



International Centre for the Prevention of Crime
Assisting cities and countries to reduce delinquency, violence, and insecurity

Preventing Hate Crimes: International Strategies and Practice

April 2002

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Acknowledgements

This monograph was prepared by Margaret Shaw with the assistance of Olivier Barchechat and the help and the knowledge of all the staff at the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC). We would like to thank all those in the US who gave advice on the development of the project and acted as an Advisory Group including Sharon Williams and Patrick Coleman of the Bureau of Justice Assistance, US Department of Justice; Jennifer McKinney, Community Research Associates; Timothy Johnson, Community Relations Service; Kellie Dressler at the OJJDP; Theresa Kelly, National Crime Prevention Council; Bill Modzeleski, US Department of Education; Karen A. McLaughlin, National Center for Hate Crime Prevention; Stephen Wessler, Center for the Prevention of Hate Violence; and Steven Edwards, Principal, East Hartford High School. We also owe thanks to Marie Lovrod and Lindsay J. Friedman of the Anti-Defamation League.

Outside the US we would like to thank the many people who provided information and assistance for the project including Mark Irving and Mary-Anne Kirvan of the National Crime Prevention Centre, Canada; Jan D'Arcy, Alan Dutton, Moi Tam and Karen Mock, Canada; Kate Chapman and Tore Bjorgo, Norway; François Sroczyński, France; Frieder Dünkel, Peter Rieker, and Heiner Schaefer, Germany; Ian Clark and Susan Moody, Scotland; Alison Mather, Sohail Husain, Tim Newburn, and John Pitts, England and Wales; and Margaret Roper, South Africa.

This project was supported by cooperative Agreement No. #95-DD-BX-K001 awarded by the *Bureau of Justice Assistance*, Office of Justice Programs, US Department of Justice to Community Research Associates, Inc. The Bureau of Justice Assistance is a component of the Office of Justice Programs, which includes the Bureau of Justice Assistance, Bureau of Justice Statistics, National Institute of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and the Office of Victims of Crime. Points of view or opinion in this document are those of the author and do not necessarily represent the official position or policies of the US Department of Justice and Community Research Associates, Inc.

Section I Introduction

Hate crimes have received much publicity in recent years, not only in the US, but many other countries. An attack on Moroccan farm laborers in Spain in 1999, the vandalizing of Jewish cemeteries in France, the explosion of three nail bombs targeting Black, Asian and gay people in England in 1999, an assault on three homosexual men in Delaware in 1994, a series of 94 arsons of African-American churches between 1995-6, and attacks on Turkish immigrants in Germany, are all manifestations of crimes motivated by hate and intolerance against others.

These events have shocked their respective local communities, as well as gaining widespread national attention. Some have been perpetrated by individuals, others by white supremacist groups. They represent, however, the tip of the iceberg in terms of the extent of hate motivated crimes in most countries. One of the major problems is that much hate crime goes undetected and reported. The primary targets of hate crimes are often racial and ethnic groups, recent immigrant or migrant workers, or individuals whose private lives and orientation put them at risk. For fear of the consequences, through ignorance of their rights, and a variety of other reasons they often fail to report such attacks. Only the most spectacular are likely to be noticed.

While there have always been instances of hate crimes, they have received greater attention from governments in recent years. Many European countries, for example, have experienced large increases in hate-motivated activities as a consequence of the rapid influx of migrant workers, refugees, legal and illegal immigrants in the 1990's. Hate crimes are also taking new forms, in particular through the use of the Internet which has allowed hate groups to spread their messages much more widely than before. It is only in recent years that countries have begun to develop legislation, better data collection and in some cases national policies and tools to understand, measure and prevent the occurrence and growth of hate and bias crimes.¹

One of the main responses in many countries has been to use the criminal law and the justice system. Legislation has been introduced to create new criminal offences, or to strengthen the penalties for existing offences where an element of hate motivation can be proved. Punitive deterrent sentences have been used in a number of cases.

However, while the law is an essential tool, laws are not always enforced and cannot change deep-rooted attitudes. There are many other approaches which are now being used to prevent the growth of hate crime.

The criminal justice system – even when it operates at maximum effectiveness - is limited in its ability to stem the rising tide of bigotry and bloodshed. Solutions that work will require that our leaders lay the groundwork by long-term planning to reduce both intolerance and resentment.
Levin and McDevitt (1993) p. 231

Who this monograph is for

This monograph brings together information on strategies to prevent hate and bias crimes which are being used in different countries, and well as programs which show promise. It has been written for policy makers and leaders in professional and community organizations who are in a position to stimulate preventive action and initiatives. It complements four recent monographs published by the Bureau of Justice Assistance on US initiatives: *A Policymaker's Guide to Hate Crimes* (BJA,1997); *Addressing Hate Crimes: Six Initiatives That Are Enhancing the Efforts of*

Criminal Justice Practitioners (Wessler, 1999); *Promising Practices Against Hate Crimes: Five State and Local Demonstration Projects* (Wessler, 2000); and *Hate Crimes on Campus: The Problems and Efforts to Confront It* (Wessler & Moss, 2001). Those reports highlight some of the ways local, state and criminal justice officials are responding to hate crimes in the US.

What is hate crime?

Most countries are concerned about hate crime, but there are very big differences in the *kinds* of behaviors which are included. Generally, the definition is much broader in the US and Canada than in other countries. European countries such as Germany, and England and Wales, for example, primarily emphasize crimes which have a racial motive, and may also include hate speech. France refers to racism, intolerance and xenophobia. In Germany, the expression 'hate crime' is rarely used. Terms such as 'politically motivated violence', 'xenophobic criminality', 'right wing or left wing extremism' are much more common (Rieker, 2001). Australia refers to 'racial vilification'. North American definitions are more inclusive in including acts against religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation, age and, more recently, disability. The United States *Hate Crime Statistics Act* 1990 (HCSA) defined hate crimes as:

'Crimes that manifest evidence of prejudice based on race, religion, sexual orientation, or ethnicity, including where appropriate the crimes of murder, non-negligent manslaughter, forcible rape, aggravated and simple assault, intimidation, arson, and destruction, damage or vandalism of property'.

It has since been amended to include disability. Hate speech in the US is protected under the First Amendment of the Constitution. What seems to distinguish hate crimes from other crimes as well as hate-related behavior - for most countries - is the *motivation* behind that behavior. Proving hate motivation can be very difficult, and in many cases offences go unrecorded or prosecuted for lack of sufficient evidence.

Why hate crime is an important issue

Hate crimes have an impact not just of the individual affected, but on other members of their community and group. The fear created by such crimes can be much greater since the attack is upon the basic identity of a person in terms of their ethnic or religious background or their sexual orientation. A firebombing attack on a member of the Turkish community in Berlin has much greater significance for that community, as well as the country as a whole, since it is an attack on the entire Turkish community in Germany. Hate crimes *intensify* the psychological and social exclusion of such communities and racial and ethnic groups from the larger society. There is also the problem that minority groups can feel forced to retaliate to protect themselves if no official action is taken. Overall, hate crimes represent an attack on democratic principles of tolerance and respect for the identity and opinions of others.

American research has demonstrated that hate crimes as compared to general crimes, are more likely to involve excessive violence, multiple offenders, serial attacks, greater psychological trauma to victims, heightened risk of social disorder, and a greater expenditure of resources to resolve the consequences.....

Janhevich (2001)

The recent awakening

The US has been one of the first countries to try to systematically collect data about hate crimes. While there is now a considerable amount of information on hate crimes in the US, this is not so for many other countries. Canada, for example, has only recently begun to initiate data collection and research.

In many countries certain groups have long been targets of hate activity, as in the case of Aboriginal and indigenous peoples, Jewish communities, or gays. Gypsies, Travellers, or Romanies, as they are referred to in different countries, have also been the target of racism. In both Australia and Canada there have been national and provincial or state reviews which has demonstrated racial discrimination against Aboriginal and other indigenous populations, including in the justice system (eg. Australia, 1991; Ontario, 1996).

El Ejido February 2000

Migrant Moroccan farm laborers in Spain were the target of racial violence against their community, after the murder of a Spanish woman by a young Moroccan man. Farmers groups, teenagers and students hunted and attacked them and their property over a period of three days - *Le Monde Diplomatique* March 2000.

Politically-motivated crime has been of considerable concern in Germany since the 1980's. In the 1970's, underground left-wing action in the Federal Republic gave way to increasing right-wing activity. In the 1980's, it became clear that right-wing extremism was attractive to young people as well as some older groups, and led to an increase in skinhead groups, and events such as the bombing of the Oktoberfest in Munich (Rieker, 2001). A right-wing extremist youth culture also developed in the German Democratic Republic, resulting in attacks on individuals with minority views. Countries such as France and England and Wales also experienced racial tensions in the 1960's and 1970's following rapid increases in Algerian, Caribbean and South East Asian immigrants.

Since the 1980's, such activities appear to many people to have increased, and hate crime and related behavior has become recognized as a global problem. In part, this is because there is now much greater attention given to human rights issues. Many countries, for example, in Europe, have experienced increases in incidents of racially motivated crime and harassment as a consequence of recent rapid changes in migration and immigration. While in the past most foreign-born residents in European countries had legal status and rights, many are now illegal immigrants, refugee and asylum seekers. Their lack of status makes them extremely vulnerable to exploitation and exclusion. They can rapidly become targets of underlying hostility of strangers in communities which have not previously been involved in such activities. This was the case in Northern Spain in the small town of El Ejido in 2000 (see box above). Children born to earlier immigrants have also begun to fight back after years of discrimination and harassment, as happened in Oldham, England in May 2001.

These rapid increases in illegal immigrants and asylum seekers have had a major impact on governments and populations. It has led to public demonstrations of intolerance towards foreigners (xenophobia). Extreme right-wing groups have emerged or grown in some European countries and begun to spread racist views in response to the growing numbers of migrants, refugee claimants and illegal immigrants. Major inquiries and incidents have occurred which have become markers for national reassessment of hate crime. In the 1990's and since the unification of Germany, violent crimes committed by right-wing extremists have become one of Germany's most urgent problems. Serious attacks on Turkish and other minority communities

occurred in Hoyerswerda 1991, Rostock 1992, Molin 1993, Solignen 1993, Lubeck 1996, 1997, Dusseldorf, 2000 (Dünkel & Geng, 1999; Rieker, 2001).

In England, a major report - the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry (Macpherson, 1999) - investigated the death of a young black man in 1993 and the problems of systemic racism in the justice system. In the same year, the explosion of three nail bombs in London pubs which targeted Black, Asian and the gay communities, is seen as significant because it was an indiscriminate attack motivated by hatred of whole communities, rather than particular individuals (see box).

In April 1999, three nail-bombs exploded in London killing three people and injuring more than 150. The location of these bombs - Brixton, Brick Lane and a gay pub in Soho - suggested that the motivation was hatred of black, Asian and gay people. the London Bombings were the first time that a series of indiscriminate attacks against whole communities, rather than individual members of those communities, had taken place within most people's memory.

Report of the Channel 4 Hate Crime Commission (2000).

In Canada, skinhead groups were responsible for extreme violence against minorities in Edmonton in 1990, in Toronto in 1990 and 1993, and for the murder of a Sikh caretaker in British Columbia in 1998, and a series of murders and attacks on the gay community took place in Montreal in the 1990's (Khanna, 1999).ⁱⁱ In 1989, 13 young students at the École Polytechnic in Montreal, Canada were killed by a gunman because they were women.

The role of the *media* in publicizing such incidents, as well as inciting further problems, has become of considerable concern in many countries. What is also clear, however, is that spectacular events such as these are relatively rare – and that the majority of hate motivated behavior involves less dramatic events. Most hate crimes are not committed by organized groups, but by groups of young people or individuals, and sometimes with the silent approval of other members of their communities.

Social exclusion and the risks of being a victim or an offender

Experience in a number of countries points to the kinds of factors which put people at risk of committing, or being the victim of, hate crimes or hate-related behavior. Economic conditions and rapid population changes can make people more receptive to hate messages, and also more likely to be targeted. Immigrant and foreign born citizens generally have much poorer working conditions, employment prospects, pay and housing than majority populations. They are often located in the poorest environmental conditions, cut off - or socially excluded - from the majority population. This makes them more vulnerable to harassment and attack.

The internet

The Internet is by nature international and anonymous, and a new problem for many countries. At very little cost and effort, it allows individuals or groups to reach a very large target audience. It is difficult to identify authors and even more difficult to prosecute. Much of the activity is hate-related incitement rather than hate crime.

Hate finds a home on the Web

Internet hatemongers are targeting young people as never before... The number of hate sites worldwide has mushroomed in the past year...from 1,426 sites 18 months ago to more than 2,500 today.

Simon Wiesenthal Center, November 2000.

