

Best Practices for Decreasing Antisemitism and Hate Speech in the Online Space

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Executive Summary

This guide, prepared by the World Jewish Congress Institute for Technology and Human Rights on behalf of the WJC and developed under the Bridges for Combating Antisemitism project funded by the European Commission, offers a concise roadmap for policymakers, regulators and civil-society partners charged with curbing online antisemitism. It synthesizes current definitions of hate speech and antisemitism, examines the structural and technological factors that enable rapid spread of harmful content, and maps the evolving legislative and regulatory landscape—from the EU’s Digital Services Act to national frameworks and voluntary codes.

Building on this foundation, the document sets out eight imperative practices for SECCA (Special Envoys and Coordinators on Combating Antisemitism) and other stakeholders. These practices range from designing comprehensive national strategies and mandating platform transparency to funding community-led responses, institutionalizing multisectoral collaboration, embedding digital literacy in prevention efforts, collecting disaggregated data to support victims, and anticipating AI-driven risks.

Together, these recommendations provide a clear, actionable pathway for governments and partners to align legal standards, enforce consistent moderation, and foster sustained cooperation—ensuring that emerging technologies and global platforms no longer serve as unchecked conduits for antisemitic violence and prejudice.



Introduction

Hate speech online now drives the spread of harmful narratives, conspiracy theories, and discriminatory discourse targeting Jewish communities. The proliferation of such content fuels prejudice and contributes to real-world violence, reinforcing the urgent need for effective intervention and coordinated policy action.

Addressing online hate speech requires a coordinated, multi-stakeholder approach that balances legal, technological, and educational solutions. Unlike traditional media, much of the internet is governed by private companies with varying content moderation policies, and inconsistencies in enforcement. The cross-border nature of online platforms presents significant regulatory challenges, as harmful content can be created in one jurisdiction, hosted in another, and accessed globally.

This guide is designed for Special Envoys and Coordinators on Combating Antisemitism (SECCA), policymakers, and regulators aiming to counter antisemitism and hate speech in the online space. While legal frameworks provide a critical foundation, this manual focuses on actionable best practices that policymakers and regulators can implement.

Drawing on European and global best practices, and outlining clear, evidence-based approaches for governments, this manual aims to strengthen online resilience against antisemitic hate speech, improve reporting and enforcement mechanisms, and foster a more inclusive digital environment.

This document is not a legal text or an exhaustive regulatory guide. Rather, it serves as a resource for engagement, drawing from established best practices and examples. By leveraging education, regulation, and advocacy, we can work towards a more responsible and accountable online ecosystem that protects users from hate and discrimination. We encourage governments to incorporate these best practices into their national strategies to combat antisemitism.¹

¹ This guide was written by Ms. Inbal Goldberger with the assistance and editing of Ms. Yfat Barak-Cheney, Executive Director of the World Jewish Congress Institute for Technology and Human Rights. WJC's Marija Lubinkjovic and Michael Kanter also assisted.

Understanding Hate Speech

Definitions

No internationally recognized definition of Hate Speech exists, making this an additional challenge in adequately confronting the phenomena.

At the EU, the definition of hate speech in the Code of Conduct on Countering Illegal Hate Speech Online draws on the definition in the Council Framework Decision on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law (Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA),² and refers to public actions inciting to violence or hatred directed against an individual or group of people, based on their race, color, religion or origin.

According to the Council of Europe's Committee of Ministers, Recommendation No. (97) 20, “the term hate speech shall be understood as covering all forms of expression which spread, incite, promote or justify racial hatred, xenophobia, antisemitism or other forms of hatred based on intolerance, including: intolerance expressed by aggressive nationalism and ethnocentrism, discrimination and hostility against minorities, migrants and people of origin.”

The UN Strategy and Plan of Action on Hate Speech understands the term as “any kind of communication in speech, writing or behaviour, that attacks or uses pejorative or discriminatory language with reference to a person or a group on the basis of who they are, in other words, based on their religion, ethnicity, nationality, race, colour, descent, gender or other identity factor.”

The Rabat Plan of Action, developed by the UN Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), offers a six-part threshold test that helps determine whether speech qualifies as incitement to discrimination, hostility or violence under international law, and whether it may justifiably be restricted or criminalised.³

² 37 Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law 2008 (OJ L).

³ <https://www.ohchr.org/en/documents/outcome-documents/rabat-plan-action> Specifically, each element must be assessed contextually and cumulatively to decide whether state intervention is justified: Context - What are the social, political, and cultural dynamics in which the speech occurred? Speaker - Who is speaking? What is their authority, influence, or reach? Intent

Source	Definition
EU Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA and EU Code of Conduct	Public actions inciting violence/hatred against protected groups based on race, colour, religion or origin.
Council of Europe REC No. (97)20	All expressions spreading, inciting, promoting or justifying racial hatred, xenophobia, intolerance, discrimination or hostility against minorities.
UN Strategy & Plan of Action (2019)	Any communication attacking or using pejorative/discriminatory language towards a person or group based on identity factors.
Rabat Plan of Action (OHCHR)	Six-part “threshold test” to assess incitement to discrimination, hostility or violence and determine restrictions under international law.

Antisemitism

For the purposes of this guide, when referring to antisemitism we adhere to the International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance’s (IHRA) definition of antisemitism and its examples, that was created in 2016 by IHRA’s committee on Antisemitism and Holocaust Denial to provide a working definition of antisemitism which has since been adopted by 40 nations, the European Union, and a litany of other organizations, municipalities, and corporations.⁴

“Antisemitism is a certain perception of Jews, which may be expressed as hatred toward Jews. Rhetorical and physical manifestations of antisemitism are directed toward Jewish or non-Jewish individuals and/or their property, toward Jewish community institutions and religious facilities.”

