



No Place for Hate

Hate crimes and incidents in further and higher education: race and ethnicity



national union of students

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Foreword

On 3 January 2012 Gary Dobson and David Norris were finally convicted of the racist murder of Black student Stephen Lawrence. Stephen's murder has rightly received a lot of media attention due to the length of time taken to bring the perpetrators to justice but also the tireless campaigning of the Lawrence family. Unfortunately this is not an isolated incident; the murders of Ricky Reel and Anthony Walker, are other examples of Black students who have been killed in racist attacks in Britain within the last 15 years.

In February, figures on hate crimes from the Crown Prosecution Service showed the increase in numbers of hate crime prosecutions, more than 80 per cent of which were related to race and religion.

No Place for Hate could therefore not have come at a more critical time and it is important that we pause to reflect on the experiences of Black students (the terminology which the NUS Black Students' Campaign uses to collectively describe students with Asian, African, Caribbean and Arab heritage).

Going to college or university offers a truly life-changing experience for all. Gaining that all-important qualification can be more important for Black students, who face higher unemployment rates when they graduate than their white peers. Such aspirations can be destroyed when students are targeted by antisocial behaviour or crime because of their ethnicity.

Our report contains shocking findings. Of all hate incidents reported, those believed to be racially motivated were the most frequently selected by respondents. Unsurprisingly, many students live in fear that they will become victims of hate crime and many alter their behaviour accordingly. Many do not report incidents to their institution and fewer still to the police.

The impact of hate is far reaching with many respondents describing lower self-esteem, fear and isolation, as well as a detrimental impact on their studies. Many, for example, described how they had

considered dropping out and we might infer that a proportion of students do so every year.

Hate incidents also have broader implications. They affect the individual, but also their partners, family, friends and the wider community — both on and off campus. These experiences encourage mistrust, alienation and suspicion in student bodies and wider society, resulting in further isolation.

In tackling racial hate we must be mindful of the different experiences of students from different ethnic backgrounds. Students from a Chinese background, for example, were most likely to be victims of racial hate incidents. We must also take note of intersecting motivations such as nationality; international students being a group who also reported higher levels of hate incidents.

Furthermore, No Place for Hate must be seen in the context of the NUS report Race for Equality, published in 2011, which showed that many Black students found themselves marginalised within a teaching and learning environment which was designed by white academics.

Institutions therefore need to take a holistic approach to mainstreaming inclusion, with a strong stance on equality and firm commitment to zero tolerance. The ten recommendations within this report are designed to offer practical approaches to institutions, sector bodies and students' unions to prevent hate incidents and crimes that are destroying the aspirations of many Black students.

Kanja Sesay
Black Students' Officer

Pete Mercer
Vice President (Welfare)

Executive summary

This report is one of a series of four reports by the National Union of Students (NUS), which explores the extent and nature of hate incidents among students in further and higher education across the UK. This report focuses upon incidents believed to be motivated by prejudice against the victim's real or perceived race, ethnicity or national origin as reported in the survey. The other reports focus on hate incidents as a result of real or perceived:

- disability
- sexual orientation and gender identity
- religion and belief.

The reports are part of a larger project funded by the Home Office to reduce student victimisation.

Across the four reports we found that 16 per cent of all respondents had experienced at least one form of hate incident during their time at their current period of study.

Moreover, compared with victims of non-bias incidents, antisocial behaviour and crime in general, those who experienced hate incidents were more likely to be repeatedly victimised and suffer additional negative effects as a result. Despite this, few of these hate incidents were reported to authorities and consequently the affected students received little support from their institution or law enforcement agencies.

The other reports can be downloaded at:
www.nus.org.uk/research

About the research and respondents

Our research gathered the views of 9,229 students from across both higher education (HE) and further education (FE) in the UK and is the first nationwide, student-specific research of this scale into hate crime.

Respondents were asked to report their experiences of hate incidents in a range of categories, and indicate whether they believed the incident to be motivated, or partly motivated, by the perpetrator's prejudice against their actual or presumed: race/ethnicity, religion/belief, disability, sexual orientation or gender identity. This allowed us to compare 'bias' and 'non-bias' incidents.

The majority of those surveyed (89 per cent) were studying in England. Six per cent were studying in Wales, two per cent in Scotland, and three per cent in Northern Ireland.

Sixty-eight per cent of our respondents were at university while 28 per cent were at a further education or sixth form college. Smaller percentages were studying at adult and community learning providers, work-based learning providers or specialist colleges.

Seventy per cent of respondents were female and 29 per cent were male. A small minority (0.6 per cent, 51) preferred not to select their gender identity and 0.4 per cent (40) stated that their gender identity was not the same as that assigned at birth.

The self-identified ethnicity of respondents was as follows:

- white background 83 per cent
- Asian or Asian British background six per cent
- Black/black British background two per cent
- mixed race background four per cent
- Chinese two per cent
- an 'other' ethnicity not listed two per cent¹
- One per cent of respondents preferred not to select their ethnicity.

It is important to note that this survey was not intended to be statistically representative — the respondents to our survey were self-selecting. Readers should

therefore not attempt to extrapolate figures and percentages given in this report across the whole student population.

This report contains the preliminary analysis of survey results. When asked what their self-identified race or ethnicity was, a number of respondents (199) identified as 'other' rather than using one of the categorised listed in the survey questionnaire. This group has been excluded from the analysis for the purposes of this report, but will be used for further analysis in additional research.

Throughout the report we have quoted people's responses verbatim. We have not changed language they use to describe their identity or experience, though this may differ from language we use in the report. We have inserted words [in square brackets] where necessary and anonymised references to other individuals or locations to ensure the anonymity of respondents.

Key findings

The following summarises the headline findings of our research on students who have been targeted, or are worried about being targeted, because of prejudice against their race or ethnicity.

Fears of victimisation

Asian or Asian British respondents were the group most worried about being subject to abuse because of racial prejudice, with 48 per cent saying they were very or fairly worried. Forty-four per cent of Chinese respondents also felt very or fairly worried about being victimised because of their race, compared with only four per cent of white British respondents.

Forty-two per cent of black/black British respondents stated that their worries about prejudiced abuse caused them to alter their behaviour, personal appearance or daily patterns. Most notably, many respondents described how they altered travel patterns:

"I wouldn't catch certain buses that go through certain areas where my race is a minority. Such

as [location anonymised], as [I] have had physical attacks and theft before ..."

Respondents also described how they hid signs of their race/ethnic background or refrained from expressing themselves in accordance with their race/ethnic background, to minimise the risk of being racially targeted.

"Around close friends and family I will be my usual self but when around others I try not to act in any way that will make people think 'he's just like a typical coloured guy' ..."

A significant number of respondents reported being afraid of hate incidents because of a friend's or partner's ethnicity differing from their own.

"I avoid going into predominantly Asian areas because my partner is white. I do/would not live in a predominantly Asian neighbourhood for the same reason."

The extent and nature of hate incidents

Overall, 18 per cent of black/black British, Asian/Asian British, mixed race and Chinese respondents had experienced at least one racial hate incident during their current studies. The most common types of hate incidents were verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour.

Broken down by ethnicity, we found that Chinese respondents were most likely to be victims of most types of race hate incident — 30 per cent of respondents from this group had experienced at least one incident. Chinese people were also the least likely to be perpetrators of hate incidents, with none being identified in the survey as having been the sole perpetrator, and only two per cent of multiple perpetrator hate incidents involving at least one Chinese person. Nineteen per cent of Asian students stated they had been victimised because of a prejudice against their racial or ethnic identity. Fourteen per cent of black/black British students and 13 per cent of mixed race students had also experienced a racial hate incident.

“One of them [the perpetrators] grabbed my arm and was going, ‘Love me long time, long time?’ etc. All I could do was pull away and try to run. And all they did was saunter off laughing and yelling ‘Ni hao’ [hello in Mandarin] to the group of Chinese students walking towards them. They were brazenly racist and they knew no one was going to stop them.”

Our results also show that international or overseas students were more likely to experience hate-related incidents. Twenty-two per cent said they had experienced at least one racially motivated incident, compared with eight per cent of EU students and six per cent of UK-domiciled (home) students.

We also found that respondents reporting racially motivated incidents were more likely to experience repeated victimisation than those reporting non-bias incidents, with 42 per cent reporting this compared with only 23 per cent respectively.

Incident and perpetrator profile

Respondents most typically reported that racially motivated hate incidents against students took place in and around educational institutions — 42 per cent in total. Twelve per cent of this total took place in the learning environment (ie the classroom), and only two per cent occurred in the students’ union.

Of those who reported the time of day when the incident took place, more than half responded that the incident occurred during the morning or the afternoon (54 per cent).

In 68 per cent of cases, the incident involved more than one perpetrator. In 72 per cent of these cases, the perpetrators were strangers to the victim. In incidents involving a single perpetrator, the victim was more likely to know the perpetrator, with nearly half confirming that they knew the perpetrator (49 per cent).

Our data indicate that the perpetrators of race hate incidents were relatively young, particularly in cases involving multiple offenders. Respondents believed perpetrators to be aged between 16 and 24 in 67 per cent of incidents involving multiple perpetrators and 39 per cent of those involving a single perpetrator. However, respondents reported relatively high levels

of being ‘unsure’ of the perpetrator’s age; this being the case in 32 per cent of incidents involving a single perpetrator and 10 per cent of those involving multiple perpetrators.

Our results would also suggest perpetrators were most likely to be male, though not exclusively. In racially motivated incidents involving multiple perpetrators 57 per cent were all male, 34 per cent were mixed gender, and six per cent all female. There were also 5 per cent who were not sure of the gender of the perpetrators. With single perpetrator incidents, 53 per cent were male, 12 per cent were female a further 35 per cent of respondents were unsure of the gender of the perpetrator. Of those that were able to identify the gender, this equates to 81 per cent male and 19 per cent female.

Reporting of hate incidents

In most types of incidents, victims of racially motivated incidents reported their experience to authorities less frequently than victims of non-bias motivated incidents.

Reporting of racially motivated incidents low, with only 13 per cent of respondents having confirmed they reported it to someone in an official role at their institution. Of these, respondents most often had reported the incident to a member of academic staff (57 per cent). This highlights the importance of academic staff being aware of how best to offer personal support to victims and signpost to further help available for them.

Reporting to the police was even lower, with only ten per cent of respondents saying that they had done so. The corresponding figure for respondents of non-bias incidents was nearly double at 19 per cent. Thirty five per cent of respondents reported racially motivated vandalism, property damage or theft to the police – which was significantly higher than for any other type of incident. Twenty per cent of students who were victims of racially motivated physical abuse or mistreatment reported it to the police whilst only five per cent reported verbal abuse.

Students cited various reasons for not reporting hate incidents. In 40 per cent of racially motivated incidents

the victim did not think the police could, or would, do anything. Other common reasons included thinking that their report would not be taken seriously (35 per cent) or feeling too ashamed or embarrassed to report an incident (12 per cent).

In many cases respondents detailed positive experiences of reporting incidents to their educational institution or the police.

“The member of staff was one that I trusted and was very concerned over my behaviour in class. When I reported the incident, I was offered support and some time off for when I felt unwell.”

“The police informed my local beat officer who was very polite and made regular checks at our home ... The police officers who came to my home to record the incident offered information about local ethnic group meetings and communities I could get in touch with to discuss the hate crime.”

However a number of respondents recorded negative experiences.

“No action was taken [by officials at my institution], despite me being able to identify the student in question.”

“The police never took it seriously at all — they seemed to have higher priorities.”

Many respondents indicated they would have reported the incident if they had been able to:

- remain anonymous
- report through indirect or non face-to-face contact with the police
- speak to a police officer who was a member of their ethnic, cultural or social group.

The impact on victims

Our research shows that victims of hate incidents suffer a range of psychological and emotional responses, from lowered self-confidence and insecurity to depression and anxiety.

For some victims, the incidents affected their studies. Indeed, more than half of victims of race hate incidents (54 per cent) had considered leaving their course as a result of their experience. About the same number said that hate incidents had a negative impact on their social life.

Some respondents described how they now fear talking to strangers, or have changed whether, where and when they go out in public.

“I never feel safe anywhere any more — at work, on public transport, even at home. I wake up in the middle of the night thinking something is going to happen or I get flashbacks. I’m very panicky and scared.”

Twenty-one per cent of racially motivated incidents negatively affected the victim’s mental health, compared with 12 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.

“Everyone who is from China is worried about their safety ... and will choose to go home early before it turns dark.”

The research also showed that victims of racially motivated incidents were more likely to have their experience affect their acceptance of other social groups. With 22 per cent reporting this, compared with only 4 per cent of those reporting non-bias motivated incidents.

Recommendations

The following 10 recommendations are aimed at further education (FE) and higher education (HE) institutions and organisations working with them. However, they may be of interest to law enforcement practitioners and agencies as well as students’ unions. We hope that these recommendations will be considered by all colleges and universities and will help in the development of a cross-sector strategy to tackle hate and prejudice experienced by students across the UK. The recommendations are listed again at the end of the report in more detail.

1. Demonstrate a firm commitment to equality and diversity

FE and HE institutions should demonstrate a strong commitment to equality and diversity and work to celebrate these values through clear and widely publicised codes of conduct, equality and diversity policies, and complaint and reporting procedures. Institutions should consider setting a specific objective on tackling hate crime as part of their public sector equality duty.

2. Develop preventative and educational activity on prejudice and hate

Colleges and universities should work to foster good relations among students and raise awareness of what constitutes a hate incident and the negative impact of this behaviour on the victim. This might include discussion and interactive work within the classroom, as well as through events that celebrate diversity and encourage integration.

3. Stop or mitigate against hate incidents

FE and HE institutions must make it clear that hate-related behaviour is not acceptable, through the active enforcement of student and staff codes of conduct and the introduction of zero tolerance policies.

4. Establish multi-agency, joined-up approaches to tackling hate

Colleges and universities should work to establish partnerships with local police authorities, voluntary sector organisations and local authorities to develop a cross-sector strategy to reduce hate within, as well as outside, the institution.

5. Strengthen existing support services

FE and HE institutions should ensure that those working in their counselling and advice services are aware of the mental health impact of hate incidents and recognise that even low-level incidents can have serious implications for victims' self-esteem and self confidence.

