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<td></td>
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</table>

Data in Focus Report | Muslims

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA)
EU-MIDIS stands for the ‘European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey’.

It is the first EU-wide survey to ask immigrant and ethnic minority groups about their experiences of discrimination and criminal victimisation in everyday life.

Many incidents of discrimination and victimisation go unreported, and current data collection on discrimination and victimisation against minority groups is limited in many Member States. EU-MIDIS therefore provides the most comprehensive evidence to date of the extent of discrimination and victimisation against minorities in the EU.

A total of 23,500 immigrant and ethnic minority people were surveyed in face-to-face questionnaire interviews in all 27 Member States of the EU during 2008. A further 5,000 people from the majority population living in the same areas as minorities were interviewed in 10 Member States, to allow for comparisons of results concerning some key questions.

Each interview lasted between 20 minutes and one hour, and asked people a series of detailed questions.

The Second in a Series of ‘Data in Focus’ Reports

This report focuses on respondents who identified themselves as Muslims, and is the second in a series of EU-MIDIS ‘Data in Focus’ reports exploring different results from the survey. Up to nine ‘Data in Focus’ reports are planned.

Given the shortage of extensive, objective and comparable data on Muslims in the European Union, EU-MIDIS provides, for the first time, comparable data on how Muslims across the EU experience discrimination and victimisation.

Those that identified themselves as Muslims in the countries surveyed have diverse ethnic origins; for example, North and Sub-Saharan African, Turkish, Iraqi, and ex-Yugoslavians. The overwhelming majority of respondents (89%) in these groups stated that religion plays a “very important” or “fairly important” role in their lives. Only a minority of Albanian respondents identified themselves as Muslims and are therefore not included in this report.

EU-MIDIS ‘Data in Focus’ reports provide only an introductory ‘snapshot’ of the full results from the survey, and are intended to introduce the reader to some of the core findings. A comprehensive EU-MIDIS results report will follow at the end of 2009, and the full dataset from the survey will also be made available on the Agency’s website, once all ‘Data in Focus’ reports are in the public domain, so that anyone can undertake their own analysis of the results.
### DATA IN FOCUS REPORT 2 –
**KEY FINDINGS ON MUSLIM RESPONDENTS**

#### Experiencing Discrimination

- On average 1 in 3 Muslim respondents (34% of men and 26% of women) stated that they had experienced discrimination in the past 12 months. Those Muslim respondents who had been discriminated against stated that they had experienced, on average, 8 incidents of discrimination over a 12 month period.

- Muslims aged 16-24 experience more discrimination in comparison with other age groups, with overall discrimination rates declining with age.

- Being a citizen of an EU Member State and a longer period of residence in an EU country considerably reduces the likelihood of being discriminated against.

- Wearing traditional or religious clothing (such as a headscarf) did not have an impact on Muslim respondents’ experiences of discrimination.

#### Reporting Discrimination

- On average 79% of respondents did not report their most recent experience of discrimination in the last 12 months to any competent organisation or at the place where the discrimination occurred.

- The main reason given for not reporting discrimination was that ‘nothing would happen or change’ by reporting their experience of discrimination (59%), while many (38%) did not see the point of reporting discrimination, as it was just ‘part of their normal everyday existence’.

- On average 80% of respondents could not name any organisation that can offer support or advice to people who have been discriminated against.

#### Being Victims of Racially Motivated Crime

- 1 in 10 of all Muslims surveyed (11%) was a victim of racially motivated ‘in-person crime’ (assault, threat or serious harassment) at least once in the previous 12 months.

- 72% identified members of the majority population as being the perpetrators in connection with the last incident of assault, threat or serious harassment they experienced.

#### Reporting a Victim of Crime

- Of those who were victims of in-person crimes, between 53% and 98%, depending on their country of residence, did not report it to the police.

- Of those victims of in-person crimes who did not report to the police, 43% stated the main reason for this was that they were not confident the police would be able to do anything.

