

HATE CRIME |

VICTIMISATION SURVEY

REPORT

HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION SURVEY REPORT

Paul Iganski

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

- ◆ This report provides key findings from a survey of hate crime victimization carried out in North Macedonia in June and July 2018.
- ◆ The survey aimed to provide a more comprehensive account of hate crime victimization and its impact than had been available to date from the small numbers of hate crimes previously indicated by administrative data and NGO data for North Macedonia.
- ◆ The objective was to provide evidence as to the need to develop effective measures that respond to and combat hate crime, guide targeted policy and strategy by national and local authorities, and support civil society organizations in their advocacy work.

SURVEY DESIGN

- ◆ The survey was designed to maximize the potential to capture victims' experience of hate crime by focusing on municipalities with the greatest ethnic diversity with the expectation that hate crimes are more likely to occur in such areas compared with areas with less ethnic diversity.
- ◆ 1510 respondents aged 15 and over participated in the survey.
- ◆ Tablet assisted self-interviews (TASI) were conducted in which respondents completed a survey questionnaire using a tablet provided by the interviewer, with the interviewer's assistance if requested.
- ◆ Respondents were recruited in public places at locations and times chosen to sample a cross-section of the population.

EXPERIENCE OF CRIME IN GENERAL

- ◆ Using a reliable minimum count of crime victimization, just over one-in-six respondents (17.5%) had experienced a crime in the 12 months before the survey.
- ◆ Notably, very few respondents reported being physically assaulted, with or without resultant injury.

EXPERIENCE OF HATE CRIME

- ◆ Almost one-in-ten (9.1%) respondents said that they had been a victim of some form of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey.
- ◆ Using actual numbers of persons affected, 165 respondents in the survey reported that they had been the victim of at least one hate crime in the past year.
- ◆ The hate crime victimization rates for the municipalities of Kichevo and Gazi Baba were well over the rate of hate crime victimization for the whole sample of respondents in the survey. The rates for the municipalities of Tetovo and Struga were approximately half the rate for the whole sample of respondents in the survey.

CRIME AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION BY VICTIM CHARACTERISTICS

- ◆ Very similar proportions of female and male respondents reported having been a victim of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey (females 8.9% : males 9.3%).
- ◆ Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to report having been a victim of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey. But victims were found across the full age range of the survey respondents.
- ◆ Roma respondents reported the highest rate of hate crime victimization within the 12 months before the survey compared with other ethnic groups.
- ◆ When asked about their sexual orientation the great majority of respondents said that they were heterosexual (88.7%). A substantial number of respondents said that they 'prefer not to say' (132 out of 1510 respondents). Notably, each of the eight respondents who selected 'homosexual' for their sexual orientation had been a victim of a hate crime in the 12 months before the survey.
- ◆ Among those respondents who said that they had a physical or mental health condition or illness lasting or expected to last for 12 months, 11.4% (26 respondents) reported that they had experienced hate crime in the 12 months before the survey.

PERPETRATORS OF HATE CRIME

- ◆ Strangers were the most common single type of hate crime perpetrator. However, a higher proportion of hate crime victims stated that the perpetrator was a neighbour, or somebody else from the neighbourhood, or someone else known to them.
- ◆ Less than one in twenty hate crime victims said that the perpetrators were teenagers and a similar proportion said they were football hooligans. Only one hate crime victim said that the perpetrator was a member of an extremist group.

POLICING HATE CRIME

- ◆ Six out of ten (60.1%) respondents for whom the most serious crime they experienced in the last 12 months was a hate crime said that the crime was not reported to the police.
- ◆ The most common reason offered by just over one-third of hate crime victims for not reporting the most serious crime they experienced to the police was an acceptance that it is just something that happens. One in six hate crime victims stated that it was too trivial and not worth reporting.
- ◆ One third of hate crime victims also said that they were not confident that the police would be able to do anything, with a small number—just over one in twenty hate crime victims—stating that the police would not have been bothered or interested.
- ◆ Hate crime victims were less likely to say that they were treated fairly by the police and treated with respect.
- ◆ However, hate crime victims were more likely than victims of other crimes to say that the police kept them informed about the progress of their case and they expressed a slightly higher level of satisfaction with the way police dealt with the matter when reported.

IMPACT OF HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

- ◆ For each of the measures of post-victimization impact used in the survey, hate crime victims as a group were more likely to report higher levels of impact than other crime victims.
- ◆ Hate crime victims as a group were over twice as likely as victims of other crimes to report having significant problems with family members or friends as a consequence of their experience of hate crime.
- ◆ Hate crime victims as a group were more likely to report post-victimization psychological impact than victims of other crimes.
- ◆ Hate crime victims were also more likely to report psychosomatic symptoms.
- ◆ For each of the measures used in the survey concerning worry about potential interpersonal crime victimization hate crime victims in the survey were more likely than victims of other crime to state that they were very worried and fairly worried.
- ◆ Hate crime victims were also more likely to state that they avoided certain places— such as shops, cafes, public transport, sport or cultural facilities and other public places—for fear of being treated badly because of their ethnic, racial, or national origin, their religion, or their political beliefs.
- ◆ Hate crime victims in the survey were also more likely than victims of other crime to report symptoms of post-traumatic stress.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This report provides the results from a survey of hate crime victimization carried out in North Macedonia in June and July 2018. The survey was unique. It was the first sample survey that sought to capture experience of hate crime in North Macedonia.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE SURVEY

Published administrative data on hate crime in North Macedonia indicate only a small number of such crimes. Just five hate crimes were recorded by the police in 2015 and only two in 2016—according to data published by the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR).¹ Data from non-governmental sources indicate a slightly larger, but still only very small, number of hate crimes. The national Helsinki Committee and the OSCE Mission to Skopje reported to ODIHR a total of 31 incidents of hate crime for 2015. A further 13 registered incidents were not verified as hate crime according to OSCE/ODIHR evidential standards.² For 2016 they reported a total of 35 incidents—with an additional 35 registered incidents not verified.³ No other NGOs in North Macedonia have collected and published hate crime data.

Given what is known about the extent of hate crime victimization in other European countries as indicated by EU-MIDIS II survey and referred to in this report,⁴ the true prevalence of hate crime in North Macedonia is likely to be grossly underrepresented by the published administrative data for North Macedonia—as will be evidenced by this report.

Furthermore, there is a long history of polarization and ethnic tensions in North Macedonia between members of the Albanian and Macedonian communities.⁵ Such polarization also provides fertile ground for everyday hate crime.

The survey therefore aimed to provide a more comprehensive account of hate crime victimization in North Macedonia and its impact than had been available to date, as well as to identify the extent of underreporting of hate incidents by surveying a range of different communities of majority and minority social identity on the basis of ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, disability, and political beliefs.

¹ See: <http://hatecrime.osce.org/former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia?year=2015> and <http://hatecrime.osce.org/former-yugoslav-republic-macedonia?year=2016>

² See: Helsinki Committee (2016) *Annual Report on Hate Crime in 2015*, Skopje: Helsinki Committee, page 97.

³ See: Helsinki Committee (2015) *Annual Report on Hate Crime in 2016*, Skopje: Helsinki Committee, page 121.

⁴ European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights.

⁵ cf. Koinova, M. (2013) *Ethnonationalist Conflict in Postcommunist States: Varieties of Governance in Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Kosovo*, Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.

The objective was to provide evidence as to the need to develop effective measures that respond to and combat the problem, guide targeted policy and strategy by national and local authorities, and support civil society organizations in their advocacy work.⁶

STRUCTURE OF THIS REPORT

The report is presented in five sections. Following this introductory section, some key methodological issues about the design of the survey and the data analysis are outlined to inform interpretation of the survey results. The results are then presented in four sections: the experience of hate crime, the perpetrators of hate crime, policing hate crime, and the impact of hate crime. Where possible, comparisons are made with international evidence about hate crime victimization, primarily with results from the EU-MIDIS II survey.⁷

⁶ The OSCE ODIHR proposes that: “Tools that measure unreported hate crimes and their impact on victims can provide a better indication of the true volume of hate crimes, as well as valuable information about the impact of hate crimes on victims. They can identify specific communities at risk and provide information about changing patterns of violence. They can help assess the level of community confidence in the police and other criminal justice agencies. All of this knowledge can help improve planning, preventive action and response.” *Hate Crime Data-Collection and Monitoring Mechanisms. A Practical Guide*, (2014: Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR, page 33).

