



**FRA submission to the EU
Commission Call for evidence for the
2026-2030 EU anti-racism strategy**

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Introduction

The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) ⁽¹⁾ provides independent evidence-based expertise to the European Union and its Member States to promote rights-compliant law and policy where these act within the scope of EU law. ⁽²⁾ FRA welcomes the European Commission's commitment to achieving a Union of Equality and President von der Leyen announcement of the 2026-2030 EU Anti-Racism Strategy in the political guidelines for 2024-2029 also reflected in the Commission's 2025 Work Programme.

This submission responds to the European Commission [Call for Evidence](#) and is intended to provide evidence based advise supporting the EU Anti-Racism Strategy 2026-2030 by contributing FRA survey evidence, research findings, conclusions and opinions.

The submission covers the following areas and issues listed in the call:

- 1. Racism and racial inequalities in various areas of life**
 - 1.1. Racial discrimination**
 - 1.2. Racist harassment**
 - 1.3. Structural inequality**
 - 1.4. Racism and discrimination through an intersectional lens**
- 2. Rights awareness, knowledge of equality bodies and (under)reporting of discrimination**
- 3. Combating hate crime**
- 4. Racial profiling and racism in policing**
- 5. Racist hatred online and bias in algorithms**
- 6. Civic space pressures for anti-racism activists**
- 7. Equality data and fundamental rights-based approach in monitoring and evaluation**

Each section contains: i) short overview of proposed policy actions drawing on evidence, opinions and recommendations in FRA outputs, and ii) key findings from FRA surveys and reports. Annex 1 provides an overview of all FRA surveys and reports used for this submission; Annex 2 provides an outline of key terms and concepts.

⁽¹⁾ [Home | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#)

⁽²⁾ [Council Regulation \(EU\) 2022/555 of 5 April 2022 amending Regulation \(EC\) No 168/2007 establishing a European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#)

1. Racism and racial inequalities in various areas of life

FRA research has shown that racism affects the full enjoyment of fundamental rights and is a barrier to inclusion and equality in education, employment, housing and healthcare, financing, leisure, and access to justice. It leads to poverty and exclusion, deterioration in mental and physical health, and erodes social cohesion (e.g. [‘Being Black in the EU’](#) and [‘Being Muslim in the EU’](#)).

The [EU anti-racism action plan \(2020-2025\)](#) acknowledges that racism comes in different forms – from overt expressions of individual racism and discrimination, harassment, hate speech or hate crime to less explicit forms such as those based on unconscious bias and manifestations embedded in social, financial and political institutions that create or perpetuate inequitable opportunities and outcomes. According to the [European Commission against Racism and Intolerance \(ECRI\)](#), ‘racialisation’ based on different characteristics protected by law has contributed to spreading prejudice, deepening inequalities and legitimising exclusion and hostility against specific groups.

FRA survey data show that people of African descent, Muslims and Roma and Travellers continue to face racism and discrimination at individual and institutional level. The findings reveal that racial discrimination can be amplified through different institutional systems: this is particularly apparent when studying respondents’ experiences of racial discrimination in multiple areas of life and their socioeconomic situation and living conditions. Racism and discrimination are also manifest in stereotyped views or prejudices towards ethnic or religious groups among the general population ⁽³⁾ and hostile rhetoric in the media, and from politicians and other public figures. For example, FRA’s 2020 Fundamental Rights Survey revealed that 22 % of the EU’s general population would be uncomfortable with a Muslim neighbour, 31 % would be uncomfortable with a family member marrying a Muslim and 21 % find it acceptable not to hire a Muslim woman who wears a headscarf ⁽⁴⁾.

⁽³⁾ European Commission (2023), *Special Eurobarometer 535: Discrimination in the European Union*, European Commission, Brussels.

⁽⁴⁾ O’Flaherty, M. (2020), ‘Fighting discrimination on grounds of religion and ethnicity’, speech.

1.1. Racial discrimination

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent and *Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims*

- *Improve the effectiveness of regulatory measures and institutional arrangements established to enforce anti-discrimination legislation.*
- *Adopt and enforce effective, proportionate and dissuasive sanctions applicable to infringements of national provisions adopted pursuant to the racial equality directive, considering the substantial overlap between ‘religion or belief’ on the one hand and ‘racial or ethnic origin’ on the other.*
- *In line with Article 5 of the racial equality directive, introduce measures ‘to prevent or compensate for disadvantages linked to ‘racial or ethnic origin’, including positive measures stimulating the promotion and full and equal enjoyment of rights.*
- *Promote practical tools to implement anti-discrimination law provisions, such as public sector equality duties and equality impact assessments.*
- *The new EU Antiracism strategy should include specific actions to counter anti-Muslim racism and discrimination, including its structural roots and manifestations.*
- *Member States shall implement stand-alone national anti-racism action plans/strategies or targeted anti-racism measures.*

Key findings

- Despite the legal protection in place – e.g., the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (Articles 20 and 21), the Treaties and the equality directives - respondents to FRA surveys, including people of African descent (PAD), Roma and Travellers, Jews, Muslims, immigrants and descendants of immigrants, LGBTIQ people continue to experience discrimination. The results show little progress over time, as well as when compared to with the general population.
- **High prevalence of discrimination on any ground** (discrimination based on at least one of the following grounds: skin colour, ethnic or immigrant background, religion or religious beliefs, age, sex/gender, disability, sexual orientation, and gender identity or gender expression). Among respondents to the 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽⁵⁾, half of respondents (50 %) felt discriminated against on any ground in the five years preceding the survey.

⁽⁵⁾ FRA (forthcoming). EU-MIDIS III.

- And while the average 12-month prevalence of discrimination on any ground was 21 % for the general population in the EU-27 based on 2023 Eurobarometer survey ⁽⁶⁾, it is at 38 % for respondents in the 2022 survey in the 15 Member States, with substantial differences between countries and target groups surveyed.
- Looking at selected EU-MIDIS III respondents, half of Muslim respondents (50 %) ⁽⁷⁾ and respondents of African descent (47 %) ⁽⁸⁾ felt discriminated on any ground in the 5 years preceding the survey and more than a third (Muslims: 38 %; PAD: 36 %) did so in the year before the survey. (Table 1)

Table 1 – Overall prevalence of discrimination on any ground in 12 months and five years before the survey, EU-MIDIS III and Eurobarometer (%)

Prevalence of discrimination on any ground	EU-MIDIS III (2022)						General population
	Main results (all groups, EU-15) ^a	Muslims	North Africans	From African countries south of the Sahara	Syrians	Turkish	
In the 12 months before the survey	38	38	31	36	51	55	21 ^b
In the 5 years before the survey	50	50	42	47	61	68	n.a. ^c

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b felt discriminated against or harassed.

^c not available for this period.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU*, [Eurobarometer survey December 2023: Discrimination in the European Union](#).

- Exploring specific reasons for discrimination, ‘ethnic or immigrant background’ is the most common ground for discrimination in respondents’ daily lives, having affected 38 % of all survey respondents in the past five years. This is followed by 20 % who felt discriminated because of their ‘religion or religious beliefs’ and 15 % because of their

⁽⁶⁾ [Discrimination in the European Union - December 2023 - Eurobarometer survey](#).

⁽⁷⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 16.

⁽⁸⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#), p. 20, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

‘skin colour’ ⁽⁹⁾ (for intersecting grounds of discrimination, see [Racism through an intersectional lens](#)).

- According to the 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey, respondents with Turkish and Syrian backgrounds indicate ‘ethnic or immigrant background’ as the first and foremost ground of their discrimination experiences (55 % and 52 % respectively in the five years before the survey). Religion is also a significant trigger of discrimination for these two groups (experienced by 37 % and 27 % respectively). ‘Ethnic and immigrant background’ (mentioned by 33 %) and religion (18 %) are also the most common triggers of discrimination for respondents with North African background. People of African descent feel most discriminated against because of their skin colour (38 %) and are the most likely of all groups to say they have felt discriminated against because of this, mentioning it at least three times as often as others. ⁽¹⁰⁾
- **Racial discrimination increased over time** (racial discrimination is understood as discrimination based on at least one of the following three grounds: skin colour, ethnic or immigrant background and religion or religious belief). FRA most recent data shows that racial discrimination is consistently high. For some of the groups surveyed, the findings indicate *an increase in the experiences of racial discrimination* when compared to previous rounds of the same survey. For example, the 12-month prevalence of racial discrimination for people of African descent ⁽¹¹⁾, and for Muslim respondents ⁽¹²⁾ increased by 10 percentage points compared with 2016 (24 % to 34 % for people for African descent; and 25 % to 35 % for Muslim respondents). Also, in the latest FRA’s survey of Jewish people, there is an increase from 11 % in 2018 ⁽¹³⁾ to 20 % in 2023 ⁽¹⁴⁾ for respondents who felt discriminated against for being Jewish in the 12 months before the survey.
- **Racial discrimination affects all groups surveyed by FRA:** Over a third (35 %) of all respondents to the 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽¹⁵⁾ have experienced racial

⁽⁹⁾ FRA (forthcoming). EU-MIDIS III.

⁽¹⁰⁾ FRA (forthcoming). EU-MIDIS III.

⁽¹¹⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU](#) – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽¹²⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), p. 44, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽¹³⁾ FRA (2018), [Experiences and perceptions of antisemitism – Second survey on discrimination and hate crime against Jews in the EU](#), p. 59, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽¹⁴⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 77. *Note:* Data collection took place through an online survey from January to June 2023. Therefore, the data do not include the experiences of the EU’s Jewish population after the Hamas attacks on Israel on 7 October 2023 and the kidnappings that followed. The Hamas attacks and their aftermath have had a profound impact on the lives of Jews in the EU (see also Ibid p. 9).

⁽¹⁵⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III; FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU – Experiences of Muslims](#): EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU](#) – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

discrimination in the year preceding the survey, with varying rates by target group. Specifically, 34 % of respondents of African descent, 35 % of Muslim respondents; 48 % of respondents with Syrian background; 51 % of respondents with Turkish background and 27 % of persons with backgrounds in North Africa. According to 2021 Roma Survey ⁽¹⁶⁾ and 2023 Jewish survey ⁽¹⁷⁾, the 12-month prevalence of racial discrimination is at 25 % for Roma respondents and at 20% for Jewish respondents experienced racial discrimination. (Table 2)

Table 2 – Overall prevalence of racial discrimination (including skin colour, ethnic or immigrant background, and religion or religious belief) in 12 months and five years before the survey, different FRA surveys (%)

Time frame	EU-MIDIS III (2022)						Third survey on Jewish people (2023)	Roma Survey (2021)
	Main results (all groups, EU-15) ^a	Muslims ^b	North Africans	From African countries south of the Sahara	Syrians	Turkish	Jews (in 13 countries) ^d	Roma (in 10 countries) ^e
In past 12 months	35	35	27	34	48	51	20	25
In past 5 years	46	47	38	45	57	64	n.a. ^c	n.a.

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b ‘Muslim’ refers to a respondent to the EU Survey on Immigrants and Descendants of Immigrants who self-identified as Muslim when asked about their religion.

^c n.a. = not available for this period.

^d The rates on discrimination experiences for the Third survey on Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism are based on the ground ‘because of being Jewish’. Based on data collected in Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

⁽¹⁶⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 13.

⁽¹⁷⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#): EU Survey of Jewish People. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. The Third Antisemitism survey provides only the 12-month discrimination rate.

^e The rates on discrimination experiences for the Roma survey are based on the ground ‘because of being Roma’. Based on data collected in Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain as well as Bulgaria and Slovakia.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU, Third Antisemitism Survey 2023, Roma Survey 2021.*

- **Racial discrimination is a recurrent experience:** According to *Being Black in the EU* report, some 29 % of people of African descent experienced racial discrimination three to five times in the year before the survey, and 26 % experienced it six or more times.
- **Racial discrimination is prevalent in all areas of life:** FRA data show that racial discrimination may be amplified in certain institutional settings, such as education, the labour market and housing. This becomes particularly visible from studying the connections between respondents’ experiences of racial discrimination in different areas of life. Overall, respondents to FRA’s 2022 EU-MIDIS III and the 2021 Roma survey encounter the highest rate of racial discrimination **when looking for work, and in access to housing** (See FRA data visualisation ⁽¹⁸⁾) (Table 3).
- EU-MIDIS III results show high rates observed for both work-related sub-areas ‘when looking for a job’ (EU-15: 38 %) and ‘at work’ (EU-15: 34 %). Respondents with Turkish (53 % and 46 % respectively) and Syrian (45 % and 41 % respectively) background seem particularly affected by discrimination both when trying to enter the labour market and when at work in the five years before the survey ⁽¹⁹⁾.
- For Roma respondents, compared to data from 2016, **discrimination experiences in employment doubled:** every third Roma older than 16 experienced discrimination due to being Roma when looking for work in the last 12 months (33 % compared to 16 % in 2016) ⁽²⁰⁾.
- Jewish people experienced antisemitic discrimination when looking for work or at work (14 % each, compared to 9 % and 8 % respectively in 2018). For Jewish respondents, the highest rates of discrimination are observed in when in contact with **educational** institutions (17 %, compared to 8 % in 2018) ⁽²¹⁾.
- The share of Roma parents, guardians or students who experience discrimination because of being Roma when in contact with school authorities increased from 7 % in 2016 to 11 % in 2021 ⁽²²⁾.

⁽¹⁸⁾ [Data and maps | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#).

⁽¹⁹⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽²⁰⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 46.

⁽²¹⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#): EU Survey of Jewish People. Luxembourg: Publications Office on the European Union, p. 79.

⁽²²⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 40.

- Of EU-MIDIS III respondents who were in contact with educational facilities, 1 in 6 (17 %) said that they felt racially discriminated against in such settings in the 12 months before the survey ⁽²³⁾.
- **Access to housing**, together with employment, is the area of life with particularly high rates of experienced discrimination in FRA's EU-MIDIS III survey (5-years prevalence of the EU-15: 34 %). Also in this area, respondents with Turkish (47 %) and Syrian (48 %) background were most likely to experience discrimination compared to other groups. However, FRA's 2021 Roma survey shows improvements in the area of housing. Almost one quarter (24 %) of the Roma surveyed in 2021 experienced discrimination due to being Roma when looking for housing in the five years preceding the survey, compared to 41 % in 2016 ⁽²⁴⁾. Among Jewish respondents, 8 % felt discriminated against in accessing housing in the 12 months before the survey ⁽²⁵⁾.
- An increase is observed in experiences of discrimination of Roma in **access to health services**. In 2016, 8 % of the Roma respondents said they have felt discriminated against when accessing health services in the year before the survey, in 2021 14 % felt discriminated against ⁽²⁶⁾. Some respondents in FRA's Jewish survey (6 %) said that they had experienced discrimination when using healthcare services ⁽²⁷⁾.