6. Establish strong support networks

Black students' groups and officers often act as a support network for students who may have been victims of hate incidents and/or crimes, as do a multitude of other student clubs or societies related to specific ethnicities, nationalities, cultures or faith groups. As such, they should be able to access financial backing and support to ensure open access to their services. Colleges, universities and students' unions should also ensure that these types of groups are well connected to wider support services and committees within their institution.

7. Encourage reporting of, and maintain systematic records on, hate incidents

Many respondents did not report incidents to authorities — including the police and their institution — because they believed them to be too trivial, or that reporting would not make a difference. Students need to know that hate incidents are taken seriously and that reporting them influences preventative work within educational institutions and in wider society, as well as potentially leading to disciplinary action against perpetrators.

8. Provide flexible options to report hate incidents

Colleges and universities should establish a variety of mechanisms for reporting hate incidents. This might include self-reporting online and on-campus reporting and advice centres, as well as publicising third party reporting through other agencies.

9. Promote greater confidence in reporting mechanisms

Better protocols for interviewing and debriefing people who have experienced hate incidents are needed, together with assurances of confidentiality for victims, who often fear reprisals. Victims should be assured that their reports will be taken seriously and will be consistently and thoroughly investigated and recorded.

10. Provide clear guidance on the law

It is vital that guidance on what constitutes a hate crime, the rights of victims, and the criminal justice procedure itself, are developed and made available to students and their support networks.

Introduction

Research into hate crime in the UK has been a relatively recent field of study, largely emerging after the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry and the Macpherson Report in 1999². Most existing UK research has focused on specific groups and their experiences of specific prejudices; very few studies have included individuals who do not self-identify in the group in question and even more rarely have they provided for the possibility of multiple biases.

This report is one of a series which detail the findings of a survey carried out by NUS into the extent and nature of hate incidents experienced by students in UK further and higher education. It primarily focuses upon incidents believed to be motivated by prejudice against the victim's real or perceived race, ethnicity or national origin as reported in the survey, though we recognise that hate may be motivated by multiple biases and we provide some discussion on this issue.

What is hate crime?

The concept of hate crime is broad and complex. It is not defined by a single form of conduct, as other crimes are, but encompasses various forms of conduct such as:

- physical abuse
- verbal abuse and harassment
- threats
- property damage
- the production and dissemination of hostile propaganda (eg leaflets and graffiti).

What would make these otherwise distinct offences hate crimes is the perpetrator's motivation by prejudice towards the social group to which the victim belongs, or is perceived to belong.

Hate crime is particularly harmful because it is committed in response to some unchangeable characteristic of the victim. The harm suffered may include physical, behavioural and emotional responses, and may have long-term repercussions. At the same

time, hate crime perpetrated against an individual in effect acts as condemnation or rejection of the victim's social group as a whole.

The perpetrators of hate crime usually belong to a dominant social group. In 2011, 73 per cent of defendants in racially and religiously aggravated hate crime prosecutions were white British, and 83 per cent were males.³ The broader harm therefore is through perpetuating systemic inequality through social subordination and exclusion.⁴

Whilst unlawful conduct in which the perpetrator is motivated by prejudice against the victim's perceived characteristics is not a new phenomenon, the term 'hate crime' has only gained currency since the 1980s and remains a relatively new area of research. There are a number of differing perspectives that seek to explain the causes and effects of hate crime and the social, political, and economic contexts in which it is more likely to occur.⁵ Most empirical studies record rates of hate crime committed by one social group and/or suffered by another social group. However, this often fails to reveal the interrelation of multiple circumstances and conditions that give rise to hate crime. The theory of 'intersectionality' addresses this by attempting to investigate how hate crime is attributable to a number of prejudices and factors including gender, sexuality, location, socio-economic position and nationality as well as ethnicity. Intersectional research is, therefore, crucial to developing a refined understanding of the nature and patterns of hate crime.

Although some incidents of hate crime amount to criminal acts and are fuelled by hate, as this report shows, the most common incidents are neither strictly criminal nor hateful. Rather, perpetrators are most likely using degrading language out of ignorance, eg on the basis of belief in stereotypes or to win respect from their peers. Furthermore, a significant proportion of these incidents tend to be 'everyday' occurrences that are not, in isolation, perceived by the perpetrators to cause any real harm. Indeed, many incidents occur widely among students and others and enjoy social acceptance. It is therefore difficult, especially for those

who are not victims of hate crime, to see the cumulative harm that results from its continual occurrence.

Existing legislation

The Crime and Disorder Act 1998 sections 29–32 contain 'primary offences' relating to racially aggravated assault and harassment. These offences are committed if the court finds "demonstration towards the victim of hostility based on his [or her] membership of a racial group."⁶ The legal criterion of 'hostility' demonstrates that the law now better recognises the particular injustice of hate crime and that a racially motivated assault, for example, is not the same thing as a non-bias motivated assault.

The Equality Act 2010, which replaced a number of pieces of equality legislation including the Race Relations Act 1976 and the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000, provides legal protection from direct and indirect discrimination on the ground of race. In addition, public authorities —including further and higher education institutions — are subject to the public sector equality duty under the Act. This means they must work actively to eliminate discrimination, victimisation and harassment as well as foster good relations between students and staff from different ethnic backgrounds.

The Protection from Harassment Act 1997 makes it an offence to knowingly pursue a course of conduct amounting to harassment. Considering the slow-burn nature of much hate crime, the 1997 Act helps to target behaviour which is "continuous and where the whole is infinitely worse than the sum of the parts or any individual part".⁷ In an important modification to the criminal law, the Criminal Justice Act 2003, section 145, increases the gravity of an offence if it is racially aggravated. This is then reflected in the severity of sentencing. However, although the law now better recognises the particular harm and trauma caused by hate crime, and racially motivated hate crime in particular, it is in general developing in a fragmentary and piecemeal fashion.

Reporting and prosecutions

In 2007, the British Crime Survey reported that the actual number of hate crimes – estimated at 184,000 – was three times the number of reported hate crimes (at 61,000).⁸ As these statistics show, the police and the criminal justice system in general have struggled to respond to hate crime. Due to severe under-reporting, the law is often not engaged in hate incidents at all. There are many reasons for under-reporting, as discussed in the Reporting of hate incidents section of this report. Even when hate incidents are reported, prosecutions are often thwarted by victims withdrawing from the prosecution⁹ and the lack of an 'essential legal element',¹⁰ reflecting the holes in the law.

Despite the relatively few relevant legal sources, law enforcement against hate crime appears to be becoming more effective, with the Crown Prosecution Service reporting an increase in conviction rates for racially and religiously aggravated crimes during the period from 2007–08 to 2008–09 and a decrease in unsuccessful prosecutions.¹¹ This trend has continued, with the Crown Prosecution Service bringing record numbers — 83 per cent — of successful prosecutions through the courts in 2010–11, 83 per cent of which were race or religion related.¹² In an effort to encourage reporting, third party reporting centres have been established to enable victims to report incidents without going directly to the police, and police constabularies around the UK are becoming involved in multi-agency efforts to monitor and respond to hate crime in a co-ordinated way.¹³

Stephen Lawrence

The stabbing of Stephen Lawrence in south London in 1993, and the subsequent campaign fought by his parents upon the failure of the police to properly investigate, exposed major flaws in the police and criminal justice system responses to racial hate crimes. The Macpherson Inquiry, set up in the wake of Stephen's murder, looked at the original Metropolitan Police Service investigation and concluded that the force was "institutionally racist".

The Macpherson Report,¹⁴ together with other sources of political pressure, prompted a major overhaul within police services. Changes included scrapping the 'double jeopardy' rule, which prevented a defendant being tried twice for the same crime, the emergence of 24-hour reporting services (though they are not yet universal) and less ambiguity in police codes of conduct.

Ten years on from the Macpherson Report, the Equality and Human Rights Commission commented that "there has been significant progress"¹⁵ in this area and the British Crime Survey reported that since 1995 racially motivated incidents have halved. However, as noted above, the estimated number of actual hate crimes is still high and the majority of incidents are not reported to the police.¹⁶ Moreover, as this report shows, the police still have a long way to go to ensure that victims perceive them as the main source of help in low-level incidents, from which more serious incidents follow.

Key definitions and terminology

Hate incident

Any incident, which may or may not constitute a criminal offence, which is perceived by the victim or any other person as being motivated by prejudice or hate (Association of Chief Police Officers). This may also be referred to as a 'bias motivated incident'. Correspondingly, incidents not believed to be motivated by prejudice or hate may be referred to as a 'non-bias motivated incident'.

Hate crime

Any hate incident, which constitutes a criminal offence, perceived by the victim or any other person as being motivated by prejudice or hate (Association of Chief Police Officers).

Black

When referred to singly and with an upper case 'B', this represents all students from African, Arab, Asian and Caribbean communities and is the collective term used by the NUS Black Students Campaign. This is

used only in the Foreword and Recommendations of this document.

Black/black British

This refers to people who self-identified as having either a black or black British ethnicity (eg Caribbean, African or other black background).

Research method

Between October 2010 and February 2011, NUS conducted an online survey of students across the UK. The survey examined students' knowledge and understanding of hate incidents or hate crimes, their awareness of current initiatives on campus relating to hate incidents and their experiences of a variety of forms of antisocial behaviour and crime, including:

- verbal abuse or threats of violence
- physical mistreatment
- vandalism or property damage
- burglary, robbery or theft
- the distribution or display of abusive, threatening or insulting material
- abusive, threatening or insulting written communication intended to distress or harass.

The survey was developed after extensive research into existing data on hate crime in the UK and best practice in conducting surveys of this nature. The study was open to all students studying in further and higher education and collected 9,229 valid responses across the UK.

Although information was collected on all incidents reported, respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they believed the incident to be motivated, or partly motivated, by the perpetrator's prejudice towards them based on their presumed or actual:

- race, ethnicity or national origin
- religion or belief
- disability

- sexual orientation
- gender identity
- association with people with a certain race or ethnicity, religion or belief, disability, sexual orientation and/or gender identity
- for another reason.

For every incident type reported, the respondent was given a series of follow-up questions concerning the details of the incident and perpetrator/s, whether or not they reported it and to whom, and the impact they believed the incident had upon them. The set of follow-up questions for each incident type was identical, allowing us to compile data across all incident types and provide aggregate statistics on incidents and perpetrators, reporting and impact. This report largely provides statistics as a percentage of incidents reported in the survey, though when relevant it will also include discussion on individual types of incidents. For a detailed breakdown of our respondent demographics, please see Appendix 1.

It is important to note that this survey was not intended to be statistically representative — the respondents to our survey were self-selecting. Readers should therefore not attempt to extrapolate figures and percentages given in this report across the whole student population.

Data analysis

Quantitative data from the survey was analysed using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software and Excel. Themes identified in the qualitative data are reflected in this report using a selection of quotations from student survey respondents.

Please note that percentages cited in this report have been calculated from only the number of participants who answered the question and exclude any missing responses. Where the totals in the tables add up to more than 100 per cent this is due to participants selecting multiple responses.

Table 1

Ethnicity	Percentage
White:	
White British	72.8%
White Irish	2.1%
Other white background	7.7%
Total	82.6%
Asian/Asian British	
Indian	2.8%
Bangladeshi	0.5 %
Pakistani	1.6%
Other Asian background	1.3%
Total	6.1%
Black/black British	
Black Caribbean	1.0%
Black African	1.4%
Other black background	0.1%
Total	2.4%
Mixed	
White and black Caribbean	0.9%
White and black African	0.3%
White and Asian	1.2%
Other mixed background	1.2%
Total	3.6%
Chinese	2.0%
Other	2.2%
Prefer not to say	1.1%

Fear of victimisation

“I wouldn’t catch certain buses that go through certain areas where my race is a minority... as [I] have had physical attacks and theft before ...”

Key findings

- Asian / Asian British respondents were most worried about being subject to abuse because of racial prejudice, with almost half (48 per cent) stating they were very or fairly worried about this. Forty-four per cent of Chinese respondents also felt very or fairly worried about becoming victims because of their race. This compares to only four per cent of white British and seven per cent of white Irish respondents.
- Forty-two per cent of black/black British respondents stated that their worries about prejudiced abuse caused them to alter their behaviour, personal appearance or daily patterns. The most frequent kind of behavioural change reported was in respondents' daily travel patterns.
- Recurrent throughout the qualitative data are descriptions of the different ways in which hid

signs of, or refrained from expressing themselves in accordance with, their race or ethnic background in order to minimize the risk of being racially targeted.

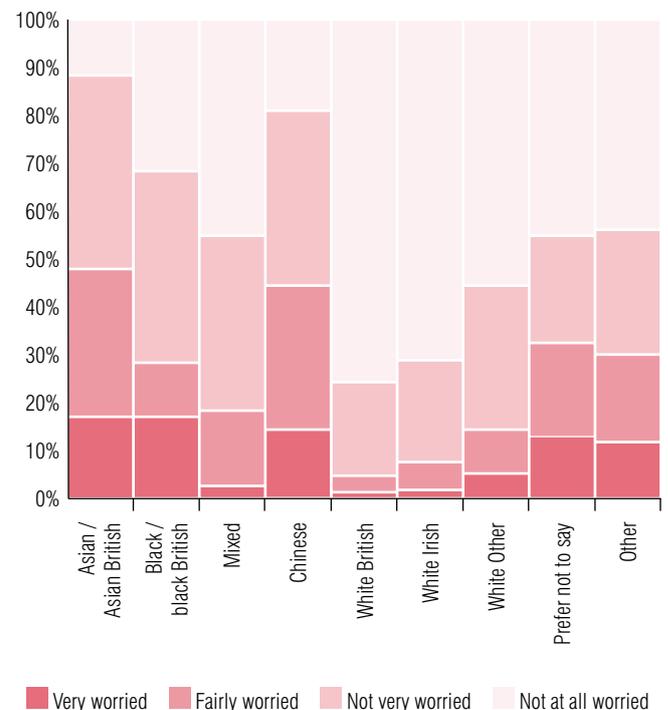
- Some respondents from ethnic minority groups reported trying to avoid conforming to stereotypes or perceived norms of their group to avert negative judgements and actions. Some even reported actively aligning their appearance or behaviour with those of majority groups to reduce their risk of experiencing hate incidents.
- A notable number of respondents reported being afraid of race hate incidents because of their friend's or partner's ethnicity, eg members of mixed race couples.

