimum. The amount of living allowance is set as the difference between the amount of living of a person or family and the income of that person or family, less reasonable housing costs. (Reasonable housing costs are the cost of housing to a maximum of 30%, in Prague 35%, of the income of the person or family). See the Ministry of Labour website: <http://www.mpsv.cz/en/1608>, accessed on 2 June 2015.

levels of the phenomenon, we monitored each indicator using multi-year averages. The first period was set as 2007-2009, the second period was created for the years 2009-2011 and the year 2014 was shown separately. We also elaborated two alternative developmental maps, which show the change in the value of the indicator between the years 2007-2014 and 2011-2014. The data was then adjusted to allow for their territorial comparison. For these purposes, we used two indicators showing the territorial intensity and relative concentration of the phenomena reviewed: **the proportion of households receiving living allowance⁴⁰ and a localisation quotient. To a large extent, the general trend in the number of households receiving living allowance corresponds to the development of the Czech and European economies.** While during the economic conjuncture, the values of the percentage of recipient households were between 15‰ and 17‰ and between the years 2007-2008 there was a decline in the values of this indicator, in the subsequent years the share of households grew at a relatively fast pace, eventually reaching 24‰. In 2014, the share of these households was already 36‰.

⁴⁰ The values of the indicator were calculated using the following formula: $i = x/y$; where: i = indicator (the share of households receiving living allowance); x = the total sum of living allowance payments made during an average month; y = the total sum of housekeeping households. Given that the number of households is only determined by the Czech Statistical Office during the Census of population and housing, the numbers of recipient households for 2007-2010 and for the year 2014 cannot be related to an exact number of households in the municipalities in those years. Data was therefore related to an adjusted number of households, which was calculated based on the number of inhabitants per given year and an average household size for 2011. In addition, the census data is usually based on habitual residence, while the Ministry of Labour determines its benefit payments based on permanent residence.

Figure 4.14: Share of households receiving living allowance in 2007-2014. Values are shown per 1000 households in ‰⁴¹



The municipalities with a very high proportion of households receiving living allowance (Table 4.15) are primarily located in northern Moravia and northern Bohemia. However, the maps produced also show additional areas with a high concentrations of socially vulnerable households in other parts of the Czech Republic, especially in peripheral areas. One of the largest changes between the two periods has been the positive development in a number of spatially concentrated areas in the Ústecký and Karlovarský region and in the Jesenicko area. On the other hand, the situation has deteriorated in the so-called inner peripheries, i.e. especially around the administrative boundaries of regions, where municipalities are unfavourably located with respect to administrative centres, job opportunities and various facilities.⁴² The chosen indicator therefore shows us clearly which areas of the Czech Republic should

⁴¹ The years 2012 and 2013 were not available.

⁴² Musil, J. & Müller, J. (2008): Vnitřní periferie v České republice jako mechanismus sociální exkluze. *Sociologický časopis* 44, č. 2, s. 321-348; Novák, J. & Netrdová, P. (2011): Prostorové vzorce sociálně-ekonomické diferenciacie obcí v České republice. *Sociologický časopis* 47, č. 4, s. 717-744.

receive more attention when analysing social exclusion. Rural areas are of course not highly populated, but social exclusion is to a large extent exacerbated by geographical exclusion.⁴³ Only two larger cities (former district capitals) are included in the table: Litvínov and Tachov. **While in the case of small municipalities (up to 1,000 inhabitants), large proportions can be influenced by a small number of inhabitants with low rates of the phenomena observed, in the case of large municipalities or cities this is indeed a severe indication of a large number of socially vulnerable households.**

Table 4.15 Municipalities with the highest proportions of households receiving living allowance in 2010-2011. These are municipalities with a value of the localisation quotient higher than 5.

Name of municipality	Name of MEC	Share of households receiving benefit	Lq
Slezské Pavlovice (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.257	11,494
Rokle (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.234	10,447
Olbramov (dist. Tachov)	Stříbro	0.217	9,702
Spomyšl (dist. Mělník)	Mělník	0.209	9,352
Hlinka (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.202	9,045
Měrovice nad Hanou (dist. Přerov)	Přerov	0.183	8,182
Pohorská Ves (dist. Český Krumlov)	Kaplice	0.173	7,713
Ošelín (dist. Tachov)	Stříbro	0.158	7,080
Slezské Rudoltice (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.156	6,981
Lančov (dist. Znojmo)	Znojmo	0.153	6,833
Osoblaha (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.149	6,664
Býkev (dist. Mělník)	Mělník	0.148	6,620
Cotkytle (dist. Ústí nad Orlicí)	Lanškroun	0.148	6,616
Čermná ve Slezsku (dist. Opava)	Vítkov	0.141	6,319
Čichalov (dist. Karlovy Vary)	Karlovy Vary	0.141	6,319
Stará Voda (dist. Hradec	Hradec Králové	0.141	6,316

⁴³ Macešková, M., Ouředníček, M. & Temelová, J. (2009): Sociálně prostorová diferenciacie v České republice: implikace pro veřejnou (regionální) politiku. *Ekonomický časopis*, 57, č. 7, s. 700-715.

Name of municipality	Name of MEC	Share of households receiving benefit	Lq
Králové)			
Jířikov (dist. Bruntál)	Rýmařov	0.136	6,081
Pětipsy (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.136	6,058
Bohušov (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.134	5,968
Obrnice (dist. Most)	Most	0.130	5,833
Tachov (dist. Česká Lípa)	Česká Lípa	0.129	5,778
Vřesová (dist. Sokolov)	Sokolov	0.129	5,761
Kojatice (dist. Třebíč)	Moravské Budějovice	0.128	5,709
Dívčí Hrad (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.126	5,643
Zhoř (dist. Tachov)	Stříbro	0.125	5,595
Smilovice (dist. Rakovník)	Rakovník	0.122	5,447
Litvínov (dist. Most)	Litvínov	0.122	5,444
Trmice (dist. Ústí nad Labem)	Ústí nad Labem	0.119	5,323
Dlažov (dist. Klatovy)	Klatovy	0.119	5,322
Vrbice (dist. Karlovy Vary)	Karlovy Vary	0.119	5,313
Kryštofovy Hamry (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.116	5,172
Velké Kunětice (dist. Jeseník)	Jeseník	0.115	5,162
Bulovka (dist. Liberec)	Frydlant	0.115	5,154
Medonosy (dist. Mělník)	Mělník	0.112	5,026

The following table (Table 4.16) shows the administrative areas of municipalities with extended competence (MEC) that include the largest number of municipalities with a value of the localisation quotient higher than 2, i.e. municipalities where the share of households receiving living allowance is more than twice the average value.

Table 4.16 MEC by proportion of municipalities with Lq higher than 2 (2010-2011)

Name of MEC	Total of municipalities in MEC	Number of municipalities with Lq higher than 2	Share of municipalities with Lq higher than 2 [%]
Frydlant	18	17	94.4
Rumburk	12	9	75.0
Krnov	25	17	68.0
Litvínov	11	7	63.6
Vítkov	12	7	58.3
Kadaň	19	10	52.6
Bohumín	2	1	50.0

The next table (Table 4.17) then shows the highest proportion of households living in municipalities with a value of the localisation quotient higher than 2. The second table is more sensitive as to the possible bias caused by the size structure of the municipalities. Here, too, we must nevertheless keep in mind the possible bias caused by the size structure of the administrative areas of municipalities with extended competence. In both presentations we can see the very strong concentration of problematic phenomena in the regions of northern Bohemia and northern Moravia. At the present time, the differentiation of the socially vulnerable populations has therefore taken on a relatively strong spatial pattern.

Table 4.17: MECs by municipalities with the highest share of households receiving Living allowance (2010-2011)

Name of MEC	Total number of households in MEC	Number of households in municipalities with Lq over 2	Share of households in municipalities iwth Lq over 2 [%]
Frýdlant	9,766	9,572	98.0
Litvínov	17,745	17,227	97.1
Český Těšín	10,916	10,491	96.1
Most	33,971	32,276	95.0
Ostrava	146,364	134,800	92.1
Rumburk	13,260	12,097	91.2
Havířov	41,551	37,713	90.8

The following table (Table 4.18) shows the administrative areas of MECs with the highest shares of households receiving living allowance in 2014, again using the localisation quotient. There were a total of 19 MEC areas, mostly in northern Moravia and north-western Bohemia, where the share was almost double the Czech average.

Table 4.18 MECs with the highest Lq, proportion of households receiving Living allowance in 2014

MEC	Households in 2011	LQ 2014
Litvínov	16,311	2.9
Karviná	27,946	2.8
Most	31,879	2.7
Bruntál	14,519	2.7
Krnov	15,642	2.6
Ústí nad Labem	48,795	2.5

MEC	Households in 2011	LQ_2014
Kraslice	5,361	2.4
Jeseník	14,769	2.4
Vítkov	4,983	2.4
Rumburk	12,060	2.3
Ostrava	138,630	2.2
Kadaň	17,337	2.2
Chomutov	33,011	2.2
Rýmařov	6,306	2.2
Orlová	16,810	2.1
Frýdlant	8,997	2.0
Bohumín	11,826	2.0
Havířov	38,381	2.0
Bílina	8,424	2.0

Table 4.19 MECs with the highest share of households with the value of Lq over 2 per indicator of the share of households receiving living allowance in 2014

MEC	Number of flat households (MEC in total)	Proportion of households (Lq in the municipality >2) in %
Litvínov	16,311	96
Most	31,879	95
Ostrava	138,630	92
Havířov	38,381	91
Kadaň	17,337	91
Orlová	16,810	89
Chomutov	33,011	89
Karviná	27,946	87
Bruntál	14,519	87
Krnov	15,642	84
Ústí nad Labem	48,795	83
Bílina	8,424	83
Rýmařov	6,306	82

The last set of tables compare MEC areas with the most significant rises and drops in the values of the localisation quotient between the average values for 2007-2009 and 2010-2014. We have seen a positive change here, in that the greatest decreases in the values of the indicator were recorded precisely in areas where the proportions had initially been the highest. In the case of the fifteen MECs with the greatest decline in the observed characteristics, these were all areas located in the nineteen places where the situation had been the most severe in 2007-2009. In terms of their ranking (table 4.19), there were no major changes during this period; however, in the case of five MEC areas

there has been a significant relative decline in the values of Lq – i.e. the multiple of the national average.

The situation is different in the cases of an increase in the Lq, which have been most apparent in MEC areas that had previously (in 2007-2008) been situated at the centres of several administrative areas. Among these areas with high initial values we should especially mention MEC Krnov, which moved to the 8th position. Other MEC areas are located in very different parts of the Czech Republic. However, we should note that except for the first places in Table 4.20, the changes in the number of households receiving living allowance have been relatively small. The cases in which the Lq indicator has declined are much more significant.

Table 4.20: MEC with the sharpest decline in the value of LQ between the periods 2007-2009 and 2010-2014

MEC	LQ 07_09	LQ 10_14	LQ Rank 07_09	LQ Rank 10_14	Difference
Litvínov	7.3	4.0	1	1	-3.4
Český Těšín	3.5	2.1	4	16	-1.4
Varnsdorf	2.9	1.8	11	24	-1.1
Bílina	3.3	2.2	7	13	-1.0
Most	3.6	2.6	3	6	-1.0
Vítkov	3.3	2.6	6	9	-0.7
Svitavy	2.3	1.6	19	34	-0.7
Karviná	3.7	3.0	2	2	-0.6
Rumburk	3.3	2.7	5	4	-0.6
Orlová	2.7	2.1	12	17	-0.6
Bohumín	2.6	2.1	13	20	-0.6
Jeseník	2.5	2.1	16	19	-0.4
Ostrava	2.6	2.2	15	15	-0.4
Chomutov	3.0	2.6	8	7	-0.4
Havířov	2.3	2.0	17	21	-0.4

Table 4.21: MEC with the sharpest increase in the value of LQ between the periods 2007-2009 and 2010-2014

MEC	LQ 07_09	LQ 10_14	LQ Rank 07_09	LQ Rank 10_14	Difference
Šternberk	0.9	1.5	96	36	0.7
Jaroměř	0.7	1.2	125	56	0.6
Neratovice	0.9	1.4	79	45	0.5
Olomouc	0.6	1.0	133	74	0.5
Prostějov	0.9	1.3	85	54	0.4
Český Brod	0.3	0.7	187	135	0.4

Podbořany	1.2	1.5	55	39	0.3
Krnov	2.3	2.6	20	8	0.3
Kolín	0.6	0.9	135	93	0.3
Nový Bor	1.2	1.5	53	38	0.3
Nový Bydžov	0.2	0.5	201	161	0.3
Zábřeh	1.1	1.5	62	43	0.3
Rakovník	0.6	0.9	137	95	0.3
Česká Lípa	0.8	1.1	102	67	0.3
Lanškroun	0.8	1.1	106	68	0.3

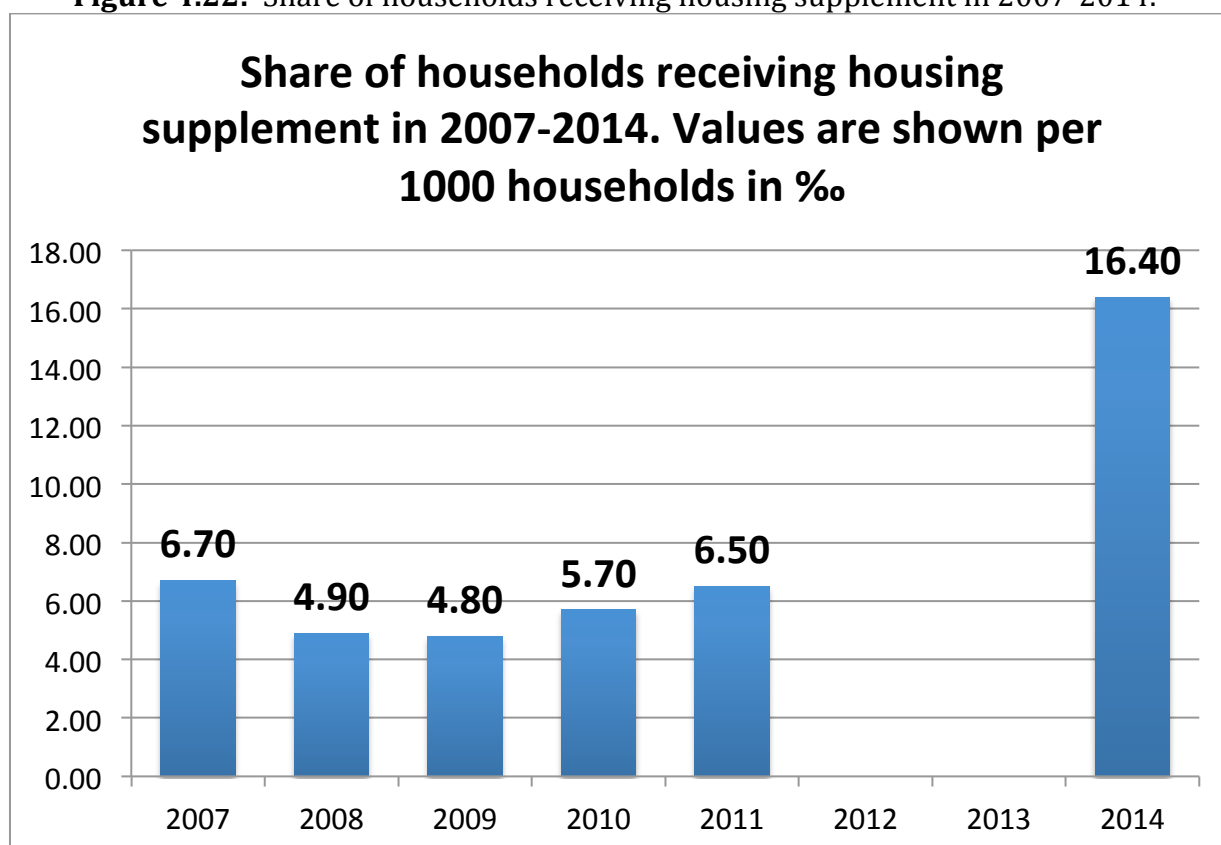
4.2.2. Housing supplement

To process the housing supplement indicator we used the same methodology as in the case of housing allowance [living allowance????].⁴⁴ For a description of the construction of the selected indicators, please see Chapter 2.1 *Living allowance*. Again, we calculated indicators per three developmental periods, as well as the change between the years 2007-2014 and 2011-2014. The results are presented in the form of maps and databases per municipalities and MECs.

⁴⁴ The Housing supplement is a form of assistance in material need which helps to cover justified housing costs in combination with the person's own income and the housing allowance received as part of the system of state social support. The amount of the housing supplement is determined in such a way that on the payment of justified housing costs (such as rent, housing services and energy costs), the person or family are left with a sufficient amount of living. The housing supplement is provided to flat owners or tenants who are using the flat and whose income (individual or joint), once the justified housing costs have been paid, is lower than the amount of living of the individual or the individuals assessed together. The rules for the joint assessment of persons for the purposes of the housing supplement are the same as in the case of the housing allowance, which is part of the state social security system. The condition of eligibility is receiving subsistence allowance. In certain cases (depending on the person's overall social and material situation), a housing supplement can be provided even to people not eligible for subsistence allowance because their individual or family income has exceeded their amount of living, but has not exceeded this amount 1.3-fold. In particular cases, the entity providing assistance in material need may decide that the tenant for the purposes of the housing supplement may also be a person using a different form of accommodation than a rental accommodation. The amount of the housing supplement is calculated by taking the amount of justified costs for the current calendar month (minus the housing allowance for the previous calendar month) and subtracting the difference between the income of the person/family (including the subsistence allowance paid) and their the amount of living (for more details see the website of the Ministry of Labour: <http://www.mpsv.cz/en/1608>, accessed on 2nd June 2015).

Similarly to living allowance, the changes in the proportion of Czech households receiving the housing supplement are interlinked with the trends of the Czech and European economies. Contrary to the previous indicator, the graph in Figure 4.22 shows that the share of households receiving housing supplement continued to decline until 2009, only to subsequently rise in both 2010 and 2011. **There is a strong increase in the number of recipient households (up to 16 per thousand) apparent in 2014, the last monitored year.**

Figure 4.22: Share of households receiving housing supplement in 2007-2014.



Again, we can assess the spatial differentiation of this indicator using tables for individual municipalities and higher territorial units. Table 4.23 shows the municipalities with the highest shares of households receiving housing supplement. When compared to Table 4.15, we see the clear interdependence of the two monitored indicators (which also derives from the methodological construction of the benefits and the population of eligible recipients). In addition to Litvínov, the table of the highest concentrations of the phenomenon also includes another large city, Karviná (60,000 inhabitants), where the number of households is significant not only in relative, but also in absolute terms.

Table 4.23: Municipalities with the highest shares of households receiving housing supplement in 2010-2011. These municipalities have a localisation quotient of more than 5.

Name of municipality (district)	Name of MEC	Share of recipient households	Lq
Slezské Pavlovice (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.077	13.647
Rokle (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.075	13.222
Vřesová (dist. Sokolov)	Sokolov	0.073	12.830
Štětí (dist. Litoměřice)	Litoměřice	0.056	9.913
Jíříkov (dist. Bruntál)	Rýmařov	0.056	9.811
Moldava (dist. Teplice)	Teplice	0.054	9.459
Dlažov (dist. Klatovy)	Klatovy	0.052	9.121
Osoblaha (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.048	8.418
Obrnice (dist. Most)	Most	0.047	8.280
Medonosy (dist. Mělník)	Mělník	0.043	7.648
Trmice (dist. Ústí nad Labem)	Ústí nad Labem	0.040	7.087
Malínky (dist. Vyškov)	Bučovice	0.039	6.870
Větrní (dist. Český Krumlov)	Český Krumlov	0.038	6.765
Vrbice (dist. Litoměřice)	Roudnice nad Labem	0.038	6.760
Kryštofovy Hamry (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.037	6.548
Litvínov (dist. Most)	Litvínov	0.036	6.404
Vejprty (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.035	6.169
Bečov (dist. Most)	Most	0.034	6.081
Meziboří (dist. Most)	Litvínov	0.034	5.987
Pochedělice (dist. Louny)	Louny	0.033	5.952
Dívčí Hrad (dist. Bruntál)	Krnov	0.033	5.870
Mirkovice (dist. Český Krumlov)	Český Krumlov	0.033	5.822
Břvany (dist. Louny)	Louny	0.032	5.705
Mariánské Radčice (dist. Most)	Litvínov	0.032	5.672
Nové Město pod Smrkem (dist. Liberec)	Frýdlant	0.031	5.572
Hoštka (dist. Litoměřice)	Litoměřice	0.031	5.438
Chbany (dist. Chomutov)	Kadaň	0.030	5.408
Karviná (dist. Karviná)	Karviná	0.030	5.349
Sendraž (dist. Náchod)	Nové Město nad Metují	0.029	5.237

Table 4.24: MECs according the municipalities with the highest share of households receiving housing supplement (2010-2011)

Name of MEC	Number of municipalities in MEC	Number of municipalities with Lq over 2	Share of municipalities with Lq over 2 [%]
Králíky	5	3	60.0
Kadaň	19	11	57.9
Bohumín	2	1	50.0
Orlová	4	2	50.0
Krnov	25	12	48.0
Litvínov	11	5	45.5
Rýmařov	11	5	45.5
Vítkov	12	5	41.7

Table 4.25: MECs according to municipalities with the highest share of households receiving housing supplement (2010-2011)

Name of MEC	Number of municipalities in MEC	Number of municipalities with Lq over 2	Share of municipalities with Lq over 2 [%]
Most	33,971	32,744	96.4
Ostrava	146,364	134,799	92.1
Litvínov	17,745	16,253	91.6
Havířov	41,551	37,713	90.8
Česká Třebová	7,762	7,040	90.7
Karviná	30,419	26,438	86.9
Orlová	18,321	15,896	86.8
Ústí nad Labem	51,931	44,441	85.6
Bílina	9,021	7,526	83.4
Krnov	16,937	14,129	83.4
Rýmařov	6,830	5,612	82.2
Varnsdorf	8,578	6,993	81.5

Table 4.26 shows the situation in terms of the share of households receiving housing supplement in 2014, where the MECs with the highest levels of Lq are again located exclusively in northern Moravia and northern Bohemia. The only exception to these areas is MEC Neratovice. Table 4.26 contains MEC areas with a more than 50% share of households living in the municipalities with a localisation quotient over 2, i.e. where the number of households receiving housing supplement is more than twice the national

average. While in 2010-2011 there existed only four such MECs (see Table 4.23), in 2014 their number had risen to 22.