⁽²³⁾ FRA (forthcoming). EU-MIDIS III.

⁽²⁴⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 56.

⁽²⁵⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#): EU Survey of Jewish People. Luxembourg: Publications Office on the European Union, p. 79.

⁽²⁶⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 49.

⁽²⁷⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#): EU Survey of Jewish People. Luxembourg: Publications Office on the European Union, p. 79.

Table 3 – Discrimination based on ethnic or immigrant background (including skin colour, ethnic origin or immigrant background, and religion or religious belief) in different areas of life in 12 months and five years before the survey, different FRA surveys (%)

Area of life	Time frame	EU-MIDIS III (2022)						Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023)	Roma Survey (2021)
		Main results (all groups, EU-15) ^a	Muslims	North Africans	From African countries south of the Sahara	Syrians	Turkish	Jews (in 13 countries) ^b	Roma (in 10 countries) ^c
When looking for work	Past 5 years	38	39	33	34	45	53	n.a. ^d	n.a.
	Past 12 months	32	31	28	28	38	42	14	33
At work	Past 5 years	34	35	29	31	41	46	n.a.	n.a.
	Past 12 months	24	24	18	23	32	33	14	17 ^e
In access to housing	Past 5 years	34	35	28	31	48	47	n.a.	24
	Past 12 months	33	34	28	28	46	39	8	n.a.
When using public	Past 5 years	20	21	13	18	34	39	n.a.	n.a.

services or administrative offices	Past 12 months	16	17	11	15	27	30	8	n.a.
In education or when in contact with school personnel as a parent or a guardian	Past 5 years	21	22	16	18	27	35	n.a.	n.a.
	Past 12 months	16	17	12	13	21	26	17	12 ^e
In access to healthcare services	Past 5 years	15	15	8	11	24	30	n.a.	n.a.
	Past 12 months	10	11	6	9	17	21	6	14
In public places like bars, restaurants, public transport, shops etc.	Past 5 years	22	23	16	24	31	33	n.a.	n.a.
	Past 12 months	18	19	14	18	26	26	6	n.a.

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b The rates on discrimination experiences for the Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism are based on the ground 'because of being Jewish'. Based on data collected in Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

^c The rates on discrimination experiences for the Roma survey are based on the ground 'because of being Roma'. Based on data collected in Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain as well as Bulgaria and Slovakia if not otherwise indicated.

^d n.a. = not available for this period.

^e Data from EU-8 countries: Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU, Third Antisemitism Survey 2023, Roma Survey 2021.

- Regarding **specific experiences of discrimination at work** (Table 4), around 2 in 5 of the respondents with North African (43 %) or Turkish (36 %) background had not been allowed to take time off for an important religious holiday, service or ceremony. For Jewish respondents the number was 12 % in the year before the survey. More than

half of the respondents with North African backgrounds (52 %) reported being prevented from expressing or carrying out religious practices and customs, such as praying or wearing a headscarf or turban. 8 % ⁽²⁸⁾ of the Jewish respondents had this experience in the year before the survey.

Table 4 – Specific experiences of discrimination in employment because of ethnic or immigrant background in the past 5 years (%)

Specific experience of discrimination	EU-MIDIS III (2022)					Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023)
	Muslims	North Africans	From African countries south of the Sahara	Syrians	Turkish	Jews (in 13 countries) ^b
Given task below qualifications	18	40	21	10	29	n.a. ^c
Talked over or interrupted	14	32	21	11	37	n.a.
Had opinions ignored	13	32	24	11	33	n.a.
Prevented from expressing or carrying out religious practices and customs, such as praying or wearing a headscarf or turban	13	52	12	7	30	8
Not allowed to take time off for a very important religious holiday/service/ceremony	12	43	12	10	36	12
Denied a promotion	11	36	21	9	34	n.a.
Not allowed to take time off for private reasons	8	45	17	7	32	n.a.
Excluded from meetings or discussions	7	37	20	11	32	n.a.
Fired, dismissed or laid off	4	41	19	12	28	n.a.

⁽²⁸⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 79f.

Not allowed to join a trade union	3	35	15	11	40	n.a.
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Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b 12-month prevalence. The rates on discrimination experiences for the Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism are based on the ground 'because of being Jewish'. Based on data collected in Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

^c n.a. = not available for this period.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU, Third Antisemitism Survey 2023*.

- Findings also show that experiences of racial discrimination in education are closely related to experiences of racial discrimination in employment (including both looking for work and at work). Furthermore, experiences of racial discrimination at work are closely related with such experiences in access to housing and/or to public or private services.

1.2. Racist harassment

Key findings

- Between 22 % and 35 % of respondents to the most recent FRA surveys had experienced some form of racist harassment in the five years before the surveys were conducted. (Table 5)
- 21 % respondents to FRA's EU-MIDIS III survey respondents said they had experienced **bias-motivated harassment** in the five years before the survey. Like the findings related to racial discrimination, among the different group's respondents with Syrian or Turkish background were most likely to experience bias-motivated harassment (35 % and 32 %).
- Only for respondents with a North-African background, a decrease by almost 10 % could be observed since 2016 (from 29 % to 18 % in the 12 months before the survey).
- Around 17 % of Roma respondents ⁽²⁹⁾ reported experiencing at least one instance of bias-motivated harassment in the 12 months prior to the survey - significantly lower than the 30 % recorded in 2016 across nearly all countries included in both survey years.

⁽²⁹⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 22.

- More than 1 in 3 respondents (37 %) of the Jewish survey experienced bias-motivated harassment in the past 12 months before the survey – an increase by 6 % compared to 2018. Offline harassment saw a notable increase, growing from 26 % to 32 % across the 11 countries surveyed. ⁽³⁰⁾
- Overall, women and men wearing traditional or religious clothing in public are more likely to experience racist harassment than those who do not. For example, Muslim women who wear traditional or religious clothing (such as a headscarf, hijab or niqab) in public are more likely to experience racist harassment than those who do not: 27 %, compared with 16 %.
- Young Muslim respondents are more likely to experience racist harassment than older respondents. For example, every fourth Muslim respondent (25 %) of those aged 16–24 years and 25–44 years experienced at least one act of racist harassment, compared with 9 % of those aged 60 years or over.
- Some 16 % of Muslim parents or guardians and 23 % of those of African descent said that their children experience racist harassment or bullying at school ⁽³¹⁾. Some 6 % of Muslim parents/guardians and 8 % of parents/guardians of African descent mentioned racist violence (i.e. physical abuse such as hitting, hair-pulling and kicking).

Table 5 – Bias-motivated harassment and violence in 12 months and five years before the survey, different FRA surveys (%)

Survey	Target group	Bias-motivated harassment in the past 5 years	Bias-motivated harassment in the past 12 months	Bias-motivated violence in the past 5 years
EU-MIDIS III (2022)	Main results (all groups, EU-15) ^a	27	21	4
	Muslims	27	22	4
	North Africans	22	18	3
	From African countries south of the Sahara	30	24	4
	Syrians	35	25	5

⁽³⁰⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#): EU Survey of Jewish People. Luxembourg: Publications Office on the European Union, p. 70.

⁽³¹⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#). Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 56. FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 65.

	Turkish	32	25	6
Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023)	Jews (in 13 countries) ^b	n.a. ^d	37	5
Roma Survey (2021)	Roma (in 10 countries) ^c	n.a.	17	1 ^e

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b The rates on discrimination experiences for the Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism are based on the ground 'because of being Jewish'. Based on data collected in Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain and Sweden.

^c The rates on discrimination experiences for the Roma survey are based on the ground 'because of being Roma'. Based on data collected in Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain as well as Bulgaria and Slovakia.

^d n.a. = not available for this period.

^e Refers to 12 months prevalence.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU, Third Antisemitism Survey 2023, Roma Survey 2021.*

1.3. Structural inequality

Proposed policy actions based on selected FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent and *Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims*

Education

- Step up efforts to counter racism and discrimination in schools, ensuring that education systems build pupils' and students' resistance to Anti Muslim hatred and prejudice.
- Strengthen efforts to reach the EU-level target stipulating that the share of early leavers from education and training should be less than 9 % by 2030. Pay particular attention to the substantially higher rates among people of African descent, Muslims and non-EU citizens.

Employment

- *Develop specific policies to address racism and racial discrimination experienced by people of African descent in their enjoyment of key economic and social rights, such as in the realm of employment.*
- *Facilitate the recognition of foreign educational and training qualifications from EU and non-EU countries and support the full socioeconomic inclusion of people of African descent so that they can get decent work (appropriate to their educational qualifications and professional experience), remain in employment and improve their job security.*
- *Develop specific measures to reduce the gap in overqualification rates between the general population and non-EU nationals, which specifically affects the key economic and social rights of Muslims with migration backgrounds.*
- *Implement targeted measures supporting the labour market participation of Muslims who wear visible religious symbols or clothing in public, particularly young Muslim women.*

Housing

- *Take all measures necessary to address discrimination against people of African descent in the housing market, including addressing inequalities in accessing housing and ensuring adequate housing and housing assistance.*
- *Tackle discrimination in the housing market, including by addressing inequalities in accessing housing and ensuring adequate housing and housing assistance.*
- *Promote models of autonomous (rather than collective) housing for asylum applicants, especially families.*
- *Disseminate and scale up successful innovative models of inclusive and affordable housing for beneficiaries of international protection and enable a smooth transition for asylum seekers to independent living once they have been granted international protection.*
- *Monitor the specific disadvantages of ethnic and/or religious minorities, including Muslims, when adopting measures to mitigate the burden of rising costs of living, housing and energy.*

Health

- *Ensure equal rights to healthcare and develop monitoring tools by making use of human rights-based indicators to map health inequalities concerning people with diverse ethnic/religious backgrounds.*
- *Provide sufficient information for immigrants and descendants of immigrants about their right to equal access to regular healthcare services, including mental health services*
- *Provide training to healthcare workers on diversity management and the needs of specific religious or ethnic minorities and immigrants, making use of the different projects and training materials developed under the EU health programmes.*

Key findings

Education

- According to the 2023 *Being Black in the EU* report, more than a third (36 %) of respondents aged 16 to 64 have completed at most lower secondary education or have not completed any educational level (ISCED 0–2). The corresponding rate among the general population in the same age group is 25 %. Some 42 % of respondents, close to the percentage in the general population (46 %), have completed upper secondary or post-secondary education (ISCED 3–4). About one in five respondents of African descent (22 %) have completed tertiary education (ISCED 5–8), compared with 30 % of the general population in the EU-27.
- The 2024 *Being Muslim in the EU* report documents that roughly 2 out of 5 (40 %) Muslim respondents aged 16–64 have completed only lower secondary education or have not completed any education level (ISCED 0–2). The corresponding rate among the general population in the same age group is 25 %. 42 % of Muslim respondents, close to the percentage in the general population (45 %), have completed upper secondary or post-secondary education (ISCED 3 or 4). About 1 in 5 Muslim respondents (19 %) have completed tertiary education (ISCED 5–8), compared with 30 % of the general population in the EU-27.
- Compared to persons aged 18-24 years old in the general population (10 % in the EU-27), respondents to the different surveys in the same age group are noticeably more likely to be **early school-leavers** (not continuing education or training after obtaining lower secondary education; 36 % of the respondents with background in African countries south of the Sahara, 30 % of the Muslim respondents, and 71 % of the Roma respondents) ⁽³²⁾.
- A large proportion of young respondents who are neither in employment nor in education (**NEET**) is commonly seen to reflect potential structural problems in the education system and employment opportunities. EU-MIDIS III respondents with background in African countries south of the Sahara (14 %) ⁽³³⁾ and Muslim respondents (10 %) ⁽³⁴⁾ show similar rates as the general population (11 % in the EU-27 in 2020). For Roma respondents, on average, even more Roma aged 16–24 were NEET in 2021 than in 2016 (56 % versus 53 %), contrasting the EU Roma framework's

⁽³²⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#). Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 81. FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 92. FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries – Main results: Roma survey 2021](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 38.

⁽³³⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#). Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 86.

⁽³⁴⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 100.

call on the Member States to ensure that by 2030 fewer than one in three Roma youth are NEET ⁽³⁵⁾. In terms of gender differences, on average, a higher proportion of young Roma women (69 %) are NEET than young Roma men (44 %).

Employment

- Findings indicate that **structural inequalities in employment persist**. Substantial differences between the groups at risk surveyed by FRA and the general population occurred for example regarding the rate of employment, the types of contracts and the rate of overqualification, significantly affecting the quality of life. For instance, 63 % of the Muslim respondents ⁽³⁶⁾ and 43 % of the Roma respondents ⁽³⁷⁾ aged 20 to 64 in the countries surveyed were in paid work in 2022 and 2021 respectively – that is, in full-time work, in part-time work, doing ad hoc jobs, in self-employment or occasional work – or had worked in the past four weeks, compared to 73 % of the general population in 2022.
- The **gender gap in employment** was bigger among the groups surveyed by FRA than among the general population (18 % among respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽³⁸⁾ and 31 % among respondents to the Roma survey ⁽³⁹⁾ compared to 11 % in the general population). Also, the 2021 Roma survey shows similar results: Only 28 % of Roma women aged 20 to 64 are in employment in comparison with 58 % of Roma men. This gap is like that observed in 2016. The gender employment gap reached on average 31 percentage points in 2021. This is a negative trend compared with 2016, as the gender gap was, on average, 27 percentage points in 2016.
- About a third (32 %) of the respondents of African descent **work in elementary occupations**, compared to 8 % of the general population across all 27 EU countries.
- Every third (30 %) employed respondent of African descent has only a **temporary contract**, which is about three times the value for the general population (11 %).
- Moreover, respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey were more often **overqualified** for the job than the general population regardless of their citizenship. ⁽⁴⁰⁾ Around every third EU citizen of African descent with tertiary education works in an occupation below their level of education (35 % compared with 21 % in the general population)

⁽³⁵⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 45.

⁽³⁶⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 92.

⁽³⁷⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 43.

⁽³⁸⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽³⁹⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 44.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

and more than half of non-EU citizens of African descent do so (57 % compared with 40 % in the general population).

