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EU-MIDIS

European Union Minorities and
Discrimination Survey

English

2012



Data in Focus Report **Minorities as Victims of Crime**

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA)

EU-MIDIS

EUROPEAN UNION MINORITIES AND DISCRIMINATION SURVEY

What is EU-MIDIS?

The European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EU-MIDIS), is the first EU-wide survey to ask immigrant and ethnic minority groups about their experiences of discrimination and criminal victimisation in everyday life.

In face-to-face questionnaire interviews in all 27 European Union (EU) Member States, EU-MIDIS surveyed 23,500 immigrants and people with an ethnic minority background in 2008. A further 5,000 people from the majority population living in the same areas as minorities were interviewed in 10 EU Member States to allow for comparisons of results concerning some key questions.

The interviews, each of which lasted between 20 minutes and one hour, asked people a series of detailed questions on their personal experiences of discrimination and victimisation.

EU-MIDIS thus provides the most comprehensive evidence to date of the extent of perceived discrimination and victimisation against minorities in the EU, given that many such incidents go unreported and many EU Member States' data collection in this field is limited.

This is the **sixth** in a series of *EU-MIDIS Data in Focus* reports that explore targeted survey findings. *EU-MIDIS Data in Focus* reports provide an introductory 'snapshot' of the full results from the survey and are intended to introduce the reader to some core findings in specific fields or with regard to certain minority groups. This final report focuses on minorities as victims of crime. Previous EU-MIDIS reports include:

- *Data in Focus 1: The Roma, 2009*
- *Data in Focus 2: Muslims, 2009*
- *Data in Focus 3: Rights Awareness and Equality Bodies, 2010*
- *Data in Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities, 2010*
- *Data in Focus 5: Multiple Discrimination, 2011*

- *EU-MIDIS at a glance: introduction to the survey, 2009*
- *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report, 2009*
- *EU-MIDIS Technical Report: Methodology, Sampling and Fieldwork, 2009*
- *EU-MIDIS questionnaire, 2009*

The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) intends to make the dataset from the survey available in due course so that further analysis can be done by others.

DATA IN FOCUS 6 –

KEY FINDINGS ON MINORITIES AS VICTIMS OF CRIMES

This report, together with the *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report*, presents data on respondents' experiences of victimisation across five crime types: theft of or from a vehicle; burglary or attempted burglary; theft of personal property not involving force or threat (personal theft); assault or threat; and serious harassment.¹ The findings focus on the 12 months prior to the interviews. Selected findings are:

- The average rate of criminal victimisation for all groups surveyed in EU-MIDIS was 24 %, in other words every fourth person from a minority group said that they had been a victim of crime at least once in the 12 months preceding the survey.
- Across the five crime types in the 12 months preceding the survey, Sub-Saharan Africans, closely followed by Roma, experienced on average the highest overall victimisation levels, at 33 % and 32 %, respectively.
- On average, minorities are victims of personal theft, and assault or threat more often than the majority population, according to a comparison of EU-MIDIS findings with victimisation rates recorded for the majority population in the European Crime and Safety Survey. (This comparison refers to data from the 18 EU Member States where the two surveys' results are comparable and differences between the two surveys, such as the data collection period, must be borne in mind.)
- More 'visible' minority groups – that is, those who look visibly different to the majority population – report, on average, higher levels of victimisation in EU-MIDIS than immigrant or minority groups who look similar to the majority population. These results, however, mask significant differences depending on the EU Member State in which generic respondent groups, such as 'Roma' or 'Sub-Saharan African', live.
- Experiences of property crime differ greatly between the various groups surveyed, such as between Roma and Sub-Saharan Africans. To better understand this phenomenon, closer analysis of the intra-group disparities across individual EU Member States is needed.
- Roma (10 %), Sub-Saharan Africans (9 %) and North Africans (9 %) were, on average, most likely to have been assaulted or threatened with violence at least once in the previous 12 months. Between 57 % and 74 % of incidents of assault or threat were *not* reported to the police, depending on the group surveyed; yet the different groups regarded between 60 % and 75 % of these incidents as 'serious'.
- Nearly every fifth Roma and Sub-Saharan African interviewed said on average that they had suffered serious harassment at least once in the last 12 months (18 %). Depending on the group surveyed, between 75 % and 90 % of these incidents were *not* reported to the police; although the victims, depending on the group in question, viewed between 50 % and 61 % of them as 'serious'.
- On average, 18 % of all Roma and 18 % of all Sub-Saharan African respondents in the survey indicated that they had experienced at least one 'in-person crime' in the last 12 months (that is – assault or threat, or serious harassment) that they considered as being 'racially motivated' in some way. In comparison, less than 10 % of other groups indicated that they considered they had been a victim of 'racially motivated' in-person crime.
- More than one in four respondents from the following groups considered that they were a victim of 'racially motivated' in-person crime (assault or threat, or serious harassment) in the last 12 months: Roma in the Czech Republic; Somalis in Finland; Somalis in Denmark; Africans in Malta; Roma in Greece; Roma in Poland; and Sub-Saharan Africans in Ireland.
- Most incidents of assault or threat were *not* committed by members of right-wing extremist groups. Only 13 % of Turkish victims and 12 % of Roma victims of assault or threat, for example, identified perpetrators as members of these groups.

¹ While 'serious harassment' can be considered as a borderline criminal activity, and is not always routinely collected in surveys on criminal victimisation, it is included in EU-MIDIS in an effort to uncover 'racially motivated' harassment that is of particular relevance to the lives of people with an ethnic minority and/or immigrant background.

THE EU-MIDIS SURVEY

The EU-MIDIS survey focused on the following themes, with questions about:

- respondents' perceptions and experiences of discrimination on different grounds in addition to ethnic or immigrant origin – such as age and gender;
- awareness of their rights with respect to the prohibition of discrimination on the basis of ethnicity or immigrant background, and knowledge about where to make complaints about discriminatory treatment;
- experiences of discrimination because of their minority background in various areas of everyday life, such as looking for work or a place to live, and whether they reported these experiences of discrimination to any organisation;
- experiences of being a victim of crime, including whether they considered their victimisation due in whole or in part to their minority background, and whether they reported this victimisation to the police;
- encounters with law enforcement, customs and border control, and whether respondents considered they were victims of discriminatory ethnic profiling practices.

The questions covered respondents' experiences of discrimination and victimisation in the five years and 12 months prior to the survey.

Box 1

EU-MIDIS methodology and sampling

Sample

In each EU Member State, between 500 and 1,500 respondents were interviewed face-to-face using a standardised questionnaire.

In each EU Member State, a minimum of 500 people were interviewed per ethnic minority or immigrant group – for example, 500 Roma respondents or 500 respondents with a Sub-Saharan African background. The research surveyed between one and three ethnic minority background/immigrant groups per Member State.

The research draws comparisons across EU Member States where the same groups were surveyed. *The EU-MIDIS Data in Focus 1* report, for example, looks at the experiences of Roma interviewees in seven Member States.