⁷ European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights.

2. THE SURVEY DESIGN

SAMPLE DESIGN

Given the aim to provide a more comprehensive account of hate crime victimization in North Macedonia than previously presented by published administrative data and NGO data, the survey was designed to maximize the potential to capture victims' experience of hate crime.⁸

The survey employed a quota sample design. In the absence of reliable sampling frames for the selection of a random sample of the population of North Macedonia—such as postcode address files—and a lack of up-to-date local area census information to inform a random sampling technique such as a random walk, the potential use of survey designs based on random samples of respondents was limited. The potential use of a quasi-random sampling technique such as respondent driven sampling was also limited by the high cost that would be required—a cost which escalates when seeking to survey a range of different communities of majority and minority social identity.

SAMPLE SELECTION

The sample selection was designed to maximize the potential to capture experience of hate crime victimization.⁹ On the understanding that rates of hate crime are greater in areas with greater population diversity,¹⁰ the sample was selected from municipalities in which the ethnic Macedonian population, according to the 2002 population census, was no greater than 77% and no less than 23% of the total population of the municipality. Eighteen municipalities met the criteria.¹¹ To minimise potential selection bias, the sample in each municipality was selected according to quotas on the basis of ethnic group composition of the municipalities, gender and age.

The size of the total sample of respondents selected in each municipality was proportionate to the size of each municipality's total population as a percentage of the total population for all eighteen municipalities combined. The total sample for each municipality was then divided proportionately according to the ethnic group composition of the municipality.¹²

For the overall sample selected in each municipality, three-quarters were male and one-quarter female. The aim of this over-representation of males was to seek to capture as comprehensive picture of crime victimization as possible given that males are more likely than females to be the perpetrators and victims of violent crime in public places and public order offences—the types of crimes that commonly become aggravated as hate crimes.

⁸ The survey design was prepared by Magdalena Świder and Paul Iganski.

⁹ The United Nations Manual on Victimization Surveys proposes that 'Quota sampling is a valuable tool when fielding a pilot victimization survey'. See: UNODC-UNECE (2014) Manual on Victimization Surveys, Geneva: United Nations, page 36: https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/Crime-statistics/Manual_on_Victimization_surveys_2009_web.pdf

¹⁰ Iganski, P. (2007) *Hate Crime and the City*, Bristol, UK: Policy Press. (See Chapter 3: 'The spatial dynamics of everyday hate crime', Bristol: Policy Press, pages 45-71.

¹¹ See: Appendix 1.

¹² See: Appendix 2. The selection of Vlach and Bosniak respondents provided exceptions as larger disproportionate samples were selected to achieve a minimum of 30 respondents in total from each group—the minimum number conventionally used for analysis.

The sample selected in each municipality also over-represented the younger age groups compared to the older age groups - again, to seek to capture as comprehensive a picture of crime victimization as possible given that adult males aged 16-24 are the most likely to be victims of violent crime in public places with a declining victimization rate with age. Twice the national population proportion of 15-19 year-olds, 20-24 year-olds and 25-29 year-olds was selected in each municipality for the survey; an equal national population proportion of 30-39 year-olds was selected in each municipality, and; half the national population proportion selected for the older age groups.

SAMPLE SIZE

Interviewers approached 1733 persons: 223 persons refused to be interviewed (14.8% of all those approached) and 1510 respondents aged 15 and over participated in the survey by completing the interview. This number is well within the conventional range of the number of respondents recruited for opinion polling and market research surveys.

FIELDWORK

The fieldwork was carried out by national research agency BRIMA¹³ using 43 Macedonian and Albanian speaking interviewers with previous experience of carrying out survey interviews. Given the sensitive nature of some of the survey questions, tablet assisted self-interviews (TASI) were conducted in which respondents completed a pre-coded survey questionnaire using a tablet provided by the interviewer, with the interviewer's assistance if requested. Routing through the questionnaire followed the respondents' answers. The questionnaire was available in either the Macedonian or Albanian language. Interviewers were present to address any queries from respondents concerning any clarification needed about question wording. Interviews were conducted in the early evening and at weekends to capture potential respondents who were in daytime employment or at school or college.

Respondents were recruited in public places at locations chosen to achieve a cross-section of the population—next to or near railway stations, bus stations, post offices, medical centres and hospitals, shopping centres and cinemas. Prior to conducting the fieldwork for the survey, a pilot was undertaken of the respondent recruitment and questionnaire completion under the same conditions as planned for the survey.

PRESENTATION OF THE SURVEY RESULTS IN THIS REPORT

All results presented are weighted results—apart from when counts of actual crimes experienced are presented. Weighting was applied to adjust the results according to population parameters for the ethnic group, gender, and age composition of the national population according to the 2002 census. As is conventional when reporting sample survey findings, weighted percentages and unweighted numbers of respondents (n) from which the percentages are derived are presented for the results reported.

¹³ See: <http://www.brima.com.mk/eng/index.html>

INTERPRETING THE SURVEY RESULTS PRESENTED IN THIS REPORT

Even though the selection and subsequent weighting of the survey sample aimed to match the populations from which it was drawn when taking into account ethnic group composition, age and gender, the use of non-probability quota sampling prevents the generalization of the survey results beyond the survey's respondents.

Consequently, this report provides no inferences about a wider population beyond the survey sample. The observed differences between sub-groups of the sample—such as between victims of hate crime and victims of other crimes, between ethnic groups, between age groups, and between females and males—are actual differences for the sample.

To help interpret the observed differences, certain conventions are followed based on the reporting of results from probability surveys. As results based on a small number of responses in a survey are less reliable, practice used by the EU Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) in reports on the EU-MIDIS II survey is adopted in this report:

- ≠ Results based on 20 to 49 unweighted numbers of respondents in a group total or based on cells with fewer than 20 unweighted respondents are noted in parentheses.
- ≠ Results based on fewer than 20 unweighted respondents in a group total are not presented (with just a few exceptions).

Given that the survey results are derived from a non-probability quota sample, tests of statistical significance are not provided for the reported results as a key assumption behind significance testing is that the results are based on a random sample of respondents. However, to help interpretation of small observed differences between sub-groups of respondents or categories of data in the results presented, when commenting on such differences, to encourage caution of interpretation where necessary an asterisk is used to indicate that the observed difference would not be statistically significant if the results were derived from a random sample: meaning a less than conventional level of confidence that the results could not have occurred by chance due to the characteristics of the selection of the sample rather than being real differences.

3. EXPERIENCE OF CRIME IN GENERAL

To set the context for the presentation of the survey's findings concerning hate crime experienced by the survey respondents, it is instructive to briefly outline the survey results concerning respondents' experiences of any type of crime in general.

COUNTING CRIME VICTIMIZATION

To understand the experience of crime perceived by the survey respondents', questions in the survey focused on eleven different crime categories included in North Macedonia's Criminal Code. While they do not include all the crimes specified by the Criminal Code, a Ministry of Justice working group proposed amendments to the criminal code for each of these crime categories to incorporate penalty enhancement in cases of hate crimes.¹⁴

Questions relating to eight of the crime categories (see Figure 1) asked about crime directly experienced by the survey respondents. The eight categories combined therefore provide a reliable count of crime victimization. They also provide a useful comparison with crime victimization survey results from some other countries as they cover core common crime classifications used internationally. It is, though, a minimum count given that it does not include every single category of crime in North Macedonia's Criminal Code.¹⁵

Using this minimum count of crime victimization, just over one-in-six respondents (17.5%) had experienced a crime in the 12 months before the survey.