- Was there a deliberate intention to incite hatred, discrimination, or violence? Content and Form - What is the tone, style, and message of the speech? Is it provocative, inflammatory, or coded? Extent of Dissemination - How widely was the message shared? What was the platform and audience reach? Likelihood of Harm - Was there a real and imminent risk of harm — such as violence, discrimination, or social unrest — because of the speech?

⁴ <https://holocaustremembrance.com/resources/working-definition-antisemitism>

Challenges in Combating Online Hate Speech

Combating online hate speech presents a complex and evolving challenge, shaped by the speed, scale, and structure of digital communication platforms.

Anonymity and Rapid Dissemination

Online platforms empower users to engage anonymously, often enabling the spread of hate speech without accountability. This anonymity, coupled with algorithms that amplify provocative content, fuels the virality of antisemitic and hateful narratives. Harmful content can circulate widely before platforms or regulators can respond.

Jurisdictional Issues

The cross-border nature of online platforms presents significant regulatory challenges, as harmful content can be created in one jurisdiction, hosted in another, and accessed globally. Many governments struggle with enforcement mechanisms because legal jurisdiction often stops at national borders, while digital platforms operate on a global scale.

Balancing Freedom of Expression and the Prevention of Hate Speech

Acting against hate speech is a necessary precondition for ensuring equality. At the same time, legal responses must be carefully calibrated to avoid unduly restricting democratic discourse. Countering harmful speech must align with human rights standards and protect legitimate debate, even when addressing controversial issues.

Inconsistent Platform Enforcement

Much of the online environment is governed by private companies with divergent policies and moderation standards. Some adopt rigorous content moderation, while others practice loosened enforcement. The inconsistency in moderation, exacerbated by language gaps, cultural differences, and opaque algorithms, creates uneven protection for targeted communities.

The Resurfacing Nature of Hate Content

Even when platforms remove hateful content, it frequently resurfaces elsewhere: on fringe platforms, in new formats, or under different user identities. UNESCO and the



OSCE have described this as the “itinerant nature” (constant resurfacing) of online hate, making it difficult to eradicate once it spreads⁵.

Evolving Language and Narratives

Online hate speech is highly adaptive. Perpetrators frequently shift tactics, using coded language, obscure slang, ironic memes, and evolving jargon to evade detection by platforms and regulators. This constant mutation makes it difficult for automated systems and even human moderators to keep up. Moreover, new platforms and subcultures often incubate emerging hate trends before they spill into the mainstream, requiring continuous investment in research, language monitoring, and partnerships with civil society groups attuned to these shifts.

Data/Reporting Gaps

The collection of data on the spread of antisemitic content online presents several challenges for researchers and governments. Platforms do not release data within their transparency reports that are indicative of such nuances and frequently do not give access to data to researchers. In addition, underreporting of antisemitic incidents and online antisemitic content is prevalent.

Legislation and Regulation

Laws addressing hate speech vary across jurisdictions, generally falling into two broad categories: general hate speech laws and specific regulations targeting online hate speech. General hate speech laws typically prohibit incitement to violence, discrimination, or hostility based on protected characteristics such as race, religion, or ethnicity. These laws exist in many countries but differ in their definitions and enforcement mechanisms.

In response to the rapid spread of harmful content online, many governments have introduced specific regulations targeting the spread of hate speech online through

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https://unesdoc.unesco.org/in/documentViewer.xhtml?v=2.1.196&id=p::usmarcdef_0000233231&file=/in/rest/annotationSVC/DownloadWatermarkedAttachment/attach_import_ec25fcc4-72f7-46c4-a8f4-5ad6a018f697%3F_%3D233231eng.pdf&locale=en&multi=true&ark=/ark:/48223/pf0000233231/PDF/233231eng.pdf#%5B%7B%22num%22%3A104%2C%22gen%22%3A0%7D%2C%7B%22name%22%3A%22XYZ%22%7D%2C5%2C709%2C0%5D

regulation of digital platforms. These include the EU's Digital Services Act, which holds platforms accountable for removing illegal content, and national laws, such as Germany's NetzDG, which mandates swift content takedowns.

The variation in online hate legislation creates complexity in addressing it coherently across jurisdictions and by individuals, as well as by platforms, who must adapt to different local requirements, while adhering to their internal policies. Misalignment between individual values, platforms' policies and laws creates a challenge to navigate online hate speech and successfully address it. Acknowledging these challenges, this document presents several approaches to combat hate speech through complementary legislative frameworks and non-legislative guidelines at both national and international levels.

European Legislation

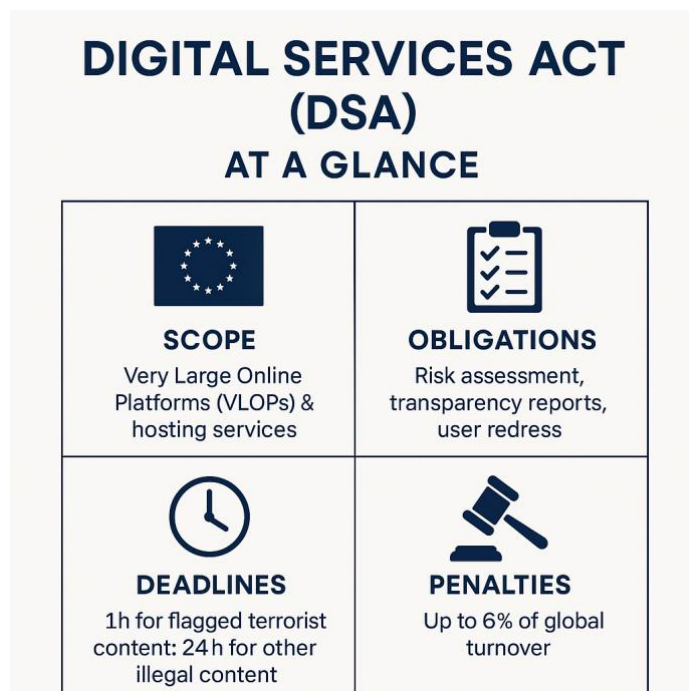
The Digital Services Act (DSA)