Worries of victimisation

We asked respondents how worried they were about being subject to a variety of incidents because of their actual or perceived race, ethnicity or national origin. As Chart 1 illustrates, this varied depending on the ethnicity of the respondent, with respondents from black/black British, Asian/Asian British, mixed race and Chinese backgrounds indicating far higher levels of worry.

Asian or Asian British respondents were most worried about being subject to abuse because of racial prejudice, with almost one in two (48 per cent) expressing they were very or fairly worried. Forty-four per cent of Chinese respondents also felt very or fairly worried about becoming victimised because of their race, as did 38 per cent of black/black British and 17 per cent of mixed race students surveyed. Fifteen per cent of 'white other' respondents reported this level of concern, which is significantly higher than that of white British (four per cent) or white Irish (seven per cent).

Chart 1. How worried are you about being subject to abuse because of your actual or perceived race, ethnicity or national origin?



Behaviour change due to worries about racial prejudice

Worries about prejudiced victimisation — whether related to race or to other characteristics — clearly affected students' everyday lives. Black/black British respondents were most likely to report behaviour change as a result of these fears, with 42 per cent stating that their worries caused them to alter their behaviour, personal appearance or daily patterns. Thirty-six per cent of Asian / Asian British, 32 per cent of mixed race and 31 per cent of Chinese respondents also reported this.

The most frequent kind of behavioural change reported was in respondents' daily travel patterns. As the following qualitative data show, these changes related to the routes people take, their destinations and times of travel. These changes are sometimes made because of past experiences of racial victimisation in certain places and/or at certain times, or because individuals feel vulnerable in certain areas and/or at certain times because of the possibility of race hate incidents. Notably, the data show that respondents often avoided certain areas that are, or are reputed to be, predominated by people of a different ethnic group.

“When walking down the street if there is a large group of people of any race, I would feel anxious ... so would cross the road.”

“[I] avoid venues such as local pubs due to the mild fear of racist remarks from drunken punters.”

“I’m avoiding going to [location anonymised] because of the planned English Defence League rally, because such groups tend to assume that people of Asian descent or with Muslim beliefs are terrorists, and I don’t want to be caught in any violence because of that.”

“[I] try to avoid travelling late at night as a lone female. [I] avoid known racist areas as a black female.”

“Perhaps avoid areas where I believe I will be subjected to verbal abuse due to my ethnicity.”

“I cannot take some particular routes to school for fear of being beaten up or molested due to my race.”

“Before Christmas I was attacked both physically and verbally in my campus ... by 6–7 teenagers (who were not the students of my university) ... Now I avoid ... that area and if I have an exam ... there it makes me extremely nervous ... Also because the school main library is at that area I cannot use the library.”

“I altered my bus journey due to racial abuse.”

Attempts to ‘blend in’

Respondents provided numerous descriptions of the ways in which they hide signs of their race, ethnic background or nationality. They gave examples of restricting language, dress and behavior to minimise the risk of being racially targeted. This effort to ‘blend in’ in some cases took the form of speaking English even when not their first language:

“[I] try to blend in by not using my first language in public just when it is really necessary, make British friends not ... Eastern Europeans, [and] try to live a ‘British’ life.”

“... Some people have already been racist towards me. I speak perfect English, with almost no ... accent, however people at my school know that I am not English. People have called me names and [I have] been hit. When I speak to my dad ... I speak to him in English in public on the phone, in case some people hear me talking in [language anonymised] and will act aggressive towards me or will make comments.”

“[I] do not speak my first language in public ...” “I ... choose to dress in a more modern trend rather than wearing traditional clothing.”

trying to eliminate their accent:

“[I] hide [my] accent.”

“[I] enunciate properly when meeting people for the first time so that I am not boxed as a ‘typical ghetto black man’.”

“I change my accent if I believe someone might take against me because I am [nationality anonymised]. This does not happen as much as it did when I first came to this country in 1983.”

“I’m white, but not English — I know I get judged because of my nationality, so I try to hide it by evading certain questions and by putting a lot of effort into sounding English.”

or wearing western clothes rather than traditional clothing:

“If in a really western area, I’m less likely to wear Asian clothing. And I’ve stopped wearing a headscarf.”

“I often have to dress down when going into certain areas, as there is a large Muslim population I don’t feel safe wearing my normal clothes as it may attract unwanted attention and verbal abuse.”

“Sometimes I think twice before wearing traditional Indian clothing on special occasions, thinking maybe I might be treated differently.”

It is clear from the data that some respondents were acutely aware of connotations and stereotypes associated with their social groups or subgroups. In order to avert judgments and actions based on such perceptions, some respondents reported trying to avoid conforming to stereotypes or perceived norms of their group. Some even reported actively aligning themselves with the norms of majority groups.

“[I] act less stereotypically ‘black’ so people don’t perceive me this way and make assumptions about the way I will behave.”

“I make sure I don’t dress how stereotypes from my ethnic background dress, and try to avoid going to the stereotypical places they would go to, because people are very judgemental and some very not accepting.”

“[I avoid] dressing a certain way to avoid being stereotyped.”

“As a non-British person I sometimes feel like I have to put in more effort to make friends.”

“If someone says something racist and laughs, I will laugh to make them think it’s not hurting me, when in actual fact it is. It sometimes makes me ashamed about being from where I’m from. I get very uncomfortable when people start talking about someone from my own country etc.”

“I will dress more mature because I do not want to be perceived as a rude or intimidating black female.”

Some respondents reported withhold information about their nationality or ethnicity, avoiding certain groups or particular conversations due to concerns around people’s misconceptions or prejudices. The data also show that this effect is particularly characteristic of people from ethnic minorities who are more prone to feeling that they are the outsiders.

“Not telling the real country I am from ... in situations where I’ve got the feeling that people wouldn’t like the country I am from.”

“Do not always tell people your full ethnicity.”

A significant number of respondents reported being afraid of victimisation because of their friend’s or partner’s ethnicity differing from their own. Many respondents therefore reported avoiding certain places and situations:

“I am white and do not as such feel worried about attacks against me personally. However, my partner is Asian and we share a house. We have already been subject to attacks and vandalism and thus my partner’s ethnic identity also affects me. I would certainly be careful when going out alone and also I will not be happy if he comes home late. I will make sure not to dress or behave provocatively or not to talk with my partner ... whenever ... people that I ... suspect might attack us pass by — so that they will not get any reason to start troubling us, which has happened often.”

“I avoid going into predominantly Asian areas because my partner is white. I do/would not live in a predominantly Asian neighbourhood for the same reason.”

“Although I’m white, my best friend’s British Indian and there’s certain areas we don’t walk through at night just in case, or we put up our hoods and try to look tough when we walk past threatening looking people to show that we aren’t scared ...”

“My husband is of Jamaican origin and my three children [are] mixed race. I am very aware of avoiding certain situations after suffering racism directly due to my choice of husband.”

“I am in a mixed race relationship and would avoid certain areas or bars and clubs if I thought it might cause an issue. This is more about myself being white, going to mainly Asian areas with my boyfriend. I am likely to receive abuse, not him.”

“When I am with my wife, who is from an ethnic minority, we avoid certain areas due to the extreme xenophobia encountered.”

The extent and nature of incidents

'One of them [the perpetrators] grabbed my arm and was going, 'Love me long time, long time?' etc. All I could do was pull away and try to run. All they did was saunter off laughing and yelling 'ni hao' [hello in Mandarin] to the group of Chinese students walking towards them. They were brazenly racist and they knew no-one was going to stop them'

Key findings

- Racial prejudice was believed to be a motivating factor in 30 per cent of hate incidents, constituting 11 per cent of all incidents reported. Overall, 18 per cent of black/black British, Asian/Asian British, mixed and Chinese respondents experienced at least one racial hate incident during their current studies, compared with only three per cent of white British students.
- Verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour were the most common forms of hate incident experienced, with low numbers of other incidents reported in the survey.
- Chinese respondents were most likely to be victims, with 30 per cent reporting a racial hate incident. Nineteen per cent of Asian / Asian British stated they had been victimised because of a prejudice against their racial or ethnic identity. 15 per cent of black/black British students and 13 per cent of mixed race students also reported a racial hate incident compared to only 3 per cent of white British respondents.
- International or overseas respondents were more likely than home students to be targeted out of racial prejudice. Twenty-two per cent of international or overseas students had experienced at least one racially motivated incident, compared with eight per cent of EU students and six per cent of UK-domiciled (home) students.
- Respondents who identified as 'white other' were more likely to be racially victimised if they were also an international student. This could suggest that hate incidents experienced by this group may be related to other factors, including culture, nationality and accent, as well as ethnicity.
- Respondents reporting racially motivated incidents were more likely to experience repeated victimisation than respondents reporting non-bias incidents. The difference between racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents was particularly striking in experiences of verbal abuse, threatening behaviour and threats of violence: 42 per cent of racially motivated incidents occurred several or many times, compared with 23 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.

We asked respondents whether they had been victims of any of the following incident types:

- verbal abuse or threats of violence
- physical mistreatment
- vandalism or property damage
- burglary, robbery or theft
- distribution or display of abusive, threatening or insulting material
- abusive, threatening or insulting written communication intended to distress or harass.

We asked respondents a sequence of follow-up questions regarding the one incident, or series of incidents, they considered to be the most serious in each category of incident they had experienced.

Racial prejudice was believed to have been a motivating factor in 30 per cent of hate incidents, constituting 11 per cent of all incidents reported. Overall, 18 per cent of black/black British, Asian/Asian British, mixed race and Chinese respondents experienced at least one racial hate incident during their current studies, compared with only three per cent of white British respondents. Verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour were the most common forms of hate incident experienced, with low numbers of other incidents reported in the survey.

“I don't usually tell people I first meet I'm German. Nothing serious, just to avoid tedious Nazi jokes.”

“Not letting [it] hang out that I am not English in certain situations.”

A far greater proportion of Chinese respondents (30 per cent) had suffered racially motivated incidents than any other group of respondents. Nineteen per cent of Asian / Asian British stated they had been victimised because of a prejudice against their racial or ethnic identity. Fifteen per cent of black/black British students and 13 per cent of mixed race students also reported a racial hate incident.

International students

It was evident from our data that international or overseas respondents were more likely than home students to experience race hate incidents. Twenty-two per cent of international or overseas students stated they had experienced at least one racially motivated incident, compared with eight per cent of EU students and six per cent UK-domiciled (home) students.

The highest reporting group of international students were Chinese; of those Chinese respondents who had experienced a race-related incident, 61 per cent were international students. The second highest were Asian or Asian British students of whom 33 per cent of those who had experienced a race-related incident were international students.

Interestingly, more than half (57 per cent) of 'white other' respondents who reported being a victim of a hate incident were either EU or international students, suggesting that perception of nationality is also a motivating, or intersecting, factor in the occurrence of hate incidents.

Repeat victimisation

Our survey sought to find out whether, and the extent to which, respondents who reported victimisation had experienced this repeatedly. We asked victims of racially motivated incidents and victims of non-bias motivated incidents whether they had been victimised once or twice, several times or many times.

Our findings show that, while a higher proportion of respondents reporting non-bias motivated incidents were victimised once or twice, a higher proportion of

respondents reporting racially motivated incidents were victimised several or many times. This was true for every type of incident, with the exception of written communication intended to harass, distress or alarm. The difference between racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents was particularly striking in experiences of verbal abuse, threatening behaviour and threats of violence. Forty-two per cent of these racially motivated incidents occurred several or many times, compared with only 23 per cent of equivalent incidents that were non-bias motivated.

Verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour

From the total sample, 1,639 students had experienced at least one incident of verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour while studying at their current institution. Nearly a fifth (19 per cent) of these respondents (306) believed the most serious experience to be motivated by prejudice against their race.

Ninety-four per cent of those reporting a racially motivated incident in this category had experienced threatening, abusive or insulting words. Twenty-eight per cent experienced threatening behaviour or threats of violence.

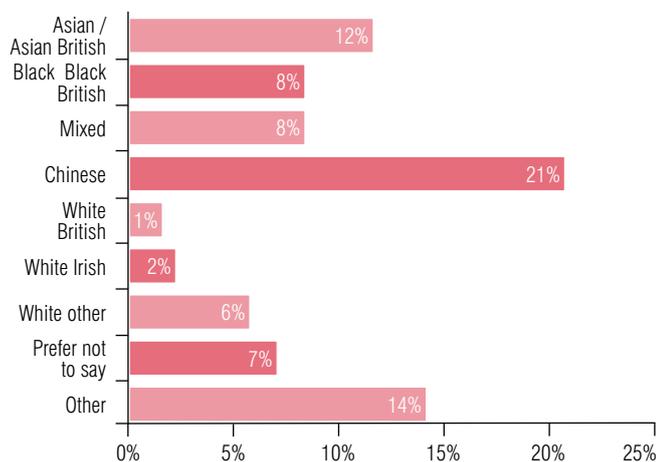
'One time two Asian men stopped me to ask for directions to Piccadilly Train Station and when I started to politely give them directions they burst out laughing, and one of them said, "Oh it's ok, I just wanted to check if you spoke English." It was horrible and nasty'

"Usually it's ""Ni hao"" said smugly behind my back. Other times they scream it in my face as I walk."

As Chart 2 illustrates, when incident reporting rates were compared by ethnic group, Chinese students were found to have reported the most incidents of this nature. Twenty-one per cent of Chinese students reported they had experienced this type of incident. This compared with 12 per cent of Asian or Asian British

respondents. An equal proportion (eight per cent) of black/black British and mixed race respondents reported such incidents.

Chart 2. Proportion of respondents subjected to racially motivated verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour, by ethnicity



Looking at these results in greater detail reveals that, in the Asian or Asian British category of respondents, the highest proportion were of an 'other Asian background' (19 per cent), followed by Bangladeshi respondents (12 per cent), Pakistani respondents (11 per cent) and Indian respondents (10 per cent).

Similarly, the highest proportion of black/black British respondents reporting such incidents were of an 'other black background' (11 per cent), followed by respondents of African ethnicity (nine per cent) and respondents of Caribbean ethnicity (seven per cent). In the 'mixed' category of respondents, those who identified as 'white and black African' constituted the highest proportion of students reporting incidents of verbal abuse, threats of violence or threatening behaviour. By contrast, only one per cent of white British and two per cent of white Irish respondents reported these incidents.