Interview period

May 2008 – November 2008

Sampling approach

- 1) Random route sampling with focused enumeration: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Greece, Estonia, France, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia and Spain.
- 2) Address-based sampling: Denmark, Finland, Germany and Luxembourg.
- 3) Interviewer generated and network sampling: Malta.
- 4) Combination of (1) and (3): Ireland, Netherlands, Slovenia, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

For more information about EU-MIDIS methodology and sampling, see the EU-MIDIS Technical Report, available at: <http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis>

The **Data in Focus 6** report presents findings on:

- The percentage of survey respondents who said they were victims of crime at least once in a 12-month period, comparing experiences between different groups according to their ethnic minority or immigrant background and across EU Member States.
- The percentage of survey respondents from different ethnic minority and immigrant backgrounds who said that they were victims of what they perceived as 'racially' or ethnically motivated crime.
- The main characteristics of incidents of assault and threat and serious harassment, covering the type of perpetrator and whether or not 'racist' or religiously offensive language was used.
- Whether victims reported their experiences to the police and how they were treated by the police when they did so, as well as reasons for not reporting incidents to the police.
- A comparison of EU-MIDIS findings with data from the European Crime and Safety Survey (which interviewed the majority population in 18 EU Member States) concerning the percentage of respondents from both surveys who said they were victims of theft of personal property and assault or threat.

All reports and other documentation from the survey are available at: <http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis>.

Country code	EU Member State
AT	Austria
BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CY	Cyprus
CZ	Czech Republic
DE	Germany
DK	Denmark
EE	Estonia
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FI	Finland
FR	France
HU	Hungary
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SE	Sweden
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
UK	United Kingdom

WHAT EU-MIDIS ASKED ABOUT MINORITIES AS VICTIMS OF CRIME

The survey asked respondents a series of questions about their experiences of criminal victimisation in relation to the following five crime types:

- theft of or from a vehicle;
- burglary or attempted burglary;
- theft of personal property not involving force or threat;
- assault or threat;
- serious harassment.

Given that many crimes are relatively rare events, EU-MIDIS asked respondents about their experiences of crime in the last five years; this report, however, explores findings from the survey with respect to people's experiences in the 12 months preceding the survey interview. The analysis of results and recommendations are thus based on more up-to-date information.

Follow-up questions focused on how often interviewees had experienced assaults or threats and serious harassment in the last 12 months. These results showed whether certain groups were more prone to repeat victimisation. The survey questions also asked interviewees whether they considered their experiences of victimisation to be motivated in any way by their ethnic minority or immigrant background.

The survey asked for detailed information about the most recent incident of assault and threat, or serious harassment, such as the characteristics of the perpetrator, how many perpetrators were involved and whether 'racially' or religiously offensive language was used. These answers helped construct a picture of the nature of incidents that interviewees perceived as 'racially' motivated. The survey also asked interviewees whether they had reported the incident to the police and whether they were satisfied with the way the police had dealt with the matter. If the incident was not reported, interviewees were asked why they had not reported it. These results can be viewed alongside results from the survey that asked people about their trust in the police (see *EU-MIDIS Data in Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities*).

Other than their self-reported ethnic minority or immigrant background, the survey also recorded other characteristics of the victims, such as sex, age, religious affiliation, educational level and employment status. As there is insufficient space in this report to address the results on these different grounds, the release of the main dataset from EU-MIDIS will allow interested parties to explore these findings further.

DATA ON MINORITIES AS VICTIMS: IMPLICATIONS FOR SURVEY AND DATA POLICY

Crime surveys were developed a number of years ago in an effort to collect more accurate data about the extent and nature of people's experiences as crime victims, and are now well-established in several countries as alternative tools for crime data collection (for example, see the Crime Survey for England and Wales – formerly the British Crime Survey – established in 1982²). The findings from these surveys can be contrasted with official police and criminal justice data that can only report on those crimes that the public informs the authorities about. As crime surveys ask a random sample of the population about their experiences, they set out to produce a representative picture of the 'true' extent of crime and to unearth what criminologists refer to as the 'dark figure' of crime. In the same way, EU-MIDIS modelled its questions on criminal victimisation on established crime surveys and based its fieldwork on principles of random sampling in an effort to record representative results for the groups interviewed.

Crime surveys are particularly helpful in uncovering information about types of crime that tend to go unreported and about groups that are less likely to report crime. Surveys have shown, for example, that violence against women has traditionally been under-reported to the police (see results from the *International Violence against Women Survey*³). Drawing on this tradition, EU-MIDIS is designed to seek out this type of information for minorities and crime. Specifically, it explores how minorities in EU Member States experience criminal incidents across five crime types, whether they consider their experiences of crime to be 'racially motivated', and if they report these incidents to the police.

Alongside EU-MIDIS data, FRA Annual Reports⁴ regularly present information about EU Member States' police and criminal justice data collection with respect to what can broadly be described as 'racially' or religiously motivated crime. FRA reporting has shown great variation among EU Member States in the kind of data that are publicly available. These differences reflect several factors, including the historical trajectory of each Member State's experience with 'racist' and religiously motivated crime and the recognition of such crimes. These different histories have resulted in legal disparities that condition what can be 'counted' under certain crime categories. Another key factor in the extent and detail of data collected on criminal victimisation, including 'hate' crime, is the overall prominence that a Member State gives to empirical data collection as a tool to inform policy development. This means that some Member States – such as the United Kingdom and Germany – report relatively high 'racist' crime figures, because their laws and data collection

mechanisms allow them to count broader categories of data. In comparison, other Member States – such as Greece and Portugal – publish either no 'racist' crime data on a regular basis or only limited data representing a handful of cases.

Making hate crime visible in the European Union: acknowledging victims' rights

This *EU-MIDIS Data in Focus* report should be read alongside the 2012 FRA report on *Making hate crime visible in the European Union: acknowledging victims' rights*, which reviews and critiques EU Member States' data collection mechanisms concerning a range of different crimes, including 'racist' and religiously motivated crime.

See: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources>

EU-MIDIS as an example for other surveys

Reflecting FRA work in the area of cross-national crime survey data collection on minority groups, the agency provided specific text on this issue for the United Nations (UN) manual on crime survey research – an in-depth guide on how to undertake crime survey research for those countries that have yet to collect data in this area, or where their data collection can be developed further. This UN publication is now considered as the reference manual in this field.

For more information, see: UN, Office on Drugs and Crime and UN, Economic Commission for Europe (2010), *Manual on Victimization Surveys*, available at: www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/Crime-statistics/Manual_on_Victimization_surveys_2009_web.pdf

Another key factor is the public's willingness to report crime to the authorities, and whether the system for reporting is 'user friendly'; that is, whether it recognises the needs and rights of victims, and, in particular, vulnerable victims such as victims of 'hate crime'⁵. Put simply, official criminal justice data on the extent of 'racist' and related hate crime tells us as much about the nature of data collection mechanisms in an EU Member State and the state's use of data for policy development and action to address these crimes, as it does about the 'true' extent and nature of such crimes.