The Digital Services Act (DSA), approved by the European Council in October 2022, which came into force on February 17th 2024, applies to all intermediaries in the EU.⁶ The Digital Services Act aims to regulate how online platforms, social media and digital services operate in Europe and to be a key element of a “comprehensive framework to ensure a safer, more fair digital space for all”. According to the Commission, the new rules contained in the DSA aim to both “foster innovation, growth and competitiveness” and to increase protection of European values, “placing citizens at the center”.

The DSA defines clear responsibilities and accountability for providers of intermediary services, such as social media, online marketplaces, very large online platforms (VLOPs) and very large online search engines (VLOSEs). The rules are designed asymmetrically, which means that larger intermediary services with significant societal impact (VLOPs and VLOSEs) are subject to stricter rules. The

⁶ <https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/library/code-conduct-countering-illegal-hate-speech-online>

aim of the DSA is to ensure platforms become more transparent and be held accountable for their role in disseminating illegal and harmful content.⁷



EU Code of Conduct on Countering Illegal Hate Speech

Launched in 2016,⁸ the EU Code of Conduct on Countering Illegal Hate Speech Online was a voluntary initiative developed by the European Commission in cooperation with major tech companies, including Facebook (now Meta), Microsoft, Twitter (now X), YouTube, Instagram, and TikTok - to ensure swift and effective responses to illegal hate speech on their platforms. Under the Code, companies commit to reviewing and removing such content within 24 hours upon notification.

The Code has played a key role in encouraging social media companies to improve their internal procedures, provide training to content moderators, and strengthen transparency with users and civil society partners. It also introduced monitoring cycles through which civil society organisations assess the platforms' performance in removing hate speech, with periodic public reporting by the Commission.

⁷ <https://www.facingfacts.eu/wp-content/uploads/sites/4/2023/04/Facing-Facts-Network-Mapping-Report-v8.pdf>

⁸ https://commission.europa.eu/strategy-and-policy/policies/justice-and-fundamental-rights/combating-discrimination/racism-and-xenophobia/eu-code-conduct-countering-illegal-hate-speech-online_en

While initially a soft-law, collaborative framework, the principles of the Code have been formally integrated into the binding legal framework of the Digital Services Act (DSA) in January 2025.⁹ This integration represents a significant evolution: what began as a voluntary agreement is now reinforced by enforceable rules under EU law.

EU AI Act

The EU Artificial Intelligence Act¹⁰ is a landmark piece of legislation that regulates the development and deployment of AI systems within the European Union. While not specific to hate speech, the Act plays a significant role in shaping the future of AI-powered content moderation on digital platforms - tools increasingly relied upon to detect and manage online hate, including antisemitism.

The Act imposes strict requirements for high-risk AI systems, such as those used in content moderation, including obligations for risk assessment, transparency, and human oversight. These measures are crucial to ensure that automated tools can identify harmful content without infringing on users' rights or missing subtle forms of hate speech. It also requires companies to disclose how AI systems function, ensuring that moderation practices are explainable, fair, and free from discriminatory bias.

Importantly, the Act mandates human-in-the-loop oversight, addressing the well-documented limitations of automated moderation in handling contextual and cultural nuances - essential in countering antisemitic narratives and misinformation. As deep fakes and synthetic media become more prevalent, this requirement is also vital in preventing AI-generated antisemitic content.

By setting clear standards for accountability and responsible AI use, the EU AI Act complements other EU legislation, such as the Digital Services Act (DSA), and

⁹ https://commission.europa.eu/strategy-and-policy/policies/justice-and-fundamental-rights/combating-discrimination/racism-and-xenophobia/eu-code-conduct-countering-illegal-hate-speech-online_en

¹⁰ https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=OJ:L_202401689

strengthens the overall legal architecture for combating online hate and discrimination.

Council Framework Decision on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law

Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA¹¹ of 28 November 2008 targets racism and xenophobia through criminal law across the European Union. It requires Member States to criminalize public incitement to violence or hatred based on race, color, religion, descent, or national or ethnic origin, including hate speech spread online. The decision ensures that penalties for such offenses are effective and reflect the severity of the crime. It also covers the denial or gross trivialization of genocide, crimes against humanity, and war crimes, particularly when shared through the internet.

To tackle online hate, the decision emphasizes cooperation between Member States and online service providers to quickly remove illegal content. It holds companies and organizations accountable if they fail to prevent the spread of hate speech on their platforms. The decision also encourages measures to support victims of hate crimes and raise public awareness about the dangers of racism and xenophobia. By creating a unified legal framework, the EU aims to combat online hate effectively and promote a more inclusive society.

¹¹ <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex%3A32008F0913>



National Legislation

Across Europe, countries have adopted a variety of legal approaches to address online hate speech and antisemitism. Some rely on broad criminal code provisions, others have enacted targeted digital safety legislation, and many blend regulatory oversight with constitutional protections.

While legal frameworks are increasingly converging around international standards, enforcement practices and platform accountability remain uneven. The following typology groups representative countries into five legislative "buckets" that reflect the diversity of responses. Each offers a distinct model, and practical lessons, for policymakers seeking to update or strengthen national legislation to better combat antisemitism in the digital space.