Housing and poverty

- **Access to affordable and decent housing is a key aspect of social inclusion.** In 2021, 70 % of the EU population lived in owner-occupied dwellings, 20 % were renting accommodation at market rates and 10 % were tenants in reduced-rent or free accommodation. Only 11 % of respondents of African descent lived in owner-occupied dwellings and 36 % lived in accommodation rented from private landlords. Some 45 % lived in municipal or social housing. These numbers indicate that the monthly housing cost burden for people of African descent is much higher than for the general population.
- According to data from the EU-MIDIS III survey, there are severe disparities in **home ownership** between immigrants and descendants of immigrants and the general population. While in 2022, 69 % of the EU population were homeowners, only 17 % of the FRA survey respondents owned their homes across all countries surveyed ⁽⁴¹⁾.
- **Living in low-quality housing can have long-term negative impacts on the well-being and physical and mental health of adults and children.** Overcrowded households and unhealthy housing conditions such as mould or damp walls can **increase the risk of illness**. Results from the 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey and the 2021 Roma survey show that while 17 % of the general population (EU-27) **lived in overcrowded housing in 2021**, it was 30 % of the respondents to the 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey, with rates for respondents of African descent at 45 % and Muslim respondents at 40 %, meaning 2.5 times higher than for the general population. For Roma respondents to the 2021 Roma survey the rate is at 82 % ⁽⁴²⁾.
- **Growing up in low-quality and overcrowded housing puts children at higher risk of experiencing physical and mental problems and affects their overall development.** On average, 24 % of people living in a household of Muslim respondents and 17 % of respondents of African descent **live in housing with a leaking roof; mould or damp walls, floors or foundations; or rot in window frames or floors**. This is above the rate for the general population in the EU-27 in 2022 (14 %). Similarly for Roma respondents, rates were higher than in the general population, with 19 % living in housing that is too dark; 25 % reporting leaking roofs, damp walls or rot in window frames; and 34 % living without an indoor shower or bathroom, and 33 % without an

⁽⁴¹⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁴²⁾ FRA (2023), *Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants*. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 82. FRA (2024), *Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 93. FRA (2022), *Roma in 10 European countries – Main results: Roma survey 2021*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 53.

indoor toilet ⁽⁴³⁾. One in five Roma respondents lived in households without indoor tap water (22 %), which is an improvement since 2016 where 30 % did so, but still a 15 times higher rate than the general population (1.5 %) ⁽⁴⁴⁾.

- **Rising energy prices and the increasing cost of living have increased the levels of energy poverty in Europe**, with putting people of African descent at higher risk of poverty than the general population. For example, every third respondent of African descent (32 %) faced difficulties or great difficulties in **making ends meet**, while on average 18 % of the general population in the EU indicated having financial difficulties. A third (31 %) of Muslim households faced (great) difficulties in making ends meet, compared with, on average, 19 % of the general population in 2022.
- **Energy poverty affects persons of African descent disproportionately**. 14 % say they **cannot afford to keep their home warm** (compared with 7 % of the general population in 2021). The rates are similar for Muslim households when compared with households of the general population (18 % and 9 % in 2022 respectively).
- The 2022 EU-MIDIS III survey findings also show that the households of Syrian respondents are much more likely to live in **low-quality housing** and in **poor conditions** and to face severe material deprivation and poverty. They are also more likely to have (great) difficulty in making ends meet than other target groups.
- In 2021, 6 % of the general population indicated that they had been **in arrears with their utility bills** at least once in the 12 months before the survey. Households with people of African descent are three times more likely to be in arrears (18 %). People living in Muslim households are close to three times more likely (20 %) to be in arrears on their utility bills than the general population in 2022 (7 %).
- The majority of Roma households (52 %) **experience housing deprivation** across all EU countries covered – a number smaller than in 2016 (61 %), but still approximately three times as many as among the general population across the EU (17 %).
- According to the 2021 Roma survey, Roma younger than 15 are more **often at risk of poverty** than the non-Roma population in Croatia (90 %), Czechia (85 %) and Serbia (91 %). In Czechia, almost all Roma (92 %) older than 65 are at risk of poverty, compared with the country average for Roma of 77 %.
- The vast majority of children aged 0-17 lives in households at risk of poverty (83 %), while for the non-Roma population this number amounts 20 %.
- People living in Muslim households are three times more likely (19 %) to face **severe material deprivation** than the general population (6 %).
- Almost half of the respondents to the Roma survey lived in households facing **severe material deprivation** in 2021 (48 %), which depicts an improvement of the situation since the last survey in 2016 (62 %). Nevertheless, compared to the general

⁽⁴³⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 52.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 56.

population, Roma are 8 times as likely to be affected by severe material deprivation (6 % vs. 48 %). Roma children show the highest vulnerability compared to other age groups (54 %).

Health

- **Life expectancy is significantly lower for Roma:** According to 2021 Roma survey, Roma women live 11 years less than women in the general population, and Roma men live 9.1 years less than men in the general population. Roma women live 4.1 years longer than Roma men, on average.
- Overall, 20 % of respondents of African descent aged 16–64 years indicated (some or severe) **long-standing limitations in their usual activities due to health problems**. This is close to the rate among the general population of the same age in the EU-27 in 2021 (17 %).
- Muslim respondents and respondents of African descent are twice as likely than the general population to have had **unmet medical needs** in the 12 months before the survey (8 % and 9 % respectively compared with 4 % in the EU-27 in 2022). ⁽⁴⁵⁾ Most respondents of African descent mentioned **affordability** as the reason for their unmet healthcare need: 41 % said the service was too expensive and/ or that their health insurance did not cover the service. 17 % of respondents mentioned **long waiting lists**. Some 15 % of respondents said that they were waiting to see if the problem got better, and another 8 % did not know of any good doctor or specialist. 32 % had **no health insurance** in their country of residence.

1.4. Racism through an intersectional lens

Proposed policy actions based on selected FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Equality in the EU 20 years on from the initial implementation of the equality directives

- *The EU legislator should consider broadening the concept of discrimination to include intersectional discrimination in existing and new legislation in the area of equality and non-discrimination. This would enable the EU and Member States to reinforce legal protection against intersectional discrimination, in particular for women who face discrimination based on the combination of different grounds of discrimination.*

⁽⁴⁵⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#). Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 82. FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 94.

- *To develop strategies to adequately capture situations in which different grounds of discrimination intersect or act in combination with one another – that is, multiple and intersectional discrimination – EU Member States should use a comprehensive set of equality data collection tools, including large-scale quantitative surveys covering different population groups and grounds of discrimination, alongside discrimination testing, which is an established method for generating objective evidence of discrimination.*

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent & Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims

- *EU Member States are encouraged to collect data disaggregated by racial or ethnic origin, in order to capture experiences of discrimination and victimisation and intersecting forms of discrimination. These data should be comprehensive, reliable, representative and comparable. Collecting these data should be mainstreamed into EU and national surveys, and to the extent possible in administrative data systems.*

Key findings

Intersectionality is understood as a concept and theoretical framework that facilitates recognition and understanding of the complex ways in which social identities overlap and can create compounding experiences of discrimination. ⁽⁴⁶⁾ It involves acknowledging and paying specific attention to, inter alia “*diversity within groups or communities and the need to recognize the non-homogeneous experiences and needs of individuals affected by intersectional discrimination and oppression*”. ⁽⁴⁷⁾ (see also [Annex 2: Terms and](#))

FRA employs an intersectional approach to its work consistently evidencing that people experience overlapping forms of discrimination. FRA surveys disaggregate relevant indicators by age, gender, disability, religion, sexual orientation and gender identity, in the light of the complex interactions between multiple social identities and recognising the potential for different grounds of discrimination to intersect. In addition, the analyses look at the intersection of different grounds of discrimination with the socioeconomic situations or living conditions of the respondents.

⁽⁴⁶⁾United Nations Network on Racial Discrimination and Protection of Minorities and OHCHR (2022), [Guidance Note on Intersectionality](#); See also UN Women (2021), [Intersectionality Resource Guide and Toolkit – An intersectional approach to leave no one behind](#). See also European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) (n.d.), ‘[Intersectionality](#)’. FRA and European Court of Human Rights (2018), [Handbook on European non-discrimination law – 2018 edition \(europa.eu\)](#), Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European, p. 59

⁽⁴⁷⁾ United Nations Network on Racial Discrimination and Protection of Minorities and OHCHR (2022), [Guidance Note on Intersectionality](#);

- Findings for all groups surveyed in FRA’s EU-MIDIS III survey show that racial discrimination more often concerns young people, people with higher levels of education, people with disabilities and people who self-identify as belonging to a minority in terms of religion, disability, gender identity or gender expression, or sexual orientation. ⁽⁴⁸⁾ Looking at different generations of immigrants, 2nd generation respondents experienced more racial discrimination in the past five years before the survey (59 %) than 1st generation respondents (41 %). ⁽⁴⁹⁾
- **Intersection grounds of discrimination:** 40 % of respondents of African descent who felt discriminated against in the year before the survey mentioned two different grounds, every tenth respondent (11 %) said they have felt discriminated against on three grounds, and another 5 % on four or more grounds in the same period. (Table 6) The results point to a substantial intersection of the grounds ‘skin colour’ and ‘ethnic or immigrant background’ among respondents of African descent.
- A considerable proportion of respondents (63 %) who felt discriminated against because of their skin colour in the five years preceding the survey, also felt discriminated against because of their ethnic or immigrant background. Moreover, 12 % of respondents who felt discriminated against because of their ‘skin colour’ in the five years preceding the survey also felt discriminated against based on their religion or religious beliefs.
- A considerable proportion (79 %) of those Muslims who said that they felt discriminated against because of their religion in the year before the survey also faced discrimination due to their ethnic or immigrant background. 26 % of respondents who said that they felt discriminated against because of their religion also experienced discrimination due to their skin colour, 19 % due to their age and 12 % due to their sex/gender. ⁽⁵⁰⁾
- Respondents to FRA’s 3rd LGBTIQ survey ⁽⁵¹⁾ who define themselves as ‘asylum seeker or refugee’ reported much higher rates of feeling discriminated against because of being LGBTIQ (54 %) than those who do not identify as such (37 %). A similar tendency is observed for those who identify as a member of a minority group in terms of religion (47 % v 37 %), ethnicity or migrant background (43 % v 37 %), and skin colour (43 % v 37 %).
- **Employment:** According to FRA’s *Being Muslim in the EU* report, Muslim women, especially young women, who usually wear a headscarf, hijab or niqab outside the house face barriers when seeking employment and developing a professional career

⁽⁴⁸⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁴⁹⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 44.

⁽⁵¹⁾ FRA (2024), [LGBTIQ equality at a crossroads – Progress and challenges](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p.32.

when compared with Muslim men of the same age or with Muslim women who do not wear such clothing when out in public.

- **Muslims with disabilities:** In addition, the survey findings show a substantially greater prevalence of discrimination, harassment and violence, and greater experience of structural barriers, among Muslims with disabilities. For example, 44 % of Muslim respondents with disabilities, compared with 31 % of those without disabilities, said that they felt racially discriminated against in at least one area of life in the year before the survey, and 32 % of Muslim respondents with disabilities, compared with 18 % of those without disabilities, said that they felt racially discriminated against when in contact with educational facilities in the 5 years preceding the survey. ⁽⁵²⁾
- 29 % of Muslim respondents aged 16–64 years indicated (some or severe) long-standing limitations in their usual activities due to health problems. Among the general population of the same age, this proportion is 19 %. Long-standing limitations are more often observed among Muslim women (34 %) than Muslim men (24 %). The rate of experiencing such limitations increases with age: in the youngest age group (16–24 years), the rate is 15 %; in the two oldest age groups, it reaches over 40 % (45–59 years: 42 %; 60 years or over: 47 %). The rate of facing long-standing limitations is higher (40 %) for those Muslim respondents who self-identify as belonging to a minority (e.g. in terms of gender identity or sexual orientation) than for those who do not identify as belonging to a minority (28 %). Overall, almost a third (30 %) of Muslim respondents aged 18–24 years are early school-leavers. This rate is more than three times higher than the average for the general population in the EU-27. Belonging to a minority in terms of disability (45 %) increases the likelihood of Muslim respondents being early school-leavers.
- The paid-work rate is 66 % for Muslim respondents aged 25–44. It is 53 % among Muslim respondents with disabilities, compared with 68 % among those without disabilities.
- **Health:** Of those respondents to the 2021 Roma survey ⁽⁵³⁾ who had used healthcare services in the previous 12 months, more Roma women (16 %) experienced discrimination than Roma men (13 %) in 2021. Respondents aged 16–24 report the lowest share (10 %) of discrimination experiences when accessing health services, followed by the oldest (65+) age group (13 %). Those in the 25–44 and 45–64 age groups report higher levels of discrimination (16 %). Those who were not severely limited in their daily activities in the last six months report the highest level (18 %) of discrimination when accessing health services, followed by those who were severely limited (17 %) and those who were not at all limited (12 %).

⁽⁵²⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg,

⁽⁵³⁾ FRA (2021), [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021](#), Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 48.

- On average, less Roma women (74 %) than Roma men (79 %) have medical insurance coverage. Similar differences are seen between the youngest (16–24) and oldest (65+) Roma respondents (75 % versus 83 %), and between those who were not severely limited in their daily activities in the last six months and those who were (76 % versus 80 %).
- In terms of **intersectional aspects of reporting discrimination**, EU-MIDIS III survey and Roma survey ⁽⁵⁴⁾ shows no substantial differences in the level of reporting between women and men. In EU-MIDIS III, respondents identifying as belonging to a minority in terms of gender identity or gender expression (17 %), in terms of sexual orientation (13 %) and in terms of disability (13 %) were more likely to report than those who did not belong to such group(s) (6 %). ⁽⁵⁵⁾ Similarly, a notable difference is seen for Roma with disabilities. Those who experience severe limitations in their daily activities due to disability or chronic illness show a higher tendency to report incidents (11 %) than those who do not experience such limitations (4 %). ⁽⁵⁶⁾

Table 6 – Number of grounds of discrimination experienced in the 12 months before the survey, different FRA surveys (%)

Number of grounds of discrimination experienced in the 12 months before the survey	People of African descent	Muslims
1 ground	44 %	48 %
2 grounds	40 %	32 %
3 grounds	11 %	13 %
4 or more grounds	5 %	8 %

Source: *Being Black in the EU (2023)* and *Being Muslim in the EU (2024)*.

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Refers to EU-8. FRA (2021), [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 30.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Refers to EU-8. FRA (2021), [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 30.