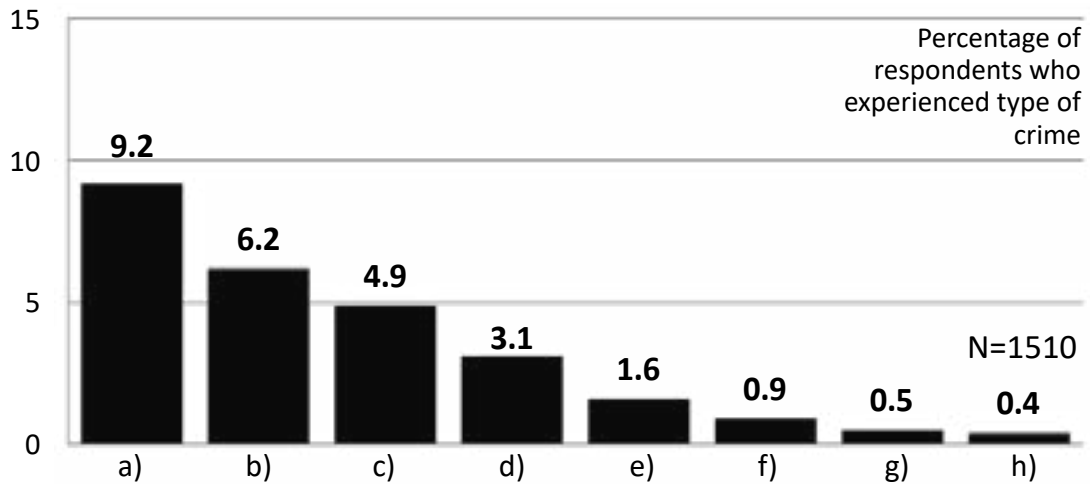
TYPES OF CRIME EXPERIENCED

The most common type of crime experienced by respondents involved having their property stolen or being robbed: experienced by almost one tenth (9.2%) of all respondents in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 1).

¹⁴ The OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights recommends that: Where possible, victim surveys should address the same bias motivations and types of crimes captured by official statistics. This allows for meaningful comparisons between the surveys and data recorded by criminal justice agencies." Hate Crime Data-Collection and Monitoring Mechanisms. A Practical Guide, (2014: Warsaw: OSCE/ODIHR, page 34).

¹⁵ Questions for three of the crime categories, by design, were potentially over-inclusive in terms of the crime experience captured, and the crime categories are also generally not included in crime victimization surveys internationally. The questions asked for two of the crime categories potentially capture the experience of people who were affected by the crimes in question, but who were not directly targeted: 'Have you been affected by someone desecrating a grave during the past year?', and 'Have you been affected by someone preventing or disturbing a public gathering during the past year?'. In addition, a question concerning the refusal of medical help did not ask if the refusal was by a person authorized and able to provide medical help.

Figure 1: Types of crime experienced in the past year



Respondents who answered 'yes' to...

- a) Question CV1: 'Has someone stolen your property or robbed you during the past year?'
- b) Question CV3: 'Has someone insulted or verbally assaulted you during the past year?'
- c) Question CV18: 'Has someone damaged your property during the past year?'
- d) Question CV2: 'Has someone threatened your safety during the past year?'
- e) Question CV4: 'Has someone physically assaulted you (excluding robbery) without causing bodily injury during the past year?'
- f) Question CV5: 'Has someone physically assaulted you (excluding robbery) causing bodily injury during the past year?'
- g) Question CV7: 'Has someone unlawfully deprived you of your liberties during the past year?'
- h) Question CV6: 'Has someone sexually assaulted or raped you during the past year?'

Being subject to insult or verbal assault was the second most common (6.2%) type of crime experienced. The minimum count used only includes insults or verbal assaults classified as crime by the criminal code—which are those committed entirely or partially, because of the victim's ethnic, racial, national or religious background, their political beliefs, because of their gender, sexual orientation or gender identity, or because of a physical or mental health condition they might have.

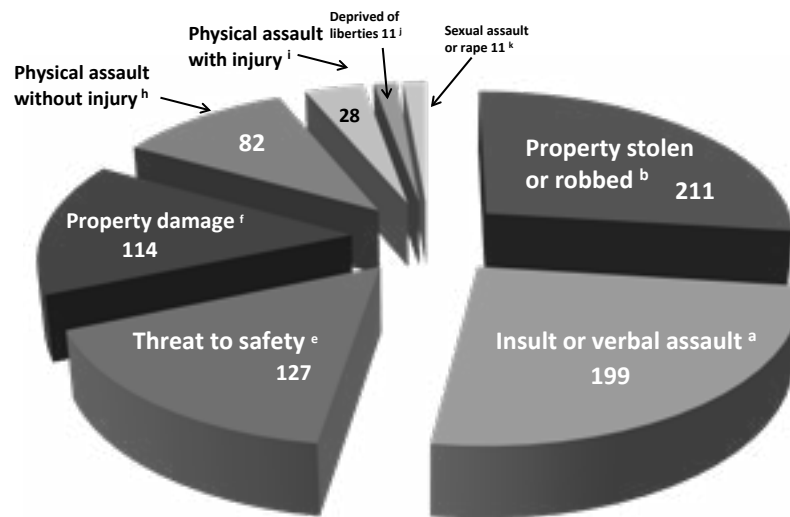
If the excluded non-criminal insults reported by respondents are added, then over one-in-ten (11.7%) of all respondents reported being subject to some form of insult or verbal assault in the 12 months before the survey.

Notably, very few respondents reported being physically assaulted, with (0.9%) or without (1.6%) resultant injury. Crime survey evidence from other countries also shows that only small proportions of respondents report assaults. For instance, just 2.7% of respondents in the Swedish Crime Survey 2017 stated that they were a victim of assault.¹⁶

Some respondents experienced more than one crime, and some on more than one occasion. When actual unweighted numbers are added together, 783 crimes were experienced in total by the 1,510 respondents in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 2). The largest category of crime—accounting for over a quarter of all crimes (26.9%)—involved property theft or robbery. Insults or verbal assaults accounted for slightly over a quarter of all crimes. Physical assaults, with or without injury, together accounted for relatively few—about one in seven (14.0%)—of all crimes.

¹⁶ The Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention (Brå) (2018) *Swedish Crime Survey 2017*, Stockholm: Brå, page 7.

Figure 2: Numbers of crimes experienced in the past year by crime type



Total number (unweighted) of crimes reported by respondents = 783

How many times?

Questions: a CV3a; b CV1a; c CV9a; d CV11a; e CV2a; f CV8a; g CV10a; h CV11a; i CV5a; j CV7a; k CV6a.

4. EXPERIENCE OF HATE CRIME

For each category of crime included in the survey, respondents were asked—if they had been a victim of the crime in the last 12 months—if they thought the incident or any incident happened partly or completely because of their ethnic, racial, or national background, their religious background and their political beliefs. If respondents indicated earlier in the interview that their sexual orientation was other than ‘heterosexual’, they were asked if they thought the incident happened because of their sexual orientation or gender identity. Also, if they indicated in the interview that they had a physical or mental health condition or illnesses lasting or expected to last for 12 months or more, they were asked whether the incident was related to that condition or illness. Respondents who stated that they had been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey were asked to specify the most serious crime, and respondents were asked for those crimes: ‘Do you think that [this incident/ any of these incidents] IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS happened partly or completely because you are a woman?’

Crimes reported by respondents who answered “yes” to any of these questions were counted as hate crimes.¹⁷

Almost one-in-ten (9.1%) respondents said that they had been a victim of some form of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey. Using actual unweighted numbers, 165 respondents in the survey reported that they had been the victim of at least one hate crime in the past year. This number contrasts starkly with the number of hate crimes reported officially by North Macedonia, and also the number reported by the Helsinki Committee to the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights. The contrast is even starker when it is considered that the 165 persons who experienced hate crime in the survey were part of just a small fraction of the population that participated in the survey.

International comparisons of the rate of hate crime victimization can be unreliable given that there is no standard definition of hate crime used. However, by comparison, the Swedish Crime Survey 2016 estimated that in Sweden in 2015 2.8% of the population aged 16-79 were victims of xenophobic, anti-religious or homophobic hate crimes.¹⁸ However, it is a more conservative measure when compared with the hate crime survey as the Swedish Crime Survey did not ask about crimes which respondents believed happened because of their political beliefs, a disability they might have, or because they are a woman.