Its use has grown enormously since the mid 1990's and has become a new way for right-wing extremist groups to recruit as well as spread their messages. Since the Oklahoma bombing in the US in 1995, the number of hate crime web-sites has grown from one to over 2,500 in 2000. In both the US and Germany it is estimated that the number of registered sites had reached 300 by 1999 (EUMC, 1999). There is also infiltration of ethnic group web sites and list serves. Sites specifically targeted at youth use highly stylized graphic designs, hate rock music and video games to attract clients (Khanna, 1999; EUMC, 1999). In the United States, college campuses have become a major target (Wessler & Moss, 2001).

What can be done?

Countries have differed widely in how they have responded to hate crime. In many countries human rights and civil legislation is used, in others criminal law. While these are important responses, legislation and enforcement cannot deal with the roots of prejudice. There are problems of systemic prejudice and difficulties of enforcement. Criminal and civil law can only help to a limited extent. Homes, dinner tables, schools, work places, churches and community centers are places where prevention can have much a greater impact. In many countries, legislation has been backed up by a range of projects which aim to prevent the growth of hate by broadening understanding of cultural differences, to prevent entry into hate groups and organizations, and to strengthen the services for and abilities of minority groups to survive and grow in the majority culture and society. They also work to change the attitudes and understanding of the majority population to broaden their definition of their society. They are targeted at both potential and actual victims and offenders, and they often include a range of state and local initiatives and community-based partnerships. The majority of this activity and most of the examples in this monograph, target racial and ethnic issues, since that has been the focus of most work. While clearly evaluated results have not often been available, there is much which local communities, schools and civic leaders can do.

Section II How Big is the Problem Internationally?

A growing problem or a more recognized problem?

This section looks at some of the problems of defining and measuring the extent of hate crime and hate-related activity, at trends and disparities between countries, and at who are most likely to be the offenders and the victims. It also considers some of the factors which encourage hate and bias crimes in different countries.

Multiple definitions and multiple measurements

As Section I makes clear, countries vary in their definition of what hate crime is, and in what kinds of data and information they collect about hate-motivated incidents. It is *very difficult* to measure the extent of hate crime across countries given the different definitions used. No country appears to have such extensive data collection as the US.

Even if all countries were to use an agreed definition, there would still be problems of knowing how much occurs. Some countries do not collect any specific data. Other countries may collect data about certain hate crimes or hate-motivated acts but not others. They may have information on *reported* hate and bias incidents - where hate motivation has not necessarily been proved, or an offence committed. Police in different countries may have very different perceptions of incidents, levels of training and attitudes towards hate and bias incidents. Other incidents may be unreported because they are viewed as secondary to the incident itself, are not seen as hate-motivated, or for fear of the consequences. Thus there may be:

- different definitions between countries
- no specific definition within a country
- no standardized data collection in a country
- reluctance to collect data on hate crimes
- failure to recognize hate motivation
- victim reluctance to report incidents
- witness reluctance to report incidents

Nor is it easy to know how far recorded increases in the incidence of hate-motivated behaviors reflect *actual* increases or a greater willingness for people to *report* incidents. Countries may use a variety of sources:

- information reported by police, prosecutors, or courts
- victimization surveys
- information compiled by special interest groups or community organizations.

These usually reveal very wide differences between the numbers of officially recorded incidents and those reported by victims. In general, the more public concern there is about the problem, the more likely it is that official figures will show an increase because of increased reporting.

Under-reporting

One of the biggest problems in assessing the extent of hate crimes is under-reporting. It has long been argued that victims or witnesses of such crimes are *much less likely* to report incidents to the police than other crime victims. This may be because they are afraid of reprisals from their attackers, because they are unaware of the law, or because they do not expect the police will act. Under-reporting is likely to be especially high among illegal immigrants and refugee claimants.

Under-reporting of Hate Crimes: *Reasons put forward to explain the high rate of under-reporting by hate crime victims.*

- Fear of reprisal by perpetrators
- Fear and mistrust of law enforcement staff
- Belief that victimization will not be taken seriously/or fear of further victimization by police
- Fear of secondary victimization from others eg. some members of the gay community fear having their sexual orientation revealed
- Failure to classify reported incidents as hate crime because of insufficient evidence of motivation, failure to investigate the context of an incident

Adapted from Janevich (2001).

While there is some conflicting information, it would seem that rates of officially reported hate crimes are well below those reported in victimization surveys.ⁱⁱⁱ *Victimization surveys* can help to put changes in official figures into perspective. In Britain, for example, police recorded figures showed a 77% increase in racial attacks between 1988 and 1992. Over the same period, however, there was little change in the numbers of racial offences mentioned by victims in the national victimization surveys, suggesting that the increase in official figures was largely due to increased reporting (FitzGerald & Hale, 1996). There are, however, many limitations to victimization surveys too, since they focus on events, and cannot convey the experience of repeated victimization (Bowling, 1993).

Measuring the extent of hate crime in the United States

In the United States the Hate Crimes Statistics Act (1990) requires the US Attorney General to collect data from state and law enforcement agencies, although submission is voluntary.^{iv} The data is published by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) as part of the Uniformed Crime Report Program. Since data was first collected by the FBI in 1991, the number of bias-motivated *incidents* reported has risen from 4,755 to 7,876 in 1999. The number of agencies reporting fluctuates from year to year, however, making any assessment of trends difficult.^v

These 7,876 incidents accounted for 9,301 separate offences, 9,802 victims and 7,271 offenders (FBI 2000). In 1999 just over half of those reported incidents were racially motivated (FBI 2000)^{vi}:

- 55% related to racial bias
- 18% to religious bias
- 17% to sexual orientation
- 11% to ethnicity
- less than 1% to disability or multiple biases.

You can read the statistics in a couple of ways. More law enforcement agencies reporting means more officers are becoming sensitized to the issue of hate crimes. Secondly, even if statistics show a dip...they are a reflection that a problem exists out there....

Helen Gonzales NGLFT quoted in BJA (1997)

Overall, 66% of racial incidents were against people rather than property. Most incidents (67%) were anti-black, and three quarters of those against religion, anti-Jewish. The majority of reported hate crimes in the US are committed by young white males against people of color. In fact young

people under 20 are responsible for 50% of hate crimes. Some two thirds involve intimidation (35%) and simple assault (19%), and around a quarter vandalism and damage (28%). Thus most of the reported crimes are relatively minor – although their impact is not.

It is well recognized that official statistics only cover a small proportion of all hate and bias incidents in the US, and that many incidents may not constitute a crime. The *Anti-Defamation League* (ADL) for example reported 2,066 anti-Semitic incidents in 1994, compared with 908 recorded by the FBI, and estimates by gay and lesbian associations suggest that national figures underestimate the numbers of incidents by a factor of almost 5 to 1 (BJA, 1997). Victimization data will soon be available in the US. The *National Crime Victimization Survey* (NCVS) included questions about hate incidents in 1999. This will help to show the extent to which victims experience hate-motivated crimes, whether or not they reported them.

Comparisons with other countries

If it is difficult to assess the true extent of hate crimes and incidents in the US, measuring their extent internationally is an even greater challenge. This section illustrates some of the differences between countries where information is available.

In **Canada** hate propaganda was included in the Criminal Code in 1970. Amendments to the Criminal Code in 1996 (Art. 718.2) made hate an ‘aggravating circumstance’ where there is:

evidence that the offence was motivated by bias, prejudice or hate based on race, national or ethnic origin, language, colour, religion, sex, age, mental or physical disability, sexual orientation, or any other similar factor.^{vii}

At present, there are no *national* statistics on hate crimes, although a number of police forces have established hate/bias units and collect their own data, and the federal government is funding a project on their collection (Canada, 2000).^{viii} A 1995 study of 1000 hate crime incidents across selected police departments found that 61% targeted racial minorities (Roberts, 1995; Janhevich, 2001). The second most common category was against religion, primarily anti-Semitic incidents.^{ix} That study estimated that 60,000 hate crime incidents had occurred in Canada in 1994.

Information on hate and bias *victimization* is collected through the General Social Survey (Janhevich, 2000).^x In the 1999 survey some 271,000 (or 4% of all incidents) were seen as hate related. Compared with other reported victimization, they were more likely to be against the person than property, and to involve assault, although primarily minor assault without personal injury. They were also much more likely to involve *multiple offenders* (47%) than was the case for other crimes (20%), and to be perpetrated by a stranger. Of the hate incidents reported by victims:

- 43% related to race or ethnicity
- 18% to culture
- 18% to sex
- 37% to other (age, sexual orientation, religion, language, disability).

In **England and Wales** data on *racial* attacks and harassment have been recorded by the police, since 1986.^{xi} The 1998 *Crime and Disorder Act* also created nine new offences of racial aggravation, which allow the courts to increase the severity of a sentence by up to two years.^{xii}

Police recorded racial incidents have risen in the 1990's. Following the 1999 report of the Stephen Lawrence Inquiry, they rose from 13,878 in 1997-8 to 23,049 in 1998-9 (Home Office, 1999).^{xiii} The majority of these police reported incidents are non-violent: 38% involve verbal abuse, 20% property damage, and 21% personal violence - 2% serious. A third of victims were East Asians (CRE, 1999). A few police forces collect data on violent homophobic incidents.

Targets of racial offences:	
% of ethnic group victimized racially in past year	
Pakistani/Bangladeshi	8%
Indian	5%
Black	4%
White	1%

Nearly a third of Pakistani victims said that incidents were racially motivated and this rose to 70% in the case of threats.
FitzGerald & Hale (1996).

The *British Crime Survey* (BCS) also provides *victim* reports of racially motivated incidents. The 382,000 racial incidents reported in the 1996 BCS, show that the police figures clearly underestimate the extent of victimization.^{xiv} Survey findings for ethnic minorities show that they were more likely to be victims of both household and personal offences than whites (Fitzgerald & Hale, 1996).^{xv}

Overall, between 4-8% of ethnic minorities had been victims of racist offences compared with 1% of whites. Pakistanis were at greater risk than Indians or Afro-Caribbeans. A major problem is re-victimization - with victims being targeted repeatedly eg. 74% of Pakistani victims had been victims of a previous attack. Levels of *fear of crime* were also higher among the East Asian minorities than among black or white respondents. In another study, 116 victims recalled 1,550 racial incidents in a year, only 10% of which were reported to the police (Bowling, 1993).

Incidents which they perceived to be racially motivated had a noticeably greater impact on ethnic minority victims and their households than other crimes.... A higher proportion involved white offenders; they were more likely to involve groups of offenders rather than individuals; those responsible were more likely to be complete strangers to the victim; and more incidents formed part of a series instead of being isolated occurrences.
FitzGerald & Hale (1996).

Independent surveys in 1994, 1998 and 1999 of *homophobia* provide some indication of the incidence of attacks on gay and lesbian communities. One survey among gay communities found that 34% of the men and 24% of the women had experienced violence because of their sexual orientation in the past five years. Another found 49% of men and 44% of women under 25 had been violently attacked (Channel 4, 2000). Some police forces, eg. Hampshire, now have initiatives encouraging the reporting of homophobia.

In **France**, official data on hate crimes is limited to racial or anti-Semitic incidents. The constitution does not allow information on the ethnic group of victims or perpetrators to be collected.^{xvi} While there is considerable discussion and action in France around problems of racist behavior and intimidation, official figures for such crimes are extremely low, and showed a *decline* in the 1990's:

- 110 incidents of *serious* violence were recorded in 1991 and 36 in 1999, of which the majority were racist.
- 654 less serious incidents - threats, intimidation, graffiti, pamphlets and minor assaults - were recorded in 1991, and 130 in 1999 (Commission National 2000).

Most of these reported racial incidents targeted those of North African origin, and their perpetrators were members of extreme right-wing organizations.

In **Germany** data on xenophobic crimes have been maintained by the police since 1991, and on anti-Semitism since 1993 (Rieker, 2001).^{xvii} Officially, such crimes are classified as against the security of the State, and must have a proven or suspected extremist motivation.^{xviii} This means that crimes against minority groups may not necessarily be recorded, and there is *considerable* under-reporting. For example, a newspaper investigation in 2000 documented 93 homicides with a right-wing extremist background since unification in 1990, compared with the 26 recorded in official statistics (Rieker, 2001).

Official figures include a wide range of offences: between 6-25% are classified as violent (eg. arson attacks on the homes of refugees, or physical assaults). The remaining offences include verbal attacks, threats and propaganda offences (eg. graffiti).

Berlin Far-right offences in Germany jumped by 59% last year to their highest level since the end of the Second World War, among them brutal attacks on foreigners and minorities that have spurred renewed action against extremists, the government said yesterday. Authorities registered 998 violent crimes with a far-right motivation last year.
Associated Press 3.3.2001.

Officially recorded figures for crimes with proven or suspected right wing extremist motivation increased from 250 in 1990, to 2,427 in 1991, and 6,336 in 1992. By 2000, 15,951 such crimes were recorded, of which 998 were classified as violent. The majority of non-violent racist or xenophobic offences however - about 70% in 1999 - involved propaganda.

