

EQUALITY



Discrimination and hate crime against Jews in EU Member States: experiences and perceptions of antisemitism



Country codes

BE	Belgium
DE	Germany
FR	France
HU	Hungary
IT	Italy
LV	Latvia
RO	Romania
SE	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom

Acronyms

CEJI	A Jewish Contribution to an Inclusive Europe
CIDI	Centrum Informatie en Documentatie Israel
CST	Community Security Trust
ECHR	European Convention on Human Rights
ECTHR	European Court of Human Rights
EUMC	European Union Monitoring Centre for Racism and Xenophobia (FRA predecessor)
EU-MIDIS	European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey
ILGA-Europe	European region of the International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association
ODIHR	Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (OSCE)
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
TEU	Treaty on European Union
TFEU	Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union

This report addresses matters related to, in particular, the right to human dignity being inviolable (Article 1), freedom of thought, conscience and religion (Article 10), non-discrimination, including on the grounds of religion or belief (Article 21), and the right to an effective remedy and fair trial (Article 47) falling under Chapters I 'Dignity', II 'Freedoms', III 'Equality' and IV 'Justice' of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union.

The FRA highlights the chapters of the EU Charter of Fundamental Rights by using the following colour code:

	Dignity
	Freedoms
	Equality
	Solidarity
	Citizens' rights
	Justice

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A great deal of information on the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights is available on the Internet.
It can be accessed through the FRA website at fra.europa.eu.

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Discrimination and hate crime against Jews in EU Member States: experiences and perceptions of antisemitism

Foreword

Antisemitism is one of the most alarming examples of how prejudice can endure, lingering on for centuries, curbing Jewish people's chances to enjoy their legally guaranteed rights to human dignity, freedom of thought, conscience and religion or non-discrimination. Despite European Union (EU) and Member States' best efforts, many Jews across the EU continue to face insults, discrimination, harassment and physical violence that may keep them from living their lives openly as Jews. Nevertheless, there is little concrete information available on the extent and nature of antisemitism that Jewish people encounter in the EU today – whether at work, in public places, at school or in the media – information critical to policy makers seeking to craft effective solutions to bring an end to such discrimination.

The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) has reported on the available official and unofficial data on antisemitic incidents in its Annual report on *Fundamental rights: challenges and achievements*, as well as in a separate annual working paper – *Antisemitism: Summary overview of the situation in the EU* – which presents trends on the available data covering up to 10 years. This provides a long-term view of the developments concerning antisemitic incidents. These reports are part of FRA's body of work on hate crime, shining light on the experiences of various groups such as Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) persons, immigrants and ethnic minorities, and persons with disabilities.

The available data fail to answer many questions, however, which are of keen interest to policy makers looking to improve responses to antisemitic acts. Effective solutions require information on the types of antisemitic incidents, the context in which they take place and the reasons why many incidents are not reported at all, indeed, why official statistics markedly underestimate the number of antisemitic incidents and the number of people exposed to these acts. Furthermore, even the most basic official statistics on antisemitic incidents are not available in many EU Member States.

To close this information gap and facilitate effective solutions, FRA carried out the first-ever survey to collect comparable data across a number of EU Member States on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of antisemitism, hate crime and discrimination. In the survey, which was conducted in Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Sweden and the United Kingdom, 5,847 self-identified Jewish people took part. The survey was also carried out in Romania, but due to the small number of responses in Romania these results are presented separately in Annex 2 of this report. The survey also provides data on exposure to antisemitic acts against the Jewish community, such as vandalism of Jewish sites or antisemitic messages in the broadcast media or on the internet.

The opinions contained in this report, based on the evidence gathered and analysed, provide guidance for policy makers in EU Member States and EU institutions on measures to take against antisemitism, taking into account and following up on existing EU policies and legislation.

FRA thanks all those who took the time to complete the survey and to share their personal experiences, and who, by so doing, have contributed to the development of a better evidence base on the challenges which Jewish people face with regard to their fundamental rights.

Morten Kjaerum
Director

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Why is this survey needed?

FRA reports annually on antisemitism in the EU, based on existing governmental and non-governmental data and information.¹ Although the data available are limited, these reports show that antisemitism continues to be a reality in many EU Member States, expressed in the form of insults, threats, attacks or vandalism motivated by antisemitism. Such antisemitism hinders people's ability to live their lives openly as Jews, free from fears for their security and well-being. It therefore also has a profound impact on their fundamental rights, even though legal instruments to protect people against hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism are in place at the level of the United Nations, the Council of Europe and the EU.²

The lack of robust and comparable data on the situation of antisemitism in the EU, however, is such that policy actors across the EU can often only base their decisions on patchy evidence, which limits their capacity to counter antisemitism effectively. FRA research shows, for example, that as of October 2013, only 13 of the 28 EU Member States collect official data on antisemitic incidents reported to the police or processed through the criminal justice system.³ Of these, only Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom operated comprehensive mechanisms of data collection, recording and publishing data on the characteristics of victims, offenders and incidents.⁴

In addition, previous FRA research on the criminal victimisation of minorities shows that only small proportions of "victims who have suffered a crime committed with a bias or discriminatory motive"⁵ report these hate crimes to any organisation, with many who suffer discrimination also not reporting their experiences.⁶ Without reporting, discrimination and hate crime will remain unprosecuted and therefore invisible.⁷

The present survey addresses some of the gaps highlighted above. The findings provide comparable data on the perceived extent and nature of antisemitism among Jews in the EU, whether it is manifested as hate

crime, hate speech, discrimination or in any other form that undermines Jewish people's feelings of safety and security.

This report presents the findings of the FRA survey on experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism among self-identified Jewish respondents in eight EU Member States – Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Sweden and the United Kingdom.⁸ It describes the personal experiences and perceptions of 5,847 Jewish persons concerning the extent and nature of various incidents in their daily lives – including incidents of hate crime and discrimination which they felt have taken place because they are Jewish, as well as various manifestations of antisemitism.

The survey was carried out online, and the eight EU Member States covered are home to over 90 % of the EU's estimated Jewish population.⁹ In the absence of other reliable sampling frames, FRA opted to use online surveying as it allowed respondents to complete the survey at their own pace, while also informing them about FRA, the organisations managing the data collection and how the collected data would be used. This method had the potential to allow all interested self-identified Jewish people in the EU Member States surveyed to take part and share their experiences. It was also the method which could most easily survey respondents from all the selected EU Member States under equal conditions. This method is, however, unable to deliver a random probability sample fulfilling the statistical criteria for representativeness.

By investigating the lived experiences of antisemitism and discrimination among Jewish people in the EU, this report provides EU institutions, EU Member States and civil society organisations with robust and comparable data that will facilitate the development of targeted and effective legal and policy responses to combat antisemitism.

The areas covered by the survey were identified in close cooperation with relevant stakeholders (see Annex 1). These stakeholders ranged from policy actors at the national and international levels to representatives of Jewish community organisations. They also included leading professional and academic experts in the fields of Jewish population studies, antisemitism research and survey research.

1 See, for example, FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights) (2012a).
2 These legal instruments will not be presented in this report, but information on them is available in other FRA reports. See, for example, FRA (2012b); FRA, European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) and Council of Europe (2011).
3 FRA (2013a), p. 186.
4 FRA (2012b).
5 Art. 22 of Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA, OJ 2012 L 315 (*EU Victims' Directive*).
6 FRA (2013b); FRA (2012c); FRA (2010a); FRA (2010b); FRA (2009a); FRA (2009b); FRA (2009c).
7 FRA (2012b).

8 In addition to these eight EU Member States, FRA also carried out the survey in Romania. However, due to the small Romanian sample size (67 respondents), the results from Romania are not presented together with those of the other eight Member States in the main part of this report. Instead, an overview of the main results from Romania is presented in Annex 2 of this report.
9 DellaPergola, S. (2010).

THE SURVEY IN A NUTSHELL

This report presents the results of the FRA survey on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism analysing data from the responses of 5,847 self-identified Jewish people (aged 16 years or over) in eight EU Member States – Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The survey was carried out online during September and October 2012.

Who took part in the survey?

The survey was open to individuals aged 16 years and over who consider themselves Jewish (this could be based on religion, culture, upbringing, ethnicity, parentage or any other basis) and who, at the time of the survey, were living in one of the survey countries. The largest samples were obtained from the two countries which according to estimates have the largest Jewish populations in the EU – France (1,192 respondents) and the United Kingdom (1,468 respondents). The survey also collected 400–800 responses in each of five of the EU Member States surveyed – Belgium, Germany, Hungary, Italy and Sweden – and 154 in Latvia.

In addition to the eight EU Member States mentioned above, FRA also carried out the survey in Romania, where only 67 respondents took part. Due to the small number of respondents, the results concerning Romania are not presented together with those of the other eight EU Member States. Instead, a summary overview of results for Romania is available in Annex 2.

What did the survey ask?

This is the first EU survey to collect comparable data on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of hate-motivated crime, discrimination and antisemitism. Specifically the survey asked respondents' opinions about trends in antisemitism, antisemitism as a problem in everyday life, personal experiences of antisemitic incidents, witnessing antisemitic incidents and worries about becoming a victim of an antisemitic attack (personal safety, safety of children, other family members and friends). The survey also provides data on the extent to which respondents consider antisemitic acts against the Jewish community, such as vandalism of Jewish sites or antisemitic messages in the broadcast media or on the internet, to be a problem in their countries.

The survey collected data on the effects of antisemitism in respondents' daily behaviour, their feelings of safety and any actions they may take due to a lack of it. The questions about personal experiences of specific forms of harassment, vandalism or physical violence were followed up with others about the details of such incidents, including their frequency, the number and characteristics of perpetrators, the reporting of the incident to any organisations or institutions and any other actions taken as a result of the incident. The survey collected data about personal experiences of discrimination against Jews on different grounds and in various areas of everyday life – for example at work, school or when using specific services. The survey followed up on questions on the extent of discrimination with others on the reporting of incidents and the reasons for non-reporting. The survey explored the level of rights awareness regarding antidiscrimination legislation, victim support organisations and knowledge of any legislation concerning trivialisation or denial of the Holocaust.

More details on the questions asked are given at the beginning of each chapter. Each table and figure that reports on the survey results provides the exact wording of the question as presented in the survey questionnaire.

Presentation of results

While many results that are presented in the text in this report also appear in the tables and graphs, some results are only mentioned in the text. In some cases, the text refers to results which are a combination of two or more possible response categories, which the figures and tables may present separately (for example, the percentage of respondents who said that antisemitism is a problem in the country where they live is the result of combining the response categories 'a very big problem' and 'a fairly big problem'). In these cases, normal rounding error may result in a small difference of +/- 1 percentage point in the percentage quoted in the text (for example, the percentage of respondents who say that antisemitism is a problem) as opposed to the result one would get from adding up the results from the individual response categories as presented in the tables and

graphs (that is, summing up the percentage of respondents who say that antisemitism is 'a very big problem', and the percentage of respondents who say that antisemitism is 'a fairly big problem').

Quotes used in the report

At the end of the survey respondents were invited to submit in writing any further information about their experiences concerning antisemitism, or anything else that they feel the survey should have addressed. This report includes a small selection of over 2,000 individual responses collected with this open-ended question. The written quotes, translated from the source language, have been kept as true to the respondent's original comments as possible, with only grammar or translation errors corrected.

The responses covered a great variety of topics and issues, some of them beyond the scope of the survey. The answers to the open question were treated as a rich illustrative material for the survey results, a reflection of certain opinions and alternative points of view of respondents. When selecting the quotes for this survey report, the main criterion for including a quote was its relevance to the survey topics presented.

FRA opinions and key findings



Drawing on the survey findings and building on previous FRA work, FRA formulated the following opinions to support EU and national policy makers in developing and implementing legislative and non-legislative measures designed to respect and safeguard the fundamental rights of Jews. Many of these opinions reaffirm and highlight the opinions presented in earlier FRA reports on discrimination and hate crime, in particular the opinions put forward in the 2012 FRA report on *Making hate crime visible in the European Union: acknowledging victims' rights*.¹⁰

Strengthening EU action and national responses to combat antisemitism

Two thirds of the survey respondents (66 %) consider antisemitism to be a problem across the eight EU Member States surveyed, while on average three quarters of the respondents (76 %) also believe that the situation has become more acute and that antisemitism has increased in the country where they live over the past five years. In the 12 months following the survey, close to half of the respondents (46 %) worry about being verbally insulted or harassed in a public place because they are Jewish, and one third (33 %) worry about being physically attacked in the country where they live because they are Jewish. Furthermore, 66 % of parents or grandparents of school-aged children worry that their children could be subjected to antisemitic verbal insults or harassment at school or en route, and 52 % worry that they would be physically attacked with an antisemitic motive while at school or en route. In the past 12 months, over half of all survey respondents (57 %) heard or saw someone claim that the Holocaust was a myth or that it has been exaggerated.

FRA opinion

To ensure that discrimination and hate crime are addressed in a systematic and coordinated way, the EU and its Member States should make sure that measures to combat antisemitism are integrated into relevant national strategies and action plans across a number of relevant areas – including strategies and action plans on human rights, equality, crime prevention and violence prevention, as well as those drawn up at the local level.

The EU and its Member States should ensure effective implementation of Article 1 (c) of the Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia (2008/913/JHA), under which Member States are obliged to take measures to ensure that intentionally publicly condoning, denying or grossly trivialising crimes of genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes are punishable.

Politicians and opinion makers should refrain from antisemitic statements and should clearly denounce and condemn such statements when made by others in public debates.

They should also ensure that Jewish people are involved in decision making and that their views are heard and taken into account when issues of relevance to them are discussed.

EU Member States should examine how education about the Holocaust is integrated into human rights education and history curricula. They should also assess the effectiveness of teaching about the Holocaust by reviewing the various competences including social, civic and cultural ones. Furthermore, EU Member States should examine how the European framework for key competences for lifelong learning (2006/962/EC) has been implemented both in schools and in teachers' education and training.

¹⁰ FRA (2012b).

Protecting Jewish people from discrimination

About one quarter of respondents (23 %) said that they have felt discriminated against on the grounds of their religion or ethnic background in the 12 months preceding the survey. Specifically concerning discrimination because of being Jewish, the respondents in all eight EU Member States indicate that they are most likely to experience discrimination at the workplace (11 % of respondents who were working during the period have experienced this), when looking for work (10 % of respondents who have been looking for work) or on the part of people working in the education sector (8 % of respondents in school or training or whose children were in school or training have felt discriminated against by people working in this area). More than three quarters (82 %) of those who said that they have felt discriminated against during the period because they are Jewish did not report the most serious incident, namely the one that most affected them, to any authority or organisation.

FRA opinion

The EU should monitor the effectiveness of national equality bodies and other mechanisms in their efforts to inform Jewish people about protection from discrimination under their respective mandates and in line with the provisions of the Racial Equality Directive (Directive 2000/43/EC).

EU Member States should facilitate cooperation between the equality bodies and Jewish community organisations to ensure that Jewish people who face discrimination are informed about their rights and available redress mechanisms.

EU Member States are encouraged to support trade unions and employers' organisations in their efforts to adopt diversity and non-discrimination policies. These policies should include measures which would contribute to better accommodation of Jewish people's needs in the workplace – for example, where possible, through flexible holiday arrangements.

EU Member States are encouraged to collect data in a systematic and effective manner on how Jewish people experience fundamental rights in their daily lives.

Combating antisemitism on the internet

Antisemitism on the internet – including, for example, antisemitic comments made in discussion forums and on social networking sites – is a significant concern for a majority of respondents. Overall, 75 % of respondents

consider antisemitism online to be a problem, while another 73 % believe antisemitism online has increased over the last five years.

FRA opinion

The EU and its Member States should identify effective practices to address growing concerns about online antisemitism – particularly as the nature of online antisemitism implies an issue that is not confined by the borders of individual Member States but is instead a cross-border problem that must be tackled jointly.

EU Member States should consider taking steps to enhance the legal basis for the investigation and prosecution of hate crime and crime committed with antisemitic motives on the internet. Such measures should include ratifying the Council of Europe's Additional Protocol to the Budapest Convention on Cybercrime and implementing Article 9 of the Framework Decision on Racism, which obliges EU Member States to establish jurisdiction in certain cases of cybercrime. EU Member States should consider criminalising xenophobia and racism in line with these instruments in their criminal law, and they should provide criminal justice authorities with the necessary procedural law powers to investigate and prosecute such crime. They should also, as foreseen in the Convention on Cybercrime, engage in international cooperation to enhance efforts to combat such crimes.

EU Member States should consider establishing specialised police units that monitor and investigate hate crime on the internet and put in place measures to encourage users to report any antisemitic content they detect to the police.

The internet is increasingly important as a communication tool for many Europeans, but the anonymity afforded by it may lead some users to publish offensive or ill-thought-out material online. With the support of the EU, EU Member States should consider developing educational tools and materials concerning good practices when writing for the internet, and including them in school mother-tongue language lesson plans.

Meeting the needs of Jewish victims of hate crime

One quarter of respondents (26 %) experienced some form of antisemitic harassment in the 12 months preceding the survey – including various offensive and threatening acts, for example, receiving written antisemitic messages, phone calls, being followed or receiving offensive antisemitic comments in person or on the internet, according to the survey results. Overall, 4 % of respondents experienced physical violence or threats of violence because they are Jewish in the 12 months preceding the survey. Of all respondents, 3 % on average



said that their personal property has been deliberately vandalised, because they are Jewish, in the 12 months preceding the survey. A majority of the victims of anti-semitic harassment (76 %), physical violence or threats (64 %), or vandalism of personal property (53 %) did not report the most serious incident, namely the one that most affected the respondent, in the past five years to the police or to any other organisation.

FRA opinion

Victims of crime have a right, under Article 47 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, to have access to criminal justice. This right should exist not only in theory but also be effective in practice. In light of the high percentage of crime victims who do not report incidents to the authorities more efforts should be made to identify means of encouraging victims and facilitating their reporting to the police.

When implementing the Victims' Rights Directive (Directive 2012/29/EU), EU Member States should pay attention to the needs of victims of antisemitic hate crime, including with individual needs assessments to identify specific protection needs (Article 22).

Both the EU and its Member States, including local authorities, should set up or enhance concrete awareness-raising activities to support Jewish people to access, in an efficient and accessible manner, structures and procedures to report hate crime and discrimination.

FRA opinion

When crimes are committed with an antisemitic motive, EU Member States should ensure that law enforcement authorities record this motive appropriately and that it is taken into account throughout proceedings, from the initial police investigation through to sentencing by the court.

As highlighted in the opinions of the FRA report Making hate crime visible in the European Union: Acknowledging victims' rights (2012), legislators should look into models with enhanced penalties for hate crimes to stress the added severity of these offences. This would go beyond including bias motivation as an aggravating circumstance in the criminal code – an approach with limited impact because the bias motivation may not be considered in its own right in police reports or court proceedings.

EU Member States should also address the underreporting of hate crime by, for example, providing relevant training to law enforcement authorities concerning victim support and systematic recording of incidents. 'Third-party reporting' practices, where civil society organisations report, or facilitate reporting of, incidents to the police, could also be considered to improve reporting rates across a number of vulnerable groups – as highlighted by a FRA opinion in the report EU LGBT survey: Results at a glance (2013).

Bringing perpetrators of antisemitic hate crime to justice

The survey asked respondents who have been exposed to incidents of antisemitic violence, threats and harassment further questions about the perpetrators involved in the most serious incident they have experienced. Of the respondents whose most serious incident involved physical violence or threats, slightly more than one third said the incidents involved only one perpetrator (35 %). Two incidents out of five (40 %) involved two or three perpetrators and one incident in five (20 %) involved four or more perpetrators. They were also asked to describe the perpetrator, including a list of 16 possible categories for each type of crime. For the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment over the past five years, for example, 27 % of respondents said they were of the opinion that the most serious incident was perpetrated by someone with Muslim extremist views, 22 % said by someone with a left-wing political view and 19 % by someone with right-wing views.

Making antisemitic hate crime visible through data collection

Respondents who have experienced an antisemitic incident were asked whether or not they have reported the most serious incident that has occurred to them in the past five years to the police or any other organisation. The survey results show that many respondents do not report these incidents anywhere – results in line with previous FRA findings. The survey results show that 64 % of victims of antisemitic physical attack or threats of violence did not report the most serious incident in the past five years, and 76 % of victims of antisemitic harassment did not report the most serious incident.

FRA opinion

Legislation should be adopted at the EU and national levels to ensure EU Member States to collect and publish data on hate crime – including crime that is committed with an antisemitic motivation. This would serve to acknowledge victims of hate crime, in line with the duty, flowing from the case law of the European Court of Human Rights, of EU Member States to unmask bias motivations underlying criminal offences. These data would not allow for the identification of individuals but would be presented as statistics.

At a minimum, statistical data should be collected and published on the number and type of incidents pertaining to antisemitic hate crimes reported by the public and recorded by the authorities; the number of convictions of offenders; the grounds on which these offences were found to be discriminatory; and the sentences offenders received.

The EU and its Member States should agree on a harmonised approach to data collection to show how victims – among them Jewish victims of hate crime – have accessed the rights set out in the Victims' Rights Directive (Article 28). This would facilitate a comparative analysis of the implementation of the directive and the effectiveness of measures taken in various EU Member States to fulfil the requirements of the directive.



1

Manifestations of antisemitism



This chapter presents the survey results that reflect respondents' perceptions about antisemitism and changes in its severity over time. The chapter also includes a discussion of survey findings on perceived public manifestations of antisemitic incidents such as antisemitic graffiti, vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions, manifestations of antisemitism in the media, political life or on the internet. The survey also asked respondents to assess selected statements about Jewish people and the Jewish community, and whether they would consider them antisemitic if expressed by non-Jewish persons.

1.1. Perceptions of the extent of antisemitism

The respondents were asked to which extent antisemitism is a problem today in the EU Member State where they live. This question was not posed in isolation but in the context of various social issues, which may be relevant for people living in the eight survey countries. The social issues presented ranged from unemployment and the economic situation to racism and antisemitism.

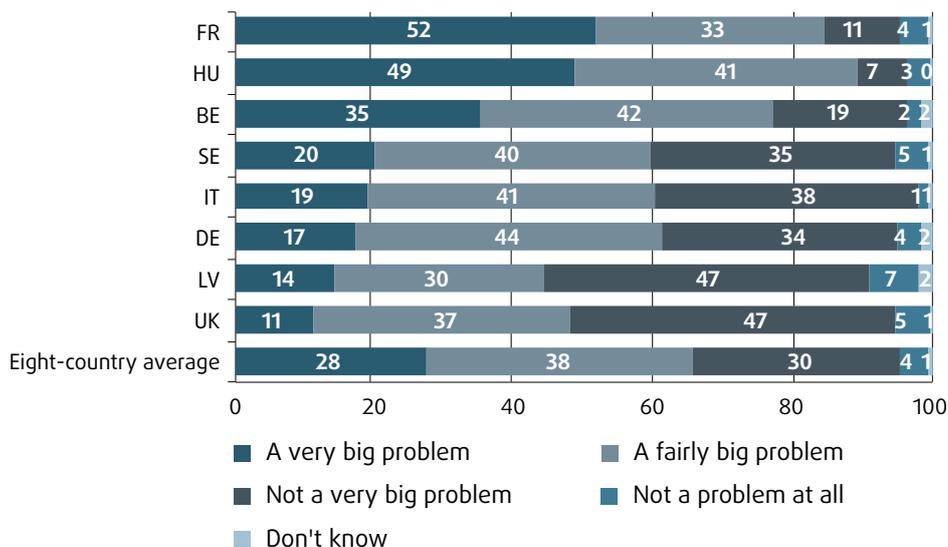
Two thirds of the respondents (66 %) consider antisemitism to be 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem' in the country where they live. In the EU Member States surveyed, apart from Latvia and the United Kingdom, a majority of respondents think that antisemitism is 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem'. Respondents were most likely to consider antisemitism to be either 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem' in Hungary, France and Belgium (90 %, 85 % and 77 %, respectively). In Hungary and France, about half of the respondents feel that antisemitism amounts to 'a very big problem' in the country today (49 % and 52 %, respectively) (Figure 1).

The relative position of antisemitism on the list of other social and political issues varies slightly among the EU Member States surveyed (Table 1). When asked to consider whether each of the items presented is a problem or not in the country where they live, the respondents rated unemployment (85 % saying that it was 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem'), state of the economy (78 %) and racism (72 %) ahead of antisemitism (66 %) in terms of the present magnitude of the problem. Antisemitism was followed as a problem, respondents said, by crime levels (62 %), immigration (59 %), religious intolerance (54 %), state of health services (51 %) and government corruption (40 %). In contrast with other countries, in Germany antisemitism was regarded as the greatest problem (61 %) in comparison to the other issues listed in the survey, such as unemployment (59 %), racism (57 %) or others. Table 1 presents an overview of the results concerning all social issues covered in the survey, and for each country the top three problems are highlighted in the table.

Respondents from all the EU Member States surveyed except Germany – consider unemployment to be the most pressing issue facing the country where they live. Over 90 % of respondents in five countries (France, Hungary, Italy, Latvia and the United Kingdom) saw the state of the economy as 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem'. Respondents in Germany and Sweden seem less concerned with the state of the economy – 41 % and 25 % of the respondents, respectively, said it is 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem'.

Antisemitism was rated among the three most pressing social and political issues in France, Germany and Sweden (85 %, 61 % and 60 %, respectively, considered it 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem'). In a pattern that differs slightly from the other survey countries, respondents in Belgium viewed – besides unemployment – crime levels

Figure 1: Antisemitism is seen to be a problem in the country today, by EU Member State (%)



Question: *Boz. In your opinion, how big a problem, if at all, is each of the following in [COUNTRY] today? Answer: 6. Antisemitism.*
 Note: N=5,847.
 Source: FRA, 2013

and immigration as the problems which most affect the country where they live (81 % and 80 %, respectively). Respondents in Hungary and Italy alone considered government corruption to be among the top three problems in the country where they live (94 % of respondents voiced this opinion in both countries). A notable share of respondents in Latvia and the United Kingdom identified the state of health services as a problem (92 % and 69 % of respondents, respectively).

A majority of respondents (66 %) consider antisemitism to be a problem across the EU Member States surveyed.

"I feel worried about antisemitism now in a way that I did not 30 years ago. Something that should have disappeared from social acceptability is instead becoming stronger."

(Woman, 55-59 years old, United Kingdom)

"I am both privileged and well integrated – rarely exposed to direct antisemitism – but I feel nevertheless that the opinion climate has become tougher and things that were [once] not acceptable [...] are now being expressed, for example in the culture pages. But there continue to be strong forces within Swedish cultural life which also react against antisemitism."

(Woman, 45-49 years old, Sweden)

"Other members of my family believe there is a lot of antisemitism in Belgium. I do not. We choose not to discuss it, just like Israeli policy."

(Woman, 60-69 years old, Belgium)

Respondents were also asked whether they felt that antisemitism has increased or decreased during the past five years in the country where they live. Antisemitism is reported to be on the increase – having increased ‘a lot’ or increased ‘a little’ – by a majority of respondents in all eight EU Member States surveyed (Figure 2). The percentage of respondents indicating that antisemitism has increased over the past five years was especially high (about 90 %) in Belgium, France and Hungary. These are also the countries, as shown earlier, where the respondents were most likely to say that antisemitism is ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’ today.

More than three quarters of respondents (76 %) consider that antisemitism has worsened over the past five years in the country where they live.

"In my opinion the problem of antisemitism in Germany is minor. I have lived in Germany for twenty years and have never encountered antisemitism. If there is any antisemitism in Germany, it is actually hatred [of] Israel on the part of the Muslims who live here. Germany invests heavily in education for tolerance."

(Man, 40-44 years old, Germany)

Table 1: Assessment of social and political issues as a problem, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Social and/or political issue	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Unemployment	84	59	93	96	97	90	64	91	85
State of the economy	74	41	91	98	94	95	25	95	78
Racism	79	57	80	92	77	28	70	65	72
Antisemitism	77	61	85	90	60	44	60	48	66
Crime levels	81	25	83	77	68	55	40	59	62
Immigration	80	49	80	13	64	58	50	58	59
Religious intolerance	58	49	65	69	51	23	49	49	54
State of health services	16	32	44	88	53	92	30	69	51
Government corruption	32	15	29	94	94	82	15	27	40

Question: B02. In your opinion, how big a problem, if at all, is each of the following in [COUNTRY] today: (Items as listed in the table)?

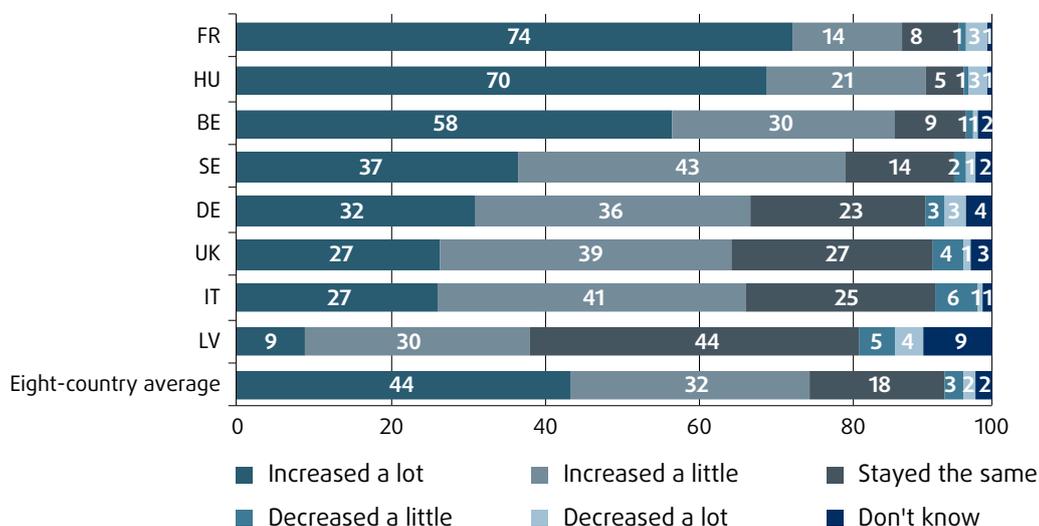
Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both 'a very big problem' and 'a fairly big problem'.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

For each country, the three most serious problems – as assessed by the respondents – are highlighted in the table.

Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 2: Perceptions on changes in the level of antisemitism in the country over the past five years, by EU Member State (%)


Question: B03. On the whole, do you think that over the past five years the following have increased, stayed the same or decreased in [COUNTRY]? Answer: B. Antisemitism

Note: N=5,847; due to rounding, the visual presentation of the same value might slightly differ.

Source: FRA, 2013

“Racism in general is the problem in Belgium. Antisemitism is only one aspect.”

(Woman, 60–69 years old, Belgium)

“I think antisemitism in Italy is decreasing, albeit slowly.”

(Man, 70–79 years old, Italy)

“If the economic and social situation of the country improves, perhaps antisemitism will decrease, but unfortunately there is another fact which could influence this: the growing Roma-hate. [Fight it? It must be tackled], but it is hopeless against stupidity, prejudice and impoverishment.”

(Man, 60–69 years old, Hungary)

1.2. Acts of antisemitism against the Jewish community

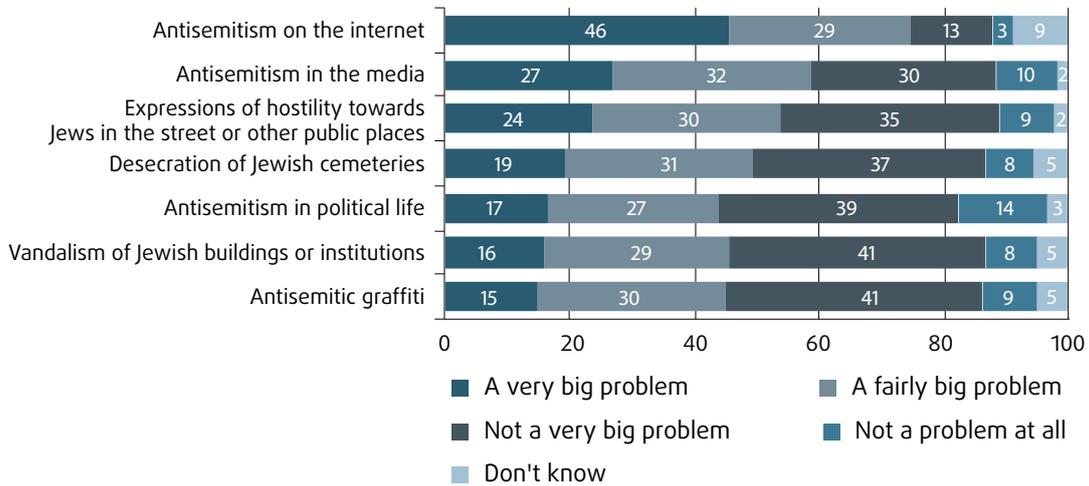
Antisemitic attacks have a profound impact not only on the individuals concerned and those close to them, but certain manifestations of antisemitism also affect the Jewish community as a whole. The survey covers seven such manifestations. The respondents were asked to say whether each one is or is not a problem today in the country where they live. The survey also asked respondents whether they thought that each

manifestation has increased or decreased in the past five years. The seven manifestations covered in the survey are:

- antisemitic graffiti;
- desecration of Jewish cemeteries;
- vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions;
- expressions of hostility towards Jews in the street or other public places;
- antisemitism in the media;
- antisemitism in political life;
- antisemitism on the internet.

Each of these manifestations of antisemitism is considered ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’ by at least one third of the respondents (Figure 3). Among the specific manifestations listed, online antisemitism is seen as a particular problem: three quarters of all respondents (75 %) consider this either ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’, and almost as many (73 %) believe that it has increased over the past five years (Figure 4).

Figure 3: Assessment of manifestations of antisemitism against Jewish community today, average of the eight EU Member States surveyed (%)



Question: B04a. In your opinion, how big a problem, if at all, are each of the following in [COUNTRY] today: (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

Overall, 75 % of respondents consider antisemitism online as a problem today in the country where they live.

About half of the respondents identify the other specific manifestations of antisemitism listed in the survey as a problem. For example, 59 % of the respondents feel that antisemitism in the media is ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’, while 54 % say the same about expressions of hostility towards Jews in the street and other public places. Half (50 %) consider desecration of cemeteries to be a problem.

In Hungary and France – those countries with the highest proportion of respondents reporting antisemitism as a problem in general – a majority of respondents rate almost all antisemitic manifestations which the survey asked about as ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’. In Latvia and in the United Kingdom – or those countries with the lowest proportion of the respondents indicating antisemitism in general as a problem – about 50 %–60 % of the respondents consider antisemitism on the internet to be a problem (Table 2).

The majority of the respondents in France (84 %), Belgium (74 %) and Hungary (72 %) consider expressions of hostility towards Jews in the street and other public spaces to be ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’ in the country. In Sweden (51 %) and Germany (48 %), about half the respondents consider it a problem, while in Italy (30 %) or the United Kingdom (35 %) one third of the respondents do so.

Respondents in France (78 %) are most likely to consider the vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions as ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’, while in Belgium and Hungary half of the respondents (54 % and 52 % respectively) see it similarly. In the remaining countries surveyed, about one third of the respondents (Italy, 43 %; Germany, 33 %; the United Kingdom, 31 %; Sweden, 30 %) or less (Latvia, 23 %) consider the vandalism of Jewish buildings to be ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big problem’.

About two thirds of the respondents in France, Hungary and Italy (69 %, 69 %, and 61 %, respectively) and half in Belgium (52 %) consider antisemitic graffiti to be ‘a very big’ or ‘a fairly big’ problem. Table 2 presents an overview of the results concerning all manifestations of antisemitism covered in the survey, highlighting the top three manifestations of antisemitism that respondents perceived as most problematic in each country.

In all countries surveyed, the proportion of respondents who perceive as a problem the various acts of antisemitism against the Jewish community is roughly equivalent to the proportion who say that these manifestations have been on the increase in the past five years. This concerns especially antisemitism on the internet (73 % of respondents say it has ‘increased a lot’ or ‘increased a little’), hostility in public places (60 %) and media (59 %). About two in five respondents said that antisemitism in political life, antisemitic graffiti and vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions has ‘increased a lot’ or ‘increased a little’ (46 %, 43 % and

Table 2: Assessment of manifestations of antisemitism against Jewish community, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Social and/or political issue	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Antisemitism on the internet	85	67	85	86	87	52	68	64	75
Antisemitism in the media	70	40	71	73	59	37	54	52	59
Expressions of hostility towards Jews in the street or other public places	74	48	84	72	30	16	51	35	54
Desecration of Jewish cemeteries	42	46	74	79	41	56	34	35	50
Antisemitic graffiti	52	30	69	69	61	21	29	26	45
Vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions	54	33	78	52	43	23	30	31	45
Antisemitism in political life	51	30	50	84	36	35	41	34	44

Question: B04a. In your opinion, how big a problem, if at all, are each of the following in [COUNTRY] today: (Items as listed in the table)?

Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both ‘a very big problem’ and ‘a fairly big problem’.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

For each country, the three most serious manifestations of antisemitism – as assessed by the respondents – are highlighted in the table.

Source: FRA, 2013

42 %, respectively), and 39 % said the same about the desecration of Jewish cemeteries.

The survey results show that among the seven manifestations of antisemitism outlined in Table 2, respondents in all survey countries except Latvia are most likely to identify antisemitism on the internet as being on the increase (respondents who said it has ‘increased a lot’ or ‘increased a little’) (Figure 4). More than 80 % of the respondents living in Belgium, France, Hungary and Italy are concerned by the level of antisemitism on the internet which they say has increased either a lot or a little. Antisemitic hostility in public places and antisemitism in the media are the next two manifestations that respondents are most likely to perceive as on the rise.

Overall, almost three quarters of respondents (73 %) perceive that antisemitism online has increased over the last five years.

The survey respondents were also asked about any antisemitic comments that they might have heard, and the extent to which these comments are a problem in different areas, such as in the media, on the internet, in discussions among people (such as at workplace) and in political speeches or discussions. Corroborating the results presented earlier, three quarters of the respondents (75 %) perceived antisemitic comments on the internet as ‘a very big problem’ or ‘a fairly big problem’,

followed by antisemitic reporting in the media (56 %), antisemitic comments in discussions people have (56 %) or antisemitic comments in political speeches and discussions (53 %). While a large proportion of respondents in all the EU Member States surveyed consider antisemitic comments on the internet as a problem, the results for other arenas where antisemitic comments may be heard vary by country (Table 3).

“One feature of the internet and email is the total freedom to express opinions (which I totally support). However the amount of antisemitic material circulating is phenomenal. This is in some ways setting us backwards as now young people are circulating content like the Protocols of the Elders of Zion which had, prior to the internet, pretty much died out.”

(Man, 30-44 years old, United Kingdom)

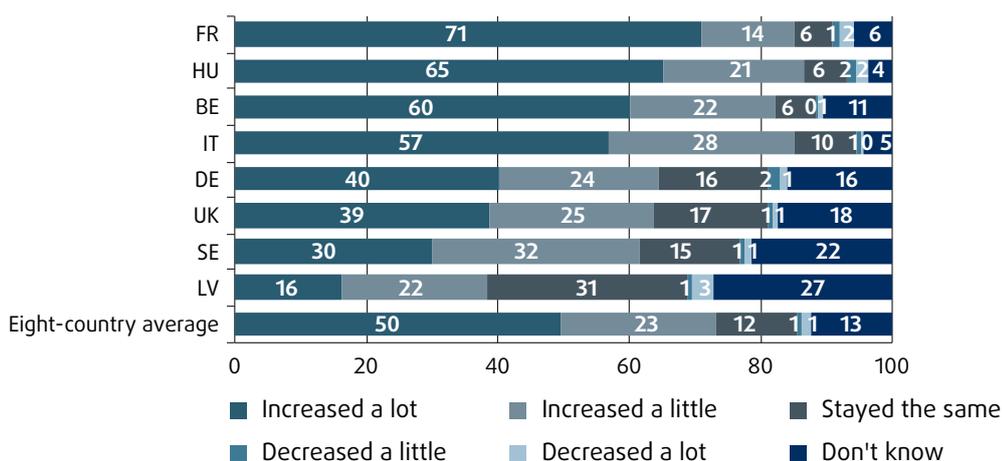
“Today there is a real danger regarding antisemitism in France. [...] Discussion forums on the internet and comments on YouTube are full of antisemitic and anti-Zionist messages. This represents a certain danger and abuses on the internet after the Merah case are truly disturbing.”

(Man, 45-49 years old, France)

“I feel that since going on Facebook, I have experienced more antisemitic comments in a few years than I ever have done throughout my whole life. This is very dispiriting. The speed at which hostile comments and misinformation can be passed around is frightening and leads to a sense of deep unease, which may not connect with the day-to-day reality of being Jewish in a diverse society.”

(Woman, 50-54 years old, United Kingdom)

Figure 4: Perceptions on changes in the level of antisemitism on the internet, over the past five years, by EU Member State (%)



Question: B04b. On the whole, do you think that over the past five years the following have increased, stayed the same or decreased in [COUNTRY]? Answer: 7. Antisemitism on the internet.

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013

"In Sweden one is confronted with antisemitism on the internet from stupid people around the world. And their threats and insults are not far away when their inconsiderate arguments fail. The important thing is to report these often and as soon as they take place."

(Man, 30-34 years old, Sweden)

"[We need to] counteract antisemitism on the internet, where it is becoming more common. Perhaps one should also make young immigrants from Muslim countries more aware of the difference between 'Jewish' and the state of Israel."

(Man, 20-24 years old, Belgium)

"Unfortunately, the fight against antisemitism is more and more hopeless."

(Woman, 60-69 years old, Hungary)

Regarding the four arenas where antisemitic comments may occur and comparing the eight survey countries, respondents from Belgium, France and Hungary indicate in particular antisemitic reporting in the media (64 %, 70 %, and 71 %, respectively, to be 'a very big problem' or 'a fairly big problem') and antisemitic comments in discussions people have (69 %, 72 %, and 76 %, respectively). Respondents in France and Hungary (87 % each) highlight political speeches and discussions. Respondents in Latvia were less likely than those in the other countries surveyed to highlight any of the four arenas as very or fairly problematic with regard to spreading antisemitic content. In Sweden and the United Kingdom, less than half of all respondents consider that antisemitic content is 'a very big' or 'a fairly big problem' in three of the four arenas, with the exception of antisemitism on the internet, for which respondents living in those two countries also give a higher rating, seeing it as a problem.

"If a political figure makes an antisemitic statement [...] through the media I personally take it as antisemitism and it makes me unhappy about the future of Jews in general in Sweden."

(Man, 55-59 years old, Sweden)

"There is a need to have more correct information (schools, TV, radio, printed press etc.) and more severe punishment. The antisemitic politicians need to be promptly removed from public life."

(Man, 60-69 years old, Hungary)

"The responsibility of the politicians is important, if they tolerate antisemitism, it grows especially in times of scapegoating."

(Man, 40-44 years old, Hungary)

"I often don't say I'm Jewish, so I can really understand what people think of us. Antisemitism is very widespread in Italy, especially in public places and in the daily small talk among people."

(Man, 25-29 years old, Italy)

"The most obvious antisemitism comes from the media."

(Man, 20-24 years old, Sweden)

"My impression is that most problems are linked to wrong (or complete lack of) information and stereotypes. This could be avoided by organising more joint activities with the non-Jewish population, more participation in the media (see, for example, the much more visible participation of Jews in the USA in politics, TV series, cartoons, etc.)."

(Man, 20-24 years old, Belgium)

Table 3: Respondents who see antisemitic comments as a problem in different arenas based on what they have seen or heard, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Possible arenas for antisemitic comments									
Antisemitic comments on the internet (including discussion forums, social networking sites)	83	71	87	86	88	53	63	64	75
Antisemitic reporting in the media	64	41	70	71	53	40	49	48	56
Antisemitic comments in discussions people have (such as at the workplace, at school, or elsewhere)	69	54	72	76	65	31	37	40	56
Antisemitic comments in political speeches and discussions	55	39	87	87	47	34	38	33	53

Question: B05a. From what you have seen or heard, to what extent, if at all, are the following a problem in [COUNTRY] today: (Items as listed in the table)?

Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both 'a very big problem' and 'a fairly big problem'.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

Source: FRA, 2013

1.3. Prevalence and context of negative statements about Jews

Hearing or seeing statements that offend human dignity by assigning fictional negative attributes to individuals as members of a group can be detrimental to Jewish people’s sense of safety and security and undermine their ability to live their lives openly as Jews. The FRA survey addresses this issue by asking respondents to what extent they have been exposed to certain statements selected for the survey,¹¹ and whether they consider these statements antisemitic. The statements selected cover various issues including the role of the Jewish community in society, their interests and distinctiveness, attitudes towards historical experiences and current issues. Figure 5 shows the full list of statements together with the results. These statements do not necessarily reflect the whole spectrum of antisemitic views or connotations. They were used to guide the respondent into thinking about situations where they may have heard negative comments about Jewish people, in order to identify the contexts in which Jewish people hear

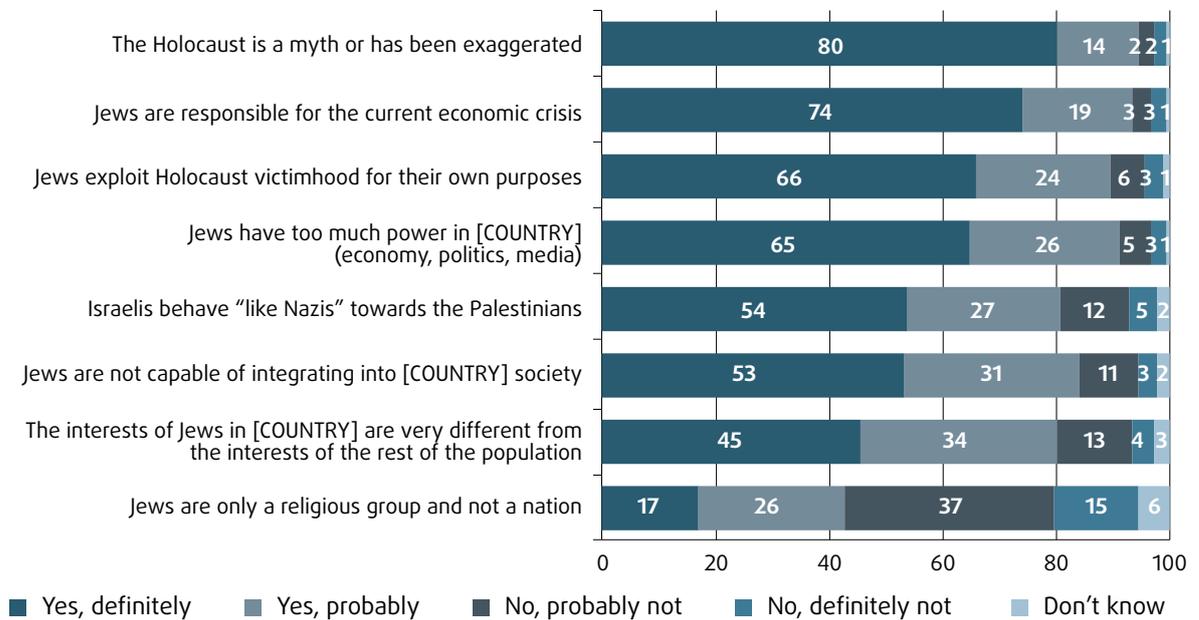
these comments and to describe the person or persons who made the comments.¹² Respondents’ assessments concerning these statements offer an insight into the issues which they consider antisemitic. Respondents’ sensitivity to all things (perceived as) antisemitic has an impact on all of the other survey results.

First, the survey respondents were asked how often they have heard or seen non-Jewish people make these statements, in what contexts they have heard or seen them, and respondents’ perceptions concerning those who made these statements. The information concerning the medium used for making these statements and the context in which they are made can help the EU and its Member States in designing measures to counteract the use of such statements, for example, through awareness-raising and education campaigns.

1.3.1. Respondents’ assessment of the antisemitic nature of negative comments and their prevalence

A majority of the respondents in all survey countries consider the statements in the survey to be antisemitic

Figure 5: Opinions on the antisemitic nature of the selected statements when made by a non-Jewish person, average of the eight EU Member States surveyed (%)



Question: B15b. In your opinion, would you consider a non-Jewish person to be antisemitic if he or she says that: (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013

¹¹ The list of statements was developed in consultation with the academic team of FRA’s survey contractor during questionnaire development. For more information on the questionnaire development process, see the survey methodology in Annex 1 of this report.

¹² The survey did not carry out a detailed comparison on the ways in which respondents’ views could differ depending on whether the statement was made by a Jewish or a non-Jewish person.

if made by non-Jews – with the exception of the statement ‘Jews are only a religious group and not a nation’ which less than half (43 %) of the all respondents consider antisemitic. France is an exception: 53 % of those surveyed there say that the statement is antisemitic. No other country-specific differences are observed. Almost all respondents – at least nine in 10 – consider the following statements to be antisemitic: ‘The Holocaust is a myth or has been exaggerated’ (94 % chose responses ‘yes, definitely’ or ‘yes, probably’), ‘Jews are responsible for the current economic crisis’ (93 %), ‘Jews have too much power (in economy, politics, media)’ (91 %), and ‘Jews exploit Holocaust victimhood for their own purposes’ (90 %). Eight in 10 respondents consider the following statements antisemitic: ‘Israelis behave “like Nazis” towards Palestinians’ (81 %), ‘Jews are not capable of integrating into society’ (84 %), and ‘The interest of Jews are very different from the interests of the rest of the population’ (79 %) (Figure 5).

Many survey respondents indicate that they have to deal with such statements on a regular basis – depending on the country, 20 %–50 % said that they have heard or seen them ‘all the time’ or ‘frequently’ in the past 12 months, while 31 %–34 % said that they have heard or seen the statements occasionally (Figure 6). The statement ‘Jews are not capable of integrating into society’ is an exception, as 65 % of all respondents said they have not heard or seen it in the past 12 months.

The statements that were heard or seen most often (‘all the time’ or ‘frequently’) in the 12 months preceding the survey included ‘Israelis behave “like Nazis” towards the Palestinians’ (48 % have seen or heard this all the time or frequently in the past 12 months), ‘Jews have too much power (in economy, politics, media)’ (38 %) and ‘Jews exploit Holocaust victimhood for their own purposes’ (37 %).

An analysis of the prevalence of the listed statements uncovers some differences in opinions across the eight EU Member States. With the exception of Hungary and Latvia, the respondents in the survey countries are most likely to hear or see statements regarding Israelis’ behaviour towards Palestinians (‘all the time’ or ‘frequently’). In Hungary, three quarters of the respondents (75 %) said that they frequently hear that Jews have too much power in the country, and more than half of the respondents in Hungary (59 %) have heard Jews being blamed for the current economic crisis, or that Jews have exploited Holocaust victimhood for their own purposes (57 %). In Latvia, one third of the respondents face statements related to the exploitation of Holocaust victimhood all the time or frequently. Half of the respondents in France (56 %) and one third of the respondents in Sweden (33 %) said they frequently hear or see statements implying that Jews have too much power in the country (Table 4).

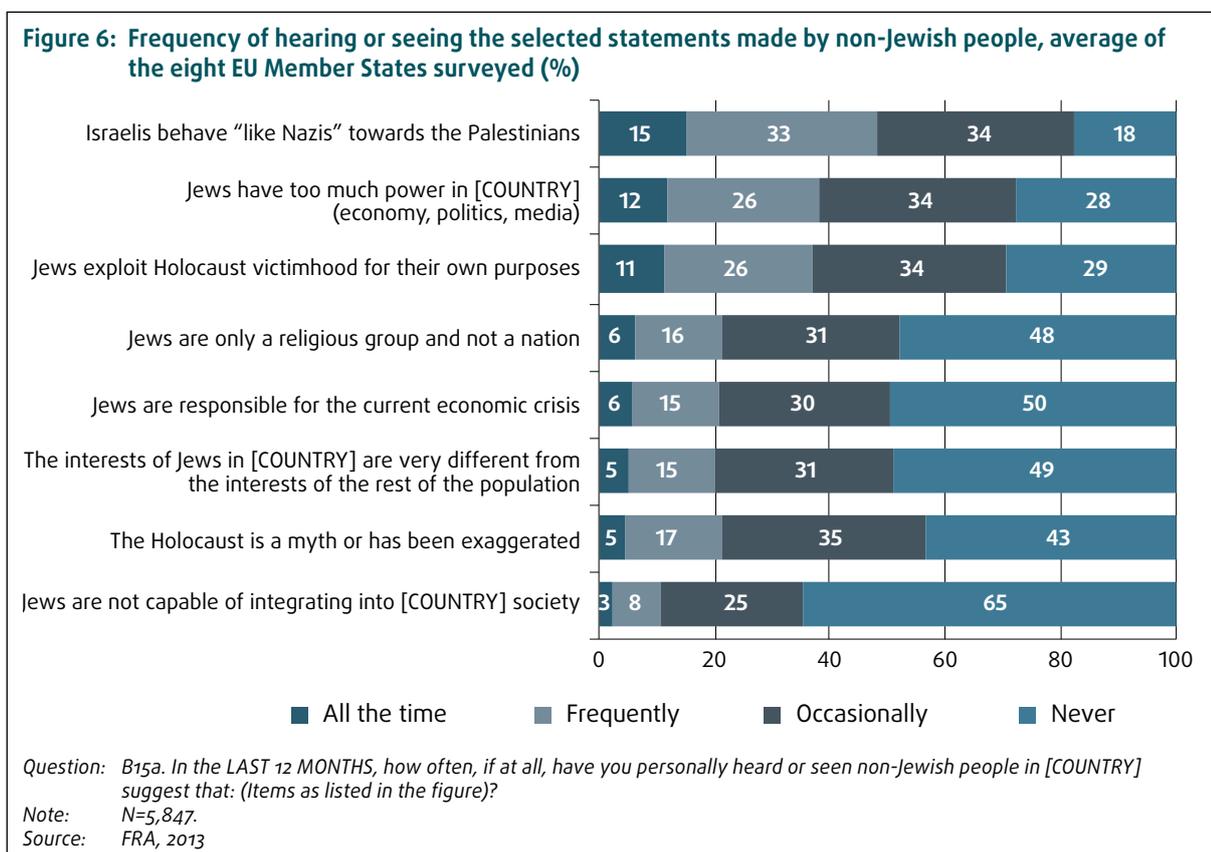


Table 4: Respondents who have heard or seen the selected statements made by non-Jewish people, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Survey statements	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Israelis behave “like Nazis” towards the Palestinians	61	49	56	49	59	14	51	35	48
Jews have too much power in [COUNTRY] (economy, politics, media)	36	28	56	75	35	30	33	21	38
Jews exploit Holocaust victimhood for their own purposes	48	42	44	57	37	33	35	35	37
Jews are only a religious group and not a nation	18	25	28	21	25	8	21	16	22
The Holocaust is a myth or has been exaggerated	23	24	15	47	20	31	19	13	21
Jews are responsible for the current economic crisis	20	15	24	59	23	16	15	9	21
The interests of Jews in [COUNTRY] are very different from the interests of the rest of the population	21	29	17	44	20	23	15	9	20
Jews are not capable of integrating into [COUNTRY] society	14	11	13	22	14	5	8	5	11

Question: B15a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, how often, if at all, have you personally heard or seen non-Jewish people in [COUNTRY] suggest that: (Items as listed in the table)?

Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both ‘all the time’ and ‘frequently’.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

Source: FRA, 2013

1.3.2. Context of negative statements about Jews

Respondents who have been exposed to negative statements about Jews were asked further details concerning the specific context in which they have heard or seen non-Jews making these statements. Respondents could select as many contexts as relevant. In most cases, respondents cite the internet, including blogs and social networking sites, as the source of these statements. Three quarters (75 %) of respondents, who have heard or seen one or more of the listed statements, mentioned the internet (Figure 7). Respondents in all eight EU Member States surveyed identify the internet as the most common forum for negative statements. About half of the respondents who have seen or heard the negative statements indicate that they are made in social situations or that they have run across them among the general public (such as on the street or in public transport).

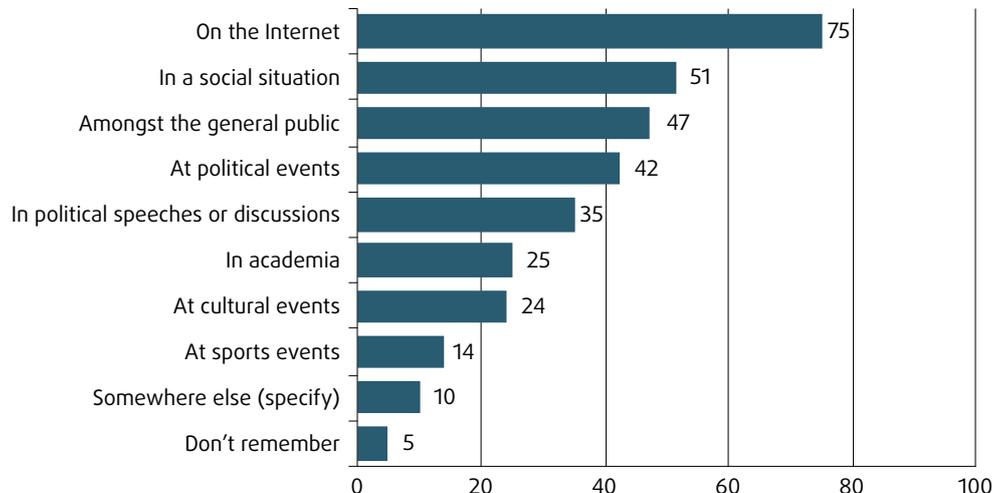
Slight differences among age groups can be observed regarding the internet and social situations as sources for antisemitic statements. For example, 88 % of respondents aged 16–29 years who have seen or heard negative statements about Jews indicate that

the statements are made on the internet, compared with 66 % of respondents who are 60 years old or older. Younger respondents more often hear negative statements about Jews in social situations (for example, among friends and colleagues) than older respondents. Among the youngest respondents (aged 16–29 years), 62 % who have heard or seen the negative statements about Jews indicate that the statements are made in social situations, while among the oldest age group (60 years old and over) 41 % mention social situations. This may indicate differences in exposure to certain situations at different stages of life, as younger respondents may be more likely to meet with diverse groups of people as part of their studies or the first steps in employment.

When examining the survey results at country level, some notable differences between EU Member States emerge with regard to internet and social situations as specific contexts for the negative statements (Table 5). Among the respondents who have seen or heard one or more of the negative statements about Jews in the 12 months prior to the survey, relatively fewer respondents in Sweden (67 %) and the United Kingdom (68 %) indicate the internet as a source of the statements in



Figure 7: Context of specific comments by non-Jewish people in the 12 months before the survey, average of the eight EU Member States surveyed (%)



Question: B16a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, WHERE did you personally hear or see these comments: (Items as listed in the figure)? Multiple responses possible.

Notes: N=5,385.

Only respondents who have heard or seen the statements at least 'occasionally'.