A far less conservative and much more inclusive measure was used in the EU-MIDIS II survey in counting the experience of hate-motivated harassment perceived by respondents as relating to their ethnic or immigrant background. The survey focused on five types of harassment: offensive or threatening comments in person; threats of violence in person; offensive gestures or inappropriate staring; offensive or threatening emails or SMS messages; and offensive comments made about them online. This measure of harassment extends well beyond the categories of crime used in this hate crime survey to capture experience of hate crime in North Macedonia. Notably, one in four (24%) of the respondents in the EU-MIDIS II survey said that they had experienced hate-motivated harassment in the 12 months before the survey.¹⁹

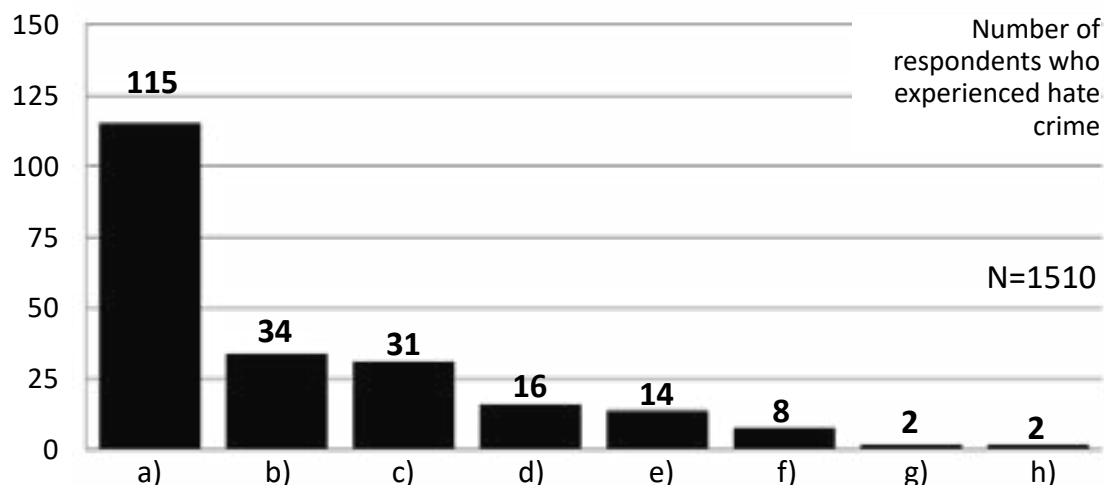
¹⁷ The Ministry of Justice working group proposed that: “A hate crime, as prescribed with the provisions of this law, is a criminal act against a person or legal entity or property related to it, that is committed entirely or partially because of the actual or presumed characteristic of the person that refers to race, colour of skin, nationality, ethnic origin, religion or belief, mental or physical disability, sex, gender identity, sexual orientation, political affiliation, or belonging to a marginalized group”. (Paragraph 23 Article 32).

¹⁸ The Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention (Brå) (2018) *Hate Crime 2016*, Stockholm: Brå, page 8.

¹⁹ See: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, page 58.

TYPES OF HATE CRIME EXPERIENCED

Figure 3: Numbers of respondents who experienced hate crime in the past year by crime type



Respondents who answered 'yes' to any of CV1c, CV1d, CV1e, CV1f, CV1g, CV2c, CV2d, CV2e, CV2f, CV2g, CV3c, CV3d, CV3e, CV3f, CV3g,

CV4c, CV4d, CV4e, CV4f, CV4g, CV5c, CV5d, CV5e, CV5f, CV5g, CV6c, CV6d, CV6e, CV6f, CV6g, CV7c, CV7d, CV7e, CV7f, CV7g, CV8c, CV8d, CV8e, CV8f, CV8g, MS5 and 'yes' to...

a) Question CV3: 'Has someone insulted or verbally assaulted you during the past year?'

b) Question CV1: 'Has someone stolen your property or robbed you during the past year?'

c) Question CV18: 'Has someone damaged your property during the past year?'

d) Question CV2: 'Has someone threatened your safety during the past year?'

e) Question CV4: 'Has someone physically assaulted you (excluding robbery) without causing bodily injury during the past year?'

f) Question CV5: 'Has someone physically assaulted you (excluding robbery) causing bodily injury during the past year?'

g) Question CV7: 'Has someone unlawfully deprived you of your liberties during the past year?'

h) Question CV6: 'Has someone sexually assaulted or raped you during the past year?'

The most common type of hate crime experienced involved verbal assault. Despite the indication from NGO data that the majority of hate crimes involve bodily harm,²⁰ very few hate crimes reported in the survey involved physical assault with or without resultant injury.

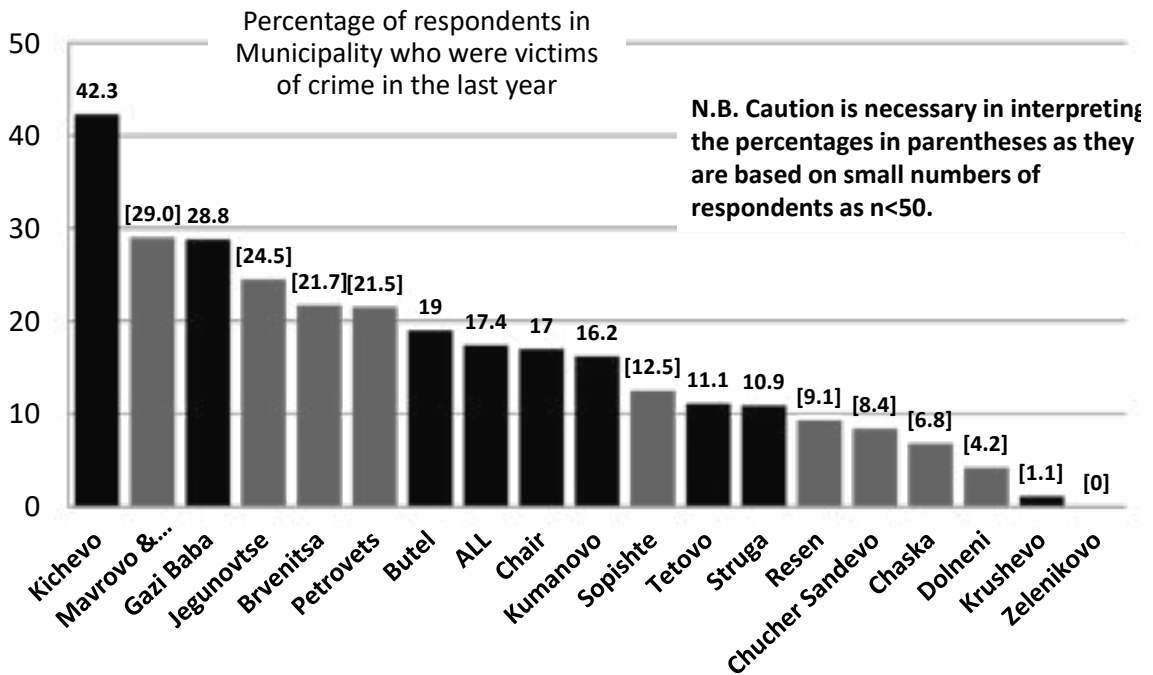
If the experience of each respondent experiencing a particular crime is counted as just one crime, then in total 222 hate crimes were captured by the survey from a total of 1510 respondents.

CRIME VICTIMIZATION BY MUNICIPALITY

Given the small numbers of respondents ($n < 50$) in over half the municipalities, it is not possible to make reliable comparisons of the rates of reported crime victimization across all eighteen municipalities selected for the survey. However, it is evident (Figure 4) that the crime victimization rates for the survey respondents from Kichevo (42.3%) and Gazi Baba (28.8%) were well over the rate of crime victimization for all municipalities combined (17.4%). The rates for Tetovo (11.1%) and Struga (10.9%) were well under the overall rate of crime victimization.

²⁰ See: Helsinki Committee (2016) *Annual Report on Hate Crime in 2016*, Skopje: Helsinki Committee, page 122.