#### Encounters with Law Enforcement, Customs and Border Control

- On average 1 in 4 Muslim respondents were stopped by the police in the previous 12 months, and 40% of these believed that this was specifically because of their immigrant or minority status.

- Those who were stopped by the police experienced on average 3 such stops over a 12 month period.

- On average 37% of Muslim respondents stopped by customs or border control in the previous 12 months believed that this was specifically because of their immigrant or minority background. In comparison, 19% of non-Muslim minority respondents surveyed in EU-MIDIS considered this to be the case.

For comparisons with other minority groups and the overall survey results, please consult “EU MIDIS at a glance”, [http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis](http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis)
THE SURVEY

The EU-MIDIS questionnaire is available on the Agency’s website: http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis

The bulk of survey questions in EU-MIDIS covered the following themes:

- questions about respondents’ experiences of discrimination because of their minority background in different areas of everyday life, and whether they reported discrimination

- questions on perceptions of different types of discrimination in the country where they live, as well as questions about awareness of their rights and where to make complaints about discriminatory treatment

- questions about respondents’ experiences of being a victim of crime, including whether they considered their victimisation happened partly or completely because of their minority background, and whether they reported victimisation to the police

- questions on encounters with law enforcement, customs and border control, and whether respondents considered that they were victims of discriminatory ethnic profiling practices

With respect to the above, respondents were asked about their experiences of discrimination and victimisation in the last five years and in the previous 12 months. The results reported here focus on people’s experiences in the past 12 months.

The results reported here represent respondents to EU-MIDIS who identified themselves as Muslims, and only those groups surveyed where a majority of respondents were Muslims.
EXPERIENCES OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS

Identifying grounds for discrimination

At the very beginning of the survey, before asking about discrimination experienced on the basis of their ethnicity in 9 different areas of everyday life, respondents were asked a general question about discrimination they may have experienced on different grounds – such as ethnic or immigrant origin, age, disability, gender, religion or belief, sexual orientation and ‘other’ grounds. When respondents who had experienced at least one incident of discrimination were asked to identify the ground for this discrimination - only 10% stated that it was purely due to religion or belief (Figure 1). Almost half selected both grounds of ‘religion or belief’ and ‘ethnic or immigrant background’, which shows the difficulty in distinguishing between the two grounds in the eyes of those being discriminated against, as the two are often inter-related.

Experiences of discrimination on the basis of ethnicity in 9 areas

Having asked about discrimination experienced on different grounds, the survey then asked respondents about their personal experiences of discriminatory treatment on the basis of their ethnicity in nine areas of everyday life (see Box 1).

For all 14 Member States, where Muslims were surveyed, and with respect to all nine areas of discrimination, the results show that 1 in 3 Muslims were, on average, discriminated against in the past 12 months on the basis of their ethnicity (Figure 2). Among the different Muslim ethnic groups surveyed, Sub-Saharan and North Africans experienced the highest levels of discrimination.

When breaking down the results as an average for all nine discrimination areas by ethnic origin and country of residence (Figure 3), significant differences and similarities can be observed in discrimination experienced between the same ethnic groups within different countries, and between different ethnic groups within the same country.

For example, 64% of Africans (North and Sub-Saharan) in Malta and 47% of Sub-Saharan Africans in Finland, who identified themselves as Muslims, experienced discrimination...
in contrast to 25% of Sub-Saharan Africans in France and 33% in Sweden. Similarly, 55% of North African respondents in Italy experienced discrimination, in contrast to 26% in France and 30% in The Netherlands. Finally, 42% of Turkish respondents in Denmark experienced discrimination in contrast to 9% in Bulgaria and 10% in Austria.

The example of Malta merits more careful examination in future research. The high levels of experienced discrimination should be nuanced as they affect primarily asylum seekers, who enter the country in disproportionate numbers to those in other Member States and to the size of the country’s population, as UNHCR figures show. This could mean that Malta would stand to benefit from targeted EU support in its efforts to deal with discrimination in relation to specific groups, such as asylum seekers.