It would seem that many xenophobic acts are committed by young people under 20 who are *not* members of right-wing groups. Surveys of young people in rural areas, where there are few foreigners, show that many have xenophobic views:

- A survey in North Eastern Germany found that up to 30% of 15 year-olds in rural areas sympathized with skinheads and held racist attitudes... (Dünkel & Geng, 1999).

It has also been evident in Germany that such crimes *increase* dramatically after a very serious incident which receives wide media reporting (Rieker, 2001).^{xix}

Other countries

- In *Scotland* racial incidents recorded by the police have increased from 393 in 1991 to 1,221 in 1999 (Scottish Executive Research Unit, 2001).^{xx}
- *Belgium* has no official data on hate crimes although complaints are registered by the government's Center for Equal Opportunities and the Struggle Against Racism (CECLR). A total of 919 complaints were registered in 1999, 101 against police agencies.
- In *Australia* no national figures on hate crimes are available. Each state has separate legislation - some using the criminal law others human rights legislation. The central office of the Human Rights Commission has received increasing numbers of complaints of racial

hatred since the Racial Discrimination Act was passed in 1995, from 186 to 375 in 1996-7 (Reid & Smith, 1998).^{xxi}

- In the *Netherlands* some 200 racial incidents have been reported to the police a year since 1995, although anti-discrimination offices received over 3000 complaints a year in 1997-9 (EUMC, 1999).
- Official police reports in *Finland* indicated an increase in racist incidents from 194 in 1997 to 319 in 1998 (EUMC, 1999). These figures are well below incidents reported in their national victimization survey - 61% of immigrants interviewed claimed to have been harassed, but only 10% of incidents were reported.
- *Sweden* distinguishes between racism, xenophobia, anti-Semitism, extreme white power and homophobia. Police records indicate an increase in incidents of racism and xenophobia, from 1,752 in 1997 to 2,363 in 2000 (EUMC, 1999). They also show increases in extreme right-wing activity, and anti-Semitism over the period.

Who commits hate crimes?

Primarily, most *officially* recorded hate crimes are committed by young men in their teens or twenties. As indicated above, around 50% in the US are under 20, and 68% white. They may act in unattached small groups or as individuals, be members of loosely organized skinhead or other groups, or be recruited by extreme right-wing groups (Khanna, 1999). They come from poor and disadvantaged backgrounds, but also more prosperous ones.

In Germany, 95% of officially recorded offences are committed by young males under 30 years of age. Of these, 35% are under 16, and 64% under 19. Their victims have predominately been migrants, especially refugees, and members of minorities (eg. homosexuals or the homeless). But it is also clear that only a minority of hate offences are committed by members of extremist organizations.

- In England & Wales in 1996, victims reported that 80% of attacks were by males, 63% were white, and 54% under 24 (BCS 1996).
- In Canada, victims surveyed in 1999 reported that 89% of violent incidents involved males (Janhevich, 2001).

Nevertheless, it is also evident that harassment and intimidation often involve adults and other family and community members, or is tacitly approved by them (see box - Sibbitt 1997).

Who commits racist acts?

- The perpetrators of racial harassment and violence are of all ages, both male and female, and they often act together, as families and groups of friends.
- The views held by all kinds of perpetrators towards ethnic minorities are shared by the wider communities to which they belong. Perpetrators see this as legitimizing their actions. In turn the wider community not only spawns such perpetrators, but actively reinforces their behaviour.

From: Sibbitt (1997)

..... and where?

The majority of hate/bias incidents take place in urban areas, since this is where most minority groups tend to live. These are often disadvantages areas, suburbs, public housing estates, and inner city ghettos. The racial composition and mix of an area seems important too, with hate activity greater where there are small minority groups within a larger population (Brimicombe et al. 2001).

- 25% of Pakistanis in inner-city areas in English & Wales thought racial attacks a big problem, and 9% in other areas (BCS, 1992), and
- 41% of African-Caribbean, 45% of Indian, 82% of Pakistani, and 84% of Bangladeshi families have incomes less than the national average – this compares with 28% of the white population (Social Exclusion Unit, 1998).
- In Germany, 39% of foreign born Turkish youths come from highly deprived backgrounds compared to 12% of native-born Germans (Pfeiffer & Wetzels, 1999)

Nevertheless, incidents also occur in rural areas and small isolated towns in some countries such as Germany. There is evidence of wide-spread racist attitudes in such areas, and some indication that proportionately it is greater than in urban settings (Brimicombe et al., 2001).

Who are the victims?

In most countries the majority of hate crime incidents appear to be directed towards racial and ethnic minorities, rather than sexual orientation or religion. In the US, most though not all victims are black. There are also differences between the vulnerability of minority groups, and surveys and official data may often obscure these.

...blatant, unrelenting, openly racist harassment and bullying is a daily experience for many black and ethnic minority children both in schools and in the streets.
Childline UK (1996).

Children and youth are especially vulnerable, given that most of those who perpetrate hate crimes are also young. Victimization surveys do not usually include children under 16, and the extent of their experience of harassment and intimidation has not been well documented. Levels of *fear* of hate activity are also likely to be high. The impact of hate incidents on young people in terms of their self-esteem, school performance, mental and physical health or sense of safety can be enormous. Intimidation and hate activity in schools and around schools includes graffiti, pamphlets and posters, name-calling and harassment as well as assault. In *Canada*, for example, a survey in 1997-8 found that 14% of elementary school children suffered intimidation on the basis of their race (Khanna, 1999).^{xxii} In some communities, this intimidation becomes a daily part of life over a number of years.

By the mid-1990's a pattern of conflict had emerged in which small-scale inter-racial conflict in Sidney Burnell school would sometimes escalate, in a matter of hours, into large scale conflict between groups of white and Bengali youths and young adults in the neighbourhoods surrounding the school.
From Reducing the violent victimization of young people in a London neighbourhood (Pitts, 2000).

The role of hate groups

Specific attention is being paid in a number of countries to the growth in extreme right-wing groups. European countries, Australia, and Canada have all been concerned with their activities. In Germany, for example, there were 114 extreme right-wing organizations with 53,000 members in 1998. In the US more than 800 have been identified by the *Southern Poverty Law Center*, and the ADL has estimated that some 15,000 people belong to militia units (BJA, 1997).^{xxiii} In Canada, a number of such groups exist and continue to recruit members especially young people. It has been estimated that there are about 1000 neo-Nazi skinheads, and the majority of members of Heritage Front, for example, are aged between 16 and 25 (Khanna, 1999). The ability of such groups to spread racist views has been aided by press publicity of events, as well as the Internet. The targeting of schools and college campuses is a particular concern in the US (Wessler & Moss, 2001).

In many countries these groups account for a very small proportion of all hate-related activity, eg. estimates in Canada suggests around 5% (Khanna, 1999). Nevertheless, the impact of their activity on the general views of local citizens is probably considerable, and their active attempts to recruit young people of great concern. Once involved in organizations, it is difficult for young people to leave safely. The number of *skinhead* groups has also grown in countries in North America and Europe since the 1980's.

Factors which allow hate to flourish - risk factors

Hate crime is behavior which is learned. It is learned from family members or friends, from peer-groups, or the media. Economic problems and unemployment; rapid increases in immigration or changes in population; media stories and the perpetuation of popular culture racial stereotypes; and the presence of active extremist organizations, are all factors which increase the risk that hate attitudes and behavior will develop. For lonely, marginalized youth, seeking a sense of belonging or identity hate group messages can offer a sense of belonging and purpose, in the same way that youth gangs can provide them.

In England and Wales, ethnic minorities are more likely to be victims of racial crimes and serious threats, *partly* because of their age structure with high numbers of children, the type of area they live in and their employment circumstances. Living in poor and disadvantaged areas increases the risks of crime for everyone, and these are the areas where ethnic minorities are most often concentrated (FitzGerald & Hale, 1996).

Highly publicized incidents, local, or international events can act as *triggers* for hate crime incidents (BJA, 1997). The experience in Germany and a number of other countries is that incidents increase after a well publicized attack.

Future trends

Future trends for many countries, indicate that there will be increasing migration, and growing numbers of minority families. There are no indications of decreases in European countries or North America over the next decades.

By the year 2007, Hispanic students will outnumber African American students by 2.5%. The numbers of Asian and Native American students are also expected to increase dramatically. The percentage of Caucasian students is expected to decline from 66% to in 1997 to 61% in 2007. Within 25 years, 50% of all students will belong to a minority group.

From Preventing Youth Hate Crime (US,1999)

The numbers of children and youth from minority backgrounds is also expected to be increase, partly because of migration and immigration, but also because of their higher birth rates. In the US, 50% of school students are expected to belong to minority groups in 25 years. The school population is also expected to rise by 13% in the next ten years (US, 1999) These trends suggest that levels of hate and bias crime are likely to rise unless some major changes are made, and well planned short and longer term preventive measures developed.

Summing up

Hate and bias-motivated activity is a more recognized problem and has received greater attention in many countries especially over the past ten years, and there is a perception that it has increased:

- definitions vary considerably between countries
- measuring its extent in *any country* is very difficult and under-reporting of incidents is a major problem
- any officially recorded figures are always much lower than victimization or community estimates.
- Changes and trends are difficult to interpret - much of the increase noted in official statistics is probably due to better reporting.
- Most hate and bias activity involves relatively minor crimes including graffiti or propaganda, harassment, intimidation or vandalism, but their impact can be much greater and long lasting.

Compared with *other* types of crime, *hate-motivated crimes*:

- are more likely to be directed against individuals than property
- they are more likely to involve violence
- they often involve patterns of repeat and continuing incidents
- levels of fear of hate-motivated intimidation and crime are high
- the impact of hate-motivated crime is likely to be greater than that for most similar crimes without such motivation.

Those most *at risk of becoming involved* in hate and bias activity include:

- adolescents and young males
- those living in poor areas with high levels of unemployment and economic instability
- young men in countries where there are rapid changes in population

Those most *at risk of being victimized* by hate and bias activity include:

- racial and ethnic minority groups or individuals
- religious minorities
- gays and lesbians
- children and young people
- those living in poor areas with high levels of unemployment and economic instability

Population changes in many countries are likely to continue in the future increasing the need for preventive approaches.

Section III National Developments and Strategies

Since countries differ in what they include in hate and bias activities and in the kinds of problems they experience, national strategies and developments also vary considerably.

European Countries

The prevention of hate and intolerance is a major preoccupation for European countries. In the past few years many have enacted new laws or amendments prohibiting discrimination, and set out the equal rights of immigrants in crucial areas such as education, housing, employment and health care. The European Union, the body which administers the 15 countries in the Union set up the *European Commission Against Racism and Intolerance* (ECRI) in 1993.^{xxiv} Its role is to fight racism, xenophobia, anti-Semitism and intolerance across all member countries, and to stimulate national strategies and action. Reports from member countries in 1998 and 1999 have evaluated the extent of problems and initiatives taken. Overall, the emphasis of ECRI is on the social integration of citizens of foreign origin, migrant, and refugees, and upon changing attitudes and behavior, rather than specifically focusing on hate-related crime.^{xxv} Employment is one of the major areas seen as crucial for reinforcing social and economic cohesion and fighting the conditions which favor racism.

A youth campaign *All Together, All Different* ran from 1996-8. The campaign included a *European Youth Train* bringing young people to Strasbourg for *European Youth Week*, and funded over 100 pilot programs such as youth camps, school information programs, plays, games, media campaigns, teaching materials, and intervention projects in difficult neighborhoods. The campaign has led to greater communication and collaboration between national and local governments and minority organizations (ECRI, 2000).

A variety of strategies are used in European countries. For example, in *Ireland* the Penal Code prohibits the incitement of hatred against people on the basis of race, ethnic origin, religion or faith, and the police are expected to record racist incidents. Its Housing Traveller Accommodation Act requires local authorities to develop housing plans for Travelers. A 1997-2000 program *Police and Human Rights* provided training and education and created an inter-cultural police team. In *Belgium*, the Ministry of Justice has supported training programs for police, prosecutors and judges.

England and Wales Ethnic minority rights have been protected in law in England & Wales since the 1976 *Race Relations Act*.^{xxvi} The *Commission for Racial Equality* was set up at the same time as an independent body to monitor its implementation. Nevertheless, there has been a continuing concern with racism, attacks and intimidation, and racism was not firmly on the policy agenda until 1981 (Bowling, 1993). The *Racial Attacks Group* was set up in the Home Office in 1987 and it recommended a multi-agency approach to preventing hate crimes which has been developed in England and Wales since the 1980's. For example, the *North Plaistow Racial Harassment Project* - a joint project with police, local authority and voluntary organizations - was initiated in 1987. Since then, a number of similar projects have been set up and evaluated (see Section VI).

The 1999 report of the major inquiry into the racist murder of a Black man Stephen Lawrence, reinforced the reality that racist crime and harassment is a continuing problem, and acknowledged significant problems of institutional racism in the police.^{xxvii} It set out 70 recommendations to improve the investigation of such incidents, including recruitment and training of police,

prosecutors and judges, and the establishment of partnerships between ethnic groups, the police, and local and national organizations and bodies. Among other initiatives a *Forum on Interracial Relations* has been set up to advise the government on minority issues, and an independent *Commission on the Future of Multi-Ethnic Britain* reported in 2000 (Runnymede Trust, 2000).