Table 4.26: MECs with the highest level of Lq, a share of households receiving housing supplement in 2014

Name of MEC	N° of household dwellings in 2011	Lq
Karviná	27,946	4.0
Litvínov	16,311	3.5
Most	31,879	3.3
Bruntál	14,519	3.1
Ostrava	138,630	3.1
Havířov	38,381	2.9
Bohumín	11,826	2.8
Orlová	16,810	2.8
Krnov	15,642	2.6
Rýmařov	6,306	2.6
Ústí nad Labem	48,795	2.5
Neratovice	11,432	2.4
Přerov	32,425	2.3
Bílina	8,424	2.2
Jeseník	14,769	2.1
Vítkov	4,983	2.0
Varnsdorf	7,984	2.0
Tanvald	8,709	2.0
Žatec	10,771	2.0
Rumburk	12,060	1.9
Chomutov	33,011	1.9
Kadaň	17,337	1.9
Odry	6,145	1.8
Ostrov	11,147	1.8

Table 4.27: MECs with the highest proportion of households with an Lq value over 2 per the indicator of the share of households receiving housing supplement in 2014

MEC	N° of household dwellings (MEC total)	Share of households (Lq in municipality >2) in %
Most	31,879	95
Ostrava	138,630	92
Litvínov	16,311	91
Havířov	38,381	91
Orlová	16,810	89
Chomutov	33,011	88
Karviná	27,946	87

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MEC	Nº of household dwellings (MEC total)	Share of households (Lq in municipality >2) in %
Ústí nad Labem	48,795	83
Bruntál	14,519	82
Žatec	10,771	81
Varnsdorf	7,984	78
Bílina	8,424	78
Bohumín	11,826	77
Rýmařov	6,306	77
Vítkov	4,983	76
Krnov	15,642	76
Děčín	31,340	67
Neratovice	11,432	66
Tanvald	8,709	64
Přerov	32,425	61
Louny	17,079	57
Lipník nad Bečvou	5,605	56

Table 4.28: MECs with the greatest decline in the value of Lq between 2007-2009 and 2010-2014

	LQ 07_09	LQ 10_14	Rank LQ_07_09	Rank LQ_10_14	Difference 07_09 and 10_14
Litvínov	8.2	4.4	1	1	-3.8
Most	4.9	3.2	3	4	-1.7
Český Těšín	2.9	1.5	9	38	-1.4
Bílina	3.4	2.2	6	14	-1.2
Varnsdorf	3.2	2.0	8	18	-1.2
Frýdlant	2.4	1.4	15	40	-1.0
Karviná	5.2	4.4	2	2	-0.8
Kraslice	2.4	1.6	17	32	-0.8
Mikulov	1.3	0.6	44	117	-0.7
Chomutov	2.5	1.8	13	24	-0.7

Table 4.29: MECs with the greatest increase in the value of Lq between 2007-2009 and 2010-2014

	LQ 07_09	LQ 10_14	Rank LQ_07_09	Rank LQ_10_14	Difference 07_09 and 10_14
Neratovice	1.3	2.5	47	12	1.2
Nový Bor	0.7	1.5	90	37	0.8
Olomouc	0.4	1.1	137	59	0.7
Český Brod	0.2	0.8	184	92	0.6
Kostelec nad Orlicí	0.4	1.0	143	76	0.6
Roudnice nad Labem	0.7	1.1	102	53	0.5
Jaroměř	0.8	1.3	83	46	0.4
Kolín	0.5	1.0	118	73	0.4
Mariánské Lázně	0.8	1.3	81	45	0.4
Vlašim	0.2	0.6	185	122	0.4

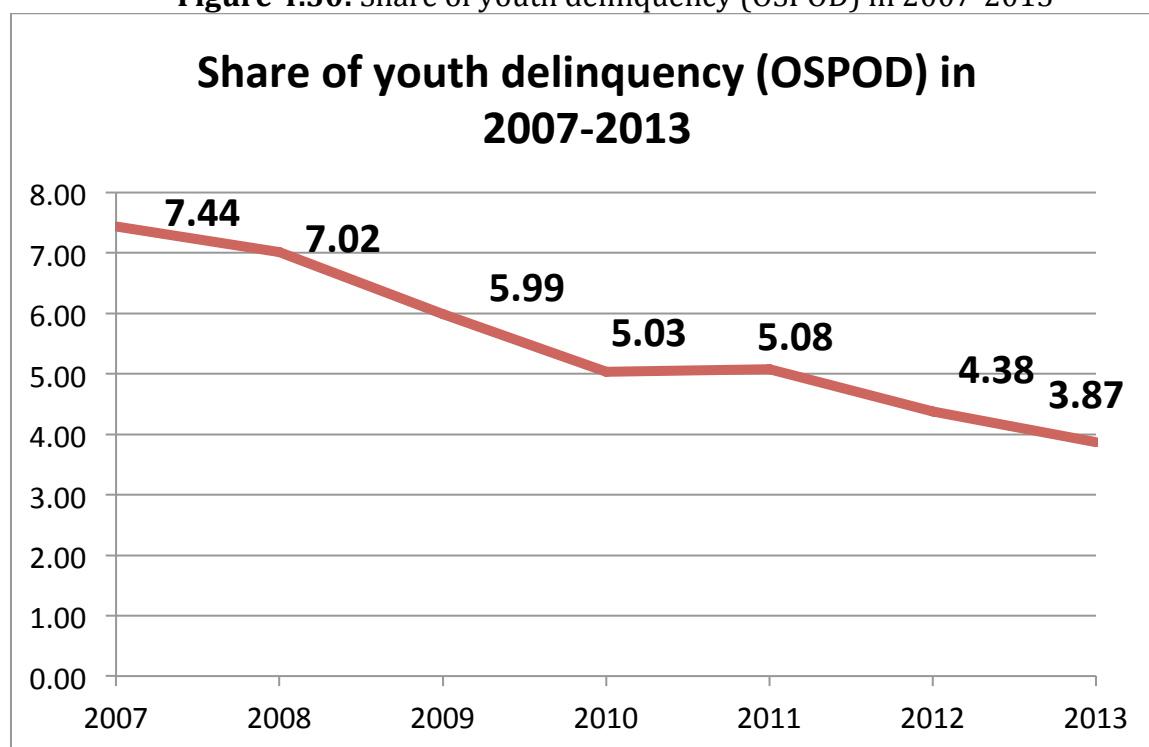
4.2.3 Juvenile delinquency

Maps showing the spatial differentiation of juvenile delinquency have been elaborated based on a dataset provided by the Ministry of Labour and Social affairs, the Department for Social and Legal Child Protection (OSPOD). The dataset contained data on the number of crimes committed by minors in 2007-2013. The data was provided only on the level of the administrative areas of municipalities with extended competence (MEC). Due to the very low levels of the reviewed phenomenon, the indicator was monitored using multi-year averages. We chose the years 2012 and 2013 as the current period; the older periods were set to be 2007-2009 and 2010-2011. Given the much lower detail of the territorial monitoring, as well as the much lower incidence of the phenomenon, the methodology was different from the previously monitored indicators. The maps only show the level of the MECs and their ability to identify socially excluded localities is therefore significantly more limited. Both the statistical and the cartographic visualization describe spatial differentiation, precisely on the level of these 205 MEC areas. In terms of local analysis, these can then be used, to a limited degree, as approximate indications of possible social problems.

The data was also adjusted to allow for their territorial comparison. In order to do so, we used two indicators representing the territorial intensity and relative concentration of the phenomenon – **level of delinquency**⁴⁵ and **localisation quotient**.

The assessment of the developmental trends and regional differentiation should be approached with caution because the authors lack a detailed knowledge about how the data had been collected. In addition, the data is only monitored on the level of MECs. It seems to us that at the present time trying to evaluate and explain the development of this indicator without a detailed knowledge of the entire issue would be too risky and we therefore suggest beginning any such analysis by consulting with the experts in the field.

Figure 4.30: Share of youth delinquency (OSPOD) in 2007-2013



A rough idea of the phenomenon’s regional differentiation can be grasped from the table of MECs with the highest values of the localisation quotient (Table 4.31 with the twenty MEC with the highest shares), as well as from the maps created. We immediately see that the problematic areas are slightly less concentrated than in the case of the previous

⁴⁵ The values of this indicator were calculated using the following formula $i = x/y \times 1000$; where: i = indicator (youth delinquency rate); x = the total sum of crimes committed by minors between 2007 and 2013); y = the number of persons under 18 years of age per each individual years in 2007-2013.

indicators. In terms of development, we should point out especially to the growing numbers in the MECs of the Jihomoravský region. We believe that adding a more detailed evaluation will only be possible following a broader discussion with the experts in the field and once we have a sufficient understanding of the methodology of data collection for the individual years.

Table 4.31: Value of the localisation quotient in twenty MECs with the highest share of youth delinquency (2007-2013)⁴⁶

MEC	2012-2013	2009-2011	2007-2008
Hodonín	6.9	2.8	1.4
Český Těšín	5.0	3.3	1.2
Nový Bor	3.0	2.8	1.8
Frýdlant v Čechách	2.6	1.9	1.2
Podbořany	2.6	1.3	1.4
Vítkov	2.5	2.0	2.4
Chomutov	2.5	2.5	2.6
Rýmařov	2.4	1.7	1.7
Blansko	2.4	1.6	1.1
Karviná	2.3	2.1	1.9
Bruntál	2.3	1.6	1.5
Bohumín	2.3	1.9	1.4
Mariánské lázně	2.2	2.1	1.6
Tanvald	2.2	3.1	1.3
Boskovice	2.1	2.3	1.9
Chotěboř	2.0	1.7	1.5
Sokolov	2.0	2.6	2.1
Žatec	2.0	1.7	1.1
Rumburk	1.9	2.6	1.6
Pelhřimov	1.9	1.1	0.8

4.2.4 Unemployment in Czech municipalities

Unemployment represents one of the key indicators of a country's economic and social situation. For the purposes of our analysis, we created maps for the years 2007-2008, 2009-2011 and, most recently, 2014-2015. In terms of developmental comparison, we can refer to the period of 2006-2008, which is analysed in detail in the *Atlas of Social and*

⁴⁶ The five highest figures per individual periods are marked in bold.

*Spatial Differentiation of the Czech Republic.*⁴⁷ The maps elaborated here describe therefore primarily the period of the economic recession, which is characterized, among others, by higher levels of unemployment, especially in 2009-2011, the second period observed. The source data is derived from the records on registered unemployment maintained by the Ministry of Labour for each calendar year. For our analysis, we chose the month of March, which is not influenced by seasonal employment such as in the agricultural or construction sectors. Thus, these maps show a rate of registered unemployment, i.e. the number of reachable job seekers per 100 economically active inhabitants. The data on the economically active applies to the date of the last nationwide Census of population and housing (2011) and they concern habitual residents. The maps are elaborated on the level of individual municipalities. In the cartograms of the specific maps the data is then again relativized to the Czech national average using localisation quotients.

Table 4.32: Ten municipalities with the highest unemployment rates, average for 2007 and 2008⁴⁸

Name of municipality	Number of economically active in 2011	Unemployment rate (%)	Lq
Vřesová, Sokolov	136	50.7	7.3
Jiříkov, Bruntál	111	44.1	6.4
Obrnice, Most	781	42.6	6.1
Bečov, Most	657	41.9	6.0
Velemyšleves, Louny	115	34.3	4.9
Vlčice, Jeseník	170	34.1	4.9
Libořice, Louny	142	32.4	4.7
Rovná, Sokolov	146	31.2	4.5
Pohorská Ves, Český Krumlov	108	30.5	4.4
Bílence, Chomutov	110	30.5	4.4

⁴⁷ Feřtová, M. (2011): Příspěvek na bydlení. In: Ouředníček, M., Temelová, J., Pospíšilová, L. eds.: *Atlas sociálně prostorové diferenciacie České republiky*. Univerzita Karlova v Praze, Nakladatelství Karolinum, Praha, s. 39-40.

⁴⁸ Municipalities with more than 100 economically active inhabitants only.

Table 4.33: Ten municipalities with the highest unemployment rates, average for 2014 and 2015⁴⁹

Name of municipality	Number of economically active in 2011	Unemployment rate (%)	Lq
Vřesová, Sokolov	136	64.7	6.0
Čermná ve Slezsku, Opava	144	49.3	4.6
Jiříkov, Bruntál	111	42.8	4.0
Nemanice, Domažlice	110	38.6	3.6
Obrnice, Most	781	38.5	3.6
Měrovice nad Hanou, Přerov	263	37.1	3.4
Trmice, Ústí nad Labem	1193	36.7	3.4
Pravice, Znojmo	144	36.5	3.4
Václavov u Bruntálu, Bruntál	199	36.4	3.4
Kružberk, Opava	107	35.5	3.3

The spatial differentiation of unemployment shows the relative stability of regions with both low and high rates of unemployment. Although the development of the overall rate of unemployment over the monitored period was relatively dramatic, the spatial pattern of the localisation quotient has largely remained constant. A degree of stability is also apparent in the tables of the ten municipalities with the highest unemployment rates (Table 4.32 and 4.33), despite the fact that the rates have become much higher in the last monitored years. On the other hand, the municipalities that rank the worst show lower values of the localisation quotient in 2011, which suggests that since 2007-2008 the social and spatial differentiation of the unemployment rates has become more balanced. This can also be seen in the individual maps showing the unemployment rate and its evolution.

By comparing the maps of specific indicators on the level of municipalities, we perceive a considerable correlation between the forms of assistance in material need and the unemployment rate. However, both types of data rather complement each other because unemployment rates concern only the active workforce, while the assistance in material need may affect other households as well. A significant part of these households may be composed of, for example, the elderly, who are living in the marginalized areas of the

⁴⁹ Municipalities with more than 100 economically active inhabitants only.

Czech inner and outer peripheries. On the micro-level, the results of census can also provide alternative indicators of social exclusion because they present certain data on the level of the so-called basic housing units or even individual houses. This represents an advantage especially when we study the inner differentiation of large municipalities, e.g. towns, where the data pertaining to the entire municipality can be to a large extent insufficient and misleading. Some of these indicators, which are collected once in a decade, can be highly analytically relevant, e.g. level of education, detailed demographic structure and data on economic activity, the structure of employment and unemployment.

4.3 Migration

Migration is arguably one of the key obstacles to social integration. Literature distinguishes between **cyclical and permanent migration**. As we have said in the previous chapters, since 2006 we have seen a rise in the number of socially excluded localities, most often **due to natural (51%) or managed relocation, the latter frequently initiated by the landlord (35%)**. A relatively minor role in the formation of socially excluded localities is played by the migration from Slovakia, which we found in 20% of all the localities, but only in relatively small numbers. **Outward migration** was recorded in roughly 40 cases – most importantly to the United Kingdom. Compared to the previous ten years, this type of migration is definitely following an upward trend. In a number of localities we found its cyclical form: after a period of time spent abroad, people return back to the Czech Republic. In localities situated along the border with Germany we found mobility motivated by work.

The cyclical and repetitive migration is very often caused by indebtedness. According to the research literature, the most typical cases often concern young couples, Roma or mixed, which begin migrating once they have left the parental home and start accumulating rent arrears. In most cases, the debtors eventually leave on their own accord, when they conclude that eviction is inevitable.

Usually caused by rent arrears, migration can take on various forms. In some areas, there was a dominant tendency to move **from a large city to the countryside** (e.g. around Přerov), while elsewhere there was a tendency to move to a larger town (e.g. Brno, Hradec Králové), where there is a broader provision of social services and better income opportunities, including illegal options. During field research, experts confirmed that a part of the target group moves **up to four times a year**. During focus groups, the target group also told us that in large cities SELs tend to be inhabited by newcomers – often “problematic” individuals – and there is a higher risk of attacks by extremist groups than in the countryside. Whenever the different NNOs tried to find housing for the Roma outside the SEL, they almost always found this to be impossible. The key issue seems to be the payment of the safety deposit, which is a common requirement of landlords on the open labour market. However, in a number of localities it was confirmed that when someone was offered accommodation outside the locality and with

conditions acceptable for both parties, they very often managed to keep the flat and would no longer return to the locality.

In 2011, the tense situation in the region of Šluknovsko showed the danger of **exaggerating the scale of migration by local actors and media**, which can result in a form of moral panic.⁵⁰ The actual rate of migration detected was much lower than what the media and local actors suggested and was primarily regional in character.

The target group threatened by migration was identified by our researchers to primarily include **older individuals and Roma families, who previously lived in inadequate housing or were involved in disputes at their former place of residence**. They may also be households **lacking the means to save for a deposit and thus move into standard rental accommodation**. Other reasons may include a **loss of previous accommodation due to foreclosure or another form of eviction** (most often because of rent arrears). These households mostly manage to find accommodation in dormitories, which do not make high demands on tenants in terms of absence of debt. Migration equally threatens **young people without a history of family life**, who have left institutional care. The research has also detected **managed migration**, where we can speak about the way in which these relocation practices are **more or less openly supported by the municipal authorities, which use the institution of the housing supplement for this purpose, in addition to selling problematic residential buildings to private landlords**.

Our analysis has confirmed the primarily intra-regional character of this migration. In many places we find so-called circular migration zones (e.g. Kolín-Kutná Hora-Čáslav in the Středočeský region, Chomutov-Kadaň-Klášterec nad Ohří or Teplicko-Ústecko in the Ústecký region or Havířov-Karviná). In general, studies of migration trends have shown that the **push factors** predominate over the **pull factors**. Among the former, the most commonly mentioned are indebtedness, inadequate condition of buildings or disputes in the place of residence; the latter include family networks or the role of mediators. The mapping of the migration trajectories and the social and housing situations of families who have moved from Pruněřov to the private rental

⁵⁰ Kafková, J., Sokočová, L., Szénássy, E.: *Analýza migračních trendů na Šluknovsku* (Varnsdorf, Rumburk, Jiřikov, Krásná Lípa a Šluknov), ASZ 2012.

accommodation in Kadaň and Tušimice in the last year, as well as the analysis of the Tušimice locality⁵¹ which was carried out at the same time, speak about telephone numbers of landlords being transmitted through family networks in places of high concentration or directly in the waiting rooms of welfare authorities.

4.4 Housing

Housing conditions are an essential question of social exclusion. Key challenges in SELs include: the age and **quality of the housing stock**, overcrowding, high additional costs of housing (energy leaks, wasteful consumption) and the maintenance of the housing stock, the use of housing without a proper tenancy contract, insufficient legal protection of tenants and the difficulty of recovering the claims of the housing stock owners. Private rental accommodation rented at market prices has turned out to be financially inaccessible for several household types: single-person pensioner households; households of lone parents on parental leave and of low-skilled working lone parents; household with at least one person in long-term unemployment (with and without children); households of low-skilled working people.⁵² The SEL inhabitants mostly fall into one of the last two categories. Because they are unable to access the open rental market, be it due to financial situation or the prejudice of the majority population, they only have little chance of moving outside an SEL.

In relative terms, families with small children face the most difficult situation: they often live in the households of their parents, without a real chance at obtaining their own accommodation. They lack sufficient means to rent a flat. In addition to their ethnicity, they are also stigmatized by their SEL origins. Finding a council flat is

⁵¹ Křištof, R.: *Zmapování migračních trajektorií a sociální a bytové situace rodin odstěhovaných v posledním roce z Pruněřova do soukromých nájemních bytů v Kadani a v Tušimicích a zmapování lokality Tušimice*, ASZ 2013.

⁵² Sunega, P.: *Zhodnocení finanční dostupnosti bydlení, kvantifikace sociálně potřebných domácností a návrhy na zavedení systému propustného (podporovaného) bydlení v Roudnici nad Labem – podkladová studie*, ASZ 2010; Čada, K.; Ptáčková, K.; Valouchová, E.: *Návrhy řešení bytových potřeb nízkopříjmových obyvatel města Kutná Hora ve vztahu k využití objektů bývalých kasáren v ulici Kouřimská*, ASZ 2011; Ptáčková, Frantová: *Podkladová analýza pro formulaci Koncepce bydlení města Mělník*, ASZ 2011.

practically impossible. They struggle with the lack of transparency and frequent discrimination inherent in the system of distribution of council housing. Lastly, finding a flat is wholly impossible for families who have ended up in a commercial or municipal dormitory.

Over the last decade, the housing situation of the socially excluded has continued to deteriorate. In some municipalities the houses largely inhabited by the Roma have been sold off to private investors, who over the long term neglected their maintenance. **In addition, we also identified an enormous rise in the number of people living in dormitories.** In 2008 a total of 7,115 adults and 3,912 children (11,027 persons altogether) were using this form of accommodation and receiving housing supplement. **In December 2014, the number of housing supplement recipients living in other forms of accommodation had already risen to 28,600, i.e. 47,500 people including jointly assessed persons. Among these, 27,000 people including jointly assessed persons were living in dormitories. Among the housing supplement recipients living in other forms of accommodation, 7,300 were responsible for a minor child, of which 2,700 were living in dormitories.**

The owners of **dormitories** reacted to the housing needs of the socially excluded, who have difficulty accessing the open housing market. Some municipalities have also begun running dormitories as a profit-making activity. Until 2015, the Act on Assistance in Material Need allowed dormitory managers to collect rent by withdrawing it directly from the housing supplement.⁵³ The experience of being forcibly relocated from a

⁵³ The housing supplement is a form of assistance in material need. Its amount depends on the assessment by a particular social worker (i.e. it is a means-tested benefit, as opposed to the living allowance). However, previously there was no universal way of payment. Labour offices would usually pay out only 70 or 80% of the agreed amount. However, some labour offices did pay the whole amount. Field research has shown that the amount differs between individual municipalities. This means that the housing supplement could be as high as several thousand crowns in order to cover the costs of housing in the overpriced dormitories. In early May 2015, the amended Act on Assistance in Material Need came into force. Everyone who receives housing supplement and lives in long-term dormitory accommodation will only be paid by the Labour office if they can show a written agreement from the municipal authorities. The amendment imposes on dormitory providers the obligation to elaborate or amend operating regulations, which must then be approved by regional public health authorities. In April 2015, the Ministry of Health registered a total of 375 long-term dormitories with approved operational regulations. Based on our field research, we argue that in some areas this amendment can lead to a

normal flat to a dormitory has the power to transform a previously self-sufficient family into one that lives in complete resignation. People who live in dormitories enjoy a **low level of legal protection** and most often are offered short-term tenancy agreements.

However, in reality **all of the dormitories under review were used as long-term accommodation**, sometimes for years on end and despite short-term tenancy agreements. In most of these places, individual families **do not have their own sanitary installations or kitchen**. Often there is not enough hot water. Community rooms or children's facilities are very rare. Hygienic conditions are mostly very poor. Dormitories are often located on the outskirts of municipalities. In the facilities under review, field workers have also found incidents of **hepatitis A, bacillary dysentery, bedbugs or scabies**.⁵⁴

The large majority of dormitories are in private ownership; in less than one-fifth of the municipalities under review researchers identified dormitories owned by the local authorities. The prices of accommodation in dormitories are usually between CZK 3,000-4,000 per person; however in a number of cases the price per person reached CZK 6,000. Dormitories differ in terms of how much they charge per services (which often include basic amenities such as hot water, showers, washing machines and so on). Some give discounts to children or additional persons.

4.5 Labour market

The unsatisfactory position on the **labour market** in the Czech Republic is one of the key dimensions of living in social exclusion. The return to the open labour market very often represents one of the pillars of policies fighting against social exclusion. On average, the unemployed made up approximately 80-85% of the populations in the SELs under review. Although this percentage is very high, we should not ignore the 15-20% of people who are in fact working. However, in their case, finding a job has not made it

reduction of the use of dormitories as a long-term housing solution and to the relocation of the socially excluded to flats, whose quality nonetheless often remains equally poor.

⁵⁴ Vzájemné soužití, o. s.: Zpráva o ubytovnách na Ostravsku aneb jsou ubytovny opravdu vhodným řešením pro bydlení rodin s dětmi a lidí bez domova?, 2013.

possible to escape the vicious circle of social exclusion. Most of the jobs are short-term and bring in little in terms of earnings.