Significant differences between different Muslim ethnic groups within the same country were observed; for example in Sweden, 33% of Sub-Saharan Africans experienced discrimination, compared with only 10% of Iraqis. However, similarities can also be observed in the discrimination experienced by Muslim respondents of different ethnic origin within the same country; for example in Denmark, The Netherlands and France.

Regarding the number of discrimination incidents (Figure 4), the results show that the respondents who said that they had been discriminated against experienced on average 8 discrimination incidents over a 12 month period. However, North Africans in Italy experience far more than the average with almost 20 discrimination incidents: this indicates that this group is particularly prone to repeat discrimination.

On a more positive note, Muslim respondents in several Member States, in particular Austria and Slovenia, reported lower levels of repeat discrimination in a 12 month period. Significant differences also exist between Muslim groups of different ethnic origin within a Member State. For example, in Belgium and the Netherlands, respondents of North African origin reported a higher average of repeat discrimination than those of Turkish origin; and in France, respondents of Sub-Saharan origin reported more incidents than those of North African origin.

Looking at this information in greater detail for each country serves to highlight areas where discrimination is most concentrated, and where policy attention needs to be focused. A detailed analysis of discrimination experiences in each area reveals important similarities and differences; however, Muslims of North African origin in Italy experienced the highest levels of discrimination and repeat discrimination in almost every area. Africans in Malta are either absent from certain areas or experienced very little discrimination, possibly reflecting their particular circumstances as asylum seekers who make little use of housing or social services, education, banks and shops. On the other hand, 43% experience discrimination when looking for work, but only 25% at work, which is indicative, one could argue, of their precarious employment situation as, in the main, asylum seekers.

Discrimination in employment and services

Looking at the groups with the three highest rates of experienced discrimination, when looking for work and at work (Figure 5), alongside Muslims of African origin in Malta, experience of discrimination is notable among Muslims of North African origin in Italy, and of Turkish origin in Germany and Denmark.

Across four areas - housing, health, social care and education (Figure 6) - North Africans in Italy stand out as the group experiencing the most discrimination, which indicates the need for policies and measures specifically targeting this group. Likewise, there is a similar need for targeted non-discrimination policies for Africans in Malta regarding health care.
Regarding discrimination in relation to private services – at a café or restaurant, when entering or in a shop, when trying to open a bank account or get a loan (Figure 7) - Muslim North Africans in Italy stand out as experiencing a very high level of discrimination: 1 in 3 experienced discrimination in shops, cafes, restaurants or bars, while 1 in 4 experienced discrimination in banks. Africans in Malta figure in relation to discrimination in a café, restaurant or bar.

The survey’s results also showed that in all 14 Member States where Muslim respondents were interviewed, discrimination in employment and private services tend to dominate people’s experiences of everyday discrimination. Given that the EU’s third ‘Common Basic Principle on Integration’ specifically mentions that ‘employment is a key part of the integration process and is central to the participation of immigrants, to the contributions immigrants make to the host society, and to making such contributions visible’, the high levels of discrimination experienced by the respondents five years after the Member States’ agreement on these common principles raises concern that little progress is being made. Policy-makers and social partners could therefore benefit from these findings in developing targeted measures and actions. Given also that the sixth ‘Common Basic Principle on Integration’ notes that ‘access for immigrants to institutions, as well as to public and private goods and services, on a basis equal to that of national citizens and in a non-discriminatory way, is a critical foundation for better integration; EU-MIDIS can now provide robust evidence that there is an urgent need for policies and measures focusing more on these areas.

In comparison with employment, respondents in general experienced less discrimination in the fields of health and social services, as well as housing and education; which, however, could also indicate that not all respondents required health or social services, have school-age children, or sought accommodation in the past 12 months.

### Discrimination by age, gender and citizenship

The immediate and long-term impact of discriminatory experiences on young people is of particular concern. The survey showed that 1 in 3 respondents in the youngest age group, 16 – 24, said they had been discriminated against. This ranges from 71% for Africans in Malta and 62% for Sub-Saharan Africans in Denmark, to 5% for Iraqis in Sweden and 9% for Turks in Austria.