Platform-Specific Online Safety Regulation

These countries have enacted dedicated laws targeting online platforms, creating enforceable obligations for content moderation, transparency, and systemic risk mitigation.

- **Germany** – NetzDG (2017): Requires platforms with 2M+ users to remove "clearly illegal" content (including hate speech) within 24 hours or face fines up to €50 million¹².
- **Ireland** – Online Safety and Media Regulation Act (2022): Empowers Coimisiún na Meán to issue Online Safety Codes, enforce takedowns, and impose financial penalties¹³.
- **United Kingdom** – Online Safety Act (2023): Requires platforms to assess and mitigate risks of hate content; Ofcom can fine up to 10% of global turnover for non-compliance¹⁴.

¹² <https://www.loc.gov/item/global-legal-monitor/2021-07-06/germany-network-enforcement-act-amended-to-better-fight-online-hate-speech/>

¹³ <https://www.gov.ie/en/department-of-tourism-culture-arts-gaeltacht-sport-and-media/publications/online-safety-and-media-regulation-act-2022/#:~:text=Under%20the%20Act%2C%20Coimisi%C3%BAn%20na,sanctions%20such%20as%20substantial%20fines.>

¹⁴ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/online-safety-act-explainer/online-safety-act-explainer>



- **Austria** – Communication Platforms Act (2021): Applies to platforms with over 100,000 users or €500K+ revenue in Austria. Requires removal of illegal content within 24 hours, German-speaking legal representatives, and takedown statistics reporting.¹⁵

Practical takeaway: Clear legal mandates for platforms, combined with empowered regulators, can accelerate timely content removal, strengthen transparency, and establish measurable standards for tackling online hate.

Strong Legal Framework, Weaker Enforcement

While strong legal provisions against online hate exist, practical enforcement is inconsistent.

- **Bulgaria** – Penal Code, Article 162(1): Criminalises incitement to hatred via "electronic information systems" with prison terms of 1–4 years. However, *"The authorities rarely voice any counter-hate speech message to the public. Few cases of hate speech have reached court, and the conviction rate is low. The system in place for sanctioning violations of the relevant legislation relating to media services is ineffective."*¹⁶
- **Cyprus** – Law L. 26(III)/2004: Punishes dissemination of racist or xenophobic content via computer systems with up to 5 years imprisonment or €20,000 fine¹⁷. However, the 2022 ECRI report on Cyprus indicates that *"There is no comprehensive system in place to monitor hate speech incidents. In addition, instances of firm and prompt condemnation of racist and other forms of hate speech and counter-speech by public figures remain sporadic."*¹⁸

Practical takeaway: With strong legal tools already in place, targeted investments in enforcement capacity, political leadership, and public awareness can unlock these frameworks' full protective potential.

¹⁵ <https://epicenter.works/en/content/platform-regulation-and-hate-speech-dsa-vs-austrian-communications-platforms-act?>

¹⁶ <https://rm.coe.int/fifth-report-on-bulgaria/16808b55d8?>

¹⁷ https://natlex.ilo.org/dyn/natlex2/natlex2/files/download/80558/ap_ec_cybercrime.pdf

¹⁸ <https://hudoc.ecri.coe.int/eng?i=CYP-CbC-VI-2023-01-ENG>

Criminal Code-Based Protection with Digital Extensions

These countries rely on traditional criminal codes, with explicit application to online speech - a foundation that can be built upon with more proactive enforcement or regulatory additions.

- **Romania** – Criminal Code Article 369: Criminalises incitement to discrimination, hatred, or violence against individuals or groups based on race, religion, ethnicity, sex, or sexual orientation, including when such acts are committed through public meetings, publications, or *“any media or informatics system”* intended for dissemination.¹⁹
- **Portugal** – Article 240: Penalises incitement to violence or defamation based on race or religion²⁰.
- **Serbia** – Article 387: Criminalises the public dissemination - *“who spread or otherwise make publicly available texts, images or any other representation of ideas or theories”* - of materials that incite hatred, discrimination, or violence against individuals or groups based on race, religion, ethnicity, or similar grounds. It also penalises public threats of serious criminal offences against such groups when motivated by these characteristics²¹.

Practical takeaway: Criminal code provisions offer a starting point — but may require procedural updates, victim-centred enforcement, or digital literacy training for law enforcement.

Hybrid Legislative and Regulatory Models

France’s evolving approach combines legislative action with regulatory oversight and multi-stakeholder coordination. This shift followed constitutional scrutiny of earlier platform-focused laws.

Loi Avia (2020): Designed to compel platforms to remove ‘clearly illegal’ content such as hate speech within 24 hours of notification, or within one hour for content

¹⁹ [https://www.venice.coe.int/webforms/documents/default.aspx?pdffile=CDL-REF\(2018\)042-e](https://www.venice.coe.int/webforms/documents/default.aspx?pdffile=CDL-REF(2018)042-e)

²⁰ https://adsdatabase.ohchr.org/IssueLibrary/PORTUGAL_Criminal%20Code.pdf

²¹ <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/Documents/Issues/Mercenaries/WG/Law/Serbia/CriminalCode.pdf>

like child sexual abuse material or terrorism flagged by authorities. However, key provisions were struck down by France's Constitutional Council for disproportionately restricting freedom of expression and lacking adequate judicial oversight. The final law retained only limited measures, such as the creation of a specialised court for online hate speech.²²

2023–2026 National Plan: Establishes a more participatory model, including the Observatory of Online Hate led by ARCOM (the audiovisual regulator) and DILCRAH²³. It institutionalises consultation with civil society, mandates education and training, promotes data sharing, and reinforces transparency in online hate monitoring²⁴.