The *Crime and Disorder Act* (1998) requires all local authorities and police forces to create local crime prevention partnerships which must undertake safety audits, and develop and implement strategic plans to reduce crime and disorder. For many areas, racial crime and harassment forms an important part of those plans. (See for example the London Borough of Southwark's strategy against homophobia in Section VI). The national government's *Social Exclusion Unit* (SEU, 1998 & 1999) has also shown that minority groups are the target of discrimination in relation to housing, employment and education, and likely to be living in the poorest areas of the country. It has outlined a national strategy to tackle social exclusion eg. the Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) supports programs to revitalize disadvantaged areas. These usually include high proportions of ethnic and racial minorities (Brimicombe et al., 2001).

Finland A national blueprint strategy against racism and discrimination has been set up which applies to all levels of government down to local authorities. From 2000-2003 it will examine problems facing immigrants as well as existing minority groups such as Samis, Jews, Gypsies and Russians. It enacted anti-discrimination laws in 1999 which seeks to ensure the integration of immigrants and the reception of asylum seekers. These encourage collaboration between local authorities, community organizations, and religious groups to develop plans. Other initiatives include an *Ombudsman Against Ethnic Discrimination* and a *Consultative Commission for Gypsies*. The *Office for Sports* launched a project to increase the participation of immigrants and ethnic minorities in sports planning and organization, as well as creating jobs with sports clubs and associations. A national project focuses on increasing the participation of gypsies in education and employment. Mediation training is also being developed for resolving disputes between gypsies and Finnish authorities.

Norway The government has established a number of bodies to fight racism and extremism including a *Multi-Professional Advisory Service* set up by the Norwegian Directorate of Immigration (UDI) in 1996. This supports communities which experience *group* racial violence, by bringing together some 20 experts, including police, social scientists, social workers, educators and refugee counselors. They help communities plan and implement early intervention projects. One initiative, *Project Exit*, is designed to help young people already involved in racist groups to develop new social networks and break communications with those organizations. It also prevents recruitment. The project works with children and youth and with their parents, and involves partnerships between police, teachers and child welfare personnel (see Section VI). Other initiatives targets specific situations eg. a three year municipal project was developed on the town of Brummendal after a third of all racist attacks in Norway were found to occur there in the early 1990's (see Section VI).

Germany In response to the growing problem of right-wing extremism over the past ten years in Germany, there have been a number of federal government initiatives. The major target is hate group activity, both in terms of preventing criminal acts as well as active youth recruitment. Some extreme right-wing groups have been banned since 1992 and there have been a number of modifications to the law to strengthen criminal justice responses and aid victims.^{xxviii} The core of the national strategy is pro-active and educational, to integrate foreign born and minority groups with a broad strategy across several ministries.^{xxix}

A number of educational campaigns have been initiated since 1992.^{xxx} The 1992-96 *Campaign Against Aggression and Violence* supported 130 projects across the country. Youth services and programs were established or strengthened in many of the former East German states and elsewhere for socially disadvantaged youth, to help stabilize child and welfare programs, build youth clubs, recreational facilities, international exchange programs, and create apprenticeship training and jobs. The *Federal Youth Plan* initiated other activities. Special youth magazines to promote racial tolerance have been distributed to all schools. The government has worked with the media to reduce the perpetuation of stereotypes and biases, and instituted a national prize for programs which promote understanding and tolerance (EUMC, 1999; Cowl, 1995).

The Federal *Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth* funds initiatives against ethnic minority discrimination and xenophobia. Its integration program funds job and vocational training projects for young foreigners, as well as projects for integration of older immigrants and foreign workers. Police training programs have been changed to strengthen their awareness and ability to deal with incidents concerning racism and foreign-born and minority groups. There has been considerable experimentation with prevention programs, and three main preventive approaches have been developed targeting populations and areas most at risk:

- broad-based educational programs against racism and right-wing extremism
- cognitive and behavioral programs which aim to change attitudes and behavior, and are often imposed by the courts
- youth social work programs.

The latter include action and adventure activities (eg. climbing or survival camps), sports projects, or more traditional social work in youth centers or poor areas. The federal government initiated a program from 1992-6 in the former East Germany - *Action against Aggression and Violence* (Aktionsprogramm gegen Aggression und Gewalt). This supported a variety of social work youth projects which have had some success in preventing right wing extremism (Rieker, 2001).

France Legislation against racism or sexism have existed in France since 1972 and 1975. A new 1994 penal code (article 225-1) forbids discrimination on the grounds of such factors as origin, sex, family situation, health, disability, morals, political opinions, and ethnic, racial or religious background. The main focus of current national strategy is on reducing discrimination and the social exclusion of immigrants and French citizens of foreign origin.^{xxxi} This includes discrimination study groups, training for the public and private sectors, and youth employment. A major emphasis is on employment since levels of unemployment for non-European Union citizens and foreign-born French are three times higher than for the majority population. For example, the ASPECT project works with firms and businesses and negotiates binding anti-discrimination commitments and protocols (see Section VI). A sponsorship program has created up to 20,000 jobs for youths in disadvantaged areas, many of whom are from racial or ethnic minorities. The ministry which coordinates all other ministries on issues relating to cities throughout France (DIV) has included the prevention of discrimination in all city contracts. These are contracts providing financial support to cities for programs to improve safety and security (See ICPC, 2000 & Section VI Septemes-Les-Vallons).

The ministry responsible for employment launched a major initiative against work-place discrimination in 1998, and in 2000 a 'green phone number' for direct reporting of incidents. In 1999 *Citizen Action Commissions* (CODACs) were created in each department of France. They bring together national, and regional representatives, elected officials, employers, unions and management to fight discrimination especially in employment, housing and leisure. They aim to

use conciliation and mediation to deal with complaints they receive, rather than legislative solutions.^{xxxii}

Netherlands The Dutch Penal Code forbids discrimination and incitement on the grounds of race, ethnicity or religion. National strategies include a range of commissions and bodies to promote equal treatment and inter-cultural relations in areas such as employment, recruitment, training and education. Among non-governmental initiatives, the *Ann Frank Foundation* promotes a 'Meeting the Mayor' project which brings employers together with their local mayor to discuss local minority and immigrant employment issues. The *Rotterdam Anti-Discrimination Action Council* (RADAR) has developed a cooperative partnership between police and criminal justice agencies, the local authority and the local anti-discrimination center, to undertake a security audit and implement an action plan (EUMC, 1999; Cowl, 1995).

Canada Like many other countries Canada has begun to examine the prevention of hate and bias activity. Public pressure for change emerged in the 1970's with racist activities and hate propaganda against Black and Jewish communities, leading to some high profile legal cases (Janhevich, 2001). Since 1990, influenced by US legislation on the collection of data on hate crimes, some police forces have established hate/bias crime units, and there have been legislative changes and government funded research (eg. Khanna, 1999). The *Canadian Centre for Criminal Justice Statistics* is conducting research on hate and bias crimes, and a 1 800 number has been established for reporting incidents. The *National Crime Prevention Centre* has funded 26 community projects which target hate crime, racism, homophobia and discrimination.^{xxxiii}

A series of federal consultations and roundtables (Canada 1997; Canada 2000a; Canada 2000b) have also examined action and options for research and data collection, legislation, implementation and enforcement, community action and public education, and new media. Training for judges has also been introduced to deal with discrimination in the legal profession. Non-government organizations include the *Canadian Race Relations Foundation* which acts as a clearing house and resource base and works in coalition with other organizations in the field; the *League of Human Rights B'nai Brith Canada*, which compiles data, and provides manuals and training materials and seminars; the *Canadian Anti-racism Education and Research Society* which provides training and tracks hate organizations and activities.^{xxxiv}

Provincially, there is activity around human rights and education. In Quebec, for example, the 1975 *Charter of Human Rights & Freedoms* guarantees human rights and forbids discrimination on a wide range of issues including race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and gender. The *Commission for Human Rights and Youth Rights* develops strategies and training programs to combat discrimination and investigates individual complaints. The *Ministry of Relations with Citizens and Immigration* (MRCI) created in 1996 develops campaigns to increase awareness about racism and rights, funds employment programs for minority groups, and community action and partnerships against racism and discrimination.

Australia 'Racial hatred' was made illegal in 1995 under the *Racial Discrimination Act*, and legislation on racism and hate crimes against ethnic and minority groups was passed in most states in Australia in the 1990's (Reid & Smith, 1998; Mukherjee, 1999). This varies from criminal law to civil human rights legislation. Complaints boards, including Anti-Discrimination Boards and to Human Rights & Equal Opportunities Commissions, have also been established in each state. The *National Agenda for Multiculturalism Australia* has funded a series of 89 community projects to prevent racism and hate (including radio programs, youth camps, school plays, public speakers and anti-racism resource kits).

South Africa After 45 years of Apartheid, South Africa's experiences of racism are unlike European or other Western countries. The new Constitution in 1996 guarantees fundamental right and freedoms for all citizens. The *Commission for Truth and Reconciliation* was established to promote unity and peace by bringing together victims and offenders of past conflicts in a way which allowed some reconciliation. The national government's *Reconstruction and Development Program* aims to transform a racially divided society through economic, social and cultural reforms.

The prevention of racial violence and harassment and other hate crimes form part of the government's overall crime prevention strategy. It is built into initiatives targeting families, schools and communities such as its *Safer Schools* approach and life skills curriculum programs. A number of organizations have developed conflict resolution and diversity training programs eg. the *Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation*, the *Quaker Peace Centre*, the *Centre for Conflict Resolution* and the *Human Rights Commission*.^{xxxv}

US Apart from data collection, the federal government has introduced police and prosecutor intervention and training to improve the identification, reporting and prosecution of hate crimes, and encourage victim reporting. For example, the *National Bias Crimes Training* tackles several themes linked with hate crimes.

The *Community Relations Service* (CRS) is the main federal department responsible for issues of ethnic or racial bias.^{xxxvi} They provide a conciliation service to communities or individuals when asked to intervene, and were involved in 135 hate cases in 1997. The *Commission on Civil Rights* examines cases of discrimination or denial of equal protection under the law (based on race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap, national origin).

A number of federal departments fund projects and initiatives geared to the prevention of hate crime. The Department of Justice have funded law enforcement and victim assistance training programs. The four guides published by the Bureau of Justice Assistance provide accounts of local and state initiatives.

- *A Policymaker's Guide to Hate Crimes* (BJA,1997)
- *Addressing Hate Crimes: Six Initiatives That Are Enhancing the Efforts of Criminal Justice Practitioners* (Wessler, 1999)
- *Promising Practices Against Hate Crimes: Five State and Local Demonstration Projects* (Wessler, 2000).
- *Hate Crimes on Campus: The Problems and Efforts to Combat it.* (Wessler & Moss, 2001).

The Department of Education has funded projects geared to schools including curriculum guides and:

- *Protecting Students from Harassment and Hate Crime* (Department of Education, 1999) a guide for school administrators.
- *Preventing Youth Hate Crime: A Manual for Schools and Communities* (Departments of Education & Justice, 1998).
- As part of its *Safe and Drug Free Schools* program the Department of Education has funded initiatives to prevent hate crimes since 1996.
- With the Department of Justice it funds a project to provide technical assistance to schools and community groups (currently being undertaken by ADL).

Almost all states have passed hate crime statutes, and some have enacted enhancements to criminal sanctions for hate-motivated crime. *State initiatives* have included the development of *Hate-Crime Response Networks* in California and Massachusetts (BJA, 1997); the *Maine Civil Rights Officers Project* which provides a coordinated system of training for staff dealing with hate crimes under civil legislation (Wessler, 1999); the Maine Department of Attorney General's *Civil Rights Team Project* (Wessler, 2000); and the Massachusetts Governor's *Task Force on Hate Crimes*, which promotes a variety of initiatives in schools (Wessler, 2000). Some cities, such as New York, have special bias units with staffed by specially trained police.

Many private or non-governmental organizations are also involved in the fight against hate crimes, and receive funds for developing and implementing projects and programs from the federal and State governments. The *Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith* (ADL) has a network of 30 Regional and Satellite Offices in the country and abroad.^{xxxvii} It created a program *A World of Difference Institute*, to fight prejudice in 1985. This includes four components: *A Classroom of Difference*, *A Campus of Difference*, *A Community of Difference*, *A Workplace of Difference*. *A Classroom of Difference* has been given to more than 350,000 teachers and 12 million students from pre-kindergarten to 12th grade. It includes teacher training, peer training, and the youth and family service. The program is adapted to a school or community needs on the basis of an assessment of local problems, and at the request of the community. ADL also endeavors to establish a strategy which will continue after its intervention is completed.