Physical abuse

From the total sample, 1,377 students (15 per cent) experienced one or more forms of physical mistreatment while studying at their current institution. These ranged from relatively 'low-level' incidents such

as being spat upon, held down or physically blocked, to more serious incidents such as unwanted sexual contact, being choked, dragged, burned or assaulted with a weapon. Nine per cent of students who had experienced physical maltreatment (128) believed their most serious experience of physical abuse was motivated by prejudice against their race.

The most frequent type of physical abuse experienced was being followed or chased: 41 per cent of respondents reported this. Thirty-four per cent of respondents reported being pushed, slapped or shoved, and 32 per cent reported having had something thrown at them.

Table 2. Types of physical abuse experienced by respondents

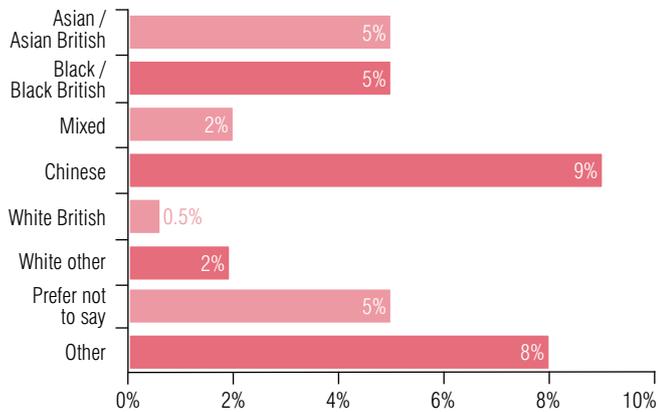
Type of physical abuse	Percentage of respondents
Followed or chased	41%
Pushed, slapped, shoved etc	34%
Something thrown at them	32%
Spat upon	20%
Held down or physically blocked	20%
Unwanted sexual contact	18%
Kicked, bitten or hit with a fist or something else that could hurt them	11%
Another form of physical abuse	9%
Weapon used against them	3%
Choked, dragged, strangled or burned	2%

Please note: respondents were able to select multiple responses to this question, therefore the values add up to more than 100 per cent.

As Chart 3 shows, when incident reporting rates were compared by ethnic group, Chinese students were found to have reported the most incidents of this nature. Nine per cent of Chinese students reported they had experienced this type of incident, and then equal proportions of Asian or Asian British and black/black

British (both five per cent) no white Irish students and fewer than one per cent of white British students had experienced physical abuse during their current course.

Chart 3. Proportion of respondents subjected to racially motivated physical abuse, by ethnicity

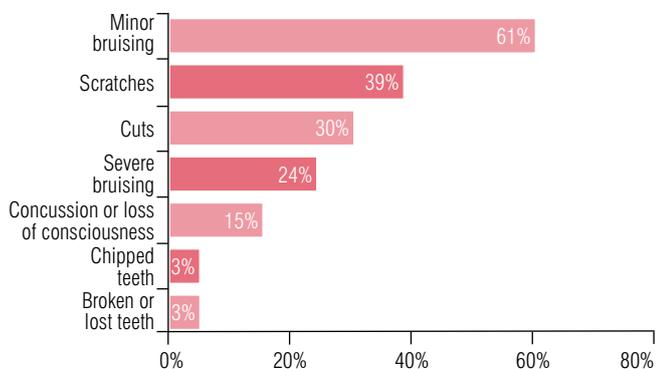


Please note: ethnicities in which no respondent reported a racially motivated incident of physical abuse are excluded from this graph — ie white Irish and white other.

Injuries

We asked what type of injuries students sustained as a result of the physical abuse they received. The majority of respondents (61 per cent) reported minor bruising or a black eye. Thirty-nine per cent reported scratches, 30 per cent reported cuts and 24 per cent reported severe bruising. A significant minority also sustained concussion or loss of consciousness, chipped teeth or broken or lost teeth. In 55 per cent of incidents of physical abuse, more than one perpetrator was involved.

Chart 4. Type of injury



Vandalism, property damage or theft

We asked respondents if they had experienced at least one of the following while studying at their institution:

- vandalism — someone deliberately defacing or doing damage to their house, flat or halls of residence, or anything outside it
- property damage — someone deliberately damaging, tampering with or vandalising their property (eg personal belongings, motor vehicle, bicycle, wheelchair or other property)
- personal theft — personal belongings stolen out of their hands, bag, pockets or locker
- personal theft outside their home — eg from their doorstep, garden or garage
- robbery — someone taking, or attempting to take, something from them by force or threat of force
- burglary — someone illegally entering their residence to steal or attempt to steal their belongings, inflict bodily harm or cause criminal damage.

From the total sample, 1336 (fourteen per cent) stated they had experienced at least one incident of vandalism or property damage while studying at their current institution. Five per cent (69) of these students believed the most serious incident to be motivated by prejudice against their race.

When compared by ethnic group, Chinese and Asian/Asian British respondents were the highest reporting groups in this category. Four per cent of both groups reported they had experienced this type of incident. In finer detail, however, the data show that, among Asian and Asian British respondents, Bangladeshi respondents and those from an other Asian background reported the highest frequencies of such incidents (seven per cent each).

The following quotations illustrate the types of damage to property and vandalism students experienced:

“Eggs and potentially other objects thrown at the windows of the property.”

“Cars scratched, car tyres slashed or let down, skateboards and balls stolen from garden, defacing plants and side of house.”

“My bag was taken and thrown into the bin. When I picked it up there was writing on it which said ‘Paki’ all over.”

“Our clothes [have] been put on fire in the garden. [The] front door’s glass [has] been cracked and a bicycle stole from our garden.”

Distribution or display of abusive, insulting or threatening materials

From the total sample 635 (seven per cent) of respondents experienced the distribution or display of writing, signs or visible representations they found to be threatening, abusive or insulting (for example, graffiti or leaflets). Of this seven per cent, more than one in three respondents (216) believed the most serious incident to have been motivated by a prejudice against their race.

Of those who reported seeing or receiving abusive, insulting or threatening materials, the highest reporting groups were Asian / Asian British, black / black British and mixed race, all of which totalled four per cent. It is important to note, though, that our incidence data do not show great differences between various ethnic groups’ experience of this type of incident.

In contrast to other categories of incident, where Chinese respondents were the highest reporting group, they were actually the lowest reporting group for this along with white British respondents at two per cent.

Respondents were asked to describe the nature of the material distributed or displayed and why they found it abusive, threatening or insulting. The following quotes provide examples of respondents’ experiences:

“A students’ group was posting flyers around the university with offensive or racial slurs on them.”

“A swastika and Hitler face were drawn.”

“At an English Defence League march many had leaflets and signs that I found offensive, though coming from a racist organisation it was hardly a surprise.”

“Graffiti and insulting cartoons of ethnic minorities that I found quite offensive.”

“BNP literature — the xenophobic assumptions in the leaflet offended me. Racist graffiti on a student union sign — it was a Nazi symbol on a sign that had Nelson Mandela written on it. I thought this was disgusting.”

Communication intended to harass, alarm or distress

Eight per cent (717) of respondents reported having experienced abusive, threatening or insulting communication intended to harass, alarm or distress them. This occurred by various means, including telephone or text message, post, email or messages transmitted through the Internet (such as via Facebook, Twitter or an online blog).

Fifty of these respondents — seven per cent — believed the most serious incident to be motivated by prejudice against their race. Of these, 44 per cent of incidents involved telephone calls or text messages, eight per cent were via mail and 62 per cent were via email or messages transmitted through the Internet.

Of those who reported having experienced this type of incident, Chinese students were the highest reporting group, at three per cent. However, this was not significantly greater than Asian / Asian British, black / black British and mixed raced respondents (all at two per cent).

Incident and perpetrator profile

Key findings

- In the majority of racially motivated incidents, victims were able to identify prejudiced motivation through overt signs. Statements and/or gestures made before, during or after the incident which displayed prejudice against their race accounted for 60 per cent of these cases, and the presence of hate words or symbols accounted for 49 per cent.
- Across all incidents believed to be motivated by racial prejudice, 42 per cent occurred 'on campus'; 12 per cent in the classroom, 2 per cent in the students' union and the remaining 27 per cent 'in and around the educational institution.
- Fifty-four per cent of racially motivated incidents occurred in daylight hours.
- Sixty-one per cent occurred when the victim was in the company of one or more people.
- Sixty-eight per cent of incidents involved more than one perpetrator.
- Perpetrators were strangers to the victims in 72 per cent of incidents involving multiple perpetrators and in 51 per cent of incidents involving a single perpetrator. Excluding those who were 'unsure' of whether they knew their perpetrator in cases involving a single perpetrator, those who were considered a 'stranger' to the respondent rose to 60 per cent.
- In 67 per cent of incidents involving multiple perpetrators and in 39 per cent of incidents involving a single perpetrator the perpetrators were aged 16–24. Excluding those who were 'unsure' of the age of their perpetrator in cases involving a single perpetrator, the figure for those aged 16 – 24 rose to 55 per cent.'
- Offenders were white in 69 per cent of incidents involving multiple perpetrators and 54 per cent of incidents involving a single perpetrator. Excluding those who were 'unsure' of the ethnicity of their perpetrator in cases involving a single perpetrator, the proportion who were white British rose to 77 per cent.
- In the majority of cases where the gender was known, perpetrators were male. Incidents involving a single perpetrator, males outnumbered females 4:1. In incidents involving a multiple perpetrators, all-male groups outnumbered all-female groups 9:1.

Identifying experiences as hate incidents

For each incident type, we asked respondents who had been victimised to describe when and where the most serious incident had happened and why they believed it might be motivated by prejudice. We also asked questions regarding what they knew about the perpetrator/s.

We asked respondents to identify characteristics, such as the gender, age and ethnicity of the perpetrator, as

well if or how they knew them, and whether they were a student.

In reporting the identity of multiple perpetrators, respondents were able to select multiple options to acknowledge that there may have been diversity within the group. This was not the case where respondents selected a single perpetrator.

Due to the remote or anonymous nature of many incidents, respondents were also able to select 'unsure' or 'I don't know' relating to the perpetrator's identity.

We asked respondents why they believed incidents to be racially motivated and gave them a range of options from which they could select as many as applicable.

In the majority of incidents, respondents cited signs of overt prejudice as reasons for believing the incident to be racially motivated. In 60 per cent of incidents, respondents identified racial prejudice in statements and/or gestures made by perpetrators before, during or after the incident. In 49 per cent of incidents respondents identified racial prejudice in the presence of hate words or symbols.

Less frequent, but still notable, were incidents in which respondents inferred that the incident was motivated by race hate from contextual information. This included the respondent's belief that the perpetrator was a member of a group known to have committed similar acts and the respondent's instinct or perception without specific evidence.

Table 3. Reasons respondents believed incidents were racially motivated

Why do you believe the incident was motivated by prejudice, in whole or in part?	Percentage of respondents
The perpetrator/s made statements and/or gestures before, during or after the incident which displayed prejudice against a race	60%
Hate words or symbols were present	49%
My feeling, instinct or perception without specific evidence	25%
I believe the perpetrator was a member of a group known to have committed similar acts	13%
Someone else suggested that the incident was prejudiced	8%
The incident occurred at or near a location, place or building commonly associated with a specific group	8%

I don't know	6%
The incident coincided with a holiday, event or significant date	4%
Other reasons	4%
Investigation confirmed that the incident was motivated by a dislike of a particular group	2%
I was engaged in activities promoting a social group or event (eg handing out leaflets, picketing, etc)	2%

Please note: respondents were able to select more than one response to this question, therefore the results add up to more than 100 per cent.

When and where

Across all incidents believed to be racially motivated, 42 per cent occurred in and around the educational environment. This is therefore an important consideration in thinking about the prevalence of hate incidents on or around the 'campus' and the impact that this has on victims' studies. However, only two per cent of these incidents occurred in the students' union and 12 per cent in the classroom. The remaining 27 per cent occurred in other areas of the victim's educational institution.¹⁷ Seventeen per cent of incidents occurred at or near the victim's home and 16 per cent in a street.

Perhaps contrary to expectations, incidents less commonly occurred on public transport (six per cent), nightclubs or pubs and bars (both four per cent) and other places related to leisure and entertainment (three per cent). Five per cent of respondents reported 'other' locations where incidents occurred. Very small numbers of incidents occurred in takeaways (two per cent), at a friend's home (one per cent), at the workplace (one per cent), at a taxi rank (0.3 per cent), or a place of worship (0.1 per cent). There were no respondents who reported such incidents occurring in a prayer room.

Table 4. Most common locations of incidents reported

In and around institution	27%
At or near home	17%
Street, road or alley	16%
Learning environment	12%
Public transport	6%

Twenty-one per cent of respondents selected 'don't know' as to what time of day the incident took place. Of those who were able to identify the time of day, forty three per cent reported it took place in the afternoon – more than at any other time of day.

That the majority (54 per cent) of incidents occurred in daylight hours suggests the ordinary and commonplace nature of many incidents. However, with regard to the distribution or display of abusive, threatening or insulting material, we must be mindful that while the discovery of hate words and symbols may have happened during the day, the actual crime may have occurred in the evening or at night.

Table 5. When incidents took place

Morning	11%
Afternoon	43%
Evening	22%
Night	24%

Victims and perpetrators

Our data suggest that these crimes and incidents are more likely to take place when the victim was in the company of others. Of those who reported who they were with, 39 per cent of incidents took place when the victim was alone, and 61 per cent when the victim was in the company of one or more people. In 45 per cent of incidents in which the victim was in the company of others, their companions were also victimised.

Of those who reported how many perpetrators there were, 68 per cent of incidents involved more than one perpetrator, and most involved small groups: 54 per cent involved 2–3 perpetrators and 30 per cent involved 4–6 perpetrators. A significant minority involved larger groups of six or more perpetrators: eight per cent involved 6–8, three per cent involved 8–10 and five per cent involved more than 10 perpetrators.

Relationship between victims and perpetrators

The assumption that such crimes are committed by strangers is broadly supported by our findings. In incidents involving multiple perpetrators, respondents confirmed that in 72 per cent these were strangers to the victim. In incidents involving a single perpetrator, 51 per cent of respondents confirmed that the perpetrator was a stranger to them, and a further 15 per cent who were not sure if they knew the perpetrator or not.