Source: FRA, 2013

comparison to, for example, Hungary (86 %). Furthermore, fewer respondents from Sweden and the United Kingdom (53 % and 41 %, respectively) say that they have heard such statements in social situations than respondents from Belgium, France or Italy (58 %-59 %).

Over one third of the survey respondents who have been exposed to negative statements about Jews in the 12 months prior to the survey have heard the statements in a political context, namely at political events (42 %), or in political speeches or discussions (such as in parliament or in a trade union). The majority of respondents from Hungary mention that they have heard or seen antisemitic statements made in a political context (at political events – 61 %, or in political speeches or discussions – 66 %), and about half of the respondents from France (52 %) said that they have heard or seen them at political events (Table 5).

Respondents who had, in the 12 months before the survey, personally heard or seen one or more of the listed statements were asked about their perceptions of the person or persons who may have been behind the statements. The replies reflect respondents' perceptions of the possible political or religious affiliation of the person(s) they consider to have made these statements. The respondents were not asked to explain how they came to this conclusion. When asked to describe the person(s) who made the aforementioned statements about Jewish people, respondents were presented with the following broad categories of response:

- someone with a right-wing political view;
- someone with a left-wing political view;
- someone with a Muslim extremist view;
- someone with a Christian extremist view;
- none of the above mentioned;
- do not know.

Respondents could select multiple categories if they considered it necessary or they could indicate that none of the options listed applied in their case. Respondents could also select the 'Do not know' category, an appropriate response when, for example, the person making the statement(s) cannot be identified, such as when comments are posted on the internet without further information on the person posting them. The survey results reflect respondents' perceptions and a general sense of the source of the listed statements. The survey does not provide an answer as to how respondents identified and classified the person or persons responsible for making these comments. The survey results show that 14 % of the respondents were not able to describe the person or persons by the categories provided, saying that none of them applied, and 11 % said they did not know who made the comments. According to the opinion of half of the respondents who have heard such statements made in the 12 months before the survey, someone

Table 5: Context of negative statements about Jews made by non-Jewish people in the 12 months before the survey, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Possible contexts for negative statements about Jews	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Internet (e.g. blogs, social networking site)	77	72	82	86	81	62	67	68	75
Social situation (e.g. with friends, colleagues)	58	56	59	55	59	29	53	41	51
Among the general public (e.g. street, transport)	53	50	45	63	66	45	42	33	47
Political events (e.g. a demonstration)	46	36	52	61	32	19	36	37	42
Political speeches/discussions (e.g. in parliament)	26	22	34	66	25	29	35	38	35
Academia (e.g. at university, at school)	27	24	20	18	28	6	17	37	25
Cultural events (e.g. the arts, theatre, film)	30	16	33	10	21	2	27	25	24
Sports events	13	10	13	40	20	1	9	6	14
Somewhere else	7	9	8	5	7	5	15	14	10

Question: B16a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, WHERE did you personally hear or see these comments: (Items as listed in the table)? Multiple responses possible.

Notes: n=5,385, specifically: Belgium=421, France=1,137, Germany=571, Hungary=517, Italy=632, Latvia=144, Sweden=703, United Kingdom=1,260.

Only respondents who have heard or seen the statements at least 'occasionally'.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

Source: FRA, 2013

with a left-wing political view (53 %) made the statements, or someone with a Muslim extremist view (51 %) did. People with right-wing political views are mentioned as a source of such statements by over one third (39 %) of the respondents and people with Christian extremist views are mentioned by one in five (19 %) respondents in the countries surveyed (Table 6).

The survey results indicate that some of the categories are likely to occur together in the responses – as respondents could indicate all categories that they considered relevant in their case – and are selected by the respondents more often in conjunction with other categories. Namely, those who describe the person or persons as 'someone with a left-wing political view' were likely to also select the category 'Muslim extremist view', while those who selected the category 'someone with a right-wing political view' tended to select it together with the category 'someone with a Christian extremist view'. It may also be that when indicating more than one category the respondents are referring to two or more separate incidents where different people may have been involved. The survey results do not demonstrate notable differences by socio-demographic characteristics such as age, sex or employment status in respondents' perceptions about the person(s) who made the negative statements.

While examining these results at country level, notable differences between EU Member States emerge. More respondents in Hungary, for example, tend to describe the person(s) involved in making negative comments about Jews as someone with a right-wing political view (79 %), while respondents in France (67 %) and Italy (62 %) were more likely than respondents from other countries to mention someone with a left-wing political view. In addition, relatively more respondents from France (73 %) and Belgium (60 %) than from the other countries surveyed tend to perceive the person(s) as someone with a Muslim extremist view. Regarding Christian extremist views, relatively more respondents from Italy (36 %) and Hungary (32 %) than from the other EU Member States surveyed selected this category to describe the person(s) who made the negative statements listed (Table 6).

1.3.3. Assessment of the antisemitic nature of selected opinions or actions by non-Jews

In addition to the negative statements about Jews, the survey also explores the extent to which respondents consider certain behaviours or actions by non-Jews as antisemitic. These questions sought to add additional detail to the picture concerning respondents' perceptions on antisemitism. The survey questions covered



Table 6: Description of the person(s) making negative statements about Jewish people in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Description of person(s)	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Someone with a left-wing political view	58	47	67	12	62	15	54	57	53
Someone with a Muslim extremist view	60	48	73	15	38	10	51	56	51
Someone with a right-wing political view	32	40	27	79	55	29	31	33	39
Someone with a Christian extremist view	16	13	22	32	36	14	7	14	19
None of the above	14	22	8	12	22	15	21	10	14
Do not know	10	13	6	6	4	41	11	15	11

Question: B16b. Would you use any of the following to describe the person or persons who made these comments: (Items as listed in the table)? Multiple responses possible.

Notes: n=5,449, specifically: Belgium=421, France=1,137, Germany=571, Hungary=517, Italy=632, Latvia=144, Sweden=703, United Kingdom=1,260.

Only respondents who have heard or seen the statements at least 'occasionally'.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

Source: FRA, 2013

opinions about Jewish people, attitudes or behaviour towards Jewish people, and statements such as Jewish people having recognisable features as well as support for a boycott of Israeli goods (Table 7 shows the full list of items together with the results). The respondents were asked whether they consider these opinions or actions to be antisemitic when expressed or carried out by a non-Jewish person. The survey did not include any follow-up questions, on topics such as the frequency or possible sources of these opinions or actions.

For a majority of survey respondents, most of the opinions or actions listed in the questions are antisemitic except the statement 'Criticises Israel' which one third

of the (34 %) respondents consider antisemitic. The proportion of respondents supporting the view that the opinions or actions defined in the questions are antisemitic differs by item. Across the eight-country average, the results range from 53 % of respondents who think that a non-Jewish person is 'definitely' or 'probably' antisemitic if he or she always notes who is Jewish among his/her acquaintances, to 89 % of respondents saying that a non-Jewish person who does not consider Jews living in country to be country nationals is 'definitely' or 'probably' antisemitic. Table 7 presents an overview of respondents' opinions in the eight EU Member States surveyed.

Table 7: Respondents who consider certain opinions or actions by non-Jews to be antisemitic, by type of opinion or action, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Possible antisemitic opinions or actions	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Does not consider Jews living in [COUNTRY] to be [COUNTRY NATIONAL]	93	73	95	90	92	58	86	92	89
Supports boycotts of Israeli goods/products	74	79	85	77	79	75	53	65	72
Thinks that Jews have recognisable features	72	68	80	68	80	51	56	58	67
Would not marry a Jew	57	68	57	78	67	62	72	53	62
Always notes who is Jewish among his/her acquaintances	53	48	61	67	57	44	50	45	53
Criticises Israel	34	32	42	36	37	43	21	32	34

Question: B17. And in your opinion, would you consider a non-Jewish person to be antisemitic if he or she: (Items as listed in the table)?

Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both 'yes, definitely' and 'yes, probably'.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

Source: FRA, 2013



FRA opinion

To ensure that discrimination and hate crime are addressed in a systematic and coordinated way, the EU and its Member States should make sure that measures to combat antisemitism are integrated into relevant national strategies and action plans across a number of relevant areas – including strategies and action plans on human rights, equality, crime prevention and violence prevention, as well as those drawn up at the local level.

The EU and its Member States should identify effective practices to address growing concerns about online antisemitism – particularly as the nature of online antisemitism implies an issue that is not confined by the borders of individual Member States but is instead a cross-border problem that must be tackled jointly.

EU Member States should consider taking steps to enhance the legal basis for the investigation and prosecution of hate crime and crime committed with antisemitic motives on the internet. Such measures should include ratifying the Council of Europe's Additional Protocol to the Budapest Convention on Cybercrime and implementing Article 9 of the Framework Decision on Racism, which obliges EU Member States to establish jurisdiction in certain cases of cybercrime. EU Member States should consider criminalising xenophobia and racism in line with these instruments in their criminal law, and they should provide criminal justice authorities with the necessary procedural law powers to investigate and prosecute such crime. They should also, as foreseen in the Convention on Cybercrime, engage in international cooperation to enhance efforts to combat such crimes.

EU Member States should consider establishing specialised police units that monitor and investigate hate crime on the internet and put in place measures to encourage users to report any antisemitic content they detect to the police.

The internet is increasingly important as a communication tool for many Europeans, but the anonymity afforded by it may lead some users to publish offensive or ill-thought-out material online. With the support of the EU, EU Member States should consider developing educational tools and materials concerning good practices when writing for the internet, and including them in school mother-tongue language lesson plans.



2

Safety and security



This chapter explores the extent to which Jewish people feel safe to lead an openly Jewish way of life in the neighbourhood and in the country where they live. It provides data on the extent to which Jewish people have witnessed or experienced antisemitic incidents in the form of verbal insults, physical attacks and vandalism. The survey results further describe the level of respondents' worries for themselves or for their family members becoming victims of antisemitic incidents, and responses taken in the face of safety concerns. The chapter includes the results on questions about taking, or considering taking, certain actions in relation to feelings of insecurity – for example avoiding certain places, or avoiding being recognised as a Jew in public places. Furthermore, the chapter briefly covers respondents' opinions about the possible impact of international events on their lives as Jewish people living in the EU.

2.1. Experiences of antisemitic incidents

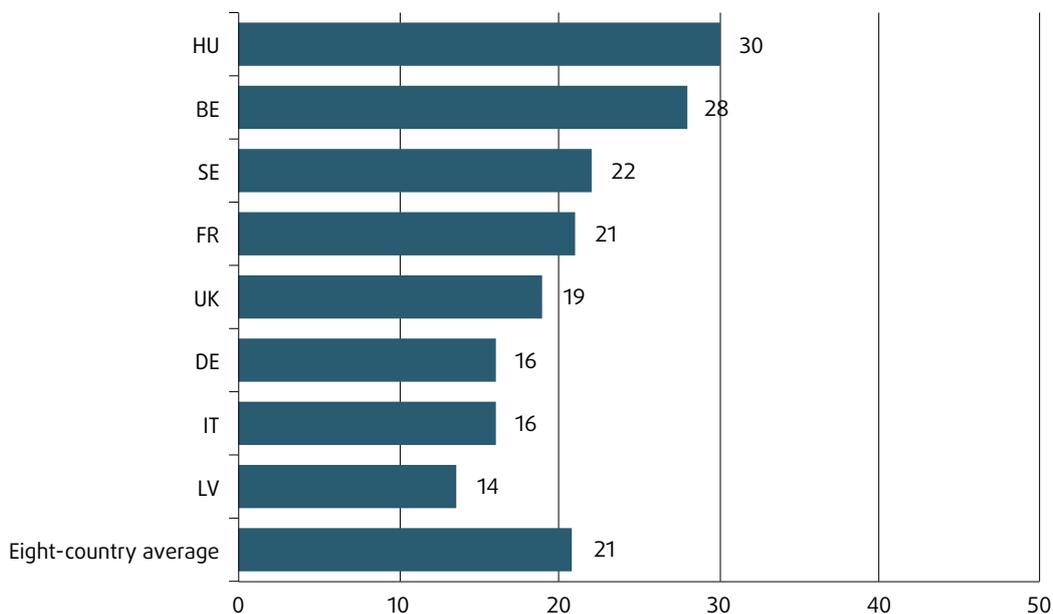
The respondents were asked about their experiences of antisemitic incidents such as verbal insult, harassment and physical attack in the 12 months preceding the survey. To cover as broad a range of incidents as possible, the survey allowed the respondents in the first instance to describe their exposure to antisemitic incidents in general – that is, without providing more detailed descriptions of what these incidents might have involved, other than that they could be classified either as verbal insult or harassment, or as a physical attack. Later on, respondents were asked in more detail about the prevalence of various forms of harassment and of physical violence – these results are presented in Chapter 3 'Violence against Jews: experiences of harassment, vandalism and physical violence' of this report.

In total, one in five respondents (21 %) has personally experienced at least one incident of antisemitic verbal insult or harassment, and/or a physical attack in the past 12 months. Most incidents that the respondents described involved verbal insults or harassment, while 2 % of all respondents indicated having experienced an antisemitic physical attack. Hungary, Belgium and Sweden have the highest incident rates with, respectively, 30 %, 28 % and 22 % of respondents indicating that they have experienced an incident of verbal insult or harassment and/or a physical attack in the last 12 months (Figure 8).

In the 12 months preceding the survey, 21 % of all respondents experienced an incident or incidents involving verbal insult or harassment or a physical attack because they were Jewish.

While personal experiences of violence and harassment can contribute directly to people's sense of safety, observing how others are treated – especially those close to you such as family members and friends – can provide equally strong evidence of existing risks. Besides personal experiences of antisemitic incidents, respondents were also asked whether they have witnessed other people being subjected to antisemitic insults, harassment or physical attack, or whether any of their family members or close friends have experienced such incidents in the 12 months before the survey. About one quarter (27 %) of the respondents indicated that they have witnessed other Jews being victims of antisemitic incidents, and a similar proportion (24 %) of respondents know family members or other people close to them who have been subjected to antisemitic verbal or physical attacks (Figures 9 and 10). Hungary, Belgium and France show the highest levels of antisemitic incidents that affect respondents indirectly, either as witnesses (43 %, 35 % and 30 %, respectively) or through their circle of family members and close friends (30 %, 32 % and 31 %, respectively).

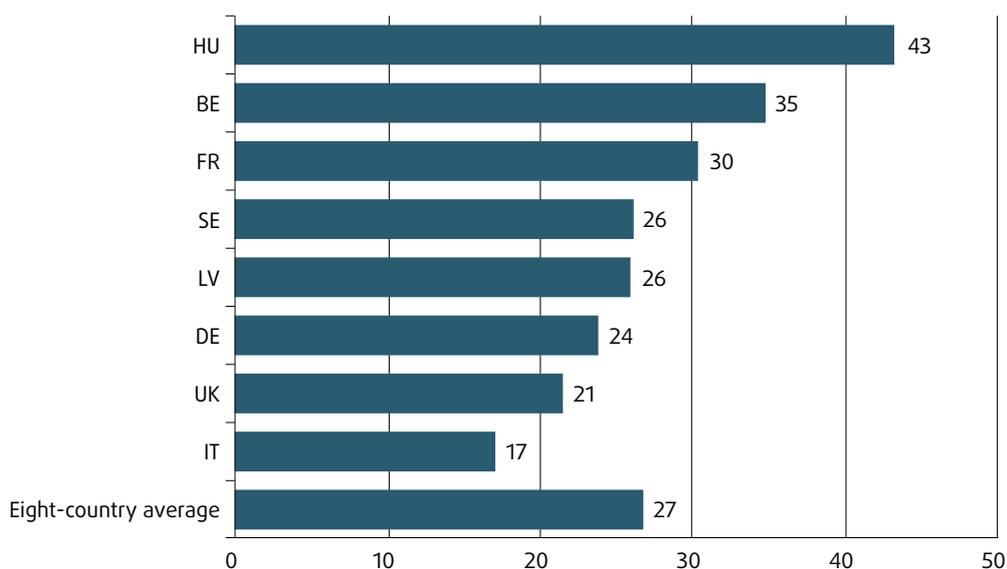
Figure 8: Personal experience of verbal insults or harassment and/or a physical attack(s) which was due to being Jewish, in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)



Questions: B09a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you personally experienced any of the following incidents in [COUNTRY], for any reason?
B09b. In your opinion, did any of these incidents happen BECAUSE you are Jewish [verbal insults/harassment; physical attack]?

Notes: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 9: Witnessing other Jews being verbally insulted or harassed and/or physically attacked, in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)

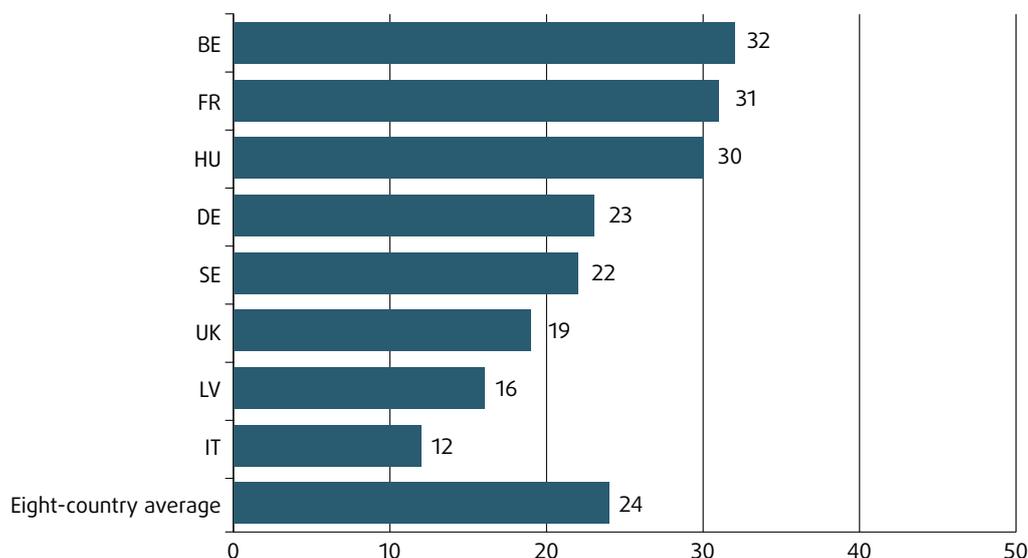


Question: B09b. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you personally witnessed any of the following types of antisemitic incident in [COUNTRY]?

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013



Figure 10: Respondents whose family members or close friends experienced verbal insults or harassment and/or a physical attack(s) because they were Jewish, in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)



Questions: B12a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, has a family member or a person close to you (such as your parent, children, your partner, other relative or close friend) been subjected to any of the following incidents in [COUNTRY], for any reason?
 B12b. In your opinion, did any of these incidents happen BECAUSE they are Jewish [verbal insults/harassment; physical attack]?

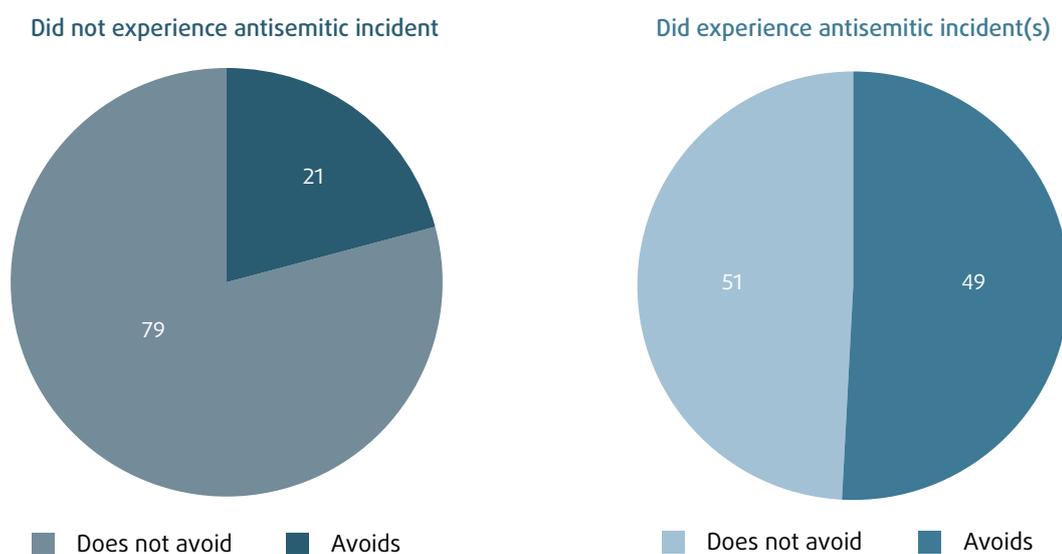
Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

The victims of antisemitic incidents which took place in the 12 months preceding the survey were younger than the average respondent, survey results showed. The victimisation rate is highest among the youngest respondents and lowest among the oldest respondents: one third (34 %) of the youngest respondents (16–29 years old) said that they had been a victim of an antisemitic incident in the 12 months before the survey. Among middle-aged respondents, about one quarter said that they had been victim of an antisemitic incident in the last 12 months before the survey; among 30–44-year-old and 45–59-year-old respondents the rates were 28 % and 23 %, respectively. Finally, around one in 10 (12 %) respondents who were 60 years old or older had been a victim of an antisemitic incident in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The survey results suggest that victims of recent antisemitic incidents, or incidents that took place in the past 12 months, including verbal harassment or physical attack, tend to avoid certain places or locations in their local area or neighbourhood more often than other respondents for fear of being attacked. Every second victim of an antisemitic incident (49 %) said he or she avoids certain places or locations in the local area or neighbourhood, while only one in five of those who have not experienced antisemitic incidents said the same (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Avoidance of certain places or locations in their local area or neighbourhood because of not feeling safe there as a Jew, by experience of antisemitic incident, in the past 12 months (%)



Questions: B09a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you personally experienced any of the following incidents in [COUNTRY], for any reason?
 B09b. In your opinion, did any of these incidents happen BECAUSE you are Jewish [verbal insults/harassment; physical attack]?

B25. How often, if at all, do you avoid certain places or locations in your local area or neighbourhood BECAUSE you don't feel safe there as a Jew?

Note: N=5,847.

The category 'Avoids' includes 'all the time', 'frequently', 'occasionally' and 'Does not avoid' includes 'never'.

Source: FRA, 2013

2.2. Worry of becoming a hate crime victim

Extensive research into fear of crime has documented the negative consequences on people's lives of fear and worry of becoming a victim. Questions on fear of crime have become an integral part of national and international crime victimisation surveys which cover the perceptions and experiences of the general population.¹³ Fear of crime can have various consequences for the life of the individuals affected and for society as a whole – for example, a report commissioned by the National Crime Council of Ireland noted that the negative effects of fear of crime included people restricting their movements and/or activities, which in turn undermined their physical, social and emotional well-being.¹⁴ A variety of factors such as media coverage of certain events and debates may influence fear or worry, while individuals may react to such fears in different ways.

The survey asked whether respondents worry that in the next 12 months they may be harassed or physically attacked in a public place, and whether they worry that a family member or other close person might fall victim to a similar incident in the same time period. Nearly half of the respondents said that they worried about being confronted with antisemitic verbal insults or harassment (46 %) in that time period, while one third said that they worried about facing an antisemitic physical attack (33 %). Considering the results for each of the eight EU Member States surveyed, France had the greatest share of respondents who worried about such issues (70 % worried about antisemitic verbal insults and harassment and 60 % about antisemitic physical attacks), followed by Belgium (64 % and 54 %, respectively) and Hungary (57 % and 33 %, respectively) (Figure 12).

Almost half (46 %) of all respondents worry about becoming a victim of an antisemitic verbal insult or harassment in the next 12 months, while one third (33 %) worry about being physically attacked in that same period.

¹³ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2010), pp. 56 and 57.

¹⁴ National Crime Council and Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform (2009), p. v.

The respondents show greater concern that family members or other persons close to them might be

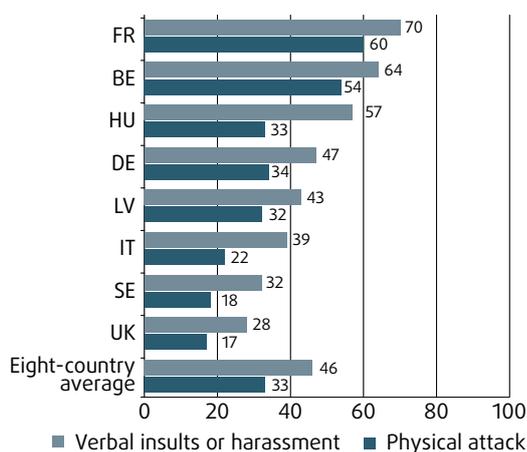
attacked than that they themselves might face an attack. Indeed, criminological research has shown that some people – particularly men – tend to underestimate the risk of becoming a crime victim.¹⁵ Just over half of all respondents (52 %) worried that their family members or other people close to them would be harassed or insulted because they were Jewish in the next 12 months, with 41 % worrying about physical anti-semitic attacks against their family members or close friends. At the country level, a similar pattern emerged. Of the respondents in France, 76 % were concerned that family members or close friends might become victims of antisemitic insults and harassment in the next 12 months, with 71 % worried about antisemitic physical attack against persons close to them. Respondents in Belgium and Hungary recorded the next highest rates of worry: in Belgium 72 % worried that a family member or other close person might be subjected to insult or harassment, and 62 % worried that they might be physically attacked, while in Hungary the responses were 65 % and 43 %, respectively (Figure 13).

The survey also asked respondents corresponding questions about experiences of antisemitic incidents

involving their children and grandchildren, if they had any. One in 10 (11 %) respondents with at least one child or grandchild at kindergarten or school said that they thought their children or grandchildren had experienced either antisemitic verbal insults or harassment, an antisemitic physical attack, or both, in the 12 months preceding the survey either at the educational institution or en route. Two thirds (66 %) of the parents or grandparents worry about their children or grandchildren becoming victims of antisemitic verbal insult or harassment, and half (52 %) worry about their children or grandchildren becoming victims of an antisemitic physical attack at school or kindergarten, or on their way there.

Worries about an antisemitic physical attack or verbal harassment seem to be correlated with the strength of respondents' religiosity and Jewish identity. Respondents who assessed their own religiosity as high (on a 10-point scale from 'not religious at all' to 'very religious') were the most worried about facing verbal harassment or physical attack in the next 12 months, while those respondents who expressed low religiosity were also least worried about becoming a victim of antisemitic harassment or a physical attack. In the case of antisemitic verbal

Figure 12: Worries about becoming a victim of verbal insults or harassment or physical attack because he/she is Jewish, in the next 12 months, by EU Member State (%)

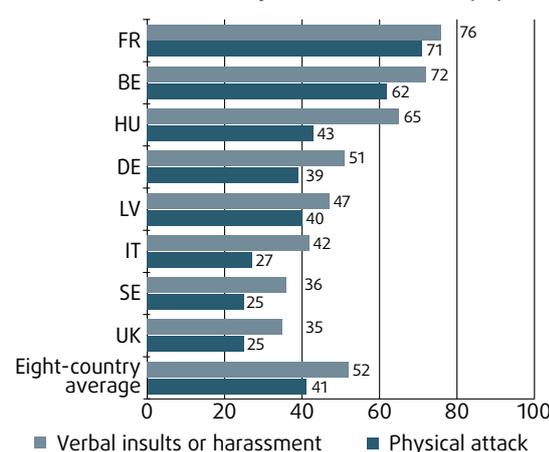


Question: B06/7. How worried, if at all, are you that you will be a victim of the following when you are in the street or in any other public place in [COUNTRY] in the next 12 months BECAUSE you are Jewish [A. Verbal insults/harassment; B. Physical attack]?

Notes: N=5,847. Answers include both 'very worried' and 'fairly worried'.

Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 13: Worries about a family member or person close to him/her becoming a victim of verbal insults or harassment or physical attack next 12 months because he/she is Jewish, in the next 12 months, by EU Member State (%)



Question: B10/11. How worried, if at all, are you that a family member or a person close to you (such as your parent, children, your partner, other relative or close friend) will be a victim of the following when they are in the street or in any other public place in [COUNTRY] in the next 12 months BECAUSE they are Jewish [A. Verbal insults/harassment; B. Physical attack]?

Notes: N=5,847. Answers include both 'very worried' and 'fairly worried'.

Source: FRA, 2013

15 Sutton, E.M. and Farrall, S. (2005).

harassment, for example, the results ranged from 61 % of respondents with high self-assessed religiosity saying that they worried about being harassed out of antisemitic motives in the next 12 months, compared with 37 % of respondents whose self-assessed strength of religiosity was low. Similarly, respondents who picked high values on the Jewish identity scale, reflecting a strong Jewish identity, expressed the highest level of worry about victimisation, and respondents with low values on the strength of Jewish identity scale indicated the lowest levels of worry.

“I am particularly concerned that if my son goes to a non-Jewish secondary school (a few years away), he will experience casual antisemitic comments about Jews being wealthy or powerful, and particularly about Jews and Israel/Palestinians. If he goes to a Jewish school, I am concerned that his uniform will make him a target when he travels alone to the bus stop.

I personally have not encountered much antisemitism in the last year but I know people who have. I take a Yiddish course in town and I try not to let my book be seen when I am reading it on the tube in case people think it is Hebrew and have a go at me.”

(Woman, 45–49 years old, United Kingdom)

“I am sometimes shocked that my children who are third-generation Swedes do not feel safe.”

(Man, 50–54 years old, Sweden)

“There are not only antisemitic insults or assaults. There are also looks/gazes or apparently less aggressive reprimands (this is the experience of my son at primary school and my son at high school) also from his teachers.”