Reflecting the legitimacy that is now given to crime surveys – Eurostat has been in the process, over several years, of developing the EU Safety Survey (SASU), which builds on the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS) model. As the SASU survey, in its current form, does not incorporate

2 United Kingdom, Home Office (2012), *Crime in England and Wales: Quarterly Update to September 2011*; available at: www.homeoffice.gov.uk/science-research/research-statistics/crime/crime-statistics/british-crime-survey/.

3 Johnson, H., Natalia Ollus, N. and Nevala, S. (2008), *Violence against Women: An international perspective*, New York, Springer.

4 FRA (2012), *Fundamental rights: challenges and achievements in 2011*, Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union (Publications Office).

5 Hate crime is a term that is sometimes used to denote experiences of crime that, for example, have some element of 'racist', anti-Semitic or homophobic motivation. A full explanation of the use of this term is given in the report that accompanies this one, see: FRA (2012), *Making hate crime visible in the European Union: acknowledging victims' rights*, Luxembourg, Publications Office.

a 'booster' sample⁶ of respondents with an ethnic minority or immigrant background, and the national samples would only capture a small number of respondents from these groups – EU-MIDIS remains the first survey across the EU 27 to specifically sample ethnic minority and immigrant groups and ask questions about their experiences of crime and whether they perceived these as being 'racially' or ethnically motivated.

In September 2012, however, adoption of the SASU survey stalled at the level of the European Parliament, which means that the survey's future remains uncertain at the time of this publication.

Promising practice

Comparing official criminal justice data with crime survey data

England and Wales present official police and criminal justice data on crime rates alongside the data from the Crime Survey for England and Wales on criminal victimisation. By enabling a comparison between the official and the crime survey data, police and other organisations, such as victim support services, can monitor and respond to fluctuations between official and unofficial crime reports. These shifts can reveal the extent of hidden crime for different groups as well as the willingness of different groups to report crime to the police.

For more information, see: www.homeoffice.gov.uk/publications/science-research-statistics/research-statistics/crime-research/hosb0112/hosb0112?view=Binary

EU-MIDIS data on minorities' experiences of 'racist' or religiously motivated crime coincides with the introduction of EU legislation on certain types of hate crime, namely: the 2008 Council Framework Decision on combating racism and xenophobia.⁷ EU Member States are currently implementing the Framework Decision. EU-MIDIS and existing national research evidence could be of benefit to them in this process as the research reveals the extent to which different groups of people – groups whom the legislation aims to protect – experience the type of crime the Framework Decision covers. Importantly, crime survey data can show whether crimes covered by legislation are reported to the police and can also reveal the extent to which minorities experience forms of hate crime that the Framework Decision or national legislation do not cover.

EU-MIDIS provides evidence of incidents of assault or threat, or serious harassment in which respondents noted the use of 'racially' or religiously offensive language against them. As such, it can be used as a starting point from which to estimate the potential extent of these types of crime against the different groups surveyed as a percentage of their numbers in the general population. This kind of information, if collected regularly at EU Member State level, could assist in revealing the 'dark figure' of unreported crime in areas covered by EU and national law. This research evidence would help policy makers to know when and in what particular areas they need to take action as the duty bearers responsible for protecting vulnerable minorities and for encouraging them to report hate crime as a fundamental rights abuse.

Reading crime survey data: responding to critics

Some critics argue for a cautious reading of crime survey results because it is impossible to verify that a crime actually occurred. As the United Kingdom's regular comparison of official criminal justice with crime survey data for England and Wales illustrates, however, crime survey data are considered a legitimate tool that more accurately estimate crime rates than official data.

Similarly, critics object that 'racist' or religious motivation can only be proven in a court of law, and that any indication of such motivation by respondents in a crime survey should be read with caution. But some EU Member States (United Kingdom) have changed their crime reporting approach in hate crimes to respond to such claims. If a victim or witness reports an incident to the police and contends it was a hate crime in whole or in part, the authorities record and report this information in the public domain before the case reaches the criminal justice system. By giving victims the benefit of the doubt, this procedure aims to encourage groups that are vulnerable to hate crime, and who are often distrustful of the police, to come forward and report their experiences. Because cases are often won only when the most difficult charges are dropped, by, say, bumping down a charge of a 'racially' aggravated assault to assault, the approach also helps counteract the non-recording of hate crime in crime statistics.

Bearing this in mind, and reflecting established practice for crime survey reporting in the English language, this report uses terms such as 'victimisation' and 'crime victims' rather than 'alleged victimisation' or 'alleged victims'.

⁶ A booster sample is when a survey over-samples a group or groups in a population which would normally not be captured in sufficient numbers through random sampling. For example, 'rare' populations that would need to be captured through a booster sample in a general population survey include certain ethnic minorities.

⁷ Council of the European Union (2008), Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law, OJ 2008 L 328 (*Framework Decision on Racism*).

SURVEY RESULTS: MINORITIES AS VICTIMS OF CRIME

Overall victimisation rates

The percentage of respondents experiencing *at least one* crime in the 12 months preceding the interview with respect to *at least one* of the five crime types covered, known as the crime **prevalence rate** (Figure 1), was as follows: 33 % of Sub-Saharan Africans and 32 % of Roma; around one in four North Africans (26 %), and Central and East Europeans (CEE) (24 %); 21 % of all Turkish respondents; 17 % of respondents with a Russian background; and 14 % of former Yugoslavian interviewees.

With an average victimisation rate of 24 % for all groups surveyed, Sub-Saharan African and Roma are overrepresented as crime victims. These results indicate that, on average, more visible minorities are reporting higher levels of victimisation than immigrant or minority groups who resemble the majority population. These results, however, mask significant differences within the same aggregate 'Roma' or 'Sub-Saharan African' group depending on which EU Member State they live in, and between different groups within the same Member State.

How this report refers to groups

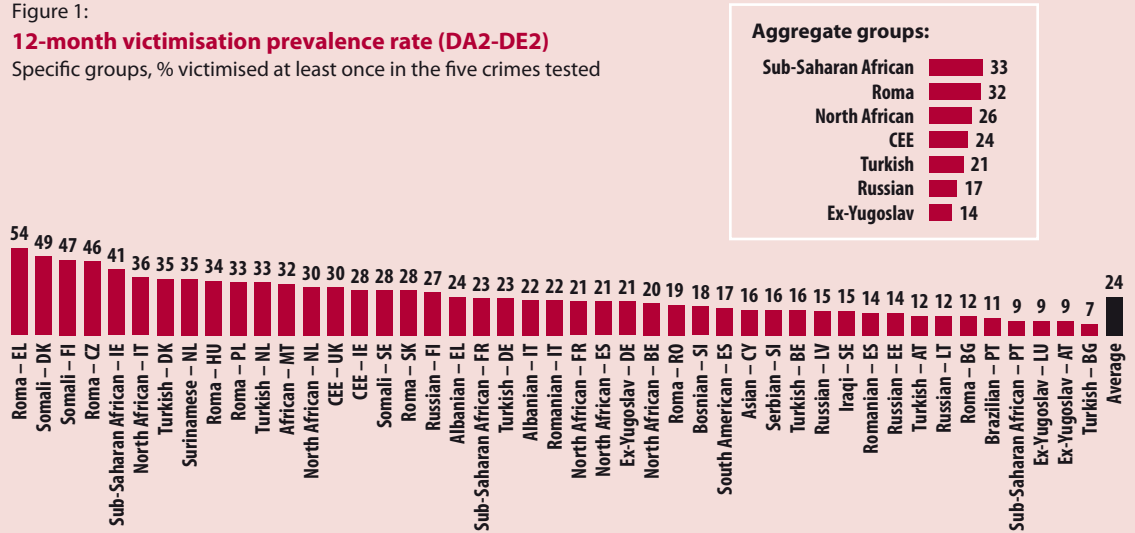
In this report, an **'aggregate' group** refers to the various minority groups that share similar ethnic or immigrant backgrounds for purposes of comparison. The aggregate Roma group, for example, represents results for Roma interviewees who were interviewed in seven EU Member States.