Given that discrimination experiences can alienate young people and hamper their social integration, policies and measures need to focus on protecting them effectively and facilitating their access to complaints mechanisms.

On the whole, there are only a few differences between Muslim men and women’s experiences of discrimination. Exceptions to this can be found in relation to North Africans in Spain, France and Italy, where significantly more men than women experienced discrimination in all areas.

The survey also asked respondents whether they wore traditional or religious clothing that were different to those worn by the majority population. However, wearing traditional or religious
clothing, including a headscarf, seems to only marginally affect discrimination experiences. This finding contradicts common assumptions about the negative impact of visibility through wearing traditional/religious clothing, such as headscarves, on the behaviour of mainstream society towards minorities. As such it merits further scrutiny through additional quantitative and qualitative research, which seeks to find out more about how women experience discrimination.

Overall, wearing traditional or religious clothing only marginally affects discrimination experiences.

One area that does show some difference between the responses of men and women is with regard to citizenship. Citizenship status seems to have an impact on experiences of discrimination, particularly among men, as 41% of Muslim male non-citizens indicated they had experienced discrimination in contrast with 27% of Muslim male citizens (Figure 8). This could indicate that citizenship, and gender, may play a role in the way people are treated.

The length of stay in the country also affected discrimination experiences. Those who have stayed longer experienced less discrimination. On average 45% of those who were in the country from 1 to 4 years experienced discrimination in contrast to 25% of those born in the country. Linking this finding with the one on citizenship, one could argue that familiarity with social norms and expectations, which increases the longer one stays in the country, either prevents or mitigates against discrimination.

When linking age to length of stay and, in particular, citizenship status, it becomes apparent that these factors influence experiences of discrimination: 29% of youths aged 16-24 who are citizens of the Member State in question experienced discrimination in contrast to 48% of youths who are not citizens.

Under-reporting and lack of knowledge on where and how to report

As shown in Figure 9, when respondents who stated they had experienced discrimination were asked if they had reported this to any organisation or office where complaints can be made, or at the place where the discrimination occurred, an average of 79% of all Muslim respondents in the 14 Member States surveyed said that they had not. The lowest rate of non-reporting was among Muslims of Sub-Saharan African origin in France (61%), while the highest rate was for Muslims of ex-Yugoslav origin in Slovenia and Muslims of Turkish origin in Austria (95%). It is worth noting that low reporting rates were recorded among those who were not citizens of the country in question and who had lived in the country for the shortest period of time. This indicates a need to target these groups to facilitate their reporting.

The survey went on to ask those who indicated that they did not report their experiences of discrimination why this was the case. Respondents gave a number of responses, which were categorised by the interviewers.

Figure 10 shows a consistent pattern of responses emerged in all Member States and for all Muslim groups, with few exceptions, with respect to reasons for non-reporting. In sum, the majority of respondents – 59% – considered that ‘nothing would happen or change’ by reporting their experience of discrimination to an organisation or office where complaints can be made, or at the place where the discrimination occurred.

When looking at the responses of the different Muslim groups surveyed, it is interesting to note that more Iraqi respondents (69%) than average considered that ‘nothing would happen or change’ by reporting, while more than half stated that they ‘dealt with the problem themselves’. A similar pattern can be seen in the responses of Muslims of Turkish origin, and 28% indicated ‘concern about negative consequences’ as a reason for not reporting. To this end, policy interventions at Member State level need to explore the specific reasons among different groups for non-reporting.
Looking at the results for non-reporting it is clear that a number of factors serve to instil a high degree of disillusion among respondents about the effectiveness of reporting discrimination. To this end, much could be done by organisations and bodies responsible for receiving and responding to complaints to change this situation.