Practical takeaway: France's experience shows that multi-stakeholder regulatory frameworks, combining legal safeguards, civil society engagement, and independent oversight, can deliver more durable, rights-respecting enforcement against online hate.

Constitutional Anchoring and Targeted Legislation

These countries rely on constitutional and anti-discrimination protections, supplemented by modern platform regulation or criminal code updates.

- **Slovenia** – Criminal Code Article 297²⁵ & Constitution Article 63²⁶: Bans incitement to hatred or violence via media or public communications, rooted in constitutional protections.
- **Netherlands** – Penal Code section 137²⁷: Prohibits public hate speech and discrimination, with jurisprudence extending to online content, including cases involving Holocaust denial²⁸.

²² <https://www.loc.gov/item/global-legal-monitor/2020-06-29/france-constitutional-court-strikes-down-key-provisions-of-bill-on-hate-speech/>

²³ DILCRAH (Délégation Interministérielle à la Lutte Contre le Racisme, l'Antisémitisme et la Haine anti-LGBT), (the Interministerial Delegation for the Fight Against Racism, Antisemitism and Anti-LGBT Hatred) is an administrative body under the PM which coordinates efforts by CSOs, ministries, local government officials, and NGOs to implement France's national strategy against hatred

²⁴ https://www.dilcrah.gouv.fr/files/files/DISCRIMINATION_A5_V2_EL_EN_site-1.pdf

²⁵ <https://pisrs.si/pregledPredpisa?id=ZAKO5050>

²⁶ <https://www.us-rs.si/wp-content/uploads/2021/07/CONSTITUTION-2021-precisceni-dokument-dodan-62a-clen.pdf>

²⁷ <https://antislaverylaw.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Netherlands-Criminal-Code.pdf>

²⁸ <https://www.government.nl/latest/news/2023/07/14/cabinet-prohibits-holocaust-denial>

Practical takeaway: These systems show how well-developed constitutional frameworks and existing criminal law can form a strong baseline, but may benefit from modernised, platform-specific enforcement tools.

Non-legislative Initiatives and Guidelines

In addition to legislative tools, several European countries have adopted national frameworks and initiatives that focus on prevention, education, digital engagement, and victim support to address hate speech and antisemitism, particularly in the online space. Examples include:

Denmark

The Danish National Police actively monitors hate crimes, tracking offenses motivated by factors such as race, religion, LGBTI status, and disability. This comprehensive monitoring involves victim interviews and the use of search keys to identify bias motivations, contributing to an understanding of hate crime patterns. Victim support services are provided by Victim Support Denmark, a state-funded counselling service operating across all police districts, collaborating closely with law enforcement and other emergency services.²⁹

Moreover, Denmark's National Police established the "Politiets Online Patrulje" (Online Police Patrol) in April 2022. This dedicated 10-officer unit actively monitors digital platforms, including Twitch, Discord, Instagram, Facebook, and TikTok - to enhance online safety for both children and adults.

Officers engage openly with users, often participating in popular online games like Counterstrike, FIFA, and Fortnite under identifiable usernames such as "Officer 1" through "Officer 4." Their primary focus is on identifying and preventing activities like grooming, harassment, and financial fraud within online communities. Since its inception, the unit has initiated over 65 cases and received more than 5,200 tips,

²⁹ <https://rm.coe.int/government-comments-on-the-fifth-report-on-denmark-danish-translation-/16808b56ac>
<https://hatecrime.osce.org/national-frameworks-denmark>
https://www.humanrights.dk/files/media/migrated/hate_speech_in_the_public_online_debate_eng_2017.pdf

demonstrating the effectiveness of proactive, non-legislative measures in combating digital antisemitism and hate speech.³⁰

France

France introduced the National Plan to Combat Racism, Antisemitism, and Discrimination Based on Origin (2023–2026)³¹. This four-year plan builds upon previous initiatives and outlines 80 specific measures across five key objectives.³²

The plan includes measures aimed at enhancing the detection and prosecution of online hate speech, as well as initiatives to improve digital literacy and educate users about the dangers of online hatred. These efforts are part of a broader strategy to tackle racism and antisemitism across various platforms, including the internet.

³⁰ <https://techxplore.com/news/2023-06-online-police-patrol-internet-denmark.html>

³¹ <https://www.enseignementsup-recherche.gouv.fr/fr/plan-national-de-lutte-contre-le-racisme-l-antisemitisme-et-les-discriminations-liees-l-origine-2023-89325?>

³² The key objectives are: 1. Measuring and Understanding: Enhancing data collection and analysis to better grasp the realities of racism and antisemitism; 2. Education and Training: Implementing educational programs and training for students, teachers, and civil servants to raise awareness and prevent discriminatory behaviors; 3. Legal Enforcement: Strengthening legal frameworks and ensuring stricter penalties for offenses related to racism and antisemitism. 4. Supporting Victims: Providing better support mechanisms for victims of discrimination, including easier avenues for reporting incidents. 5. Promoting Unity: Encouraging initiatives that foster social cohesion and celebrate diversity within French society.

Best Practices for Special Envoys and Coordinators on Combating Antisemitism

Combating online hate speech requires a coordinated, multi-stakeholder effort. No single actor can address the problem in isolation. Instead, meaningful progress depends on the alignment of policy, technology, education, and community resilience. This section outlines tailored best practices for key stakeholders - governments, platforms, educators, civil society, and individuals - recognising the unique roles and tools each brings to the table.

To combat online antisemitism in a meaningful way, governments must move from principle to action. The following practices represent a toolbox for Special Envoys and Coordinators for Combating Antisemitism (SECCA) and other policymakers committed to building a safer digital world.

1. Design national strategies that place countering online antisemitism as a key part of anti-hate efforts.

Governments should adopt national action plans to combat antisemitism and promoting Jewish life that directly address online hate, co-designed with the Jewish community.