2. Rights awareness, knowledge of equality bodies and under reporting of discrimination

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent and *Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims*

- *Raise awareness of anti-discrimination legislation and relevant redress mechanisms by all appropriate means, in line with Article 10 of the racial equality directive.*
- *Accelerate efforts to transpose the directives on binding standards for equality bodies without delay and ensure that equality bodies have the necessary mandates and resources to tackle discrimination and fulfil their roles effectively and independently.*
- *Equality bodies need to build a relationship of trust with targeted communities, increase awareness of rights and remedies and address the perceived lack of effective action against racism and discrimination.*

Roma survey

- *The EU Roma framework calls on Member States to double the proportion of Roma who file a report when they experience discrimination – that is, to ensure that by 2030 at least 30 % of Roma victims report the discrimination.*

Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism

- *Step up their efforts to implement their positive and statutory obligations towards encouraging victims and witnesses to report antisemitic incidents and criminal offences.*
- *Put in place new or improve existing structures that facilitate the reporting of antisemitic incidents and criminal offences. Use third-party and anonymous reporting and invest in standardising referrals to and from third parties.*
- *Work closely with community organisations to identify and develop practical tools that could increase community members' awareness of rights and remedies.*

Equality in the EU 20 years on from the initial implementation of the equality directives

- *Develop specific guiding principles on encouraging reporting of discrimination to equality bodies under the activities of the High-Level Group on Non-discrimination,*

Equality and Diversity, and in close cooperation with Equinet, equality bodies and relevant civil society organisations.

- *With respect to encouraging reporting, the EU and Member States should consider transferring lessons learned from activities facilitated by FRA on encouraging reporting of hate crime under the EU High Level Group on combating hate speech and hate crime to the context of encouraging discrimination reporting to equality bodies.*
- *Foster independent research with groups in the population most affected by discrimination to explore the various factors that may influence people's decision on whether or not to report to equality bodies.*

Key findings

Across the different groups covered by FRA surveys (e.g., Roma, Muslims, Black persons, LGBTIQ and Jews), very few victims report the incidents (Table 7). This indicates that existing processes and systems for reporting experiences of discrimination are ineffective and do not provide effective redress for victims of discrimination.

- Incidents of discrimination remain largely invisible to institutions, with **reporting of discrimination** incidents ranging from 5 % to 11 % of respondent across the different FRA surveys. There is a notable increase of under-reporting among respondents of the Roma survey ⁽⁵⁷⁾. While in 2016 on EU average 16 % of Roma respondents ⁽⁵⁸⁾ reported the most recent incident of discrimination, in 2021 only 5 % did so.
- There are also pronounced **differences in the reporting rates between** the various **groups** surveyed, and the level of reporting discrimination is unevenly distributed **across Member States** pointing to varying degrees of effectiveness of existing laws and policies on the national level. ⁽⁵⁹⁾ (see FRA data visualisation tools ⁽⁶⁰⁾)
- Similarly, **racist harassment remains invisible**: for example, among respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey and to the Roma survey, only 14 % of the most recent incidents of racist harassment were reported to the police or other services. The rate thus remains at the same low level as in 2016 for both groups (10 %). Respondents to the Jewish survey were more likely to report the last incident of antisemitic harassment (28 %) ⁽⁶¹⁾. (for reporting rates of violence see [Key findings of the section in combating hate crime](#))

⁽⁵⁷⁾ FRA (2021), [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021](#), Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 15.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ FRA (2021), [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021](#), Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 30.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ See FRA data explorer.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ [Data and maps | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#).

⁽⁶¹⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism – EU Survey of Jewish People](#). Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, p. 82.

Table 7 – Reporting rate of incidents of discrimination and bias-motivated harassment, different FRA surveys (%)

Survey	Group	Reporting rate of any incident of discrimination in the past 12 months	Reporting rate of last incident of bias-motivated harassment
EU-MIDIS III (2022)^a	Main results (all groups, EU-15) ^a	7	14
	Muslims	6	12
	North Africans	8	17
	From African countries south of the Sahara	9	13
	Syrians	4	11
	Turkish	6	12
Third survey on Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023)	Jews (in 13 countries)	11 ^b	28
Roma Survey (2021)	Roma (in 10 countries)	5 ^c	14

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b Refers last incident of discrimination based on being Jewish or religious beliefs.

^c Refers to last incident of discrimination because of being Roma.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU*, *Third Antisemitism Survey 2023*, *Roma Survey 2021*.

- Reasons for not reporting remain consistent with previous FRA survey results: The main **reason for not reporting a discriminatory incident** is the belief that nothing would have happened or changed by reporting it (mentioned by 38 % of respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽⁶²⁾; 39 % to the Jewish survey ⁽⁶³⁾; 49 % to the LGBTQI III survey ⁽⁶⁴⁾; 30 % of the respondents of the Roma survey ⁽⁶⁵⁾).

⁽⁶²⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁶³⁾ FRA (2024), *Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism – EU Survey of Jewish People*. Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, p. 86.

⁽⁶⁴⁾ FRA (2024), *LGBTIQ at a crossroads: progress and challenges*, Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, p. 51.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ Refers to EU-8. [FRA Data Explorer](#), Roma Survey I Reporting > Reason for not reporting last incident of discrimination to any organisation – pw_DON23.

- Other frequently mentioned reasons include that the incident might be too trivial or not worth reporting (32 % of respondents in the EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽⁶⁶⁾ mentioned this); the incident would not be considered serious enough (24 % of respondents of the Jewish survey ⁽⁶⁷⁾ mentioned this); or victims said they had no proof (23 % of respondents to EU-MIDIS III, and 25 % of respondents to the Jewish survey).
- In terms of **places of reporting discrimination**, respondents who reported the most recent incident did so to their employer: 40 % of the EU-MIDIS III respondents (ranging from 48 % of the Turkish respondents to 13 % of the Syrian respondents). Across surveys, equality bodies were barely addressed to report discrimination (respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey: 5 % ⁽⁶⁸⁾ with Turkish respondents being substantially more likely than all other groups (12 %); respondents to the Jewish survey: 1 % ⁽⁶⁹⁾).

Findings suggest varying levels of rights awareness and existence of equality bodies among the different groups surveyed, however, even where the knowledge of specific equality bodies is higher this fact does not correlate with a substantially higher reporting rate. (Table 7)

- Most EU-MIDIS III ⁽⁷⁰⁾ respondents (72 %) knew that **discrimination based on ethnic origin, skin colour or religion is unlawful** in their country of residence. Differences are observed among the groups covered. While 81 % of the Syrian and 80 % of the Turkish respondents knew of such law, only 67 % of the respondents with North African background did.
- Differences also occurred based on socio-demographic variables. For example, in the EU-MIDIS III survey, younger respondents and second-generation immigrants are more aware of anti-discrimination law in their countries. Awareness also increases with the level of education. For example, in the Roma survey ⁽⁷¹⁾, on average, male respondents and middle-aged respondents (25-64 years) were more aware of equality bodies than women and youngest or oldest respondents.
- Only 39 % of the respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey had heard of at least one **equality body** in the country they lived in, compared to higher rates in Roma (50 %) ⁽⁷²⁾ respondents (Table 8). The findings from the Roma survey, show a notable increase of awareness of equality bodies compared to 2016, when only 29 % of respondents have heard of at least one equality body in their country.

⁽⁶⁶⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ FRA (2024), *Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism – EU Survey of Jewish People*. Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, p. 85.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁶⁹⁾ FRA (2024), *Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism – EU Survey of Jewish People*. Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union, p. 87.

⁽⁷⁰⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁷¹⁾ FRA (2021), *Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021*, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 32.

⁽⁷²⁾ FRA (2021), *Roma in 10 European countries. Main results – Roma Survey 2021*, Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 32.

Table 8 – Proportion of respondents to FRA surveys not aware of at least one equality body in their country, different FRA surveys (%)

Survey	Group	% of respondents who are <u>not</u> aware of an Equality Body
EU-MIDIS III (2022)^a	Main results (all groups, EU-15)	61
	Muslims	64
	North Africans	61
	From African countries south of the Sahara	56
	Syrians	75
	Turkish	64
Roma survey (2021)^b	Roma (in 10 countries)	50

Notes: No data available for Third survey on Jewish People’s Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023).

^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^b The rates on discrimination experiences for the Roma survey are based on the ground ‘because of being Roma’. Based on data collected in Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain as well as Bulgaria and Slovakia.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU*, Roma Survey 2021.

3. Combating hate crime

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent & Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims

- *Member States should fully and correctly transpose and enforce the provisions of the 2008 framework decision on racism and xenophobia, improve the national law enforcement systems to identify and record hate crime effectively.*
- *National law enforcement systems should identify and record hate crimes rigorously, including crimes and discrimination motivated by religious bias and bias against Muslims or those perceived as Muslims.*
- *Increase efforts to reduce unreported and under-recorded crimes.*
- *Ensure that victims of racist crime can seek redress. With victims reluctant to come forward, structures that facilitate reporting should be established, including strengthening and sufficiently funding cooperation with civil-society organisations.*
- *Sustain efforts in raising victims' awareness of their rights and available support services, including enabling referrals to victim support services, consistent with obligations under the victims' rights directive.*
- *To fight under-recording of hate crime, Member States should ensure that the police, public prosecutors and judges are trained to recognise and respond appropriately to instances of racist crime and respond appropriately to the impact of racist abuse on victims.*
- *Member States should draw on the key guiding principles developed by the EU High Level Group on combating hate speech and hate crime, including the principles on cooperation between law enforcement authorities and civil-society organisations. ⁽⁷³⁾*

Encouraging hate crime reporting — The role of law enforcement and other authorities

Putting in place an effective victim-centred approach to hate crime reporting requires:

- *Cultivating an enabling social environment by addressing structural discrimination; eliminating discriminatory policing; publicly condemning hate crime; and raising victims' awareness of their rights and available support.*
- *Establishing the structures that facilitate reporting, including by enabling alternative mechanisms, such as third-party and anonymous reporting; improving national recording and data collection systems; and investing in standardising referrals.*
- *Designing enabling processes by providing practical guidance to the police; embedding hate crime specialisation; strengthening police training and building institutional*

⁽⁷³⁾ See: [Combating hate speech and hate crime - European Commission](#).

capacity; and ensuring structured cooperation within, across and beyond institutional boundaries.

Hate crime recording

- *EU Member States should ensure that any case of alleged hate crime is effectively recorded. [...] National authorities should provide police officers with detailed guidance containing descriptions of bias indicators and a monitoring definition of hate crime.*
- *EU Member States should make further efforts to systematically collect and regularly publish detailed anonymised data pertaining to hate crime.*
- *To gain a better insight into hate crime victimisation in their states, national authorities should design and carry out crime victimisation surveys that include hate crime-specific questions.*
- *EU Member States should set up frameworks of systematic cooperation between law enforcement agencies and relevant civil society organisations (CSOs).*
- *[EU Member States] should adopt whatever measures are necessary to prevent and eradicate [discriminatory] attitudes among police officers, including by changing the prevailing police culture.*

Key findings

FRA surveys gather evidence on people's experiences of bias-motivated violence based on respondents' ethnic or immigrant background, including skin colour and religion or religious beliefs. Although the results stem from different surveys, the data attest to similar prevalence of experiences across groups. The proportions of Roma and Travellers, Jews, Muslims, people of African descent, immigrants and descendants of immigrants across the EU who **experience violations of their fundamental rights and personal safety and integrity remain high.**

- 4 % of respondents to the EU-MIDIS III survey experienced a racist attack in the 5 years before the survey. The percentage is higher among Syrians and Turkish respondents (5 % and 6 % respectively). ⁽⁷⁴⁾
- The 5-year rates of racist violence are higher for Muslims wearing traditional or religious clothing in public (including women who wear headscarves, hijabs or niqabs) (6 %) than for those who do not (3 %). ⁽⁷⁵⁾
- 5 % of respondents to the Jewish survey experienced one or more bias-motivated attacks (e.g. hitting, pushing, kicking or grabbing) because they are Jewish in the 5 years prior to the survey, while 4 % experienced this in the 12 months prior to the survey. Revealing their Jewish identity puts respondents at greater risk. Wearing or

⁽⁷⁴⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁷⁵⁾ FRA (2024), [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

displaying symbols that make them recognisable as Jewish increases the risk they will experience antisemitic violence. More than half of the respondents said perpetrators recognised them as Jewish during the attacks. ⁽⁷⁶⁾

- For Roma respondents, 1 % of respondents so in the 12 months before the survey and thereby decreased compared to 2016 (4 %) ⁽⁷⁷⁾.

Underreporting hinders the visibility of victimisation. FRA surveys consistently reveal the very low number of incidents of racist violence reported to any organisation with the vast majority of physical attacks still remaining unknown to law enforcement. (Table 9)

- The rates of reporting differ across the groups surveyed varying between 29 % and 49 % of the latest racist violence being reported to the police or any other organisation in the 5 years before the survey. For example, 29 % of Roma who suffered physical attacks based on hostility or bias towards Roma in the five years before the survey did not report this to anyone. ⁽⁷⁸⁾ Similarly, only around a third (36 %) of respondents of African descent reported the most recent incident of racist violence they experienced to any organisation. ⁽⁷⁹⁾ Among the Jewish respondents who had experienced antisemitic violence, 49 % reported the most serious incident in the five years preceding the survey to any organisation. ⁽⁸⁰⁾
- The rates for reporting racist violence have not changed since respective preceding FRA survey rounds for most of the groups surveyed, except for Muslims where the data reveals that reporting among Muslim respondents has increased slightly (23 % in 2016 to 30 % in 2022).

The main reasons that respondents give for not reporting bias-motivated incidents are broadly similar across the different FRA surveys. They indicate the **twofold nature of barriers to reporting**. The first relates to wider societal issues of prejudice and structural discrimination, which undermine the willingness of victims to report. Second, victims face specific barriers when engaging with national law enforcement systems.

- The most commonly given reason for not reporting the most recent incident of bias-motivated violence, across all groups, is that nothing would happen or change if the victim reported it. At least one third of respondents to each of FRA's surveys who had experienced such an incident thought this. Another often-cited reason for not

⁽⁷⁶⁾ [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism – EU Survey of Jewish People](#), p. 65.

⁽⁷⁷⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 14.

⁽⁷⁸⁾ FRA (2022), [Roma in 10 European countries](#) – Main results: Roma survey 2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽⁷⁹⁾ FRA (2023), [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants](#), p. 20, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽⁸⁰⁾ FRA (2024), [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

reporting violence or harassment to the police or any other organisation is because respondents perceive procedures to be too bureaucratic and time consuming.

- For example, respondents of African descent did not report the most recent incident because they felt that reporting it would no change anything (36 %) or because they considered reporting to be too bureaucratic or time-consuming (19 %). Others did not report it because they were concerned that no one would believe them or take them seriously or because they lacked trust in the police or were afraid of the police (both 16 %). 15 % of victims of racist violence did not know where to go or whom to contact to report it. ⁽⁸¹⁾

Most victims of racist violence **suffer from psychological problems** and worry about their own safety and that of their family members because they are at risk of becoming targets of racist harassment or violence.