Figure 10

Reasons for not reporting discrimination to an organisation (%)
Any type of discrimination (in nine areas) in the past 12 months

- Nothing would happen / change by reporting: 59%
- Too trivial / not worth reporting it - it’s normal, happens all the time: 38%
- Didn’t know how to go about reporting / where to report: 33%
- Inconvenience / too much bureaucracy or trouble / no time: 21%
- Concerned about negative consequences / contrary to my interest: 21%
- Dealt with the problem themselves / with help from family / friends: 12%
- Fear of intimidation from perpetrators if reported: 11%
- Other: 10%
- Not reported because of language difficulties / insecurities: 6%
- Residence permit problems - so couldn’t report: 2%

EU-MIDIS, questions CA5-CI5
PERCEPTIONS OF DISCRIMINATION AND RIGHTS AWARENESS

In addition to their personal experiences of discrimination, survey respondents were also asked about their general perceptions concerning the extent of discrimination in their country on the following grounds: ethnic or immigrant origin, age, disability, gender, religion or belief, and sexual orientation.

Overall, 51% of Muslims compared to 20% of non-Muslim ethnic minorities surveyed believe discrimination on grounds of religion or belief to be “very” or “fairly” widespread.

On average the majority of all Muslim respondents considered discrimination on the grounds of both ethnic or immigrant background and religion or belief to be widespread in their country. However, the responses of different Muslim groups in individual countries vary. For example, in Bulgaria, Luxembourg and Austria the majority of Muslim respondents did not consider that discrimination on the grounds of ethnic or immigrant background and religion or belief is very or fairly widespread. On the other hand, the vast majority of Muslims in Italy, Belgium, France and Sweden consider discrimination on the basis of someone’s ethnic or immigrant background, and less so on the basis of religion or belief, to be “very” or “fairly” widespread.

Respondents were also asked about their awareness of anti-discrimination legislation in their country (Figure 11). When asked whether there is a law prohibiting discrimination against people on the basis of their ethnicity / immigrant background when applying for a job, less than half of the respondents (41%) replied positively. 

Muslims of North African origin in Spain, of Turkish origin in Austria, and of North African origin in Belgium and Italy do not see a law that forbids discrimination against people on the basis of their ethnicity / immigrant background when applying for a job.

Respondents were also asked about an organisation that can offer support or advice to people who have been discriminated against (Figure 12). When asked if there is an organisation that can offer support or advice to people who have been discriminated against, less than half of the respondents (51%) replied positively.

Muslims of South African origin in Sweden and of African origin in Italy do not know of an organisation that can offer support or advice to people who have been discriminated against.
Bulgaria and Austria, Africans in Malta, and Iraqis in Sweden were the least aware (below 30%) of anti-discrimination laws.

Given that EC legislation against discrimination on the grounds of racial or ethnic origin in employment is now in place throughout the EU, this lack of rights awareness suggests that the message on anti-discrimination rights is not reaching vulnerable minorities.

The survey also asked respondents to identify any organisation in their country that can offer advice or support to people who have been discriminated against for whatever reason. The results show (Figure 12) that between 60 and 94% of respondents could not name a single such organisation.

The majority of Muslim respondents are largely unaware that discrimination against them might be illegal. Furthermore, even more respondents are unaware of any organisation in their country that might be able to assist them if they are discriminated against.
EXPERIENCE OF BEING A VICTIM OF RACIALLY MOTIVATED CRIME IN THE PAST 12 MONTHS

In an effort to document racially motivated crime, EU-MIDIS asked respondents to indicate whether they considered that their experiences of criminal victimisation in the last 12 months happened partly or entirely because of their minority background.

Figure 13 shows that 11% of all Muslim respondents considered that they were a victim of a racially motivated assault, threat or serious harassment in the last 12 months. Although in percentage terms the number may not appear to be so high, in real terms, if we translate this to the entire Muslim population in the Member States where Muslim respondents were surveyed, the level of victimisation would extend into thousands of cases every year that are not recorded by the police as racist incidents in the majority of Member States.

The above evidence on racially motivated assault, threat and serious harassment is of particular concern and, when coupled with the survey’s findings on low levels of reporting in-person crime to the police, would support the Agency’s conclusions in its Annual Reports to date that there is a real problem with under-counting the extent of racist crime in the majority of EU Member States. This reinforces the Agency’s recommendations from previous reports that law enforcement should seriously reconsider its methods and working definitions for identifying and recording racially motivated crime.