The main reason given for the absence from the labour market is the lack of job opportunities. Moreover, regions suffering from high rates of unemployment also have the greatest differences between the demand for **low-skilled jobs** and their supply. There is a strong correlation between the estimated rate of unemployment in an SEL and the share of unemployment in the entire municipality.⁵⁵ In terms of the labour market, the share of the unemployed in the municipalities under review-- i.e. the share of reachable job seekers between the ages of 15 and 64 – in relation to the total population of the same age was 9.3%. The highest rates of unemployment were recorded in municipalities in the following regions: Moravskoslezský, Ústecký, Karlovarský and Olomoucký. The share of unemployed persons nationwide was 7.4%. The highest rates of unemployment were recorded in the following districts: Most (13.2%), Ústí nad Labem (12.6%), Bruntál (12.5%), Karviná (12.3%), Ostrava-město (11.3%), Chomutov (11.2%), Louny and Děčín (both 10.1%).

To a large extent, the municipalities with socially excluded localities differ as to the number of jobs available. During the period of field research (July 2014), there were between one and ninety-five jobseekers per each position. This means that on average, the municipalities with socially excluded localities had 23.15 candidates per each job position. This is around twice as much as the national average. There were on average 10.9 candidates per each new job position; the highest figures were found in the following regions: Ústí nad Labem (35.6%), Bruntál (33.9%), Karviná (33.3%), Jeseník (29.9%) a Sokolov (28.7%). All of these are regions with a higher-than-average share of socially excluded localities. In relation to these localities, smaller municipalities and towns (under 5,000 inhabitants) with SELs had the worst supply of jobs, with 35.2 candidates per job. However, this represents all jobs and all job seekers. If we focus solely on persons with basic education, which represent the majority of all socially excluded people, the average number of candidates per job in municipalities with socially excluded localities was 44. In municipalities with less than 5,000 inhabitants the

⁵⁵ Pearson's correlation coefficient between the estimated number of unemployed persons in a locality and the share of unemployed persons in a municipality is 0.389.

number was even higher (58 candidates per job) and in municipalities with 5,001-20,000 inhabitants it was 78.

In general, the share of unemployment is higher in ethnically more homogeneous localities and in rural localities, which suffer from a lack of job opportunities. According to the results of the regional *Roma survey*⁵⁶, carried out in 2011 by the World Bank and the UN Development Programme and primarily focusing on the Roma inhabitants of socially excluded localities, only 43% of the Roma respondents living in an SEL were in paid employment, as opposed to non-Roma respondents living in similar conditions, where the same figure was 70%. Among the Roma respondents, 50% participated actively in the labour market, while among the non-Roma the figure was 74%. The unemployment rate among the Roma was 39%, while among the non-Roma 6%. Only very few of the Roma are self-employed (2%). The same analysis identified a number of **demotivating factors**: (1) repeated **rejections by employers**; (2) **low expected wage** (for example, it is not worthwhile to commute to work); (3) **better accessibility of illegal opportunities** (32% of the Roma respondents between the ages of 24 and 64 were working in the informal sector, without a contract; in the 15-24 age group the number was even higher – 47%); (4) **high levels of debt**.

According to the estimates of local experts, who were interviewed as part of our fieldwork in the socially excluded localities, roughly 30-50% of the inhabitants of SELs have some experience with informal work. Informal jobs appear in nearly 80% of the SELs under review. These are not necessarily local jobs; in many places the inhabitants – most often men – commute to take up odd jobs in other towns, often work in the construction sector or in forestry. In addition, there are other alternative forms of earning a livelihood: collecting scrap metal and seasonal jobs such as picking

⁵⁶ The Roma - Survey (UNDP/World Bank/European Commission) was conducted in 11 countries; in the Czech Republic the researchers surveyed 1853 Roma households with a total of 7465 members and 850 non-Roma households with a total of 2330 members. Data collection was carried out by the research agency Median. The Roma socially excluded localities were identified on the basis of the 2001 Census of population and housing and the 2006 Map of socially excluded localities; non-Roma households were chosen in their vicinity. The research is representative for the inhabitants of socially excluded localities in relation to their territorial distribution according to the size of settlement.

strawberries, apples, berries, mushrooms or snails. In border areas, people sometimes engage in garbage picking in German towns, importing used electronics, furniture and other goods disposed of by the German households. In these regions, we also find drug trafficking and prostitution as sources of livelihood. In several localities the researchers encountered cases of prostitution in exchange for rent or as a repayment for usurious loans.

4.6 Debt and indebtedness

According to local experts, a high level of indebtedness was found in nearly 90% of the socially excluded localities under review. This has also been confirmed by results of other studies. According to the results of the questionnaire survey of more than 1,200 recipients of housing supplement living in dormitories in different Czech regions, which carried out by the consulting firm Deloitte in 2014, 48% of the respondents were in debt, while roughly 40% of them did not know exactly how much they owed and more than 40% were not paying off their debts.⁵⁷

Indebtedness was indeed the number one reason given by regional experts for the loss of accommodation. These are most often loans from non-banking companies; in some localities we also find usury. Without efficient debt advice the situation is at risk of deteriorating, the socially excluded may lose their homes and sink deeper into debt. According to debt advisors, families often underestimate the level of their debt and rent arrears and ignore the gravity of the problem. They only visit the debt advice bureau once the problem has already become critical. Another oft-used strategy is to repay the loan by means of another loan, which ultimately only drives them deeper into the debt spiral.

According to service providers, the most effective strategy seems to be offering debt advice locally, right where the socially excluded are living, and link it to other services. On the other hand, some municipal policies can seriously curtail the impact of such projects. In some cases the municipal authorities failed to inform the citizens that they

⁵⁷ Deloitte (2014): *Analýza socioekonomické situace příjemců sociálních dávek na ubytovnách* (Výstup 3. etapy projektu). Commissioner: MPSV ČR.

owed rent; instead they continued to wait for the debt to accumulate and then relocated them to the most problematic localities.

4.6 Education

The majority of adult inhabitants of SELs have, at most, a basic level of education. On the other hand, primary schools and the school system in general are crucial vectors of the intergenerational transmission of social exclusion. Approximately 7.5 per ten SEL inhabitants of working age only have a primary education; there is even some evidence to suggest that the level of education is declining. In general it is true that the higher the ethnic homogeneity of the locality, the lower the level of education of its inhabitants. While in the localities with a minority Roma population around 70% of people have only basic education, in purely Roma localities this figure is 10% higher. However, in strongly mixed localities, individuals with a basic level of education or at most a vocational training make up the large majority. Lastly, the highest number of person with only a basic education can be found in the socially excluded localities of major cities.

Over the long term, it is apparent that the educational level of the Roma inhabitants of socially excluded localities is not improving. In general, the generation of the fathers has a higher level of education than the generation of the sons who have been educated since 1989.⁵⁸

There are many reasons to explain a child's academic underachievement. **Households are poorly equipped to prepare children for school and parents are not prepared to support their children in their studies.** Compared to their peers, children for example do not have the vocabulary needed to be successful at school; they have not learned the basics of reading and counting; they can have a different relationship to school due to the repeated setbacks, which can result in increased absenteeism. While half of Roma children between five and six years of age are able to identify at least ten

⁵⁸ Světová banka: Česká republika: *Šance na zlepšení zaměstnanosti Romů*, Kancelář rady vlády pro romskou problematiku 2008.

letters of the alphabet, among the non-Roma children living in a similar environment this figure is between 50 and 94%.⁵⁹

In many cases such disadvantages can be mitigated by attending preschools and maternity schools. Children who attended maternity schools are significantly more successful in their educational trajectories. On the one hand, we can attribute this to the influence of maternity schools; on the other hand, children who attend maternity schools generally come from more motivated and less socially excluded families. Our data shows that in order for the socially excluded inhabitants to use a maternity school, it must be within a walking distance from their home – the majority of the maternity schools attended are only a 15-minute walk from the socially excluded locality. According to our findings, maternity school attendance in SELs is highly variable: from 10% to all the children in the given population years. Attendance is logically higher in localities with a lower share of unemployment.

The analysis of the Roma Survey⁶⁰ data shows a gap between the average attendance rates of Roma children (28%) and other children, who have a much higher attendance rate (79%). We find a yet more striking difference in pre-school attendance rates between Roma children living in urban (33%) and rural (17%) localities. Data from the same survey also suggests a delay in pre-school attendance of Roma children, with on average 50% of children starting pre-school education only at the age of 5 or 6. In some places, children from socially excluded families are barred from pre-school attendance by the requirement that their parents be employed as a selection criterion. In the Czech Republic, socially excluded Roma families also prefer the less time-consuming and costly preparation in preparatory classes. The data from the study has been confirmed by the findings of our field researchers.

Our research has show that the key factors affecting the pre-school attendance of Roma children are the following: (1) economic reasons; (2) the absorption capacity of maternity schools; (3) the age and the number of siblings.

⁵⁹ Roma - Survey (UNDP/World Bank/European Commission) from 2011 – see above for more details.

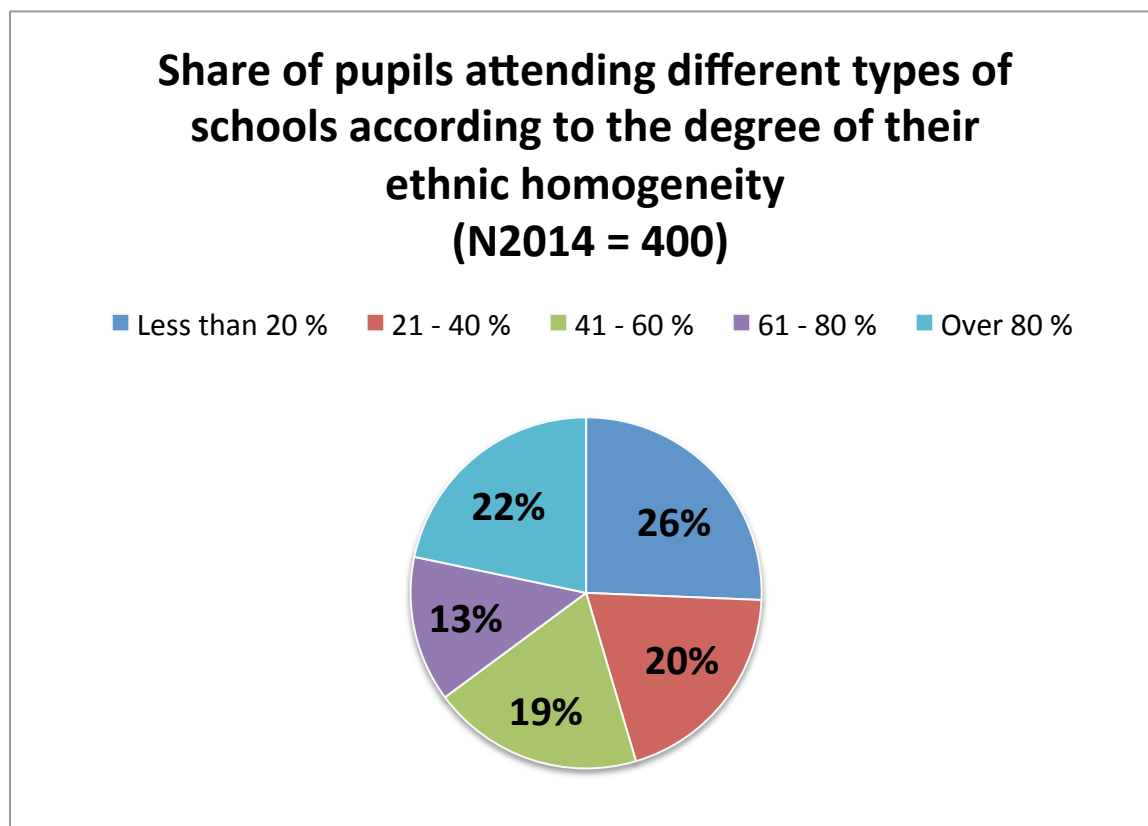
⁶⁰ Roma - Survey (UNDP/World Bank/European Commission) from 2011 – see above for more details.

For Roma families, the dominant factor is the financial cost of pre-school education, a concern that non-Roma families practically never mention. The financial aspect is therefore much more decisive for Roma families than for their majority counterparts living in the vicinity of socially excluded localities. The capacities of local maternity schools pose a limit to the attendance of children from both the socially excluded and common families. In the countryside, these barriers also include the fact that there may be no easily accessible maternity school close to the socially excluded locality. Another constraint may be the degree to which pre-school establishments are equipped to accept children from underprivileged backgrounds.

The Czech school system has a strong tendency to concentrate similar pupils in classes and schools. The Czech Republic is among the states of the OECD where children of similar backgrounds and levels concentrate in the same schools; it is also typical that the local education system has more difficulty overcoming the differences introduced by the parents' socio-economical status than systems in other countries.

However, it seems that compared to 2006, the number of children from socially excluded localities who are schooled in ethnically homogeneous schools has declined. In more than one half of the localities (59%), children attend schools with less than a 20% share of Roma pupils. This makes sense given that in a number of cases the boundaries between a socially excluded locality and its surroundings have become blurred and the number of SELs in smaller settlements is on the rise. However, it is interesting to compare the share of pupils in different types of schools. **Out of all pupils raised in the conditions of an SEL, a total of 22% attend schools with a high degree of ethnic homogeneity.** In absolute numbers this may mean a total of 3,500-5,000 pupils nationwide.

Figure 4.34 Share of pupils attending different types of schools according to the degree of their ethnic homogeneity



This means that in some cases, mainstream primary schools with a high degree of ethnic homogeneity and a large share of pupils living in conditions of social exclusion in fact resemble the former “special schools”: the composition of the children’s social backgrounds is rather monotonous; the tools these schools use to improve the children’s results can be found, to a higher degree, precisely in specialized primary schools (teaching assistants, special educational needs team). **This means that even at school, children from socially underprivileged or excluded backgrounds, whose families and neighbourhoods are characterized by high levels of unemployment, low levels of education and only a very narrow range of professions, lack contact with pupils from better situated or more educated families.** The problems of worsening grades in the so-called “profile subjects” (those required for university entrance exams) or absenteeism therefore do not represent purely individual problems, but instead a structural characteristics of these children’s educational trajectories and the reason why their educational opportunities are substantially worse. The problem of absenteeism, which is specific to socially excluded localities, was confirmed by field research, which

showed that truancy was detected by the Department for Social and Legal Child Protection (OSPOD) in nearly half of the localities under review.

Another oft-debated question is the frequent placing of Roma children outside mainstream education. The fact that this area is riddled by discriminatory practices was recognized by the ruling of the European Court of Human Rights in *Case of D.H. and others v. the Czech Republic* on 13 November 2007. **On average, two out of ten Roma girls and 2.4 out of ten Roma boys leave the main educational stream, while among non-Roma children it is only one out of every hundred girls and three out of a hundred boys.**⁶¹ These results were also confirmed by the Office of the Public Defender of Rights. A study conducted in sixty randomly selected “practical” schools showed that 32-35% of all children in these schools are Roma, while in the overall population Roma only make 3.2-6.4% of this age group. The proportion of Roma students in vocational schools is therefore 5-10 times higher than in the overall population. The highest rates of Roma students in vocational schools were found in the Ústecký region and the lowest rates in the Zlínský region.⁶²

However, in its *Report on the Progress in Transformation of Former Special Schools in the School Year 2011/2012*, the Czech School Inspectorate concluded that the number of schools which only offer education based on the Educational Framework for pupils with a “slight mental disability”, which is the case especially with practical schools, has been declining. This has also been confirmed by the 2014 analysis of the Czech Expert Society for Inclusive Education, which showed that over the five-year period from September 2009 to September 2014, the percentage of children given a diagnosis of mental disability among the total number of children attending primary education in the Czech Republic has dropped by nearly 40% - from 2.96% to 1.84%. This has brought the share of children with a diagnosis of mental disability down, to a level similar to other countries. However, the analysis showed that there are great regional discrepancies between the percentages of children with a mental disability diagnosis. In the Ústecký

⁶¹ GAC (2009): *Sociologický výzkum zaměřený na analýzu podoby a příčin segregace dětí, žákyň, žáků a mladých lidí ze sociokulturně znevýhodňujícího prostředí*, Praha: MŠMT.

⁶² Kancelář veřejného ochránce práv (2012): *Výzkum veřejného ochránce práv k otázce etnického složení žáků bývalých zvláštních škol*. Brno: Kancelář veřejného ochránce práv.

region, the diagnosis of a “mild mental disability”, which conditions the placement of a child outside mainstream education, has been given to 3.77% of pupils. The strongest predictors of regional differences were the indicators of the size of the Roma population in the given region. “The differences in the percentage of Roma population living in socially excluded localities explained 56% of the variation in the share of children diagnosed with a mild mental disability,” the authors of the study point out.

For socially excluded children, the risks of leaving mainstream primary education early are approximately thirteen times as high as the national average.⁶³ There are two main differences between the future direction of Roma children attending mainstream primary schools located in the vicinity of SELs and the population of all children graduating from primary schools in the Czech Republic as a whole. The first is the percentage of children who interrupt their education either temporarily or permanently. On average 16% interrupt their studies after primary school, while in the rest of the population these represent exceptional cases that altogether make up less than 1%. The second difference is the composition of the types of secondary education chosen by the children. While 80% of Roma children who continue their education after primary school enrol at vocational schools, which only offer them a vocational certificate, they are followed by only about two-fifths of their schoolmates and the nationwide figures reach just under 30% of pupils. This means, for example, that immediately after primary school the population of Czech children aims for the baccalaureate to nearly the same degree as the Roma children aim for the vocational certificate. To illustrate this further, while out of every thousand children attending primary schools in the Czech Republic more than two hundred enrol in a grammar school, in the case of the Roma children the figure is as low as eight.⁶⁴

In most of the socially excluded localities under review there is at least some choice of leisure activities. Some leisure activities can be found in approximately 68% of all socially excluded localities. About one half of localities have more than two service

⁶³ GAC (2009): *Sociologický výzkum zaměřený na analýzu podoby a příčin segregace dětí, žákyň, žáků a mladých lidí ze sociokulturně znevýhodňujícího prostředí*. Praha: MŠMT.

⁶⁴ GAC (2010): *Sociologická analýza přechodů romských dětí ze sociálně vyloučeného prostředí ze základních na střední školy*. Praha: MŠMT.

providers. In about 62% of the socially excluded localities we also find tutoring services or help with preparation for school. In some regions, the leisure activities for children living in more remote areas are provided by the so-called “mobile teams”, which bring, similarly to mobile vendors, services directly to the SEL inhabitants (for example, the Kotec association in the Karlovarský region or People in Need in the Olomoucký region). These leisure activities are often offered directly in the socially excluded localities, including dormitories. However, local actors agree that most of these services lack the necessary capacity to satisfy local needs.

4.7 Services for people living in socially excluded localities

We have found strong differences between the **services** offered to persons living in individual socially excluded localities; for the inhabitants of rural and remote socially excluded localities it is potentially very problematic and excessively time-consuming to use these services. Regional capitals have the highest availability of services, both in terms of location and capacity; the further away we are from these centres the fewer services are available.⁶⁵ Local actors in socially excluded localities were most concerned by the absence of debt advice, drop-in clubs for children and young people or shelters. The inhabitants of socially excluded localities we interviewed mostly told us that they would especially appreciate services to help them reenter the labour market, solve their housing situation (social housing), assist and advise them in dealing with the authorities or provide facilities for children and young people. **Especially in smaller towns and in the countryside, where we find small but all the more isolated SELs, the availability of these services is very limited.** More often than in big cities, the local inhabitants told us that they were not in contact with any non-profit organisations or another service provider. The existing services are aimed primarily at the elderly.

Per each municipality with a socially excluded locality there were on average nine registered social services focusing on our target group, i.e. people living in socially excluded localities, children and young people between 6 and 26 years of age at risk of

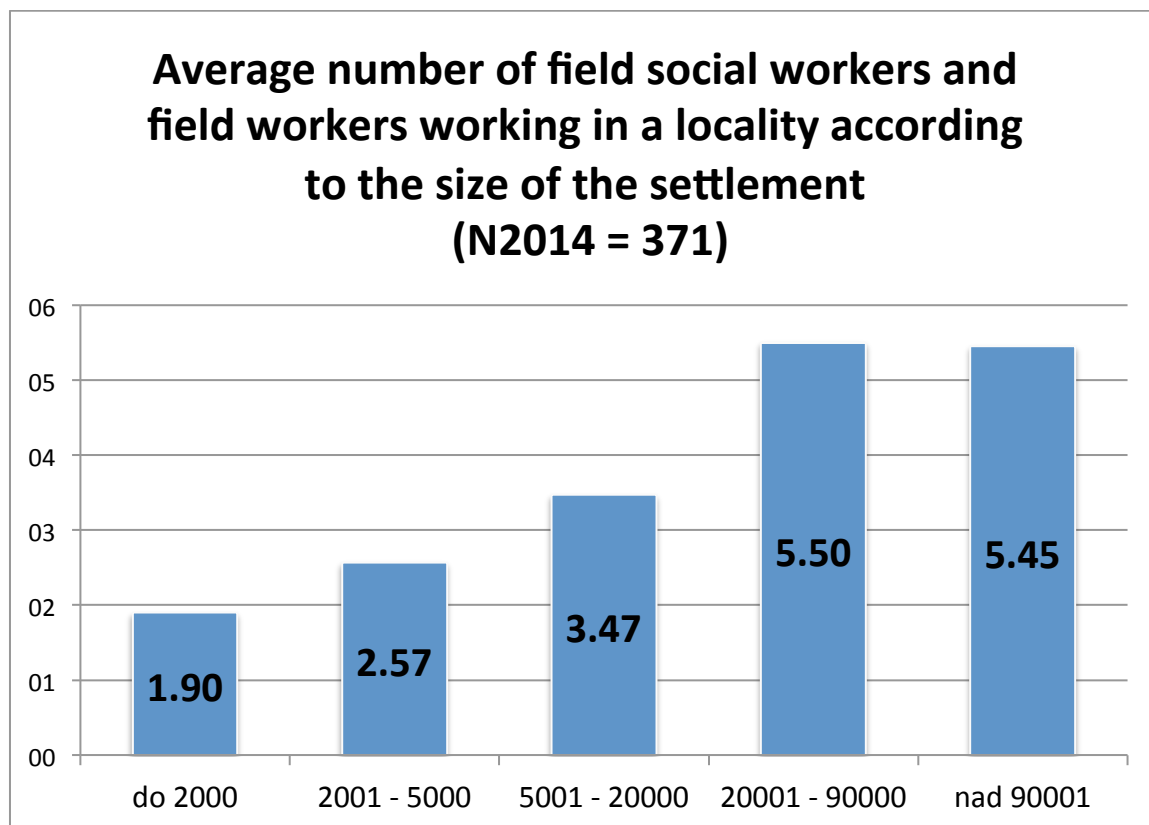
⁶⁵ Višek, P & Průša, L. (2012): *Optimalizace sociálních služeb*, Praha: Národní centrum sociálních studií, o. p. s. Výzkumný ústav práce a sociálních věcí, v. v. i.

socially undesirable phenomena, and ethnic minorities. **Most often these were field programmes, social activation services, expert social advice or drop-in facilities for children and young people.** Here too we saw a high level of variance in relation to the size and location of the locality. While there is less than one registered social service per every municipality of up to 2,000 inhabitants, in municipalities with 2,001-5,000 inhabitants there were on average 2.14 registered services, in municipalities with 5,001-20,000 inhabitants there were on average 5.4 services and in municipalities with 20,001-90,000 there were on average 12.8 registered social services per municipality. In cities of more than 90,000 inhabitants the number was already 24 registered social services per city. The large majority of the local actors interviewed agreed that the capacities of field social work were insufficient and needed to be reinforced.