Figure 4: Crime victimization by municipality ^a



n:

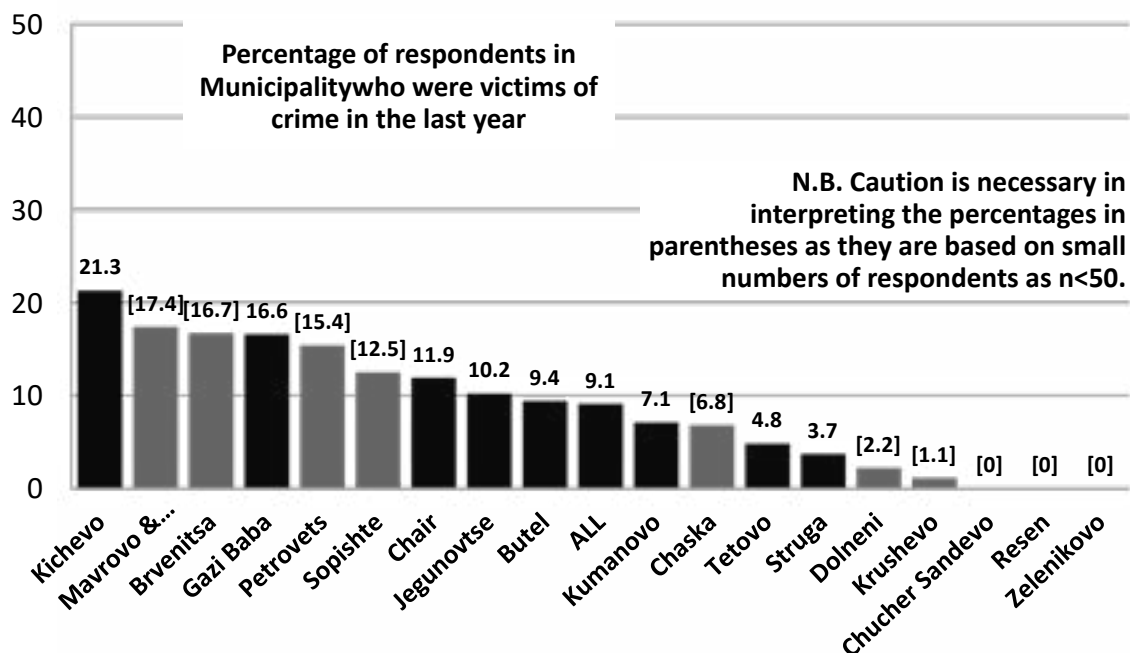
Kichevo = 83; Mavrovo & Rotushe = 23; Gazi Baba = 194; Jegunovtse = 28; Petrovets = 22; Brvenitisa = 42; Butel = 95; ALL=1510; Chair = 171; Kumanovo = 278; Sopishte = 15; Tetovo = 233; Struga = 167; Chucher Sandevo = 22; Resen = 44; Dolneni = 36; Chaska = 20; Krushevo = 26; Zelenikovo = 11;

^a Interviewer coded variable: 'Municipality'

HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION BY MUNICIPALITY

It is evident that the hate crime victimization rates in Kichevo, and Gazi Baba, were well over the rate of hate crime victimization for the whole sample of respondents in the survey. The rates of hate crime victimization for respondents from Tetovo and Struga were approximately half the rate for the whole sample of respondents in the survey.

Figure 5: Hate crime victimization by municipality^a



n:

Kichevo = 83; Mavrovo & Rotushe = 23; Gazi Baba = 194; Jegunovtse = 28; Petrovets = 22; Brvenitsa = 42; Butel = 95; ALL=1510; Chair = 171; Kumanovo = 278; Sopishte = 15; Tetovo = 233; Struga = 167; Chucher Sandevo = 22; Resen = 44; Dolneni = 36; Chaska = 20; Krushevo = 26; Zelenikovo = 11;

^a Interviewer coded variable: 'Municipality'

Urban dwellers were more likely than rural dwellers to report hate crime victimization (urban=10.2%: rural=7.5%).*

5. CRIME AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION BY VICTIM CHARACTERISTICS

GENDER AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Male respondents were slightly more likely than females to report having been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey (19.0% of males: 16.0% of females). The difference between the rates of crime victimization for males and females is greater in urban areas (22.0% of males: 16.8% of females) and smaller in rural areas (15.1% of males: 14.6% of females).^{*} The interaction of age and gender in crime victimization is discussed below in the findings on age and crime victimization.

GENDER AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

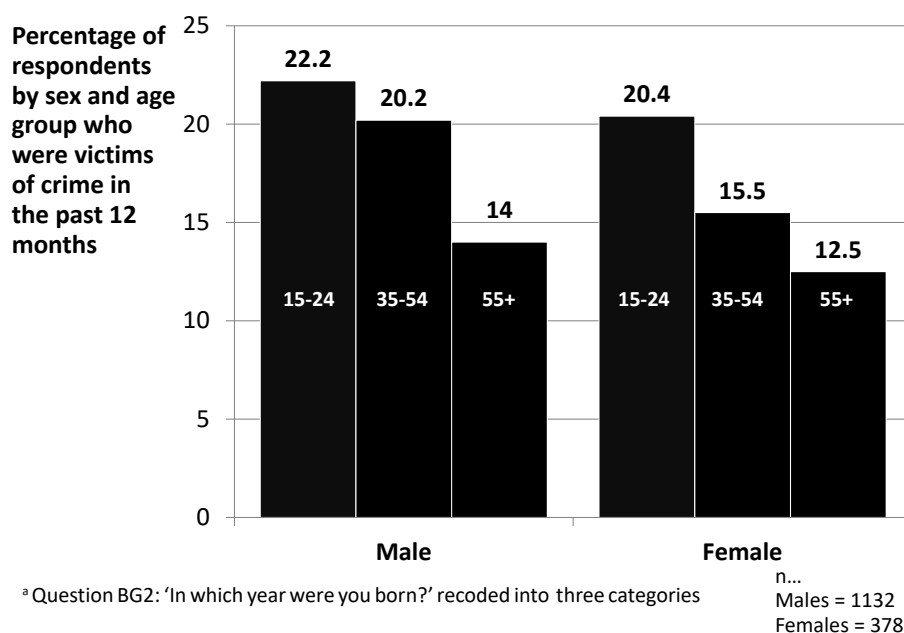
Very similar proportions of male and female respondents (9.3% of males: 8.9% of females) reported having been a victim of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey.^{*} Notably, the EU-MIDIS II survey which focused on harassment on the basis of respondents' ethnic or immigrant backgrounds also found no gender difference in the overall rate of victimization.²¹ The interaction of age and gender in hate crime victimization is discussed below in the findings on age and hate crime victimization.

AGE AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to report having been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey—as can be seen when respondents are categorized into three age groups (Figure 6). This is the case for both males and females.

²¹ European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, page 58.

Figure 6: Age and experience of crime victimization ^a



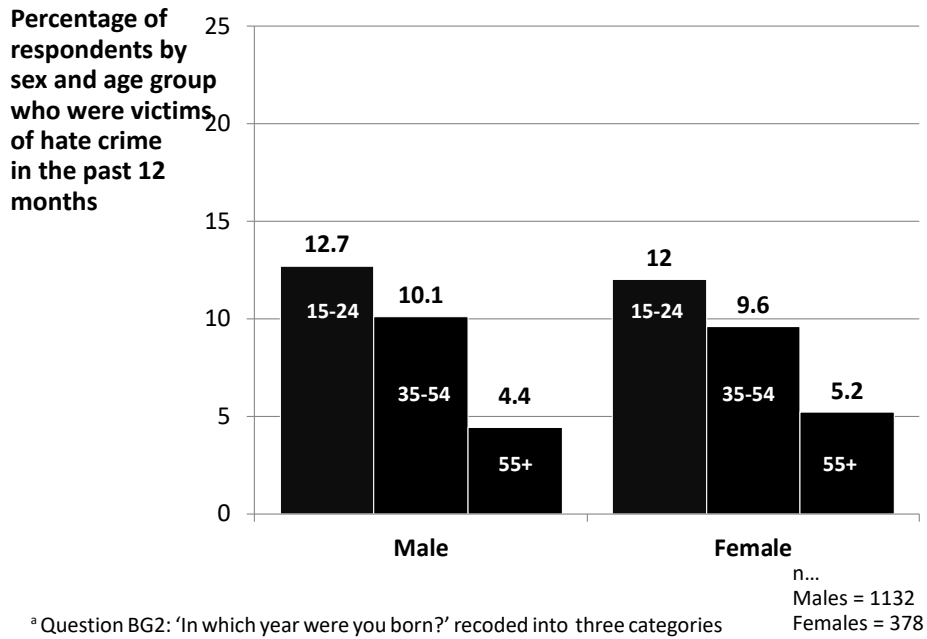
AGE AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Similarly, in the case of hate crime victimization, younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to report having been a victim of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 7). This finding is also consistent with the EU-MIDIS II survey which also found that the youngest age group reported the highest rate of harassment with the prevalence decreasing with rising age.²² But it is also clearly evident that hate crime victimization occurs across the full age range of respondents. Despite the indication from NGO data that the majority of hate crime victims are juveniles,²³ six out of ten (62.8%) of hate crime victims in the survey were aged 30 and over.

²² European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, page 60.