The percentage of those in each Member State who were victims of in-person crime and who did not report their victimisation to the police ranged from 53% of ex-Yugoslavian respondents in Luxembourg to 98% of Turkish respondents in Austria. This indicates that measures are urgently needed to address reasons for not reporting to the police. This is particularly important for those groups that had high victimisation rates, but low police reporting rates, for example Sub-Saharan Africans in Denmark and Africans in Malta. In turn, the survey found that respondents who were victims of assault, threat or serious harassment experienced on average roughly 3 incidents over a 12 month period. This shows that ‘in-person’ crime, which can include racially motivated incidents, is a recurring problem for certain people which requires targeted intervention.

As with the under-reporting of discrimination, the findings from EU-MIDIS indicate that the majority of respondents did not report their experiences of criminal victimisation to the police. This is particularly noteworthy given that a number of respondents experienced assault and threat.

The survey asked those respondents who did not report their experiences of ‘in person’ crime why they hadn’t done so. People could describe their reasons freely, and interviewers coded their responses accordingly. The main reasons given for not reporting to the police was that people were ‘not confident the police would be able to do anything’ (43%), while 38% indicated that their experience of victimisation was too trivial/not worth reporting, which serves to highlight the ‘normality’ of victimisation for many Muslim respondents.
CONTACT WITH LAW ENFORCEMENT, IMMIGRATION, CUSTOMS AND BORDER CONTROL

Questions about law enforcement contact sought to identify experiences of discriminatory treatment by the police. To this end, each respondent was asked whether they had been stopped by the police in the last 12 months (Figure 14), and, if they had, the interviewer asked a number of detailed questions about the following: how often they were stopped by the police in the last 12 months; whether they were on foot or in some kind of vehicle or public transport when they were stopped; whether they thought they were stopped because of their minority background (known as ‘ethnic profiling’): what did the police actually do during the stop; and whether they were treated respectfully by the police. (There will be a separate, detailed EU-MIDIS ‘Data in Focus’ report on law enforcement stops for all groups surveyed in all Member States).

On average 1 in 4 (25%) of all Muslim respondents stated that they had been stopped by law enforcement in the last 12 months.

When asked whether they considered that they were stopped by the police in the last 12 months on the basis of their ethnicity – ‘ethnic profiling’ – the results (Figure 15) indicate a pattern between the volume of stops and the extent of ethnic profiling. As an illustration, Italy and Spain stand out amongst the 14 Member States as policing more intensively Muslims of North African origin who consider their encounters with the police.

There is a wide variation in the perceptions of the different groups of respondents: while most respondents in Italy and Spain believe that they were stopped because of their ethnicity, in Bulgaria, Slovenia and Luxembourg it is quite the opposite.

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**Figure 14**

**Stopped by the police (%)**

In the past 12 months

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EU-MIDIS, question F3

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**Figure 15**

**Perception of ethnic profiling when stopped by the police (%)**

In the past 12 months

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EU-MIDIS, question F5
to be discriminatory. At the same time Sub-Saharan Africans in France are also heavily policed and report discriminatory stops. The implications of high contact discriminatory policing do not bode well for the development of good police-community relations, and help to explain the relatively low levels of victimisation reporting to the police by these groups.