Reference Point: The European Union's first-ever Strategy on Combating Antisemitism and Fostering Jewish Life (2021–2030)³³ explicitly recognises online antisemitism as a core threat to Jewish safety and inclusion. The strategy commits the EU and its member states to tackling antisemitism across digital platforms, including through better enforcement of existing hate speech laws, enhanced cooperation with tech companies, and support for civil society monitoring efforts. It also promotes the mainstreaming of antisemitism awareness in national digital education, counter-disinformation policies, and media literacy programmes. Crucially, the strategy was developed in close consultation with Jewish communities and emphasises the need to both prevent online hate and to foster a positive, visible Jewish presence across European society. This multi-pronged approach offers a

³³ https://commission.europa.eu/document/6160ed15-80da-458e-b76b-04eacae46d6c_en

strong model of how governments can centre online antisemitism within broader anti-hate strategies while upholding human rights and democratic values.

Reference Point: At the 13th Forum on Minority Issues (2020), over 300 participants, including UN officials, state representatives, and civil society, called on states to integrate online antisemitism into comprehensive national strategies and empower minority voices in shaping them.³⁴ The Forum's recommendations highlighted the primary responsibility of states to prevent and combat hate speech on social media, and urged that minority groups be actively included in the development of relevant laws, policies, and programmes. The report emphasised that antisemitism and other forms of online hate disproportionately affect minorities, and that policy responses must be rooted in international human rights law.

Reference Point: In 2023 the WJC published a report surveying Jewish communities regarding their needs in areas such as the security of Jewish institutions, fostering Jewish life, combating antisemitism, Holocaust remembrance, and safeguarding Jewish heritage and religious freedom. Many of those interviewed maintained that authorities should do more to combat online antisemitism.

Suggestions include:

- strengthening the capacities of law enforcement and judicial authorities to prosecute hate speech.
- holding social media platforms more accountable.
- increasing funding for the struggle against manifestations of antisemitism online.
- developing criminal law to make prosecution easier.
- and creating a unit dedicated to combating online antisemitism.

Moreover, improving communication with the Jewish community and increasing education and training as to how to recognize antisemitic statements were also suggested.

³⁴ <https://docs.un.org/en/A/HRC/46/58>

Example of Implementation: France

Through its 2023–2026 National Plan to Combat Racism, Antisemitism and Origin-Related Discrimination³⁵ France has integrated online antisemitism into a comprehensive national strategy.³⁶

2. Mandate meaningful transparency from tech platforms and oversee them through empowered regulators.

Hold digital platforms accountable by mandating public transparency reports, accessible complaint mechanisms, and rigorous risk assessments aligned with international human rights standards and focusing especially on hate speech. Work with the national digital regulators to audit platform practices, publish takedown and enforcement data, assess systemic risks, and protect users' rights in content moderation and appeals processes.

Reference point: The EU Digital Services Act (DSA), sets a new global standard for platform governance.³⁷ It requires very large online platforms (VLOPs) to publish comprehensive transparency reports, conduct systemic risk assessments, and cooperate with independent regulators and trusted flaggers. The DSA also establishes auditable standards for content moderation, algorithmic impacts, and redress mechanisms, anchored in fundamental rights.

Reference point: The UN Guide on Countering Online Hate Speech (2023) calls on states to compel platforms to disclose how they moderate content, handle user complaints, and assess human rights risks.³⁸ It emphasises that any restrictions on speech must be lawful, necessary, and proportionate, and explicitly warns against blanket surveillance or vague censorship mandates. The guide promotes platform

³⁵ https://www.dilcrah.gouv.fr/files/files/DISCRIMINATION_A5_V2_EL_EN_site-1.pdf

³⁶ Key measures of the French strategy in this regard include: **Enhancing the legal and institutional framework** to combat online hate, including efforts building on earlier initiatives such as the proposed "Loi Avia", which, though partially struck down, prompted further regulatory development; **Partnering with civil society organisations and digital platforms** to monitor and address online antisemitic content, including via collaborative data sharing and strategy development; **Promoting digital literacy and public awareness**, coordinated by DILCRAH, through national education efforts, training programmes, and remembrance initiatives; **Strengthening data collection on online hate**, including through the **Observatory of Online Hate**, which brings together ARCOM, DILCRAH, tech platforms, and NGOs to set priorities and share insights; **Empowering affected communities**, including Jewish organisations, to participate in shaping public policies and supporting victims of antisemitic abuse online.

³⁷ <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=CELEX:32022R2065>

³⁸ [https://www.un.org/en/genocideprevention/documents/publications-and-resources/Countering Online Hate Speech Guide policy makers practitioners July 2023.pdf](https://www.un.org/en/genocideprevention/documents/publications-and-resources/Countering%20Online%20Hate%20Speech%20Guide%20policy%20makers%20practitioners%20July%202023.pdf)

accountability through independent oversight, transparency, and multi-stakeholder collaboration.

Example of Implementation: Most EU member states have now designated national online safety regulators to enforce the DSA. For instance, France’s ARCOM leads a national Observatory on Online Hate; Germany’s Bundesnetzagentur is empowered to coordinate DSA enforcement and systemic risk oversight; and while outside the EU, the UK’s Ofcom has parallel authority under the Online Safety Act to audit platforms, demand transparency reports, and issue significant fines. These regulators are beginning to shape how platform accountability and user protection are operationalised across Europe.

3. Institutionalise government–civil society collaboration through national forums that bridge policy and community experience

Governments should institutionalise regular, high-level dialogues that bring together public authorities, digital platforms, civil society actors, and international experts to respond to evolving online harms - including antisemitism and hate speech. These roundtables should serve as mechanisms for knowledge exchange, early warning, and coordinated policy response, with an emphasis on transparency, user rights, and platform accountability.