The *South Law Poverty Center* has developed a teaching program *Teaching Tolerance* (1991) and curriculum kits have been used by over 300,000 teachers and 55,000 schools. The *National Center for Hate Crime Prevention* (Education Development Center) works to reduce hate crime through community-based and educational prevention. In partnership with professionals and practitioners it provides information, resources, multi-disciplinary training services and technical assistance. It has produced a number of guides and manuals for school including:

- *Healing the Hate: A National Bias Crime Prevention Curriculum for Middle Schools* (1997).
- *Responding to Hate: A Multidisciplinary Curriculum for Law Enforcement and Victim Assistance Professionals* (2000).

The *National Crime Prevention Council* has produced a number of important guides on prevention programs to reduce bias and hate crime. Some of these are included in *350 Tested Strategies To Prevent Crime: A Manual for Municipal Agencies and Community Groups* (1995). The Council has also developed a series of four guides for refugee communities, designed to reduce intolerance, help understanding of cultural differences and aid the development of refugee-law enforcement partnerships eg. *When Law and Culture Collide: Handling Conflicts Between US Laws and Refugees' Cultures* (1999).

Section IV Effective Prevention

International experience, and the national strategies and programs outlined in the previous section underline a number of key ideas to be considered in trying to develop effective prevention:

- **The need for good data collection** – While it will always be difficult to gain a full picture, this is crucial for assessing the scope, nature and location of hate crime and hate related problems locally, as well as at State, provincial or national levels: for example, a city, municipality or district may have problems of racially motivated incidents among a black community in one area and homophobic ones in another. Strategies need to be developed to deal with specific community problems. Information about long-term experience and victimization needs to be collected as well as single events or incidents.
- Even where specific legislation exists, countries apply it on an irregular basis. The use of the **criminal law** tends to be restricted to active members of hate groups, and to cases where there is clear indication of racism. This has been because prosecution teams and law enforcement agencies are not sufficiently aware of hate issues, because of systemic racism in the justice system, as well as the absence of good information data collection.^{xxviii}
- **Changing institutions** – programs to prevent hate crime and bias cannot be restricted to individuals or disadvantaged neighborhoods, they need to include those who work in justice systems and other agencies, to increase awareness of discrimination and hate and bias activity. Many countries acknowledge the importance of preventing institutionalized racism, and have created initiatives to address problems especially through training, the development of protocols, and education on cultural awareness. Training in the criminal justice field is a crucial issue.
- **Universal programs** and projects that target a wider population are as important as those targeting specific groups. Many countries focus on reducing the conditions which foster hate crime, harassment and discrimination. Providing services and assistance to immigrant communities may improve living conditions, but will not ensure tolerance and acceptance among the existing population. Both social and economic, and educational and cultural strategies are necessary. Projects in the cities of Septèmes-Les-Vallons (France), Strägnäs (Sweden), and Brumunddal (Norway) (see Section VI) all illustrate the principle of combining supports and services to all immigrants and local inhabitants, as well as developing educational and cultural programs. In France, the concept of the city contract reflects this universal approach to prevention.
- Internationally, **employment** is seen as crucial for reinforcing social and economic cohesion, and fighting the conditions which favor hate and bias. European countries such as Belgium, France and the Netherlands have introduced anti-discrimination legislation (gender, racial, national origin, religious...) in relation to employment. This is often very difficult to enforce, however, and other strategies, such as the creation of dialogues and protocols between employers' groups, trade unions, governmental agencies and minority group organizations are being used.
- **Bringing different people together** – racism, xenophobia, homophobia, intolerance feed on ignorance of foreign cultures and others' rights, and create fear. It is essential to bring together people of different races/sexual orientation/religion/national origin to help to demystify ignorance and suspicion. The French city of Septèmes-les-Vallons tried to establish structures and facilities that would facilitate, even force, connections and relationships between native French and minority communities.

Strategies and programs for effective prevention

Effective prevention to prevent hate and bias activity is best undertaken pro-actively, rather than after events have taken place, and using comprehensive and flexible approaches, multi-agency and community partnerships, and strategies which are carefully planned and implemented on the basis of careful analysis of the problems existing or anticipated. Strategies also need to include both universal and specific programs. Since young people are the most likely to be actively involved - many of them are targeted at youth.

This section focuses on some of the community-based programs and strategies which are aimed at changing attitudes, broadening understanding, helping those at risk, and supporting victims, rather than those concerned with law enforcement or criminal justice personnel. They include:

- anti-racial and bias education, sports and cultural programs
- programs targeted to high risk groups and in high risk areas
- programs targeted to specific minority groups
- programs to prevent recruitment into extremist groups or help members of extremist groups to leave or who *already* have strong right-wing views and attitudes
- victim support groups and networks
- mediation and dispute resolution
- internet strategies

Educational programs

- curriculum programs, guides and videos to teach about cultural difference and hate related behavior eg. *Healing the Hate* (EDC, 1997); *Facing Hate in Canada* (Canadian Race Relations Foundation, 1999); *White Lies* (video, Canadian Broadcast Corporation, 1998 www.cbc.ca) (and see Khanna, 1999).
- The European Union 1996-8 youth campaign produced the *Domino* manual on teaching tolerance for cultural difference, and an *Education Pack* for teachers (www.ecri.coe.int).
- Educational strategies can be combined with other responses. The *Los Angeles JOLT* program (<http://da.co.la.ca.us/hate/jolt>) combines a training program for school staff with a diversion program with education for juveniles involved in hate crimes, and prosecution for repeat or serious offenders (Wessler, 2000).
- *Taking Action Against Hate: Protection, Prevention and Partnerships*. Training manuals and resources for communities. (B'nai Brith, Canada).

Sports programs are a major way to work with youth and anti-racism projects have been developed in a number of countries:

- *Let's Kick Racism out of Football* campaign was developed by the Commission For Racial Equality and the professional footballer's association in England & Wales in 1993, with support from fans, the media and football clubs. Anti-racist events, plays, magazines, posters, banners and badges have been produced. In 1997 it became *Kick It Out*, and a number of cities in the *European Forum on Urban Safety* have become involved (www.kickitout.org).
- *Camden United Football Team* (England & Wales) Begun in 1995 in response to serious youth violence and gang tensions between Bengali and white youth. A youth worker was able to persuade teenage 'ringleaders' to join in soccer training and take part in an international

tournament. A team of 8 youth workers now manage the project through local youth clubs and centers, involving 70 girls and boys of 9-18 from twelve different ethnic groups.^{xxxix}

Specifically targeted programs

Youths at risk of hate crime involvement:

- Employment programs for youth at risk of involvement in hate crime as victims or offenders eg the *REACH-Milwaukee* project provides family services, college classes and apprenticeships for young people of 14 to 21 years olds at risk (www.milwjobs.com/youth_services).

Specific minority communities:

- the *Community Fathers Project* (Netherlands). After a brutal confrontation between police and Moroccan youth in Amsterdam in 1998 – the media portrayed the community quarter as a no-go area. A group of Moroccan parents developed a partnership with the police and local council to supervise the community during the evenings and at night and liaise with them. A total of 25 men are now involved and also work with youth on community projects (European Crime Prevention Awards, 2000).
- *Aasha Project* Brick Lane Youth Development Association (England & Wales). Bengali youth gangs meet with youth and community workers to mediate disputes and prevent fights between rival gangs.
- *A Right to be Safe*. (British Columbia, Canada). A capacity building project with sexual minority youth, to provide support, develop safety strategies and broaden community understanding, under the guidance of trained facilitators.
- *Peer Action Support Team*. (Youthquest! Lesbian & Gay Youth Society of British Columbia, Canada). A mobile peer-based support and advocacy project for sexual minority youth living in suburban, rural and small town communities who lack resources and supports (www.youthquest.bc.ca).
- *Southwark Homophobic Violence and Abuse Forum* (England & Wales). A multi-agency group set up in 1995, including sexual minority groups, police, local authority, community and voluntary organizations. It has run *Speak Out* publicity campaigns, developed a charter on police good practice, help lines, a borough-wide framework for systematic reporting, recording and monitoring of hate crimes, and holds an annual forum (Southwark, 1998).

Newcastle West End Asian Traders' Association (WATA) (England & Wales)

Analysis of racial incidents by the police found that a third of victims in this area were Asian shopkeepers with no formal body to represent their interests. Community police officers visited each one and invited them to a series of meetings. WATA now represents their views, and in partnership with the police and local council who pay for an administrative support worker, works to improve protection, report racial incidents and solve problems.

Source: Jones & Newburn (2001)

Programs targeting specific groups include those developed to help young people leave *extreme right wing-groups*, or to support the parents of children already in such groups:

- The *Exit Program* developed in Norway and also being used in Sweden (see Section VI).

- *Recruiting Young Minds: Youth Involvement in Canadian Neo-Nazi Hate Groups*. (Ontario, Canada). Identifies youth at risk of recruitment, works with them on an individual or small group basis, and provides broader education to schools and the community, using street-level activists and community leaders and mentors.

Victim support and protection

These include strategies and programs to protect and empower potential and actual victims apart from projects included elsewhere:

- Prevention of repeat victimization – *The East London multi-agency project* (see Section VI).
- Victim support *The San Diego Police Department and the Anti Defamation League*.
- *Community Response Team Against Hate and Racism* (Abbotsford, British Columbia).

Police in their communities

- police consultations with ‘hard-to-reach’ communities (Jones & Newburn, 2001)
- police-minority partnerships and associations eg. *Police Gay/Lesbian Officers* (Sydney, NSW, Australia). Liaison officers working in inner city police stations, and police gay/lesbian anti-violence consultative groups formed in critical locations. Physical assaults on lesbians declined from 18-12% from 1990-1994; and street assaults on gays from 60-40% in 1990-1991 (www.aic.gov.au from Mugford & Nelson, 1996).

Schools in their communities

In a number of countries *comprehensive* prevention programs are being developed such as that recommended by the US Depts. of Education & Justice (1998):

- providing hate prevention training to all staff and support personnel
- ensuring that all students receive hate prevention training
- developing partnerships with families, community organizations, law enforcement agencies
- developing a hate prevention policy
- developing a range of actions for those who violate the policies
- collecting and using data on district-wide hate prevention
- providing opportunities for integration

A comprehensive hate prevention program will involve all school personnel in creating a school climate in which prejudice and hate-motivated behavior are not acceptable, but which also permits the expression of diverse viewpoints.
Preventing Youth Hate Crime : A Manual for Schools and Communities

Experience of racial conflict and hate activities in schools in England has underlined the need for school-based programs to include the *community* surrounding the school as well.

- A project in the Sydney Burrell School, London, England is using a multi-agency approach to deal with racism and violence in the school and the community (see BJA, 2001).
- *Commission for Racial Equality*, (England & Wales) good practice guide on school exclusions.

Support networks

Hate crime response networks have been developed in the US to provide support to individuals and organizations who are victims of hate, providing information and services and coordinating responses eg. in California and Massachusetts (BJA, 1997); and the Canadian Anti-racist Network (CARN www.vidavision.com/countries/carn).

Conflict resolution

Mediation, conciliation and bias reduction skills programs are being used increasingly in many countries such as France, Germany, Australia. This includes school curriculums, community projects for dispute resolution in residential areas, and employment and workplace situations (see Section VI). There is considerable scope for the use of conciliation for less serious cases, and it is seen as less alienating and more involving of the interests and views of both sides.

Media education and media campaigns

- *Media Awareness Network* (Canada www.media-awareness.ca) develops media education programs on the new media for homes, schools and community use, and an Internet program for librarians and teachers, and professional development for teachers and journalists.
- *Radio Voix Sans Frontieres*. AMARC_Europe and World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters (AMARAC www.amarc.org/europe). A campaign broadcast on 21 March each year to mark International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination. Launched in 1998, it is 24 hour broadcast in 16 languages, co-produced by radio stations from all over the world to commemorate the 1960 Sharpsville massacre of anti-apartheid demonstrators. It is accompanied by a publicity campaign and anti-racist programs and activities.

The internet

A number of different preventive measures are being developed and used to control hate sites on the Internet (DeSantis, 1998) including:

- legislation
- self regulation by the Internet industry including codes of conduct
- education of users through subscriber policies, codes of conduct or educational web-sites
- blocking and filtering software
- hotlines for users to alert police or internet service providers
- active partnerships between internet service providers and national governments

Countries such as Germany and the United Kingdom have used new or existing legislation to ban hate content and its dissemination electronically. Such options can be imprecise and therefore difficult to enforce and subject to challenge on the grounds of freedom of expression. European nations are currently developing an international code of conduct and cooperation to combat internet hate.

The Netherlands uses self-regulation, while New Zealand controls domain names using ‘.nz’. Blocking software is used in Australia, the Netherlands and the UK. Germany, the Netherlands and the UK have all established hotlines to allow users to alert the service provider or the police when they come across hate material. Some US Internet servers have a ‘no hate page’ policy

which allows them to terminate a contract with a subscriber if illegal, racist or pornographic material is used. International educational web sites have been developed by anti-racism organizations such B'nai Brith, or the NIZKOR project.