In addition, respondents were also asked whether they had been stopped by immigration, customs or border control when entering the country within the last 12 months, and, if they had, whether they considered that they had been singled out for stopping specifically on the basis of their minority background – see figure 16. The results indicate that the overwhelming majority (86%) of Muslims respondents of North African origin in Italy consider that they were singled out for stopping on the basis of their minority status when coming back into the country. Iraqi respondents in Sweden also indicated high levels of perceived discriminatory ethnic profiling. In comparison, in Slovenia the number indicating that they were treated differently was very low. In Bulgaria, Muslims of Turkish origin did not report any differential treatment at immigration, customs or border controls, which could be explained by the fact that they are not immigrants, unlike the majority of Muslim groups surveyed.
The results for Muslim respondents reported here indicate high levels of discrimination and victimisation, particularly for youth; while, at the same time, showing low levels of rights awareness and knowledge about, or trust in, mechanisms for making complaints. Respondents, particularly young Muslims, also indicate that they have little faith in the police as a public service. This is in itself worrying, as passive acceptance of discrimination and indifference to its consequences can result in social marginalisation and can hamper social integration, particularly affecting young people. This situation is reflected by the fact that many discriminatory incidents and criminal victimisation experienced by Muslim respondents are never reported to any organisation – either State-run, including the police, or NGOs.

The results point to a number of issues for policy-makers and practitioners that need to be addressed regarding the situation of Muslims at national and Community level.

• What is the impact of policies and action plans currently operating at Community and Member State level to address discrimination against vulnerable minorities and Muslims in particular? Are there examples of good practices in place, which in both the short and long-term have been shown to improve their situation?

• Which social policies (employment, housing, health care, social services, access to private services, education) include a strong commitment to non-discrimination, equality and social cohesion? Given the results of the survey, do these policies reach those Muslims who experience the most discrimination? And do they target the areas where most discrimination occurs, namely employment and private services? For example, are policies addressing discrimination in employment effective? Are social partners committed and engaged in the implementation of such policies? Do policies aimed at youth address discrimination? Are educational systems aware and sensitive to their needs, problems and aspirations?

• Is there sufficient knowledge transfer across a variety of levels of governance (European, national, local) of good practice policies and measures that have proven to be effective?

• What policies and action plans exist at Community and Member State level to raise awareness amongst Muslims about their rights? Do the responsible organisations and public authorities provide an environment where they feel confident to report discriminatory treatment in the knowledge that their complaints will be taken seriously and followed up? Are special initiatives needed to target the different Muslim populations? What can be done to combat discrimination against Muslims who are not citizens of EU Member States?

• What can be done to address the situation of Muslims with respect to their experiences of criminal victimisation and, in particular, their experiences of racist victimisation and harassment? How can a public service culture be promoted amongst law enforcement so these groups feel able and are encouraged to report their experiences of victimisation to the police?

• What are the implications of ethnic profiling by law enforcement, immigration, customs and border control? Do these practices increase the identification of criminal activity and serve to discourage criminality, or do they alienate and discriminate against Muslim communities? In the light of concerns about terrorism, and with policy initiatives focusing on the need for community cohesion and integration of minorities in EU Member States, what lessons can be learnt from the survey’s findings with respect to Muslim respondents’ perceptions of discriminatory profiling?
Groups surveyed

EU-MIDIS interviewed respondents from selected immigrant and ethnic minority groups in the 27 EU Member States. Target groups were selected based on information provided by the Agency’s RAXEN National Focal Points - consortia of institutions in each Member State with expertise in the fields of immigration, ethnic minorities and racism, which are contracted to undertake research for the Agency. The choice of target groups allows comparisons of results between the minority groups in different Member States, and between countries where similar groups have been interviewed. As the costs of surveying all minority groups throughout the EU are too great, preference was given to surveying the largest ethnic minority or immigrant group or groups in each country, and those considered vulnerable to discriminatory treatment and criminal victimisation.

Between one and three target groups were selected for interviewing in each Member State, with a minimum of 500 respondents per group.

Representative sampling

The survey set out to produce results for a representative sample of the chosen minority or minorities for surveying in each Member State. To this end, quota sampling was rejected and the survey adopted a multi-stage random sampling approach in order to reach members of the chosen minorities who might otherwise not be contacted through more convenient sampling approaches, such as contacting NGOs that work with minorities, or targeting locations where some members of minority groups traditionally gather.