However, there were a minority of respondents who confirmed that the perpetrator was an acquaintance. This was the case for 13 per cent of cases involving multiple perpetrators and 11 per cent of those reporting an incident involving a single perpetrator.

In incidents involving a single perpetrator, nearly half (46 per cent) of respondents were not sure if the perpetrator was a student. Over a third (34 per cent) reported that the perpetrator was a student, 85 per cent of whom were students at the victim's institution.

In incidents involving multiple perpetrators, 34 per cent were unsure whether any of the perpetrators were students. However over half (51 per cent) reported that at least one perpetrator was a student, of which 73 per cent reported that at least one of these was a student at the victim's institution.

Very small numbers were also reported in the following categories: people at the victim's workplace, family members, academic and non-teaching staff or carers.

In racially motivated incidents that involved a single perpetrator, 53 per cent of perpetrators were reported to be male, 12 per cent female, and in 35 per cent of incidents the victim was unsure of the perpetrator's gender (for example in cases of vandalism or graffiti).

In racially motivated incidents involving multiple perpetrators, 57 per cent of perpetrators were reported to be male, six per cent female, and in 33 per cent of incidents the perpetrators were reported to be a mixed gender group. In five per cent of cases with multiple perpetrators, the victim was unsure of the gender of the perpetrators.

Women were twice as likely to be reported being involved in single perpetrator incidents (12 per cent) than in multiple perpetrator incidents (six per cent). This suggests that hate incidents perpetrated by groups are more likely to consist of men than women.

Our data suggests that hate crimes are more likely to be perpetrated by men, who were reported as accounting for 81 per cent of single perpetrator incidents where the gender was known, and to wholly constitute 57 per cent of multiple perpetrator groups. However, female perpetrators were also represented, accounting for nearly one-fifth (19 per cent) of single perpetrator incidents where the gender was known. In incidents involving multiple perpetrators where the gender was known, whilst only six per cent were reported as all female, 34 per cent reported that the group was of mixed gender.

Table 6. The relationship between perpetrator/s and victim/s — most common responses

Relationship to victim/s	Single Perpetrator	Multiple Perpetrator
Stranger	51%	72%
Unsure	15%	3%
Acquaintance	11%	13%
Friend	7%	3%
Someone on course placement	6%	9%
Other	5%	5%
Neighbour	3%	9%
Neighbour	3%	9%

Perpetrator demographics

In racially motivated incidents that involved a single perpetrator, 53 per cent of perpetrators were male, 12 per cent were female, and in 35 per cent of incidents the victim was unsure of the perpetrator's gender (for example in cases of vandalism or graffiti). In racially motivated incidents involving multiple perpetrators, 57 per cent of perpetrators were male, six per cent were female, and in 33 per cent of incidents the perpetrators were of mixed gender. In five per cent of such incidents, the victim was unsure of the gender of the perpetrators.

Notably, the proportion of incidents involving single female perpetrators (12 per cent) was double that of multiple female perpetrator incidents (six per cent). This suggests that hate incidents perpetrated by groups are more likely to consist of men than women. Therefore, our data suggests that hate crimes are more likely to be perpetrated by men, accounting for 81 per cent of single perpetrator incidents where the gender was known, and 57 per cent of multiple perpetrator incidents were believed to be all male. However, female perpetrators were also represented, accounting for nearly one-fifth (19 per cent) of single perpetrator incidents where the gender was known. In incidents involving multiple perpetrators where the gender was known, whilst only 6 per cent were reported as all-female, 34 per cent reported that the group was of mixed gender.

Table 7. Gender of perpetrator/s

	Single perpetrator	Multiple perpetrators
Male	53%	57%
Female	12%	6%
Mixed group	—	33%
Unsure	35%	5%

Please note: with 'multiple perpetrators' respondents were able to select more than one response to this question, therefore the results add up to more than 100 per cent.

We asked respondents what age they thought their perpetrator/s were. Of the racially motivated incidents

involving a single perpetrator, the highest proportion (39 per cent) involved a perpetrator who was judged to be 16–24. In 32 per cent of incidents the victim was unsure of the perpetrator’s age. In 15 per cent of incidents the perpetrator was thought to be aged 25–39, in seven per cent the perpetrator was thought to be aged 40 or older, and in six per cent the perpetrator was thought to be aged 10–15.

Of the race hate incidents that involved multiple perpetrators, the majority (67 per cent) involved perpetrators thought to be aged 16–24. In 22 per cent of such incidents the perpetrators were thought to be aged 25–39, in 19 per cent they were thought to be aged 10–15 and in 10 per cent of cases the victim was unsure of the age of the perpetrators. In eight per cent of such incidents the perpetrators were thought to be 40 or older, and in four per cent the perpetrators were thought to be under 10.

Table 8. Age of perpetrator/s

Age	Single perpetrator	Multiple perpetrators
Under 10	0.3%	4%
10–15	6%	19%
16–24	39%	67%
25–39	15%	22%
40+	7%	8%
Unsure	32%	10%

Please note: with ‘multiple perpetrators’ respondents were able to select more than one response to this question, therefore the results add up to more than 100 per cent.

Victims believed their perpetrator was white in 54 per cent of racially motivated incidents involving a single perpetrator. Respondents did not know the ethnicity of the perpetrator in 30 per cent of these incidents. In eight per cent of these race hate incidents, the perpetrator was thought to be black, in six per cent the perpetrator was thought to be Asian, and in two per cent the perpetrator was thought to be of another ethnicity.

No respondents reported incidents involving a sole Chinese perpetrator.

Perpetrators were thought to be white in 69 per cent of racially motivated incidents involving multiple perpetrators — a greater majority than in those involving a single perpetrator. In 21 per cent of racially motivated incidents involving multiple perpetrators, offenders were thought to be Asian, in 19 per cent they were thought to be black, and in eight per cent the victims did not know the perpetrators’ ethnicity. In three per cent of multiple perpetrator incidents the perpetrators were thought to be of another ethnicity and in only two per cent were they thought to involve at least one Chinese person.

Table 9. Ethnicity of perpetrator/s

	Single perpetrator	Multiple perpetrators
White	54%	69%
Don't know	30%	8%
Black	8%	19%
Asian	6%	21%
Chinese	0%	2%
Other	2%	3%

Please note: with ‘multiple perpetrators’ respondents were able to select more than one response to this question, therefore the results add up to more than 100 per cent.

Reporting of hate incidents

“No action was taken [by officials at my institution], despite me being able to identify the student in question.”

“The police never took it seriously at all — they seemed to have higher priorities.”

Key findings

- Overall, victims reported most types of racially motivated incidents less frequently than victims of non-bias motivated incidents.
- Of the racially motivated incidents that were reported to someone in an official role at the educational institution, 57 per cent were reported to a member of academic staff. This highlights the need for academic staff to be aware how to respond to, and act on, these reports.
- The likelihood of reporting to the police was significantly higher in both racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents of vandalism, property damage or theft than in any other type of incident.
- Rates of reporting were very low in both racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents of verbal abuse, threatening behaviour or threats of violence and distribution or display of abusive, threatening or insulting material.
- The reason for not reporting 41 per cent of racially motivated incidents to the police was that the victim deemed the incident too common an occurrence to report, compared with 34 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.
- In 40 per cent of racially motivated incidents, the victim did not think the police could or would do anything, while this was the case in only 30 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.
- In 35 per cent of racially motivated incidents the victim did not think the incident would be taken seriously by authorities. This was the case in only 20 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.
- In 12 per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with six per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, the reason for not reporting to the police was that the victim felt ashamed or embarrassed.
- Many respondents said they would have reported the incident if they had been able to remain anonymous, report through indirect or non face-to-face contact with the police or speak to a police officer who was a member of their social group.

The difference between the number of hate crimes reported and those not reported is difficult to measure. In February 2012, the Crown Prosecution Service reported record numbers of hate crime prosecutions totaling 15,284, 83 per cent of which resulted in a successful prosecution. More than 11,000 (83 per cent) of these were related to racist and religious hate crime.¹⁸ However, there is still a suggestion that there is chronic under-reporting of these crimes. While the police recorded 46,300 reported hate crimes in 2008 (Office for Co-operation and Security in Europe), the British Crime Survey, which seeks to pick up unreported hate crimes through interviews with a wide sample of people, estimates that 260,000 hate crime offences occurred in the same year.¹⁹

Under-reporting is thus one of the main obstacles to understanding and confronting hate crime. Research for policy purposes is also likely to be undermined by the fact that such data do not reflect the full extent of hate crime.

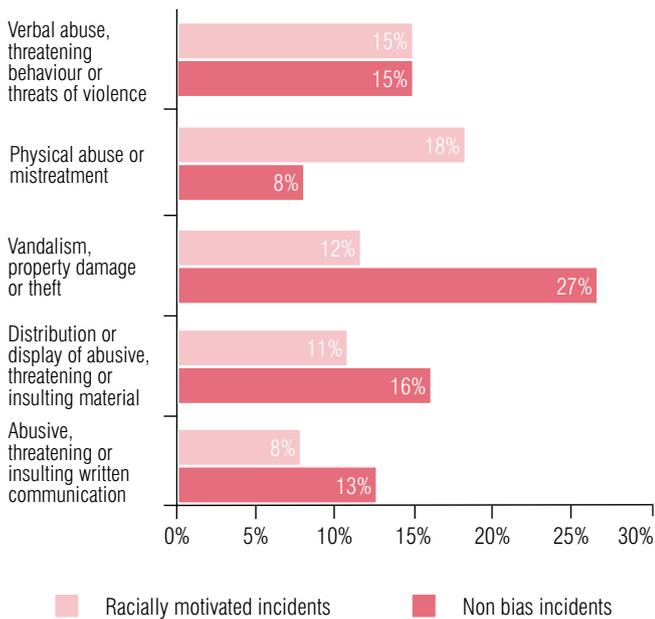
Our research shows that many of the reasons for under-reporting relate to the nature of the criminal justice system and victims' perception of it. Notably, victims often felt that their experience was too common an occurrence to report to the police, that the police would not take it seriously, or that they would not — or could not — do anything about it. This highlights the need to strengthen the responsiveness of the police to hate crime and to promote victims' trust in the police's ability to deal with hate crime sensitively and effectively. This further emphasises the gaps in the law that need to be filled.

Reporting to officials within the institution

We asked respondents who had experienced a hate incident if they had reported it, and if so who to.

As Chart 5 demonstrates, in all types of incident except physical abuse, race hate incidents were reported as frequently as, or less frequently than, non-bias motivated incidents. The most striking difference in reporting between non-bias motivated incidents and racially motivated incidents was in incidents of vandalism, property damage or theft: while 27 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents were reported to someone at the victim's college or university, only 12 per cent of racially motivated incidents were.

Chart 5. Did you report the incident to any official staff or representatives at your college, university or students' union?



In the majority of racially motivated incidents that were reported to someone in an official role at the educational institution (57 per cent), victims reported their experience to a member of academic staff. In 17 per cent of incidents the victim reported the incident to a student officer or representative. Only 11 per cent of incidents were reported to an advice worker in the

students' union. The same proportion reported the incident to an advice worker within their institution.

The fact that students are more likely to report racially motivated incidents to an academic is interesting and implies that students prefer to go to someone they know first. It is therefore important that academic staff know how to handle such situations and are able to refer students to appropriate sources of advice and support. This may well be happening in many cases, however it would be prudent for institutions and students' unions to think about how they advertise and promote welfare and counselling services.

Table 10. Reporting incidents to the educational institution

Role of official to whom the incident was reported	Percentage of racially motivated incidents
Member of academic staff	57%
Student officer or representative	17%
Other	13%
Member of non-teaching staff	12%
Advice worker in the students' union	11%
Advice worker in the institution	11%

Please note: respondents were able to select multiple answers; figures therefore add up to more than 100 per cent.

Reporting to the police

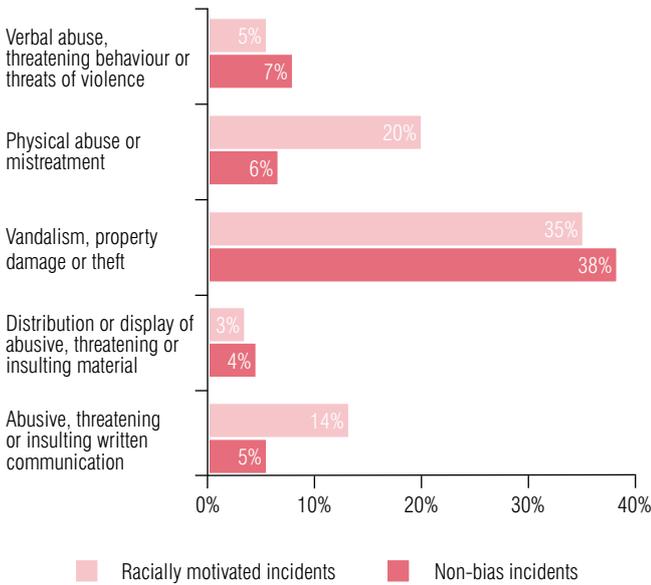
Overall, 10 per cent of victims of a racially-motivated crime or incident reported this to the police. This figure is nearly half that of non-bias motivated incidents, of which 19 per cent of respondents reported to the police.

Vandalism, property damage or theft was reported to the police in 38 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents and in 35 per cent of racially motivated incidents, significantly more than any other type of incident. The reporting rates of racially motivated and

non-bias motivated cases are much closer for this type of incidents than for other incident types.

Physical abuse or mistreatment was reported to the police in 20 per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with only six per cent of non-bias motivated incidents. Abusive, threatening or insulting written communication was reported to police in 14 per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with five per cent of non-bias motivated incidents. For the remaining two categories of incidents — verbal abuse, threatening behaviour or threats of violence and distribution or display of abusive, threatening or insulting material — rates of reporting were very low in both racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents.

Chart 6. Types of incidents reported to police



Reasons for not reporting to the police

We asked respondents who had experienced a hate incident but who had not reported it to tell us why. Victims of race hate incidents were more likely than those of non-bias motivated incidents to avoid reporting their experience because they felt it was not worth reporting, because they had personal concerns or fears, or were worried about how their complaint would be handled by the criminal justice system.