- The School Board in Calgary, Alberta introduced a web-blocker *Bess* into its schools in 1999.
- The Media Awareness Network, Canada has developed a resource guide: *Challenging Hate On-Line: A Guide for Parents and Teachers*.^{xl}
- *Digital Hate 2000* Simon Weisenthal Center interactive CD Rom.
- *Combating Hate on the Net* (www.bnaibrith.ca).

Challenging Hate On-Line: A Guide for Parents and Teachers..... teaches parents and teachers how to recognize hate on the Internet, details the motives behind and the primary targets of hate/bias related incidents, and includes strategies that parents and teachers can use to minimize the risks of hate/bias on the Internet.

The most promising approaches appear to be *active partnerships* between Internet service providers and national governments, to develop a national strategy using a multi-method approach. This includes a combination of self-regulation, the development of service and user protocols, educational awareness, hotlines, and blocking systems. There are also a number of anti-hate and racism web sites eg. *Cause for Concern: Hate Crime in America* (www.civilrights.org/crlibrary/issues/hate_crimes).

Most effective approaches

In spite of considerable activity, there has not so far been much evaluation of specific hate and bias prevention projects. Internationally, nevertheless, accumulating experience with the prevention crime and victimization more generally, has shown that the most effective approaches are those which use the following approaches (ICPC, 2000):

- **Comprehensive** approaches which include both a variety of short and longer-term strategies and projects, and involve a wide range of groups and organizations. This means strategies which establish protocols to deal with incidents, provide for the needs of specific groups, as well as more general education and supports, and which include eg. local minority and community groups, voluntary organizations, education, housing, employment, youth, social services and police and justice agencies, local counselors and businesses.
- **Flexible** - anti-hate projects or programs need to be flexible and to integrate feedback, from all the parties concerned, but especially from the targeted communities. It is important to ensure full representation of their views, not just those of community leaders. The Brumunddal project in Norway, for example, evolved and changed after suggestions from its immigrant community. Similarly, ADL projects in the United States, while based on some core approaches, are adapted to specific needs of the local school or community.
- **Partnerships** – comprehensive approaches mean that local representatives work in partnership with other local actors – in order to develop an assessment of the problems and how they can be met strategically, as well as implement plans.
- **A careful diagnosis** of the problems is required. This may mean holding ‘town-hall’ meetings or community conversations with groups of residents, undertaking surveys of concerns, experience of harassment, intimidation or discrimination, collecting local police or community statistics and data on the kinds of incidents and where they occur, and who might be involved.

- **Development and implementation of an action plan** on the basis of the findings from the diagnosis, and information about good practices, the partnership develops a strategy and programs which are implemented after discussions with the wider community.
- **Monitoring and evaluation** is essential in helping to ensure that strategies and programs are including groups or areas targeted as needing specific initiatives, on the basis of feedback from those groups, and to enable any changes to be made. Evaluation can help to demonstrate which of the strategies implemented are successful in reducing problems and changing attitudes, and aid in future strategy planning.
- **Involving young people themselves** prevention programs which target young people seem to be more effective in engaging their attention if they are involved from the start.
- **Involving minority group members** since so much hate and bias activity targets minority groups, their perceptions, long-term experiences, assessment of their needs, and ideas for development are crucial from the outset.

Section V Lessons from Experience

This section considers some of the problems and lessons of developing hate prevention programs with individuals, organizations and communities.

Partnerships and consultations

Partnerships to develop anti-hate and bias strategies and programs are essential, but also very difficult to develop, work and sustain. This can be because of :

- a reluctance by individuals, local authorities or organizations to acknowledge racial and minority harassment
- reluctance on the part of minority communities and victims to report incidents or trust other groups
- over-ambitious expectations, unforeseen constraints and mistaken assumptions

This was the experience of an anti-racism project in London, England in the 1980's which learned many lessons about the difficulties of developing and implementing multi-agency initiatives (Bowling & Saulsbury, 1992). They also concluded that such difficulties are made worse by the very sensitive nature of the issues. Other problems include:

- insufficient resources and finance
- organizational constraints such as difficulties in changing existing policies
- inflexible internal structures, ideologies and working practices eg. youth workers and the police may have very different views or be subject to different pressures about how they should act
- procedures and legal frameworks outside the control of local agencies
- lack of full – rather than token - representation of minority communities
- inequalities in power and decision-making between eg. the police and other agencies, and minority or community representatives.

The North Plaistow project aimed to co-ordinate the activities of the police, local authority services and voluntary groups so as to provide a comprehensive response to racial harassment.... Among the lessons learned was that multi-agency co-ordination can only augment effective action by individual agencies.the difficulties encountered are probably compounded when dealing with a politically sensitive issue.
Bowling & Saulsbury, 1992

Experience shows, therefore, that there need to be *very clear and specific objectives* laid down for consultations between the police or other agencies and community groups. For example, a British study of police consultations with ‘hard to reach’ groups including ethnic minorities or gay and lesbian communities, found that the two sides often had quite *different* objectives in meeting together, as the table below indicates (Jones & Newburn, 2001).

The aims and objectives of consultation	
Police perspective	Community perspective
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to identify local issues and problems • to inform the delivery of policing services & the development of policing methods • to inform communities of forthcoming operations • to inform & educate the public about policing • to promote support for & co-operation with the police • to be seen to be consulting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to influence local policing policy and/or style • encourage action on specific problems • to elicit police recognition of community dynamics and cultural difference • accountability and conflict resolution • to obtain access to police resources and facilities

Source: Jones & Newburn (2001 p. viii).

The dangers of failed programs

In Germany, the past ten years has highlighted some of the problems of working with young people to counter right-wing views and behavior (Rieker, 2001; Rieker & Schulze, 2000). The *dangers* of program failure are that this may help to increase right-wing extremism, as well as wholesale rejection of preventive approaches by the public or policy makers. Their experience indicates that:

- behavioral treatment programs may help to reduce violent behavior, but are less likely to be able to change deep-rooted racial prejudice.
- educational programs tend not to reach extremist right-wing youths, who often have difficulties with formal schooling, or more limited capacities to learn.
- social work projects which target youth at risk or already involved in extremist activities have not always been successful and present a number of challenges.

Youths already committed to right-wing views need special motivation to participate voluntarily in educational programs. They are not easily reached through education or public campaigns because they have often dropped out of school or have little interest in formal education. Such programs need to be tailored to their experiences and environments. This means creating specific programs which are more attractive to them.

For successful prevention, youth work needs cooperation with other social institutions (eg. families, police, school, business) occasions for networking and the exchange of experiences - existing projects often don't have these conditions.
Peter Rieker German Youth Institute (2001)

Social work projects with such youth also need to acknowledge *their* experiences, and the exclusion and isolation they may feel in their families, at school or elsewhere. It seems clear that traditional youth work training is insufficient, youth workers need *special training* and qualifications. Many projects have not had clear goals, and have been poorly financed and understaffed, and systematic documentation and evaluation is crucial. One approach used in the Norwegian EXIT program has been to *embed* the program within an existing organization with experience of working with youth – rather than trying to establish separate EXIT projects on their own. Using young people who have themselves been involved in hate-group activity is another approach for working with ‘hard-to reach’ groups.

Implementing and evaluating

Anti-hate projects or programs, especially those involving youth, hate groups and education, should be carefully monitored and evaluated. Fighting hate is a delicate issue and because programs that look good can be *ineffective*, it is essential to attempt to evaluate them, and to learn the reasons of their success or failure. Few programs in the hate crime area have been evaluated, however. The impact of those with very broad educational aims, such as public awareness campaigns, is difficult to evaluate. Projects developed around a specific problem such as a race riot or gay-bashing, may understandably be set up quickly, and without sufficient thought to subsequent evaluation. Nevertheless, while it is difficult to do so, it is important that those eg. using anti-hate education programs evaluate their impact on attitudes and behavior.

Other difficulties

Being proactive – or waiting for problems to happen A pro-active policy means that authorities take the initiative and can begin to change attitudes and climates and prevent hate incidents. Waiting for communities to ask for help after an event, or giving authorities the choice of implementing a prevention program, is risky. The situation will already have deteriorated when help is sought. On the other hand, a hate crime event may be the *catalyst* which helps to drive a community to action.

It is important to avoid creating a ‘*differential treatment complex*’ where the local population in disadvantaged areas feel betrayal and resentment at the services provided for minority groups – attention needs be given to the needs and concerns of majority populations too.

Changing deep-rooted attitudes eg. among communities or employers and businesses, will be a very slow process, and expectations about project results should not be too high eg. the ASPECT project (see Section VI) found that many businesses refused to discuss racism, and others were reluctant to implement practical changes.

Public education campaigns can provide the impetus for anti-discrimination activities, but they need regular re-vitalization. Their impact can dissipate quickly.

The *mass media’s* role in relation to hate crime is complex – they help to create and perpetuate stereotypes (eg. against immigrants) or exaggerate the extent of problems (eg. the activities of extreme right-wing groups) while ignoring the extent of less serious harassment. But they can also be powerful allies in raising public consciousness and concern about hate crime. Some countries such as Germany and Canada have established links with media decision-makers to reduce negative stereotypes and the over-exposure of incidents. Special prizes are given to broadcasters for programs on tolerance and respect. However, this area has not received enough attention. Good and pro-active relations with the media are essential for all those developing

prevention programs around hate and bias, to anticipate reactions, provide context and good-news stories. This includes dealing with increases in reported cases of hate crimes resulting from project initiatives. Hate crime is above all a very difficult and touchy issue for many communities to deal with.

Section VI Examples from practice

This section includes a range of projects from different countries which have developed prevention programs and strategies tackling hate and xenophobia. They include projects responding to specific events and communities, youth led projects, those targeting youth in hate groups, the use of community mediation, and public education programmes. They are at various stages of development.

Responding to specific events and problems

The city of Strängnäs - The Globetree Foundation Project. Sweden.

The problem: In 1989, the small town of Strängnäs in Sweden agreed to house 500 asylum-seekers in a reception center. The majority of the population objected to this decision, and there was widespread reaction. This included some racist incidents, especially among young people, which were tacitly accepted by the population.

The project: The government funded the *Globetree Foundation*, an organization with prior experience of working with ethnic minorities, to develop the project. On the assumption that lack of knowledge of minorities was a major cause, the project aimed to provide education for the whole community. Teachers from the Reception Center met with school and pre-school principals, parent groups and NGOs working with youth and the media. Staff from each school attended a training and information session. A specific curriculum program for 13-16 year-olds, the age group was responsible for most of the racist incidents, was developed. Artistic events and a fete were organized to present Swedish and foreign cultures, and to establish relationships and understanding between the different groups. Plays and mime were especially effective ways of communicating to overcome language barriers. Some 3,500 residents welcomed the 500 migrants at the fete which included school plays, exhibitions and gift distribution. Articles by some of the children were subsequently published in the local newspaper, and the fete received national press coverage.

Outcomes: The key component of the project's immediate success was its ability to integrate feedback from both the local population and asylum-seekers, and adapt accordingly. It was able to help the two groups to work together and feel their opinions were respected, and to adapt to and appreciate the opinions of the other. The local population did not perceive the newcomers as receiving a special treatment. Long-term effects are more difficult to evaluate. The reception center was closed a year later, but no racist or xenophobic incidents were reported in the subsequent year. Four years later, in 1993, Globetree found that attitudes in Strängnäs toward the project were still positive. The success of the project encouraged the government to publicize it: a documentary film and a pamphlet were distributed to government and community organizations.

Sources: "Le rassemblement de Strängnäs. La Fondation Globetree" in *Combattre le racisme et la xénophobie. Action pratique au niveau local*. (1995). Relations intercommunautaires. Direction des affaires sociales et économiques. Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe. Strasbourg : Conseil de l'Europe. p.91-100. The English title is 'Tackling racism and xenophobia – Practical action at the local level'. ISBN 92-871-2695-X.

Contact: Globetree Foundation: www.globetree.org Email: info@globetree.org

City of Brumunddal – *The Brumunddal Action Plan*. Norway.

The problems: The town of Brumunddal in Norway was experiencing periods of racist tension at the end of the eighties. Violent attacks on immigrants and refugees, including Vietnamese groups, began in 1987 and reached a peak in 1991 with a clash between racist and anti-racist groups. There was both open and covert support for racism among some city officials and the population. Following several reports in the national media, the city came to be seen as symbolizing racism, violence and indifference. At one point, a third of all racist crimes reported in Norway took place in Brumunddal.

The project: *The Brumunddal Action Plan* was developed in 1991 for three years to deal with the problem. It was funded by the national government and involved a partnership between governmental agencies, the municipal authority and non-government organizations. Its main aim was to establish good relations between immigrants and Norwegians. It mobilized the local population through its *New paths for Brumunddal* initiative, as well as police action, support to vulnerable youth groups, and measures to integrate them into the community. The plan included job offers, training programs, social work, and youth club activities. There were also community development projects, sports programs for the unemployed, and contacts with unions. Training for law enforcement agencies was introduced since there had been a reluctance to recognize the seriousness of the problem. The project evolved over time. Initially, immigrants were not consulted, but subsequently their views were taken into account, especially in relation to the delivery of local services. The *focus of the project* also shifted from racism to the ostracism experienced by local youngsters who had been committing racial crimes. They were a predominately disadvantaged group who benefited from many of the measures described above.