Rather than continually referring to respondents as being of Turkish or Sub-Saharan African *ethnicity, origin or background* – the report refers to Turkish interviewees or Sub-Saharan Africans as shorthand for identifying these groups. This does not denote their citizenship (which was identified separately).

All interviewees self-identified as belonging to a minority group and as such were not assigned to a group based on the decision of an interviewer.

While one should not compare results between Member States when *different* minority groups were interviewed, one can compare results between groups within each of the aggregate groups surveyed; for example, between different groups within the aggregate North African group, or between Somali groups interviewed within the aggregate Sub-Saharan African group.

Figure 1:
12-month victimisation prevalence rate (DA2-DE2)
Specific groups, % victimised at least once in the five crimes tested



EU-MIDIS 2008

Questions DA1-DE1: During the last 5 years, [or since you've been in the country if less than 5 years], in [COUNTRY] has [TYPE] happened to you? [IF YES] DA2-DE2: Thinking about the last time this happened, when was this: in the last twelve months or before then?

The [TYPES]: was any car, van, truck, motorbike, moped or bicycle – or some other form of transport belonging to you or your household – stolen, or had something stolen from it? [All forms of motorised and non-motorised transport can be included]. Did anyone get into your home without permission and steal or try to steal something? [Does include cellars – Does NOT include garages, sheds, lock-ups or gardens. Have you personally been the victim of any thefts that did not involve force? Have you been personally attacked, that is hit or pushed, or threatened by someone in a way that REALLY frightened you? Have you been personally harassed by someone or a group in a way that REALLY upset, offended or annoyed you?

Figure 1 shows that, for the seven EU Member States where Roma were surveyed, the overall victimisation rate across the five crime types surveyed during the previous 12 months ran from: Greece (54 %); Czech Republic (46 %); Hungary (34 %); Poland (33 %); Slovakia (28 %); Romania (19 %) to Bulgaria (12 %). The different rates may reflect relative crime rates in each Member State. They may also reflect the fact that minorities may tend to live in disproportionately high crime areas within Member States. In those Member States in which a significant number of interviews for the survey were conducted in cities and large towns, further research at the local level can help contextualise people's experiences of crime, aiding local and police authorities. Such research is beyond the scope of an international crime survey.⁸

The results allow not only for a comparison of victimisation rates *within aggregate groups* but also *within EU Member States* where two or more different groups were interviewed. In Italy, for example, the 12-month average victimisation rates were 36 % for North Africans and 22 % for Romanians, while in Spain the rates were 21 % for North Africans and 14 % for Romanians. The likelihood a respondent will be victimised over a 12-month period depends, therefore, on the aggregate group he or she belongs to and his or her country of residence.

These differences in victimisation rates within aggregate groups and within EU Member States can serve as an indicator of social problems as do the survey's results concerning high rates of what respondents perceive as discriminatory treatment on the grounds of their ethnic minority or immigrant background (see *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report*). High rates of criminal victimisation relative to other groups, when compounded with high rates of non-reporting to the authorities, are indicators of social problems that are related to non-enjoyment of fundamental rights – such as human dignity and access to justice.

Minorities as victims of specific crimes

Breaking down the results by crime type surveyed reveals a number of patterns.

Different aggregate groups were, on average, more likely to be victims of one crime type than another. Sub-Saharan Africans, for example, were most exposed to vehicle-related crime but less to burglary and theft of personal property. They also experienced high levels of assault and threat and serious harassment. In comparison, former Yugoslavians consistently experienced some of the lowest levels of victimisation across the five crime types when compared with other minorities.

A breakdown of the results for three crime types – burglary, assault and threat, and serious harassment – brings out some interesting patterns with respect to the aggregate groups who reported the highest levels of victimisation.

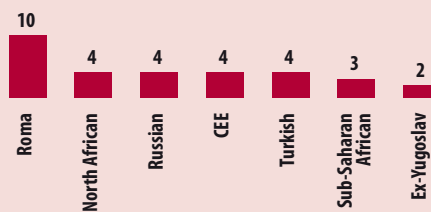
Burglary

Figure 2:

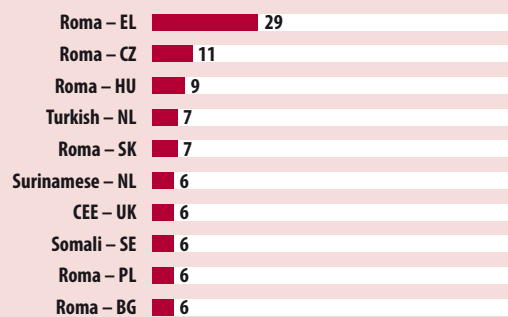
Prevalence rate of specific crime: burglary (DB2)

% victimised at least once in the past 12 months

Aggregate groups:



Specific groups with highest prevalence rates (top 10):



EU-MIDIS 2008

Question DB1: During the last 5 years, did anyone get into your home without permission and steal or try to steal something? [Does include cellars – Does NOT include garages, sheds, lock-ups or gardens]. [IF YES] DB2: Thinking about the last time this happened, when was this: in the last 12 months or before then?

As Figure 2 shows, the Roma in Greece face a high likelihood of having their homes burgled at least once in a 12-month period (29 %), a rate which drives up the overall burglary rate for the Roma as an aggregate group (10 %). This overall rate is more than double that for other aggregate groups which experience burglary rates of 4 % or lower. The second and third highest rates for burglary, although considerably lower than the rate for Roma in Greece, are experienced by Roma in the Czech Republic (11 %) and Roma in Hungary (9 %). Roma – in Slovakia (7 %), Bulgaria (6 %) and Poland (6 %) – are also among the 'top 10' groups with the highest rates of victimisation for burglary. Turkish respondents (7 %) and Surinamese (6 %), the latter of whom are classified as being of Sub-Saharan African origin, experience similar rates of burglary in the Netherlands, as do Central and East European interviewees in the United Kingdom.

The high rate of criminal victimisation on groups such as Roma, who are already socio-economically deprived, is a factor to consider when developing indicators of relative deprivation. To enrich an analysis of the EU-MIDIS data on experiences of Roma as victims of crime, for example, researchers could juxtapose them with data on the criminal stereotyping of certain minorities.