- Results from FRA’s Being Black in the EU report reveal that most victims of racist violence (61 %) suffer psychological problems (e.g. depression or anxiety) because of their experiences. A further 22 % of respondents are afraid to leave the house or visit places after experiencing physical abuse. Nearly one third of victims of racist violence (31 %) have suffered injuries but did not seek medical aid, and 12 % of respondents say that they needed medical help or were hospitalised as a result of a racially motivated physical attack. ⁽⁸²⁾
- Muslim respondents who said that they experienced racist violence (55 %) suffered negative psychological consequences (e.g. depression or anxiety). A further 22 % were afraid to leave the house or visit places. Over one third of those who experienced racist violence (37 %) said that they were injured but did not need medical assistance or hospitalisation. 10 % said that they did need medical assistance or hospitalisation. Some 17 % of Muslim respondents are worried about being physically attacked.

Table 9 – Experiences of bias-motivated violence in 5 years before the survey, and reporting of the most recent incident of bias-motivated violence to the police or any other organisation, different FRA surveys (%)

Survey	Target group	Bias-motivated violence in the past 5 years	Reporting of the most recent incident in the past 5 years
EU-MIDIS III (2022)	Main results (all groups, EU- 15) ^a	4	30

⁽⁸¹⁾ FRA (2023), *Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants*, p. 20, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

⁽⁸²⁾ FRA (2023), *Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants*, p. 20, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

	Muslims	4	30
	North Africans	3	31
	From African countries south of the Sahara	4	36
	Syrians	5	28
	Turkish	6	24
Third survey on Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism (2023)	Jews (in 13 countries) ^b	5	49
Roma Survey (2021)	Roma (in 10 countries) ^c	1 ^e	29

Notes: ^a The rates for EU-MIDIS III - Main results are based on data for all groups surveyed: immigrants and descendants of immigrants from African countries south of the Sahara/ Türkiye/ North Africa and Syria. The EU-15 survey countries are: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.

^d n.a. = not available for this period.

^e Refers to 12 months prevalence.

Source: FRA, EU-MIDIS III 2022 incl. *Being Black in the EU and Being Muslim in the EU*, Third Antisemitism Survey 2023, Roma Survey 2021.

4. Racial profiling and racism in policing

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent & Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims

- *Member States should adopt measures necessary to prevent and eradicate discriminatory institutional practices and culture that enables discriminatory attitudes among police officers and unlawful profiling.*
- *[Review] existing processes and practices, introducing additional safeguards to reduce ethnic profiling, developing training curricula and issuing guidance for law enforcement officers on how to de-escalate situations that are potentially racially charged.*
- *Guidance should be issued by law enforcement authorities and be included in standard operating procedures, training and codes of conduct.*
- *Training should be systematic and conducted regularly, its effectiveness periodically evaluated, and its impact assessed.*
- *All action on addressing racism in policing, including on discriminatory profiling, should be embedded within a broader policy, for example in the national action plan against racism and racial discrimination.*
- *Member States should improve the collection and publication of data on racism in policing, including on unlawful ethnic profiling. The data should be disaggregated, at a minimum, on the complainant's sex/gender; perceived bias motivation, including anti-Muslim bias; and type of incident.*
- *Data on alleged police racist misconduct and the processes and outcomes of related investigations should be published regularly.*

Addressing Racism in Policing

- *EU countries should ensure that their police forces comply with anti-racism provisions in EU and international law.*
- *Member States should collect and publish data on alleged police racist misconduct and the process and outcome of related investigations should be published regularly.*
- *To ensure an effective fight against structural racism in the police, it is necessary that all Member States allow whistle-blower reports regarding misconduct of police forces with a racial motive. Whistle-blower reports should be effectively investigated and addressed in line with the obligations under existing EU law; and whistle-blowers*

should be able to report misconduct without negative consequences and fear of retaliation.

- *Police forces should be more diverse to represent the communities they serve.*
- *Police forces should receive more guidance to prevent racism in their work.*

Key findings

Profiling involves categorising individuals according to personal characteristics, which may include racial or ethnic origin, skin colour, religion or nationality. The police commonly use profiling to prevent, investigate and prosecute criminal offences. However, racial profiling is unlawful and inconsistent with international and European human rights law. Still, the results of FRA surveys, as well as work of intergovernmental bodies and civil society organisations, show that unlawful racial profiling by law enforcement persists among police forces across the EU.

- Results from the EU-MIDIS III survey ⁽⁸³⁾ show that one in four (26 %) respondents were stopped by the police in the five years preceding the survey and 13 % were stopped in the 12 months before the survey. Among those stopped in the 12 months before the survey, half (49 %) of respondents believe the most recent stop was because of their ethnic or immigrant background. The rate for the 5-year period is 43 %. Differences across the Member States could be observed.
- On average in the countries surveyed, immigrants or descendants of immigrants from African countries South of the Sahara and from Syria experienced slightly more discriminatory ethnic profiling among those stopped by police in the five years before the survey (48 % and 46 % respectively) compared to respondents with North-African or Turkish background (42 % and 36 % respectively). Among Muslim respondents, the rate was 42 % ⁽⁸⁴⁾.
- Gender differences regarding experiences of encounters with law enforcement were prevalent, with men being more likely to be stopped by the police than women. For example, 35 % of Muslim men and compared to 14 % of Muslim women had been stopped in the 5 years before the survey. Similarly, in the 5 years before the survey, men of African descent were almost three times more likely to be stopped than women of African descent (38 % versus 13 %) ⁽⁸⁵⁾.
- Men were also more likely to perceive the most recent stop as ethnic profiling than women (46 % vs. 25 % among Muslim respondents; 65 % vs. 56 % among respondents

⁽⁸³⁾ FRA (forthcoming), EU-MIDIS III.

⁽⁸⁴⁾ FRA (2024), *Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims*, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 83.

⁽⁸⁵⁾ FRA (2023), *Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent: EU Survey on immigrants and descendants of immigrants*. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 71.

with African descent). Also, more younger respondents than older respondents perceived the most recent stop to be a result of ethnic profiling.

- The rate of police stops does not substantially differ between Muslim respondents who at least sometimes wear traditional or religious clothing in public and those who never do so. But Muslim women who wear traditional or religious clothing in public are more likely than those who do not to perceive the most recent stop as discriminatory (31 %, compared with 23 %). This is not the case for Muslim men (48 %, compared with 45 %).
- More than half of the Muslim respondents and respondents from African countries south of the Sahara (56 % and 58 % respectively) and whom the police stopped in the 5 years before the survey said that they were treated respectfully; 17 % of the Muslim respondents and 19 % of the respondents from African countries south of the Sahara said that they were treated disrespectfully.
- As in EU-MIDIS II, the third wave of the survey confirms that perceiving police stops as discriminatory reduces respondents' level of trust in the police.
- Police stopped respondents who identify as gay, lesbian, bisexual or transgender or transsexual people at higher rates (5 years, 35 %; 12 months, 23 %) than respondents who do not identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender or intersex (5 years, 26 %; 12 months, 12 %) ⁽⁸⁶⁾.
- Some respondents to FRA surveys experience racial incidents through law enforcement. For example, 1 in 10 Muslim victims of racist violence identified police officers and border guards (11 %) as perpetrators when the perpetrator was known to them.

Racism in the police goes beyond discriminatory racial profiling practices including also excessive use of force. Such incidents can signal deeper structural issues in policing across the EU. Moreover, lack of trust in policing fuels social exclusion and undermines the foundations of a fair and equal society.

FRA's first EU-wide report on racism in policing ⁽⁸⁷⁾ looks comprehensively at the applicable legal frameworks, analyses the gaps in policy responses and in effective oversight and sets out concrete steps to support national efforts to combat racism in policing in four key interrelated areas. Key findings reveal:

- In almost all EU Member States, police forces are not explicitly excluded from the scope of national anti-discrimination legislation. In fewer than 10 Member States, police legislation specifically references the prohibition of racial or ethnic

⁽⁸⁶⁾ FRA (2024), [Addressing Racism in Policing](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg, p. 41.

⁽⁸⁷⁾ FRA (2024), [Addressing Racism in Policing](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg.

discrimination. Very few Member States refer to profiling on the grounds of racial and ethnic origin in their legislation.

- Overall, most Member States had no official data sources on racist incidents and discrimination involving the police. There are no agreed official definitions of racial profiling, criteria for reasonable, necessary or proportionate stop and search or identity checks, or understanding of what is considered excessive use of force across Member States. Moreover, all national human rights institutions and most equality bodies that work in this area do not record or publish complaints on racist incidents in policing (excluding racial profiling) as a specific category.
- Almost all EU Member States have at least one internal (within the police or the related ministry) or external body that has a general or specific mandate to oversee policing. The limitations of most oversight bodies' mandates lead to a lack of legal and/or administrative implications. Most oversight bodies lack one or several of the following essential powers: — to take legally binding decisions; — to impose fines; — to act as a party during criminal proceedings; — to transmit findings directly to the public prosecutor. About half of the oversight bodies in Member States do not record complaints of racism in the police as a separate category. Half of the oversight bodies record racism in the police. Only a few oversight bodies publish some of these data, for example as part of their annual activity reports.
- While, some Member States have made efforts to encourage applicants from ethnic and racially diverse backgrounds to apply to the police, without data indicating the overall proportions, it is not possible to indicate whether police forces reflect the diverse composition of Member States' populations.
- Member States have put in place some policy responses to racist misconduct, such as codes of ethics and practical guidance or specialised training and community policing initiatives. However, it is important that these be systemic and embedded within a broader change policy containing a variety of measures. The measures should be regularly evaluated and their impact assessed.

5. Racist hatred online and bias in algorithms

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

[Online content moderation - Current challenges in detecting hate speech](#)

- *Platforms should have specific regard to protected characteristics of users, such as race and sex, in the context of their terms and conditions, content moderation practices and monitoring policies, including addressing racist and sexist online hate.*
- *Performance indicators should be in place to record the volume of misogyny, racism and xenophobia, online.*
- *For Very Large online platforms, VLOPs, such as X and Youtube, hateful speech motivated by racism, gender and other protected ground should be considered in the context of the risk assessment, with specific indicators, for example on removals and complaints, and be duly mitigated.*
- *The European Commission and the National digital services coordinators should support access to data, by vetting independent researchers without burdensome administrative procedures and potential obstacles in line with data protection safeguards, in line with Art. 40, DSA.*

[Test algorithms for bias to avoid discrimination](#)

- *Test technology for bias - providers and users of automated content moderation tools should test their technology for bias to protect people from discrimination.*

[Equality in the EU 20 years on from the initial implementation of the equality directives](#)

- *The EU and its Member States should assess in detail the impact of the increased reliance on algorithms and AI in decision-making on equal treatment and on discrimination and introduce relevant fundamental rights safeguards to limit this impact.*
- *The EU should also consider funding targeted research on discrimination by means of AI and algorithms.*

Key findings

The expansion of opportunities and platforms for online communication has enhanced everyone's ability to receive information more efficiently and to actively engage in

online discussion, contributing to better access to information and to the exercise of freedom of expression and assembly. Nonetheless, vulnerabilities, discrimination and hate proliferate online for various reasons.

Recent policy developments at the EU level improve regulation of the use of technology and online platforms' liability and due diligence regime. The DSA, adopted in October 2022, requires online intermediary service providers to take a set of measure to protect the rights of users. It requires Very Large Online Platforms (VLOPs) and Search Engines (VLOSEs), those with monthly users of more than 10 percent of the EU population, to undergo assessments with respect to systemic risks, including in relation to illegal content (such as incitement to racist violence and hatred) and fundamental rights. Such risks are required to be assessed and mitigated (Arts 34 and 35, DSA). The new [Code of conduct on illegal hate speech online](#) ⁽⁸⁸⁾ is part of the DSA and underpins efforts to make the online environment safe for every group.

Furthermore, Article 14 of the DSA lays down obligations for online platforms regarding the content moderation practices set out in their terms and conditions. These obligations include that platforms must act with due regard to the fundamental rights of users. Therefore, Article 14 provides an important basis for providing online platforms with more guidance on how to address fundamental rights in their content moderation practices.

In addition, the AI Act, adopted in 2024, is the first binding regional legal framework on AI, which entered into force on 1 August 2024. It aims to improve the functioning of the internal market, support innovation and to promote the uptake of human centric and trustworthy AI and to ensure a high level of protection of health, safety and fundamental rights, including democracy, the rule of law and environmental protection, against the harmful effects of AI systems. It follows a risk-based approach to regulating AI, distinguishing between: (1) prohibited AI practices that pose unacceptable risks, (2) high-risk AI systems to which the majority of the AI Act's requirements pertains, (3) limited-risk AI systems with specific transparency requirements and (4) minimal-risk AI systems falling outside of the scope of the AI Act. In addition, the Act contains specific rules for the development of general-purpose AI models, which can be used for a wide range of distinct tasks.

Recent FRA reports underscore the prevalence and harm of online hate, particularly for vulnerable groups- and the ongoing challenges of effectively moderating such content. In

⁽⁸⁸⁾ European Commission, [The Code of conduct on countering illegal hate speech online +](#), available at: [The Code of conduct on countering illegal hate speech online + | Shaping Europe's digital future.](#)

2023, FRA's analysis of social media posts and comments ⁽⁸⁹⁾ in selected languages and on selected platforms underscored how widespread online hate is. Hateful posts easily slip through online content moderation tools and many people - and in particular women - face harassment, abuse and incitement to violence online. FRA's 2023 report reveals:

- **Widespread online hate based on protected characteristics, including race and ethnicity** - out of 1,500 posts already assessed by content moderation tools, more than half (53 %) expressed hatred based on protected characteristics and were still considered hateful by human coders. The study found that despite content moderation efforts, a significant amount of misogynistic and racist content still bypassed filters and remained online.
- **Negative stereotyping** - people of African descent, Roma and Jews were most often targets of negative stereotyping online. Almost half (47 %) of all hateful posts were direct harassment.

The 2022 FRA report on [bias in algorithms](#) considered the use of artificial intelligence for offensive speech detection. It demonstrates how bias in algorithms may occur and can amplify over time, potentially leading to discrimination. It confirms the need for more comprehensive and thorough assessments of algorithms in terms of bias before such algorithms are used for decision-making that can have an impact on people.