The Agency piloted different random sampling approaches in six Member States prior to the adoption of the final sampling approach. The main sampling approach consisted of three stages: (i) random route; (ii) focused enumeration; and (iii) household screening. In some countries register-based population data could be used for random sampling of respondents. Interviews were distributed geographically based on available population statistics, which identified medium and high areas of population concentration for the target groups (defined as Primary Sampling Units). In a couple of Member States where the random route approach was unable to identify enough respondents for interviewing within a given time frame, interviewer-generated sampling was used as a fall-back approach to reach the required number of interviews.

The survey was mostly undertaken in each country’s largest cities and their metropolitan areas. In cases where, based on available population data, the selected target group was predominantly located outside the main cities, the sample was allocated accordingly. Through these means, the results for each Member State – using the survey’s multi-stage sampling approach - are representative of the groups surveyed living in these locations.

For a full description of the sampling approach adopted for the survey see the EU-MIDIS ‘Technical Report’, which is available at:

http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis

Gallup Europe undertook the fieldwork for EU-MIDIS under the supervision of FRA staff who took part in interviewer training sessions and observed fieldwork in selected Member States.
EU-MIDIS collected information about each respondent's personal characteristics, including: gender, age, mother tongue, citizenship, country of birth, length of residence in the country, employment status, household income, years of education, religion or belief. All results from the survey are made anonymous and for aggregate statistical purposes so that no individual can be identified. All information was given on a voluntary basis.

In addition, interviewers themselves filled out background information about the neighbourhood where each interview was conducted, and about the circumstances of the interview; for example, whether the interviewee was alone or not throughout the interview.

Findings on respondents' characteristics and interviewer-generated information will be made available as part of the full dataset through the Agency's website for further analysis by any interested party.

**Origins**

A significant part (24%) of the Muslims surveyed were born in their country of residence, and more than half (52%) had lived there for more than 10 years. However, the overwhelming majority (91%) does not consider the language of their country of residence as their mother tongue. In comparison with the majority of respondents surveyed, Muslims of Turkish ethnic origin are an indigenous group in Bulgaria.

**Socio-demographic data**

56% of the respondents were men and 44% women. 15% of the respondents had less than 5 years of education in total, indicating that they had not completed compulsory education, while 57% had 6-13 years of schooling, indicating that they had completed at least compulsory education, and 27% more than 14 years, indicating that they had some form of post secondary education. At the time of the interview, the rate of employment in paid jobs (self-employed or in full or part time work) was on average 59%. 14% stated that they were occupied with housework and 12% that they were unemployed. At the same time, the average age of the samples is not dramatically different from one country to another in a way that it could “naturally” affect activity rates: it ranges between 29 and 39 years, with the exception of the Turkish in Bulgaria, where the average age was 45 years.

**Cultural background and “visibility”**

Surveys of the majority population often compare results between Member States with little consideration given to differences between the populations surveyed – the results for EU-MIDIS should be interpreted with due consideration for the cultural diversity and composition of the Muslim groups surveyed.

European Muslims are a diverse mix of ethnicities, religious affiliation, philosophical beliefs, political persuasions, secular tendencies, languages and cultural traditions. While close to half of the respondents did not specify which religious denomination they belong to, when asked, almost as many (45%) identified themselves as Sunni, and smaller numbers identified themselves as Shia, Alevite, Ismaili, Sufi or Zayadi.

Regarding their “visibility”, the majority of respondents (63%) stated that they usually do not wear traditional or religious clothing (for example, headscarf) in public, different to the type of clothing typically worn in their country of residence. Of those that responded positively, the overwhelming majority (84%) were women.

**Segregation**

The Muslims of Turkish origin in Bulgaria live in predominantly segregated rural areas. The implications of this should be taken into account when looking at the results, as higher levels of spatial segregation imply that respondents are cut-off from mainstream society, which, on the one hand implies that they may experience high levels of discrimination, but, on the other hand, may serve to shelter them from discriminatory treatment as contact with the majority population is limited.
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 (http://fra.europa.eu).

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See also:
EU MIDIS at a glance – Introduction to the FRA’s EU-wide discrimination survey Technical Report (online)

Previous data in focus reports:
Data in Focus Report 1 – The Roma

http://fra.europa.eu/eu-midis