There are on average 4 field social workers or field workers per one socially excluded locality.⁶⁶ However, according to local actors, 10-15% of the socially excluded localities have in fact no service coverage at all. These are often the more remote or relatively recently created localities. The number of field workers also differs according to the size of the settlement. The larger the municipality, the more field workers are active in the localities. The dependency is clearly shown in the following graph. Individual localities are also very different in terms of the number of clients per one field social worker or field worker – most estimate 20-60 people per worker, although there are some extremely socially excluded localities with more than 100 clients per field worker.

⁶⁶ This number is based on the outputs from field research. We counted both field social workers and field workers. For the purposes of our analysis, this includes both field workers employed by local councils and providers of social services. Although in terms of methodology they have a different job description, in reality their activities often overlap and the inhabitants of socially excluded localities do not themselves seem to reflect on the difference.

Figure 4.35 Average number of field social workers and field workers working in a locality according to the size of the settlement



As we have already said, the availability of social services and especially services of social prevention and counselling is highly unequal across the different regions and especially across the different municipalities with extended competence. Local actors often complain of a lack of strategy and coordination. According to the representatives of non-profit non-governmental organisations, the use of the instruments of coordinated cooperation – such as case conferences or the case management method – are still used relatively rarely. The representatives of social service providers have repeatedly pointed out the lack of communication between the different providers, the municipal authorities and the regional administration, as well as the arbitrary financing of social services. The representatives of the socially excluded do not usually play an active part in the community planning of social services.

4.8 Delinquency and safety

According to the local actors interviewed during field research, delinquency rates inside SELs are low and in most cases criminal activity happens outside their boundaries. This includes especially property crimes or possibly credit frauds. In some localities local actors also mentioned usury. The statements also included information about violent crimes (which were fairly exceptional and more frequent following alcohol consumption), drugs production and trafficking, offenses related to public order and peaceful coexistence, or the non-respect of alternative sentences.

Inside the localities, complaints against the violations of public order – **disturbing the night's peace, offences against peaceful coexistence, littering in public areas** -- are among the most common cases of delinquency. Other typical problems include petty theft, cellar burglaries, stolen bicycles or unstamped cigarette and alcohol trafficking. In cases of reported attacks, local actors argue that these are usually verbal **assaults**. Complaints often concern groups of young people and children (loud noise, use of obscenities), but also noisy groups of adults congregating on the street late at night. Traditional problems among children and young people living in SELs include the **use of alcohol and other drugs, truancy and petty crime, especially theft**. Young people who are growing up in dormitories and have no experience with normal neighbourly coexistence are seen as an especially at-risk group.

Substance abuse and gambling are also part of the negative phenomena connected to living in social exclusion; they can be understood not only as a kind of escape from a desperate situation, but also as triggers of delinquency. Socially excluded people only access services for substance users with a considerable delay, which makes their treatment and long-term management all the more complicated and costly.⁶⁷ Their treatment also poses additional demands in terms of cooperation and a stable family and social background, which the socially excluded families of Roma users lack. On the other hand, Roma drug users are less commonly expelled from the family and are more often given aid and support. **A common feature in the socially excluded environment is**

⁶⁷ Nepustil, P., Pančocha, K., Frišaufová, M., Kalivodová, R., Bártová, A.: *Užívání drog ve skupinách s obtížným přístupem k drogovým službám*, Praha 2013.

the phenomenon of multi-generational substance abuse, where drugs are passed on from and through the parents to children. The first experiments with smoking, alcohol and marihuana begin in children at the first stage of basic education, between 9 and 13 years of age.⁶⁸

In addition to alcohol and nicotine, pervitin (methamphetamine) and marihuana are among the most widespread addictive substances found in SELs. In rare cases we also find solvents, most often in the form of toluene, although their popularity has greatly declined. Drug use is more widespread among the young, while older age is more connected to alcohol dependencies. Young people also have a higher incidence of high-risk drug use by intravenous injection, which is connected to additional risks such as the spread of infections disease. **Experts claim that in recent years some SELs have seen a decline in the accessibility of primary, secondary and tertiary drug-prevention programmes.** These services are not available in approximately one-third of the socially excluded localities under review.

In addition to substance abuse there has been a rise in the incidence of gambling, which also affects Roma women. This negative phenomenon is associated with an easier access to gambling establishments and slot machines in the vicinity of SELs. Local experts have identified gambling as a problem in 60% of the socially excluded localities under review. However, most municipalities (around 70%) have addressed the question of slot machines through a local ordinance, or such ordinance was being drafted or under review at the time of the research.

4.9 Public perception of the problem

In public discourse, social exclusion is usually connected with the Roma minority. **The attitudes of the Czech majority society towards the Roma are regularly surveyed** by the Public Opinion Research Centre at the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Sciences (see the analysis *Romové a soužití s nimi očima české společnosti* ["Roma and Coexistence with Them: Attitudes of the Czech Society"]). **In May 2014, the large**

⁶⁸ Report on the state of the Roma minority in the Czech Republic for 2012.

majority of the Czech public described the coexistence between the Roma and the rest of the population as problematic, with 84% of respondents considering it as “bad” and 45% of them even “very bad”. **On the other hand, only 16% of the respondents saw the relationship as good: of these the majority selected the weaker option (“rather good”), while the answer “very good” was only given sporadically. This was a slight (3%) improvement compared to the previous year. However, the 2013 results showed the worst public perception of the problem since the beginning of comparable surveys in 1997.**

The vast majority of the Czech public believes that compared to the rest of the population the Roma are worse off in terms of employment opportunities. This opinion was expressed by 61% of the survey respondents. Employment is also the only area under review in which those who consider the Roma as disadvantaged outweigh those who believe that they enjoy similar or better conditions. In none of the other areas of life is the number of those who see the Roma’s opportunities as worse higher than those who believe that **compared to the rest of the population the Roma have the same or even better chances**. Seventeen per cent of respondents believe that the Roma enjoy a better position in public and civic life. In terms of finding housing, more than one half (57%) of respondents believe that the Roma have better conditions in dealing with the administration and 55% thinks that the Roma are better placed to defend their interests. Forty-one per cent of respondents are convinced that the Roma are favoured in terms of guaranteeing personal safety.

The public perception of the coexistence with the socially excluded, including the Roma, has to do with their portrayal by the mass media. With respect to the Roma, the dominant image of the Roma minority transmitted by the news media is based above all on the media construction of specific “Roma” criminality and the thematization of anti-Roma fears – more than one half (61.9%) of the 6,252 news stories published about the Roma during the period of July 2011 to late May 2012 were connected to crime and delinquency.⁶⁹ Our analysis identified the overuse of ethnicity as the key influence in the negative tendency dominating the current reporting on the Roma minority. In most of

⁶⁹ Křížková, M.: Analýza mediálního zobrazení Romů v českých médiích od začátku července 2011 do konce května 2012. ASZ 2012.

the stories we see a lack of journalistic distance from politicians (especially local mayors are seen as a relevant source of information regardless of their political ambition). **The media under review also showed a lack of sensitivity towards racist statements and attitudes in news reporting, unless it was possible to ascribe them to right-wing extremism.**

Three factors contribute to the escalation of local tensions.⁷⁰ Firstly, the general increase in social tensions and insecurity, the weakening social cohesion and solidarity, the increase in “anti-Roma sentiments” and the growing strength of a discourse which decries the Roma as “maladjusted”, a discourse shared by the media, institutional representatives and the populations living in the vicinity of SELs. Secondly, the lasting dissatisfaction of certain parts of the population with the current security situation, with the work of the metropolitan police and the present forms of neighbourly coexistence. Last but not least, we have the anti-Roma marches and demonstrations, whose success may have been reinforced by the fact that they offer an experience of a collective identity, the kind of which the structurally neglected regions and neighbourhoods usually gravely lack.

The rejection of the socially excluded can also drive the general public to assume a negative stance towards the services aimed at improving the situation of all inhabitants of a municipality. As an example, we can think of the referendum organized in 2013 in Teplá near Karlovy Vary, where local citizens rejected the construction of a new centre for social prevention. Out of a total of 1103 voters, 1006 citizens were against the project. The creation of the Centre for social prevention services in Teplá was initially opposed by a local citizen’s association, which openly expressed its concerns against the possible influx of more socially excluded Roma into the municipality.

This clearly shows that the issue of social exclusion in the Czech Republic cannot be seen as solely an ethnic or social problem. In fact, the ascribed ethnic identity and the majority’s treatment of it often multiply the effects of living in a socially excluded environment. The ethnic dimension is associated to others -- often more subtle -- mechanisms of social exclusion. As one of the socially excluded Roma respondents put it:

⁷⁰ Ptáčková, K: Českobudějovické sídliště Máj – léto 2013, základní screening situace sociálního vyloučení, ASZ 2013.

“We are too scared to go to a football game, people at the pub look down on us, so the only thing we are left with is hanging out in front of our house. And now they reproach us for that as well.”

5. Impacts and needs of inclusion policies and projects

Following the phase of field research, in the subsequent stage of the project we focused on the impacts of projects funded by the HREOP and the needs of target groups and actors of inclusion policies in 20 selected municipalities (for more details see *Methodology*). **There is no doubt that the projects funded by the Operation Programme represent the cornerstones of integration policies. However, they cannot be seen as all-powerful. Their effectiveness becomes greatly curtailed if they are not supported by municipal policies.** For example, the effectiveness of debt counselling is increased if municipal authorities informs the citizens of their rent arrears in timely manner, as well as by other possible measures such as waiving penalty fees or offering suitable payment schedules. Likewise, the effects of activation measures can be enhanced by a suitable housing policy.

Alongside these external factors, the success of projects funded by the HREOP and their effectiveness also depend on **the quality of the execution team**. Projects were positively affected by the cooperation of their implementers with other NNOs (e.g. help in securing substitute accommodation or temporary placement of small children outside the family) and other subjects (e.g. the national Police, the Department of Social and Legal Child Protection, etc.). The factors affecting the successful outcome of projects also include **their connection to other subsidy schemes**. The synergic effect between different project activities is obviously conditioned upon the systematic **coordination of individual projects**, which is unfortunately lacking in different areas, as well as on the national level. This fact could prove to be a significant problem when evaluating the effectiveness of the resources invested in the implementation of projects during the 2007-2013 period.

Another closely related condition is the active involvement of the target group in addressing its own needs and problems. The most significant problem in solving key specific project activities was the worsening socio-economic situation in the regions

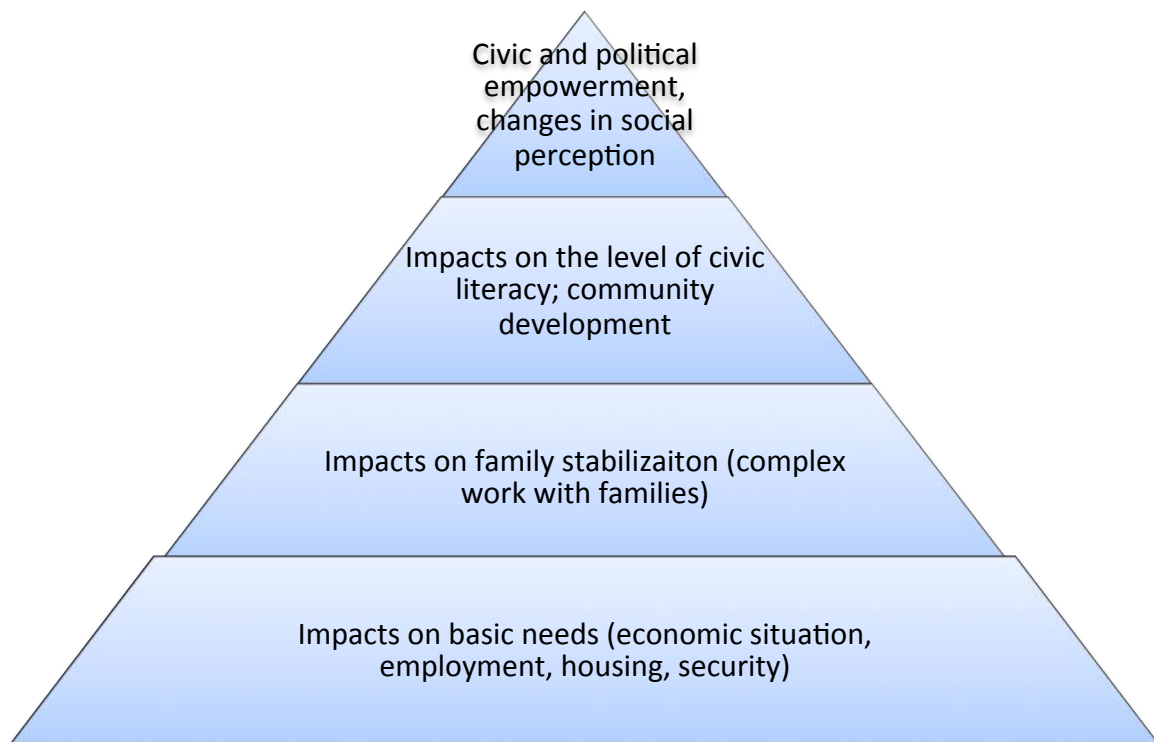
caused by the economic recession, in addition to the generally negative public “sentiment” vis-à-vis the target group. The outcomes of projects were also affected by the **frequent migration of the target group**, which had an impact on the target group itself (inability to fully resolve difficult cases) and on the implementer, whose work was made more difficult in terms of achieving the monitoring indicators.

The project implementers usually made use of various **cooperation platforms and instruments**, which had been created in the places under review. A number of towns developed local partnership platforms and in almost all of the localities there were community planning working groups, which participated in the creation of plans that towns use for the local implementation of social services. However, from the perspective of social services, community planning has certain limitations, which the NNO workers were often made painfully aware of in their practice. These constraints include especially the weak direct involvement of the target group – inhabitants of the SEL – in the formulation and resolution of problems. Respondents also criticized the lack of feedback and, if the meetings did take place, the absence of institutional representatives whose activities were closely linked with the problem at hand, so that the discussion was deprived of their contributions. Social workers complained to the interviewers about the excessive **formality** of these discussions: often they could merely comment on the materials via correspondence and without receiving feedback on the outcome of their comments. In some cases, the respondents also spoke critically about the work of the local authorities, which tend to highlight mainly the positive attitudes and successful examples of social work.

The impacts of projects can be divided into several steps of a pyramid. To obtain the impacts on the higher levels of the pyramid necessitates a systematic and long-term approach. In this case we cannot speak of the effect of just a single project, but of a coordinated approach across the different fields and their interlinking over time. In order to reach the summit of the pyramid – which represents the civic and political empowerment of the inhabitants of these localities, when they become not just the objects of public aid policies, but active subjects participating in the creation and implementation of these policies – we must first **overcome the paternalistic attitude that currently dominates these projects** (especially those implemented by public administration representatives). Only in this way will the representatives of socially

excluded localities become their active and fully-fledged participants. Seen from the perspective of the target group's benefit, all the activities developed as part of the projects should follow a single common goal: to activate the target group and motivate it to address its own perceived problems, if possible by using its own resources. The aim of social work is not to transfer responsibility for the problems to social workers, while the target group remains passive. Quite the contrary: by means of these projects the target group should acquire new skills to provide for itself and "stand on its own two feet".

Fig. 5.1 The pyramid of impact assessment

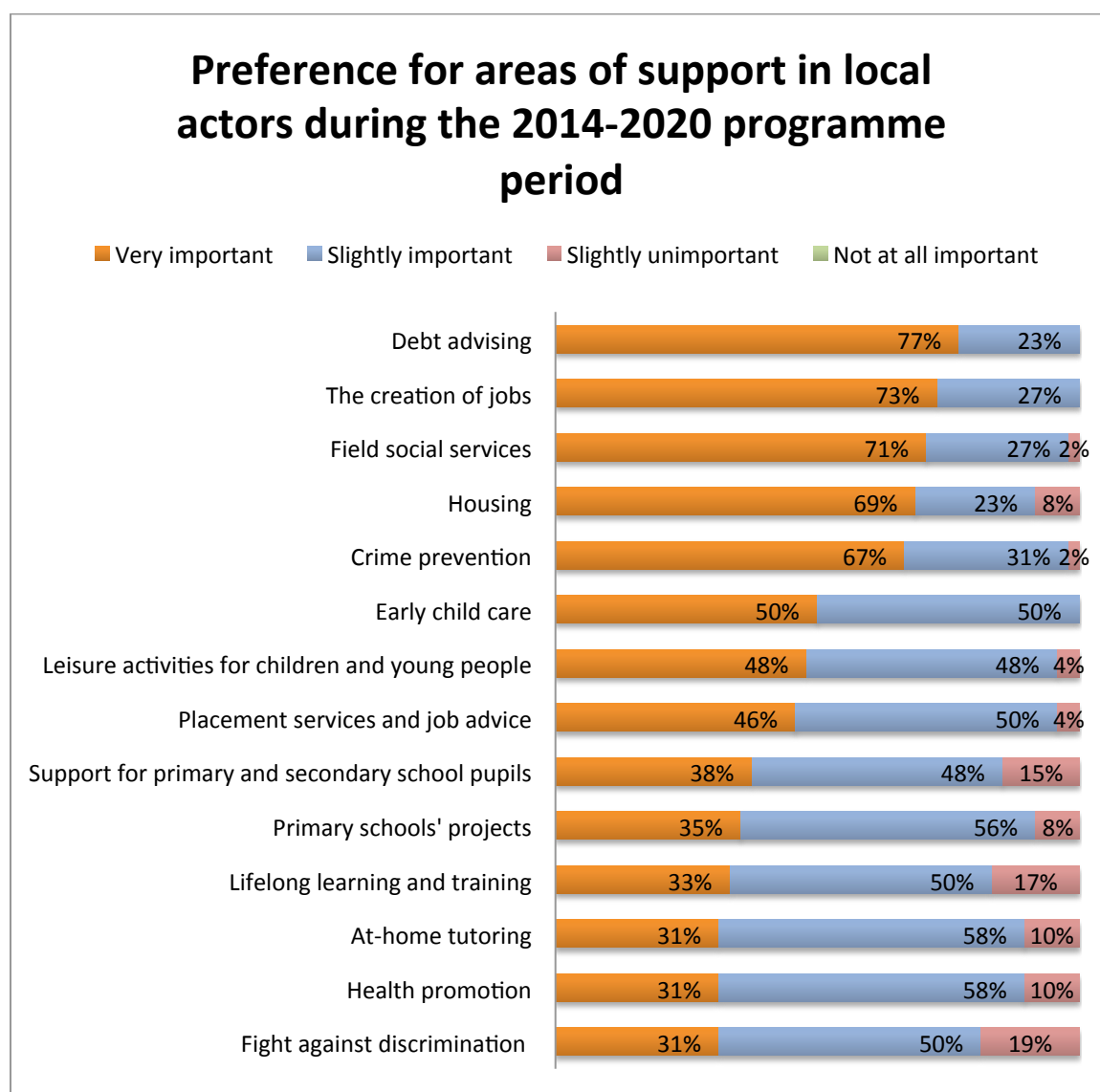


The qualitative interviews and questionnaire survey which focused on the project sphere also included a question about the importance of the specific areas of social work to the needs of the target group, according to the way the respondents perceived them for the upcoming programme period. The respondents rated their importance primarily in line with the aims and missions of their own organizations: people dealing with childcare preferred topics concerning children and young people – tutoring, support for primary and secondary school pupils, leisure activities for children and young people and so on. Field social workers would emphasize the importance of field social services, the employees of the Labour Office the creation of jobs, placement services and job advice, and so on.

Surprisingly, the fight against discrimination was rated as having very little importance (together with at-home tutoring it received the lowest number of preferences).

However, the respondents were aware of the need to link the different activities together, especially on the upper levels of the graph (debt advising, job creation, field social services and housing). They do not believe it is possible to focus on a single one of these areas, but instead respect their interdependence and create a complex of mutually interlinked services.

Fig. 5.2 Preference for areas of support in local actors during the 2014-2020 programme period



From the perspective of the target group's needs, the most important thing is availability. This is also confirmed by some of the providers. Whenever they move the

service location further away from the locality (albeit sometime only a few hundred meters), its usage rates go down. For the target group it is also key to have confidence in the provider and to identify with the principles of the services provided. From this perspective, the most effective approach clearly seems to be the **community work method**. In locations where this method has been developed successfully, the inhabitants also expressed their needs in a much less ambiguous ways. In this sense it is necessary to keep in mind that the participation of the socially excluded in the life of their community or in the decisions that affect it is far from self-evident. People living in socially excluded environments need time and suitable forums so as to acquire the skills to reflect on and defend their needs and preferences in ways that the majority society can comprehend.

6. Preliminary recommendations for implementation during the programme period 2014-2020

Social exclusion is part of broader structural, regional and social changes and of the spread of poverty. In sensitive regions, we must therefore promote those regional development solutions that will lead to an increase in the overall quality of life. It is especially key to implement complex measures that focus on, simultaneously, the quality of housing and education and the strengthening of the social and economic growth in the given areas.

Argument: The character of social exclusion is changing and an increasing number of localities are moving to the areas of peripheries and inner peripheries. The series of local measures should therefore be coordinated, consistent and synergetic, and they must use the knowledge of local needs to target not only the socially excluded localities, but also the overall quality of life in the entire regions. Aid directed to these structurally affected regions should not concentrate only on the extreme forms of poverty, but should aim to lift up the entire region. In peripheral areas, the problems of the inhabitants of socially excluded localities cannot be separated from the problems of the rest of the population, especially given the overall burden on the region, its material deprivation, high unemployment rate and lack of jobs, the educational structure of its inhabitants and its transport accessibility.

Support key measures that fight against the roots of social exclusion rather than simply mitigating its symptoms; target primarily the structural conditions of the replication of social exclusion, especially through the interlinking of housing, employment and education policies.

Argument: The reason for the increase in the number of socially excluded localities and the socially excluded themselves is not only the intergenerational transmission of social exclusion, but also the deterioration in the situation of people previously at risk of social exclusion. Efficient social inclusion policies therefore strive to break the vicious cycles inherent in living in social exclusion. As a tool of stabilization of families and family environments, housing policies seem to be especially important, as well connections between measures aimed at employment and education as the primary tools of upward social mobility.

The measures used in socially excluded localities should follow measurable goals in real time and monitor their implementations.

Argument: The period between the last research in 2006 and its update in 2014 turned out to be relatively long with regards to the dynamic changes affecting the area of social exclusion. However, the knowledge base used by the policies addressing social exclusion must be able to react to these changes quickly. For the purposes of the Coordinated approach to socially excluded localities, the Agency for Social Inclusion has created a set of indicators to assess the completion of social integration strategies. We recommend that this framework is also adapted to evaluate projects outside the scope the Coordinated approach or series of inclusion measures. The monitored indicators should also be accompanied by measurable goals of integration policies and projects.

Projects aimed at social inclusion and inclusion policies should take the ethnic dimension of the problem into account. However, they should not be exclusively targeting the Roma inhabitants of SELs. Bringing in the ethnic dimension should be justified and should concern specific questions (stigmatization, discrimination, relationship to the majority, etc.).

Argument: The number of non-Roma inhabitants of the socially excluded localities is on the rise. However, as opposed to their non-Roma neighbours, the socially excluded Roma are also faced with strong mechanisms of exclusion based solely on their ethnicity. The ethnic dimension structures social exclusion in significant ways and multiplies some of its effects. On the other hand, the problems of the Roma and non-Roma socially excluded persons are in many ways similar: a low level of education, high unemployment rate, high level of indebtedness or the destabilization of families.

Projects should include innovative elements in order to help overcome the strict delimitation of the target group and of the area on which the project is focused (e.g. mobile teams).