Racist content and online hate speech against certain groups has profound and negative impacts on impact on people's lives. From FRA's latest survey on the experiences of Jews, ⁽⁹⁰⁾ virtually all Jews living in Europe - over 90 % - have experienced antisemitism online in the past years. Encountering antisemitic content online has a chilling effect on freedom of expression and participation in the online space, which is detrimental to democratic processes and civic discourse. According to the FRA survey, nearly one quarter (24 %) of respondents said that they had started avoiding posting content that would identify them as Jewish, while 23 % of respondents said that they limit their participation in online discussions and 16 % have reduced their use of certain platforms, websites or services. ⁽⁹¹⁾

⁽⁸⁹⁾ FRA (2023), [Online content moderation - Current challenges in detecting hate speech | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#) The report covers four social media platforms (Reddit, Telegram, X, and YouTube) in Bulgaria, Germany, Italy and Sweden. FRA was not able to access data from Facebook and Instagram for this research. Between January–June 2022, FRA collected almost 350,000 posts and comments based on specific key words. Human coders assessed about 400 random posts from each country to determine if they were hateful. 40 random posts were then assessed in more detail by coders and legal experts. This report shows the different types of hate speech found across the countries, target groups and platforms covered.

⁽⁹⁰⁾ FRA (2023), [Antisemitism Survey](#) report.

⁽⁹¹⁾ FRA (2023) [Antisemitism Survey](#) report, p. 18

6. Civic space pressures for anti-racism organisations

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations

Ensure an enabling legal environment

- *EU and Member States must protect civic space by aligning legislation with international human rights standards, particularly safeguarding freedoms of expression, assembly, and association.*

Foster participation of anti-racism CSOs

- *Establish a formal EU framework for inclusive, transparent, and regular dialogue with civil society at all levels (for instance in the upcoming EU Civil Society Strategy).*
- *Prioritise meaningful participation of racialised communities and vulnerable groups, with adequate time for consultation and feedback.*

Address threats and attacks

- *Encourage reporting, investigation, and prosecution of threats against CSOs and defenders.*
- *Prevent criminalisation of CSOs, including those supporting migrants.*
- *The EU should strengthen funding for protection and develop an EU-internal protection mechanism (legal, physical, cyber, psychological) for at-risk activists and organisations.*

Strengthen funding for anti-racism work

- *Sustain and expand funding for the full scope of civil society actions promoting EU values, including monitoring, advocacy, and education.*
- *Simplify application and reporting processes, support core funding, re-granting, and multi-year project cycles.*
- *Any transparency requirements must be proportionate, fair, and not create discriminatory or excessive burdens on CSOs.*

Key findings

- FRA works with and on civil society by using the broad definition laid down in its Founding Regulation. ⁽⁹²⁾ FRA has been monitoring civic space developments and the challenges for civil society organisations involved in human rights work across the EU since 2017. ⁽⁹³⁾ FRA’s framework on civic space clusters challenges into four pillars: the legal environment, access to resources, access to decision-making and participation, and threats and attacks. FRA also looks at the capacity and resilience of organisations and fundamental rights defenders to continue their work related to fundamental rights, democracy and values also under civic space pressures.
- FRA’s work on civic space includes notably annual data collection conducted in each Member State by FRA’s research network Franet, and an annual online consultation capturing the experiences and perceptions of civil society organisations (CSOs) in the past year. Each year, approx. 400 leading human rights and democracy CSOs from across the EU respond to FRA’s consultation. ⁽⁹⁴⁾

PROMOTING AN ENABLING LEGAL ENVIRONMENT FOR ANTI-RACISM CSOs

- A vibrant and engaged civil society supports the implementation of EU policies in many areas that are key for upholding and protecting fundamental rights. FRA has pointed to a number of significant hurdles for CSOs and human rights defenders since it issued its report [Challenges facing civil society working on human rights in the EU in 2018](#), and in its subsequent [annual updates](#). CSO and human rights defenders face threats and attacks, excessive legal and administrative restrictions, insufficient resources and access to information, and are often not properly involved in policy and decision-making. At the same time, there is increasing awareness among policy makers in the EU and the Member States about the situation and the need to address it.
- A legal environment conducive to ensuring an open civic space requires a strong legislative framework that protects and promotes the rights to freedom of association, peaceful assembly and expression, in conformity with international

⁽⁹²⁾ FRA Founding Regulation, Art. 10: “[...] non-governmental organisations dealing with human rights, trade unions and employer’s organisations, relevant social and professional organisations, churches, religious, philosophical and non-confessional organisations, universities and other qualified experts of European and international bodies and organisations”.

⁽⁹³⁾ [Civic space | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#).

⁽⁹⁴⁾ FRA’s civic space consultation covering 2024 was open from 26 February to 7 April 2025. It invited CSOs from FRA’s Fundamental Rights Platform and their partners and members to share their experiences. The vast majority of responding organisations work at national (or sub-national) level, while approx. one quarter work at the EU/international level. Respondents work in a range of areas, including advocacy, campaigning and awareness raising, service provision, community engagement, victim support, research and data collection and litigation. Most respondents (over 90 %) are non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

human rights law and standards - notably Article 11 and 12 of [the Charter](#), Article 10 and 11 of the [European Convention on Human Rights \(ECHR\)](#), and Articles 19, 20 and 21 of the [International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights \(ICCPR\)](#). The [UN Declaration on Human Rights Defenders](#), although not legally binding, contains principles and rights that are based on human rights standards enshrined in other legally binding international instruments.

ENSURING PARTICIPATION OF ANTI-RACISM CSOs AND THEIR CONSTITUENCIES

- Participation – both in the development of laws and policies and in their implementation – remains patchy across the EU, as well as at the EU level. Key challenges that CSOs face include difficulties caused by the timing of consultations, a lack of outcomes and feedback and weaknesses in the consultation process itself. Other challenges encountered are accessing information about consultations and a lack of capacity of organisations to contribute (time, skills, knowledge). ⁽⁹⁵⁾
- When it comes to participation in law making and policymaking, organisations representing groups and people at risk of exclusion experience a range of hurdles. In particular, organisations representing and defending the rights of people with a migrant background and with unsecure residence status, people seeking asylum and ethnic and racial minorities (as well as LGBTIQ+ persons and persons with disabilities) encounter serious obstacles in accessing formal channels of political participation and representation, exacerbated by intersectional characteristics, particularly gender, age and economic status. ⁽⁹⁶⁾
- Such organisations share similar challenges to all other CSOs in participation processes. These include limited political will of policymakers to consult meaningfully, difficulties in accessing consultations, weaknesses in the consultation process itself, insufficient feedback on follow-up after consultations, and insufficient capacity of organisations to contribute, including due to a lack of funding for such processes.
- Such challenges are exacerbated for organisations representing groups and people at risk of exclusion:
 - Issues such as migrant or refugee rights, Roma rights or anti-racism are considered by some parts of the population as controversial, and granting human rights to these groups or individuals facing exclusion can be contentious – with repercussions on the organisations implementing such work.
 - Excluded persons often experience multiple forms of discrimination. However, such intersectionality is not always on the radar of policymakers. Failure to include organisations representing certain excluded groups not only may result in those

⁽⁹⁵⁾ FRA (2023), [Protecting civil society](#).

⁽⁹⁶⁾ *ibid.*

groups' inputs being neglected but also means that intersectional needs could be overlooked. ⁽⁹⁷⁾

- Difficulties in participation may arise from structural disadvantages within the CSOs themselves, particularly for organisations run by people identifying as part of an excluded group, which are often run by volunteers with little financial or human resources.
- A number of funding sources are available only for larger established NGOs, meaning that smaller grassroots organisations cannot access them. This makes sustained participation difficult, as essentially any contribution to consultations needs to happen in volunteers' private time. There is also usually no budget available to travel to and attend stakeholders' meetings. ⁽⁹⁸⁾
- Another specific challenge is the lack of official documentation or other legal requirements granting safe status to the members of the organisations, for instance in the case of undocumented migrants. Their precarious situations create additional difficulties for them in organising and speaking up for themselves, as some may fear that raising their voice could result in losing their job and/or legal status. ⁽⁹⁹⁾
- Many channels of participation are not accessible for people without citizenship and/or secure residence status.
- Furthermore, people belonging to excluded groups - such as migrants and people without residence status - may lack self-confidence and empowerment. ⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ In this context, CSOs can play an important role in empowering groups at risk of, or experiencing, exclusion. ⁽¹⁰¹⁾ However, often only larger organisations focusing on broader issues are invited to participate. These organisations therefore have to be particularly careful not to become involuntary gatekeepers but to ensure that those that are most excluded have a seat at the table.
- In this context, it is necessary to raise awareness of the need to broaden consultation processes and to ensure that self-representing groups are consistently included both in online consultations and in stakeholder meetings at national and EU levels. Dedicated funding is needed to support organisations'

⁽⁹⁷⁾ See for instance: CONCORD (2022), [Building partnerships through meaningful consultation: 7 practices for civil society participation in EU decision-making](#), p.3; World Health Organisation, webpage on [Participatory approaches to enhance health practices, policies and services](#); and World Health Organisation (2023), [WHO framework for meaningful engagement](#).

⁽⁹⁸⁾ European Commission (2023). Summary Report, A thriving civic space for upholding fundamental rights in the EU; FRA focus group discussion with representatives of CSOs on 7 July 2023

⁽⁹⁹⁾ See for instance: United Nations (14 July 2023), [Participation of Vibrant Civil Society, Marginalized Communities Crucial for Achieving Global Goals, Speakers Tell High-Level Political Forum](#)

⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ Focus group discussion on 7 July 2023; focus group discussions on 11 and 22 May 2023; focus group discussions on 26 February and 9 March 2021. see also: Kamruzzaman, Palash in Sage Journals (2020), [Exploring the Nexus Between Participation and Empowerment](#); and Green, Duncan (2013), [The Role of the State in Empowering Poor and Excluded Groups and Individuals](#).

⁽¹⁰¹⁾ See, for instance Aditus (2022), [Training kit for empowering refugee-led community organisations](#).

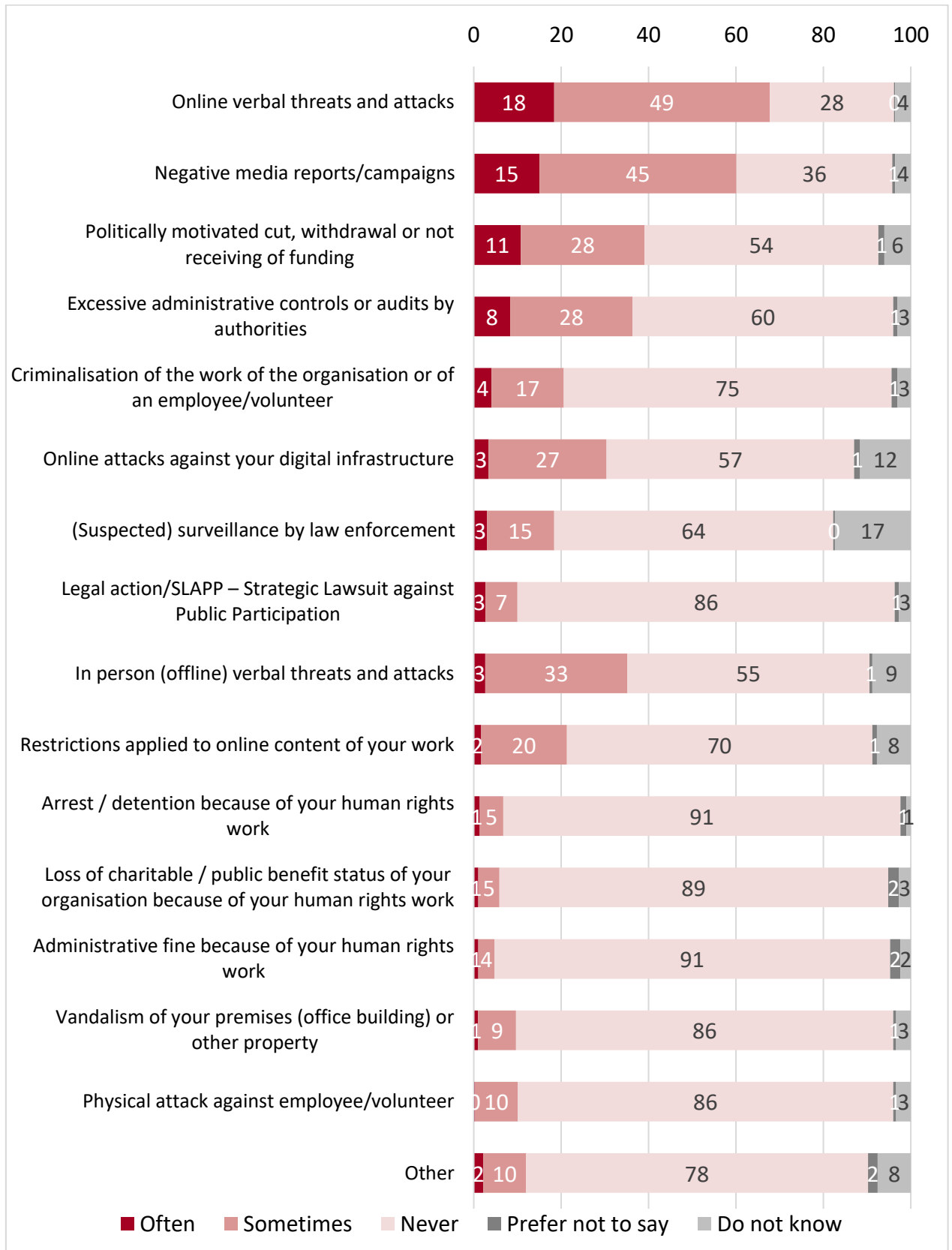
participation in online consultations and in-person consultation meetings. Self-representing groups could feel empowered by being adequately included, for example, by being invited to participate and being listened to, being provided with dedicated capacity-building opportunities, by being provided with easier access to funding, and by being able to participate in the design, implementation and monitoring of EU funding programmes, including funding earmarked for self-representing groups.