²³ See: Helsinki Committee (2016) *Annual Report on Hate Crime in 2016*, Skopje: Helsinki Committee, page 124.

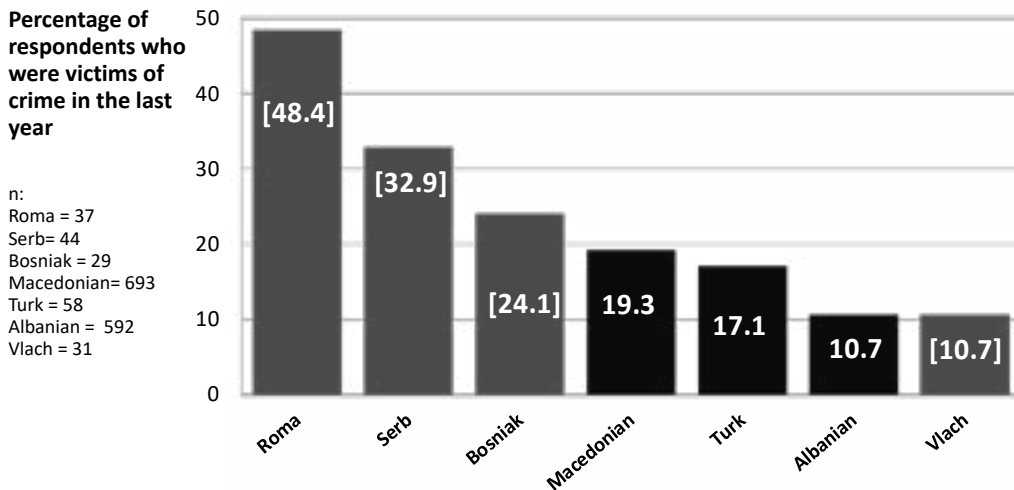
Figure 7: Age and experience of hate crime victimization ^a



ETHNICITY AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Roma respondents reported the highest rate of crime victimization in the 12 months before the survey (Figure 8).²⁴ Members of the Albanian and Vlach communities' respondents as groups reported the lowest rate of crime victimization.

Figure 8: Ethnicity and experience of crime victimization ^a



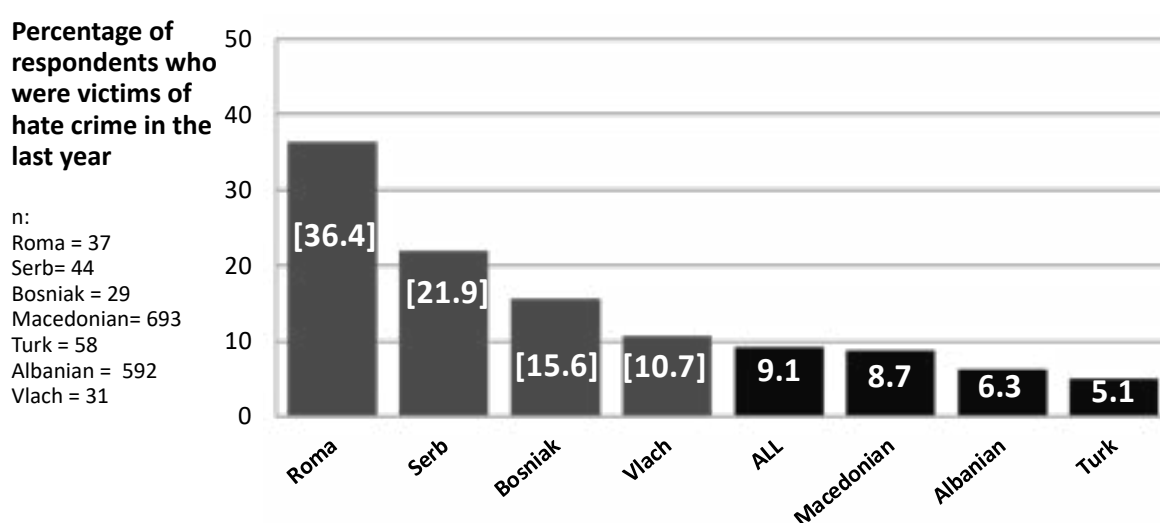
^a Question BG20: 'What is your ethnic group? Please choose the option that best describes your ethnic group or background.'

²⁴ Because of the small number of Roma respondents in total (<50) caution is necessary in drawing conclusions from this finding.

ETHNICITY AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Given the relatively small numbers of respondents (<50) from some ethnic groups, the most reliable comparison is between Albanian, Macedonian* and Turk* respondents. The hate crime victimization rate for each of these groups is slightly below the rate for all of the survey's respondents in total (Figure 9). Out of all groups, Roma respondents reported the highest rate of hate crime victimization within the 12 months before the survey.²⁵ It is notable that the EU-MIDIS II survey similarly found that Roma respondents experienced the highest rate of harassment.²⁶

Figure 9: Ethnicity and experience of hate crime victimization ^a



^a Question BG20: 'What is your ethnic group? Please choose the option that best describes your ethnic group or background.'

RELIGION AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Christian respondents were more likely than Muslim respondents to report having been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey (20% of Christians: 14.2% of Muslims). Higher proportions of the very small numbers of respondents from other religions (n=9) or who preferred not to state their religion (n=16) reported having been a victim of crime but the numbers are too small for reliable comparison.

RELIGION AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Christian respondents were more likely than Muslim respondents to report having been a victim of hate crime in the last 12 months (9.3% of Christians: 8.4% of Muslims).

²⁵ However, because of the small number of Roma respondents in total (<50) caution is necessary in drawing conclusions from this finding.

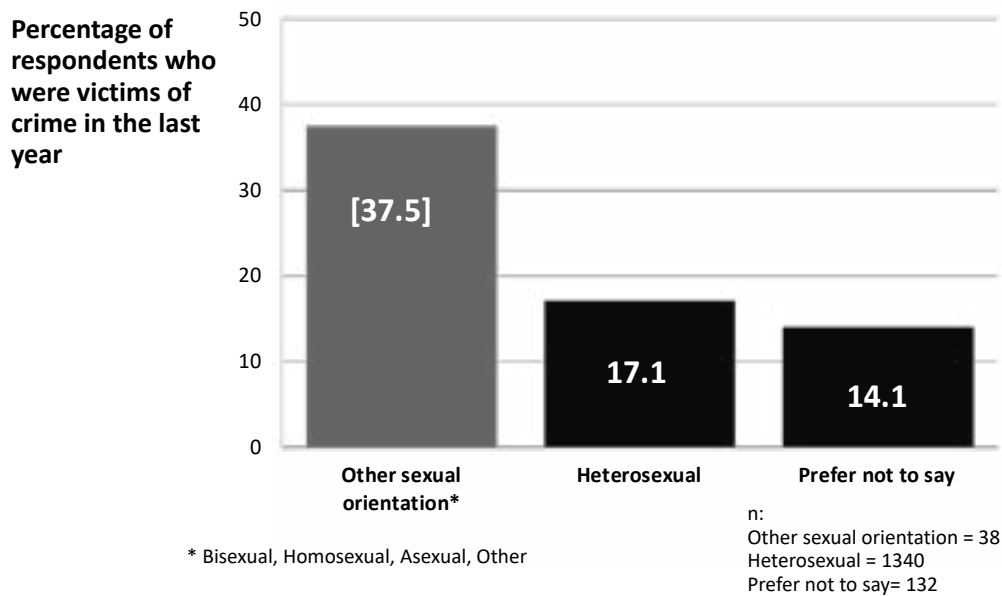
²⁶ European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, page 58.

SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

When asked about their sexual orientation the great majority of respondents said that they were heterosexual. A substantial number of respondents (132) said that they ‘prefer not to say’. Small numbers said that they were bisexual (9), homosexual (8), asexual (11), or ‘other’ (10). When combined as a group, they were more likely to report having been a victim of crime within the last year when compared with heterosexual respondents and those respondents who preferred not to state their sexual orientation (Figure 10).²⁷

What is clearly evident, though, is that each of the eight respondents who selected ‘homosexual’ for their sexual orientation, and five of the nine respondents who selected ‘bisexual’, had been a victim of a crime in the last year.

Figure 10: Sexual orientation and experience of crime victimization ^a



^a Question BG4: ‘What is your sexual orientation?’