Argument: One of the successful solutions to overcoming the territorial limitations of projects in the support area 3.2 of the HREOP is the activity of the “mobile teams”, which are sent to individual localities within a region or a micro-region in response to their needs. The mobile team able to react to local developments (such as the creation of a new dormitory for socially vulnerable citizens), it can follow “its” clients into their new

homes and is also used to reduce the possible flare-ups of ethnic tensions within localities.

The holders of integrated strategies (e.g. municipalities) should encourage all relevant subjects (potential applicants) to become involved in the creation of integrated strategies.

Argument: Integrated instruments are primarily conceived for the implementation of regional policies. They are based on the principle of “creating space” for an initiative to be funded from below, i.e. from the level of regional actors – holders of integrated instruments (towns, groups of towns and municipalities). Our field research has shown that whenever the applicants cooperated with municipal and regional authorities as partners in the project, we saw an effect on the inclusion of the given project in the integrated strategies of territorial development. This kind of cooperation is beneficial because it helps ensure the sustainability and synergic effect of project activities.

Ensuring that local social integration measures are well-targeted, coordinated, consistent and synergic.

Argument: These principles are part of the Methodology for a Coordinated approach to SELs; however, we recommend that they be also applied in the localities not included in the Coordinated approach. We recommend ensuring that these projects are in line with the municipality’s general policy (e.g. combining debt counselling services with informing the debtors about their debt position or with partial debt relief) and with inclusion measures implemented locally (e.g. the possibility to work off some of the debt owned to the municipality through community service).

Paying attention to the coordination of individual projects and the coordination of activities, as well as informing project implementers and policy-makers on the local and regional level, thus encouraging the synergic effect of the activities developed and of individual projects.

Argument: Functioning platforms such as relevant community planning working groups do address the issues of coordination in social work, but in most cases only in terms of its content and on a broader level. They pay little attention to coordinating projects that are usually created fully within the competence of individual applicants. In terms of the content of projects, the project implementers do draw on the local social work plans;

however, the conception of specific projects is an internal matter and there are thus not sufficient conditions for the application of synergic effects between the implemented projects. Formally, there is an effort to show that local coordination of projects does work, but in reality both local project coordination and the monitoring of their potential duplication in terms of content are insufficient.

Supporting the creation of bridging platforms to encourage a dialogue between project implementers, national policy makers and the expert community.

Argument: Project implementers often develop expertise that can be used by policy-makers on the national level; at the same time, local projects may be created without being sufficiently linked to national strategic documents or expert recommendations. The creation of platforms which allow for the exchange of experience between project implementers, national policy makers and experts can improve the quality of work on the local level, but also help promote the creation of evidence-based conceptual policies.

Linking together the actions of different types of subjects, encouraging the involvement of the Czech National Police in social work.

Argument: While inquiring about the respondents' level of awareness regarding the projects under review and the character of cooperation between the project implementers and other subjects, we found that in most cases the contact points of the National Police function almost exclusively outside the network of inclusion actors and are little affected by cooperation with the activities of social service providers.

Adequately linking and coordinating projects funded by the Employment OP (e.g. educational projects) with national and systemic projects focusing on employment and education.

Argument: The fact that completing a retraining course does not increase one's chances of finding employment is highly demotivating, not only for the members of the target group -- the inhabitants of SELs. More emphasis must be put on choosing suitable project activities that are in line with the needs of both the socially excluded and their potential employers; in this sense, more positive attention must be paid to motivating employers.

Supporting projects aimed at micro-regions or groups of municipalities.

Argument: Given the high degree of intra-regional migration and the dissolution of large SELs into smaller localities dispersed over a vaster area, we recommend, in addition to strengthening mobile teams, to also support projects targeting specific groups of municipalities or micro-regions. Also, small municipalities often lack the absorption capacity necessary to implement adequate inclusive measures.

Supporting projects in giving the target group access to active involvement in community planning and project creation.

Argument: From the perspective of social services, community planning has certain limitations, especially the low involvement of the direct target group – inhabitants of the SEL – in the formulation and resolution of problems. Respondents also criticized the lack of feedback and, if the meetings did take place, the absence of institutional representatives whose activities were closely linked with the problem at hand, so that the discussion and possible solutions were significantly limited. Social workers complained to the interviewers about the excessive formality of some of these discussions or the mere commenting on materials via correspondence, without a clear feedback on the outcome of the comments raised. They also spoke critically about the dominant tendency of local authorities to favour presenting positive attitudes and successful examples of social work.

Developing solutions to the shared needs of SEL inhabitants through community work.

Argument: Projects have shown that community work is very suitable for working with inhabitants of SELs, because it looks for the resources for change directly in the community. The main advantage of community work – its ability to react, in terms of both its content and forms, to the changing needs of the population during its activation – has proven to be very helpful. Precisely because of the close linkage between the needs of the target group and stimulating its own activity community work deserves more attention. It is also necessary to clearly define its content, to support it systemically and allocate resources to it directly. Because community work is a long-term process, it would be useful to support it over the course of multiple years.

Review the system of the HREOP monitoring indicators, which is unsuitable especially to social work projects since it does not take into account the shifts in the target group's attitudes.

Argument: The reporting system tells us little about the actual success of the project. Most of the indicators monitored during the projects are subjective and difficult to assess. More frequently, the outcome of the project was a certain shift: in terms of the target group, a change in the degree of motivation or activity, in understanding one's own role in solving problems, a cultivation of a feeling of rootedness in a place and so on; in terms of the general public these were mostly changes in the way the majority society perceives the Roma. Some project implementers solve this lack by introducing, in addition to the so-called primary indicators defined by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, a report pertaining to the so-called secondary indicators, which monitor the changes in activation and motivation of the target group.

Focusing projects on elaborating an effective communication strategy towards both the target group and the majority.

Argument: The communication barrier often has to do with the complexity of the relationships between the majority society and the minority, as well as the lack of clarity as to how best support the elites originating from the socially excluded environment. Projects should also be focusing on creating a platform that will maintain this link. If a participative social environment is created locally, these persons will become involved. The communication strategies of the state administration must be adapted to the target group and communication networks must be set up in a way that the target group can understand and use. When involving the target group, it is desirable to use a partnership approach, the principles of community work and participative methods. Project activities should also strive to establish a dialogue between project implementers, the target group and the majority.

Appendix: Map Set

Living Allowance in 2007 and 2008

Localisation quotient of households receiving the Living allowance in Czech municipalities

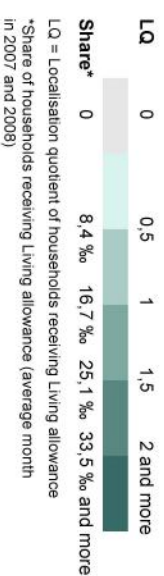
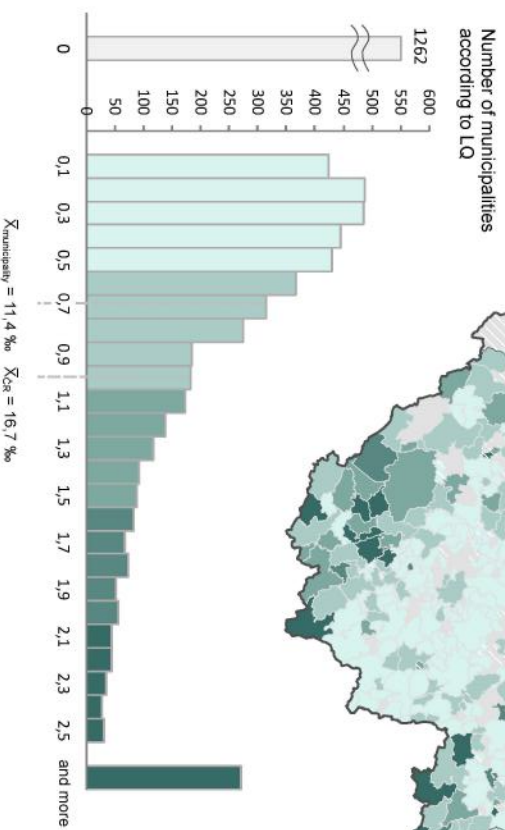
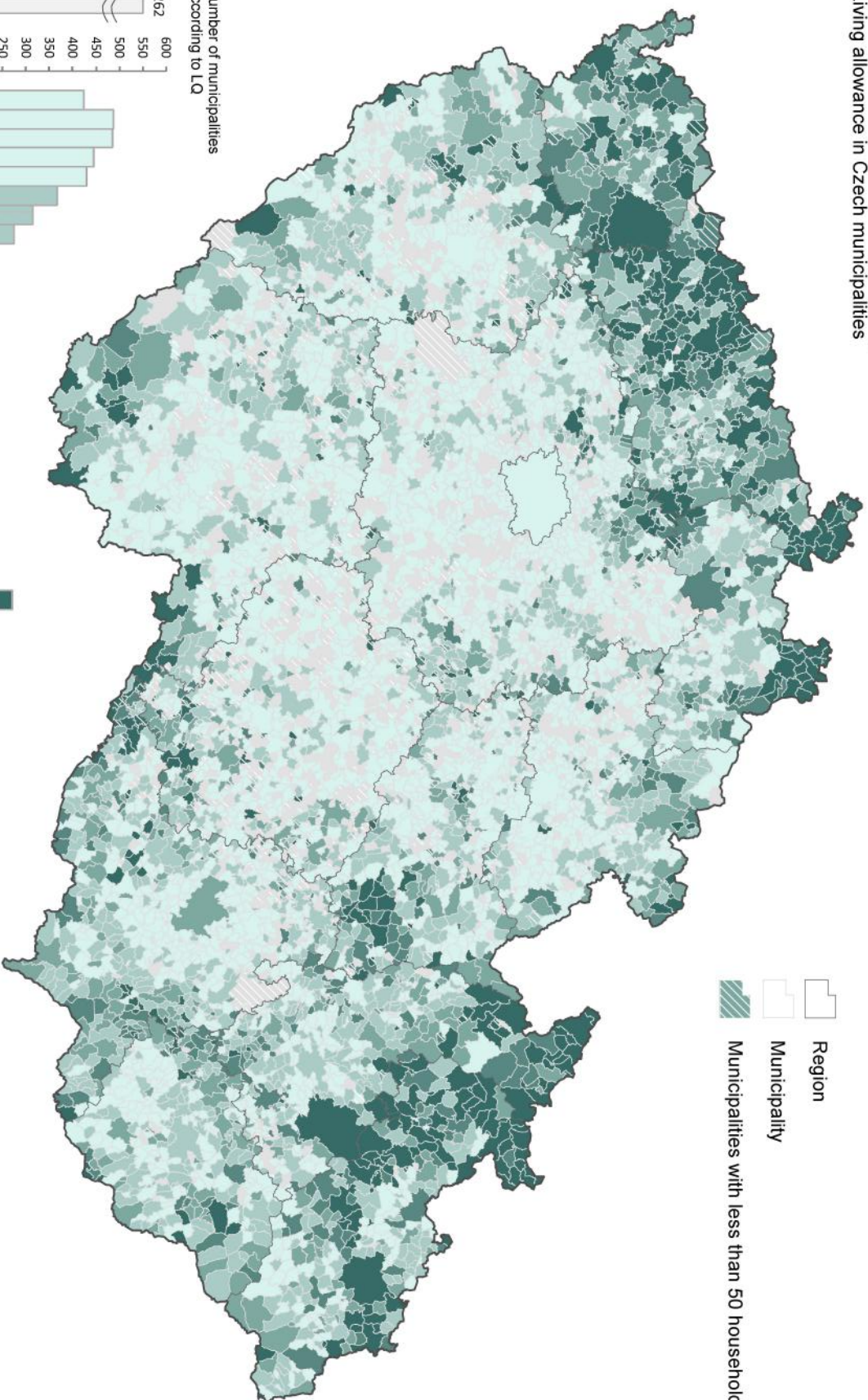
Authors:

Map design:
Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká,
Doc. RNDr. Martin Uřešedníček, Ph.D.
Cartographic and graphic processing:
Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Data sources:

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Czech Statistical Office (2011): Census of population and housing.



Localisation quotient (LQ)

The quotient compares the degree of concentration of a given phenomenon in a territorial unit with the phenomenon's representation across the territory as a whole.

$$LQ_i = R_i/R$$

R_i – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon in the territorial unit i

R – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon across the whole territory

Localisation quotient is equal to 1 if the incidence of the phenomenon in the territorial unit is equal to its incidence across the entire territory.

Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014



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Living Allowance between 2009 and 2011

Localisation quotient of households receiving the Living allowance in Czech municipalities

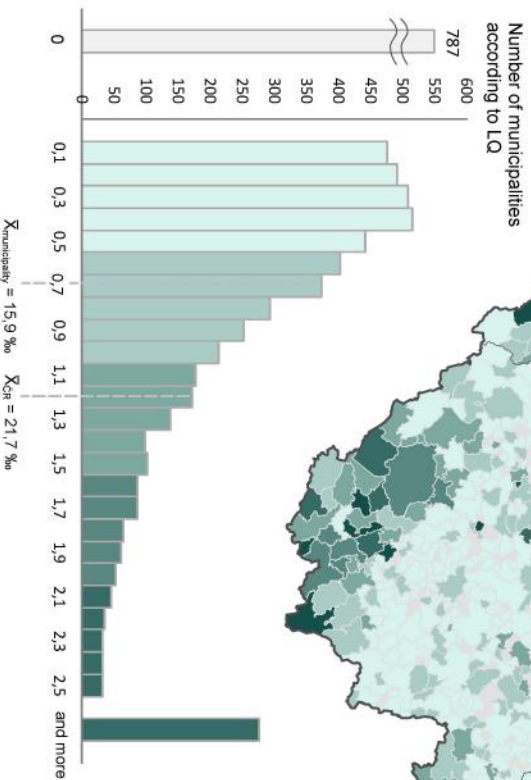
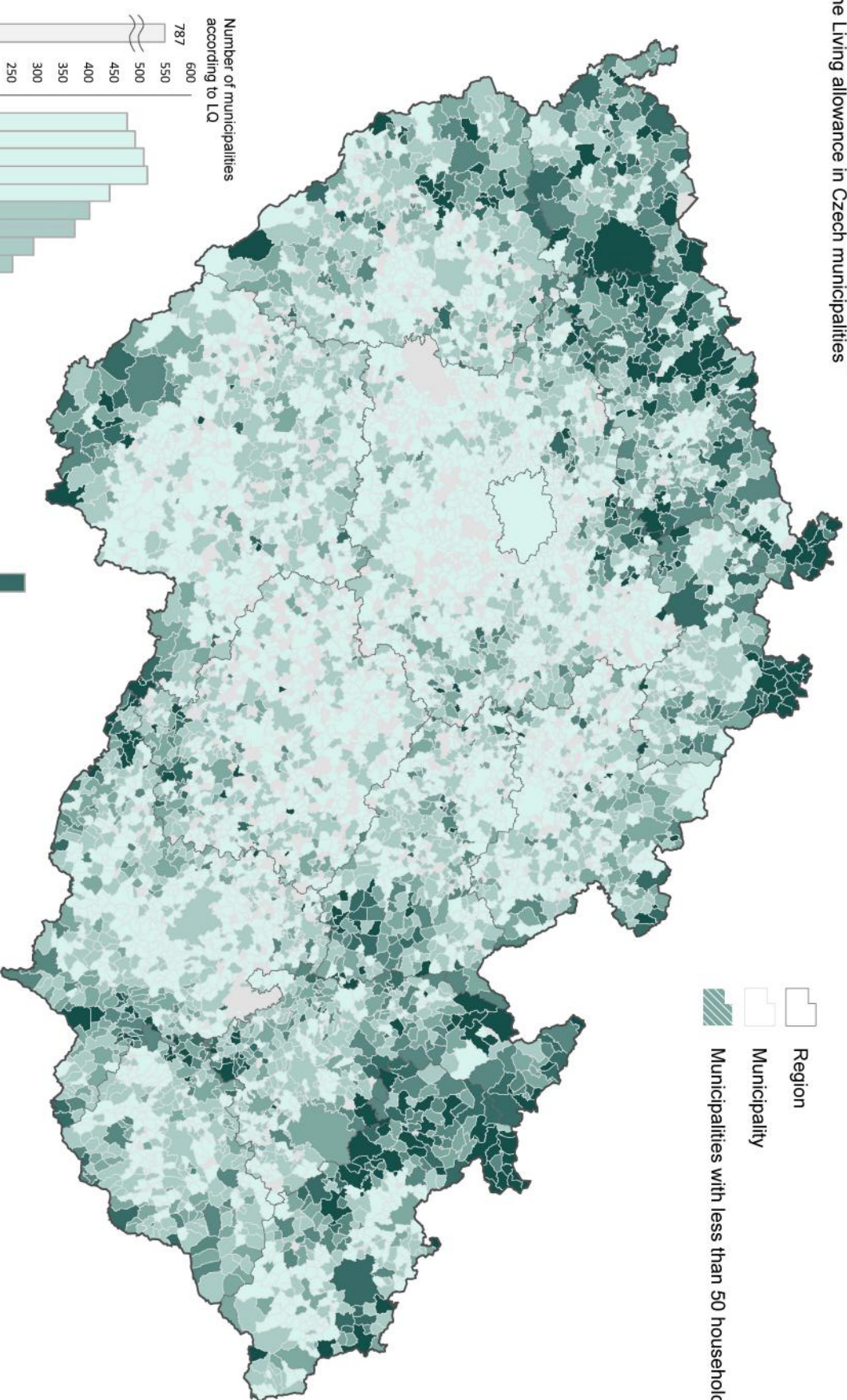
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Czech Statistical Office (2011): Census of population and housing.



LQ 0 0,5 1 1,5 2 and more

Share* 0 10,8 % 21,7 % 32,5 % 43,4 % and more

LQ = Localisation quotient of households receiving Living allowance

*Share of households receiving Living allowance (average month between 2009 and 2011)

Localisation quotient (LQ)

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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Living Allowance in 2014

Localisation quotient of households receiving the Living allowance in Czech municipalities

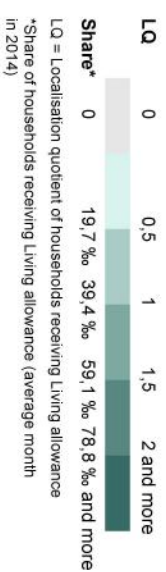
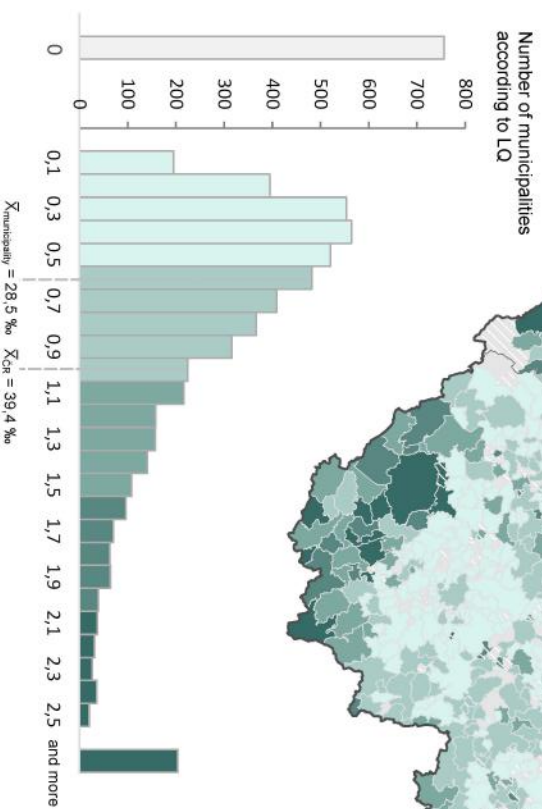
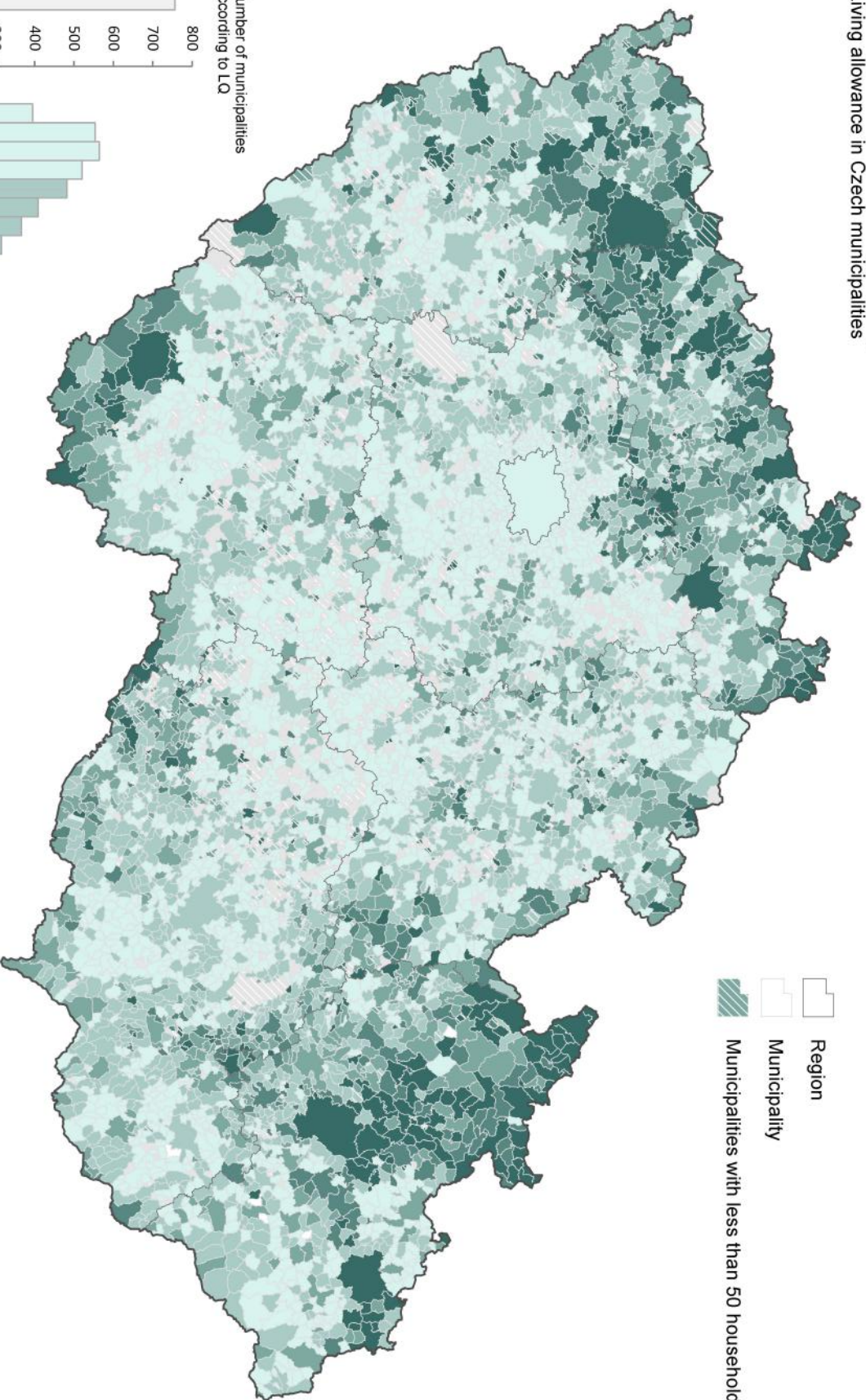
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0 20 40 80 km



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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Changes in the Living allowance between 2007 and 2014

Changes in the localisation quotient of households receiving Living allowance between the years 2007-2009 and 2010-2014*