ADDRESSING THREATS AND ATTACKS

- CSOs working on human rights in the EU face various forms of threats and attacks against their organisation, their employees and volunteers. Since 2018, FRA’s annual consultations have shown that online verbal threats and attacks, and negative media reports and campaigns are the most frequently experienced types of incidents.
- Threats and attacks take multiple forms. Public authorities use SLAPPS, unnecessary administrative hurdles, smear campaigns, the criminalisation of certain activities and excessive surveillance, CSOs report. About half of respondents to FRA’s consultation report receiving verbal threats offline and online, intimidation and harassment. (Figure 1)
- In several Member States, CSOs and human rights defenders working in specific policy areas report they are increasingly subject to hostile environments, with intimidation, legal proceedings and smear campaigns against their work. This particularly affects anti-racism activists and migrant rights defenders, as well as LGBTIQ+ rights defenders, women’s rights defenders, sexual and reproductive health and rights defenders, environmental rights defenders and child rights defenders.
- Data from FRA’s annual civic space consultations show that responding organisations working on anti-racism experience in particular heightened levels of criminalisation, verbal threats and attacks, negative narrative and smear campaigns, suspected surveillance, and physical attacks against people and property. ⁽¹⁰²⁾

⁽¹⁰²⁾ FRA civic space consultations covering 2022, 2023, 2024

Figure 1 – Frequency of threats and attacks faced by CSOs in 2024 (%)



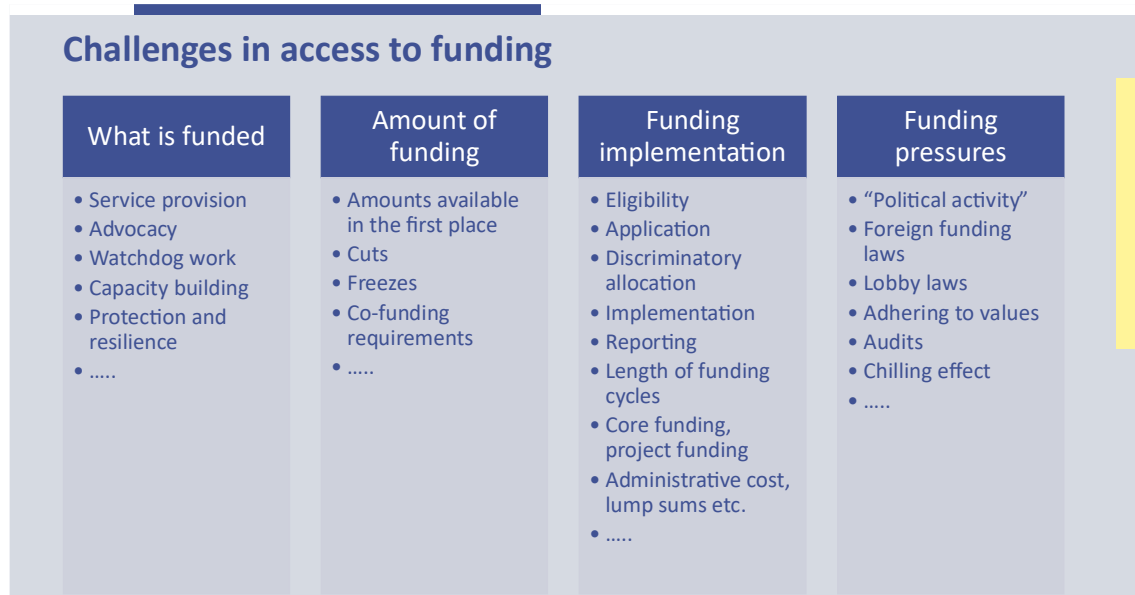
Question: "In the past 12 months, how often did you or any of your employees / volunteers face the following?" (N=93-310)

Source: FRA civic space consultation covering 2024

FUNDING FOR ANTI-RACISM WORK IMPLEMENTED BY CIVIL SOCIETY

- CSOs’ work is essential for strengthening democracy, addressing complex issues, promoting innovation and encouraging local solutions. Their work contributes to building capacity, fostering collaboration and partnerships and ensuring long-term improvements in human rights. This important work needs to be adequately resourced.
- Access to resources is therefore an integral part of the right to freedom of association, as defined in Article 22 ICCPR and other human rights instruments. The concept of ‘resources’ is broadly defined to include financial assistance, material resources, access to international funds, solidarity, the ability to travel and communicate without undue interference, and the right to benefit from the protection of the state.
- However, in practice access to resources remains an ongoing concern for CSOs, as regards both the availability of funding relevant to their work and the accessibility of such funding due to bureaucratic requirements. FRA’s consultations consistently show that the major challenges for national and local organisations are connected to difficulties in finding funding relevant to their work, applying for funding (complicated application procedures, limited administrative capacity to apply), using the funding received (lack of core funding, lack of follow up funding, too short funding cycle) and accessing funding (publicly available information difficult to find, overly restrictive eligibility criteria, rules on foreign funding). Rules on limitations to foreign funding constitute an additional obstacle to the functioning of CSOs. (see Figure 2)

Figure 2 – Challenges in access to funding



7. Equality data and fundamental rights-based approach to monitoring and evaluation

Ways forward

Proposed policy actions based on FRA evidence, opinions and recommendations from

Equality in the EU 20 years on from the initial implementation of the equality directives

Equality data

- *Member States should ensure the systematic collection of reliable, valid and comparable equality data, disaggregated by sex, racial and ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation. Such data should be based on the self-identification of those at risk of discrimination.*
- *Member States should draw on the fullest possible range of sources of equality data, including, at the national level, alongside FRA data, population censuses; administrative registers; household and individual surveys; victimisation surveys; attitudinal surveys; complaints data and research from equality bodies; situation testing; diversity monitoring by employers and service providers; and data generated through qualitative research strategies, such as case studies, in-depth interviews and expert interviews.*
- *Member States should reinforce regular and comprehensive collection of equality data through their national statistical institutes and other relevant government agencies. This includes systematic compilation of equality statistics based on population and household censuses, administrative registers and official EU-wide surveys, such as the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions, the Labour Force Survey and other representative surveys.*
- *Member States should give due consideration to the Guidelines on improving the collection and use of equality data endorsed by the EU High Level Group on Non-discrimination, Equality and Diversity. In line with Guideline No. 2 Member States should consider enabling equality bodies to foster interinstitutional cooperation in the collection and use of equality data.*
- *Civil society organisations representative of population at risk of discrimination should contribute to developing relevant definitions and indicators.*

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent & Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims

- *EU Member States are encouraged to collect data disaggregated by racial or ethnic origin. Collecting these data should be mainstreamed into EU and national surveys, and to the extent possible in administrative data systems.*
- *Member States should collect appropriately disaggregated data on racist hate crime and harassment, use them in national policymaking and impact assessment, and publish them regularly.*
- *Member States should improve the collection and publication of data on racism in policing, including on unlawful ethnic profiling.*

Monitoring and evaluation

Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent

- *The European Commission and Member States are encouraged to develop and implement independent monitoring and accountability mechanisms, and to produce periodic implementation reports, to ensure the effective application and enforcement of EU antidiscrimination legislation and policy. Such mechanisms would need robust and regularly collected equality data on all grounds of discrimination (to allow an intersectional approach) and for all areas of life covered by the law. They should develop benchmarks, targets and indicators. To do this, they should use the work of FRA, the EU Subgroup on Equality Data and the Eurostat’s Equality and Non-Discrimination Statistics Task Force.*
- *Member States should regularly evaluate and assess the impact of targeted measures supporting the labour market participation of Muslims who wear visible religious symbols or clothing in public from a fundamental rights perspective, by applying an intersectional approach and gender mainstreaming.*
- *To enable the monitoring of equality outcomes, data sources should (i) cover under-represented groups at risk of discrimination and (ii) include information on experiences of discrimination on the grounds of sex, racial and ethnic origin, religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation.*

Key findings

Article 5 of the Racial Equality Directive (2000/43/EC) encourages Member States to implement positive action to prevent or compensate for disadvantages linked to racial or ethnic origin. Member States could apply a public sector equality duty. This is a statutory duty that requires public authorities to consider equality when exercising their functions, including policies, programmes and services. It also ensures that authorities determine how their functions will affect people with different protected characteristics. Such a duty requires regular equality impact assessments of programmes and measures. These allow

authorities to assess the different impacts and can ensure that inequalities are addressed before implementation.

To ensure evidence-based policy making and effective design, monitoring and evaluation of all actions, including the implementation of national anti-racism strategies, all actions should be informed by, and based on, reliable and robust equality data.

However, few Member States operate comprehensive systems or a coordinated approach to the collection and use of equality data ⁽¹⁰³⁾. The Subgroup on Equality Data, under the European Commission's High-Level Group on Non-discrimination, Equality and Diversity, has identified a number of challenges in the use and collection of equality data common to many Member States, including:

- an imbalance in the grounds of discrimination and areas of life for which data are collected.
- a lack of consistency and coherence of definitions, classifications and categorisations, which affects the comparability of equality statistics across and within Member States.
- insufficient consultations with relevant stakeholders and affected groups when designing and implementing data collection.
- intermittent data collection that does not allow for an analysis of trends over time.
- the inaccurate interpretation of data protection frameworks, as they relate to data on equality.

This lack of data means that the EU and Member States do not have the full picture when wanting to address the experiences of millions of people across the EU, characterised by discrimination on different grounds and in different areas of life. Moreover, the resulting paucity of relevant data prevents the EU and Member States from effectively monitoring the state of equality.

Evidence from FRA research shows lack of coherent and systematic approach to equality data resulting in substantial knowledge gaps and imbalances in the data collected on the different grounds of discrimination and across the areas of life in which discrimination occurs on the national level. This suggests that Member States need to significantly improve their collection of equality data, in line with the Guidelines on improving the collection and use of equality data ⁽¹⁰⁴⁾.

⁽¹⁰³⁾ European Commission (2016), [European handbook on equality data](#), Luxembourg, Publications Office, p. 15

⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ European Commission, EU High Level Group on Non-Discrimination, Equality and Diversity (2018), [Guidelines on improving the collection and use of equality data](#), p. 14.

Annex 1: FRA surveys on experiences of racism and relevant FRA reports

Caveats regarding surveys

The year indicated for each survey reflects the period of data collection and not the year of publication of results; years for published survey reports are indicated in referenced footnotes in this submission (with publication sometimes being in the year following data collection). Findings from the EU-MIDIS III full sample presented in this report refer to survey results yet to be published, and therefore not yet in the public domain.

The results of different surveys presented in this submission are not directly comparable due to the different methodologies applied across the surveys (e.g. the immigrants and descendants of immigrants and the Roma Survey apply face-to-face interviewing; the survey on Jewish people applies an online self-selection mode); or slight variations in specific questions asked in the surveys.

In some cases, the submission builds on evidence collected in the third wave of the respective surveys, therefore it also provides selected findings on trends. However, direct comparison of results over time should be made with caution due to several factors, such as:

- changes and improvements in the sampling methodology and in the mode of data collection in the countries.
- Different countries and target groups are selected for surveying in each wave (e.g. EU-MIDIS II and EU-MIDIS III).
- Varying number of countries covered.

The submission does not include detailed cross-country comparisons or comparisons of groups within countries. For more information on the surveyed groups, terminology, methodology and questionnaires, see the respective technical reports on FRA's website. See also FRA's interactive data explorers, which provide an in-depth picture of the situation in different EU Member States.

Racial or ethnic origin & religion or belief

[EU Survey on immigrants and descendants \(2022\)](#)

FRA's third large-scale survey on immigrants and the descendants of immigrants offers crucial insights into experiences of discrimination and racism. The survey collected comparable data in 15 EU Member States – Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France,

Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Sweden – from people originating from Türkiye, African countries south of the Sahara, North Africa and Syria. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews and an online questionnaire. The survey builds on the methodology and procedures developed for EU-MIDIS II (2016) and on stakeholder consultations carried out in 2019.

Report: [Being Black in the EU – Experiences of people of African descent \(2023\)](#)

The report is part of FRA’s third EU-wide survey on the experiences of [immigrants and their descendants](#). This report examines the experiences of almost 6,800 people of African descent in 13 EU Member States. Without this much needed data, racial discrimination remains invisible. FRA’s findings support developing a better understanding of the experiences of people of African descent in the EU and promote action on equality and inclusion.

Report: [Being Muslim in the EU - Experiences of Muslims \(2024\)](#)

The report is part of FRA’s third EU-wide survey on the experiences of [immigrants and their descendants](#). The ‘[Being Muslim in the EU](#)’ report is based on the experiences of 9,604 Muslim respondents in 13 EU countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden. The data were collected from October 2021 to October 2022, before the 7 October Hamas attacks against Israel and the war that ensued in Gaza.

[Database on anti-Muslim hatred \(2025\)](#)

In 2025, FRA will update the anti-Muslim hatred database, adding information for 2023 and 2024. Currently, the information available spans from January 2012 to December 2022.

The database provides an easy-to-use overview of information on hate crime, hate speech and discrimination against Muslims across the EU, Albania, Serbia and North Macedonia. The database provides information on international, European and national case law relating to anti-Muslim hatred. Victims of anti-Muslim hatred can also use the tool to find appropriate information, support and protection.

Report: [Addressing Racism in Policing \(2024\)](#)

Racism in the police can include discriminatory racial profiling practices through to excessive use of force. Incidents like these highlight deeper systemic issues that need addressing. Many in society are affected by racism in policing, not only the individuals or communities targeted. Lack of trust in policing can fuel social exclusion and damages the foundations of a fair and equal society, however promising practices are developing to address these issues. This report is the first specific EU-wide study that looks comprehensively at the legal frameworks, analyses the gaps in policy responses and in effective oversight, and outlines a variety of practices aiming to combat racism in policing.

[Roma Survey 2021](#)

The Roma Survey 2020-2021 collected comparable data in eight selected Member States (Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain) and two accession countries (North Macedonia and Serbia). Roma were asked a wide range of questions about their everyday life, including their socio-economic situation and their experiences of discrimination, harassment and violence – including any racially-motivated incidents. FRA also surveyed Roma in [2008](#), [2011](#) and [2016](#), and Roma and Travellers in [2019](#). [Explore the survey data.](#)

Report: [Roma in 10 European countries. Main results \(2022\)](#)

This report presents findings from FRA's 2021 survey on Roma in 10 European countries - Croatia, Czechia, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain, including Bulgaria and Slovakia - as well as in North Macedonia and Serbia. The report is based on data from nearly 8,500 face-to-face interviews with Roma, including information about 20,000 household members. The survey provides unique data and information that are not available from European general population surveys, which do not disaggregate on grounds of ethnic origin.

[Roma survey 2024](#)

The Roma survey 2024 collected comparable data in ten selected EU Member States (Bulgaria, Czechia, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain) and three accession countries (Albania, North Macedonia and Serbia). The Roma and Travellers (in France and Ireland) were asked a wide range of questions about their everyday life, including their socio-economic situation. They were also asked about their fundamental rights, including experiences of discrimination, harassment and violence, as well as including any racially motivated incidents.

The main results report and the data will be available in October 2025.