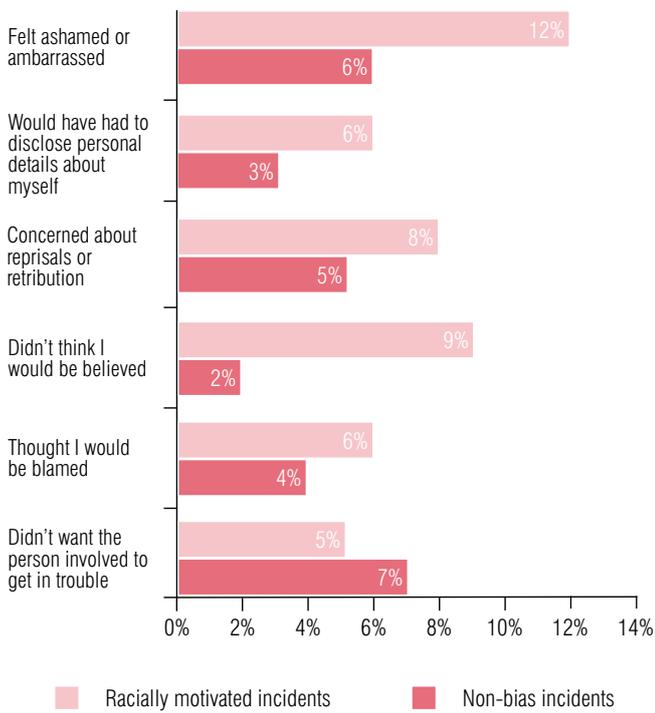
Personal concerns or fears

The data show that the proportion of racially motivated incidents that were not reported because of personal concerns or fear is substantially greater than for non-bias motivated incidents.

In 12 per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with six per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, the reason for not reporting was that the victim felt ashamed or embarrassed. Nine per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with two per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, were not reported because the victim thought they would not be believed. In eight per cent of racially motivated incidents and five per cent of non-bias motivated incidents the victim did not report the event because they were concerned about suffering reprisals or retribution as a result.

Five per cent of respondents who did not report a racially motivated crime or incident to the police cited one of their reasons for not doing so as not wanting to get the perpetrator in trouble. This figure was 7 per cent for victims of non-bias motivated incidents. These findings reflect that, as outlined in the Impact section of this report, victims of racially motivated hate incidents are left feeling more vulnerable and less confident than victims of non-bias motivated incidents.

Chart 7. Reasons for not reporting — personal concerns and fears



Not worth reporting

Under the 'not worth reporting' category, the reason cited in the majority of racially motivated incidents (66 per cent) was that the victim did not think their experience was serious enough to warrant reporting. This reason was cited in fewer non-bias motivated incidents (62 per cent). The second most frequently cited reason in racially motivated incidents was that it was too common an occurrence to report (41 per cent, compared with 34 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents).

The fact that students felt many racially motivated incidents were not worth reporting emphasises, first, the commonality of hate incidents and second, the challenge that the police and other authorities face in responding effectively.

Lack of faith in the criminal justice system

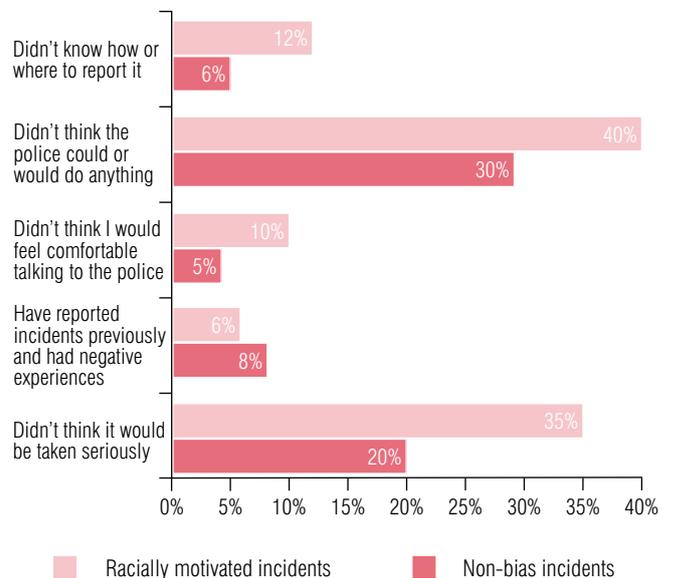
Victims' worries about how reporting an incident would be received by the criminal justice system were significantly more frequent in racially motivated incidents than in non-bias motivated incidents.

In 40 per cent of racially motivated incidents, the victim did not think the police could — or would — do anything, while this was the case in 30 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents. Whereas the victim did not think their complaint would be taken seriously by the legal authorities in 35 per cent of racially motivated incidents, this was the case in only 20 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents.

The proportion of racially motivated incidents in which the victim did not know how or where to report their experience (12 per cent) was more than double that of non-bias motivated incidents (six per cent). Similarly, the proportion of racially motivated incidents in which the victim did not think they would feel comfortable talking to the police (10 per cent) was also more than double that of non-bias motivated incidents (four per cent).

These data show that victims of racially motivated incidents generally feel more pessimistic about obtaining help than victims of non-bias motivated incidents.

Chart 8. Reasons for not reporting — issues with the reporting process



Analysis of the qualitative data suggests that, above all, respondents were most likely to report to the police if they knew the process would be straightforward, they would be taken seriously and the reporting would help to prevent further victimisation.

Encouraging reporting

We gave respondents who had experienced a hate incident but not reported it a series of options and asked whether any of these would have encouraged them to report a similar incident. Significantly, many respondents indicated they would have reported the incident if they could have done one of the following:

- remain anonymous
- report through indirect or non face-to-face contact with the police
- speak to a police officer who was a member of their ethnic, cultural or social group.

In 41 per cent of racially motivated incidents, the victim would have been encouraged to report their experience if they had been able to fill out a self-reporting form and send it to the police. Remaining totally anonymous would have encouraged the reporting of one in three racial incidents. Even though anonymity would reduce the chances of solving the crime, it would nevertheless make the police more aware of, and responsive to, problems in the community.

In 27 per cent of race hate incidents, victims would have been encouraged to report their experience if they had been able to report to a third party, ie someone who could pass details on to the police. Twenty-two per cent of race hate incidents would have been reported if there had been the option for victims to speak to a police officer who identified as a member of the targeted social group.

These findings suggest that rates of unreported hate crime could be substantially reduced were a series of relatively straightforward changes to reporting procedures explored by the police and other authorities.

Experiences of reporting

We asked respondents to comment on how the person at their university or college and/or the police responded to their reporting a hate incident and what,

if anything, could have been done to improve their experience.

Respondents' comments in this respect were either very positive or very negative. That people are sometimes less inclined to comment on ordinary experiences might explain this polarity and a lack of commentary on less remarkable experiences. Nevertheless, this information is useful for determining what is good and bad practice within reporting services.

Positive experiences of reporting

Key features of a positive response to reported race hate incidents include:

- acting quickly and professionally
- keeping the victim up-to-date with any developments in their case
- taking the incident seriously
- believing the victim and being sympathetic
- providing a thorough investigation of the incident when appropriate — and if not, explaining why that is not possible.

“[Officials at my institution] responded very quickly and appropriately by contacting the perpetrator and warning them against repeating [that behaviour]. As a result (maybe), the incident did not recur.”

“The member of staff was one that I trusted and was very concerned over my behaviour in class. When I reported the incident, I was offered support and some time off for when I felt unwell.”

“The police informed my local beat officer who was very polite and made regular checks at our home over the following months ... The police officers who came to my home to record the incident offered information about local ethnic group meetings and communities I could get in touch with to discuss the hate crime.”

Negative experiences of reporting

key features of a negative response to reported race hate incidents include:

- the report being recorded, but no further action being taken
- nothing being done at all
- the victim not being believed
- the victim's grievance being dismissed or deemed subordinate to other priorities
- the incident not being treated seriously, often because of the person receiving the report making an arbitrary judgement about the severity of the incident.

"I didn't get anything from the police ... the police didn't give me anything at all in writing, not even a crime number."

"No action was taken [by officials at my institution], despite me being able to identify the student in question."

"[The police] didn't really take the race issue seriously as it's seen as a joke because it's me being English in Wales."

"I had to wait a long time for police to come. No real investigation was done [although] they knew the 'trouble makers' in the area."

"I have no faith in the police any more. Their suggestion was to move properties and eventually that's exactly what I had to do."

"The police never took it seriously at all — they seemed to have higher priorities."

"The police told me it was an isolated incident and they couldn't help."

"To date, I haven't heard from the police. [The incident happened] over six months ago."

"The first time I contacted the student officer about what had happened by email, she forwarded on my email without first getting my permission and I found myself in an isolated position against the department because I dared to speak up."

"When I raised my grievance [to an official at my institution], he [the perpetrator] was allowed to call

me racist and a member of the Klu Klux Klan during his interrogation ... Nothing was done to stop him from shouting at me. I reported his behaviour a number of times and every time I have heard that next time it will be taken farther [but] never [does] anything happen."

One respondent took the opportunity to describe their experience in detail:

"A boy in my class decided to start making racist comments. It happened for about five weeks every drama lesson. I would tell the teacher, but nothing would be done about it ... one lesson when the teacher was away, he used threats and racist insults.

I finally had enough and told a member of the senior management staff. Within 20 minutes, he had printed out the student's college profile and had given it to every security member of staff ... He also had another member of staff come down to take witness statements. The senior management claimed that no matter what ethnicity the person is and whether a minority [or] a majority, a racially motivated abusive act is a very serious act ... that needed to be discussed. My teacher received a letter explaining her behaviour [in this matter] wasn't up to standard and the boy received a week exclusion and [was] told to keep away from me ... In the end I've been pleased with the result; however I was disappointed with what my teacher said and having to wait so long and take issues into my own hands for anything to be achieved."

Discussing race hate incidents with others

Considering respondents' fears and concerns regarding reporting to authorities, it is perhaps not surprising that our survey found that reporting and or discussing the incident with other groups was important.

In 53 per cent of race hate incidents, the victim discussed their experience with someone other than an official at their institution or the police. Most of these respondents (85 per cent) had spoken to a friend about

the incident, though it was also common to discuss it with family members (45 per cent) or a partner or spouse (39 per cent).

It is useful therefore to consider how reporting and support networks can also extend services to friends, family members and the wider community, as these findings would suggest these are an important aspect in encouraging the reporting of hate crime.

Impact

"This incident is one of many other subtle and minor ones that reaffirm that no matter what I will always be a second-class citizen at best."

Key findings

Victims of race hate incidents were much more likely than victims of non-bias incidents to report problems as a result of their experience, particularly related to their acceptance of other social groups, mental health and, to a lesser extent, their studies.

- Twenty-two per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with only four per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, affected victims' acceptance of other groups.
- Twenty-one per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with 12 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, affected the victim's mental health.

- Racially motivated incidents caused significantly more long-term emotional reactions, such as loss of confidence, vulnerability and anxiety, than non-bias motivated ones.
- Thirteen per cent of victims of racially motivated incidents reported that the experience affected their studies. This was almost double that of victims of non-bias motivated incidents (seven per cent).
- In more than half (54 per cent) of race hate incidents the victim consequently thought about leaving their course. Victims' participation in social activities was adversely affected in 50 per cent of racially motivated incidents.

The impact of hate crime

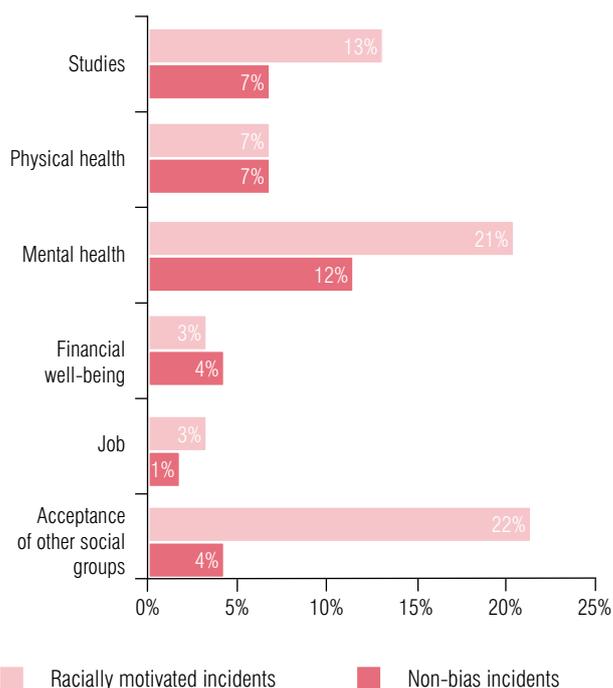
This section outlines the different ways in which hate incidents affect victims. In addition to physical injuries resulting from violent incidents, victims suffer a range of psychological and emotional responses, from lowered self-confidence and insecurity to depression and anxiety. In turn, victims' lives can deteriorate in the form of poorer academic engagement, not feeling able to talk to strangers, becoming selective about where and when to go in public, and a fear of going out at all.

Even though a hate incident can be indistinguishable from a non-hate incident on the surface, the element of prejudice can cause much deeper, long-term harm to the victim. Whereas feelings of anger, annoyance and shock (common to both hate and non-hate incidents) are immediate and short-lived, depression, fear and isolation — characteristic repercussions of hate incidents — can remain with the victim for a long time.

For every incident type, we asked respondents whether they have problems— or have had problems — that they believe are attributable to the incident. Notably, victims of race hate incidents were more likely than victims of non-bias motivated incidents to report

resultant problems with their mental health and studies, and much more likely to report problems affecting their acceptance of other social groups. Racially motivated incidents caused more problems of all types than non-bias motivated incidents except financial well-being, which was cited by one per cent more victims of non-bias motivated incidents than race hate victims.

Chart 9. Negative effect of incidents on victims



Effect on the acceptance of other social groups

Twenty-two per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with only four per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, affected victims' acceptance of other groups.

"It has made me very wary of Asian men on the street, particularly if there are two or three together. I want to stand up and fight back but a lone female against grown Asian men is never going to win."

"I realised that I have to be careful when I am on my own ... due to differences in races or ethnic groups. I probably will feel threatened when I see a group of white people walking together nearby when I am alone."