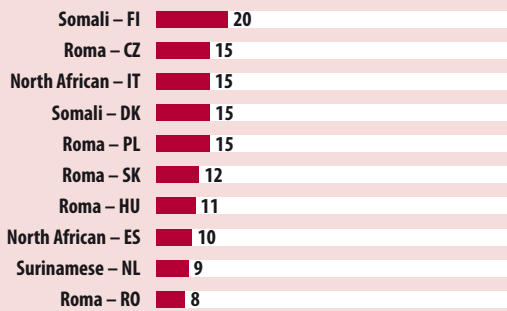
Assault and threat

Figure 3:
Prevalence rate of specific crime: assault or threat (DD2)
% victimised at least once in the past 12 months

Aggregate groups:



Specific groups with highest prevalence rates (top 10):



EU-MIDIS 2008

Question DD1: During the last 5 years, have you been personally attacked, that is hit or pushed, or threatened by someone in a way that REALLY frightened you? [IF YES] DD2: Thinking about the last time this happened, when was this: in the last twelve months or before then?

Turning to findings for assault and threat, Figure 3 shows that, on average, Roma (10%), Sub-Saharan Africans (9%) and North Africans (9%) are most likely to have suffered an assault or threat at least once in the last 12 months. Without exception, the 'top 10' list of minority groups that are most victimised by assault or threat is drawn exclusively from these three aggregate groups. Of those in the 'top 10' listing, five were Roma, three Sub-Saharan African and a further two North African.

These results indicate that violent crime and the threat of violent crime pose serious problems for particular groups, such as minorities that are most visibly different from the majority population. Targeted interventions are needed to effectively address the causes of victimisation for these groups and the consequences for victims.

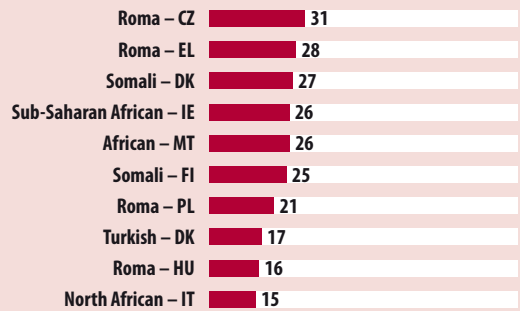
Serious harassment

Figure 4:
Prevalence rate of specific crime: serious harassment (DE2)
% victimised at least once in the past 12 months

Aggregate groups:



Specific groups with highest prevalence rates (top 10):



EU-MIDIS 2008

Question DE1: During the last 5 years, have you been personally harassed by someone or a group in a way that REALLY upset, offended or annoyed you? [IF YES] DE2: Thinking about the last time this happened, when was this: in the last twelve months or before then?

On average, almost every fifth Roma or Sub-Saharan African interviewee had experienced serious harassment at least once in the previous 12 months (Figure 4). Roma and Sub-Saharan African respondents dominate the list of the 10 groups most affected by serious harassment. The only others who also make the 'top 10' list are North Africans in Italy and Turkish interviewees in Denmark. Given that two of the 'top 10' groups experiencing the highest levels of serious harassment were in Denmark, and no other country had two 'top 10' entries, it would be useful to further explore the experiences of these groups in the locations where they were interviewed, Copenhagen and Odense.

Statistical patterns

Testing for the degree to which being a victim of different crime types may in some way be related, a statistical analysis of the results⁹ shows that the correlation rates between each of the five crime experiences remain generally low – with the exception of having been a victim of assault or threat and a victim of serious harassment.¹⁰ For example – there is no strong relationship between being a victim of theft and a victim of assault or threat, but there is a strong relationship between being a victim of assault or threat and being a victim of serious harassment.

By clustering the five crime types into two broad categories – **‘property crime’ comprising vehicle crime, burglary and theft, and ‘in-person crime’ comprising assault or threat, and serious harassment** – the analysis hints at marked differences between the groups who are most affected by these two broad crime types.¹¹ The results show, for example, that Roma and Sub-Saharan Africans are more likely to be victims of in-person crime (both 23%) in comparison with property crime (both 18%), while Central and East Europeans tended to report higher levels of property crime related victimisation (17%) in comparison with in-person crime (11%).

With the results showing a relationship between being a victim of in-person crime and belonging to certain minority groups, the following paragraphs look at the percentage of victims of in-person crime who perceived that their victimisation was in some way ‘racially’ motivated.

Minorities as victims of ‘racially motivated’ crime

Nearly every fifth Roma and every fifth Sub-Saharan African interviewed considered that they had been a victim of ‘racially motivated’ in-person crime of assault or threat, and serious harassment at least once in the last 12 months, or 18 % of all interviewees in both aggregate groups. For all other groups, the proportion indicating that they considered themselves as victims of ‘racist’ crime in the last 12 months was below 10 %, falling to 3 % for those with a background from former Yugoslavia.

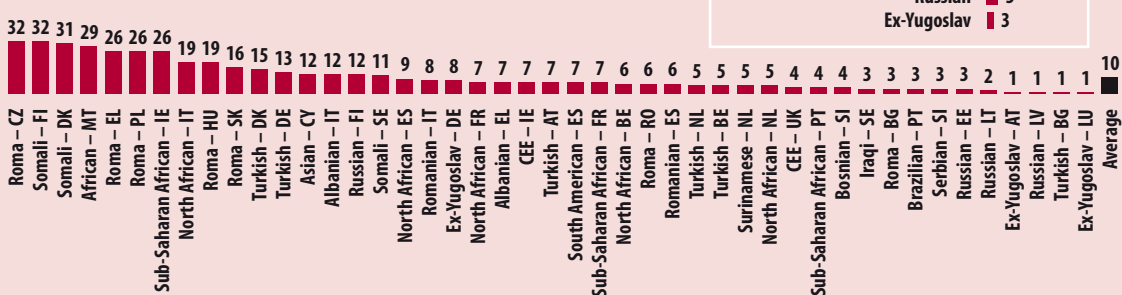
‘Racially motivated’ or ‘racist’ crime

These terms are used as shorthand to capture those experiences of crime that interviewees considered happened in whole or part because of their ethnic minority or immigrant background. The terms do not acknowledge the existence of distinct ‘races’ (see paragraph 6 in the preamble to the Directive implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (*Racial Equality Directive*)¹²).

Figure 5:

In-person crime with a perceived ‘racist’ motive (DD4, DE5)

% of victims of serious harassment or assaults or threats with an anticipated racist/ethnic motive in the past 12 months (in the total population)



EU-MIDIS 2008

Question DD4-DE5: Do you think that [this incident/any of these incidents] IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS happened partly or completely because of your immigrant/minority background?

9 Using a two-tailed Pearson correlation coefficient, with significance at 0.01 level (see *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report*, p. 64).

10 The results show a correlation of 0.257.

11 The results show a correlation of 0.218.

12 Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of ‘racial’ or ethnic origin, OJ 2000 L 180 (*Racial Equality Directive*).