[Third FRA survey on discrimination and hate crime against Jews \(2023\)](#)

In 2023, FRA carried out the third round of its survey on discrimination and hate crime against Jews. The survey collected data online in 13 EU Member States - Austria, Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain and Sweden - where around 96 % of the EU's estimated Jewish population live. Almost 8,000 Jews aged 16 or older took part in the online survey from January to June 2023. This is the third survey of its kind, following those of [2013](#) and [2018](#). The survey pre-dates the Hamas attacks on 7 October 2023 and Israel's military response in Gaza. But the report includes information about antisemitism collected from 12 Jewish community organisations more recently. Jewish people have experienced more antisemitic incidents since October 2023, with some organisations reporting an increase of more than 400 %.

Report: [Jewish People's Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism \(2024\)](#)

This report presents results from the third European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) survey among Jews in the EU on their lived experiences of antisemitism. The survey follows FRA's 2012 and 2018 surveys. The findings presented in this report provide policymakers and other actors in the field with evidence they can draw on to refine existing or devise new courses of action to combat antisemitism, ensure the security of Jewish communities and individuals and foster Jewish life.

Artificial intelligence

Focus paper: [#BigData: Discrimination in data-supported decision making \(2018\)](#)

The intersection of rights and technological developments warrants closer examination, prompting the Fundamental Rights Agency to research this theme. When algorithms are used for decision making, there is potential for discrimination against individuals. The principle of non-discrimination, as enshrined in Article 21 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (EU), needs to be taken into account when applying algorithms to everyday life. This paper explains how such discrimination can occur, suggesting possible solutions. The overall aim is to contribute to our understanding of the challenges encountered in this increasingly important field.

Focus paper: [Data quality and artificial intelligence – mitigating bias and error to protect fundamental rights \(2019\)](#)

Algorithms used in machine learning systems and artificial intelligence (AI) can only be as good as the data used for their development. High quality data are essential for high quality algorithms. Yet, the call for high quality data in discussions around AI often remains without any further specifications and guidance as to what this actually means. This paper sets out to contribute to the many ongoing policy discussions around AI and big data by highlighting one aspect that needs attention from a fundamental rights perspective; namely the awareness and avoidance of poor data quality. It does not aim at explaining how to use high quality data, but how to become aware of and avoid using low quality data.

Focus paper: [Facial recognition technology: fundamental rights considerations in the context of law enforcement \(2019\)](#)

EU law recognises as 'sensitive data' people's facial images, which are a form of biometric data. But such images are also quite easy to capture in public places. Although the accuracy of matches is improving, the risk of errors remains real – particularly for certain minority groups. Moreover, people whose images are captured and processed might not know this is happening – and so cannot challenge possible misuses. The paper outlines and analyses these and other fundamental rights challenges that are triggered when public authorities deploy live FRT for law enforcement purposes. It also briefly presents steps to take to help avoid rights violations.

Report: [Getting the future right – Artificial intelligence and fundamental rights \(2020\)](#)

Artificial intelligence (AI) already plays a role in deciding what unemployment benefits someone gets, where a burglary is likely to take place, whether someone is at risk of cancer, or who sees that catchy advertisement for low mortgage rates. Its use keeps growing, presenting seemingly endless possibilities. But we need to make sure to fully uphold fundamental rights standards when using AI. This report presents concrete examples of how companies and public administrations in the EU are using, or trying to use, AI. It focuses on four core areas – social benefits, predictive policing, health services and targeted advertising.

Report: [Bias in algorithms - Artificial intelligence and discrimination \(2022\)](#)

This report looks at potential biases when using artificial intelligence based on examples in the area of predictive policing and offensive speech detection. It demonstrates how bias in algorithms may appear, can amplify over time and affect people's lives, potentially leading to discrimination. It corroborates the need for more comprehensive and thorough assessments of algorithms in terms of bias before such algorithms are used for decision-making that can have an impact on people.

Online content moderation

FRA's **2023 report on [online content moderation](#)** aims to better understand whether standard tools to address online hate speech are effective by looking at manifestations of online hate after social media platforms have applied their content moderation controls. Further reports and studies will be published in 2026.

Civic space

FRA has been working on civic space issues in the EU since 2016, by collecting evidence and publishing reports which raise awareness about the challenges and risks for civil society organisations across the EU, while also highlighting promising practices and suggesting ways forward. Since 2018, FRA has consulted FRP organisations online every year about the experiences and challenges they face in their work. See: [Civic space | European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights](#).

Annex 2: Terms and definitions

Anti-Muslim hatred, anti-Muslim racism and racial discrimination: Although there is no official definition of what constitutes anti-Muslim hatred, the European Commission uses the term ‘anti-Muslim hatred’ in measures aimed at preventing and combating hate speech, hate crime and discrimination directed against Muslims or those perceived to be Muslims. This report uses the terms ‘anti-Muslim hatred’, ‘anti-Muslim racism’ and ‘racial discrimination’ in alignment with the aforementioned European Commission practice and General Policy Recommendation No 5 from the European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) ⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ (according to which these terms should be viewed through the lens of what is termed ‘racialisation’), to characterise the complex and diverse array of hate speech and violence and any act of discrimination directed at Muslims or those perceived to be Muslims.

Bias-motivated harassment: Bias-motivated harassment includes a range of harmful behaviours, some of which may not amount to a criminal offence. The racial equality directive states: ‘Harassment shall be deemed to be discrimination ... when an unwanted conduct related to racial or ethnic origin takes place with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person and of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment’ ⁽¹⁰⁶⁾

Descent: ‘[D]escent’ should be understood as referring mainly to persons or groups of persons who descend from persons who could be identified by certain characteristics (such as race or colour), but not necessarily all of these characteristics still exist. In spite of that, because of their descent, such persons or groups of persons may be subject to hatred or violence ⁽¹⁰⁷⁾

Ethnic or immigrant background: Some findings presented in FRA survey reports use ‘ethnic or immigrant background’ as a generic term to describe results for the three grounds of discrimination asked about in the surveys: skin colour, ethnic origin or immigrant background, and religion or religious belief.

Hate crime: Hate crime is understood as ‘a criminal offence committed with a bias motive’, within the meaning of Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA ⁽¹⁰⁸⁾ on

⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ ECRI (2022), General Policy Recommendation No. 5 (revised) on preventing and combating anti-Muslim racism and discrimination, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ [Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin](#) (OJ L 180, 19.7.2000, p. 22), Article 2(3).

⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law (OJ L 328, 6.12.2008, p.55).

⁽¹⁰⁸⁾ [Council Framework Decision 2008/913/JHA of 28 November 2008 on combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law](#), OJ L 328, 6.12.2008, p. 55.

combating certain forms and expressions of racism and xenophobia by means of criminal law. This report uses the terms ‘hate crime’ and ‘bias-motivated crime/violence’ interchangeably. It includes criminal hate speech (incitement) and bias-motivated harassment (e.g. verbal insults, threats and offensive gestures), where incidents constitute criminal offences in the Member State in question.

Intersectional discrimination refers to a situation in which several grounds are found to operate and interact with each other at the same time in such a way that they are inseparable and produce specific, and sometimes compounded types of discrimination.

The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) defines [intersectional discrimination](#) as “discrimination that takes place on the basis of several personal grounds or characteristics/identities, which operate and interact with each other at the same time in such a way as to be inseparable.”

General Comment No. 6 (2018) on Equality and Non-Discrimination of the UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities provides: *“Intersectional discrimination” occurs when a person with a disability or associated to disability suffers discrimination of any form on the basis of disability, combined with colour, sex, language, religion, ethnic, gender or other status. Intersectional discrimination can appear as direct or indirect discrimination, denial of reasonable accommodation or harassment.*” ⁽¹⁰⁹⁾

Intersectional discrimination is now referred to in a number of recently adopted Directives: the [Pay Transparency Directive 2023/970/EC](#) in Article 3 (e); the two Directives on Standards for Equality Bodies ⁽¹¹⁰⁾, the [Directive 2024/1712](#) amending Directive 2011/36/EU on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims (recital 4); and the [Directive 2024/1385](#) of 14 May 2024 on combating violence against women and domestic violence (Article 16).

Muslim: For the purposes of FRA surveys, ‘Muslim’ refers to a respondent to the EU Survey on Immigrants and Descendants of Immigrants who self-identified as Muslim when asked about their religion. Muslims represent the second-largest religious group in the EU. They comprise a distinct mix of ethnicities, religious affiliations, philosophical beliefs, political persuasions, secular tendencies, languages and cultural traditions. The most recent available estimates from the Pew Research Center ⁽¹¹¹⁾ are from 2016 and show that around 26 million Muslims live in the EU. They represent about 5 % of the total population, with considerable variations in numbers across EU Member States. The

⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ See also [Handbook on European non-discrimination law – 2018 edition \(europa.eu\)](#), Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European, p. 59

⁽¹¹⁰⁾ [Directive - 2024/1500 - EN - EUR-Lex \(europa.eu\)](#) and [Directive - EU - 2024/1499 - EN - EUR-Lex \(europa.eu\)](#)

⁽¹¹¹⁾ Pew Research Center (2017), [Europe’s Growing Muslim Population](#), Washington, DC.

number of Muslims in the EU has increased significantly in recent years due to people fleeing conflicts in Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria.

People of African descent: [P]eople of African descent living in the diaspora are the historical and continuing victims of the transatlantic, Mediterranean and Indian Ocean slave trades and of slavery ... ⁽¹¹²⁾. [T]he term ‘people of African descent’ may also be used with ‘Afro-European’, ‘African European’, ‘Black European’, ‘Afro-Caribbean’ or ‘Black-Caribbean’, and refers to people of African ancestry or descent who are born in, citizens of, or living in Europe ⁽¹¹³⁾.

Profiling: Profiling involves categorising individuals according to their characteristics.

To collect and process personal data, law enforcement and border management authorities must ensure that data collection and processing have a legal basis, have a valid, legitimate aim, and are necessary and proportionate.

Protected characteristics such as race, ethnic origin, gender or religion can be among the factors that law enforcement authorities and border guards take into account for exercising their powers, but they cannot be the sole or main reason to single out an individual [...]

Profiling that is based solely or mainly on one or more protected characteristics amounts to direct discrimination, and therefore violates the individual’s rights and freedoms and is unlawful ⁽¹¹⁴⁾.

Racial discrimination: For FRA surveys, racial discrimination is understood as discrimination based on at least one of the following three grounds: skin colour, ethnic or immigrant background and religion or religious belief.

Racial or ethnic origin: The racial equality directive does not define the term ‘racial or ethnic origin’. However, in the CHEZ judgment, the Court of Justice of the European Union confirmed that ‘the concept of ethnicity has its origin in the idea of societal groups marked by common nationality, religious faith, language, cultural and traditional origins and backgrounds’ ⁽¹¹⁵⁾. The European Union rejects theories which attempt to determine the

⁽¹¹²⁾ UN, Working Group of Experts on People of African Descent (2003), Report of the Working Group of Experts on People of African Descent on its first and second sessions, p. 17

⁽¹¹³⁾ European Parliament resolution of 26 March 2019 on fundamental rights of people of African descent in Europe ([2018/2899\(RSP\)](#)).

⁽¹¹⁴⁾ FRA (2018), [Preventing Unlawful Profiling Today and in the Future: A guide](#), Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. See also European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) (2007), [ECRI General Policy Recommendation No 11 on combating racism and racial discrimination in policing](#), CRI(2007)39.

⁽¹¹⁵⁾ Judgment of the Court (Grand Chamber) of 16 July 2015, CHEZ Razpredelenie Bulgaria, C-83/14, EU:C:2015:480, paragraph 46; European Commission (2021), Commission communication on the

existence of separate human races. The use of the term ‘racial origin’ in this Directive does not imply an acceptance of such theories ⁽¹¹⁶⁾. The notions of race/racial origin and/or ethnic origin are socially constructed: individuals may self-identify as white or Black, but how society categorises individuals in racial terms often shapes racism and racial or ethnic discrimination. In line with the applicable EU legislation ⁽¹¹⁷⁾ and the Guidance note on the collection and use of equality data based on racial or ethnic origin, the phrase ‘racial or ethnic origin’ refers to a cause of discrimination. Some EU Member States use the category ‘racial or ethnic origin’ for statistical purposes. FRA survey reports refer to ‘racial or ethnic origin’ as (1) a generic statistical (analytical) category that allows the disaggregation of any data and (2) an aspect of a person’s self-identification and ethnic attachment (i.e. as a personal characteristic) FRA data show that a person’s skin colour and/or religion can trigger ethnic or racial discrimination ⁽¹¹⁸⁾

Racialisation: Racialisation is ‘the process of ascribing characteristics and attributes that are presented as innate to a group of concern to it and of constructing false social hierarchies in racial terms and associated exclusion and hostility’ ⁽¹¹⁹⁾.

Racism: ‘[R]acism’ shall mean the belief that a ground such as race, colour, language, religion, nationality or national or ethnic origin justifies contempt for a person or a group of persons, or the notion of superiority of a person or a group of persons ⁽¹²⁰⁾.

Roma: ‘Roma’ is used as an umbrella term, according to the definition of the Council of Europe. It encompasses Roma, Sinti, Kale, Romanichals, Boyash/Rudari, Balkan Egyptians and Eastern groups (Dom, Lom and Abdal); groups such as Travellers, Yenish and the populations designated under the administrative term Gens du voyage; and people who

application of Council Directive 2000/43/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (‘the racial equality directive’) and of Council Directive 2000/78/EC establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation (‘the employment equality directive’), (COM(2021) 139 final).

⁽¹¹⁶⁾ Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (OJ L 180, 19.7.2000, p. 22), recital 6. See also European Commission (2020), Commission communication – A Union of equality: EU anti-racism action plan 2020–2025, COM(2020) 565 final, p. 1

⁽¹¹⁷⁾ Council Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000 implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (OJ L 180, 19.7.2000, p. 22) and Articles 10 and 19 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union.

⁽¹¹⁸⁾ FRA (2021), Equality in the EU 20 years on from the initial implementation of the equality directives, FRA opinion 1/2021, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg. See also European Commission (2021), Commission communication on the application of Council Directive 2000/43/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin (‘the racial equality directive’) and of Council Directive 2000/78/EC establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation (‘the employment equality directive’) (COM(2021) 139 final), p. 17

⁽¹¹⁹⁾ ECRI (2021), [ECRI’s opinion on the concept of ‘racialisation’](#).

⁽¹²⁰⁾ ECRI (2017), [ECRI General Policy Recommendation No 7 on national legislation to combat racism and racial discrimination](#), CRI(2003)8, p. 5.

identify themselves as Gypsies. FRA, like the Council of Europe, adds the term 'Travellers' as necessary to highlight actions that specifically include them ⁽¹²¹⁾.

⁽¹²¹⁾ Council of Europe (2012), [Descriptive glossary of terms related to Roma issues](#), Strasbourg, Council of Europe, version dated 18 May 2012.