Outcomes: This project has increased awareness of xenophobia and organized racism among the local community in the 1990's and their ability to handle it. Passivity and tacit tolerance have become unacceptable social attitudes. The Vietnamese community reports a decrease in violence and vandalism against its members, but verbal insults continue. Police reports also show the immigrants were much less targeted after the Brumunddal Action Plan. By 1995 the city was "no longer a platform for organized racist or xenophobic organizations" (Carlsson, 1995).

Sources: "Le plan d'action de Brumunddal" in *Combattre le racisme et la xénophobie. Action pratique au niveau local*. (1995). Relations intercommunautaires. Direction des affaires sociales et économiques. Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe. Strasbourg : Conseil de l'Europe. p.123-131. The English title is 'Tackling racism and xenophobia – Practical action at the local level'. ISBN 92-871-2695-X. See also Carlsson, Y. (1995). *The Brumunddal Action Plan – has it produced results?* Summary of NIBR Report: 13. Norway. On Internet: Virtanen, T. (ed.). (1998). *Youth and Racist Violence in the Nordic Countries*. At: www.abo.fi/~tivirtan

Responding to accumulating problems

City of Septèmes-Les-Vallons – The Conglomeration-Immigration Contract. France.

The problem: At the beginning of the 1990's this city in the South of France (department of Bouches-du-Rhône) decided to initiate action to reduce the social exclusion of African and North-African immigrant communities. The Gavotte-Peyret district in which they lived was very poor, and lacked social services. It had a negative reputation in the city, making integration of the communities difficult.

The contract: In 1990, the mayor and council of Septèmes negotiated a five year contract with the national government. This provided powers and funding to the city to develop and implement plans to improve the social and economic development of the Gavotte-Peyret district and the integration of its population. The measures included: the creation of *Force 7*, a small Thai boxing club; increased funding for the local *Sporting Club* to widen its activities; the *Catholic Action of the Children* and *Christian Young Workers* created youth centers to bring together young people from different cultural groups and religious backgrounds to promote fundamental human values; the community center hired a youth camp counselor to develop summer programs, humanitarian projects in Africa, French-North-Africa exchanges, and organized several activities for women, such as summer family outings which allowed different ethnic groups to mix; the municipal leisure and community centers, provided joint camp counseling; funding was offered to schools to provide programs on cultural difference. Outside the district of Gavotte-Peyret, sports and cultural associations received subsidies. This resulted, for example, in the inclusion of immigrants in the production of plays and musical events, and the *Municipal Office of the Youth* encouraged young people from the Gavotte district to meet others outside their district and provided them with job-hunting and social supports.

Outcomes: An outcome evaluation of the contract was not undertaken. The city suggests that the measures taken reduced tensions by providing Gavotte's inhabitants with new services and opportunities, and a feeling that they were respected. Cultural exchanges between the French and immigrant populations brought together people who had never been in contact before. While no miracle solutions exist, the importance of initiating several actions simultaneously, to create a wave of change, is stressed by the city. New contracts have since been signed in 1995 for a further five years, and for 2001-2006.

Sources: "Deux ans et demi de contrat agglomération immigration" in *Projets de quartier dans les zones à forte concentration d'immigrés*. (1996). Relations intercommunautaires. Direction des affaires sociales et économiques. Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe. Strasbourg : Conseil de l'Europe. p. 65-77. The English title is 'Area-based projects in districts of high immigrant concentration'. ISBN 92-871-3179-1.

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Implementing a multi-agency project: Reducing repeat victimization on an East London estate. United Kingdom.

The problem: A public housing estate in East London with one of the highest rates of violent and racist crime in the UK. Accommodation on the estate was 'difficult to let' because of the poor housing and environment, and a lack of resources, leading to a rapid influx of minority immigrants in the 1980's. Repeated racial harassment by other residents became a major problem – for 67% of families victimized - but the extent and seriousness of the problem was ignored or underestimated by the local authorities and tenants' association, and the police. The minority residents, primarily Bengali and Somali, experienced abuse and harassment including verbal

abuse, door banging and spitting, and racial crimes such as threats with weapons, robbery, pushing and stone throwing.

The project: The Home Office initiated and funded the multi-agency project between 1990-93 to reduce repeat racial victimization on the estate. The management support group implemented the measures recommended by the inter-agency group. Both included representatives from the police, housing authorities, the estate management, youth workers, the tenants association and residents association. An initial study was undertaken to examine the extent of the problem and victim experiences. The group implemented four separate initiatives: improving security in the homes of victims (better locks, smoke alarms etc.) to increase their sense of security; appointing a detached youth worker to work with potential offenders and reduce further harassment; appointing a Bengali re-victimization prevention worker to support victims in reporting incidents; and improving local authority services for minority residents such as English language classes and child care facilities. The 34 clearly identified offenders met with members of the group, were issued warning letters, and in three cases were prosecuted.

Outcomes: During the course of the project racist crimes still took place, and there was an increase in the official number recorded, but this reflected the encouragement and support given to victims to report incidents. The rate of repeat victimization, however, fell by 12%. Seventy percent of the families concerned reported a decline in racial attacks, and 47% said that fear of attacks was no longer an issue. This compared with 9% prior to the start of the project. Unfortunately however, repeat victimization increased immediately and sharply once the project ended, suggesting that short-term interventions cannot of themselves change deep-seated attitudes and behaviors.

Sources: Sampson, A. & Phillips, C. (1995) *Reducing Repeat Racial Victimization on an East London Housing Estate*. Police Research Group, Crime detection & Prevention Series: Paper No. 67. London: Home Office Police Department. See also: Sampson, A. & Phillips, C. (1998). "Preventing Repeated Racial Victimization: An Action Research Project" in *British Journal of Criminology*, Volume 38, No.1, Winter. p.124-144.

Contact: Steve Gallacher, from *Connecting Communities* (Race Equality Unit, Home Office, UK): 020 7273 3772. Also: Angela Underhill, from *Regeneration and Community* (Crime Reduction Programme, Policing and Crime Reduction Group, Home Office, UK) : 020 7271 8318.

Rhône-Alpes Region - *Specific Action for Equal Employment Opportunities (ASPECT) Project. France.*

The problems: The problems of discrimination and racism in employment in France have been underlined in a number of studies by academics, local associations and government agencies. Since having a job is a crucial integration factor, the government and NGOs have tried to develop strategies to tackle systemic racism and discrimination which penalizes immigrants and French citizens of foreign origin. A major difficulty is penetrating the closed environment of the business world.

The project: In 1998, the ASPECT pilot project was launched in the Rhône-Alpes Region and implemented in three areas: Vienne-Givors, Grenoble and Saint-Étienne. It is run by an association ISM-CORUM with funds from a range of ministries. ASPECT addresses racism and discrimination against applicants and employees. Rather than providing support to victims of discrimination, the project works with those who potentially or actually discriminate. Its aim is to reduce systemic discrimination, by developing partnerships between business and labor groups,

so that equal work opportunities becomes a reality for minorities. ASPECT attempts to negotiate commitments and protocols that guarantee tolerance, respect, and equal opportunities in recruitment, working practices, and for professional careers. These agreements are worked out on an one-to-one basis. Each business meets separately with ASPECT, which also provides training to executives and employees to improve their knowledge about racism, and to help in establishing measures to prevent it.

Outcomes: The project will be evaluated by the French government in 2001. The project director argues that any reduction in discrimination is likely to be small scale, and reports two persistent problems: many firms and businesses still refuse to discuss racism and discrimination with ASPECT's working group; among those which have, some show reluctance to go beyond agreements by implementing practical measures. Before significant quantitative results can be achieved, mentalities and deep-rooted attitudes need to be changed, and there needs to be widespread collaboration among all the actors. The project needs to be evaluated on the basis of such changes. It has managed to set up networks and connections between groups and moved closer to firms and businesses, as well as creating a favorable climate for systemic changes. The project has been successful at establishing momentum and a shared will to respect and reconcile citizens' rights and private interests, and to arouse awareness of discrimination in the business field.

Sources: Commission Nationale Consultative des Droits de l'Homme. (2000). *La lutte contre le racisme et la xénophobie. 1999. Discriminations et Droits de l'homme*. La Documentation française. Paris. Rapport annuel. p.177-187.

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Youth initiated projects

Public Allies Program – Public Allies. United States.

The problems: The social exclusion of youth and especially minority youth is illustrated by a number of issues, including media stereotypes about young people; barriers to youth involvement in their community; an absence of young people from minority groups in community agencies.

The program: *Public Allies* was created by two young people in 1991. It identifies youths who want to participate in their community and finds work opportunities for them in non-profit organizations. The program works with young adults (18 to 30 years old) from different ethnic backgrounds. They are placed in professional apprenticeships for a 10 month period with agencies such as youth development organizations, health care settings or community development corporations. Once a week, the participants (the 'Allies') meet at a leadership training workshop, and with the Team Service Project, which focuses on problems linked with race, ethnicity and gender. After graduation from the program, they enter the labor market or continue education. Currently, the program is available in Washington D.C., Raleigh, Durham, Wilmington, Milwaukee, Chicago and San Jose.....

Outcomes: The participants gain valuable work experience. The project helps them to develop the ability to work with people of different races and improve their communication skills. The employing agencies which train them also benefit from the program by improving their abilities to work with young people, especially those from minority groups. A recent report suggests that 90% of young adults entering the program have completed it successfully. The *Institute for Higher Education Policy* reports that 64% of placements are with non-profit organizations, 19% in the private sector and 8% in government. Most of the graduates are working in community-service projects.

Sources: *Public Allies'* web site: www.publicallies.org See also the web site of *Civilrights.org*: www.civilrights.org/diversity_works/detail.cfm?ID=170

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Targeting specific groups

Project EXIT - Leaving Violent Youth Groups. Norway.

The problems: The recruitment of young Norwegians by hate groups with extreme right-wing views including racism, xenophobia, homophobia, and anti-Semitism. These groups target young people, as early as 12 years old, when it is easier to mould their personality and provide them protection, excitement, identity and friends. With young members, such groups have a greater ability to perpetrate violent acts against refugees and immigrants, and their activities have increased in the last decade.

The project: *EXIT-Leaving Violent Youth Groups* was officially funded by the government from 1997 through the *Norwegian Directorate of Immigration (UDI)*, a government agency working on the prevention of extremism, racism and xenophobia. It was developed by an expert of hate groups (Tore Bjorgo) and the police. Its philosophy is that young people gradually adopt racist views because they have become part of a racist group, not because they are racists. Joining a group fulfills unmet social and psychological needs, so communities and families must intervene very early in the process to prevent young people from integrating racist values and using violent behavior to express them. Depriving hate groups of their young members will reduce their influence and their power. The aim of EXIT, therefore, is to assist young people who want to leave hate groups. This includes helping them to move away temporarily from their community, facilitating contact with social agencies, and offering therapy or alternative activities. The project also provides support to parents and creates local support networks for them. It also develops and disseminates knowledge and methods to professionals working with hate groups youths – police, social workers, youth workers, teachers... The leaders of the project chose not to establish a distinct EXIT organization but to work through the existing local agencies to which it provided relevant know-how methods. This strategy allowed EXIT to be implemented in several Norwegian communities.

Outcomes: No long-term evaluation has been completed. However, outcomes in a number of cities show some success. In the city of Kristiansand from 1996 until 1999, local agencies worked with 38 young members of a neo-Nazi group among. By the end of the project only three were still involved in Nazi activities. Overall, around 130 parents representing 100 youths, have participated in the parental network groups. At the end of 2000, only 10% of these youths were still active on the racist scene. In addition, more than 800 practitioners have been trained by the project and a handbook is being published. A major outcome was the establishment of EXIT in Sweden in 1998 by a former Swedish neo-Nazi. That project works directly with people who contact EXIT, and also has some success. After two years of activity, only 3 of the 80 people who requested help leaving Nazi groups are still involved in them. The Swedish government is conducting an evaluation of the project in 2001. While EXIT in Sweden has been good at assisting individuals deeply involve in hate groups, EXIT in Norway has produced results in early intervention with youths and with parents. At the moment, Germany is implementing the EXIT project based on the Swedish model. Switzerland and Finland are both interested in it.

Sources: Unpublished paper. (2000). SAKSNR. 95/4599. Norwegian Directorate of Immigration (UDI). Department of Integration: Norway. See also Bjorgo, Tore. (2000). "Promoting Disengagement from Extremist Groups: Project Exit". Presented at the conference *Enhancing Security of States in a Multipolar World: Focus on Extremism*. George C. Marshall European Center for Security Studies. See also Virtanen, T. (ed.). (1998). *Youth and Racist Violence in the Nordic Countries*. www.abo.fi/~tivirtan

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Public and media campaigns

Media Partnership *The Would I? Campaign* Public and private sector. United Kingdom.