(Man, 50–54 years old, Italy)

“My daughter was in the secondary school Ozar Hatorah of Toulouse on March 19 last year. The psychological consequences of this tragedy are terrible for her and for us.”

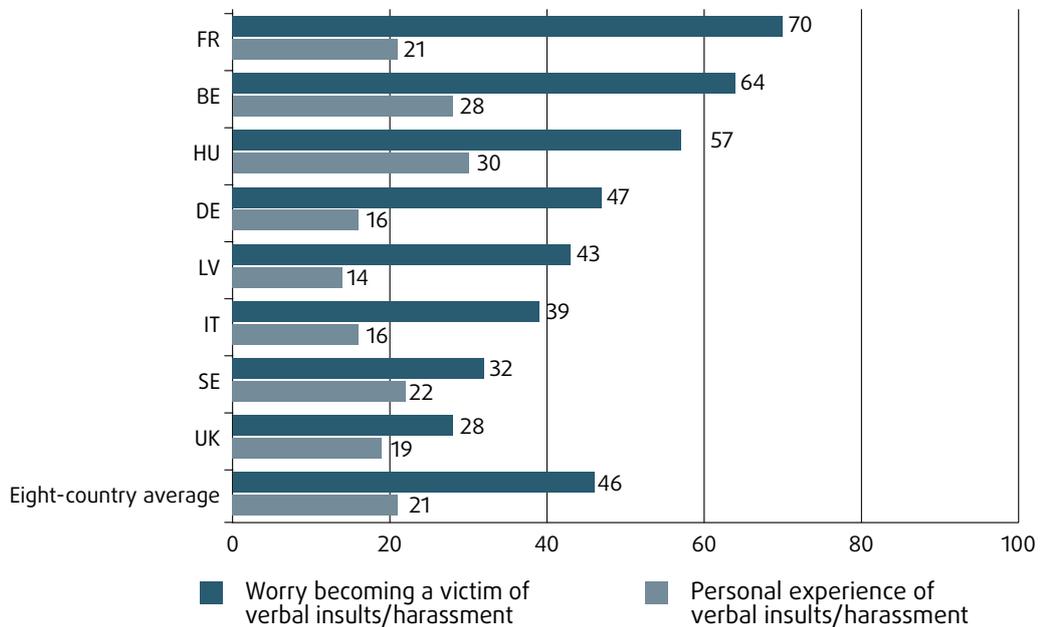
(Woman, 45–49 years old, France)

“Although I have not experienced any attack or anything inappropriate myself, I am very much aware of what people may think about Jews. I have become more careful. My father is afraid that because I wear a Star of David I will be more likely to be attacked.”

(Woman, 40–44 years old, Sweden)

Examining the survey results in more detail shows that the worry about becoming a victim of antisemitic verbal insult or harassment and/or physical attack is higher

Figure 14: Comparison of the levels of personal experience of antisemitic verbal insult or harassment and worry about becoming a victim of antisemitic verbal insult or harassment, by EU Member State (%)



Questions: B06/07. How worried, if at all, are you that you will be a victim of the following when you are in the street or in any other public place in [COUNTRY] in the next 12 months BECAUSE you are Jewish [Verbal insults/harassment]?
 B09a. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you personally experienced any of the following incidents in [COUNTRY], for any reason?
 B09b. In your opinion, did any of these incidents happen BECAUSE you are Jewish [Verbal insults/harassment]?

Notes: N=5,847.
 Answers include both 'very worried' and 'fairly worried'.

Source: FRA, 2013

than the actual experience of these incidents among the survey respondents, findings similar to those crime victimisation surveys show for the general population.¹⁶ Besides personal experiences, worry of victimisation may be fuelled by experiences of other family members or friends, incidents reported in the media or even developments in international politics.

On average across the eight Member States surveyed, 21 % of the respondents experienced antisemitic verbal insult or harassment in the 12 months preceding the survey, while 46 % expressed concerns about becoming a victim of such an antisemitic incident in the next 12 months (Figure 14). With respect to physical attacks, 2 % had experienced an attack during the prior 12-month period, whereas 33 % said they worried about becoming a victim of an incident in the next 12 months. The number of physical attacks actually experienced is too low to allow for meaningful country comparisons. The results on the extent of feelings of lack of safety – measured as the worry of victimisation – may indicate a need to take action that specifically addresses people’s worries and their feelings of safety, as discussed in the following sections.

Respondents were also asked whether they tend to avoid wearing, carrying or displaying items in public that might identify them as Jewish. These results are presented later in this report (see Section 2.3. – Responses to safety concerns: actions taken or considered) – however, it is worth noting that the survey data show a correlation between the worry of antisemitic victimisation and avoidance of wearing, carrying or displaying any recognisable signs. Of those respondents who are worried (both ‘very worried’ or ‘fairly worried’) about becoming a victim of antisemitic verbal insults or harassment in the next twelve months, more than three quarters (76 %) at least occasionally avoid wearing, carrying or displaying items in public that might identify them as Jewish (‘all the time’ – 27 %, ‘frequently’ – 22 % or ‘occasionally’ – 27 %). Of those respondents who do not worry (‘not very worried’ or ‘not at all worried’) about becoming a victim of antisemitic verbal insults or harassment in that same period, about three in five (59%) at least occasionally avoid wearing, carrying or displaying items in public that might identify them as Jewish. This suggests that some respondents feel compelled to hide their Jewish identity in public in response to safety concerns, limiting the extent to which they are able to live an openly Jewish life.

2.3. Responses to safety concerns: actions taken or considered

Experiences of harassment or physical attack – or worry about being subjected to either – may lead people to take steps they feel are necessary to reduce their risk of victimisation, even if such steps – such as enhanced security measures or a restructuring of daily activities to avoid areas perceived as dangerous – impose a significant burden in terms of costs or quality of life.

In the survey, respondents were asked whether and how often they avoid Jewish events or sites, or certain parts of their neighbourhood, because they do not feel safe there as Jews. Close to a quarter (23 %) of all respondents said that they avoided visiting Jewish events or sites at least occasionally, because, as a Jew, they do not feel safe there, or on the way there. Just over a quarter of respondents (27 %) avoid certain places in their local area or neighbourhood at least occasionally because they do not feel safe there as Jews, with higher proportions in Belgium, Hungary and France doing so (42 %, 41 % and 35 %, respectively).

“We try to avoid certain areas where we know antisemitism takes place e.g. immigrant neighbourhoods with a Muslim majority. We live in a relatively protected area.”

(Man, 60–69 years old, Sweden)

Respondents’ avoidance of certain Jewish events or sites due to security concerns may indicate that parts of the Jewish population do not feel free to live openly Jewish lives, or that their concerns for their personal security, or the security of their family and friends, curtail the extent to which they take part in Jewish life. The results also suggest that some respondents avoid certain places in their local areas or in their neighbourhoods because of concerns for their safety there as Jews. This is a signal for local authorities and law enforcement to intensify efforts to address people’s concerns about safety in their neighbourhoods, either in terms of finding more effective security measures or – where the risk of hate crime is found to be low – by exploring and addressing any other reasons which may contribute to people’s anxieties.

“Our religious places are under systematic police surveillance. This is a sign that the threats are real and that the government takes them seriously.”

(Man, 55–59 years old, France)

¹⁶ Van Dijk, J., Van Kesteren, J. and Smit, P. (2007), p. 133.

“We are asked to disperse quickly at the exit of the synagogues, community centres [...] where a special security service is required, which is, to my knowledge, not necessary at the exit of the churches or chaplaincies [...] nor for temples and mosques.”

(Woman, 45-49 years old, France)

“I find it almost unbearable that religious services can only take place with police protection.”

(Woman, 25-29 years old, Germany)

Close to one quarter (23 %) of the respondents said that they at least occasionally avoid visiting Jewish events or sites because they would not feel safe there, or on the way there, as a Jew. Over one quarter of all respondents (27 %) avoid certain places in their local area or neighbourhood at least occasionally because they do not feel safe there as a Jew.

The survey asked respondents if they ever avoided wearing, carrying or displaying items in public that could identify them as Jewish, for example a *kippa*/skullcap, a *magen david*/Star of David, specific clothing or a *Mezuzah*, which is a parchment inscribed with

scriptural verses from the Torah, whose protective case is affixed to the doorframes of Jewish homes, where it is visible to passers-by. Across the EU Member States surveyed, with the exception of Latvia, a majority of those respondents who at least sometimes carry or display such items said that they have avoided doing so at least occasionally (in the case of Latvia, 25 % said they avoid wearing or displaying the items at least occasionally) (Figure 15). The highest proportions of respondents who always avoid wearing, carrying or displaying these items were in Sweden (34 %), France (29 %) and Belgium (25 %).

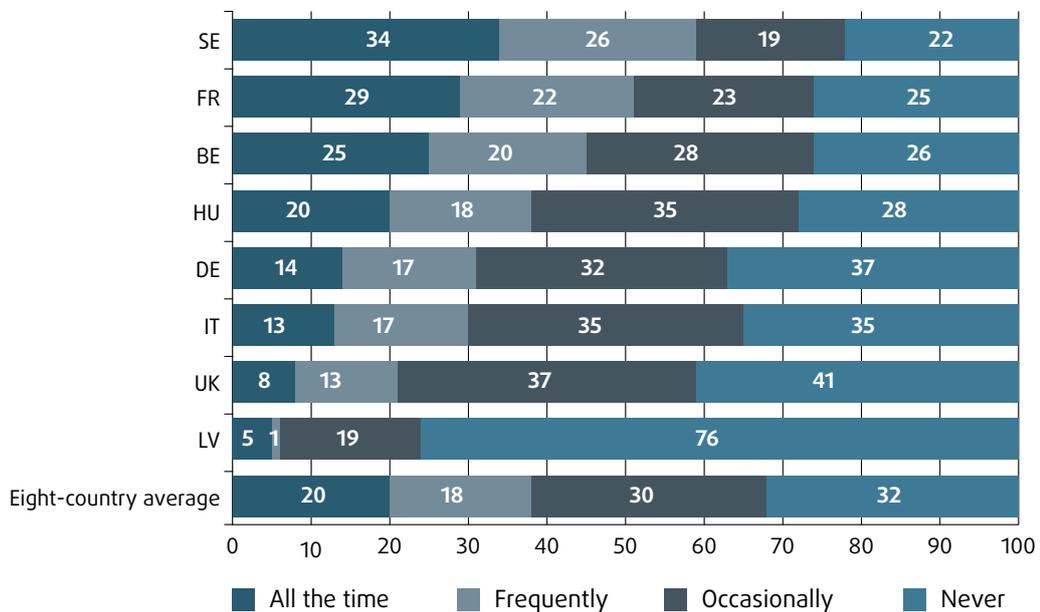
“[Because I have] a surname of Polish origin and [wear] no distinctive sign, no one sees me as a Jew in the street or in a public institution. Looks and behaviours change when a man is wearing a kippa or a woman a Star of David.”

(Woman, 30-34 years old, Belgium)

“As long as you keep kippa, festivities etc. private, there seems to be no problem. However, as soon as we, like Christians or Muslims, also want to attach importance to our religion and to openly live our religion, the situation changes dramatically.”

(Man, 60-69 years old, Germany)

Figure 15: Avoidance of wearing, carrying or displaying things that might help people identify them as Jews in public, by EU Member State (%)



Question: Fo8. Do you ever avoid wearing, carrying or displaying things that might help people recognise you as a Jew in public, for example wearing a kippa/skullcap, magen david/Star of David or specific clothing, or displaying a mezuzah? (Items as listed in the figure)

Notes: n=4,524, specifically: Belgium=346, France=926, Germany=422, Hungary=382, Italy=528, Latvia=106, Sweden=666, United Kingdom=1,148.

Only respondents who wear, carry or display relevant items.

Source: FRA, 2013

“A large part of antisemitism today in Sweden, among Swedish people, seems to have to do with Israel’s politics. I would like to wear a Star of David as jewellery, but I am afraid that I would be targeted and have to answer for Israel’s politics.”

(Woman, 35–39 years old, Sweden)

“I am convinced that I would have experienced much more antisemitism if I were identifiably Jewish e.g. by clothing.”

(Man, 35–39 years old, Sweden)

Further analysis of the survey results suggests that wearing, carrying or displaying items in public that could identify someone as Jewish – or, on the other hand, avoidance of such items – is unrelated to the level of self-assessed religiosity. Regardless of whether their self-assessed religiosity was high, middle or low, respondents were equally likely to say that they avoided wearing, carrying or displaying certain items ‘all the time’, ‘frequently’, ‘occasionally’ or ‘never’.

Respondents’ views about changing neighbourhoods or emigrating in response to safety concerns could reflect their notions of insecurity. The survey asked respondents two related questions. The first concerned whether or not they had moved, or considered moving, to another area or neighbourhood in the country because they did not feel safe as Jews in their current neighbourhood. The second addressed respondents’ thoughts about emigrating over the past five years,

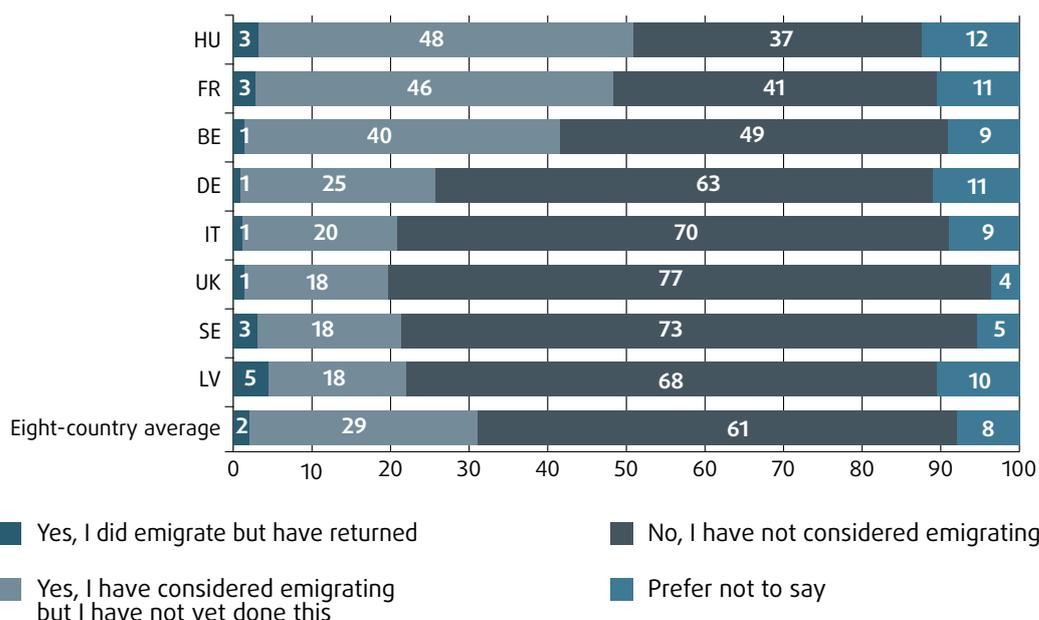
again because they did not feel safe as a Jew in the country where they live. The survey did not ask further questions related to emigration – for example, how seriously this has been considered or whether any action has been taken. There is no evidence, therefore, on whether such considerations led to specific steps towards emigrating.

Very few respondents have either moved (4 %) or considered moving (7 %) out of their neighbourhood due to safety concerns as Jews. However, close to one third have considered emigrating (29 %) in the past five years because they did not feel safe as a Jew in the country where they live.

Considerations of emigration due to security concerns varied by country (Figure 16). The majority of respondents in five of the eight countries have not considered emigrating, but in Hungary, France and Belgium between 40 % and 48 % of the respondents indicated that they have considered emigrating in the past five years because they did not feel safe there as Jews. Roughly one fifth to one quarter of respondents in the other countries reported having considered emigrating.

Section 3.2. of this report presents the results concerning respondents’ experience of various forms of antisemitic harassment. As a follow-up question, respondents who have experienced some form of antisemitic harassment

Figure 16: Respondents’ views about emigrating from a country because of not feeling safe living there as a Jew, in the past five years, by EU Member State (%)



Question: B26. In the PAST FIVE YEARS, have you considered emigrating from [COUNTRY] BECAUSE you don’t feel safe living there as a Jew (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

in the past five years were asked whether this has led them to take, or consider taking, some form of action, and the possible responses included 'emigrating to another country'. In total, 34 % of victims of antisemitic harassment said that the most serious incident of this type, the one that most affected them, in the past five years has led them to consider emigrating (for more details see Section 3.2.).

“Antisemitism is one reason for me to leave Germany because I want to protect my family from any danger.”

(Man, 50–54 years old, Germany)

“I am 65 years old, and it is hopeless. If I were younger, I would leave the country.”

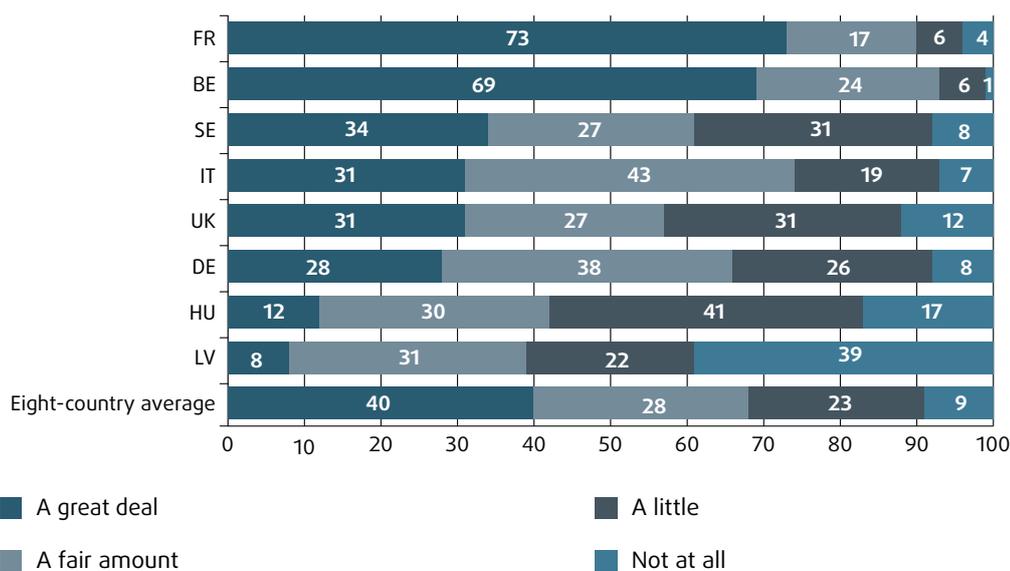
(Man, 60–69 years old, Hungary)

2.4. The influence of events in the Middle East on antisemitic incidents

FRA's summary overview of antisemitic incidents recorded in the EU in 2011¹⁷ found evidence suggesting that events in the Middle East can act as a trigger for translating anti-Israeli sentiment into antisemitic sentiment targeting Jewish populations as a whole. Recorded antisemitic incidents in France and the United Kingdom in 2009 peaked in January of that year, for example, coinciding with operation Cast Lead in Gaza.¹⁸ As FRA's summary overview shows, the number of recorded incidents decreased sharply in both these Member States in 2010, with a further drop recorded in 2011.

In the survey, respondents were asked to what extent, if at all, the Israeli-Arab conflict¹⁹ impacts on how safe

Figure 17: The Israeli-Arab conflict's impact on feelings of safety, by EU Member State (%)



Question: B13. To what extent, if at all, does the Israeli-Arab conflict impact on how SAFE you feel as a Jewish person in [COUNTRY] (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

¹⁷ FRA (2012a).

¹⁸ For France, see National Advisory Council for Human Rights (*Commission nationale consultative des droits de l'homme*) (2010), p. 40; for the United Kingdom, see Community Security Trust (2010), p. 35.

¹⁹ The wording of the question on the Israeli-Arab conflict was developed and defined on the basis of the consultations with the academic team of FRA's survey contractor. The term 'Israeli-Arab conflict' was chosen to reflect a broad set of political events which might affect Jewish people in Europe while acknowledging that the term might not cover some issues whose impact could have been equally interesting (e.g. tension between Israel and Iran). For more information on the questionnaire development process, see Annex 1 which describes the survey methodology and design.

they feel in the country in which they live. The results indicate that the Israeli-Arab conflict affects the lives of most respondents in Belgium, France, Germany, Sweden and the United Kingdom. About 90 % of the respondents in Belgium and France reported that the Israeli-Arab conflict has a notable impact on their feelings of safety as Jews ('a great deal' or 'a fair amount'), compared with around 40 % of respondents in Hungary and Latvia. In almost all the other countries surveyed, a majority of respondents (about 50 %-70 %) reported that the Israeli-Arab conflict affects their feelings of safety either 'a great deal' or 'a fair amount' (Figure 17).

The survey also asked respondents if they felt that they were held accountable for Israeli government actions. The majority of respondents in Belgium, Italy and France (around 60 %) said that people in the country blame or accuse them for anything done by the Israeli government, 'frequently' or 'all the time'. In the United Kingdom, Germany and Sweden the corresponding proportion ranged from 40 % to 50 %. The corresponding percentages in Hungary and Latvia were lower; nevertheless, even in these two countries more than two respondents in five said that they have at least occasionally felt accused or blamed in this way (Figure 18).

"One reason (not the only one!) for the latent antisemitism is the open conflict between Israel and Palestine and other neighbouring Arab countries. A peaceful solution to this conflict would also reduce the ground for antisemitism in other countries."

(Man, 70-79 years old, Germany)

"Antisemitism due to prejudices against Israel is increasing, by identifying Jewish people with Israel in public opinion. This is more dangerous than the 'traditional' extreme right-wing antisemitism, because it is less visible but more deceitful and pervasive."

(Woman, 30-34 years old, Italy)

"Antisemitism in Sweden has to do a lot with Jews being blamed for Israel's politics."

(Woman, 60-69 years old, Sweden)

FRA opinion

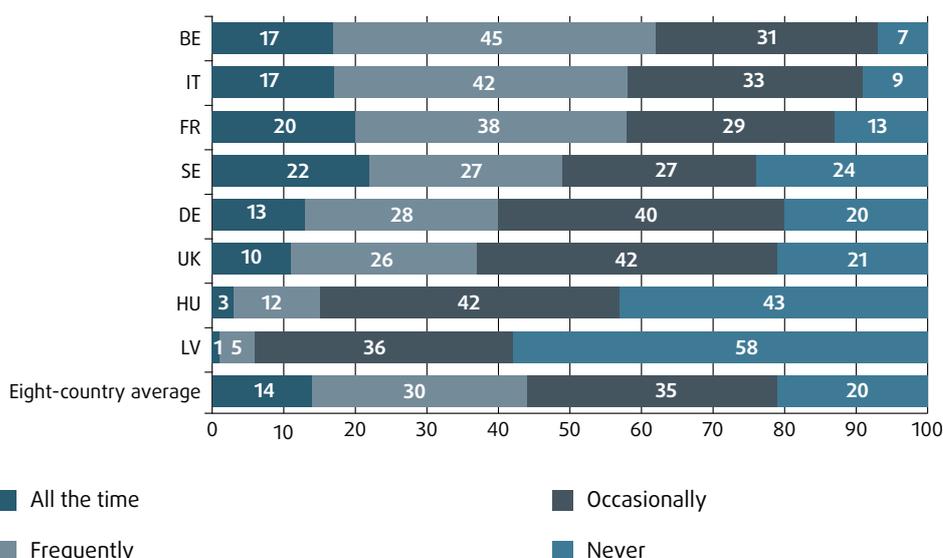
EU Member States are encouraged to collect data in a systematic and effective manner on how Jewish people experience fundamental rights in their daily lives.

The EU and its Member States should ensure effective implementation of Article 1(c) of the Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia (2008/913/JHA), under which Member States are obliged to take measures to ensure that intentionally publicly condoning, denying or grossly trivialising crimes of genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes are punishable.

Politicians and opinion makers should refrain from antisemitic statements and should clearly denounce and condemn such statements when made by others in public debates.

They should also ensure that Jewish people are involved in decision making and that their views are heard and taken into account when issues of relevance to them are discussed.

Figure 18: Feelings of being accused or blamed for something done by the Israeli government, by EU Member State (%)



Question: B14. How often, if at all, do you feel that people in [COUNTRY] accuse or blame you for anything done by the Israeli government BECAUSE you are Jewish (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

3

Violence against Jews: experiences of harassment, vandalism and physical violence

The available statistics on violent incidents, including antisemitic ones, are typically based on cases that have come to the attention of the police, equality bodies or Jewish community organisations, but research on victims of crime has shown that recorded incidents represent only the ‘tip of the iceberg’ with respect to the extent of crime. The FRA survey results show that this is also the case for hate crime against Jewish people.

This chapter examines Jewish people’s experiences of antisemitic physical violence, harassment, and vandalism against personal property in both the past five years and in the 12 months prior to the survey. The results show how many respondents have experienced such incidents, what happened in a particular incident, whether it was reported and to whom – and if a case was not reported, why the incident was not brought to the attention of the relevant authorities or organisations. In the case of physical violence and harassment, the chapter further explores certain details of violent incidents such as the location where the incident took place, characteristics of the perpetrators and of the victims.

Earlier on in the survey respondents were asked more generally about their experiences related to antisemitic incidents, offering a broader perspective of various incidents that may have taken place: these results were presented in Section 2.1. The questions analysed here focus on specific types of harassment and violence (for example, by listing specific types of harassment and asking respondents whether any of these had happened to them), which were further followed up with questions on whether or not and how these incidents were reported to the authorities.

FRA ACTIVITY

Data collection and analysis of the situation of antisemitism in the EU

Every year, FRA publishes an update outlining the broad contours of antisemitism in the EU. The ninth update assembles statistical data covering the period 1 January 2002–31 December 2012 on antisemitic incidents collected by international, governmental and non-governmental sources.

Antisemitism: Summary overview of the situation in the European Union 2002-2012 (November 2013).

The FRA Annual report on *Fundamental rights: challenges and achievements* provides a comparative analysis of trends in officially recorded and published data on racist, anti-Roma, antisemitic, Islamophobic/anti-Muslim and (right-wing) extremist crime in the EU. Officially recorded data are understood here as those collected by law enforcement agencies, criminal justice systems and relevant ministries.

Fundamental rights: challenges and achievements (latest June 2013). Chapter 6 of the report presents a comparative analysis on developments and trends in officially recorded crimes motivated by racism, xenophobia and related intolerance.

All these publications are available on the FRA website:
<http://fra.europa.eu/en/publications-and-resources>

3.1. Physical violence and threats of physical violence

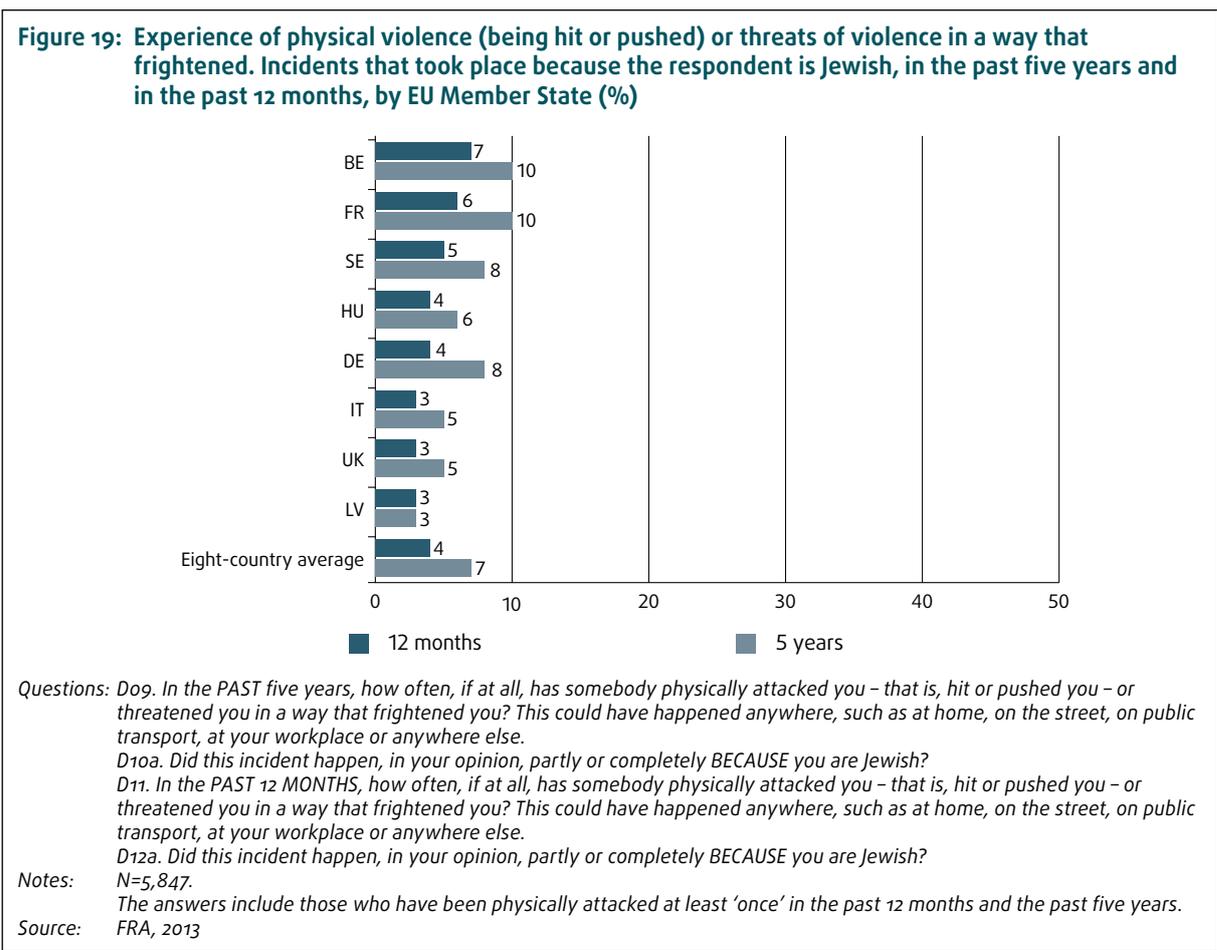
The survey asked respondents to consider their own experiences of physical violence – that is, being hit or pushed – or threats of physical violence, for example

on the street, at the workplace or anywhere else, in the past 12 months as well as in the past five years. Respondents who have experienced such violence were further asked to specify whether they believe this has occurred because they are Jewish.