SEXUAL ORIENTATION AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

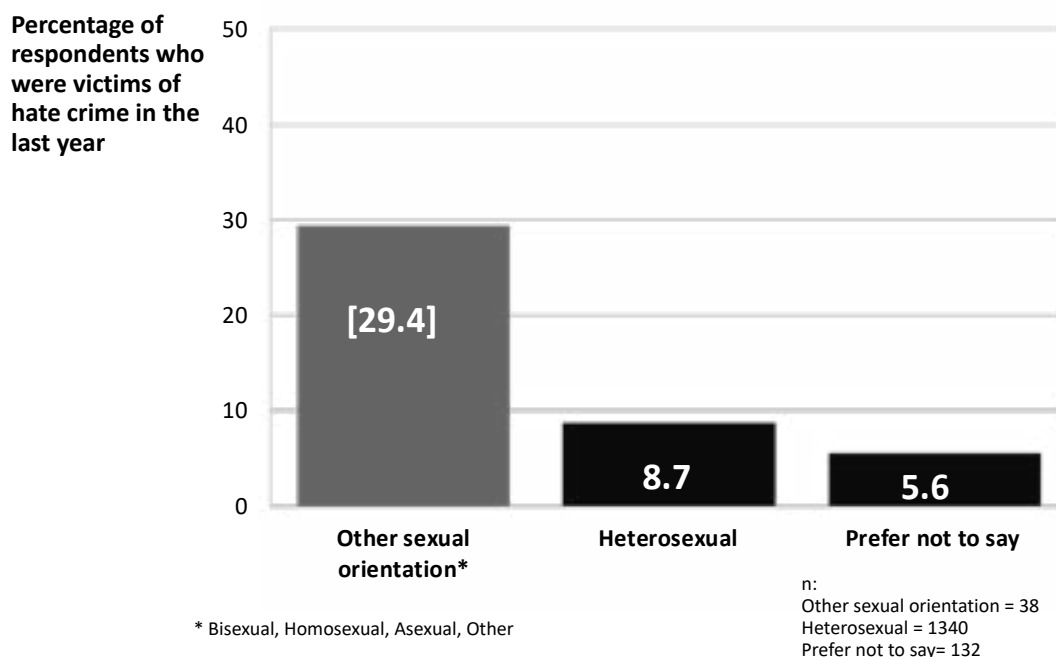
When combined as a group, respondents who classified themselves as bisexual, homosexual, asexual, or ‘other’, were more likely to report having been a victim of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey when compared with heterosexual respondents and those respondents who preferred not to state their sexual orientation (Figure 11).²⁸

Notably, each of the eight respondents who selected ‘homosexual’ for their sexual orientation had been a victim of a hate crime in the 12 months before the survey.

²⁷ However, because of the small numbers of respondents in this combined group (<50) caution is necessary in drawing conclusions from this finding.

²⁸ However, because of the small numbers of respondents in this combined group (<50) caution is necessary in drawing conclusions from this finding.

Figure 11: Sexual orientation and experience of hate crime victimization^a



^a Question BG4: 'What is your sexual orientation?'

DISABILITY AND CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Eighteen per cent of respondents (171 respondents in total) said that they had a physical or mental health condition or illness lasting or expected to last for 12 months or more. They were more likely than respondents without a long lasting physical or mental health condition or illness to report having been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey (20.5% compared to 16.9%).*

DISABILITY AND HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Among those respondents who said that they had a physical or mental health condition or illness lasting or expected to last for 12 months, 11.2% reported that they had experienced hate crime in the 12 months before the survey. This is a slightly higher rate than the 8.6% of respondents without a disability who had experienced hate crime.* Notably, over one-in-three of the survey respondents who said that they had a longstanding mental health condition reported experiencing hate crime in the 12 months before the survey—the highest rate of hate crime victimization among respondents with a physical or mental health condition or illness lasting or expected to last for 12 months.²⁹

²⁹ Because of the small number of respondents involved (n=23) caution is necessary in drawing conclusions from this finding.

6. THE PERPETRATORS OF HATE CRIME

All respondents in the survey who said that they had been a victim of crime in the 12 months before the survey were asked to specify the most serious crime. More detailed information was then asked about such crimes beyond the experience of crime victimization. This section of the report and the sections that follow focus on the most serious crimes specified by respondents.

TABLE 1: PERPETRATORS OF THE MOST SERIOUS CRIMES EXPERIENCED BY RESPONDENTS

	Hate crime column %	Other crime column %
A stranger (someone else you didn't know)	25.2	22.8
I did not see the offender	22.2	28.5
Someone else from your neighbourhood	18.8	8.7
Member of your household	12.3	3.8
Someone else you know	11.3	10.4
Other public official	5.6	3.9
A neighbour	4.5	9.8
Teenager or group of teenagers	4.1	2.8
Someone from school or college	3.5	3.6
Football fan hooligan	3.5	0.6
Someone you work with, colleague	3.2	2.3
A customer, client or patient	2.7	2.8
Police officer	2.5	0.7
Member of an extremist group	0.4	0.0
Other	0.4	8.0
<i>Unweighted n</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>207</i>

When asked about the perpetrators of the most serious crime they experienced, strangers were the most common single type of perpetrator—according to hate crime victims. However, a higher proportion of hate crime victims recognized the perpetrator as a neighbour, or somebody else from the neighbourhood, or someone else known to them.

Notably, according to the victims, members of extremist groups, football hooligans and teenagers were not commonly the perpetrators of hate crimes. Less than one in twenty hate crime victims said that the perpetrators were teenagers and a similar proportion said they were football hooligans. Only one hate crime victim said that the perpetrator was a member of an extremist group.

7. POLICING HATE CRIME

The first point at which criminal justice agencies are able to respond to acts of hate crime is when the crimes are reported to the police. However, it is well-known internationally that not all victims of crime in general, and not all victims of hate crime in particular, report the crimes they experience to the police. This section of the report therefore presents the survey results on the reporting of the most serious crimes specified by respondents and, for those respondents who did report crimes to the police, their perceptions about how they were treated.

REPORTING HATE CRIME TO THE POLICE

Six out of ten (60.1%) hate crime victims said that the crime was not reported to the police, compared with a smaller proportion—half (50.5%)—of respondents for whom the most serious crime they experienced in the 12 months before the survey was not a hate crime.*

TABLE 2: REASONS WHY CRIME NOT REPORTED TO THE POLICE

	Hate crime column %	Other crime column %
It is a common event/ just something that happens	35.0	14.0
Not confident the police would be able to do anything	33.3	24.6
Dealt with the problem ourselves/ help from family friends	20.0	16.3
Too trivial/ not worth reporting	17.3	20.7
Concerned about negative consequences if reported	17.3	16.2
Fear of intimidation from perpetrators if reported incident	13.1	8.9
Inconvenience/ too much bureaucracy or trouble/ no time	8.5	9.1
Police would not have bothered/ not been interested	5.8	5.3
Tried to report but police were not interested	3.0	0.8
Dislike/fear the police/ previous bad experience with police	1.2	12.7
Other	0.6	6.3
Reported to other authorities instead	0.0	1.8
Residence permit problems – so couldn't report	0.0	0.0
Not reported because of language difficulties insecurities	0.0	2.4
<i>Total (unweighted n)</i>	<i>53</i>	<i>90</i>

The most common reason offered by just over one-third of hate crime victims for not reporting the most serious crime they experienced to the police was an acceptance that it is just something that happens. One in six hate crime victims stated that it was too trivial and not worth reporting.

One third of hate crime victims also said that they were not confident that the police would be able to do anything, with a small number—just over one in twenty hate crime victims—stating that the police would not have been bothered or interested.

The EU-MIDIS II survey produced similar findings: the most common reason offered by victims of hate-motivated harassment and also by victims of hate-motivated violence for not reporting the incidents to the police or another authority was a perception that nothing would happen or change by reporting the incident.

TREATMENT BY THE POLICE

Respondents who reported the most serious crime they experienced to the police were asked a series of questions about how they perceived their contact with, and treatment, by the police (Table 3).