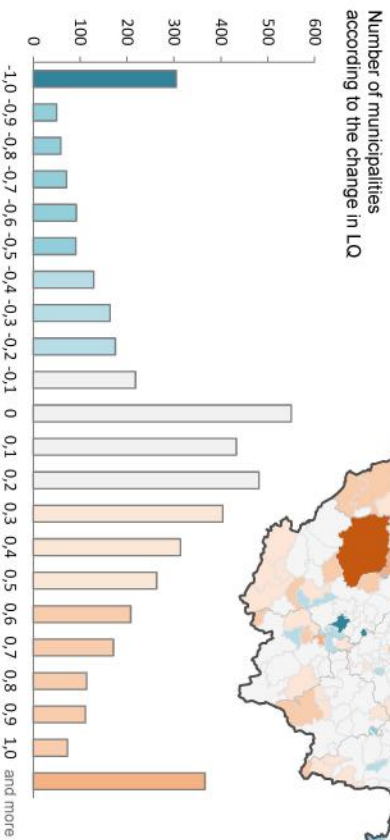
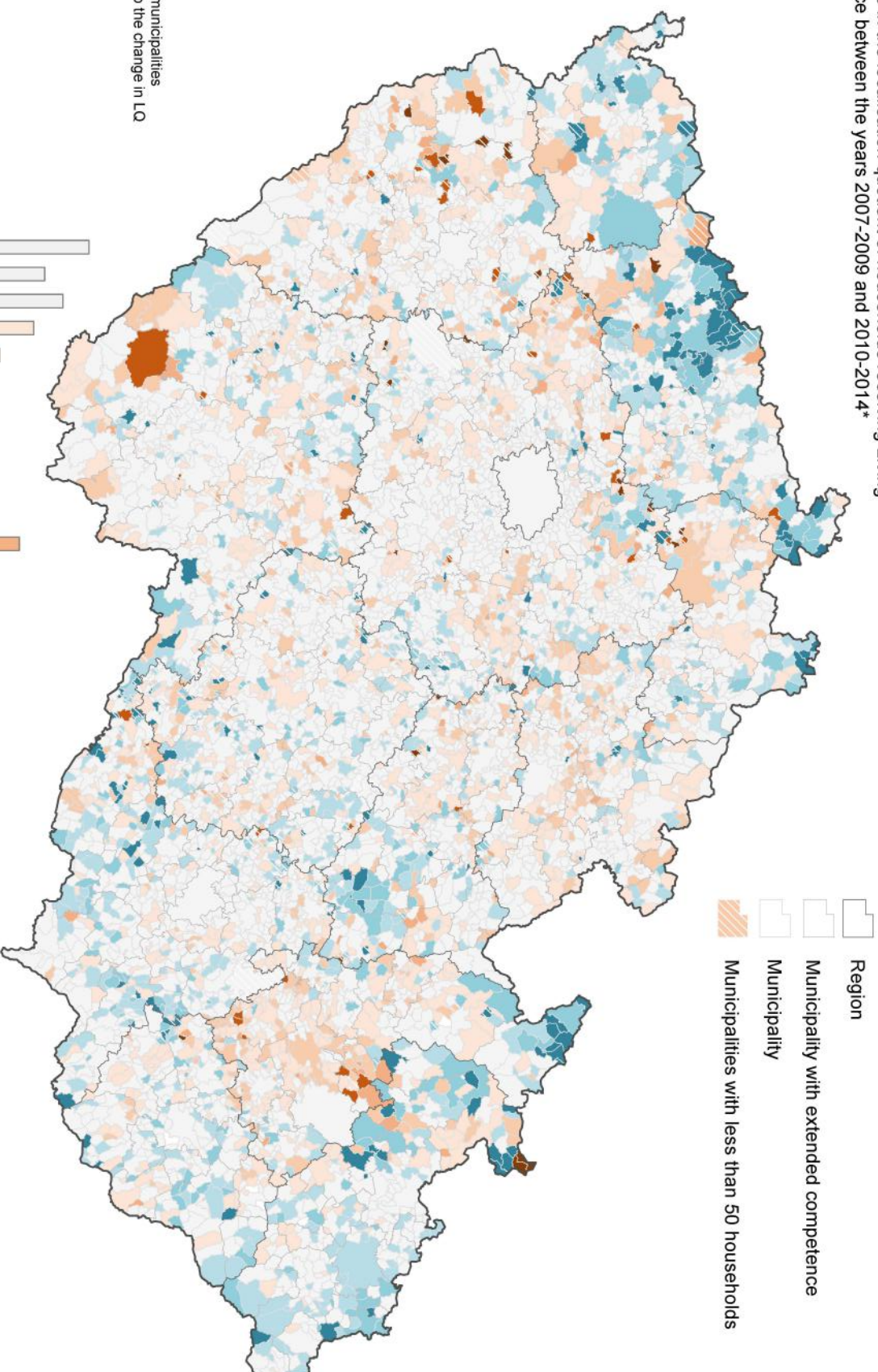
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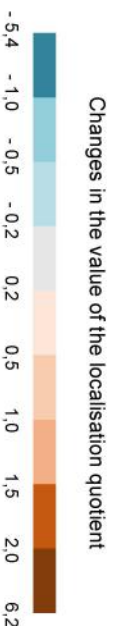
Data sources:

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Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Changes in the Living allowance between 2011 and 2014

Changes in the localisation quotient of households receiving Living allowance between the years 2011-2014*

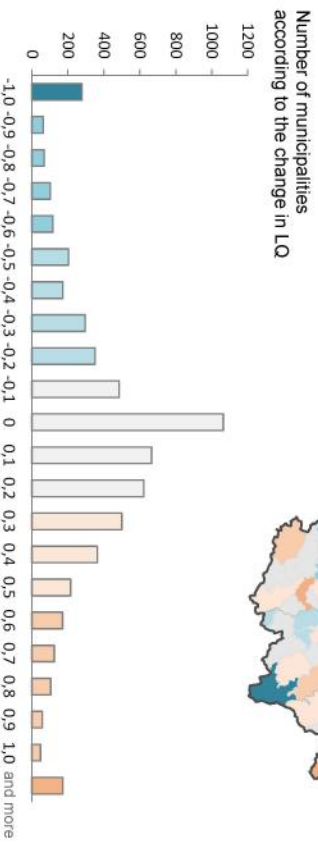
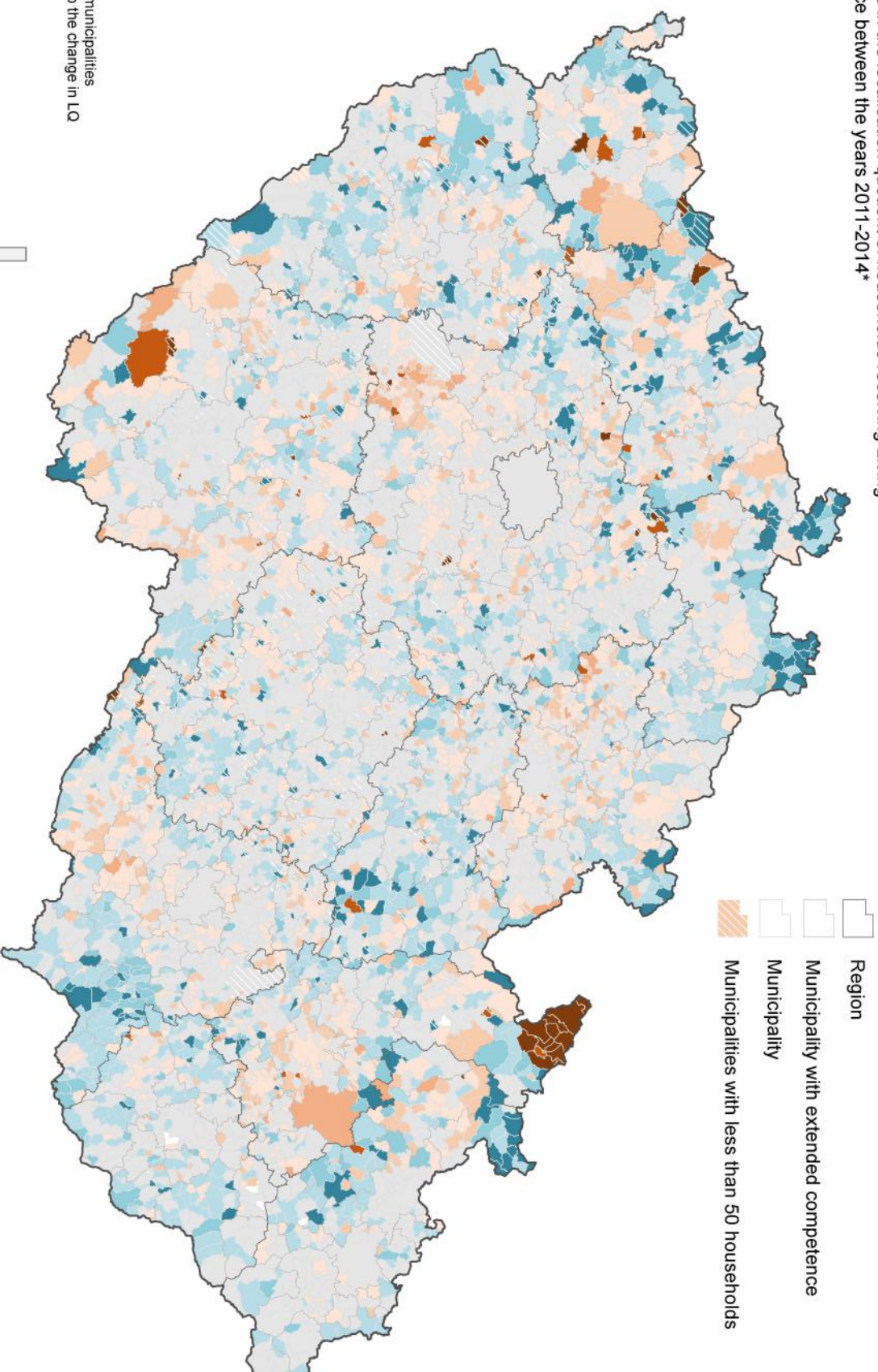
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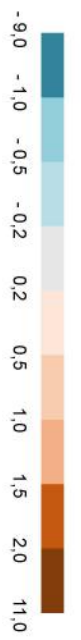
Data sources:

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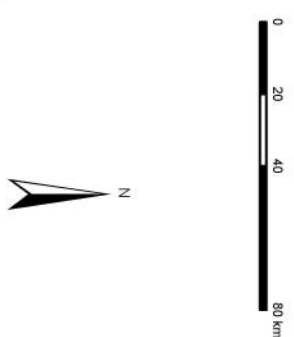
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Changes in the value of the localisation quotient



*The values above show the increase/decrease in LQ between 2011 and 2014



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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Housing supplement in 2007 and 2008

Localisation quotient of households receiving the Housing supplement in Czech municipalities

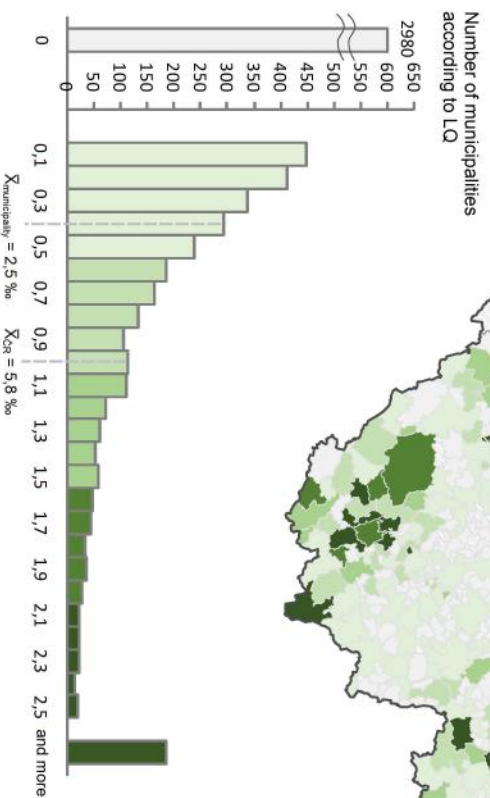
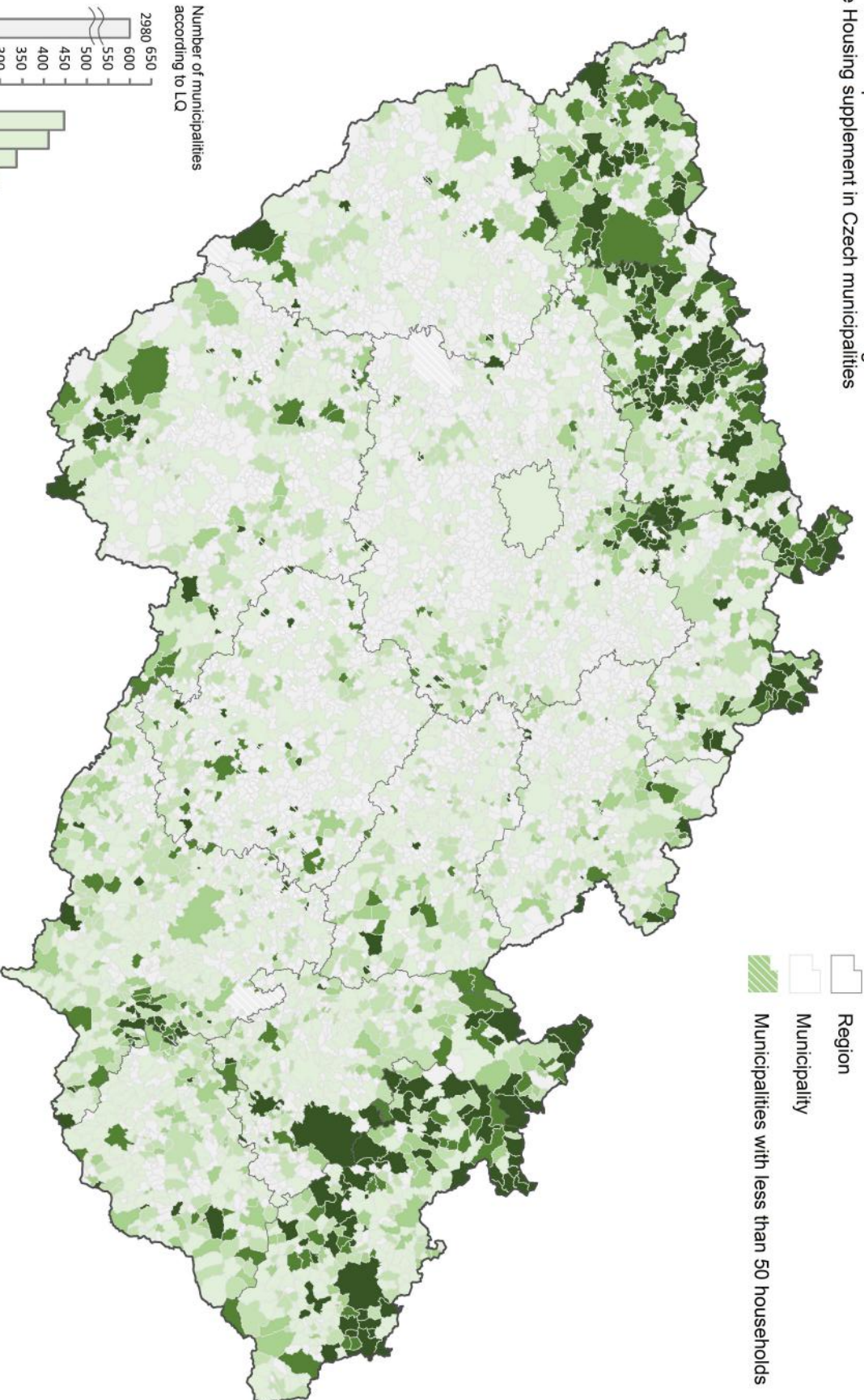
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LQ 0 0.5 1 1.5 2 and more

Share* 0 2.9 % 5.8 % 8.7 % 11.6 % and more

LQ = Localisation quotient of households receiving Housing supplement
*Share of households receiving Housing supplement (average month in 2007 and 2008)

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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Housing supplement between 2009 and 2011

Localisation quotient of households receiving the Housing supplement in Czech municipalities

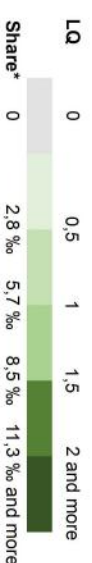
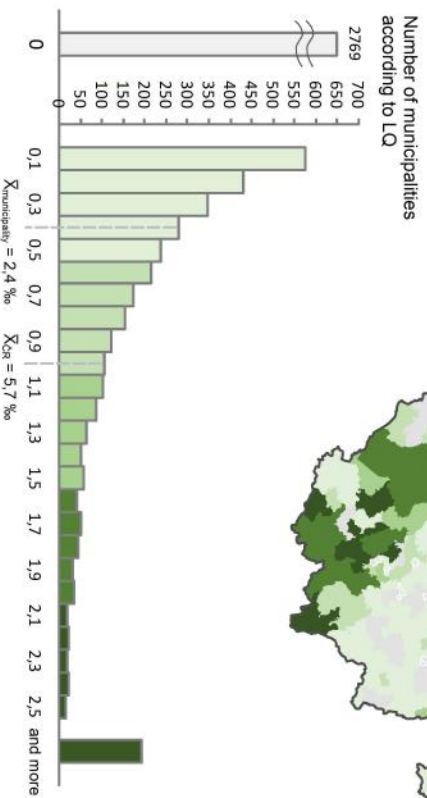
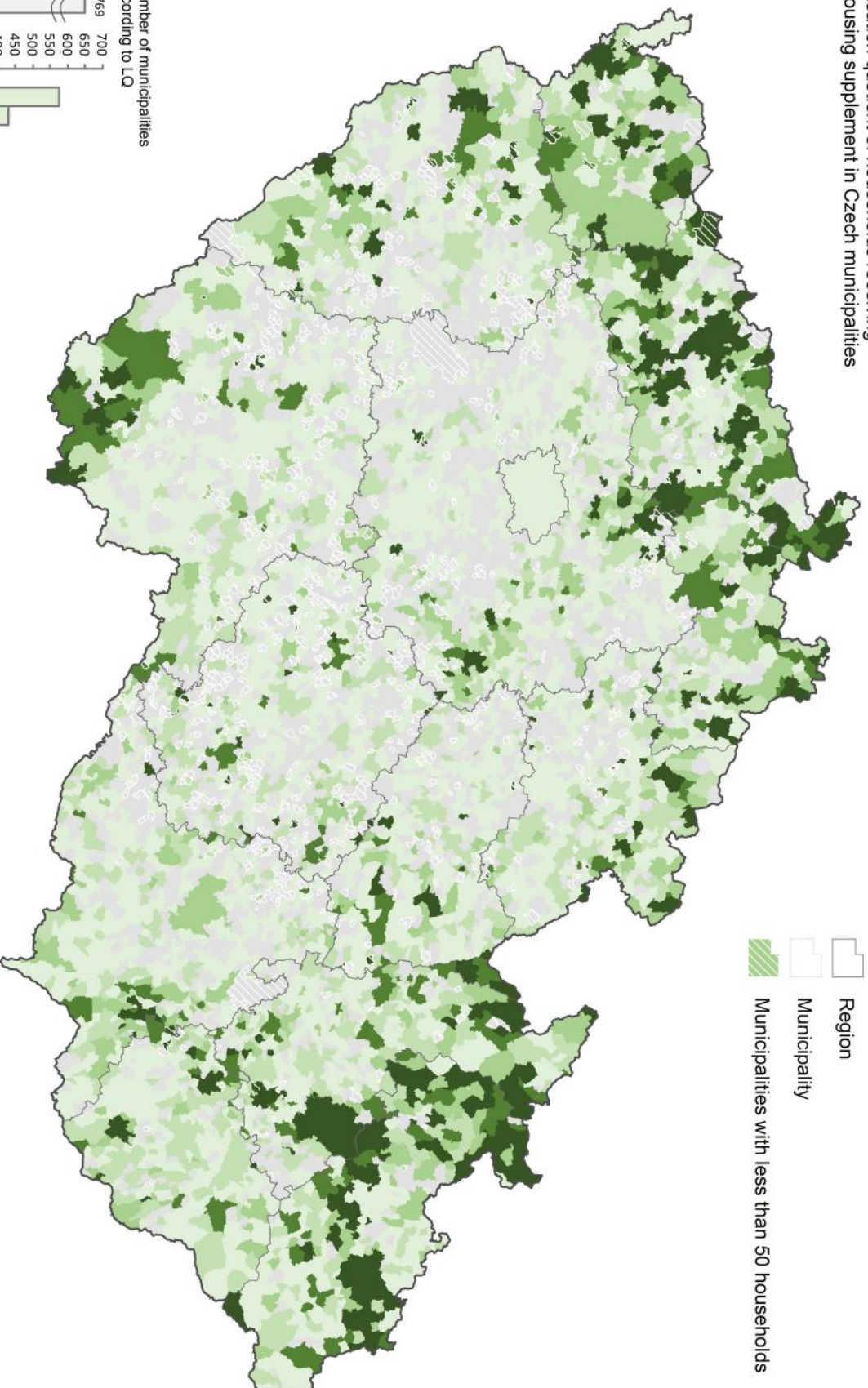
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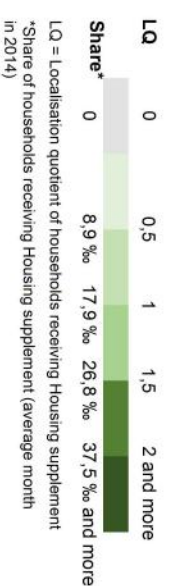
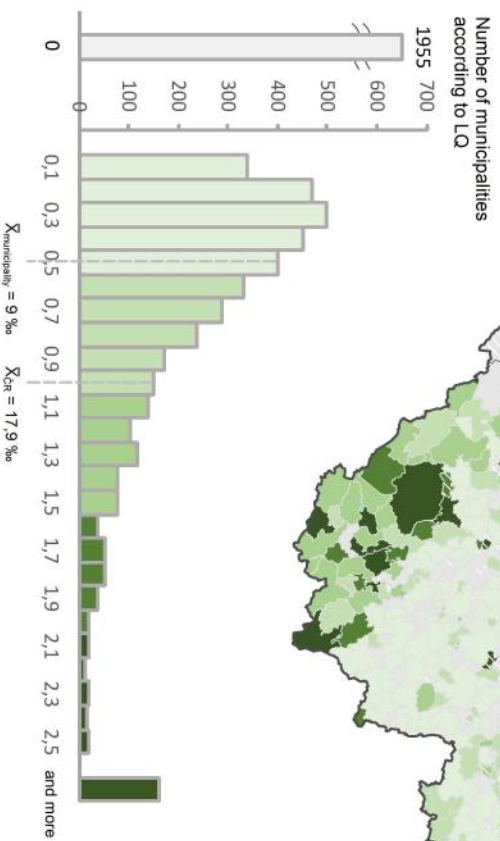
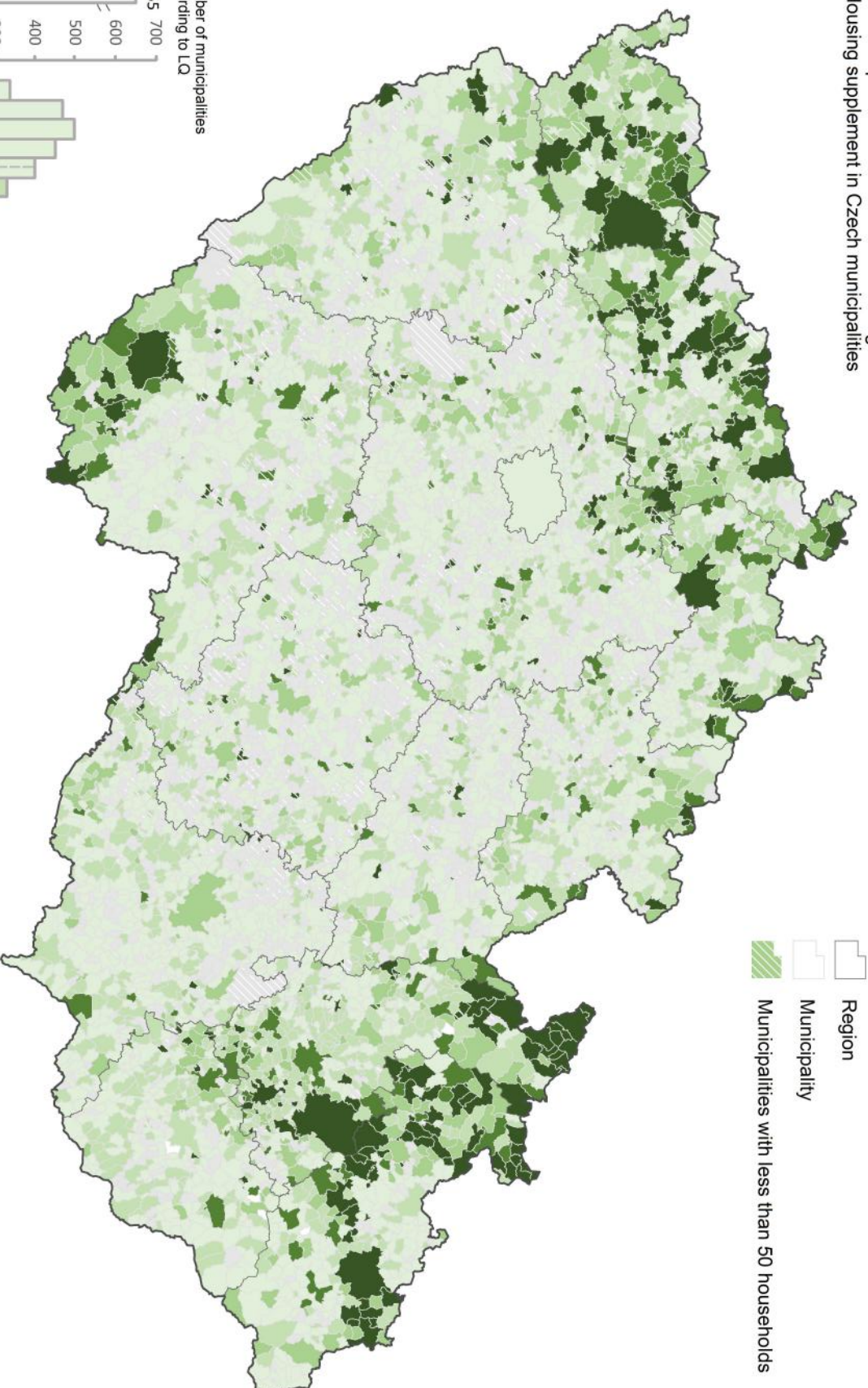
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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Changes in the Housing supplement between 2007 and 2014