The highest levels of ‘racially motivated’ in-person crime were recorded among Roma in the Czech Republic and Somalis in Finland, with 32 % of all interviewees from both of these groups considering that they had been victims of ‘racist’ in-person crime. They were followed by Somalis in Denmark (31 %) and Africans in Malta (29 %). Only 1 % of former Yugoslavians in Austria and Luxembourg, Russians in Latvia and Turkish respondents in Bulgaria indicated that they had been a victim of in-person ‘racist’ crime in the previous 12-month period.

These findings confirm that the more visible minority groups are more likely to have experienced in-person crime that they consider ‘racially motivated’. Although they are based on interviewees’ perceptions alone, these figures are worrying and can be contrasted with official crime statistics on ‘racially motivated’ crime. While, for example, EU-MIDIS indicates that 29 % of African interviewees in Malta considered they were victims of ‘racially motivated’ in-person crime, Malta collects limited police and criminal justice data on ‘racially motivated’ crime and these data are not published.¹³

Looking specifically at results *only* for those respondents who said they had been victims of crime in the last 12 months – rather than at results for all interviewees, as above – the survey asked these respondents about *the most recent incident* of assault and threat, and *the most recent incident* of serious harassment. The results, as shown in Table 1, provide the kind of detail that is often not available through official statistics, namely: information about the nature of the incident, and specifically whether the interviewee perceived a ‘racist’ motivation and/or experienced ‘racist’ or religiously offensive language.

With respect to the data in Table 1 on the most recent incident of assault or threat, 60 % of Sub-Saharan Africans, 54 % of Roma and 43 % of North Africans indicated that ‘racist’ or religiously offensive language was used, in comparison with 23 % of Central and East Europeans and 27 % of Russians. While the results for visible minorities are somewhat ‘predictable’, the percentages of Central and East Europeans as well as Russians who indicate the presence of ‘racist’ or religiously offensive language warrant further investigation. Although the rates for the latter groups are lower than for the others, they are high enough to suggest that they face what could be recognised as hate crime, although they are not visibly different from the majority population.

Table 1:
Assault or threat, incident details

Incident details	Sub-Saharan African	CEE	Ex-Yugoslav	North African	Roma	Russian	Turkish
<i>Rate of victimisation (DD1, DD2)</i>	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Not victimised	83	92	93	84	82	92	91
Victimised past 12 months	9	4	3	9	10	4	3
Victimised past 2-5 years	8	4	4	7	8	4	5
<i>Force actually used (DD10)</i>							
Yes (within all assaults or threats)	50	48	43	65	48	60	41
Yes (in the total population)	5	2	1	6	5	2	1
<i>Something stolen (DD5)</i>							
Yes (within all assaults or threats)	14	38	17	36	21	27	14
Yes (in the total population)	1	2	1	3	2	1	0
<i>Attributed racial/ethnic motivation (DD4)</i>							
Yes, including the most recent	70	46	32	46	73	42	60
Yes, but not including the most recent	2	5	4	10	5	2	5
No	21	39	55	39	18	42	30
Don’t know/no opinion	6	9	9	5	4	14	6
<i>Racist or religiously offensive language used (DD9)</i>							
Yes	60	23	36	43	54	27	52

EU-MIDIS 2008

13 See the section on ‘The visibility of hate crime: official data collection in the European Union’ in FRA (2012) *Making hate crime visible in the European Union: acknowledging victims’ rights*, Luxembourg, Publications Office, available at: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources>.

Table 2:

Assault or threat, perpetrator details

Perpetrator details	Sub-Saharan African	CEE	Ex-Yugoslav	North African	Roma	Russian	Turkish
<i>Perpetrators (DD8)</i>	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
From the same ethnic group	12	12	22	22	33	18	17
From another ethnic group	19	27	32	31	12	16	31
From majority	71	57	32	56	60	59	52
<i>Multiple perpetrators (DD6)</i>							
Yes	53	66	55	67	70	46	49
<i>Perpetrators included (DD7)</i>							
Member of your household (incl. former)	5	2	5	5	6	16	6
Someone from your neighbourhood	17	12	23	15	27	11	17
Someone you work with/colleague	4	4	7	6	3	7	6
A customer, client or patient	5	4	7	4	2	10	10
Someone else you know	10	7	12	10	19	15	14
Member of a right-wing/racist gang	8	6	5	6	12	1	13
Police officer	3	1	4	4	4	7	7
Other public official	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
A stranger (someone else you didn't know)	58	66	44	52	52	59	43

EU-MIDIS 2008

The results also show whether perpetrators, with respect to the last incident of assault and threat, were from the majority population, another ethnic group or the same ethnic group. Here, Sub-Saharan Africans stand out as being victimised more often by members of the majority population (71 % report this), which would seem to indicate 'racist' victimisation when taken in combination with the fact that 60 % experienced 'racist' or religiously offensive language in relation to this last incident.

Although Table 2 shows that a high percentage of victims in EU-MIDIS experience assault or threat at the hands of another ethnic group, this finding is not, by itself, an indication of hate crime. It does make clear, however, that in-person crime is a complex experience involving potentially different actors from various ethnic backgrounds. One view of this reality might see the majority population perpetrating crimes against minorities, while another might see inter-ethnic conflict manifesting itself as hate crime.

Some EU Member States, such as Austria and Germany, devote a great deal of attention to the actions of extremist 'racist' gangs as perpetrators of hate crime. Although the majority of Sub-Saharan African, Roma and Turkish respondents said that 'racist' or religiously offensive language was used in the most recent incident of assault or threat, they did *not* identify members of right-wing extremist gangs as perpetrators in the majority of cases. Just 13 % of Turkish victims, 12 % of Roma victims and 8 % of Sub-Saharan Africans identified members of such groups as perpetrators in the latest incident of assault or threat, making clear that 'racist' perpetrators are not only the product of extremist 'racist' gangs but also come from elsewhere. As victims identified the perpetrators of a large number of cases of assault or threat as someone they knew or recognised, this would suggest that 'racist' incidents, as with assault or threat

of a 'non-racist' nature, are the product of both stranger and non-stranger crime, which requires more insight into 'who' perpetrators are.

Perhaps most worryingly, 7 % of Turkish respondents and respondents with a Russian background identified police officers as perpetrators of the last incident of assault or threat. Other groups identified police officers as perpetrators in 4 % or less of the most recent incidents. These findings need to be borne in mind when looking at the upcoming section on reporting to the police.

Finally, figures on the most recent incident of **serious harassment** produce similar result patterns as those for assault and threat. Survey respondents indicated, however, that they experienced serious harassment more often than assault or threat. Both 18 % of Sub-Saharan Africans and Roma, for example, experienced serious harassment in the last 12 months, while, in the same period, only 9 % of Sub-Saharan Africans and 10 % of Roma suffered assault and threat. Victims were also more likely to attribute a 'racist' motive to the latest incident of serious harassment they experienced: 79 % of both Roma and Sub-Saharan Africans considered these incidents to be 'racist'. Sub-Saharan and Roma victims also said more perpetrators of serious harassment came from the majority population, and indicated that, in comparison with cases of assault or threat, perpetrators used more 'racist' and religiously offensive language. Serious harassment therefore emerges as an area that is prone to 'racist' overtones. Given that serious harassment takes place more frequently than assault or threat, the 'repeat' nature of serious harassment, when combined with some element of racism, can have a debilitating impact on victims. Yet all too often, as the next section shows, these incidents are not reported to the police.