Overall, 7 % of the respondents surveyed have personally experienced an incident of antisemitic violence or threats because they are Jewish in the five years before

the survey. In the 12 months before the survey, 4 % of all respondents have experienced physical violence or threats of violence (Figure 19).²⁰

In the 12 months preceding the survey, 4 % of all respondents experienced physical violence or threats of violence because they are Jewish that they found frightening.



²⁰ The results of the FRA survey on discrimination and hate crime against Jews can be compared with the results of the general population surveys on the basis of taking into account all incidents of physical violence as indicated by the FRA survey respondents. Taking into account all incidents of physical violence results in a slightly higher rate of physical violence than if only antisemitic violence is considered. According to the FRA survey results, 13 % of the respondents experienced personally an incident of physical violence in the last five years and 8 % in the 12 months before the survey. According to the results of the 2004 *International Crime Victims Survey* (ICVS), the prevalence rates of assaults and threats across the national populations in the year preceding the survey were lower than the ones shown by the FRA survey of Jewish people, for example: Belgium, 3.6 %; France, 2.1 %; Germany, 2.7 %; Hungary, 1.2%; Italy, 0.8 %; and Sweden, 3.5 %. The ICVS results indicate relatively higher rates of violence in the main cities, for example: Berlin, 4.1%; Stockholm, 3.2 %; Paris, 3.1 %; Budapest, 1.6 %; Rome, 1.2 %, which might be of more relevance as points of comparison to the FRA survey as the respondents are mainly city residents. For more see: Van Dijk, J., Van Kesteren, J., Smith, P. (2007), p. 81.

The respondents who experienced any type of antisemitic physical violence or threats were asked a number of questions concerning the most serious incident, the one that affected them most, in the five years preceding the survey. Half of these respondents said that the most serious antisemitic incident involved threats without actual physical violence. For 10 %, the most serious incident involved physical violence against the respondent and for 33 %, the incident involved both threats of physical violence and actual physical violence.

With respect to the most serious incident of antisemitic violence or threats, young respondents were more likely to have experienced both threats of violence and actual physical violence than respondents from other age groups in the 12 months preceding the survey. While 10 % of respondents aged 16–29 years experienced threats and physical violence, just 6 % of 30–44-year olds, 4 % of 45–59-year olds and 2 % of those aged 60 years and over have experienced this. This result highlights the higher exposure of young Jews to incidents of physical violence and threats of physical violence. Crime victimisation surveys of the majority population show a similar relationship between age and victimisation to violent crime.²¹

Just under half (44 %) of the most serious incidents of antisemitic physical violence or threats of physical violence took place on the street, square, car park or other public place, and one in five on public transport (21 %). Other locations mentioned included: on the way to or from a Jewish site or event (16 %), at work (12 %) and at a political event or at school/university (9 % and 10 %, respectively).

“A car stopped and the driver, a black man, asked me if I was Jewish. When I said yes, he spat at me and drove off. I do not think it insignificant that as he did so, his passenger, also black, was trying, profusely, to apologise.”

(Man, 35–39 years old, United Kingdom)

Incidents of antisemitic violence or threats of violence were most likely to occur in public places such as on the street, in a square or other public place.

3.2. Harassment

The survey asked respondents about experiences related to five specific forms of harassment:

- receiving offensive or threatening emails, text messages (SMS), letters or cards;
- receiving offensive, threatening or silent phone calls;
- experiencing behaviour with respect to loitering or being deliberately followed by somebody in a threatening way;
- receiving offensive or threatening comments in person;
- receiving offensive personal comments posted on the internet, including through social networking websites.

Respondents who experienced at least one form of harassment either in the past five years or in the past 12 months were then asked to specify whether they feel that they have been harassed specifically because they are Jewish.

The results of the survey show that more than one quarter (26 %) of respondents experienced antisemitic harassment – that is, an incident of harassment they feel was due to them being Jewish – at least once in the 12 months preceding the survey, and one third (33 %) in the past five years (Figure 20). These results are in line with the findings presented earlier in this report on experiences of antisemitic verbal insults and harassment (without specifying the type of the incident). When asked generally about experiences of antisemitic verbal insults and harassment, 21 % of the respondents said that they had experienced such an incident in the past 12 months (see Section 2.1. ‘Experiences of antisemitic incidents’).

This supports the pattern identified in crime victimisation survey literature, which recommends the use of sets of questions concerning specific acts over the use of a single question which aims to encompass a broad phenomenon.²² However, in the FRA survey on Jewish people’s experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism it was decided to use both approaches – using one question (as presented in Section 2.1.) which allowed respondents to consider their experience on antisemitic incidents in general, as well as a set of more detailed questions on harassment and violence.

The extent of perceived antisemitic harassment shows some notable differences between EU Member States. About one third of respondents in Hungary (35 %), Belgium (31 %) and Germany (29 %) experienced at least one type of antisemitic harassment in the 12 months before the survey, while 21 % of respondents in both the

²¹ The role of youth as a risk factor of crime victimisation was shown, for example, in the repeated waves of the ICVS, which covers a total of 78 countries. The report on *Criminal victimisation in international perspective: Key findings from the 2004–2005 ICVS and EU ICS* highlights the relationship between age and victimisation experiences and summarises the ICVS’ results from its five cycles over 15 years (Van Dijk, J., Van Kesteren, J. and Smit, P., 2007).

²² United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (2010), p. 58.

United Kingdom and Sweden, and 12 % in Latvia, had similar experiences over the same time period (Figure 20).

One third of the respondents (33 %) experienced some form of antisemitic harassment in the five years preceding the survey, while one quarter (26 %) encountered such harassment in the 12 months preceding the survey.

The exposure to incidents of antisemitic harassment is greatest among the youngest, and as indicated by the survey responses decreases with age: 38 % of 16–29-year olds, 32 % of 30–44-year olds, 29 % of 45–59-year olds, and 16 % of those 60 years old and older surveyed have fallen victim to antisemitic harassment in the 12 months preceding the survey.

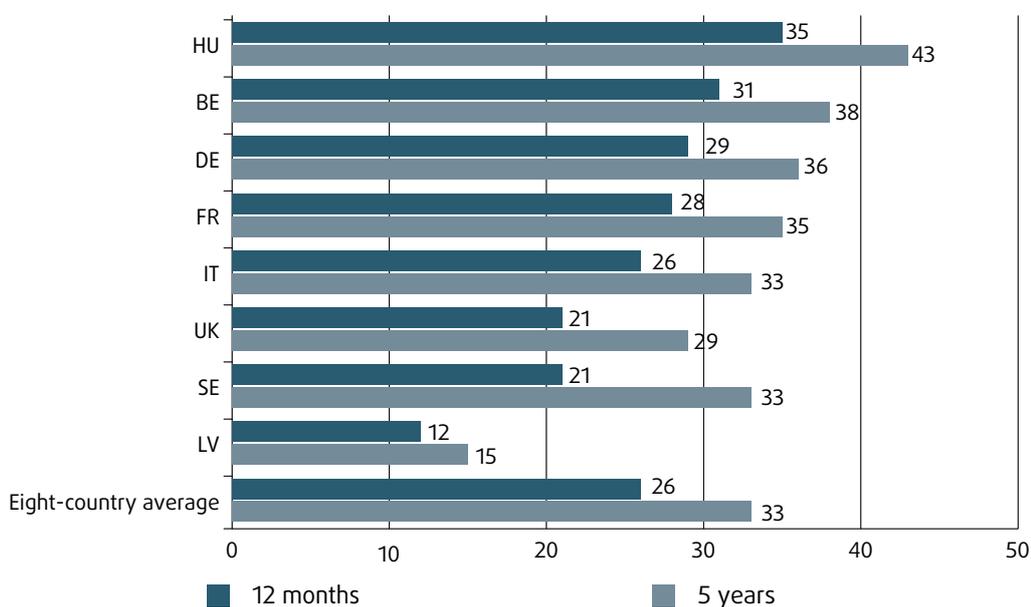
Of the five specific forms of harassment listed in the survey, and focusing on incidents which in the view of the respondents took place because they are Jewish, offensive comments in person are most widespread. Almost one in five respondents (18 %) experienced such comments at least once in the 12 months preceding the

survey. Smaller proportions of respondents referred to offensive comments posted on the internet (10 %) and offensive or threatening emails, text messages or letters (7 %) (Figure 21).

While survey respondents identify antisemitic content on the internet as the most acute form of antisemitism, comments made in person are the most common form of actual antisemitic harassment.

Relatively more respondents in Hungary, Belgium and Germany than in the other EU Member States surveyed indicated that they have personally experienced offensive or threatening comments in the past 12 months because they are Jewish (27 %, 26 %, 21 %, respectively). On the other hand, about one in 10 respondents from France, Germany, Hungary and Italy have seen such offensive comments posted on the internet, including on social networking websites (10 %–15 %, depending on the EU Member State), or they have received offensive or threatening emails, text messages, letters or cards (11 %–12 %, depending on the country) (Figure 22).

Figure 20: Experience of one or more of the five forms of antisemitic harassment, in the past 12 months and in the past five years, by EU Member State (%)

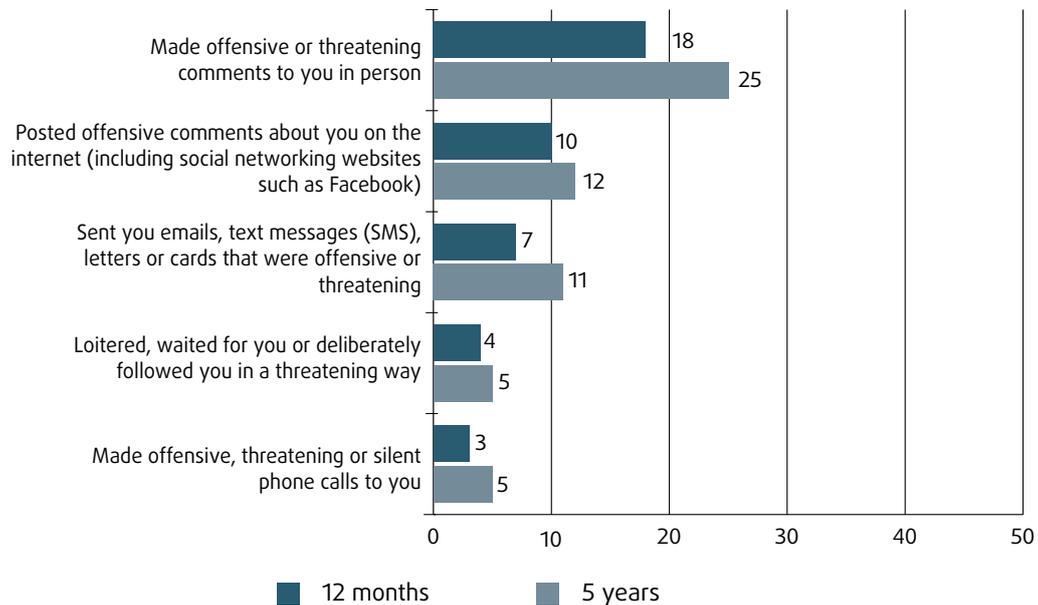


Questions: Co1. In the PAST five years in [COUNTRY], how often, if at all, has somebody:
 Co3. In the PAST 12 MONTHS in [COUNTRY], how often, if at all, has somebody:
 • sent you emails, text messages (SMS), letters or cards that were offensive or threatening;
 • made offensive, threatening or silent phone calls to you;
 • loitered, waited for you or deliberately followed you in a threatening way;
 • made offensive or threatening comments to you in person;
 • posted offensive comments about you on the internet (including social networking websites such as Facebook)?
 Co4a. Did this happen, in your opinion, partly or completely BECAUSE you are Jewish?

Notes: N=5,847.
 The answers include those who have been harassed at least 'once' in the past 12 months and the past five years.

Source: FRA, 2013

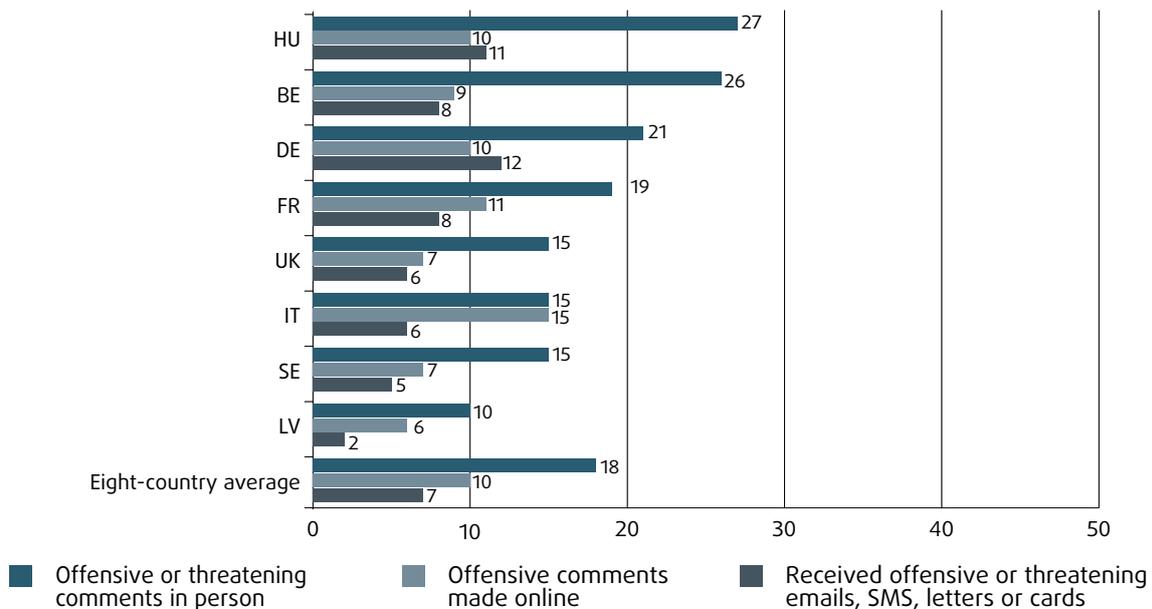
Figure 21: Experience of specific forms of antisemitic harassment at least once, in the past 12 months and in the past five years (%)



Questions: Co1. In the PAST five years in [Aoz: COUNTRY], how often, if at all, has somebody: (Items as listed above in the figure)?
 Co2a. Did this happen, in your opinion, partly or completely BECAUSE you are Jewish?
 Co3. In the PAST 12 MONTHS in [Aoz: COUNTRY], how often, if at all, has somebody: (Items as listed above in the figure)?
 Co4a. Did this happen, in your opinion, partly or completely BECAUSE you are Jewish?

Note: N=5,847.
 Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 22: Experience of three of the most widespread forms of antisemitic harassment, percentage of respondents who experienced a particular form of antisemitic harassment at least once, in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)



Questions: Co3. In the PAST 12 MONTHS in [COUNTRY], how often, if at all, has somebody:
 • sent you emails, text messages (SMS), letters or cards that were offensive or threatening;
 • made offensive or threatening comments to you in person;
 • posted offensive comments about you on the internet (including social networking websites such as Facebook)?
 Co4a. Did this happen, in your opinion, partly or completely BECAUSE you are Jewish?

Note: N=5,847.
 Source: FRA, 2013

As already mentioned, one third (33 %) of the survey respondents said that they have experienced some form of antisemitic harassment at least once in the five years before the survey. Of all those who have experienced antisemitic harassment, close to half (44 %, n=861) have experienced just one single incident. The majority experienced either several different forms of harassment, or repeated incidents of a particular type of antisemitic harassment.

Examining the nature of antisemitic harassment experienced by the survey respondents in more detail, the findings show that in the past five years: almost half (44 %) of those who have faced offensive comments online indicated that this has taken place once or twice; one third (34 %) indicated that this has taken place three to nine times; and one quarter (23 %) has experienced it 10 times or more.

Regarding offensive emails, text messages, letters and cards, over half (59 %) of those who have experienced such an incident in the past five years said it has happened once or twice, while the rest (41 %) said that it has happened to them three times or more during the period.

The same tendency is observed for offensive comments in person; more than half (57 %) experienced such comments once or twice over the past five years, while almost half (43 %) experienced them three or more times in the period.

Therefore, while antisemitic comments made online against the respondent is not the most common form of antisemitic harassment indicated by survey respondents, it is the form of antisemitic harassment that is the most likely to involve a larger share of repeated incidents, which adds to the seriousness of this form of harassment.

“I have a feeling that there are very diverse ideas about antisemitism in Sweden and that these ideas differ depending on how ‘openly’ Jewish a life one leads. Those who wear a kippa in town certainly are shouted at every now and then, while I – who wear no religious symbols and don’t look like a foreigner – have never experienced anything serious.”

(Woman, 30–34 years old, Sweden)

“My son at University had other students who tried to force him to eat pork. They thought it was a joke. Often his ‘friends’ make racist comments and he gets upset. He has come to blows due to their ignorance.”

(Woman, 55–59 years old, United Kingdom)

In addition to asking about the frequency of various types of antisemitic harassment incidents, the respondents who experienced some form of such harassment were asked to provide more details about the most serious case in the past five years, such as a description of the place of the incident and their perceptions concerning the perpetrators. The results on perpetrators and reporting incidents are discussed later in this report with reference to all incidents of antisemitic harassment, violence or threats of violence and vandalism (for results on perpetrators, see Section 3.4., and on reporting incidents, Section 3.5.).

The respondents were asked to identify the most serious incident, the one that had the biggest impact on them. In most cases (39 %), this involved receiving offensive or threatening comments in person, followed by offensive comments posted about them on the internet (21 %). Of those who had experienced antisemitic harassment, 17 % said that the most serious incident they had experienced was when somebody loitered, waited for them or deliberately followed them in a threatening way, while 15 % considered offensive or threatening emails, text messages or letters as the most serious incident.

Those who had experienced any form of antisemitic harassment over the past five years were also asked if they had taken further action as a result of what they experienced, such as:

- moving to another area;
- stopping the use of their social networking account;
- changing workplaces;
- changing their appearance or name;
- considering emigrating to another country;
- discussing it with family and friends.

More than three quarters of the respondents (78 %) said that they have talked about their experiences of antisemitic harassment with friends or relatives. One third of the victims have considered emigrating to another country (34 %) because of the harassment, with respondents in France (50 %) and Hungary (47 %) more likely than those in the other six countries surveyed to have considered emigrating. About two in five respondents (38 %) confronted the perpetrator(s) about their actions. Only a few respondents reacted to the harassment by changing their phone number or email address (6 %) or by stopping the use of social networking services (6 %).



3.3. Vandalism against personal property

Respondents were asked if anyone has vandalised or damaged their private property – such as their home or car – in the past 12 months or past five years. This question focused specifically on respondents' personal experiences regarding their own personal property. It did not cover, for example, the vandalism of Jewish buildings and sites, such as synagogues and cemeteries, as this type of antisemitic incident was covered earlier in the questionnaire and the corresponding results are reported in Chapter 2. Those who have experienced vandalism of their private property were then asked how many times this has taken place, and whether they thought that any of these incidents were due to their Jewishness. Vandalism against property can take many forms: while some incidents, such as antisemitic graffiti provide clear evidence of the motivation, in other cases – for example, breaking windows of a respondent's home or damaging his or her car – the motivation may be unclear to the respondent. It may therefore be difficult to determine whether a particular incident of vandalism was in any way linked to the respondent's Jewishness.

"I once had antisemitic graffiti posted on my locker at work. It was nasty stuff put there by a born-again Christian. He confessed and was very sorry after the event. I was shocked at the lack of support given by workmates and people whom I had known for years. I did however receive good support from upper-level management."

(Man, 50–54 years old, United Kingdom)

"Several years ago, I suffered antisemitic graffiti (Swastikas) on my professional [doctor's] plaque."

(Man, 55–59 years old, France)

In total, 5 % of all survey respondents said that their property has been deliberately vandalised because they were Jewish in the five years preceding the survey and 3 % have experienced this in the 12 months prior to the survey. The results of the survey do not reveal any country-specific differences. Overall, about one in 10 survey respondents (12 %) has had someone vandalise or damage their home, car or other property in the previous five years – but this was irrespective of whether or not they considered the incident to be motivated by antisemitism. It is possible that some of these cases could also have involved an antisemitic motive but the respondent could not confirm this.

Across all of the EU Member States surveyed, more than one third (35 %) of those respondents who have been exposed to antisemitic vandalism of property said that it has happened to them more than once in the five years before the survey.

3.4. Respondents' perceptions of perpetrators

The survey followed up questions about exposure to incidents of antisemitic violence, threats and harassment with questions focusing on the most serious incident. Among these questions was one on the number of perpetrators involved and respondents' perceptions of the perpetrator(s). Due to a relatively low number of incidents – both as regard physical attacks/threats and harassment – no country breakdowns are presented here. While the number of respondents who experienced antisemitic harassment in the five years before the survey (1,941 respondents) far exceeds those who faced antisemitic violence or threats (403 respondents), the responses concerning the perpetrators are in each case spread over the sixteen answer categories that were included in the survey; the number of respondents in a single category in a single EU Member State therefore remains small.

In the case of the most serious incident of physical violence or threats that respondents experienced in the past five years, slightly more than one third of these incidents involved only one perpetrator (35 %). Two incidents out of five (40 %) involved two or three perpetrators and one incident in five (20 %) involved four or more perpetrators.

With regard to the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment, 41 % of cases involved only one perpetrator, 18 % involved two perpetrators, 14 % involved three to four, and 13 % of incidents had five or more perpetrators. Additionally, 15 % of the respondents said they did not know how many perpetrators there were. This would be the case, for example, with silent phone calls, anonymous emails or comments posted on the internet under a pseudonym or an avatar.

Respondents were also asked to describe the perpetrator as far as possible. To help, the survey offered respondents a list of 16 categories, including a 'do not know' option, which could be used to describe the perpetrators. Respondents could select as many options as relevant. They could also indicate that the perpetrator involved in the most serious incident could not be described using the list – either because there was no suitable category available in the survey, or because they did not have any information on the perpetrator.

For the most serious incident of physical violence or threats, the most frequently mentioned categories or perceived characteristics of the perpetrators are: 'someone with a Muslim extremist view' (40 %); 'teenagers' (25 %); 'someone else' (a person or persons who could not be described using the listed categories) (20 %); 'someone with a left-wing political view' (14 %); 'someone with a right-wing political view' (10 %); 'a colleague or a supervisor at work', or 'a neighbour' (9 % each

respectively). Other response categories concerning the perpetrators – for example, on whether the perpetrator has extremist Christian views or is a respondent’s customer, client or patient – received too few responses (30 respondents or less) to be presented.

With respect to the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment, the most frequently mentioned categories for perpetrators are: ‘someone with a Muslim extremist view’ (27 %); ‘someone with a left-wing political view’ (22 %); ‘someone with a right-wing political view’ (19 %); ‘someone else’ (a person or persons not fitting any of the listed categories) (20 %); ‘teenagers’ (15 %); ‘colleagues or supervisors at work’ (14 %); ‘neighbour’ (10%) or ‘someone with an extremist Christian view’ (7 %).

While the category ‘someone with a Muslim extremist view’ is reported most often, respondents frequently selected it in combination with another category. In one third of the cases, respondents chose it with ‘someone with a left-wing political view’ (36 %); in one quarter, with the category ‘teenager or group of teenagers’ (25 %); and, in one case out of five, with ‘someone with a right-wing political view’ (19 %). When indicating more than one category, respondents may also be referring to two or more separate incidents perhaps involving different people. The survey data do not provide information on the way in which respondents identified the perpetrators, and therefore only limited conclusions can be drawn from these results.

In case of the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment in the last five years, when asked to describe the perpetrator to the extent this is possible and in the terms which the respondents considered to correspond best with their perception of the perpetrators, in 27 % of the cases respondents perceive the perpetrator as being someone with a Muslim extremist view, in 22 % of cases as someone with a left-wing political view and in 19 % of cases as someone with right-wing political views.

“The antisemitic insults I have experienced were not from neo-Nazis or from leftists, but from ordinary people of the political centre.”

(Man, 30–34 years old, Germany)

“From my experience, I think most of the antisemitic incidents are verbal and they are due to ignorance and indifference more than to a real political-religious belief.”

(Man, 45–49 years old, Italy)

3.5. Reporting antisemitic incidents

FRA research has consistently shown that many incidents of hate crime never come to the attention

of law enforcement agencies or of the criminal justice system.²³ Because many incidents are not reported, the official statistics on racist crime, which are typically based on police records, fail to reflect the volume and nature of racist crime in EU Member States. When people do not report cases of antisemitic crime, the authorities cannot provide the victims the support they need. The 2012 Victims’ Rights Directive,²⁴ for example, requires EU Member States to ensure an individual assessment of victims’ need for protection. It also requires that crimes committed with bias or discriminatory motivation need particular consideration when drawing up such assessments. For victims to benefit from these measures, they must contact the relevant authorities concerning their case. The authorities, in turn, will need to recognise that a given incident may have involved a bias motivation.

Promising practice

Tackling hate crime

Facing Facts! is an innovative project initiated by four non-governmental organisations (A Jewish Contribution to an Inclusive Europe, CEJI; *Centrum Informatie en Documentatie Israel* (Dutch Centre for Documentation and Information Israel, Netherlands), CIDI; Community Security Trust, CST and ILGA-Europe) to strategically address bias-motivated crime in Europe. Through building the capacities of civil society organisations, the project advocates the use of data on hate crime to design better prevention and intervention measures. The project strives to make hate crime visible in Europe by providing civil society organisations with training.

The project aims to:

- standardise criteria for comparable hate crime/incident data collection;
- train civil society organisations representing victims to gather, analyse and report data for advocacy purposes;
- hold governments accountable to existing international agreements at national/local level so that civil society and public authorities work together;
- improve cooperation between different socio-cultural groups.

For more information, see: <http://www.ceji.org/facingfacts/>

²³ FRA (2012c).

²⁴ Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA, OJ 2012 L 315, pp. 57–73.

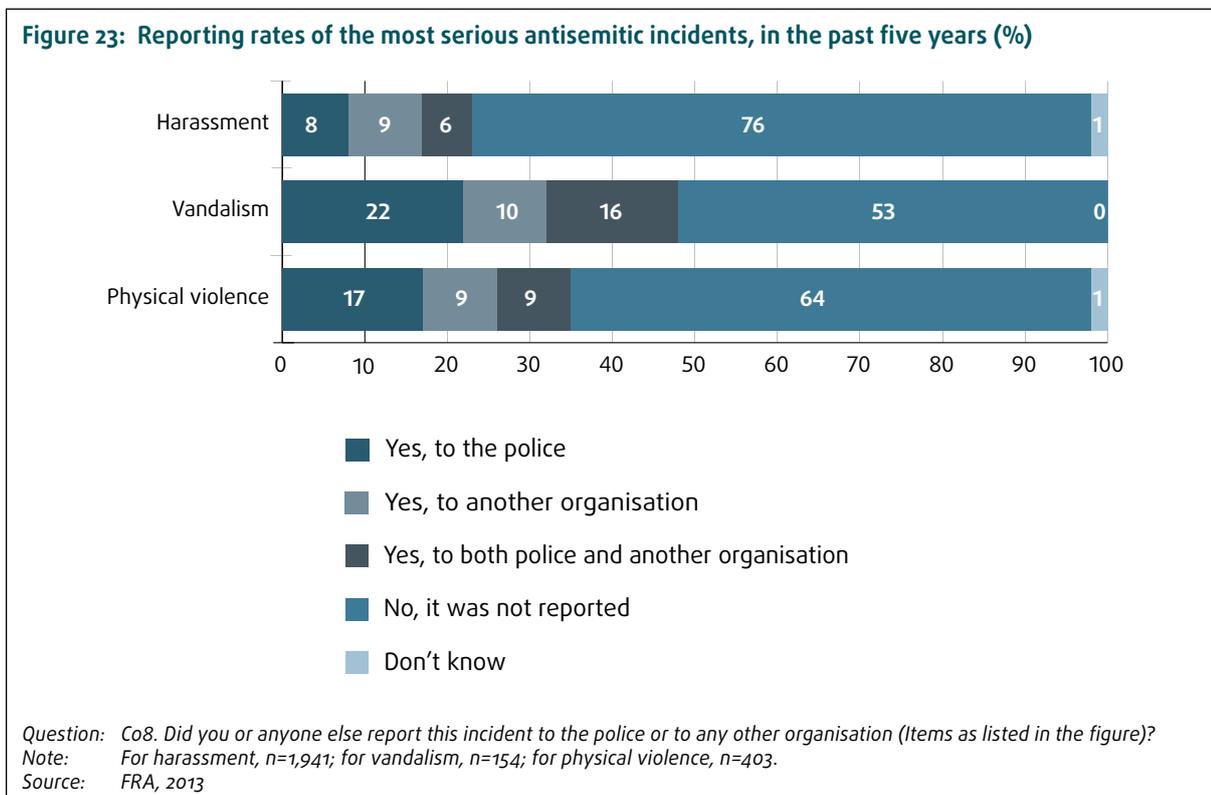
In the survey, respondents who experienced an anti-semitic incident – namely physical violence or a threat of physical violence, harassment or vandalism – were asked to indicate whether they have reported the most serious incident, that is, the one that has affected them the most personally in the five years preceding the survey, to the police or any other organisation, such as a Jewish community body that provides assistance to victims of antisemitic incidents.