Reference point: The DSA Civil Society Roundtables, hosted by the Center for Democracy & Technology (CDT), highlighted the importance of structured, recurring multi-stakeholder dialogues to make the Digital Services Act effective in practice.³⁹ Participants recommended that governments and regulators convene regular meetings with civil society and trusted flaggers to address enforcement challenges, share platform data, and elevate community-based expertise on online hate, including antisemitism.

Reference point: The 13th UN Forum on Minority Issues (2020) offers a model of inclusive, policy-generating collaboration. Co-convened by the UN and open to minority groups, civil society, and states, it produced targeted recommendations

³⁹ Some examples: <https://cdt.org/insights/cdt-europe-hosts-second-civil-society-roundtable-to-discuss-digital-services-act-democracy-human-rights/>, <https://cdt.org/insights/cdt-eu-hosts-dsa-civil-society-roundtable/>

grounded in international human rights law and underscored the importance of empowering minority voices in shaping anti-hate measures.

Example of Implementation: In several countries, such as France, civil society organisations play an ongoing role in shaping anti-racism policy through consultative working groups linked to national plans. France’s 2023–2026 strategy, for example, was developed with input from over 35 associations, and includes provisions for civil society participation in monitoring and implementation efforts related to online hate: *“set up, within the framework of the Arcom-led Observatory, a working group bringing together Arcom, DILCRAH and stakeholders in online hate (including dedicated associations and competent authorities such as Pharos), which would meet on average 4 times a year and whose purpose it would be to share data and reflect on the definition of priorities for policies to combat online hate.”⁴⁰*

4. Fund local expertise through grants to frontline organisations and minority groups combating online hate

Governments should provide sustainable, competitive funding to civil society and community-based organisations working on online hate and antisemitism — particularly those serving as trusted flaggers, monitoring bodies, or counter-speech leaders. This financial support should prioritise minority-led initiatives and be integrated into national digital safety strategies as a means of ensuring local expertise informs and drives enforcement, education, and victim support.

Reference Point: The EU Strategy on Combating Antisemitism and Fostering Jewish Life (2021–2030) calls for calls on EU member states and institutions to Support civil society organisations combating antisemitism online and offline; Finance initiatives for monitoring, reporting, and counter-speech; Build and fund a Union-wide network of trusted flaggers, especially those with expertise in antisemitism and hate speech; and Provide training and technical assistance to enhance civil society’s capacity in digital spaces.⁴¹

⁴⁰ https://www.dilcrah.gouv.fr/files/files/DISCRIMINATION_A5_V2_EL_EN_site-1.pdf, page 17

⁴¹ https://commission.europa.eu/document/6160ed15-80da-458e-b76b-04eacae46d6c_en



5. Support the establishment of “trusted flagger” organizations within the Jewish community.

Reference point: Civil society experts taking part in the EU Digital Services Act (DSA) Roundtables, convened by the Center for Democracy & Technology (CDT), urged governments to allocate public funding for trusted flagger organisations, particularly those with expertise in protecting vulnerable and marginalised communities. The roundtable summary stresses that without sustained financial support, civil society cannot meaningfully participate in the DSA’s enforcement or act as effective watchdogs.⁴²

Example of Implementation: In Ireland, the Jewish Representative Council received government funding via the Irish Antisemitism Response Fund (IARF) to support their establishment as a trusted flagger under the DSA.⁴³

6. Embed education and digital literacy into school systems to immunise youth against antisemitic conspiracy and disinformation.

Governments should integrate digital literacy, civic resilience, and antisemitism awareness into national education systems - from school curricula to teacher training and youth programmes. This includes equipping students with the skills to recognise, critically assess, and reject online hate and conspiracy theories, particularly those targeting Jewish communities and other minorities.

Reference point: The 13th UN Forum on Minority Issues (2020) called on states to embed human rights education, digital citizenship, and critical thinking in formal education systems as part of a comprehensive approach to counter hate speech. The Forum’s recommendations stress that curricula must include awareness of antisemitism and other forms of minority-targeted hate, and that youth must be empowered to participate in shaping inclusive digital spaces.⁴⁴

Reference point: In 2023 UNESCO implemented a 2-year project funded by the European Commission to strengthen education systems against antisemitism across

⁴² <https://cdt.org/insights/trusted-flaggers-in-the-dsa-challenges-and-opportunities/>

⁴³ <https://www.gov.ie/en/press-release/6b473-minister-joe-obrien-announces-28-projects-to-be-funded-under-the-ireland-against-racism-fund-2024/>

⁴⁴ <https://docs.un.org/en/A/HRC/46/58>, page 4

the EU. This project works with 12 EU Member States including Austria, Belgium, Croatia, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Romania, Slovenia, and Spain.⁴⁵ The project provides training for policymakers and educators to assist in improving teaching methods, activities, and materials. Participants receive training on countering Holocaust denial and distortion, responding to antisemitic incidents in schools, and addressing online hate speech and conspiracy theories in the classroom.⁴⁶

Implementation: Some national strategies, such as France's,⁴⁷ already mandate remembrance visits, mandatory teacher training, and digital awareness campaigns to address racism, antisemitism, and online hate. These initiatives are examples of how governments can institutionalise long-term resilience through education.

Implementation: Educational tools such as the Coalition to Counter Online Antisemitism (CCOA)'s toolkit "[Mainstreaming digital human rights in education and civic action to combat online antisemitism](#)", the OSCE's [Dealing with Online Antisemitism](#) and the Council of Europe's [Bookmarks: Combating Hate Speech Online through Human Rights Education](#) offer concrete examples of teaching aids that can support this effort. These kits provide lesson plans, interactive activities, and pedagogical guidance to help educators introduce concepts such as antisemitism, online hate, and digital responsibility in age-appropriate ways — making them valuable resources for integrating these themes into school systems.