Reporting to the police

Table 3 shows the degree to which victims of assault or threat and serious harassment reported their experiences to the police, alongside the percentage who considered their experiences to be 'very or fairly serious'.

Overall, the results indicate that the majority of victims of assault or threat did not report their experiences to the police, although the majority characterised these experiences as 'serious'. Even more victims of serious harassment did not report to the police (partly because such incidents might not be considered by victims as coming within the mandate of the police), although at least half of victims across all aggregate groups surveyed considered these incidents to be 'serious'. These results are of concern as they show that a significant number of incidents are not coming to the attention of the authorities, and, therefore, that there is no recourse to justice by minority groups who are victims of these types of crime.

The survey asked those who did not report incidents of in-person crime to the police about their reasons for not doing so. Respondents were allowed to provide reasons in their own words, and their responses were categorised accordingly, with multiple reasons possible. Respondents' main reason was that they were not confident that the police would be able to do anything – 48 % of all victims of assault or threat, or serious harassment, gave this as a reason. At 75 %, Roma victims of assault or threat reported the highest level of lack of confidence in the police's ability to do anything.

Although the majority of victims of in-person crime considered their experiences to have been 'serious', many indicated that a reason for not reporting to the police was that the incident or incidents concerned were too trivial and not worth reporting – 37 % of all victims gave this as a response. One explanation for this apparent contradiction could be that many victims experience these types of in-person crime repeatedly and they therefore become 'normalised' and, as such, are not considered worth

reporting. The high number of incidents per 100 persons from a given group in the last 12 months, the **incidence rate**, could help explain how experiences of in-person crime become 'normalised' among some minority groups. Such 'normality' is suggested, for example, when incidence rates for assault or threat in the survey reach 74 for every 100 Somalis interviewed in Finland, and 44 for every North African interviewed in Italy; and rates for serious harassment climb to 174 for every 100 Roma interviewed in Greece and 118 for every 100 Roma interviewed in the Czech Republic.

Large numbers of Roma and Turkish victims of assault or threat, 35 % and 19 % respectively, said that they did not report their last experience to the police because of fear of intimidation from the perpetrators. In comparison, only 9 % of Sub-Saharan Africans gave this as a reason for non-reporting. Roma, 38 %, and Turkish respondents, 31 %, also said that they were concerned about the consequences of reporting, while only 12 % of Sub-Saharan Africans mentioned this concern as a factor. In sum, anxiety about the consequences of reporting incidents of assault or threat to the police emerged from the data as an important factor contributing to non-reporting for certain minorities.

Of particular concern for the police should be the finding that significant numbers of Roma and Turkish victims of assault or threat gave their 'negative attitude towards the police' as a reason for *non-reporting*: 33 % and 24 %, respectively. Of those who *did* report assault or threat to the police, 54 % of Roma said they were 'dissatisfied' with how the police dealt with the matter. Other groups who reported incidents to the police, such as Russian, Turkish and former Yugoslavian respondents, shared this dissatisfaction, although these figures are difficult to interpret given the low number of respondents who actually reported to the police.

These findings can also be looked at alongside victims' levels of trust in the police. When asked whether they tended to trust or not trust the police with respect to the country where they were interviewed, 50 % of Roma said they tended *not* to trust the police in comparison with 30 % of North Africans, 24 % of Sub-Saharan Africans, 22 % of Russians, 18 % of

Table 3:

Reporting and seriousness of in-person crime

	Sub-Saharan African	CEE	Ex-Yugoslav	North African	Roma	Russian	Turkish
ASSAULT OR THREAT							
<i>Seriousness (DD14)</i>							
Very or fairly serious	73	66	75	63	65	60	70
Not very serious	21	30	24	34	31	36	24
<i>Police reports (DD11)</i>							
Yes, reported	40	31	43	38	31	31	26
Not reported	60	69	57	62	69	69	74
SERIOUS HARASSMENT							
<i>Seriousness (DE13)</i>							
Very or fairly serious	60	50	61	58	61	60	60
Not very serious	37	45	33	41	37	38	33
<i>Police reports (DE10)</i>							
Yes, reported	16	11	25	21	16	16	10
Not reported	84	89	75	79	84	84	90

Central and East Europeans, 17 % of Turkish respondents and 16 % of former Yugoslavians. Many respondents, ranging from 16 % to 23 % of all aggregate groups surveyed, indicated that they neither trusted nor distrusted the police. While 16 % of former Yugoslavians tended not to trust the police, for example, 18 % were neither trustful nor distrustful and 64 % tended to trust the police. In sum, although most minority groups, with the exception of Roma and North Africans, tended to trust the police, the results indicate that more work needs to be done among certain minorities in selected EU Member States to build up levels of trust.

If immigrant and ethnic minority groups are to be encouraged to report their experiences of crime to the police, and in particular their experiences of 'racist' crime, then a system that encourages reporting needs to be in place.

EU-MIDIS Data in Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities

EU-MIDIS results in this section on reporting to the police and levels of trust in the police should be read alongside the *EU-MIDIS Data in Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities*, which presents detailed information concerning the survey's findings on police stops and perceptions of discriminatory ethnic profiling. The report also presents data that compare the number and outcome of stops between majority population interviewees and minority group interviewees in 10 EU Member States.

For more information, see: FRA (2010), EU-MIDIS Data in Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities

Comparing EU-MIDIS results with those for the majority population

The European Crime and Safety Survey, carrying on the tradition of the International Crime Victimization Survey, collected data in 18 EU Member States¹⁴ in 2005 on the majority population's experiences of crime. Some questions included in EU-MIDIS were designed to allow for a comparison of results between the two surveys; in other words, between crimes experienced by minority groups and by the majority population. Although the two surveys have methodological differences (see 4.3.1 in the *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report*), and data collection took place three years apart, a comparison of results offers insights with respect to the two crime areas where the questions can be closely 'matched', namely: theft of personal property, and experiences of assault and threat.

Personal theft

In the 18 EU Member States in which the European Crime and Safety Survey interviewed the majority population, EU-MIDIS interviewed a total of 34 different minority groups, surveying between one and three minority groups in each

EU Member State. Of the 34 minority groups surveyed, 25 experienced higher prevalence rates of personal theft than the majority population. Marked differences emerged in the percentages of those experiencing personal theft in the last 12 months. In Greece, the majority population recorded 3.5 %; Roma respondents, 21.1 %; and Albanians, 6.7 %. In Italy, the majority experienced a rate of victimisation of 3.2 % while North Africans registered 18.6 %, Romanians 13.4 % and Albanians 9.3 %. Some minority groups, in contrast, experienced comparable or lower rates of personal theft than the majority population. In Austria, the theft rate for the majority population was 5.7 %, but Turkish respondents registered 1.9 % and former Yugoslavians, 3.5 %. In Germany, rates for the majority population, Turkish respondents and those from former Yugoslavia were 5.2 %, 4.6 % and 5.2 %, respectively.