This stark difference, as Chart 9 illustrates, highlights the socially divisive potential of incidents motivated by prejudice against race. Prejudices among one group against another can produce ongoing or reciprocated prejudices. It is not difficult to see, then, how racially motivated incidents can multiply. This destroys social cohesion and can perpetuate systemic social inequality.

Impact on studies

Our findings show that almost twice as many victims of racially motivated incidents reported that the incident affected their studies as victims of non-bias motivated incidents (13 per cent and seven per cent, respectively).

Forty-eight per cent of incidents reported to have had an impact on the victim's studies affected their educational attendance, and 57 per cent affected their grades. This is an important finding in terms of understanding the attainment gap between black/black British students and their white peers in particular.²⁰

In more than half of racially motivated incidents (54 per cent) the victim had consequently thought about leaving their course. And half of all race hate incidents affected victims' participation in social activities. Some respondents also stated that they were ignored or

picked on by their peers as a result of speaking out about their experience.

Effect on friends, family and wider community

Racially motivated incidents are not only directed at the immediate victim/s, but also their social group as a whole. The harm therefore extends to surrounding circles of people including friends, family and the wider community. This builds feelings of fear, distrust, exclusion and subordination among the victimised group, which can in turn produce reciprocal prejudice and intolerance. This may also be exacerbated by the fact that respondents were more likely to report such incidents to friends, family and partners than the authorities. Ultimately, communities can become divided and different groups can become hostile towards each other, which is very difficult to reverse or remedy.

This underlines the importance of preventative measures, such as diversity and equalities education and training, and clear zero tolerance policies towards racial discrimination.

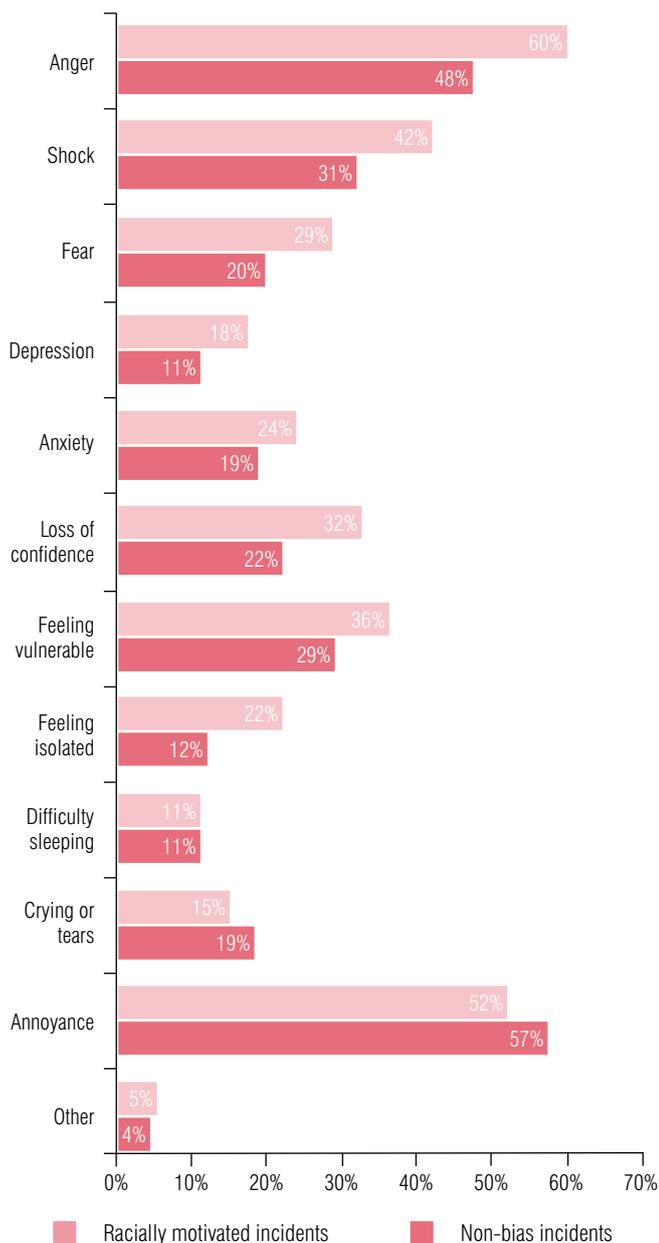
"Everyone who is from China is worried about their safety ... and will choose to go home early, before it turns dark."

"[The incident] affected friends of mine that fitted into the ethnicity group that it was aimed at."

"My community held a public meeting to discuss the effect of [the incident]."

"[The incident] deeply distressed my two friends who saw the incident, but we try not to talk about it."

Chart 10. Emotional reactions as a result of victimisation



Effect on mental health

Twenty-one per cent of race hate incidents, compared with 12 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, affected the victim’s mental health.

“I worry a lot and do feel anxiety and fear because of it [the incident]. I feel vulnerable.”

“Simply not feeling confident and safe any more to walk down the street alone without the worry of a group of people following you in a car shouting insults.”

“I never feel safe anywhere any more — at work, on public transport, even at home. I wake up in the middle of the night thinking something is going to happen or I get flashbacks. I’m very panicky and scared. Police don’t make me feel reassured or safe.”

Anger, annoyance and shock were common reactions to both racially motivated and non-bias motivated incidents.

Victims of 36 per cent of racially motivated incidents, compared with 29 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents, felt vulnerable as a result. Thirty-two per cent of racially motivated incidents affected the victim’s confidence, compared with 22 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents. Again, 10 per cent more victims of racially motivated incidents were left feeling isolated by their experience (22 per cent, compared with 12 per cent of non-bias motivated incidents).

While feelings of anger, shock and annoyance are immediate, they often subside soon after the incident. Anxiety, loss of confidence, vulnerability and isolation, however, are long-term consequences of hate incidents. These data show that victims of racially motivated incidents are more likely than victims of non-bias motivated incidents to experience such long-term emotional reactions. The long-term effects may be exacerbated further as our findings suggest that victims of incidents motivated by bias against their race or ethnicity were more likely to be repeatedly victimised, as previously mentioned in this report.

Multiple biases/ intersectionality

“Despite the numerous changes I would say on average I still get at least two racial slurs against me every day — most in a casual, ‘jokey’ sense but still it is something I would prefer to live without.”

While this report focuses on race-related hate crime, it is important to recognise that victims may have been targeted for reasons in addition to their actual or perceived race or ethnicity, for instance their religion or sexual orientation.

The theory of intersectionality attempts to explore the complexity in identities, systems of power and social relations. In the context of hate crime, intersectionality theory is important in understanding that people may not always neatly fit into fixed and discrete categories. It posits that “one system of oppression cannot be understood as more fundamental than another because systems are inextricably linked and ... [therefore] relations of domination should be understood as an interlocking web of mutually reinforcing power structures, each of which depends on the others ...”²¹

Although race, ethnicity or national origin may play a part in defining a person’s identity, people may simultaneously understand themselves in terms of any number of other overlapping identities. Similarly, perpetrators are often motivated by more than one bias. At the root of hate crime are the systems of power that drive social relations as well as prejudice and bias against people of certain groups.

Our findings capture this intersectionality to an extent. We found that, in addition to the race of the respondent, the incidence of hate-related behaviour varied according to the religion, faith and belief, nationality, gender and sexuality of the respondent.

With regard to religion and belief, 21 per cent of Jewish respondents, 17 per cent of Hindu respondents, 17 per cent of Muslim respondents and 14 per cent of Sikh respondents reported a racially motivated incident. By comparison, six per cent of Christian respondents, five per cent of Atheist respondents and five per cent of those with no religion reported a racially motivated incident.

We must be careful when drawing conclusions here over multiple biases for two reasons. Firstly, when the numbers for those who have experienced a racially motivated incident are broken down by ethnicity and religion in some cases they become small. Secondly, it is difficult to determine the real motivating factor in hate

incidents. Thus, a perpetrator may use a religious slur when in fact their motivation is racial hatred.

“... people [are] being called ‘Pakis’ for being Islamic.”

“[There is] anti-Semitic behaviour towards Israel.”

“One particular evangelical Christian group put up posters with an implication that ... major disasters — Haiti, New Orleans [etc] — were God’s retribution on the victims.”

“... In the immediate aftermath of the 7/7 bombings I was verbally abused and even attacked for no reason along with several other people of Asian heritage purely because nowadays a vast quantity of people seem to think Asian or Muslim is freely interchangeable with terrorist.”

In terms of nationality, whereas only eight per cent of EU students and six per cent of UK-domiciled (home) students reported experiencing at least one racially motivated incident, 22 per cent of international or overseas students had done so. In other words, being from both an ethnic minority and a foreign nationality significantly increases the likelihood of a student experiencing hate incidents.

Our findings show that male respondents were more likely than female respondents to be victimised, though this difference was only a few percentage points. Gay and bisexual respondents and those who preferred not to specify their sexual orientation, or who had an ‘other’ sexual orientation, were also more likely to be victimised than heterosexual and lesbian respondents — though these differences were also very slight.

This reinforces the theory of intersectionality to the extent that incidents of hate crime cannot be characterised by reference to a single element of the victim’s identity and a corresponding single prejudice in the perpetrator: “that each system operates simultaneously on multiple levels demonstrates that hate crime is a social problem that pervades many groups and contributes to systematic inequality.”²² This has important implications for hate crime prevention and intervention strategies.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are designed to address hate incidents and hate crime experienced by students in the UK, as well as the prejudice that motivates this behaviour. It is evident from the qualitative and quantitative research findings from which these were drawn that improvements are needed in:

- the prevention of perpetrator behaviour
- support and services available to victims
- awareness, reporting and recording of hate crime and incidents.

These recommendations are primarily aimed at further and higher education organisations, although some will also be pertinent to law enforcement practitioners and agencies. We hope that all institutions will consider these recommendations and that they will help in the development of a cross-sector strategy to tackle hate and prejudice experienced by students across the UK.

Prevention

1. Demonstrate a firm commitment to equality and diversity

The student population is composed of a diverse range of people, of all types and backgrounds, who hold different ideas, viewpoints and opinions. It is important that these differences are respected, but equally that each and every individual feels they are able to study in an environment in which their rights, dignity and worth are upheld.

It is therefore vital that institutions demonstrate a strong commitment towards equality and diversity and work to actively celebrate these values through clear and widely publicised codes of conduct, equality and diversity policies and complaint and reporting procedures. All students should be made aware of their institution's commitment to challenging and tackling prejudice on campus. Through student inductions, institution-wide and/or departmental handbooks, advice centres and students' unions, students should be informed of the

conduct required of them and the support services available to those who experience hate incidents.

2. Develop preventative and educational activity on prejudice and hate

Hate crime is an unfortunate expression of negative stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination and inter-group tensions. Our research suggests that this type of behaviour causes a cycle of suspicion and exclusion: the perpetrator is motivated by prejudice to target an individual and that action in turn negatively affects the victim's acceptance and perception of other social groups.

While it is important to tackle the more immediate and tangible goals of assisting and supporting victims as well as taking effective action against perpetrators, it is also important that long-term efforts are made to foster an inclusive ethos, in which each and every student has the right to express themselves without fear. Ensuring there is constructive dialogue, mutual respect and trust among student communities is paramount in this endeavour. By working to foster good relations among students, as well as awareness of what constitutes a hate incident and the negative impact of this behaviour on the victim, institutions can reduce the prevalence of this behaviour on campus.

To promote social cohesion within and outside the classroom, universities and colleges need to consider how to better integrate their student bodies. This could be achieved by increasing discussion and interactive work within the classroom, as well as by organising events for students of all backgrounds that celebrate diversity and encourage integration. In addition, institutions should ensure that, when appropriate, course curricula reflect diversity in backgrounds.²³

3. Stop or mitigate against perpetrator behaviour

It is evident from our research that victims and perpetrators alike often perceived behaviour constituting a hate incident to be socially acceptable. The consequences of this perception are two-fold: the perpetrator is encouraged to engage in these activities and the victim, similarly, is discouraged from reporting the incident or seeking support services. Institutions

must therefore make clear that this behaviour is not to be tolerated, through the active enforcement of student codes of conduct and the institution of zero tolerance policies. Student perpetrators should be disciplined quickly and decisively.

4. Establish multi-agency, joined-up approaches to tackling hate

Hate incidents require a multi-agency, joined-up approach to ensure the victim is adequately supported and the perpetrator appropriately disciplined. As such, colleges and universities should work to establish partnerships with local police enforcement, community-based advocacy groups, schools and local authorities to develop a cross-sector strategy to reduce all forms of hate within, as well as outside, further and higher education institutions.

Support

5. Strengthen existing support services

Our research found that hate incident victims were more likely to report mental health problems as a result of their experience than victims of unprejudiced incidents of the same severity. Practitioners working in counselling and advice services in educational establishments should therefore be appropriately trained in, and vigilant to, these concerns — recognising that even low-level incidents can have serious implications for victims' self-esteem, self-confidence and subsequently their studies

6. Establish strong support networks

Existing studies suggest that the level of identification a victim has with their group affects their response to experiencing hate incidents: those who lack strong identification are more at risk of psychological damage. In contrast, those who are more strongly identified show a more assertive and positive response, seeking help and redress and fortifying their identity.²⁴

Black students' groups and officers often act as a support network for students who may have been victims of hate incidents and/or crimes, as do a

multitude of other student clubs or societies related to specific ethnicities, nationalities, cultures or faith groups. As such, they should be able to access financial backing and support to ensure open access to their services. They should be offered good channels to advertise and communicate to students about their existence, and to engage with institutional committee structures. In addition, institutions and students' unions should actively support activities that promote understanding between different ethnicities, cultures, nationalities and religions.

Reporting

7. Encourage reporting and maintain systematic documentation and data collection of hate incidents

Our research found that many respondents did not report hate incidents because they believed them to be either too trivial to report or that nothing could, or would, be done by the police or other authorities.

Data collection on hate incidents is vital to understanding and appropriately addressing these problems. Therefore, students need to be made aware of when and where to report hate incidents. They also need to understand that their experience will be taken seriously, offers valuable insight into the nature and location of hate incidents and will help to inform preventative work. While many law enforcement agencies and local councils are committed to recording and monitoring hate incidents, these agencies and institutions need to co-ordinate and share information to ensure this data is accurately captured while maintaining victim confidentiality.