The problem : Racial stereotypes are often deep-rooted in people's mentalities and the media participates in their creation. Prejudices against minority group members may include notions that they have a propensity to commit more crimes, or more violent ones than majority populations, and that they are different from the majority.

The project: To tackle this problem, the *Commission for Racial Equality* (CRE) developed an advertising campaign against racism with *Euro RSCG Wnek Gosper*. Under the direction of the CRE the innovative campaign, called *Would I?*, was launched in December 2000 on television, in cinemas and during football game intermissions across the country. The campaign uses nine celebrities whose natural color and features are changed: Spice Girl Mel. B. and boxers Lennox Lewis and Prince Naseem are transformed into white persons; Ken Livingstone, the Mayor of London, becomes Asian, and Chris Evans black. After the transformation, each looks at the camera and asks questions such as "Would I be less scary?, Would you think differently about me if I were white? Would I be more annoying if I was black? Would I win more fights if I was white?" depending on their job and color. The physical transformation aims at surprise, the questions demand a response and reflection.

The outcomes: The *Would I? Campaign* would appear to have been successful based on the debates it has given rise to. Thanks to the media's coverage, it has reached millions of people and has fostered a social dialogue on racism. It also displays an interesting partnership between the public sector - the CRE is a government organization - and the private sector which has covered a big part of the expense. The CRE paid for the minimal up-front production costs. The campaign's main achievement is the use of two very important and influential tools: celebrities (as actors) and the media (as channels). It is presented as a successful venture against racism by the Newsletter of the *World Conference Against Racism Secretariat* which concludes: "Advertisement will not end racism and racial discrimination, but it can challenge people's perspectives and stereotypes about people from different racial, religious or ethnic groups".

Sources: The CRE's web site: www.cre.gov.uk/about/would_i.html for a general description of the campaign. An information pack can be ordered through: WouldI?@cre.gov.uk The advertisement can be seen or downloaded at www.cre.gov.uk/about/wi_vid.html The web site of the *Guardian* (a British newspaper) displays several pages on the campaign: www.mediaguardian.co.uk see also the February 2001 Newsletter #2 (*Durban 2001: United against Racism*) of the *World Conference Against Racism Secretariat* (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, United Nations) available online at: www.unhchr.ch/html/racism/index.htm

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National Campaign - The *Not in Our Town* (NIOT) Campaign. United States.

The problem: This program was developed to respond to problems of racism in US communities based on the experience of the town of Billings, Montana. A series of hate incidents in the town in 1993 included the distribution of KKK fliers, vandalism of the Jewish cemetery, swastikas were drawn on a Native family's home, a Black church and a Jewish home with a Menorah were targeted. Following these events, the whole community responded: marches and candlelight vigils were organized by different religious groups; the local labor council passed a provision against racism, anti-Semitism and homophobia; racist graffiti was removed and after the local newspaper printed full-size Menorahs, 10,000 homes and businesses displayed it. The community's example led to the creation of NIOT.

NIOT campaign: PBS, the US public broadcasting network, launched the anti-hate campaign *Not in Our Town* in 1995. The NIOT documentary on Billings showing how the town had rejected hate and intolerance, was broadcast, and tours were organized in several American cities. In 1996, NIOT II followed the same pattern, though on a much larger scale: a video showing successful action against hate was shown throughout the US at local screenings, city hall meetings, in classrooms and conference workshops. NIOT I & II were adapted and modified to meet the needs of local communities: for example, the Pittsburgh campaign stressed advertising on buttons, t-shirts and newspaper ads, and in Los Alamitos (California) a *Not in Our Campus Campaign* was created. NIOT II was also used in police training classes and by human relations commissions.

NIOT's outcomes: NIOT I & II have received widespread broadcasting coverage. By presenting successful stories of anti-hate demonstrations, projects or programs, they disseminate good practice examples that can be used elsewhere. They mobilized many cities, involved thousands of people and were able to foster community activism around tolerance, respect, multiculturalism.

Sources: PBS's web site contains several pages on NIOT: www.pbs.org/niot See also: *Preventing Hate Crime: A Comprehensive Approach*. (1999). Chapter 9, National Center for Hate Crime Prevention: Austin, Texas. The web site of *Civilrights.org* provides a summary of NIOT: www.civilrights.org/diversity_works/detail.cfm?ID=52

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Community mediation

The city of Main/Frankfurt – *Talk to them? No way!* Germany.

The problem: In the last decade, like many European cities, Frankfurt has been subjected to demographic changes which have affected its cultural and ethnic structure. These have made existing conflicts over resources and territory even more complex. The common responses to solving conflicts, whether through violence or the criminal justice system, were seen as limited for tackling the kinds of disputes arising. Unlike those responses, a third strategy, community mediation, stresses dialogue between opposite parties.

The project: In 1995, the *Cities Against Racism Project* (CARP) was created by the *European Commission*. One of its key objectives was to set up local initiatives to prevent racism and discrimination. Frankfurt's project *Talk to them? No way!* ran from December 1995 to December 1997. This community mediation project was managed by a local government department, the *Amt für Multikulturelle Angelegenheiten* or AmkA (Office for Multicultural Affairs) assisted by CARP. Its aim was to develop local community-based dispute settlement, using community mediators, recruited and trained in conflict resolution techniques. AmkA established links with many potential partners such as city authorities, the police, and political organizations. The project became part of a cooperative network. Conflicts that arose in schools, apartments or houses were reported to AmkA by institutions or individuals, and two moderators were rapidly appointed to meet with the protagonists. Their report on the conflict analyzed any social or other problems with a request to city authorities for intervention. This might include medical care for refugees, or school intervention for children in difficulty. A decision to proceed with mediation would be made at this point. Thus, AmkA filtered out cases in which community mediation would have little value given other problems. The mediation stage was carefully organized: mediators met with moderators to establish an action plan and provide an assessment of the conflict situation and need for external resources. This allowed mediators to devote their time and their abilities to mediation. Team work also enabled the monitoring of progress and systematic evaluation. These allowed for flexible crisis management, and adjustments on the basis of feedback. Mediation could be passive – parties were helped to develop communication skills and to empower themselves in order to solve their problems - or active – eg. organizing a roundtable with rules for engagement to address a specific problem.

Outcomes: An evaluation by the *Peace Research Institute Frankfurt* in 1998 reports on the efficiency and the success of the project. The report argues that problems arising between people of different cultures are more easily dealt with and solved through community mediation than other approaches. Mediation is seen as an effective way of resolving cultural conflicts because it guides all parties to find a compromise - instead of enforcing solutions - and because it seeks to establish understanding, tolerance and respect between both parties. The Institute notes that the long term effects of the project are to prevent crime since they change mentalities or points of view, apart from the immediate short term outcomes of the settlement of specific crises. The success of the project led to its adoption and continuation by the local authority in 1998.

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www.ncpc.org

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Endnotes

ⁱThere is no internationally agreed definition of hate crime, so the terms hate crime, hate and bias-motivated crime and hate and bias incidents are all used in this monograph, as well as terms used in other countries.

ⁱⁱIn 1990 in Edmonton two hate groups were convicted for attacking and blinding a retired radio broadcaster; a member of the Aryan Resistance Movement was found guilty of the murder of Vietnamese student in Toronto; in 1993 a Sri Lankan immigrant was beaten and paralyzed after a white power concert in Toronto; in 1998 skinheads were convicted of the murder of a Sikh caretaker in Surrey BC (Khanna, 1999).

ⁱⁱⁱSome studies have shown high levels of under-reporting in relation to homophobic incidents. A recent Canadian survey found victims were *more* likely to report hate crimes than others, possibly reflecting the fact that they were more likely to involve assault (Janhevich, 2001). The British Crime Survey also suggests that minority hate crime victims are more likely to report household crimes to the police than white victims, but generally less likely to report personal offences (see FitzGerald & Hale, 1996). Pakistanis in particular only reported 15% of serious threats to the police, compared with 34% of white victims.

^{iv} In 1996 60% of law enforcement agencies and 19 States were submitting hate crime data. By 1999 agencies in 48 states and Washington DC submitted figures.

^vIn fact there has been a general increase in the numbers of agencies reporting, the number of incidents per reporting agency has declined since 1991(BJA, 1997).

^{vi} Racial refers to physical difference, ethnicity to language, culture or tradition.

^{vii} This article has rarely been used so far.

^{viii}This four-year project began in 1999 and is being undertaken by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (CCJS), part of Statistics Canada. A recent survey by Janhevich (2001) outlines the different approaches taken by a sample of police departments across Canada.

^{ix}Anti-Semitic incidents were more likely to target property, those against race, ethnic or sexual orientation were more often violent. The *League of Human Rights of B'Nai Brith* which has maintained statistics on anti-Semitic incidents in Canada since 1982. They reported 267 incidents of intimidation and harassment in 1998 (League for Human Rights, 1999).

^x Respondents are asked two questions: whether an incident could be considered a hate crime, and whether it was because of their sex, race/ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, age, disability, culture, language or other reason.

^{xi}Since 1999 this is defined as 'Any incident which is perceived to be racist by the victim or any other person.' Thus information on incidents motivated by hate of religion, sexual orientation, and disability etc. are excluded.

^{xii}These include assault/wounding, criminal damage and harassment and against groups identified by race, color, nationality, ethnic or national origins (Home Office, 1998).

^{xiii} Since the Macpherson Inquiry (1999) a racist incident is defined as "any incident which is perceived to be racist by the victim or any other person.'

^{xiv}There are limitations to the BCS too - it only surveys those over 16 and excludes incidents against commercial premises such as small stores.

^{xv}This study was based on findings from the 1988 and 1992 British Crime Surveys.

^{xvi}The Penal Code forbids this on the grounds that France is a multicultural and multiethnic society.

^{xvii}This section draws largely from a paper by Peter Rieker (2001) of the German Youth Institute, Leipzig, and specially written for the ICPC.

^{xviii}This relates to concerns with the activities of the former National Socialist Regime.

^{xix}For example, Rieker (2001) reports this was the case after attacks in Hoyerswerda (1991), Rostock (1992) Solingen (1993) and Dusseldorf (2000).

^{xx}These figures are based on Chief Constables' Annual Reports.

^{xxi} There has been considerable debate about whether federal 'race vilification' legislation should be passed (Reid & Smith, 1997).

^{xxii}This study was undertaken by Peplar et al (199x)and based on the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth

^{xxiii} This number may have declined since then.

^{xxiv} See www.ecri.coe.int

^{xxv}Among other initiatives media awareness and education are encouraged with a *European Prize for Media against Racism and Intolerance*.

^{xxvi} The 1965 Race Relations Act created the criminal offence of incitement to racial hatred (Bowling, 1993). This law protects ethnic minority groups against racial discrimination in areas such as employment, housing and education.

^{xxvii} The Macpherson Report (1999). His death occurred in 1993, and followed the murders of two other black students.

^{xxviii} This includes prosecution of members of Nazi organizations, forbidding the formation of armed groups, and the extension of victim compensation to foreign-born residents. In 1997, 1,478 people were sentenced for xenophobic crimes - 28% of them to youth institutions (source).

^{xxix}See United Nations (2000) *Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination* Reports submitted, Germany.

^{xxx} *Campaign Against Violence and Hostility Towards Foreigners* directed at youth, civic leaders and police responses; *Fairness and Understanding* which targeted youth; and a campaign against racist violence developed around youth attendance at major soccer matches. Ministers of Education in all states (Länders) also recommended inter-cultural teaching in schools in 1996.

^{xxxi}While official figures for reported racial and anti-Semitic incidents are very low, the extent of the problem of discrimination is well recognized by the government.

^{xxxii} Non-governmental organizations are also active in the prevention of racism including MRAP (Movement Against Racism) SOS Racism and LICRA (International League Against Racism and Anti-Semitism).

^{xxxiii} The NCPC is part of the Department of Justice, and provides competitive funding under its Community Mobilization, Partnerships, Investment and Business Alliance initiatives (www.crime-prevention.ca).

^{xxxiv} Canadian Race Relations Foundation www.crr.ca B'nai Brith Canada www.bnaibrith.ca ; Canadian Anti-racism Education & Research Society www.antiracist.com and www.recomnet.org . See also www.vidavision.com/countries/carn the site for the Canadian anti-racist network CARN.

^{xxxv} CSVR www.wits.ac.za/csvr; Quaker Peace Centre www.quaker.org/capetown/; Human Rights Commission www.rightsafrica.ca.za

^{xxxvi} Conflicts relating to gender, disability, religion or sexual orientation are not included in their jurisdiction.

^{xxxvii} The goals of the ADL are “to stop the defamation of the Jewish people and to secure justice and fair treatment to all citizens alike”.

^{xxxviii} There are also concerns with racial enhancement legislation designed to protect minority groups can be used against them.

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^{xl} Available on www.media-awareness.ca .