Changes in the localisation quotient of households receiving Housing supplement between the years 2007-2009 and 2010-2014*

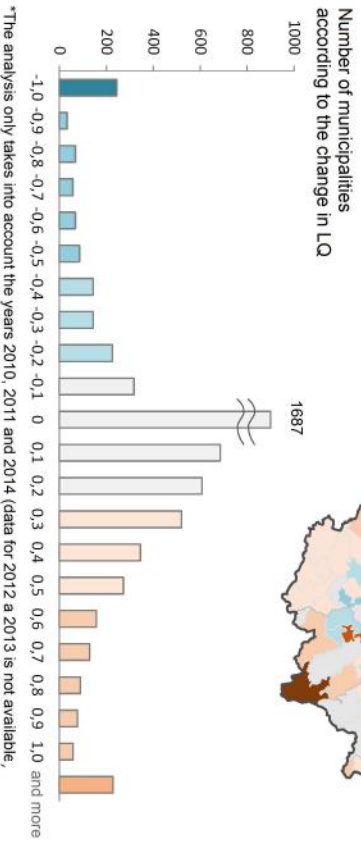
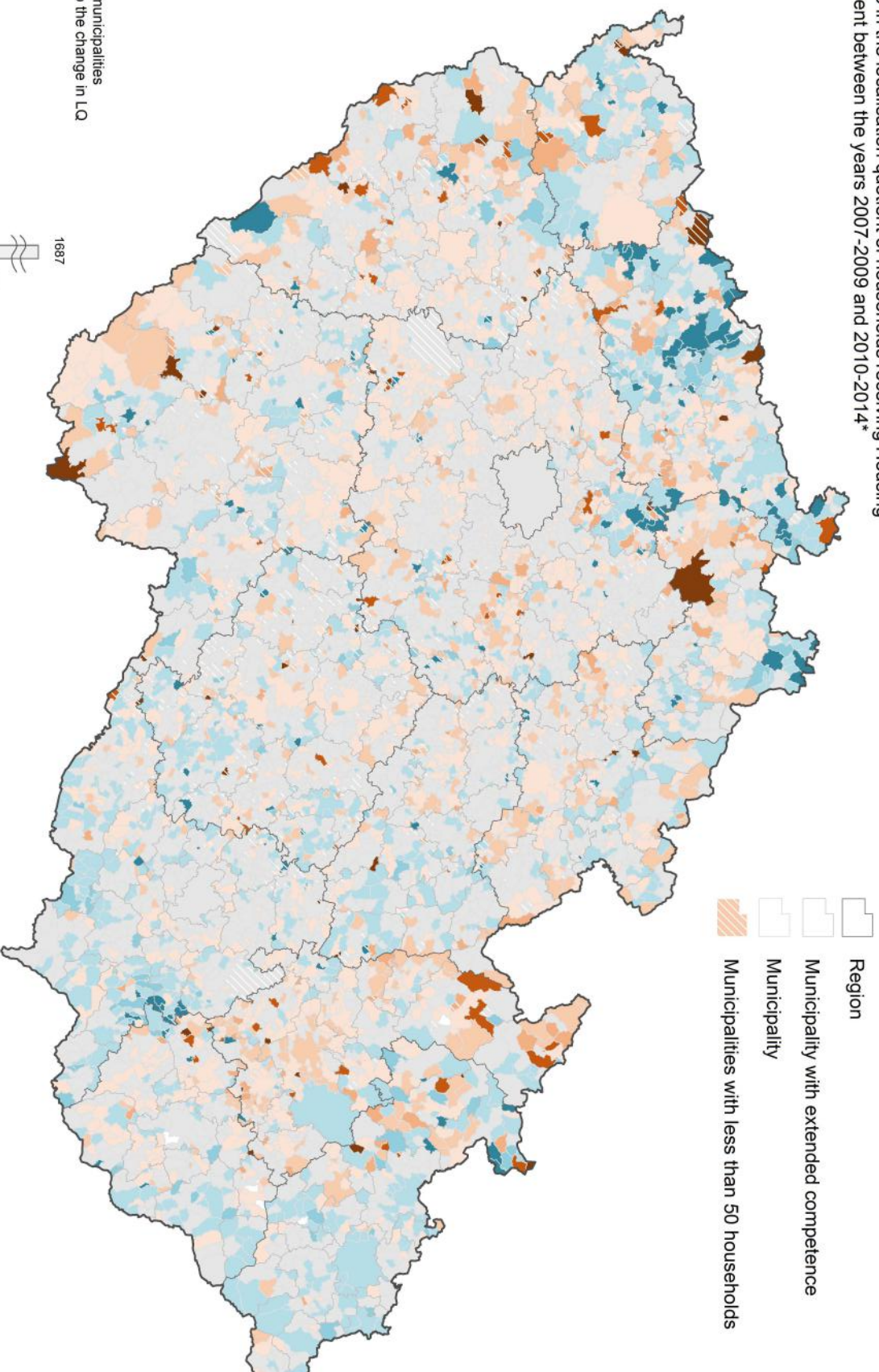
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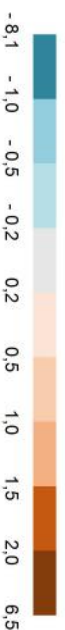
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Changes in the value of the localisation quotient



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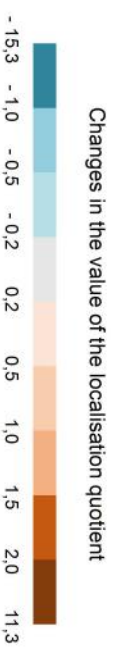
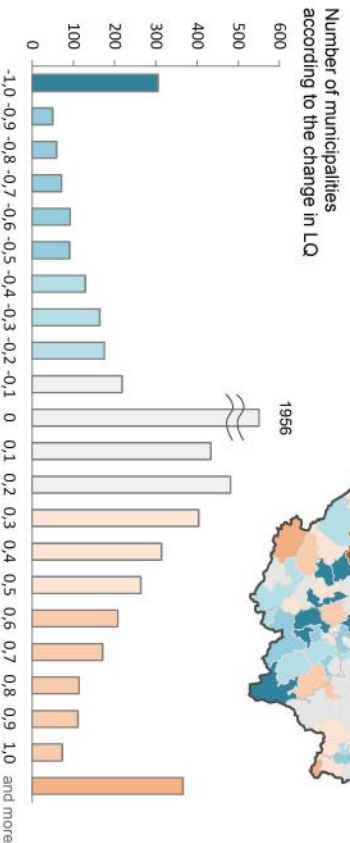
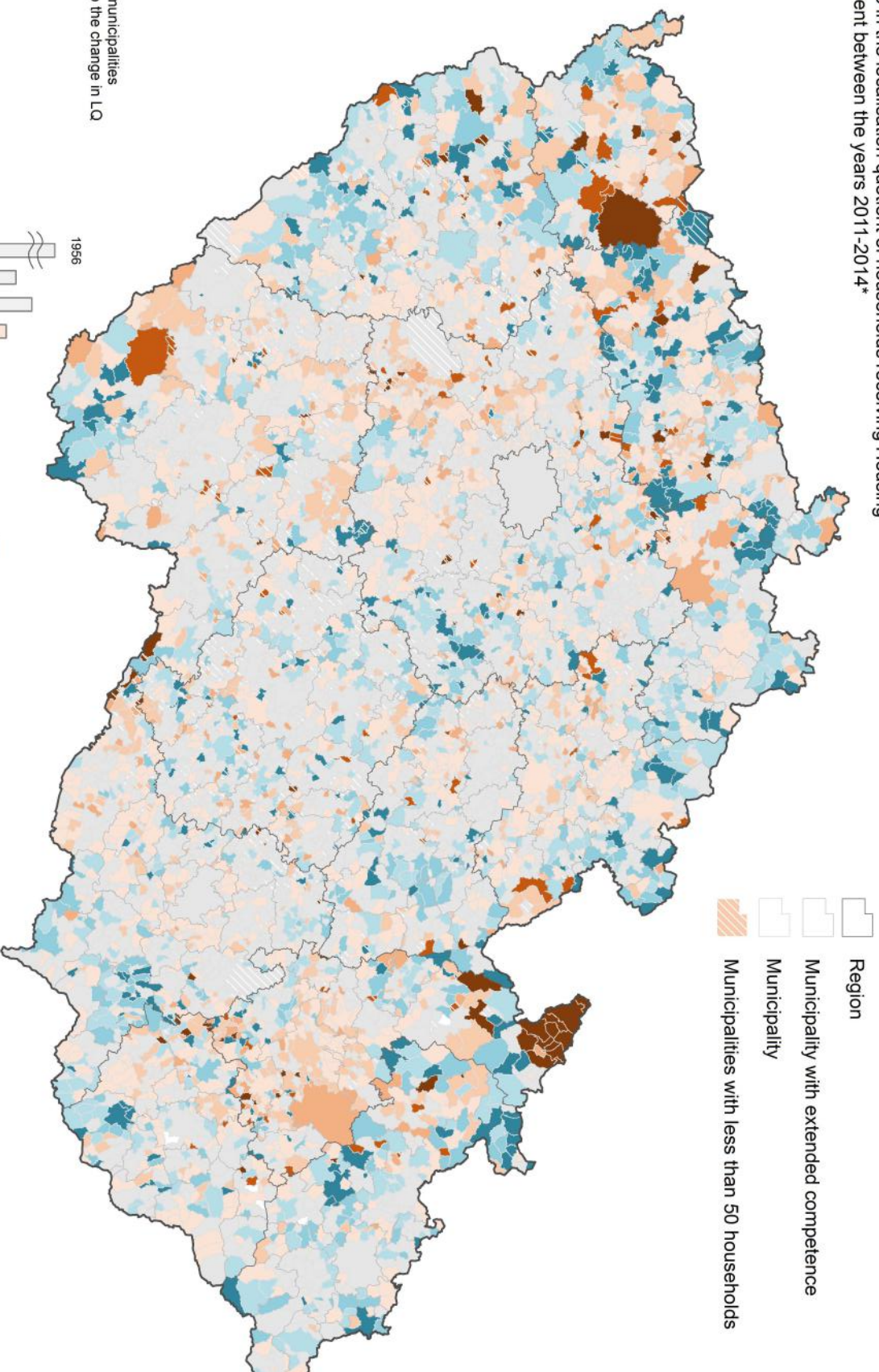
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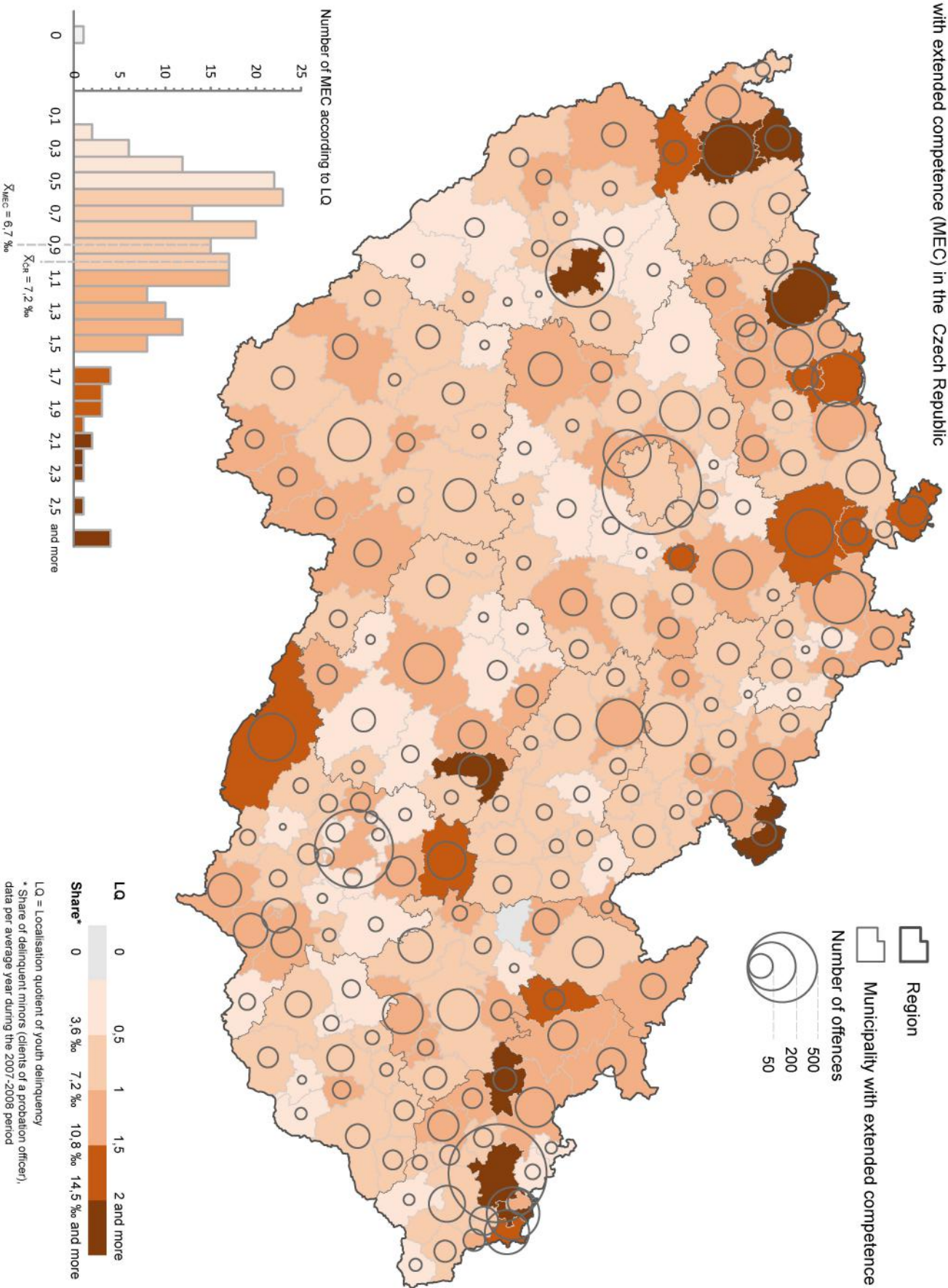
R_i – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon in the territorial unit i

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Youth delinquency in 2007 and 2008

Localisation quotient of youth delinquency in municipalities with extended competence (MEC) in the Czech Republic



Authors:

Map design:
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Cartographic and graphic processing:
Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Data sources:

Ministry of labour (2014): The number of clients of departments for Social and Legal Child Protection (OSPOD) - minor criminals (by MECs) in 2007 and 2008.

Czech Statistical Office (2013): The database of age structure of the population within municipalities in 2007-2008.



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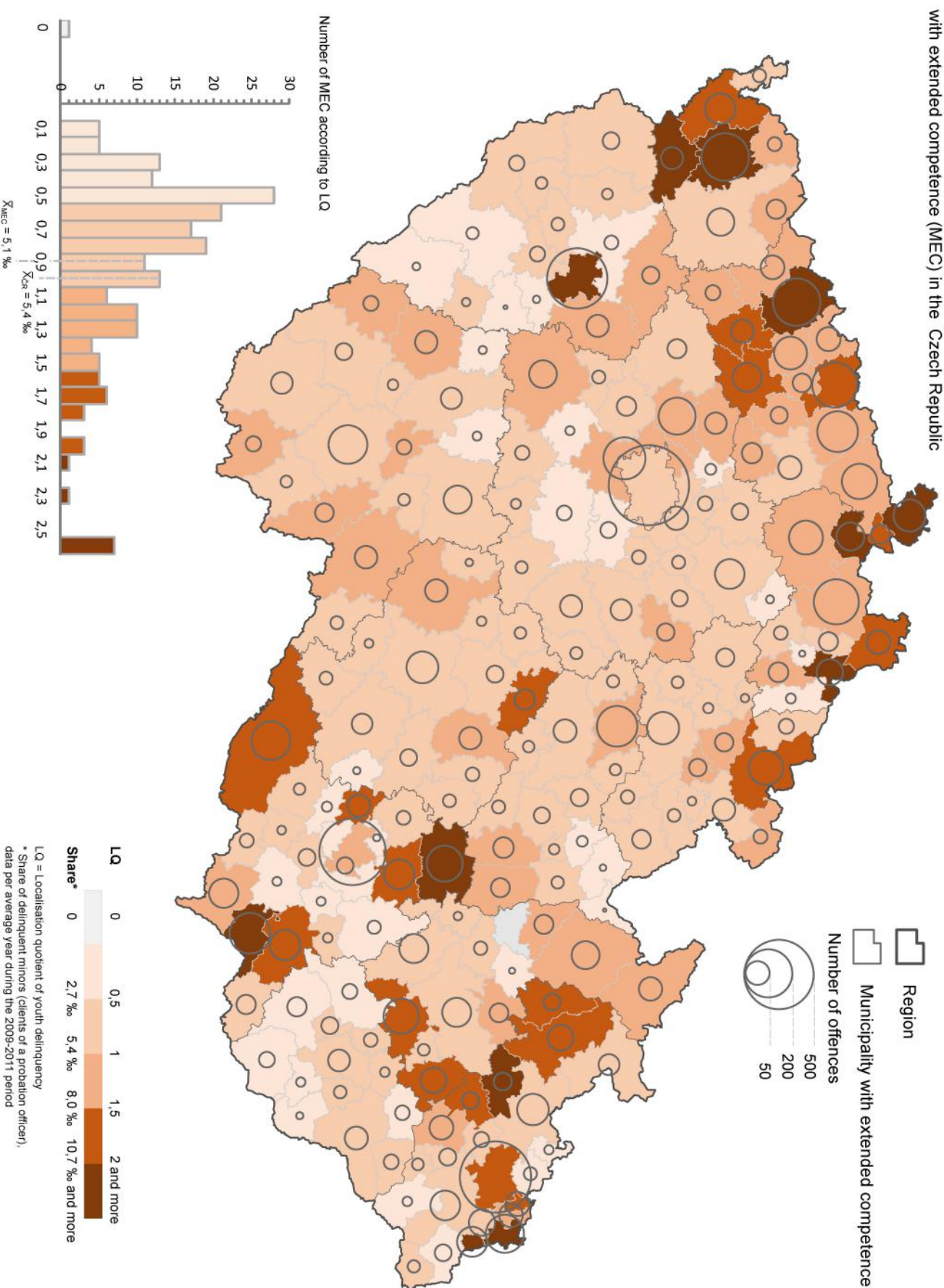
R – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon across the whole territory
Localisation quotient is equal to 1 if the incidence of the phenomenon in the territorial unit is equal to its incidence across the entire territory.

Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Youth delinquency between 2009 and 2011

Localisation quotient of youth delinquency in municipalities with extended competence (MEC) in the Czech Republic



LQ = Localisation quotient of youth delinquency
* Share of delinquent minors (clients of a probation officer), data per average year during the 2009-2011 period

Authors:

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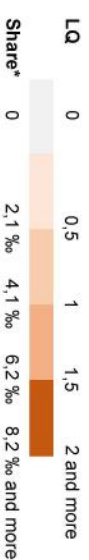
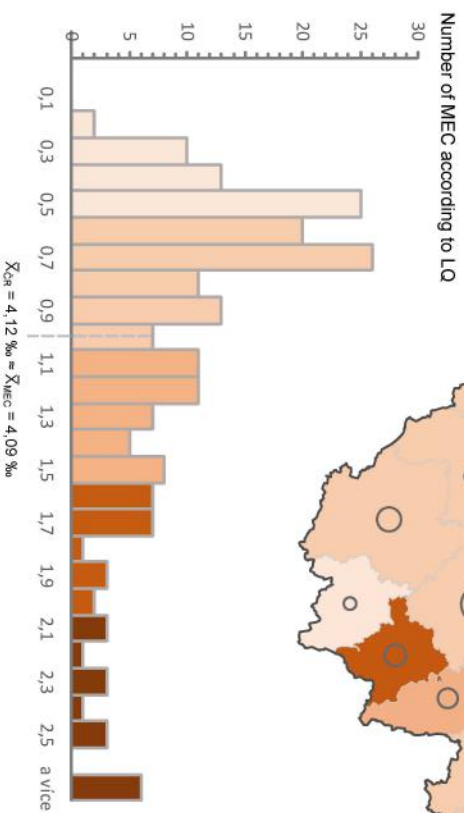
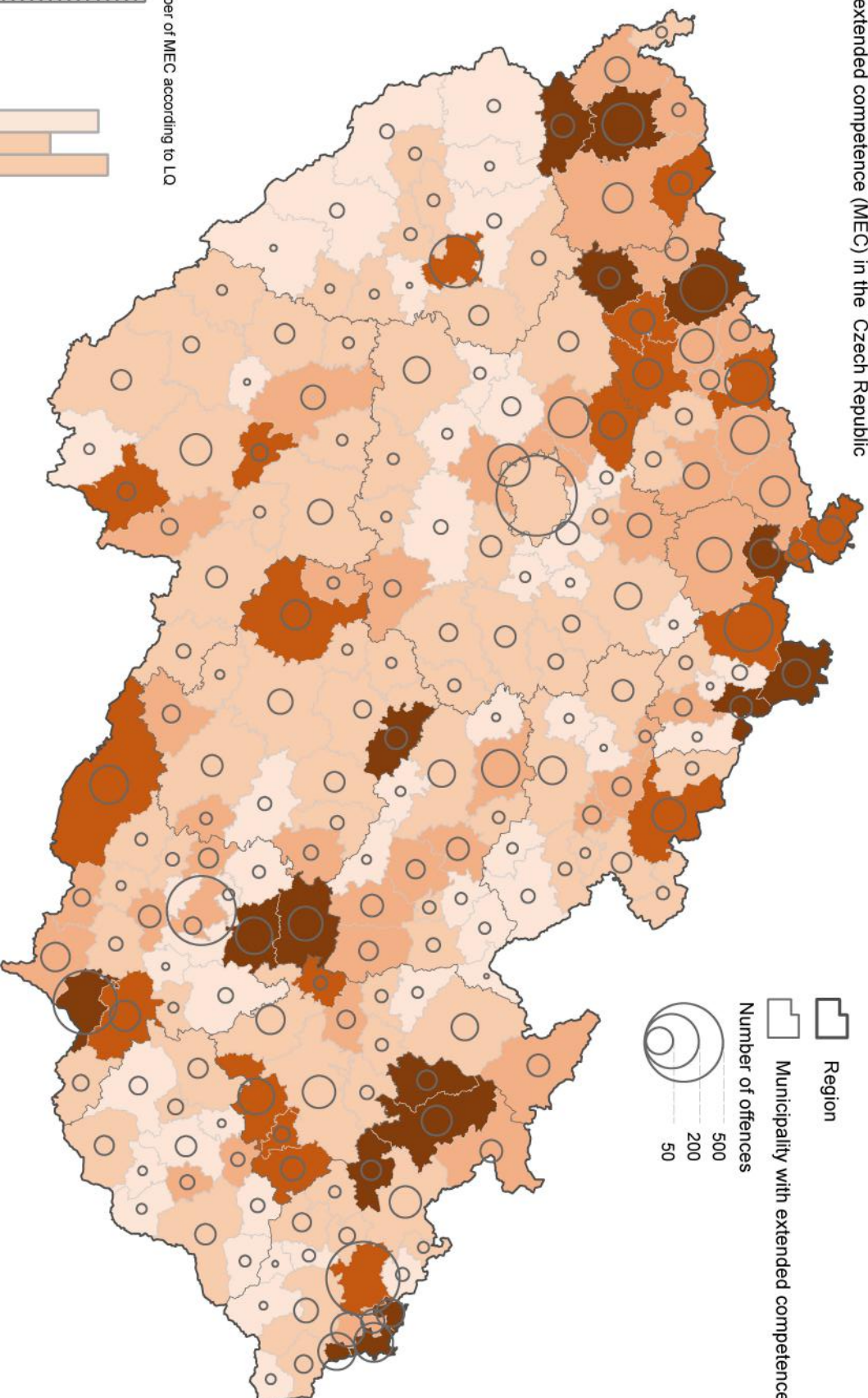
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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Unemployment in 2007 and 2008

Localisation quotient of unemployment rate in Czech municipalities

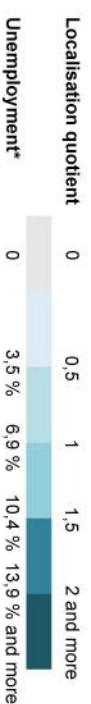
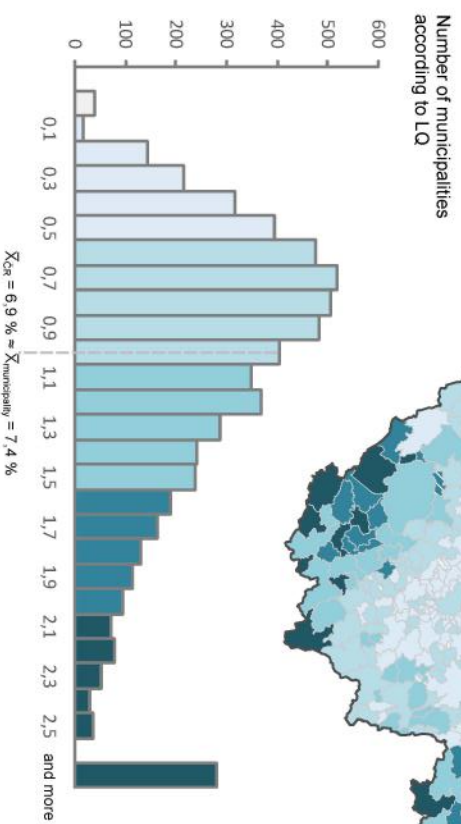
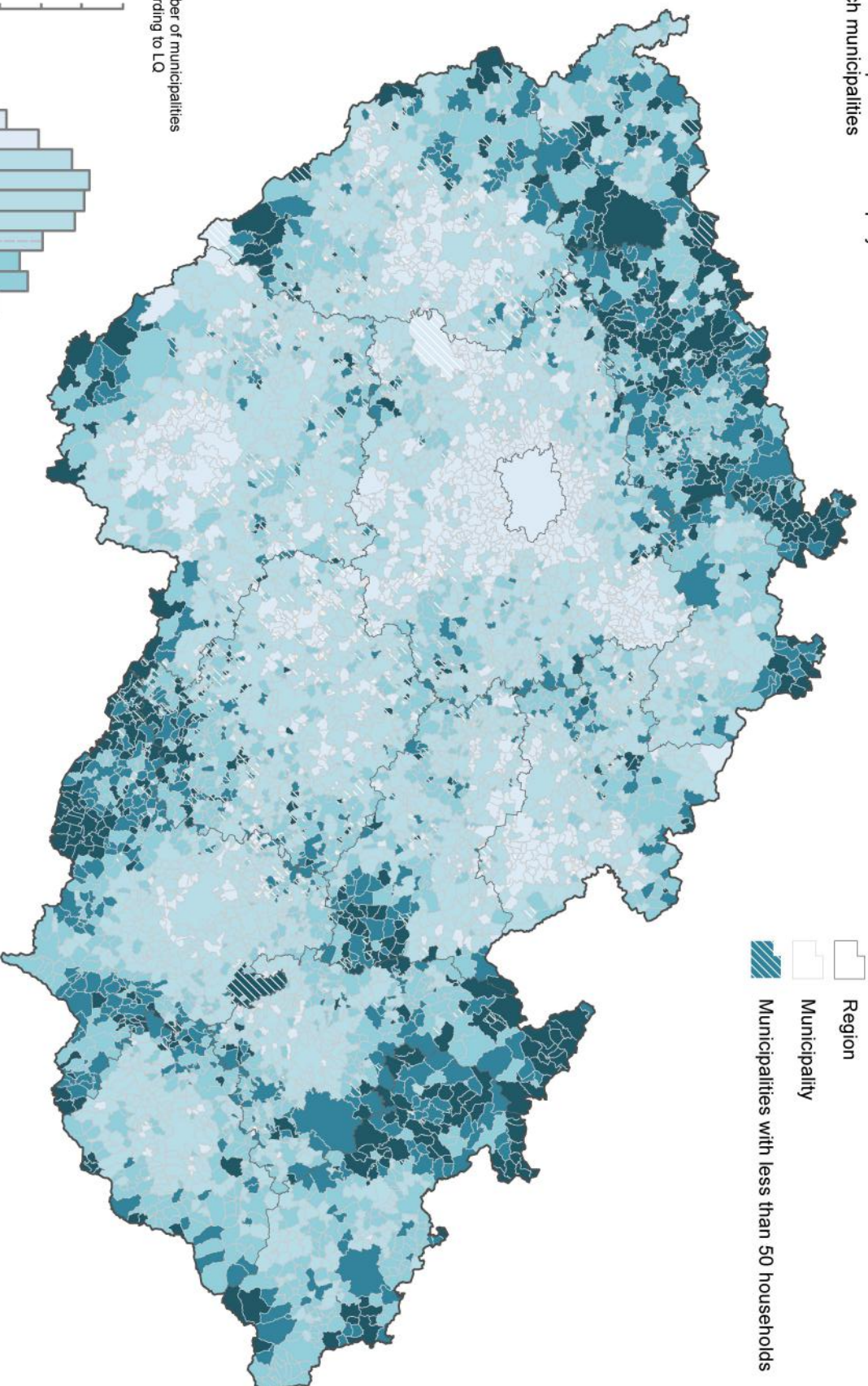
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Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Data sources:

Ministry of labour (2015): Number of reachable job-seekers in years 2007 and 2008.

Czech Statistical Office (2011): Census of population and housing.



* Rate of registered unemployment in March of the years 2007 and 2008 (number of reachable job-seekers per 100 economically active persons)

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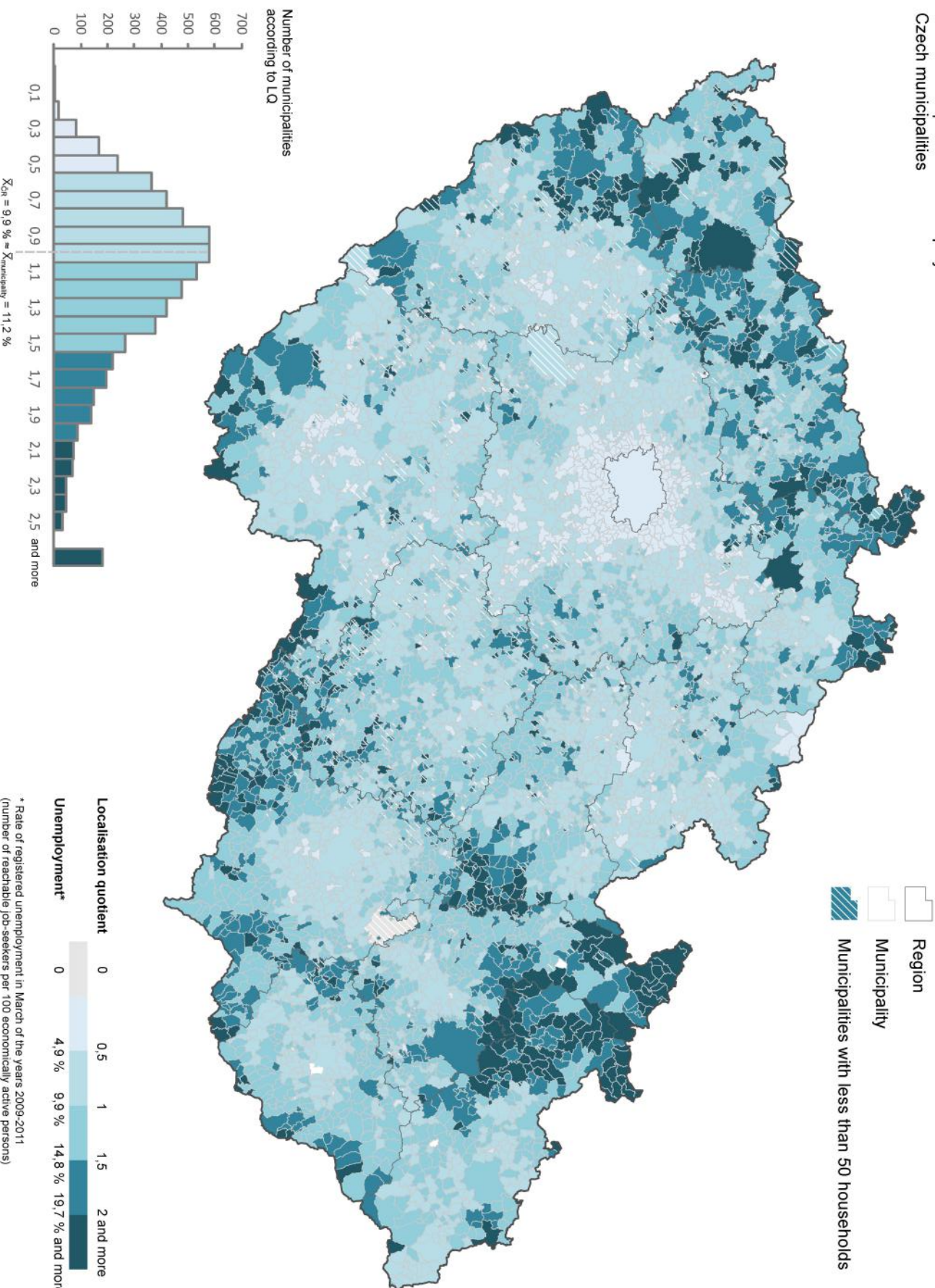
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Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
2014

Unemployment between 2009 and 2011

Localisation quotient of unemployment rate in Czech municipalities



* Rate of registered unemployment in March of the years 2009-2011 (number of reachable job-seekers per 100 economically active persons)

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 Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká,
 Doc. RNDr. Martin Ůředniček, Ph.D.
 Cartographic and graphic processing:
 Mgr. Zuzana Kopecká

Data sources:

Ministry of labour (2015): Number of reachable job-seekers between years 2009 and 2011.

Czech Statistical Office (2011): Census of population and housing.



Localisation quotient (LQ)

The quotient compares the degree of concentration of a given phenomenon in a territorial unit with the phenomenon's representation across the territory as a whole.

$$LQ_i = R_i/R$$

R_i – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon in the territorial unit i

R – relative incidence of the monitored phenomenon across the whole territory

Localisation quotient is equal to 1 if the incidence of the phenomenon in the territorial unit is equal to its incidence across the entire territory.

Map produced for:

Analysis of socially excluded localities
 2014

Unemployment in 2014 and 2015

Localisation quotient of unemployment rate in Czech municipalities

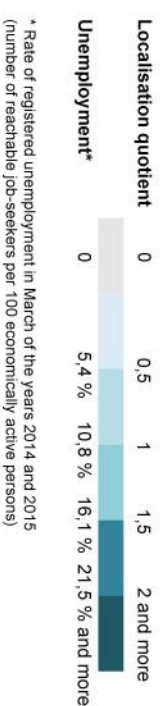
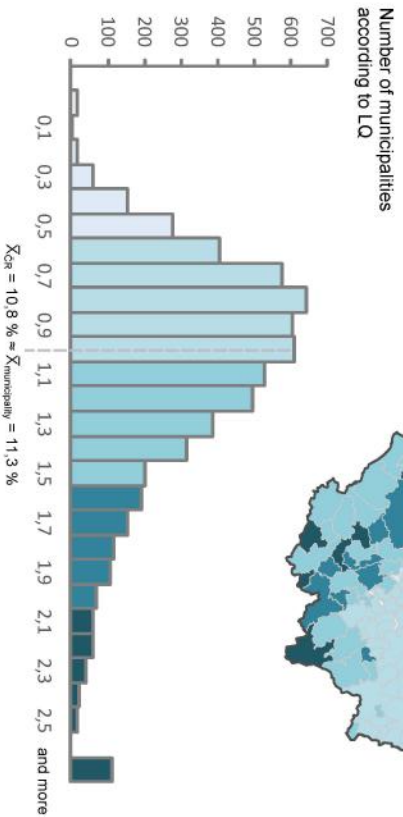
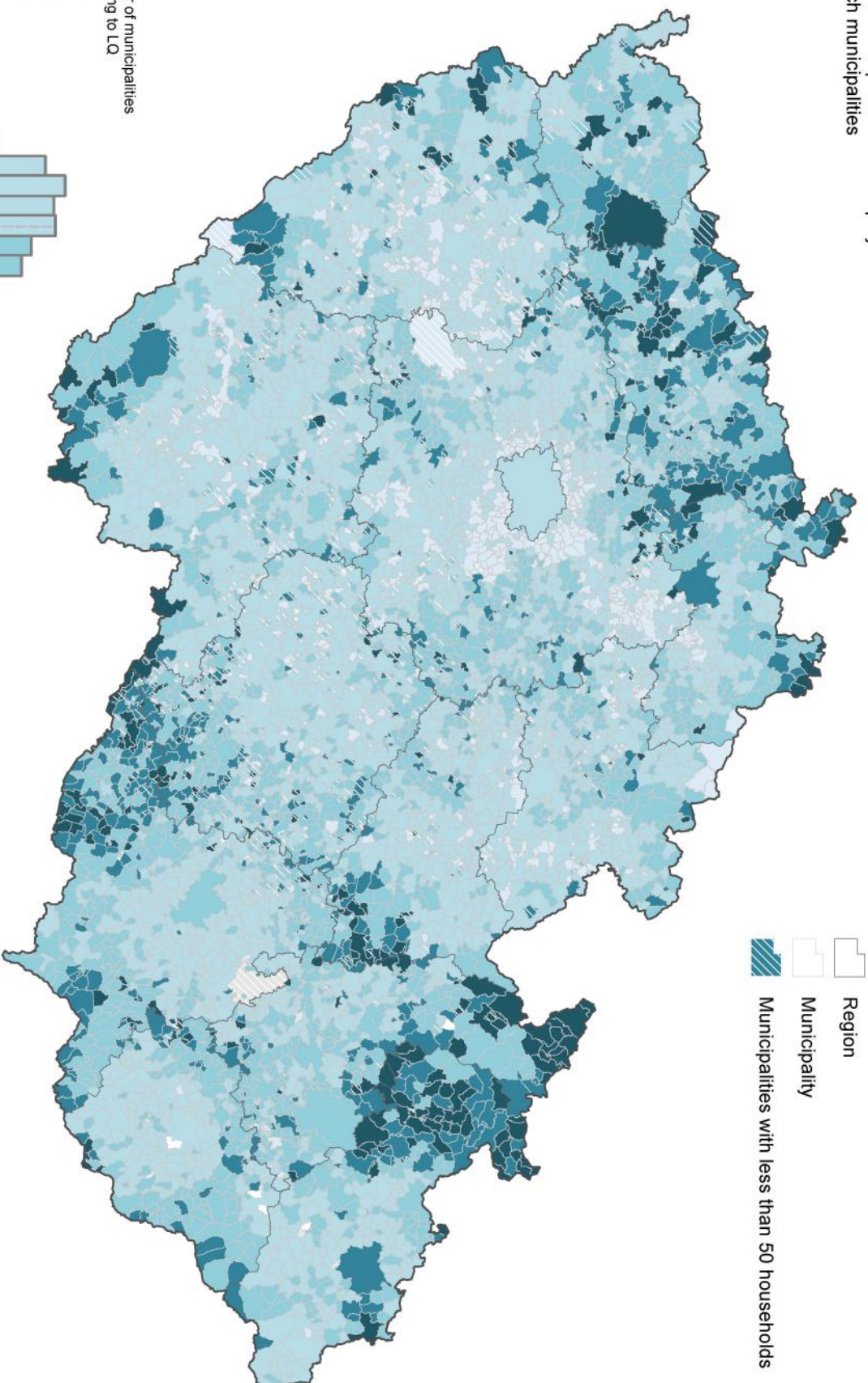
Authors:

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Changes in the unemployment rate between 2009 and 2015

Changes in the localisation quotient of unemployment rate in Czech municipalities between the years 2009-2010 and 2014-2015

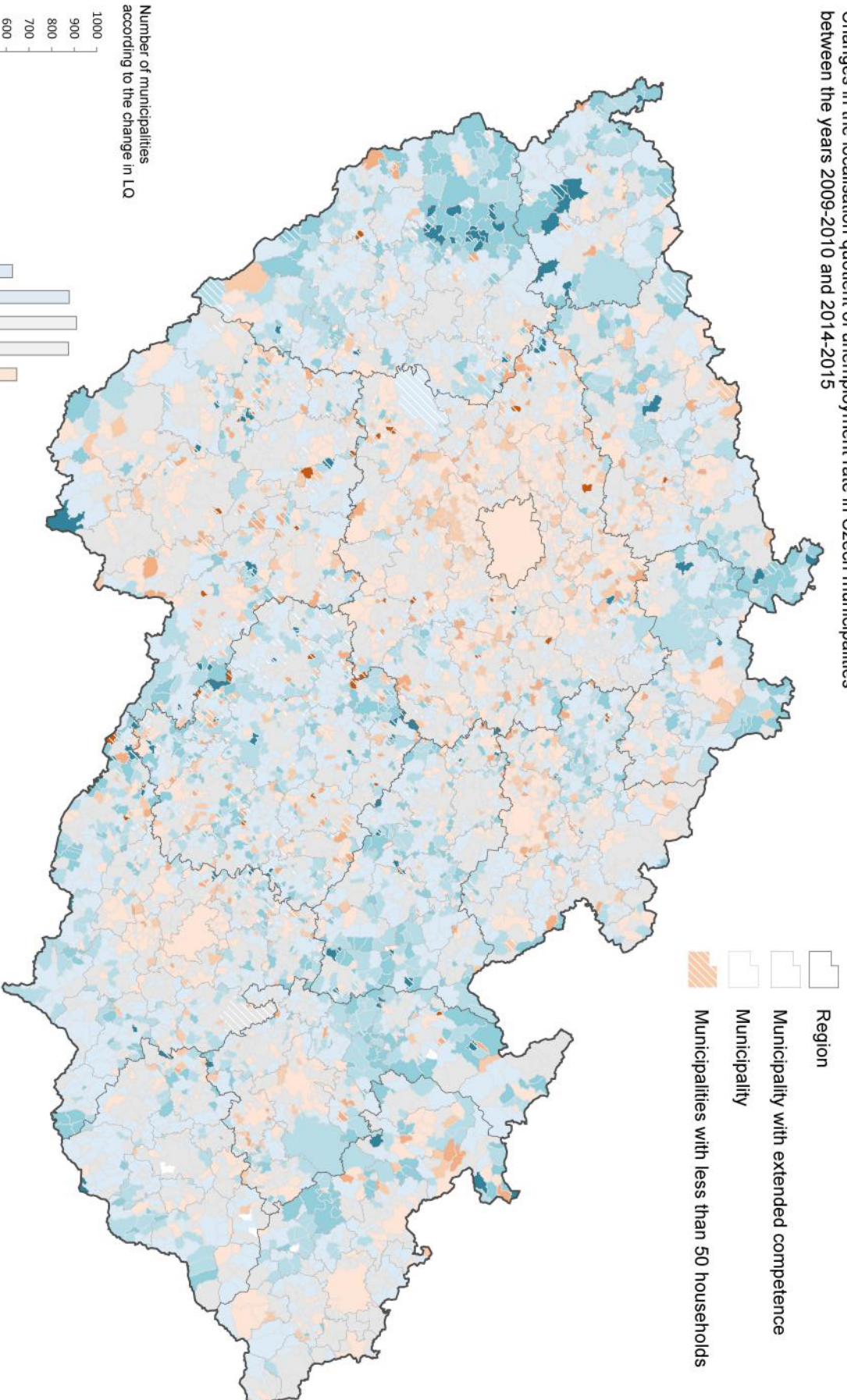
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