8. Provide flexible options to reporting

The students surveyed in our research indicated they would have been more likely to report their experiences had they been able to do so without directly contacting the police. Institutions should therefore establish a variety of reporting mechanisms — for example, by creating an online self-reporting form or on-campus reporting and advice centres — as well as publicising

other options available, such as third party reporting agencies and telephone hotlines.

Victims of hate incidents should also be made aware that they can choose how to report their experience. For example, they should have the option to remain anonymous, on the understanding that while it may not be possible to take further action, their report will be recorded and used to inform hate crime prevention measures. Not all reporting mechanisms may be feasible, so work must be done to ensure the most appropriate methods are employed for each institution.

9. Promote greater confidence in reporting mechanisms

Whether real or perceived, it was evident that many respondents feared further hate incidents either at the hands of insensitive or hostile authorities or, upon public disclosure of their experience, by their peers. It is clear that practitioners need better training in understanding the diversity of racial, national and cultural identities. Better protocols and privacy assurances are also required in interviewing and debriefing crime victims to ensure accurate reporting of hate incidents. Victims should be assured that their report will be taken seriously and will be consistently and thoroughly investigated and recorded.

10. Clear guidance on existing legislative framework

Existing legislation related to hate crime is fragmentary and piecemeal, which may cause difficulties for victims who wish to bring their case through the criminal justice system. It is therefore vital that guidance on what constitutes a hate crime, the rights of individual victims and the criminal justice procedure is developed and made available to students. It is important that staff receive training and guidance on how to deal with such reports and support student victims. It would also be useful for students' unions to receive training to understand hate incidents and how to respond to them.

Appendix 1 Student respondent profile

The survey clearly stated that it was open to all students currently studying on a course in a further education college, university or other adult learning environment. Only those who affirmed that they fell into this category were included in the final sample of the survey. In total, we received 9,229 complete and valid responses.

No questions in this section were compulsory. Missing responses were excluded from the analysis. Base sizes are provided below for each question (using n=).

Health condition, impairment or disability

Some 11 per cent (1,001) of our sample considered themselves to have a health condition, impairment or disability. (n=9,225).

Of these,

- thirteen per cent stated they had a physical impairment (126)
- nine per cent said they had a sensory impairment (82)
- twenty-nine per cent reported they had a mental health condition (279)
- twenty-six per cent stated they had a learning difference or cognitive impairment (254)
- twenty-seven per cent said they had a long-term illness or health condition (263)
- five per cent preferred not to say and
- eighteen per cent described their health condition, impairment or disability as 'other.'

Eighty-seven per cent (7,991) indicated they did not have a health condition, impairment or disability and three per cent (233) preferred not to say.

Type of institution, mode and level of study

Most students surveyed (89 per cent; 8,221) attend their post-16 educational institution in England. Six per cent go to an institution in Wales (548), two per cent (202) attend a college or university in Scotland and three per cent (237) attend one in Northern Ireland. (n=9,208).

The majority (68 per cent; 6,101) of our respondents attend university. Another 28 per cent (2,520) go to further education or sixth form college. Three per cent (224) attend an 'other higher education institution' and two per cent go to adult and community learning providers, work-based learning providers or specialist colleges (186). (n=9,031).

The bulk of respondents (87 per cent; 7,967) were UK-domiciled students, though eight per cent were EU students (720) and five per cent were international or overseas students (475). (n=9162).

Level of study (n=9,194)	Year of study (n=9,211)
0.8% Level 1 eg Basic Skills or ESOL (72)	54% Year 1 (4,965)
2% Level 2 eg GCSEs, NVQ2, Apprenticeships (173)	30% Year 2 (2,746)
28% Level 3 eg A-Levels, Advanced apprenticeships (2,595)	13% Year 3 (1,160)
58% Level 4 eg Bachelors degree, HND (5,308)	3% Year 4 (235)
11% Level 5 eg Masters, PhD (1,046)	1% Year 5+ (105)

Eighty-eight per cent of the people surveyed were full-time students (8,100); 12 per cent (1,108) studied part-time. (n=9,208).

Gender and gender identity

Seventy per cent of respondents were female, 29 per cent were male (2,697) and 0.6 per cent preferred not to select (51). (n=9,213).

The vast majority (99 per cent) stated that their gender identity was the same as assigned at birth (9,146). Only 0.4 per cent (40) stated that their gender identity was not the same as assigned at birth and 0.5 per cent (42) preferred not to say what their gender identity was. (n=9,228).

Sexual orientation

Eighty-seven per cent of the students surveyed were heterosexual (7,974). (n=9,219). The remaining 13 per cent can be broken down as follows:

- lesbian two per cent (157)
- bisexual five per cent (479)
- gay four per cent (363)
- preferred not to say two per cent (168)
- 'other' 0.8 per cent (78).

Ethnic origin

Eighty-three per cent of respondents identified as being from a white background. (n=9,226). Broken down:

- white British 83 per cent (6,715)
- white Irish two per cent (190)
- other white background eight per cent (706).

Six per cent identified as being from an Asian or Asian British background:

- Indian three per cent (257)
- Bangladeshi 0.5 per cent (43)
- Pakistani two per cent (147)
- other Asian background one per cent (119).

Two per cent of our respondents identified as being from a black or black British background:

- black Caribbean one per cent (90)
- black African one per cent (127)
- other black background 0.1 per cent (9).

Four per cent of students surveyed said they were from a mixed race background:

- white and black Caribbean one per cent (82)
- white and black African 0.3 per cent (31)
- white and Asian one per cent (110)
- other mixed background one per cent (110).

Two per cent of our sample was Chinese (189) and another two per cent indicated they were from an 'other' ethnicity not listed (199). One per cent (102) preferred not to say what their ethnic origin was.

Religion or belief

Thirty-eight per cent of respondents stated they had no religion (3,530) and another 34 per cent indicated they were Christian (3,167). Twelve per cent of students surveyed were atheist (1,089). (n=9,222). We received low response rates from students of other religions:

- Bahai 0.1 per cent (4)
- Buddhist one per cent (89)
- Hindu one per cent (125)
- Jain 0.1 per cent (5)
- Jewish 0.8 per cent (70)
- Muslim four per cent (326)
- Sikh 0.7 per cent (63)
- preferred not to say three per cent (288)
- other five per cent (466).

Appendix 2 Survey questions

The following is a list of headline questions we asked in our survey.

Worries of victimisation

1. How worried are you about being subject to verbal abuse, physical attack, vandalism, property damage or theft because of your actual or perceived race/ethnicity, religion/belief, disability, sexual orientation and/or gender identity?
2. Because of worries about prejudiced incidents, some people change their everyday life – for example, where they go or what they do. Other people do not change their lives at all. Do worries about prejudiced abuse ever cause you to alter your behaviour, personal appearance or daily patterns?

Experiences of incident types

1. While you have been a student at your current place of study, have you ever experienced any of the following (please tick all that apply):
 - threatening, abusive or insulting words (eg verbal abuse such as name-calling, being shouted/sworn at, taunted, told offensive slurs, insults, etc)
 - threatening behaviour or threats of violence.
2. While you have been a student at your current place of study, have you ever experienced any of the following (please tick all that apply):
 - you were followed or chased
 - you were spat upon
 - you were held down or physically blocked
 - you were pushed, slapped, shoved or had your hair pulled
 - you had something thrown at you that could hurt you

- you were kicked, bitten, hit with a fist or something else that could hurt you
 - you experienced unwanted sexual contact (this could include touching, grabbing, pinching, kissing, fondling, or molesting you through your clothes)
 - you were choked, dragged, strangled or burned
 - a weapon (such as a knife or gun) was used against you
 - you have experienced another form of physical mistreatment or violence not described above.
3. Have you experienced any of the following while you have been a student at your current place of study? (please tick all that apply):
 - vandalism – someone deliberately defacing or doing damage to your house, flat or halls of residence – or to anything outside it
 - property damage – someone deliberately damaging, tampering with or vandalising your property. For example, your personal belongings (purse, computer, etc), motor vehicle, bicycle, wheelchair or other property.
 - personal theft – personal belongings stolen out of your hands, bag, pockets or locker
 - property theft from outside your home – for example, from the doorstep, the garden or the garage
 - robbery – someone taking or attempting to take something from you by force or threat of force
 - burglary – someone illegally entering your residence to steal or attempt to steal your belongings, inflict bodily harm or cause criminal damage.

4. While you have been a student at your current place of study, has anyone distributed or displayed any writing, signs or visible representation, which you found threatening, abusive or insulting? For example, offensive graffiti or leaflets:

- yes
- no.

5. While you have been a student at your current place of study, have you ever experienced any of the following (please tick all that apply):

- received an abusive, threatening or insulting telephone call or text message intended to harass, alarm or distress you
- received abusive, threatening or insulting post or mail intended to harass, alarm or distress you
- received abusive, threatening or insulting email or messages transmitted through the Internet (eg via Facebook, twitter, a blog etc) intended to harass, alarm or distress you.

Establishing bias motivation

6. Do you believe the incident may have been motivated or partly motivated, by the perpetrator's prejudice towards you based on your membership (or presumed membership) of any of the following? Please tick all that apply:

- yes – a prejudice against my race or ethnicity (or presumed race or ethnicity)
- yes – a prejudice against my religion or belief (or presumed religion or belief)
- yes – a prejudice against my disability (or presumed disability)
- yes – a prejudice against my sexual orientation (or presumed sexual orientation)
- yes – a prejudice against my gender identity (or presumed gender identity). For the purposes of this survey, gender identity is defined as a person's self-identification as male, female, neither or both, which may not be the gender assigned at birth.
- yes – because of my association with persons of a certain race/ethnicity, religion/belief, disability, sexual orientation, and/or gender identity
- yes – for another reason (please specify)
- no – I do not believe the perpetrator was motivated by prejudice against any of the above groups.

7. For what reasons do you believe the incident was motivated by prejudice, in whole or in part? Please tick all that apply:
- the perpetrator(s) made statements and/or gestures before, during or after the incident which displayed prejudice against a race/ethnicity, religion/belief, disability, sexual orientation and/or gender identity
 - hate words or symbols were present (eg offensive names, a swastika or other graffiti)
 - the incident occurred at or near a location, place or building commonly associated with a specific group (eg a centre for people with disabilities, club or bar with a predominately gay clientele, synagogue)
 - I was engaged in activities promoting a social group or event (eg handing out leaflets, picketing)
 - the incident coincided with a holiday or event of significant date (eg the Pride parade, Ramadan)
 - I believe the perpetrator was a member of a group known to have committed similar acts
 - investigation by the police confirmed that the incident was motivated by dislike of a particular group
 - someone else suggested that the incident was prejudiced
 - my feeling, instinct or perception, without specific evidence
 - I don't know.

Endnotes

- ¹ This report contains the preliminary analysis of survey results. When asked what their self-identified race or ethnicity was, a number of survey respondents identified as 'other', rather than using one of the categories listed in the survey questionnaire. This group was excluded from the analysis for the purposes of this report. However, this data will be used for further analysis in additional research
- ² Home Office. (1999) *The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry: Report of an Inquiry by Sir William Macpherson of Cluny*, Cm 4262–I
- ³ Crown Prosecution Service (2012) *Hate crimes and crimes against older people report 2011 – 2012*, p13 [online]. Available at: www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs/cps_hate_crime_report_2011.pdf
- ⁴ Calvert, C. (1997) 'Hate Speech and its Harms: A Communication Theory Perspective', *Journal of Communication*, 47(1): pp8–10
- ⁵ Green, DP, McFalls, LH and Smith, JK. (2001) 'Hate Crime: An Emergent Research Agenda', *Annual Review of Sociology*: p27
- ⁶ *R v McDermott (Lee)*. (2008) England and Wales Court of Appeal (EWCA) 2345
- ⁷ Howard, M. (1996) *Protection from Harassment Bill*, Secretary of State for the Home Department, Second Reading Speech, House of Commons, UK Parliament
- ⁸ Bennetto, J. (2009) *Police and Racism: What has been achieved 10 years after the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry report?* Equality and Human Rights Commission p33 [online]. Available at: www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/raceinbritain/policeandracism.pdf
- ⁹ *Ibid* p11
- ¹⁰ *Ibid* p23
- ¹¹ Crown Prosecution Service. (2009) *Hate Crime Report 2008–2009* Blackburns, Bolton, p9–13
- ¹² Crown Prosecution Service (2012) *Hate crimes and crimes against older people report 2010–2011* p3 [online]. Available at: www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs/cps_hate_crime_report_2011.pdf
- ¹³ Eg Kirklees Safer Communities Partnership 'Stop hate Crime'
- ¹⁴ Home Office. (1999) *The Stephen Lawrence Inquiry: Report of an Inquiry by Sir William Macpherson of Cluny*, Cm 4262–I
- ¹⁵ Bennetto, J. (2009) *Police and Racism: What has been achieved 10 years after the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry report?* Equality and Human Rights Commission p32, [online]. Available at: www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/raceinbritain/policeandracism.pdf
- ¹⁶ *Ibid* pp32–33
- ¹⁷ Location or time of day was not asked in the case of written communication intended to harass, distress or alarm due to the remote nature of the attack
- ¹⁸ Crown Prosecution Service (2012) *Hate crimes and crimes against older people report 2010–2011*, p10, [online]. Available at: www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs/cps_hate_crime_report_2011.pdf
- ¹⁹ OSCE (2009) *Hate crimes in the OSCE region: incidents and responses – Annual Report for 2009*, p26 [online]. Available at: www.osce.org/odihr/73636?download=true
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- ²¹ Meyer, D. (2010) 'Evaluating the severity of hate-motivated violence: intersectional differences among LGBT hate crime victims', *Sociology*, 44(5): p980–982
- ²² *Ibid*
- ²³ For more information about this within the context of further education see the *Spatial Moral Social Cultural* report guidance for learning and skills providers from the Learning and Skills Improvement Service www.isis.org.uk/Documents/Publications/SMSC%20Web.pdf
- ²⁴ Boeckmann and Turpin-Petrosino. (2002) 'Understanding the Harm of Hate Crime', *Journal of Social Issues*, 58(2): p222



National Union of Students
4th Floor
184 –192 Drummond Street
London NW1 3HP
t. 0845 5210 262
f. 020 7383 0794
w. www.nus.org.uk

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