The survey results show that many respondents did not report antisemitic incidents to the police or other organisations. Comparing the results for the three types of incidents covered in the survey (physical violence or threat, harassment, vandalism of property), incidents of vandalism against property were those that respondents were most likely to report. Nevertheless, only half (48 %) of the respondents who have been victims of such antisemitic vandalism in the five years preceding the survey reported it to the police or any other organisation. This confirms the pattern found in crime victimisation surveys focusing on the general population – property crime, particularly crimes involving the home or damage to valuable property such as a car are often reported due to insurance company requirements, while in-person crime, such as physical violence, remains largely unreported.²⁵ The survey results show that 64 % of victims of antisemitic physical attack or threats of violence did not report the most serious incident in the past five years,

and 76 % of victims of antisemitic harassment never reported the most serious incident to the police or any other organisation (Figure 23).

In the case of antisemitic harassment, 8 % of victims reported the most serious incident in the past five years to the police, 9 % reported it to other organisations, and a further 6 % reported the case both to the police and to another organisation. Taken together, respondents said they contacted the police and other organisations – including Jewish community organisations specialising in security and/or antisemitism – in only 23 % of harassment incidents, although the incident was the most serious one they had experienced in the past five years. For vandalism and physical violence or threat of physical violence, the proportions of those reporting the incident to the police are relatively higher and comprise 22 % (vandalism) and 17 % (physical violence or threats). Reporting to another organisation – that is, mainly Jewish community organisations – does not vary across type of antisemitic incidents, with respondents reporting 9 %–10 % of the incidents they considered most serious in the past five years.

Comparing the results between the EU Member States surveyed in terms of harassment incidents shows that in most countries around one quarter are reported to the police and/or to Jewish community organisations (percentages of the most serious incident of harassment:



25 Van Dijk, J., Van Kesteren, J. and Smit, P. (2007), p. 17.

22 %–24 % in Italy, France and Sweden; 26 %–28 % in Belgium, Germany and the United Kingdom) except in Hungary where one in 10 (9 %) incidents of antisemitic harassment were reported (Figure 24). Due to the small number of cases available for analysis, it is impossible to present a country breakdown on the reporting rates of antisemitic physical violence or threats, or vandalism of property, which were perceived as having to do with the victim being Jewish.

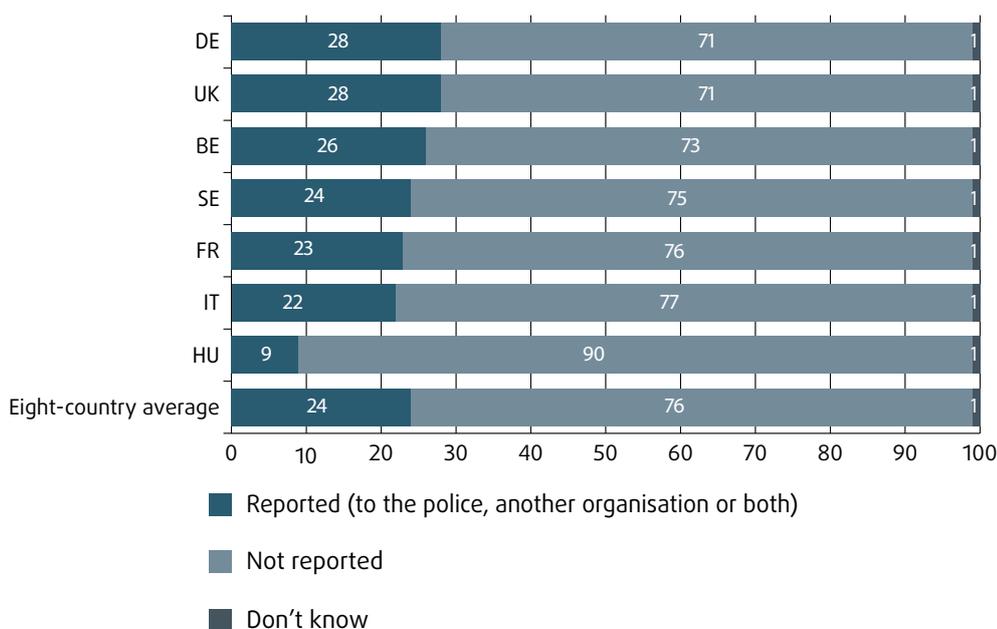
Three quarters (76 %) of respondents who have experienced antisemitic harassment in the past five years did not report the most serious incident to the police or to any other organisation. Two thirds of those who experienced physical violence or threats of violence (64 %) and a little more than half of those who experienced vandalism of personal property (53 %) did not report the most serious incident to the police or to any other organisation.

The survey asked respondents why they have not reported the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment to the police. Those who had not contacted the police were presented with a list of possible reasons for why people might not contact the police – respondents could indicate all options applicable to their case. Figure 25 shows that almost half (47 %) of the respondents

who did not report the most serious incident to the police answered that nothing would have changed had they done so. About one quarter (27 %) said that they did not report it either because this type of incident happens all the time or because they handled the situation themselves or with help from family or friends (23 %). Almost one in five (18 %) considered that reporting to the police was too bureaucratic or time consuming. The survey results do not show notable country differences regarding reasons for not reporting incidents of antisemitic harassment.

The few cases of antisemitic vandalism in the past five years (5 % of all respondents, n=264), and physical violence or threat of physical violence over the same time period (7 % of all respondents, n=403) pose an obstacle for a more detailed analysis of the incidents. However, the main reasons for not reporting these incidents to the police seem to mirror the tendencies of antisemitic harassment. Most of the respondents who did not report the most serious incident of physical violence or threats of violence to the police, for example, answered that they felt that nothing would change as a result of reporting the incident (60 %); that it happens all the time (24 %); or that the reporting process would have been too bureaucratic or time-consuming to bother (23 %). However, 20 % of respondents also mentioned that they do not trust the police.

Figure 24: Reporting of the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment, in the past five years, by EU Member State (%)



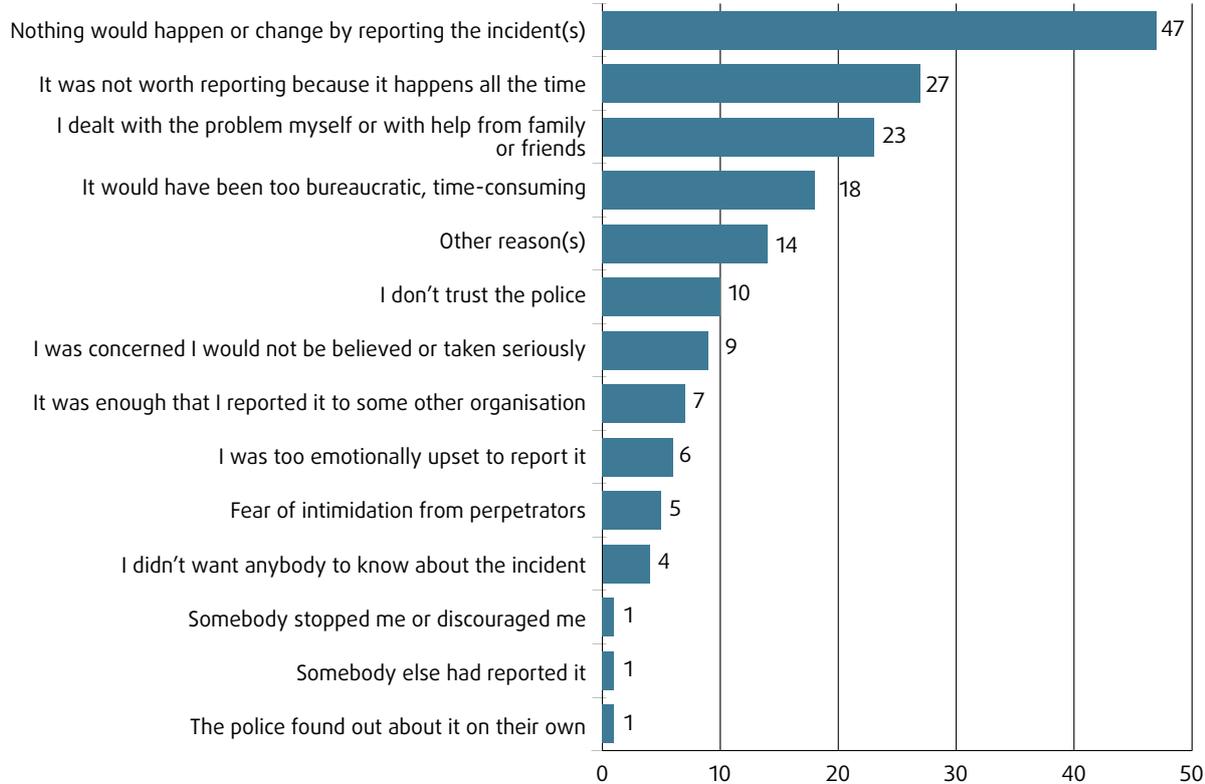
Question: Co8. Did you or anyone else report this incident to the police or to any other organisation?

Notes: n=1,941.

Latvia is excluded because only a small number of cases are available for analysis (n<30).

Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 25: Reasons for not reporting the most serious incident of antisemitic harassment to the police, in the past five years (%)



Question: C10. Why did you not report the incident to the police: (Items as listed in the figure)? Multiple responses possible.
 Note: n=1,653.
 Source: FRA, 2013

"I also reported to the police an incident in early 2011 when a driver shouted antisemitic abuse at me and several children, including my younger daughter, when we walked home from synagogue. The police took it seriously and handled it well."

(Man, 45-49 years old, United Kingdom)

"In my opinion instructions should be given to us Jews about what to do when we are insulted. I feel that many of us have only ourselves and [therefore] give up fighting. Yesterday a swastika was drawn on my postbox because of my name, and I did not have the slightest idea what to do."

(Woman, 25-29 years old, Hungary)

"My family has repeatedly suffered serious acts in the past 10 years, threats by letters containing anthrax, fire and graffiti. All the cases were closed without further action."

(Woman, 45-49 years old, France)

FRA opinion

Legislation should be adopted at the EU and national levels to ensure EU Member States collect and publish data on hate crime – including crime that is committed with an antisemitic motivation. This would serve to acknowledge victims of hate crime, in line with the duty, flowing from the case law of the European Court of Human Rights, of EU Member States to unmask bias motivations underlying criminal offences. These data would not allow for the identification of individuals but would be presented as statistics.

At a minimum, statistical data should be collected and published on the number and type of incidents pertaining to antisemitic hate crimes reported by the public and recorded by the authorities; the number of convictions of offenders; the grounds on which these offences were found to be discriminatory; and the sentences offenders received.

The EU and its Member States should agree on a harmonised approach to data collection to show how victims – among them Jewish victims of hate crime – have accessed the rights set out in the Victims' Rights Directive (Article 28). This would facilitate a comparative analysis of the implementation of the directive and the effectiveness of measures taken in various EU Member States to fulfil the requirements of the directive.

Victims of crime have a right, under Article 47 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, to have access to criminal justice. This right should exist not only in theory but also be effective in practice. In the light of the high percentage of crime victims who do not report incidents to the authorities more efforts should be made to identify means of encouraging victims and facilitating their reporting to the police.

When implementing the Victims' Rights Directive (Directive 2012/29/EU), EU Member States should pay attention to the needs of victims of antisemitic hate crime, including with individual needs assessments to identify specific protection needs (Article 22).

When crimes are committed with an antisemitic motive, EU Member States should ensure that law enforcement authorities record this motive appropriately and that it is taken into account throughout proceedings, from the initial police investigation through to sentencing by the court.

EU Member States should also address the underreporting of hate crime by, for example, providing relevant training to law enforcement authorities concerning victim support and systematic recording of incidents. 'Third-party reporting' practices, where civil society organisations report or facilitate reporting of incidents to the police, could also be considered to improve reporting rates across a number of vulnerable groups – as highlighted by a FRA opinion in the report EU LGBT survey: Results at a glance (2013).



4

Experiences of discrimination



This chapter examines respondents' experiences of discrimination on different grounds and in a variety of areas of life where discrimination may occur, such as work, public services or private services, and whether incidents of discrimination were reported to any organisation. It includes a general assessment of discrimination experienced across a range of grounds, including ethnicity or religion. The chapter goes on to look at Jewish people's perceptions of authorities and how they feel they are treated by them.

Both the Employment Equality Directive²⁶ and the Racial Equality Directive²⁷ provide protection against discrimination for Jewish people – either discrimination on the basis of religion or belief (Employment Equality Directive) or discrimination against Jews as an ethnic group (Racial Equality Directive).

4.1. Overall discrimination experiences

In the survey respondents were asked to consider their possible discrimination experiences in general, as well as with reference to particular spheres of life where discrimination could take place. The latter questions, by identifying the sector in society where discrimination occurs, such as in employment or education, provide more details and more action-oriented information on Jewish people's discrimination experiences. The general question on discrimination on any ground makes it possible to compare the survey results with those of the Eurobarometer

surveys on the majority population. This question refers to experiences which might have involved discrimination or harassment. While this report otherwise treats these two issues – experiences of discrimination and experienced harassment – separately, they are included here in one question to ensure comparability with Eurobarometer surveys, which have used this combination in their question wording based on the formulations in the Employment Equality Directive and the Racial Equality Directive.

The respondents were asked to consider their experiences of discrimination or harassment in the past 12 months, relating to various grounds such as ethnic background, gender, sexual orientation, age, religion or belief, disability or any other reason. In total, over one third of the respondents (36 %) have felt discriminated against or harassed on one or more of the grounds listed in the past 12 months. Overall, 19 % of respondents cited religion or belief as the ground of discrimination or harassment, followed by ethnicity, age (both at 13 %) and gender (9 %).

Almost one in 10 of the respondents (9 %) indicated that they feel discriminated against or harassed on the grounds of both ethnicity and religion, which is the most common combination of grounds. One quarter of the respondents (23%) indicated that they feel discriminated against or harassed either on the grounds of ethnicity or of religion.

Cases where several grounds of discrimination are mentioned can indicate that people are discriminated against on several grounds in a single incident, which is termed intersectional discrimination, or that people experience discrimination on several grounds on separate occasions, termed additive discrimination.²⁸ It is

²⁶ Council Directive 2000/78 of 27 November 2000 establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation, OJ 2000 L 303 (*Employment Equality Directive*), p. 16.

²⁷ Council Directive 2000/43 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*), p. 22.

²⁸ A more detailed description on the content and use of terms related to multiple, intersectional and additive discrimination is available in FRA (2013c).

also likely, however, that for some respondents their Jewish identity involves both Judaism as a religion and Jewishness as an ethnic background, which may lead these respondents to indicate both grounds.²⁹

In Germany, France and Belgium, more than one in five respondents (24 %, 23 %, and 21 %, respectively) said that they have personally felt discriminated against on the basis of their religion or belief in the past 12 months. In Germany and Sweden, about one in five respondents indicated that they have felt discriminated against in the past 12 months on the basis of their ethnic background (18 %, and 16 %, respectively). The cells corresponding to the top three grounds for discrimination for each EU Member State surveyed are highlighted in Table 8.

“I am Jewish by ethnicity and hearing impaired in my left ear and the grief I get just for being Jewish and disabled (not always [both] prejudices at the same time) is getting worse the longer the recession lasts. [...] I have also witnessed other Jewish people being discriminated against and heard people be antisemitic sometimes knowing I’m Jewish and sometimes not knowing. All I seem to do is defend myself and fight my corner and it’s heart-breaking.”

(Woman, 35–39 years old, United Kingdom)

According to the 2012 Special Eurobarometer on *Discrimination in the EU in 2012*,³⁰ close to one in five Europeans (17 %) reported that they have personally experienced discrimination or harassment: 13 % experienced it on the basis of one of the grounds analysed in the survey (ethnic origin, gender, sexual orientation, being over 55 years of age, being under 30 years of age, religion or beliefs, disability and gender identity), and 4 % on multiple grounds. On average, 3 % of Europeans have felt discriminated against on the ground of ethnic origin, with this figure rising to 27 % for Europeans who say that they belong to an ethnic minority group. The rate for discrimination on the ground of religion for Europeans who say they belong to a religious minority is 13 %, which again is much higher than the average level of discrimination experienced by all respondents in the Eurobarometer on this ground (2 %).

When comparing the results of the general population survey Eurobarometer with the eight EU Member States covered by this FRA survey, the national prevalence in Eurobarometer for discrimination experienced on any ground is highest in Italy and Hungary with both at 23 %. The Eurobarometer results for the other six EU Member States that are covered by this FRA survey are as follows: Belgium (19 %), Sweden and Latvia (both at 18 %), France and the United Kingdom (both at 17 %) and Germany (14 %).

Table 8: Respondents who personally felt discriminated against or harassed on different grounds in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Discrimination grounds	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Religion or belief	21	24	23	18	18	5	16	16	19
Ethnic background	14	18	15	14	6	6	16	11	13
Age	10	10	12	15	9	10	18	16	13
Gender	6	12	8	5	11	2	12	11	9
Sexual orientation	2	4	2	4	4	1	2	3	3
Disability	1	3	3	4	2	1	3	4	3
Other reasons	2	4	2	3	3	0	1	2	2

Question: F01. In the PAST 12 MONTHS have you personally felt discriminated against or harassed in [COUNTRY] on the basis of any of the following grounds: (Items as listed in the table)? Multiple responses possible.

Notes: N=5,847.

The items are listed in descending order according to the average of the eight countries.

For each country, the three most widespread grounds – as mentioned by the respondents – are highlighted in the table.

Source: FRA, 2013

²⁹ The difficulties that some respondents have in differentiating between certain discrimination grounds were also apparent in the FRA analysis of the European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey (EU-MIDIS) in terms of discrimination experiences of Muslim respondents; see: FRA (2009c).

³⁰ European Commission (2012), pp. 62–64.



4.2. Context of discrimination incidents

In addition to asking respondents about their overall experiences of discrimination, the survey went on to ask whether discrimination has taken place in specific situations in order to help the respondent consider various situations where discrimination might have occurred and to collect more detailed information on such incidents.

The survey questions asked respondents about their experiences of discrimination in the following situations:

- when looking for work;
- at the workplace, by people you work for or work with;
- when looking for a house or apartment to rent or buy, by people working in a public housing agency, or by a private landlord or agency;
- by people working in public or private health services (such as by a receptionist, a nurse or a doctor);
- by people working in a school or in training, including respondent's experiences as a student or as a parent;
- when in or trying to enter a café, restaurant, bar or (night)club;
- when in or trying to enter a shop;
- by the personnel in a bank or an insurance company; and
- when joining or using a sports club, a gym, or other social facilities.

Respondents were first asked whether they have been in one of the nine situations in the 12 months prior to the survey: for example, have they looked for a job or used a sports club. If respondents then indicated that they have felt discriminated in one or more of those nine situations, they were asked if they thought this has happened because they are Jewish.

Of the nine situations listed, respondents were most likely to say that they have felt discriminated against in employment – that is, either when they were looking for work or at the workplace. One in 10 (11 %) of those respondents who have been working during the 12-month period said that they have felt discriminated against on at least one occasion because they are Jewish. Similar proportions of those who have been looking

for a job indicated that they have felt discriminated against because they are Jewish (10 %). In addition, almost one in 10 (8 %) of those respondents who have been, or whose children have been, in education or training said that either they themselves or their children felt discriminated against because they are Jewish by the school staff or people responsible for the training. Respondents' experiences with education or training are of particular concern since the majority of those who have felt discriminated against in this area – for any reason – believed it happened precisely because they are Jewish (Figure 26).

The survey respondents said that antisemitic discrimination in the past 12 months before the survey was most likely to take place at the workplace (11 % of respondents who were working during the period had experienced this), when looking for work (10 % of respondents who have been looking for work) or on the part of people working in a school or in training (for this area respondents could indicate discrimination incidents that happened to them personally or as a parent – 8 % of respondents in school or training, or whose children were in school or training have felt discriminated against by people working in this area).

"I believe that if I did inform people I was Jewish when applying for a job it may put me at risk of being discriminated against."

(Woman, 25-29 years old, United Kingdom)

"You have not asked about institutional racism in the workplace, e.g. the difficulty of going home early on Friday; yet all social events [take place] on Fridays, etc."

(Woman, 60-69 years old, United Kingdom)

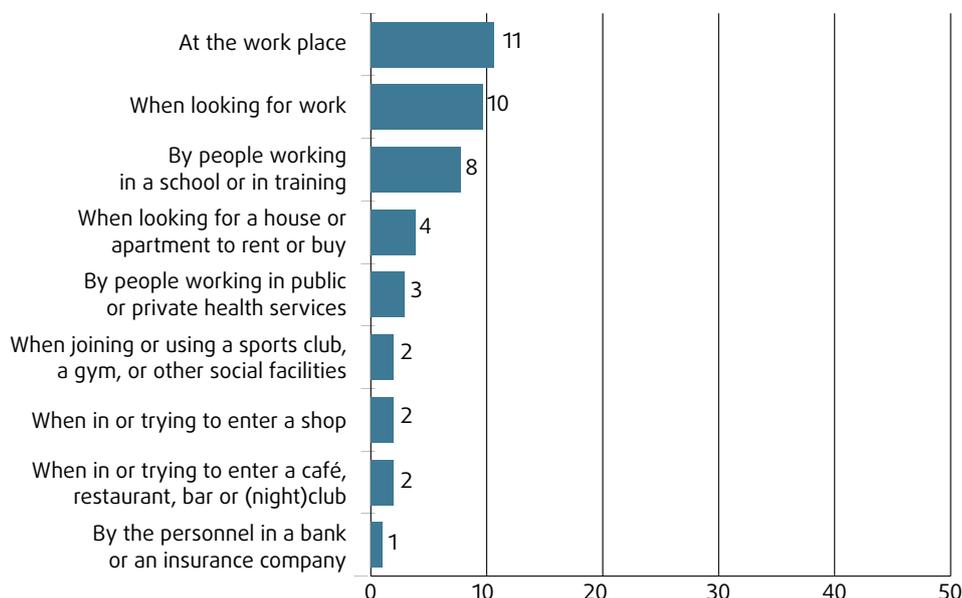
"I left my job at the university where I was teaching because of explicit antisemitism at work, both from colleagues and from students. I am still traumatised by this and incapable of looking for another job."

(Man, 55-59 years old, United Kingdom)

4.3. Expectations of equal treatment

The survey asked respondents to assess whether they would be treated equally in comparison with other people in the country when contacting selected institutions or services. In general, the majority of survey respondents expected to be treated the same – that is, neither better nor worse – as other people in the country by the police (71 %), the court system (75 %), the local doctor's surgery (88 %), or a private letting agent or landlord (69 %) (Figure 27). The survey results do not show notable country differences regarding expectations of equal treatment by selected institutions. These results suggest that most Jewish people

Figure 26: Respondents who personally felt discriminated against in different situations because they are Jewish, percentage of respondents who have been in the corresponding situation or used a particular service in the past 12 months (%)



Questions: F02. During the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you done any of the following in [A02: COUNTRY]: (Situations as listed in the figure)?
 F03. You said that during the LAST 12 MONTHS, you have personally felt discriminated against in the following situation(s). Did you feel in any of these cases that you were discriminated against BECAUSE you are Jewish (Situations as listed in the figure)?

Note: The sample size (n) differs according to the situations the respondents have been in in the last 12 months: looked for a job, n=1,253; worked/been employed, n=3,566; looked for a house or apartment to rent or buy, n=1,251; used public or private healthcare services, n=5,122; attended school, university or other training, either him/herself or one of his/her children, n=2,835; visited a café, restaurant, bar or (night) club, n=5,550; visited a shop, n=5,741; visited a bank or insurance company, n=5,523; exercised at a sports club, a gym, or other social facilities or tried to join one, n=3,113.

Source: FRA, 2013

trust that these services in general would not treat them any better or worse than other people in the country. With regard to the police or the court system, this could mean that underreporting of antisemitic incidents may not be so much due to possible mistrust in the relevant authorities, but rather to the other reasons discussed in Section 3.5. 'Reporting antisemitic incidents'.

4.4. Reporting discrimination

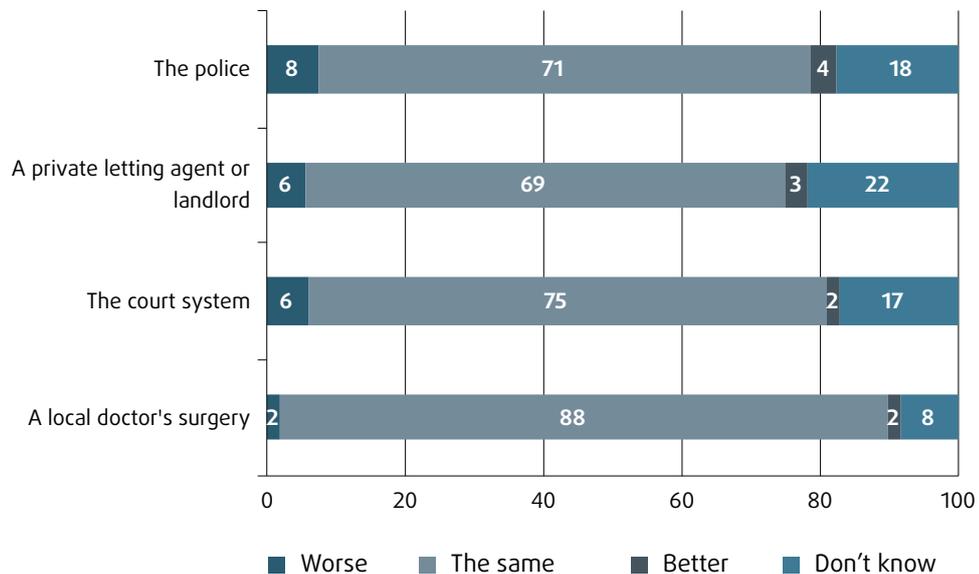
The respondents could also indicate in the survey whether they have reported the most serious incident of discrimination in the past 12 months to any authority or organisation. The survey results show that reporting levels are lower for discrimination than for other types of antisemitic incidents, such as harassment or physical violence and threats. On average, the overwhelming majority (82 %) did not report the most serious incident of discrimination to any authority or organisation. Those who did (18 %) said that they reported it to some organisation or institution, which could include the police, a national equality body or a Jewish community organisation specialised in collecting data on antisemitic incidents and assisting victims.

More than four in five (82 %) of those who said that they felt discriminated against because they are Jewish in the 12 months preceding the survey did not report the most serious incident to any authority or organisation.

Comparing the results between the EU Member States surveyed shows that for the most part differences are small in terms of the proportion of incidents that are reported to any organisation. The United Kingdom (24 %), Belgium (22 %) and France (21 %) have the highest levels of reporting of the most serious antisemitic discrimination experienced in the 12 months before the survey, while in Sweden only 4 % of these incidents are reported anywhere (Figure 28).

More detailed analysis on the place where antisemitic discrimination incidents are reported is limited by the relatively small number of such incidents in the data set; in the eight EU Member States surveyed, 149 respondents have reported to an authority or organisation the incident where they felt discriminated against because they are Jewish in the 12 months before the survey. About one third of the respondents who said that they

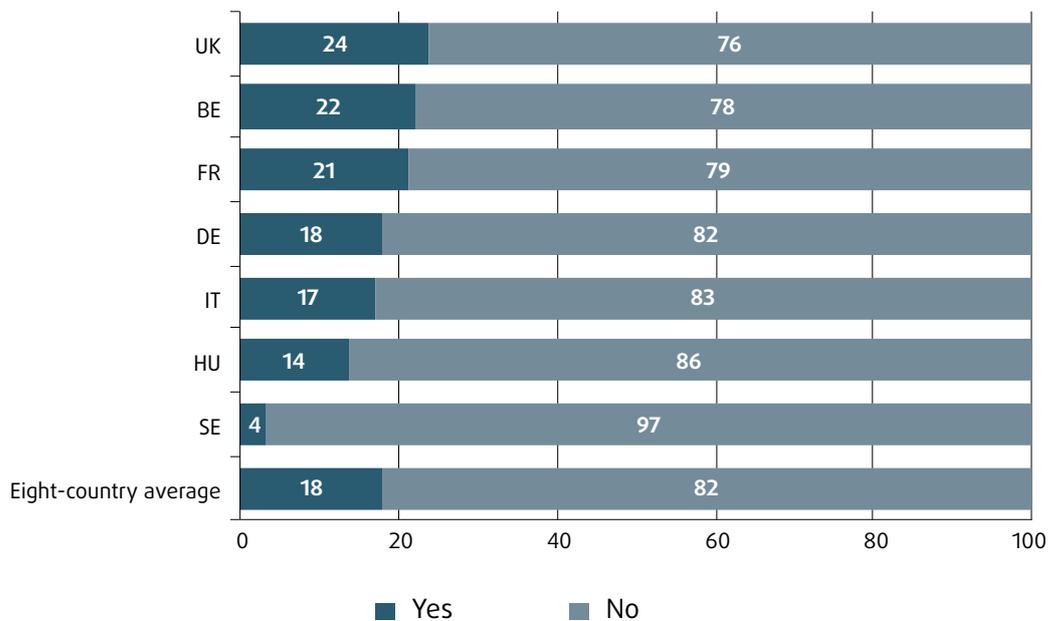
Figure 27: Respondents' expectations of the way they would be treated, by representatives of selected institutions and services (%)



Question: F09. Thinking about the following organisations in [COUNTRY], in your view, would they generally treat you worse than other people in the country, better than other people in the country, or the same as other people in the country BECAUSE you are Jewish: (Items as listed in the figure)?