Assault and threat

Comparing the two surveys' results on assault and threat shows that of the 34 minority groups surveyed in EU-MIDIS for those 18 EU Member States for which the surveys can be compared, 21 recorded a higher victimisation rate for assault and threat than the majority population did. In a handful of Member States minorities indicate a level of assault and threat that is four times higher than for the majority population. For example, 19.3 % of all Somali respondents in Finland indicated that they had experienced assault or threat in the last 12 months in comparison with 4.5 % of the majority population; Denmark reported similar rates: 14.1 % of Somali respondents and 3.6 % of the majority population.

If we analyse the incidence rate, the results indicate that in the 18 EU Member States where comparisons can be made 25 of the 34 minority groups reported more incidents of assault or threat in a 12-month period than the majority population. Stark differences again emerged for Somalis: in Finland, Somalis experienced 59.2 incidents per 100 persons in comparison with 7.5 for the majority population; in Denmark, Somalis suffered 33.4 per 100 persons against 5.2 for the majority population. The Roma in Greece, Hungary and Poland also had much higher incidence rates than the majority population, as did North Africans in Italy, with 41.7 per 100 against 1.6 for the majority population. Again in some countries, such as Austria and Luxembourg, minority respondents' incidence rates were below the majority population's, and did not exceed four per 100 persons for any group.

When EU-MIDIS and European Crime and Safety Survey data can be compared, the results suggest that minority respondents are experiencing higher rates of victimisation with respect to both personal theft and assault, and threat, and are experiencing these crimes more frequently in the course of a 12-month period. Figures 4.13 and 4.14 in the *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report* provide a detailed breakdown of these results by EU Member States and the different groups surveyed.

¹⁴ Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

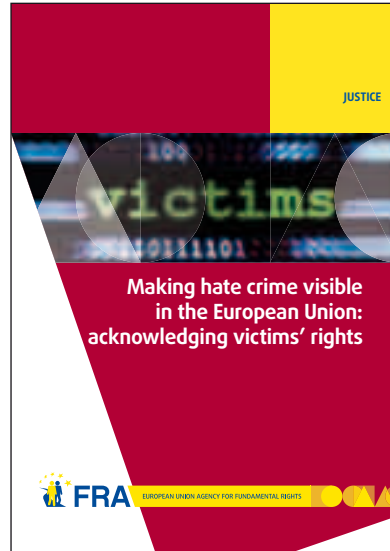
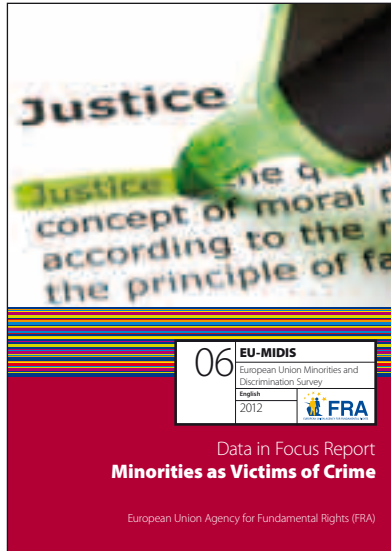
USING THESE RESULTS

The findings in this report point to a number of areas which would benefit from the collection and analysis of data on minorities as crime victims, and in particular on minorities as victims of 'racially motivated' crime:

- It is hoped that results from EU-MIDIS on criminal victimisation and particularly on 'racially motivated' victimisation can be taken on board by those EU Member States that have existing crime surveys that either do not include a targeted sample of ethnic minorities and immigrants, or which would benefit from further development in this area.
- EU Member States are currently implementing the 2008 Council Framework Decision on Combating Racism and Xenophobia and could draw on research evidence, such as that collected through EU-MIDIS and national crime surveys. The findings reveal the extent to which the groups protected by the legislation experience the type of crime covered by the Framework Decision and whether they report these crimes to the police.
- The European Commission's Roadmap on victims, together with the new draft (at the time of writing) Victims Directive, would benefit from comparing survey insights on criminal victimisation with official criminal justice data.
- Crime surveys may collect data beyond those on crimes that are currently covered by EU and Member State legislation, making it possible for them to reveal the extent to which minorities experience forms of hate crime that the Framework Decision and national legislation both *cover* and *do not cover*. They therefore provide valuable data on victimisation under existing legislation and show gaps that are not encompassed by current law. Survey data about areas of hate crime for which no legislation exists can be used to consider amendments to, and development of, legislation.
- EU-MIDIS data on what respondents' perceive as 'racially motivated' crime can serve as a starting point from which to estimate the potential extent of 'racist' crime against the different groups surveyed in EU-MIDIS. This kind of information, if collected regularly at EU Member State level, would assist in revealing the 'dark figure' of unreported crime in areas covered by EU and national law.
- Data on victims' reasons for non-reporting should be accompanied by information on when and in what areas non-reporting is most prevalent. Such data could show policy makers the targeted areas in which they need to take action, given that they are the duty bearers responsible for protecting vulnerable minorities and for encouraging them to report hate crime as a fundamental rights abuse.
- In many EU Member States certain minority groups, such as Sub-Saharan Africans and Roma, are often depicted as criminals. Yet EU-MIDIS highlights the contrary, capturing their experiences as victims of crime, and therefore as persons in need of state assistance, protection and support. The extent to which different EU Member States are able to fulfil this role, by responding effectively to minorities' needs as victims of crime, and as victims of 'racist' crime, warrants further exploration.
- High rates of criminal victimisation among selected minority groups, and, in particular, high rates of what respondents perceive as 'racially motivated' victimisation, are often accompanied by high rates of discriminatory treatment against the same groups (see *EU-MIDIS Main Results Report*). As such, findings on discriminatory treatment and criminal victimisation should be examined together to address their role in the social marginalisation and enhanced vulnerability of minority groups.

This report addresses matters related to human dignity (Article 1), freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 10), the principle of non-discrimination (Article 21) and the right to an effective remedy (Article 47) under the Chapters I 'Dignity', II 'Freedoms', III 'Equality' and VI 'Justice' of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union.

These two FRA reports look at closely related issues dealing with crime motivated by racism, xenophobia, religious intolerance or by a person's disability, sexual orientation or gender identity, minorities' experiences of victimisation and victims' rights.



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EU-MIDIS European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey

Data in Focus Report 6: Minorities as Victims of Crime

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EU-MIDIS at a glance

Data In Focus 1: The Roma

Data In Focus 2: Muslims

Data In Focus 3: Rights Awareness
and Equality Bodies

Data In Focus 4: Police Stops and Minorities

Data In Focus 5: Multiple Discrimination

TECHNICAL REPORT (ON-LINE)

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (ON-LINE)