7. Collect disaggregated data and build victim support mechanisms to track impact and offer justice.

States should invest in systematic, disaggregated data collection on online antisemitism to understand its scale, sources, and impact — and ensure that victims have access to justice, psychological support, and accessible complaint mechanisms. This requires the creation of independent observatories, culturally

⁴⁵ <https://www.unesco.org/en/articles/unesco-joins-forces-european-commission-tackle-rising-antisemitism-through-education-12-eu-states>

⁴⁶ <https://www.unesco.org/en/articles/how-unesco-training-educators-address-antisemitism-and-discrimination-schools>

⁴⁷ https://www.dilcrah.gouv.fr/files/files/DISCRIMINATION_A5_V2_EL_EN_site-1.pdf

competent services, and user-friendly pathways for reporting and redress, especially for minority communities disproportionately targeted online.

Reference point: The EU Agency for Fundamental Rights' (FRA) 2024 survey underscores the need for accessible and disaggregated data systems, with 96% of European Jews stating that they had experienced antisemitism in the past year and 80% stating that antisemitism has increased in their country over the past five years.⁴⁸ Despite this, most victims never report incidents, often due to lack of trust or unclear procedures. The findings call on states to remove barriers to reporting, ensure culturally sensitive support services, and involve Jewish communities in designing data collection and response mechanisms.

Reference point: The 13th UN Forum on Minority Issues (2020) explicitly urged states and platforms to collect disaggregated data on hate speech, particularly against minorities, and to establish accessible reporting systems, legal remedies, and mental health support for victims. The Forum's recommendations emphasise that data must be collected in partnership with affected communities, and that victim services should be designed to ensure dignity, privacy, and trust.

Implementation: In France's 2023–2026 national strategy, the government committed to strengthening the Observatory of Online Hate, which brings together ARCOM, DILCRAH, civil society, and law enforcement to monitor hate trends and inform responses.⁴⁹ The strategy also calls for the systematic testing of discrimination, better support for victims through law enforcement, and specialised mental health services for those affected by racism and antisemitism.

Italy's national strategy from 2021 includes online antisemitism surveillance, establishing a single national reporting centre, enhancing law enforcement and public administration/ training, and developing Holocaust education guidelines based on the IHRA definition.⁵⁰

⁴⁸ <https://fra.europa.eu/en/publication/2024/experiences-and-perceptions-antisemitism-third-survey#publication-tab-1>

⁴⁹ https://www.dilcrah.gouv.fr/files/files/DISCRIMINATION_A5_V2_EL_EN_site-1.pdf

⁵⁰ <https://www.noa-project.eu/project/italy-national-strategy-for-combating-antisemitism-2021/>

Spain's Hate Crime Action Plan reinforces police and prosecutor protocols to identify online hate motivations, create a national "National Office Against Hate Crimes," and ensures free victim support services including psychological care and judicial assistance.⁵¹

8. Anticipate AI Risks and Coordinate Globally

As Artificial Intelligence (AI) becomes increasingly central to both the propagation and moderation of harmful content, government officials must proactively engage with its evolving risks and remedies. This requires a forward-looking approach across legislation, research, and international governance. A report of UNESCO and the WJC⁵² flagged the increased risk of Holocaust denial and distortion posed by AI and Generative AI as well as use of AI by extremists and terrorist antisemitic networks. The "Generative Hate" research of 2025⁵³ shows how ancient prejudices resurrected and injected with new energy via generative AI.

Reference Point: The 2025 International AI Safety Report⁵⁴ highlights the global consensus on the need for coordinated oversight of frontier AI systems, calling for transparency, risk mitigation, and responsible deployment through collaboration between states, industry, and academia. The forum convenes regularly and publishes reports annually.

Reference Point: The EU AI Act⁵⁵ sets a precedent by classifying AI systems by risk level and enforcing safeguards, including bans on specific harmful applications. It promotes trustworthy AI that aligns with fundamental rights—an emerging standard for regulation globally. Similar regulations are emerging worldwide.

⁵¹ <https://hatecrime.osce.org/national-frameworks-spain>

⁵² <https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000390211>

⁵³ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/389396906_Generative_Hate

⁵⁴ https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/679a0c48a77d250007d313ee/International_AI_Safety_Report_2025_accessible_e_f.pdf

⁵⁵ https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=OJ:L_202401689

Conclusion

Antisemitism and hate speech in the online space are not abstract policy problems - they are urgent, real-world threats to safety, equality, and democratic values. The solutions, however, are within reach. The strategies outlined in this document are grounded in international standards, strengthened by local expertise, and ready to be applied.

Those in leadership roles, especially within policymaking, regulation, and enforcement, are uniquely positioned to turn these recommendations into results. Whether drafting national strategies, shaping digital safety regulation, funding frontline initiatives, or engaging international partners, the ability to act - and to lead - is already in hand.

This document offers a roadmap:

- Prioritize online antisemitism in national strategies.
- Use rights-based legal standards.
- Hold platforms to clear transparency obligations.
- Engage communities in policymaking.
- Institutionalize digital literacy as prevention.
- Anticipate AI-driven threats.
- Track impact with robust data & support victims.

Progress will depend on sustained commitment - not only to what is legally necessary, but to what is morally urgent. The leadership shown today will shape whether digital spaces become safer, more inclusive environments, or breeding grounds for further division.

Responsibility lies not just with institutions, but with the individuals who guide them. The next steps - real steps - start now.