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 28: Reporting of the most serious incident of antisemitic discrimination to an authority or organisation, in the past 12 months, by EU Member State (%)



Question: F04c. Some people report acts of discrimination to an organisation or an office where complaints can be made, or at the place where it happened. Others do not report such acts. Thinking about this one incident, did you or anyone else report it anywhere?

Notes: n=820, specifically: Belgium=81, France =209, Germany=112, Hungary=81, Italy=76, Sweden=86, United Kingdom=167. Latvia is excluded because there are too few cases available for analysis (<10).

Source: FRA, 2013

have reported the most serious incident of antisemitic discrimination somewhere have contacted the management at the workplace, school or university (38 %). This reflects the relatively large share of discrimination incidents taking place at work, in education or training.

About one quarter of those affected (28 %) by antisemitic discrimination in the 12 months prior to the survey contacted a Jewish community organisation specialising in security and/or antisemitism, and smaller proportions contacted other Jewish organisations (11 %) or a Jewish authority figure, such as a rabbi or a leader of a Jewish community organisation (17 %). Only 6 % of the respondents who said that they reported the most serious incident of discrimination have contacted an equality or human rights body in their countries. Respondents could indicate in the survey all the organisations they have contacted following the incident of discrimination. Only very few respondents, however, said that they have reported the discrimination incident to more than one organisation or institution.

These survey results suggest that there is little overlap in the work of the different bodies and organisations when assisting Jewish people who have been discriminated against. This information must be seen against a backdrop in which four respondents in five (82%) did not report to anyone the most serious incident of antisemitic discrimination experienced in the past 12 months. The results make clear that all such organisation share responsibility for informing Jewish people who have been discriminated against about their rights, procedures for taking the case forward and options for receiving assistance in the process. To best serve persons who consider themselves discriminated against, effective cooperation and information exchange between the organisations concerned is necessary. The results also show that people report incidents of discrimination to a number of different organisations, which means that without effective cooperation and also possible harmonisation of data collection methods, administrative statistics on reported discrimination incidents remain fragmented. They therefore cannot provide a good overview of the situation at national level.

Respondents who felt discriminated against in the 12 months before the survey but have not reported it anywhere were asked to specify why they did not do so. The most frequently chosen reasons are, to a large extent, the same reasons given earlier in the survey for incidents of harassment and physical violence. These include concern that nothing would change as a result of reporting (57 %) or that what happened is too commonplace in the lives of the respondents to merit reporting (32 %). Some respondents also felt they could deal with the situation themselves (24 %) or that they expected the reporting process to be too bureaucratic or time-consuming to bother (24 %).

A majority of respondents (57 %) who felt discriminated against in the past 12 months and who have not reported the most serious incident anywhere said that they were not confident that reporting the incident would improve their situation. One third of respondents (32 %) who have felt discriminated against and did not report the most serious incident said that they did not report it because this type of discriminatory incident happens to them all the time.

FRA opinion

The EU should monitor the effectiveness of national equality bodies and other mechanisms in their efforts to inform Jewish people about protection from discrimination under their respective mandates and in line with the provisions of the Racial Equality Directive (Directive 2000/43/EC).

EU Member States should facilitate cooperation between the equality bodies and Jewish community organisations to ensure that Jewish people who face discrimination are informed about their rights and available redress mechanisms.

EU Member States are encouraged to support trade unions and employers' organisations in their efforts to adopt diversity and non-discrimination policies. These policies should include measures which would contribute to better accommodation of Jewish people's needs in the workplace – for example, where possible, through flexible holiday arrangements.



5

Rights awareness



Legislators' best efforts cannot achieve their intended effect if the people concerned are not aware of the protection afforded to them by law, or how to find assistance and information for making their cases heard. This section examines the extent to which respondents in each of the eight EU Member States are aware of legislation protecting them from discrimination, organisations able to help them after relevant incidents, and the existence of legislation concerning trivialisation or denial of the Holocaust.

The EU's key legal instruments to combat discrimination, namely the Employment Equality Directive³¹ and the Racial Equality Directive,³² implement the principle of equal treatment between persons – the first across a range of equality grounds, including religion, and the second on racial and ethnic origin. The Racial Equality Directive provides that there shall be no direct or indirect discrimination or harassment based on grounds of racial or ethnic origin when it comes to employment, the provision of goods and services, education and social protection. The two directives also require EU Member States to ensure that the provisions of the legislation are communicated to those concerned through all appropriate means and throughout the territory of each EU Member State.

31 Council Directive 2000/78 of 27 November 2000 establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation, OJ 2000 L 303, p. 16 (*Employment Equality Directive*).

32 Council Directive 2000/43 of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin, OJ 2000 L 180, p. 22 (*Racial Equality Directive*).

FRA ACTIVITY

Accessing justice

Lack of awareness of rights and of support services available to people who have been discriminated against can form an obstacle to accessing justice. A more detailed treatment of the various aspects of access to justice, as well as factors obstructing effective remedies such as the complexity of the complaints system, are examined in the FRA reports on access to justice.

For more information, see: Access to justice in Europe: an overview of challenges and opportunities (2011), available at: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publication/2011/access-justice-europe-overview-challenges-and-opportunities> and Access to justice in cases of discrimination in the EU – Steps to further equality (2012), available at: <http://fra.europa.eu/en/publication/2012/access-justice-cases-discrimination-eu-steps-further-equality>

5.1. Awareness of protection measures against discrimination

The survey asked respondents about their awareness of laws that forbid discrimination against Jewish people in the following situations:

- when applying for a job;
- when entering a shop, restaurant, bar or (night) club;
- when using healthcare services;
- when renting or buying a flat or a house.

Respondents were most aware of the existence of anti-discrimination legislation in the field of employment and

healthcare services, as more than half of the respondents confirmed being aware of the existence of relevant laws (57 % and 52 %, respectively). In the case of other services such as shopping or housing, 47 %-49 % of respondents in the eight EU Member States are aware of relevant legislation. Considering these results from the opposite perspective, depending on the area, about half of the respondents (43 %-53 %) are not aware of legislation which protects Jewish people against discrimination.

In Section 4.2. on the context of discrimination incidents, respondents highlight the field of employment as an area where discrimination is most likely to occur, either for those who are employed or for those who are looking for work. Awareness of legislation prohibiting the discrimination of Jewish people when applying for a job is highest among respondents from the United Kingdom (73 %), Sweden (64 %), France (58 %) and Belgium (53 %) (Figure 29). By contrast, only 12 % of respondents in Latvia said that they are aware of laws protecting Jewish people from discrimination when applying for a job.

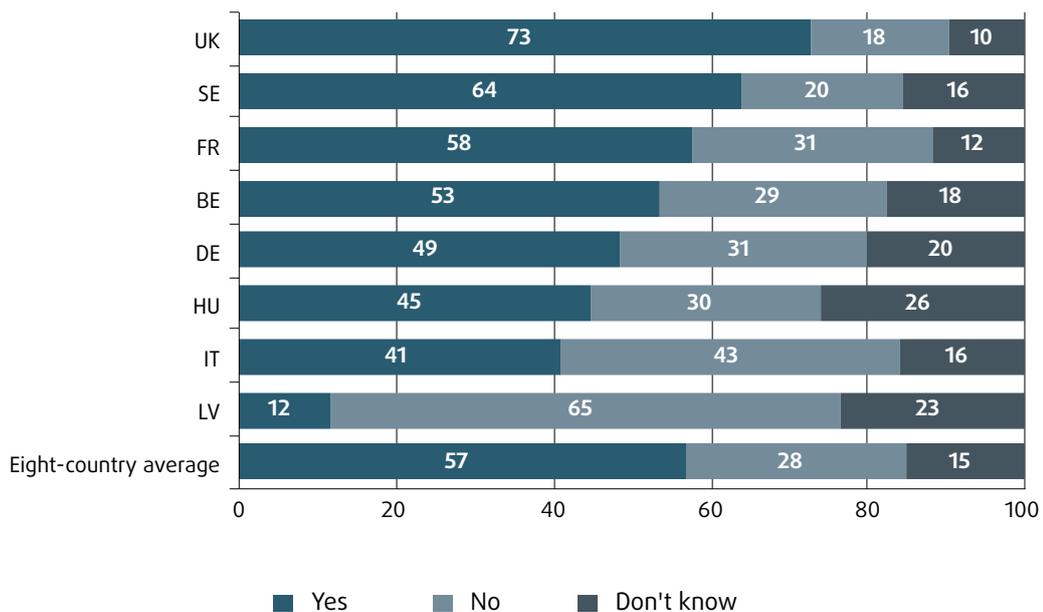
The pattern for the results from the eight EU Member States is similar for awareness of anti-discrimination legislation in other areas such as entering a shop, restaurant, bar or club, using healthcare services and renting a flat or a house. Respondents' awareness

of the existence of anti-discrimination legislation in these areas, however, is somewhat lower than for employment.

When asked about their knowledge of organisations that support victims of discrimination, two thirds of respondents (67 %) said they are aware of an organisation in the country that could help them if they are discriminated against. Respondents from France (86 %), Belgium (75 %), Sweden (74 %) and the United Kingdom (72 %) are the most aware of such organisations. Respondents who said that they are aware of such an organisation were asked to identify in more detail what type of organisation they meant; respondents could indicate one or more organisations which to their knowledge could provide assistance for people who are discriminated against. Two particular types of organisations stand out in this regard – Jewish community organisations specialising in the security of the Jewish community and/or antisemitism and the national equality or human rights bodies.

About half of the respondents, some 43 %-53 %, depending on the field, are not aware of the legislation that protects Jewish people from discrimination. Respondents are most aware of anti-discrimination legislation in employment and least aware of protection related to entering a shop, restaurant, bar or a night club.

Figure 29: Awareness of a law that forbids discrimination against Jewish people when applying for a job, by EU Member State (%)



Question: E01. From what you know or have heard, is there a law in [COUNTRY] that forbids discrimination against Jewish people in the following situations? Answer: E01a. When applying for a job?

Note: N=5,847.

Source: FRA, 2013

Of the respondents who said they know an organisation that could help people who have been discriminated against, 66 % indicated that by this they meant a Jewish community organisation, which concentrates on issues of security. In France and the United Kingdom, respectively, 83 % and 76 % of respondents identified such an organisation; these levels probably reflect the existence of civil society organisations which monitor antisemitic incidents in those countries, such as the Jewish Community Security Service (*Service de Protection de la Communauté Juive*) in France and the Community Security Trust in the United Kingdom. National equality or human rights bodies were mentioned by 61 % of those who know of the existence of an authority or a support organisation, with higher proportions in Sweden (89 %) and Hungary (78 %). Furthermore, 40 % of the respondents mentioned that, if discriminated against, they could turn to a Jewish authority figure, such as a rabbi, or another leader in a Jewish organisation, and 24 % mentioned Jewish organisations other than those specialised in security questions. One third of the respondents (34 %) who said they know an organisation that can help people who have been discriminated against mentioned a victim support organisation.

Two thirds of the respondents (67 %) said they are aware of an organisation in the country that offers advice or support for people who have been discriminated against. Respondents most often referred to Jewish organisations specialising in the safety and security of the Jewish community and/or antisemitism, and national equality or human rights bodies.

5.2. Holocaust denial and trivialisation

According to the EU's Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia,³³ EU Member States must ensure that incitement to hatred based on race, religion or ethnic origin, and denying or trivialising the Holocaust is punishable by criminal law. Member States should have taken the necessary measures to comply with the provisions of the Framework Decision by 28 November 2010. Article 10 of the Framework Decision stipulates that, based on information provided by the Member States and a report by the European Commission, the Council of the European Union shall assess the extent to which Member States have complied with the provisions of the Framework Decision by 28 November 2013.

³³ 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, pp. 55–58.

FRA ACTIVITY

Holocaust and human rights education

Between 2006 and 2012, FRA carried out a project on the Holocaust and human rights education focusing on the contribution of memorial sites and museums. Together with relevant museums and memorials, FRA developed practical tools for educators to teach about the Holocaust and human rights:

Toolkit on the Holocaust and Human Rights Education (2011) (in cooperation with Yad Vashem);

Human rights education at Holocaust memorial sites across the European Union: An overview of practices (October 2011);

Excursion to the past – teaching for the future: Handbook for teachers (November 2010);

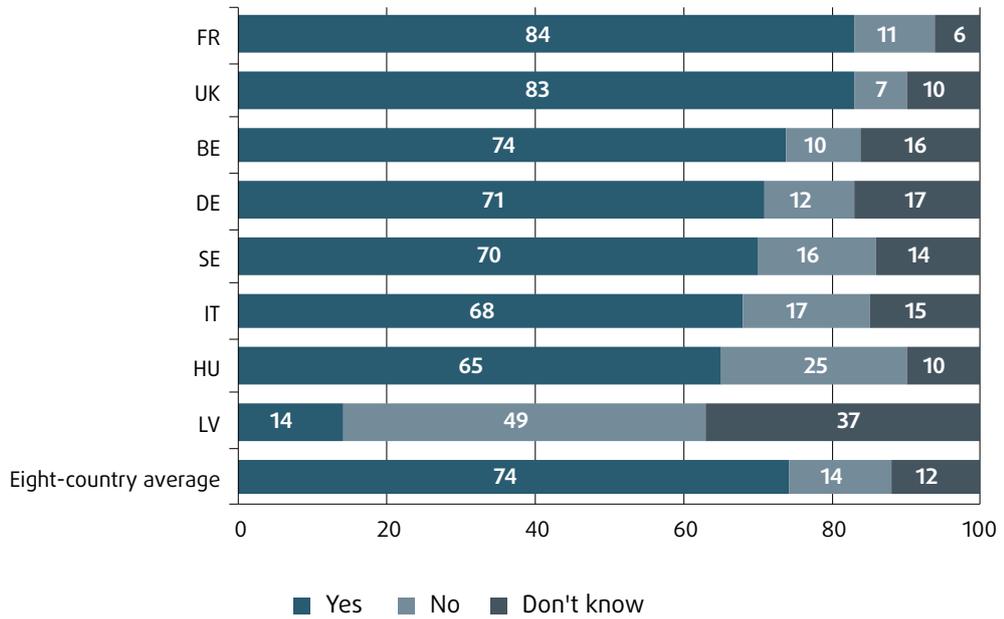
Discover the past for the future – The role of historical sites and museums in Holocaust education and human rights education in the EU (January 2010).

All these publications are available on the FRA website: <http://fra.europa.eu>

The survey measured respondents' awareness of legal safeguards against incitement to hatred as well as Holocaust denial and trivialisation. In seven of the eight EU Member States included in the survey, most respondents are aware of the existence of laws against incitement to violence or hatred against Jews (Figure 30). In countries other than Latvia, two thirds or more of respondents – from 65 % in Hungary to 84 % in France – said that such a law exists.

Survey results show considerable country-specific variation in awareness of laws against denying or trivialising the Holocaust. Respondents in Latvia are the most convinced that such a law does not exist in the country; 42 % answered 'don't know', which could also mean that they are unsure of whether or not such a law exists. In Sweden 27 % of respondents, in the United Kingdom 32 % and in Italy 41 % considered that their countries legislate against denying or trivialising the Holocaust. In some cases, however, they may be wrong, as the state of implementation of the Framework Decision on Racism and Xenophobia differs by EU Member State. Respondents in the other four countries surveyed are more convinced that there is a law against denying or trivialising the Holocaust, with 67 %–85 % saying that the country has a law prohibiting such actions (Figure 31).

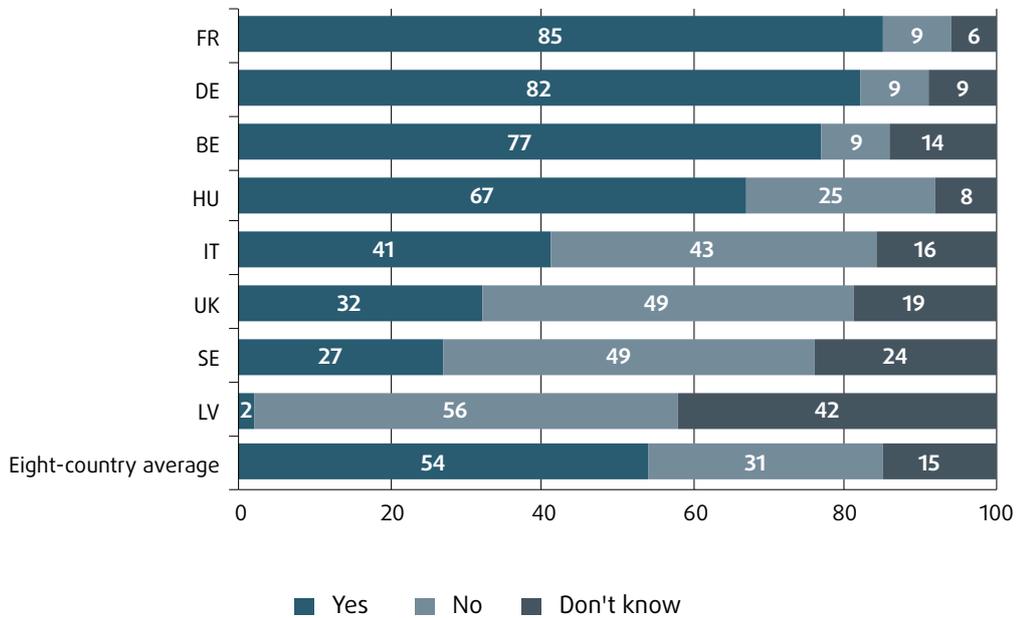
Figure 30: Awareness of a law in the country that forbids incitement to violence or hatred against Jews, by EU Member State (%)



Question: Eo4. From what you know or have heard, is there a law in [COUNTRY] against [Eo4b] Incitement to violence or hatred against Jews?

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013

Figure 31: Awareness of a law that forbids denial or trivialisation of the Holocaust, by EU Member State (%)



Question: Eo4. From what you know or have heard, is there a law in [COUNTRY] against [Eo4a] Denying or trivialising the Holocaust?

Note: N=5,847.
Source: FRA, 2013



5.3. Protection of traditional religious practices

The questionnaire included two specific questions dealing with traditional religious practices, namely circumcision (*brit mila*) and traditional slaughter (*shechita*), which have been the subject of political debates in several EU Member States.³⁴

The FRA survey focused on exploring the impact of these discussions on Jewish people in the eight EU Member States covered. The survey asked the respondents about the extent to which they have heard it suggested that circumcision (*brit mila*) or traditional slaughter (*shechita*) should be banned, and whether it would constitute a problem for them as Jews. Respondents from the eight EU Member States surveyed differ in their awareness of such discussions. Germany and Sweden show the highest proportions of respondents who said that they have heard non-Jewish persons suggesting that circumcision or traditional slaughter should not take place in the country, with over 80 % of respondents saying they are aware of such discussions. In Sweden and Germany, 60 % and 49 % of respondents, respectively, have heard about suggested bans on both *brit mila* and *shechita* and an additional 21 % and 29 %, respectively, about a ban on circumcision only. The lowest proportions are observed in Latvia and Hungary, where 22 % and 21 % of respondents, respectively, said that they are aware of debates on banning *brit mila* or *shechita* or both. In the remaining countries – Belgium, France and Italy – 50 %–60 % of the respondents have heard of such proposals (Table 9).

Over three quarters of respondents in France (88 %), Belgium (87 %), Italy (85 %) and the United Kingdom (80 %) and over two thirds in Germany (71 %) and Sweden (68 %) indicated that a prohibition against circumcision would be a very big or fairly big problem for them. About two thirds of respondents in France (70 %), Italy (70 %) and the United Kingdom (66 %) and half of the respondents in Belgium (59 %) and Germany (50 %) held the same position regarding prohibitions on traditional slaughter. In Sweden, 38 % of respondents said that a ban on traditional slaughter would be a problem for them as Jews, with 27 % in Latvia sharing this view (Figure 32). A partial explanation for the results concerning Sweden may be that, unlike the other countries included in the survey, Sweden has banned traditional slaughter since 1937, although Jewish people there have been able to import traditionally slaughtered meat.

Concerns regarding the prohibition of circumcision and traditional slaughter tend to be expressed more often by respondents who rank high on the scale of religiosity and the strength of Jewish identity, the survey results showed. The respondents were asked to position themselves on a scale ranging from 1 to 10, where 1 means not religious at all and 10 means very religious. Among those respondents whose self-assessed religiosity is relatively low (values 1-3 on the 10-point scale), for example, the share of Jews who say that prohibition of circumcision and traditional slaughter would be problematic for them comprises 60 % and 37 %, respectively. However, the share of respondents for whom banning of *brit mila* and/or *shechita* would be a problem reaches 92 % and 85 %, respectively, among those who define their degree of religiosity as high (values 8-10).

Table 9: Respondents' awareness of non-Jewish people suggesting that circumcision and/or traditional slaughter be prohibited in the country where they live, by EU Member State (%)

EU Member State Debate awareness	BE	DE	FR	HU	IT	LV	SE	UK	Eight-country average
Yes, about circumcision (<i>brit mila</i>)	8	29	6	10	15	1	21	10	13
Yes, about traditional slaughter (<i>shechita</i>)	12	2	19	3	9	18	4	11	10
Yes, about both circumcision (<i>brit mila</i>) AND traditional slaughter (<i>shechita</i>)	30	49	34	8	28	3	60	40	36
No, I have not heard or seen any such suggestions	49	20	42	79	48	78	16	40	41

Question: F.10. In the LAST 12 MONTHS, have you personally heard or seen non-Jewish people suggest that circumcision and traditional slaughter (*shechita*) should NOT be allowed to take place in [COUNTRY]? (Items as listed in the table).

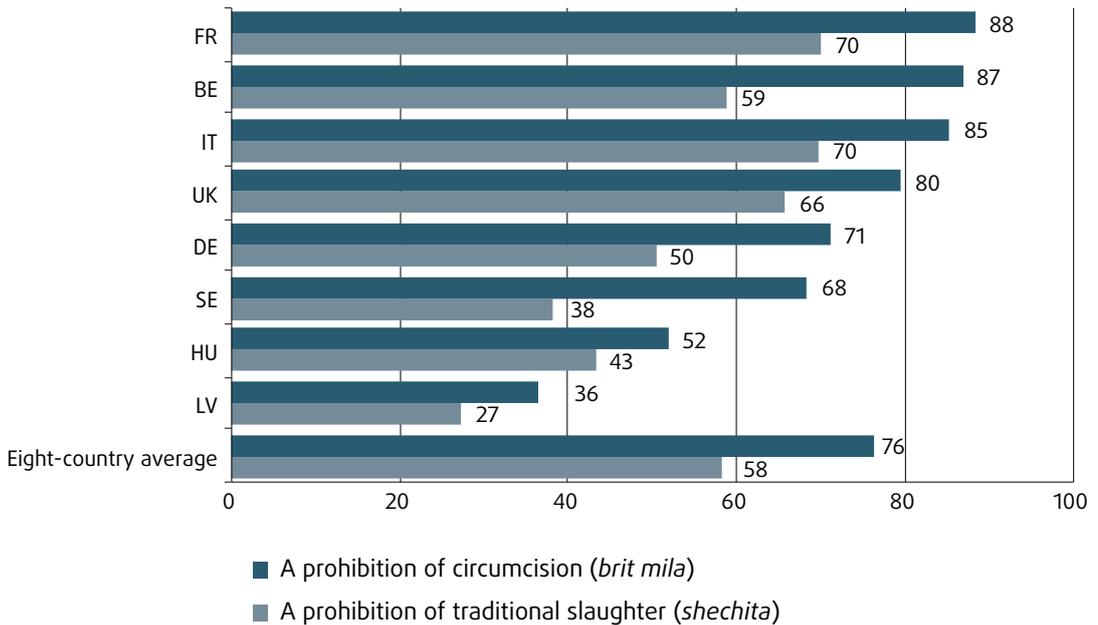
Notes: N=5,847.

The items are listed in the order in which they appeared in the survey questionnaire.

Source: FRA, 2013

³⁴ See FRA (2013a), *Fundamental rights: challenges and achievements in 2012*, Annual report, p. 144.

Figure 32: Respondents who consider that the prohibition of circumcision or traditional slaughter would be a problem for them as Jews, by EU Member State (%)



Question: F11. How big a problem, if at all, would the following be for you as a Jew [1. A prohibition of circumcision (brit mila); 2. A prohibition of traditional slaughter (shechita)]?

Notes: N=5,847.

Answers include both 'a very big problem' and 'a fairly big problem'.

Source: FRA, 2013

Similar tendencies are observed when analysing the survey results for those who define their Jewish identity as relatively weak (values 1-3), with the share of Jews saying that prohibition of circumcision and traditional slaughter would be problematic for them comprising 31 % and 17 %, respectively.

"Controversial issues such as Brit Mila, religious slaughter, etc. need to be dealt with openly; we have no reason to hide!"

(Woman, 50-54 years old, Germany)

"I will wait for the developments concerning a statutory regulation on the Brit Mila. This will be crucial for my decision on whether or not to leave Germany."

(Man, 55-59 years old, Germany)

"It's almost impossible to stay kosher in Sweden but I avoid some foods, especially all pork. There are situations that come up almost on a daily basis on this, where I have to explain that I do not want to eat this, that it's not because of allergies, etc. I experience this as discrimination."

(Woman, 50-54 years old, Sweden)

FRA opinion

Both the EU and its Member States, including local authorities, should set up or enhance concrete awareness-raising activities to support Jewish people to access, in an efficient and accessible manner, structures and procedures to report hate crime and discrimination.

They should also ensure that Jewish people are involved in decision making and that their views are heard and taken into account when issues of relevance to them are discussed.

EU Member States should examine how education about the Holocaust is integrated into human rights education and history curricula. They should also assess the effectiveness of teaching about the Holocaust by reviewing the various competences including social, civic and cultural ones. Furthermore, EU Member States should examine how the European framework for key competences for lifelong learning (2006/962/EC) has been implemented both in schools and in teachers' education and training.

Conclusions

The survey results show the extent and nature of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism as perceived and experienced by Jewish people in eight EU Member States – Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The results present a detailed overview of the various forms that these incidents can take in the daily lives of Jewish people living in the EU, as well as analysing who is most affected by such incidents. Besides the detailed results for each of the eight countries, the survey exposes some patterns which reflect the situation more generally, and which may also merit attention in EU Member States that were not covered by the survey.

In almost all EU Member States included in the survey, antisemitic comments on the internet emerge as an issue of primary importance to the respondents. These results need to be taken very seriously. They prompt further questions on how to effectively protect fundamental rights in the sphere of the internet while giving due attention to freedom of expression. Antisemitic comments on the internet could be one of the many diverse factors that contribute to Jewish people's feelings of worry of becoming victims of hate crime. Close to half of all survey respondents (46 %) indicated that they worry about being verbally insulted or harassed in a public place in the next 12 months, and one third (33 %) fear physical attack in the same period. While the experience of becoming a victim of crime can have a devastating effect on the individuals concerned and on persons close to them, the magnitude of worry – or fear of crime – among the respondents suggests that it merits further consideration, as well as the development of measures that specifically address Jewish people's concerns.

While incidents of antisemitic violence and vandalism of property belonging to Jewish individuals, as well as

the property of the Jewish communities, deservedly receive attention in the media and in political debates, the results also point out the discrimination Jewish people continue to face, particularly in employment and education. This should serve as a reminder of the need to address discrimination against Jews – both by ensuring effective implementation of existing laws, as well as ensuring that Jewish people are aware of the relevant protection, redress and support mechanisms and measures designed to assist people who have been discriminated against, such as national equality bodies.

The survey results indicate that victims of antisemitic incidents are likely to turn to Jewish community organisations, which are specialised in security issues in those EU Member States where such specialised organisations exist. These organisations have the potential to encourage reporting to the police, thereby assisting victims to find access to justice and to benefit from measures that are in place – or are being introduced – to support them, for example, with the implementation of the Victims' Directive (2012/29/EU). A question that remains is whether such Jewish community organisations could also perform some or all of the essential functions of victim support services, as stipulated in Article 9 of the Victims' Directive. This would require further research on the ability of such organisations to provide, for example, advice in legal matters or in questions relating to financial aspects of victim support, or to accompany victims at court proceedings. EU Member States' obligation under Article 8 of the Victims' Directive to ensure that victims, in accordance with their specific needs, should have access to specialist support services envisages organisations that are in a position to fulfil all the relevant functions of victim support. To meet the standards of due diligence, Member States could offer specialist organisations support in building any required but not yet attained capacities and skills.

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Annex 1: Survey methodology

Background

The FRA survey on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism collected data online from self-identified Jewish respondents (aged 16 years or over) in nine EU Member States – Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Romania, Sweden and the United Kingdom – in September–October 2012. The nine EU countries covered correspond to over 90 % of the estimated Jewish population in the EU.³⁵ The online questionnaire was available in 11 languages: Dutch, English, French, German, Hebrew, Hungarian, Italian, Latvian, Romanian, Russian and Swedish. This report presents the results from 5,847 self-identified Jewish respondents from eight of these EU Member States, with the results from Romania presented separately in Annex 2, due to the small number of responses from Romania.

The survey data collection was managed by Ipsos MORI – a survey research company – and the Institute for Jewish Policy Research (JPR), based on the data collection methodology developed with FRA. The JPR academic team, managed by Jonathan Boyd, included several of the leading social scientists in contemporary European Jewry such as Eliezer Ben-Rafael (Tel Aviv University), Erik Cohen (Bar-Ilan University), Sergio DellaPergola (Hebrew University), Lars Dencik (Roskilde University), Olaf Glöckner (Moses Mendelssohn Zentrum), András Kovács (Central European University), and Laura Staetsky (Institute for Jewish Policy Research). Further expertise was provided by David Feldman (Pears Institute for the Study of Antisemitism at Birkbeck College) and Michael Whine and Mark Gardner (Community Security Trust).

The academic team contributed to the background research which identified ways to make Jewish people in the selected countries aware of the survey and collected information on the size and composition of the Jewish population in each country. The members of the academic team also provided advice concerning the terminology used in the survey, taking into consideration the sensitive nature of many questions and issues covered, and provided feedback to the FRA, as the latter finalised the online survey questionnaire.

In addition to considering FRA's earlier survey work and other surveys that have been carried out in various EU Member States on the situation of Jewish people, FRA organised a series of consultations to further elaborate the objectives of the survey and the issues to be covered in the questionnaire. The meetings organised in

³⁵ DellaPergola, S. (2010).

Piloting respondent-driven sampling

While this report presents the results of the open web survey on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of antisemitism, FRA's survey project also tested the use of respondent-driven sampling (RDS) in the context of an online survey. RDS is seen as a promising method* when collecting data on rare or difficult-to-reach populations, for which reliable sampling frames (such as population registers or other address lists) are not available.

In RDS a small number of individuals are chosen to identify other eligible respondents, who in turn are asked to refer other people to take part in the survey. The statistical theory behind RDS indicates that if this process is carried out according to set rules, it is possible to weight the resulting data set so that the final results can be considered representative of the target population – that is, allowing one to draw conclusions concerning the characteristics of the population at large. In principle this could be used for example to improve the representativeness of online surveys.

In the case of the FRA pilot, the RDS did not deliver the desired results: the initial respondents for the RDS survey provided referral chains that were too short, with respondents reluctant to provide further referrals, despite reminders to complete the survey and refer others to it, extension of the fieldwork period, and efforts to invite additional respondents to kick off the RDS referral process.

In total, the RDS stage – carried out in June–July 2012 – was only able to collect data from 337 respondents. As a result, this report focuses only on responses to the open online survey.

* See, for example: Johnston, L. G., Sabin, K. (2010), 'Sampling hard-to-reach populations with respondent driven sampling', *Methodological Innovations Online*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 38–48

March 2011, April 2011 and April 2012 involved experts on Jewish community surveys, representatives of national and international Jewish community organisations and international organisations.

Why an online survey?

When developing the survey, the FRA considered various sampling approaches which had been used in past surveys in some EU Member States, as well as in surveys outside the EU, for example in the United States. These include sampling based on typically Jewish last names, or geographically limited samples in the proximity of Jewish sites such as synagogues. These approaches, however, have drawbacks. Name-based sampling, for example, would risk excluding respondents who are Jewish, but who have taken a non-Jewish sounding last name as a result of marriage. Sampling based on people's last names may work better in some countries than in others, depending on the particular

history of Jewish people there. Sampling around Jewish sites would give a voice only to those relatively few Jewish people who live in these areas.

Furthermore, few surveys to date have focused specifically on sampling Jewish respondents. As a result, and also due to the history of Jewish communities in Europe, many people were likely to be hesitant if contacted to take part in a survey specifically because they were Jewish. These and other considerations led the survey experts that FRA consulted to recommend the use of online data collection, which became the method chosen by the FRA.

Online surveying was selected as it allowed for the respondents to complete the survey at their own pace. Online surveying also made it possible to provide access to information about the FRA and the organisations managing the data collection, and how the collected data would be used. Although this methodology is unable to deliver a random probability sample fulfilling the statistical criteria for representativeness, it had the potential to allow all interested self-identified Jewish people in the survey countries to take part and share their experiences and could cover all the selected countries in an equivalent manner.

The survey results presented in this report are based on the data derived from the online survey. The survey was open for four weeks in September–October 2012. The survey was designed to be accessible to all eligible participants, i.e. those self-defining as Jews, aged 16 years or over and resident in one of the survey countries. The questionnaire was administered online and could be accessed via a web link that was publicised on the FRA website, via Jewish organisations (both international and national) and Jewish media outlets.

Although the online survey in general was successful, the chosen survey mode is likely to have excluded some eligible members of the target population, such as those with problems accessing the internet or lacking the skills to complete a survey online, a problem observed among the elderly populations of Russian-speaking Jews in Germany, and particularly among the elderly in Romania and Latvia. This might have had an impact on the country samples. On the other hand, as will be shown in more detail later in this Annex, the characteristics of the respondents tend not to support the argument that elderly people are underrepresented in the sample.

Description of respondents

The open online survey approach adopted by FRA depended on individuals' willingness to participate in the survey. As a result, and in view of the interpretation

of the results, it is particularly important to consider the composition of the sample and the profile of the respondents that it represents.

Sample sizes

The largest samples, as expected, were obtained from the two countries with the largest estimated Jewish communities: France and the United Kingdom. Latvia and Romania, which have the smallest estimated Jewish populations out of the EU Member States included in the survey, provided the smallest samples. For the remaining five countries the sample sizes ranged from 400 to 800 respondents.

In Romania, 67 respondents completed the questionnaire. Because the sample was small, the results concerning Romania were not presented alongside the other eight countries in this report. Instead, a summary overview of results for Romania is available in Annex 2.

Also, a relatively small sample in Latvia ($n=154$) limits the extent to which conclusions can be drawn based on the country results. Caution is also advised when comparing it with results obtained in other countries surveyed. The numbers of respondents in each country correspond roughly to differences in the sizes of the Jewish population among the EU Member States surveyed, according to the estimates of the members of the JPR academic team.

Main socio-demographic characteristics

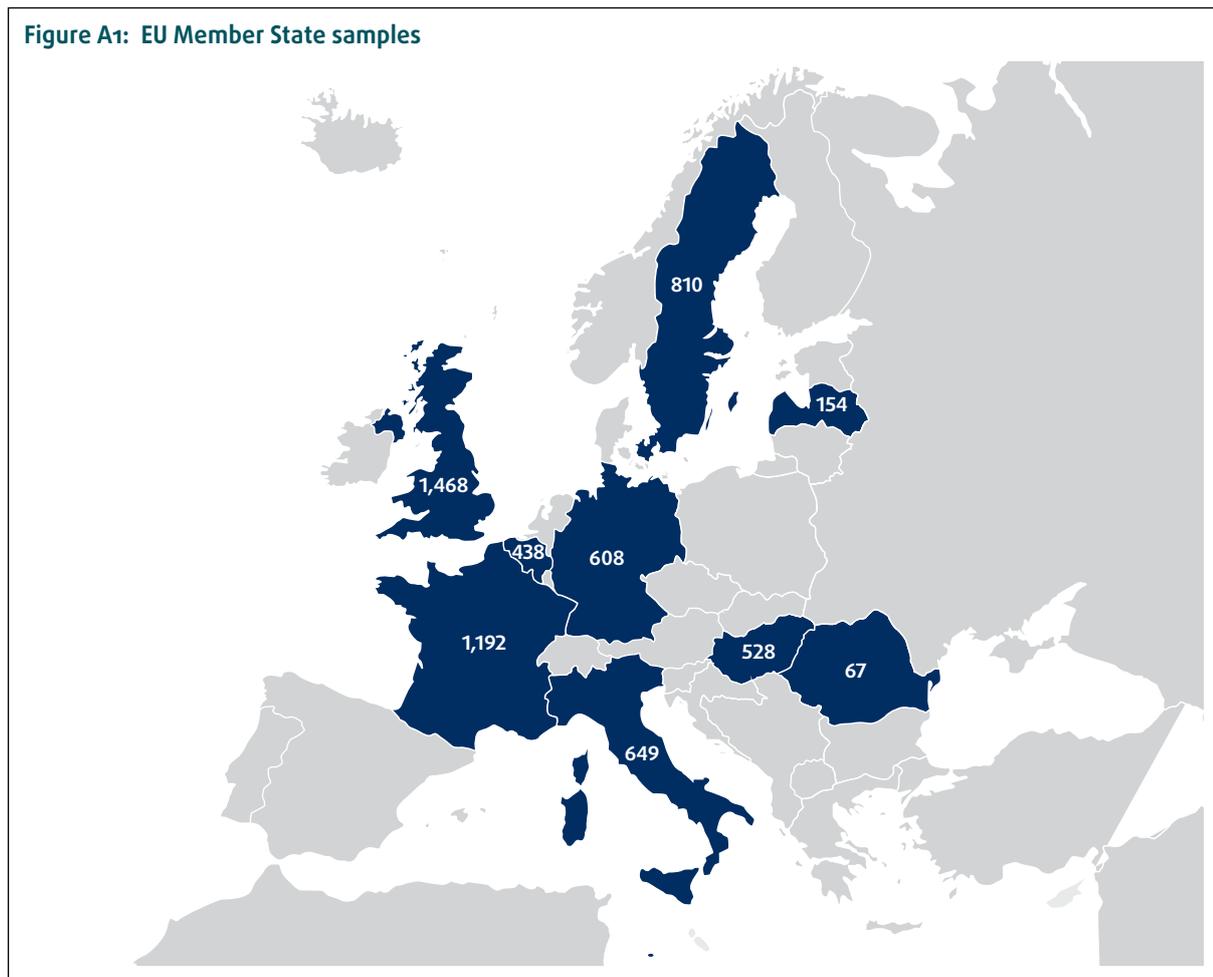
The survey respondents can be characterised based on the information that was collected from the respondents as a part of the survey – an overview of these characteristics is presented in Table 8.2. This information is important, both because it provides information about the composition of the sample and because respondents' socio-demographic characteristics are likely to affect their experiences in everyday life, including regarding situations where people might face discrimination or hate-motivated crime. Respondent background information allows us to contextualise responses to other questions in the survey, and to examine whether certain sub-populations of Jews (e.g. based on age, gender or area where they live) are at a higher or lower risk of experiencing antisemitic incidents.

Somewhat more men (57 %) than women (43 %) took part in the survey.³⁶ Contrary to many online surveys, which often have an overrepresentation of young respondents, 68 % of the respondents in the FRA survey are 45 years old or older (40 % are over

³⁶ According to Eurostat population data for 2012, in the eight EU Member States surveyed, women represent 50–55 % of the total population over 16 years of age and men 45–50 %.



Figure A1: EU Member State samples



60 years old). The youngest age group (16–29 years) is relatively small, comprising 11 % of respondents, with the remaining 21 % of the respondents 30–44 years of age. While online surveys often attract respondents who are younger than the population in general, this does not seem to be the case in the FRA survey on antisemitism. The overall age distribution of the survey respondents is also older than the majority population in the EU Member States,³⁷ which might reflect the ageing of Jewish populations in the eight EU Member States. Because of the possibility that the age distribution of the Jewish population differs from the age distribution of the majority population in the eight EU Member States, there was no effort made to readjust the age distribution of the sample through weighting, as this

could have introduced a further bias to the results (in the absence of reliable data on the age distribution of Jewish people in all the eight EU Member States).

Three quarters (75 %) of the respondents completed higher education (university degree or above), and 61 % of the respondents are employed and 24 % retired. Over three quarters of survey respondents in all countries are urban residents living by their own account in big cities or towns. Rural residents constitute a small minority of up to 5 %. Two thirds (67 %) of the respondents are married, living with a spouse or in a partnership (civil or cohabitation), and the remaining one third (30 %) are single, widowed, divorced or separated from their spouses.

The data show slight differences in the socio-demographic characteristics (such as gender, age and employment) between the respondents in the eight survey countries. Regarding gender, nearly equal proportions of female and male respondents answered the survey in Sweden (51 % female and 49 % male) and Hungary (49 % female and 51 % male), while in Belgium and France more men than women took part in the survey (64 % and 62 % of respondents, respectively, were male in these two countries). Regarding

37 According to 2012 Eurostat population data, with slight variations between the countries surveyed, the four age groups constructed for the survey data analysis are distributed nearly evenly in the total population aged 16 years and over. For example, the distribution in Belgium was as follows: 16–29-year olds comprised 21 %; 30–44-year olds, 25 %; 45–59-year olds, 26 %; and over 60-year olds, 28 %. In the rest of the countries, the proportions were distributed respectively, Germany: 19 %, 23 %, 27 % and 31 %; France: 21 %, 25 %, 25 % and 29 %; Italy: 17 %, 26 %, 25 % and 32 %; Latvia: 22 %, 24 %, 25 % and 29 %; Hungary: 21 %, 28 %, 24 % and 28 %; Sweden: 22 %, 24 %, 23 % and 31 % and the United Kingdom: 23 %, 25 %, 24 %, and 28 %.

age, the oldest age group (60 years of age and over) is most prevalent in the French sample; respondents who are over 60 years old comprise 47 % of French respondents. The German sample is distinct as 30–59-year olds comprise 60 % of the sample (30–44-year olds, 31 %; and 45–59-year olds, 29 %). Among Jews in Hungary, the proportion of the youngest age group is in relative terms bigger (18 %) than in other countries – correspondingly the oldest age group is smaller (34 %).

Regarding employment, certain differences among the proportions of employees and self-employed can be observed. In Italy and Belgium, for example, 27 % of the respondents are self-employed. In Sweden and Hungary these shares are smaller and comprise 15 % and 16 % of respondents, respectively, against an average of 21 % in all eight EU Member States surveyed. The share of retired respondents is the biggest in France and reaches 35 %, while in Belgium it is 8 %, and in Germany, 15 %. Employees comprise 48 % of the respondents in Sweden and 28 % in France against the eight EU Member State average of 40 %. Levels of unemployment are very low among the respondents – in all countries surveyed only 4 % of respondents indicated that they were currently unemployed.

The survey asked the respondents to evaluate the area where they live as to whether or not it is an area where many Jewish people live. A majority of the respondents (71 %) said they live in areas where Jews constitute a minority – that is, when answering the question about the proportion of other Jews living in their local area, they said that ‘none or very few’ or ‘a few’ are Jewish in the area where they live. The highest proportion of respondents indicating that they live in areas where many other Jews live was in the United Kingdom and Hungary (30 %–40 %) and the lowest in Sweden (less than 5 %). In the remaining countries, the proportion ranges from 10 % to 20 %. Respondents were also asked how long they had been living in their country of residence. In all eight EU Member States surveyed, an absolute majority of respondents are long-term residents of that country.

The survey asked the respondents about their country or countries of citizenship (including multiple citizenship). The majority of respondents are citizens of the countries where they currently live, survey results showed. The biggest proportions of citizens are observed among respondents from Hungary (98 %), France (96 %), Sweden (93 %), Italy (93 %), the United Kingdom (92 %), Latvia and Belgium (83 % each). In Germany, 70 % of the respondents are German citizens. Around one in ten respondents from Germany (11 %), Belgium (10 %), France (9 %), and the United Kingdom (9 %) have Israeli citizenship. Smaller shares of respondents with Israeli citizenship are observed in Sweden (7 %), Italy and Hungary (6 % each), and Latvia (4 %).

Jewish identity

The survey included several questions that aimed at capturing the main characteristics of how respondents in the survey self-identified as Jewish, including through asking about identification with certain groups, strength of Jewish identity and level of religiosity. The measures of Jewish identity, as explained earlier with respect to socio-demographic characteristics, allow an analysis of the situation affecting different segments of the Jewish population.

In all countries, an absolute majority of the respondents (87 %) identify themselves as Jewish by birth, with the lowest proportion (75 %) observed in Italy and the highest in France and the United Kingdom (in both countries over 90 %). The proportion of converts to Judaism is 10 %–17 %: specifically, Italy (17 %), Hungary (10 %), Belgium (14 %), Germany (11 %) and Sweden (10 %).

In seven out of the eight EU Member States, Ashkenazi Jews,³⁸ who trace their ancestry to France, Germany and eastern Europe, constitute a majority of the

Measuring Jewish identity

It is not possible to distill the various dimensions of Jewish identity into a single survey question, especially in a survey which covers a number of countries. As a result, the FRA survey on antisemitism used a set of items to measure respondents’ Jewish identity. The following list shows the types of questions which were used in the survey, with some examples of the possible response categories (the full list of response categories can be found in the survey questionnaire):

- self-assessment of the strength of one’s religious beliefs (on a scale of 1 to 10);
- observing Jewish practices (e.g. eating kosher, or attending synagogue);
- membership in synagogues and/or Jewish organisations;
- classification of Jewish identity (e.g. Orthodox, traditional, progressive, Haredi);
- importance of selected issues to respondent’s Jewish identity (e.g. Jewish culture, remembering the Holocaust, supporting Israel);
- self-assessed strength of Jewish identity (on a scale from 1 to 10);
- Jewish background (e.g. Jewish by birth, Jewish by conversion).

³⁸ For more information, see: <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Judaism/Ashkenazim.html> (All hyperlinks were accessed in 20 August 2013).



Table A2: Main social demographic characteristics of the full sample

		%	N
Gender	Female	43	2,529
	Male	57	3,318
	Total	100	5,847
Age	16-29	11	667
	30-44	21	1,198
	45-59	28	1,630
	60+	40	2,352
	Total	100	5,847
Education	No higher education	25	1,474
	Higher education	75	4,373
	Total	100	5,847
Employment status	Employee (full-time, part-time)	40	2,316
	Self-employed	21	1,218
	In full-time education	4	256
	Unemployed	4	227
	Not working because permanently sick or disabled	1	79
	Retired	24	1,389
	Looking after the home	2	100
	Doing something else	5	262
	Total	100	5,847
Marital status	Single, that is never married	15	900
	Co-habiting/living with a partner	10	604
	Married and living with [husband/wife]	56	3,265
	A civil partner in a legally-recognised civil partnership	1	56
	Married but separated from husband/wife	2	118
	Divorced	9	503
	Widowed	4	255
	Something else	2	93
	Don't know/prefer not to say	1	53
	Total	100	5,847
Residence location	The capital city/ a big city	60	3,496
	The suburbs or outskirts of a big city	24	1,398
	A town or a small city	12	673
	A country village	3	193
	A farm or home in the countryside	1	70
	Other	0	17
	Total	100	5,847
Household income	Bottom quartile	11	668
	Second quartile	15	872
	Third quartile	18	1,041
	Top quartile	34	1,991
	Don't know/not applicable	6	349
	Prefer not to say	16	926
	Total	100	5,847

respondents (60%), peaking at 80 % in the United Kingdom. Ashkenazi Jews are a minority in Italy and France. In these countries Sephardi Jews,³⁹ who trace their ancestry to Spain, Portugal, North Africa and the Middle East, constitute 40 %–50 % of the respondents. Italy has by far the largest proportion of respondents identifying as ‘other’, referring to Jews whose ancestry in the country pre-dates the Ashkenazi-Sephardi divide.

Of the categories used to describe respondents’ Jewish identity, the two largest across all countries are ‘Just Jewish’ (41 %) and ‘Traditional’ (27 %). In all countries except Italy, 10 %–20 % of the respondents identified as ‘Reform/Progressive’. In Italy, the share of ‘Reform/Progressive’ is 7 %. ‘Orthodox’ and ‘Haredi’ account for about 10 %–16 % in Belgium, France and the United Kingdom and for 3 %–9 % in the remaining countries. The proportion of ‘Orthodox’ and ‘Haredi’ is especially small in Sweden and Hungary.

The respondents were asked to define the strength of their Jewish identity by using a scale from 1 to 10, where 1 means very low strength of Jewish identity and 10 means very high strength. The majority of the respondents (69 %) maintain a strong Jewish identity (values 8–10 on the scale), according to the survey results. One quarter (26 %) define their Jewish identity as medium strength (values 4–7), and only 5 % define it as being weak (values 1–3). The average levels of strength of Jewish identity are similar in the eight EU Member States surveyed.

In addition to the questions on Jewish identity the respondents were asked how religious they were on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 meant ‘not at all religious’ and 10, ‘very religious’. While assessing their religiosity, a minority of the respondents (12 %) are characterised by a high level of religiosity (values 8–10 on the 10-point scale). Almost half of the respondents (47 %) can be described as being moderately religious (values 4–7) and a significant share (41 %) as not very religious (values 1–3 on the scale). Average levels of religiosity are similar in the eight EU Member States surveyed. These results show that while a substantial number of respondents indicated that they were not very religious, only a few respondents displayed equally low values on the scale of Jewish identity. Many respondents can be classified as ‘medium’ or ‘strong’ in terms of their Jewish identity, although they would rate themselves as not particularly religious.

The survey respondents were asked about the Jewish practices they personally observe or holidays they celebrate. From the list provided, the majority of the respondents attended Passover Seder (75 %) and fasted

on Yom Kippur (64 %) most or every year. Nearly half of the respondents (46 %) said that they light candles most Friday nights, and one third (31 %) eats only kosher meat at home. One quarter of the respondents (24 %) attends synagogue once a week or more often. In addition, 12 % of the respondents said they do not switch on the lights on the Sabbath. In contrast, 17 % of the respondents said they do not personally observe any of these Jewish practices.

The survey asked the respondents how they had heard about the survey. The majority of the respondents said they received an email from an organisation or online network (61 %), and one quarter (25 %) said that somebody told them about it or sent a link. These results suggest that many of the respondents who participated in the survey are affiliated with Jewish community organisations, either as members or at least belonging to their mailing lists. Unaffiliated Jews are difficult to reach⁴⁰ for surveys in the absence of better sampling frames (e.g. comprehensive and up-to-date registers from which a random sample can be drawn), and it can be assumed that they are underrepresented in the current sample, based on estimates of affiliated and unaffiliated Jewish people in the eight EU Member States.

Media monitoring during survey data collection

During the fieldwork, the Institute for Jewish Policy Research (JPR) and IPSOS Mori carried out media monitoring activities in the EU Member States surveyed in order to identify any notable incidents that might influence respondents when completing the questionnaire.

During the data collection, antisemitic incidents of varying degrees of severity were noted in all EU Member States surveyed or other EU Member States. The major topics of concern included a number of attacks on Jewish people, cemeteries and synagogues, discussions on the criminalisation of circumcision, which started in Germany and spread to other countries, and traditional slaughter. Around the time when the survey data was collected, news media also covered the terrorist attack on an Israeli tourist group in Bulgaria, the electoral success of the Golden Dawn party in Greece and high levels of support for the National Front in the French presidential elections.

Three of the surveyed countries – France, Hungary and Sweden – received particular attention in the media around the time of survey data collection. In Hungary, a number of violent incidents against Jewish people and the property of the Jewish community took place. In the Swedish city of Malmö, the Jewish community

39 For more information, see: <http://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/jsource/Judaism/Sephardim.html>.

40 Phillips, B. (2007); Kovács, A. and Forrás-Biró, A. (2011); Graham, D. (2011).



was confronted with a series of antisemitic attacks and incidents, culminating in a bomb attack against a Jewish community centre in September 2012. The atmosphere in Malmö continued to be worrying for the Jewish community, and a series of solidarity marches took place in the city in support of the local Jewish community. In the immediate aftermath of the shooting of three Jewish schoolchildren and an adult at Ozar Hatorah Jewish day school in Toulouse in March 2012, the media reported a dramatic upswing in the number of antisemitic incidents in France. While the spike in incidents ended before the survey fieldwork began, it is highly probable that the event had a significant bearing on the results recorded for France in this survey.

Annex 2: Survey in Romania

Background

Data collection for the FRA survey on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism took place in nine EU Member States – Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Romania, Sweden and the United Kingdom. However, in Romania only 67 respondents completed the survey. Due to the low number of responses and the limitations this places on the results' analysis the main part of this report focuses on the findings from the other eight EU Member States where the sample size achieved was larger.

The background research carried out in the framework of the FRA survey before the start of the data collection activities identified Romania as one of the most challenging countries for the survey. This was due to the relatively small size of the Jewish population (estimated at 10,500), low level of internet penetration compared to other EU Member States and ageing Jewish population (based on estimates, approximately 25% of all Jews in Romania are 41–60 years old and more than 40% are 61–80 years old). Additional measures were taken during the data collection period in an effort to boost the response rate in Romania (e.g. longer accessibility of the online questionnaire, additional contacts with the community representatives in order for them to raise awareness of the survey at the local level), but these measures did not produce the desired result.

Main results

Some of the main results concerning Romanian respondents' experiences and perceptions of hate crime, discrimination and antisemitism are presented here. The small number of responses (n=67) should be taken into account when reading these results.

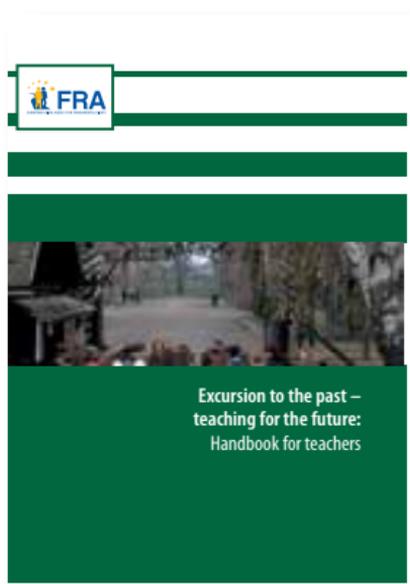
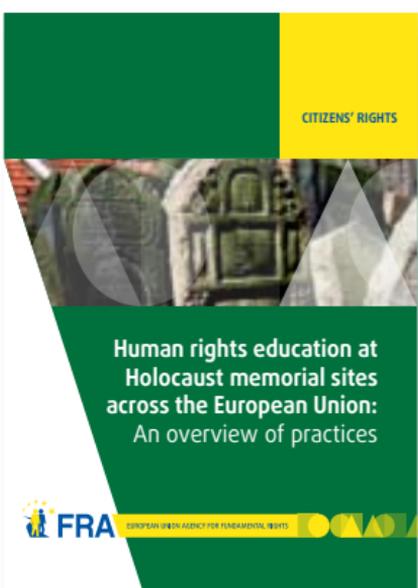
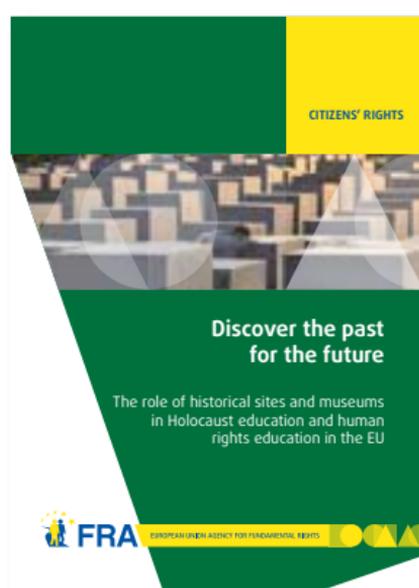
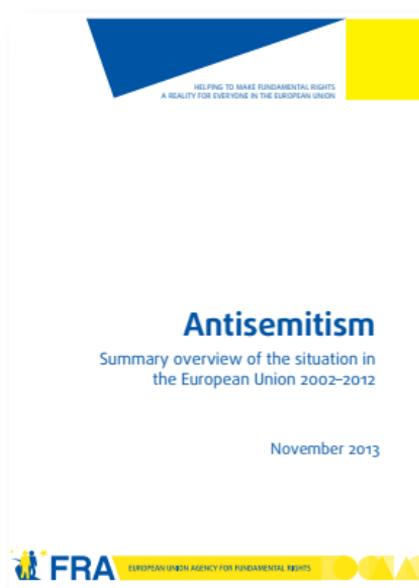
- Half of the respondents in Romania (53 %) consider antisemitism to be a very big or a fairly big problem in the country. A similar share (50 %) of respondents considers that antisemitism has been on the increase in Romania over the past five years. Two in three respondents (69 %) consider that antisemitism on the internet has increased over the past five years.
- In Romania, one quarter of respondents (25 %) said that they had experienced verbal insults, harassment, and/or physical attacks because they were Jewish in the 12 months prior to the survey. Nearly one third (30 %) of the respondents in Romania are worried about falling victim to verbal insult or

harassment in the next 12 months because they are Jewish.

- About one third of the respondents in Romania (37%) had experienced at least one type of antisemitic harassment in the 12 months before the survey, and two in five (45%) had experienced such an incident in the five years before the survey.
- One in five respondents in Romania said that they had felt discriminated against because of their ethnic background, or religion or belief (22 % for each of the two grounds, respectively).
- In Romania, two in five respondents knew about the existence of laws that forbid discrimination against Jewish people when, for example, applying for a job (43 % of respondents in Romania agreed that there is such a law).
- Two thirds of respondents (63 %) in Romania were aware of a law forbidding incitement to violence or hatred against Jews.
- Three quarters of respondents (76 %) in Romania were aware of a law forbidding denial or trivialisation of the Holocaust.



For information on FRA's data collection on antisemitic incidents and hate crime, as well as its work on Holocaust and human rights education, see:



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

Antisemitism casts a long shadow on Jewish people's chances to enjoy their legally guaranteed rights to human dignity, freedom of thought, conscience and religion, and non-discrimination. The daily insults, discrimination, harassment and even physical violence, with which Jewish people across the European Union (EU) must contend, show few signs of abating, despite EU and EU Member States' best efforts. Nevertheless, little information exists on the extent and nature of antisemitic crimes to guide policy makers seeking to effectively fight these crimes. This FRA survey is the first ever to collect comparable data on Jewish people's experiences and perceptions of antisemitism, hate-motivated crime and discrimination across a number of EU Member States, specifically in Belgium, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Its findings reveal a worrying level of discrimination, particularly in employment and education, a widespread fear of victimisation and heightening concern about antisemitism online. By shining light on crimes that all too often remain unreported and therefore invisible, this FRA report seeks to help put an end to them.

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