There was no consistent pattern of difference between the responses of hate crime victims and victims of other crimes. Hate crime victims were less likely to say that they were treated fairly by the police and treated with respect.* However, they were more likely than victims of other crimes to say that the police kept them informed about the progress of their case and they expressed a slightly higher level of satisfaction with the police compared with victims of other crimes.*

The proportion of hate crime victims in this hate crime survey who were dissatisfied with the police response after making a report (45.4%) was lower than the 63% of victims of hate-motivated harassment in the EU-MIDIS II survey who said they were dissatisfied with the way the police dealt with the matter.³⁰

TABLE 3: TREATMENT BY THE POLICE		
	Hate crime column %	Other crime %
HOW EASY OR DIFFICULT WAS IT FOR YOU TO MAKE CONTACT WITH SOMEONE FROM THE POLICE WHO COULD DEAL WITH THE MATTER?		
Very easy	26.7	29.0
Fairly easy	26.3	23.5
Neither easy nor difficult	46.1	33.8
Fairly difficult	0.9	10.7
Very difficult	0.0	3.0
DO YOU THINK THE POLICE TREATED YOU FAIRLY?		
Yes	40.1	46.5
Not entirely	26.3	15.4

³⁰ European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) (2017) *EU-MIDIS II: Second European Union minorities and discrimination survey*, Vienna: European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, page 63.

TABLE 3: TREATMENT BY THE POLICE

Not at all	21.1	12.6
Not sure	12.4	25.5
DO YOU THINK THE POLICE TREATED YOU WITH RESPECT?		
Yes	49.5	54.4
Not entirely	12.4	20.3
Not at all	22.3	7.3
Not sure	15.9	17.9
HOW WELL DID THE POLICE KEEP YOU INFORMED ABOUT PROGRESS IN THE CASE?		
Very well	6.5	10.7
Fairly well	30.3	17.5
Not very well	30.6	24.7
Not at all well	9.9	31.7
Not necessary to keep me informed	22.7	15.4
ON THE WHOLE, WERE YOU GENERALLY SATISFIED OR DISSATISFIED WITH HOW THE POLICE DEALT WITH THE MATTER?		
Satisfied	10.9	10.9
Fairly satisfied	30.3	24.2
A bit dissatisfied	12.9	12.6
Dissatisfied	32.5	38.6
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	9.6	8.3
Do not know	3.8	5.5
<i>Total (unweighted n)</i>	<i>[35]</i>	<i>85</i>

8. IMPACT OF HATE CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Many victims of crime suffer some post-victimization impact. In the case of hate crime, an international body of research evidence indicates that the impact for hate crime victims on average can be greater than the impact of crime without the hate aggravation. There is evidence internationally that such understanding has underpinned governmental policy and motivated government and criminal justice agency intervention against hate crime.³¹

Consequently, this hate crime survey asked victims who specified the most serious crime they experienced in the 12 months before the survey a series of questions about potential post-victimization impact. This section of the report presents the results focusing separately on different types of post-victimization impact identified in the research literature to date—socio-emotional, psychological, psychosomatic, and behavioural impacts—and additionally focuses on the association between experience of actual crime victimization and worries about potential victimization. Results on post-traumatic stress reactions following crime victimization are also presented.

For each of these measures of post-victimization impact, the survey found that hate crime victims as a group were more likely to report higher levels of impact than other crime victims. The consistency of the results and their correspondence with the international evidence is compelling.

BEING AFFECTED BY CRIME VICTIMIZATION

Survey respondents were asked for the most serious crime they experienced, 'Overall, how much were you affected?'. Notably, hate crime victims were more likely than victims of other crimes to state that they were affected 'very much' or 'quite a lot' by their experience of crime.

TABLE 4: BEING AFFECTED BY CRIME VICTIMIZATION

	Hate crime column %	Other crime column %
OVERALL, HOW MUCH WERE YOU AFFECTED?		
Very much	27.7	22.1
Quite a lot	38.7	30.0
Just a little	33.6	47.9
<i>Unweighted n</i>	90	207

³¹ Giannasi, P. [2014] 'Academia from a Practitioner's Perspective: A Reflection on the Changes in the Relationship between Academia, Policing and Government in a Hate Crime Context' in Neil Chakraborti and Jon Garland (eds.) Responding to Hate Crime: The Case for Connecting Policy and Research, Bristol: Policy Press. See also: <https://impact.ref.ac.uk/CaseStudies/CaseStudy.aspx?Id=43547>

SOCIO-EMOTIONAL IMPACT

Hate crime victims as a group were over twice as likely as victims of other crimes to report having significant problems with family members or friends as a consequence of their experience of crime (Table 5).

TABLE 5: SOCIO-EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS FOLLOWING CRIME VICTIMIZATION		
	Hate crime column %	Other crime column %
DID BEING A VICTIM OF THIS CRIME LEAD YOU TO HAVE SIGNIFICANT PROBLEMS WITH FAMILY MEMBERS OR FRIENDS, INCLUDING GETTING INTO MORE ARGUMENTS OR FIGHTS THAN YOU DID BEFORE, NOT FEELING YOU COULD TRUST THEM AS MUCH?		
Yes	30.6	13.3
No	67.7	84.3
Do not know	1.7	2.4
DID BEING A VICTIM OF THIS CRIME LEAD YOU TO HAVE SIGNIFICANT PROBLEMS WITH YOUR JOB OR SCHOOLWORK, OR TROUBLE WITH YOUR BOSS, CO-WORKERS, OR PEERS?		
Yes	15.5	7.5
No	84.5	91.9
Do not know	0.0	0.5
<i>Unweighted n</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>207</i>

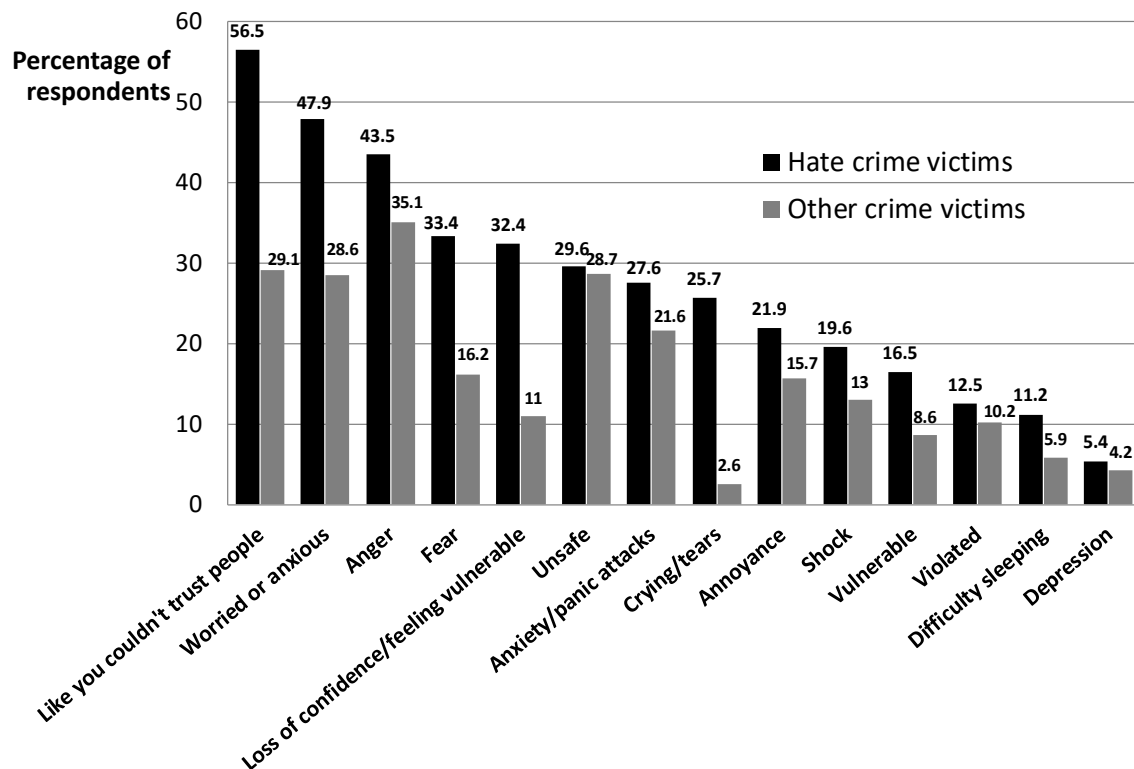
They were also just over twice as likely to report having significant problems at school or work following their experience of crime.* These questions about socio-emotional impact were drawn from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey which similarly shows that hate crime victims as a group are more likely to report such impact.³²

PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT

A series of questions put to respondents about the potential psychological impact of crime victimization were drawn from the Crime Survey for England and Wales. Not all respondents reported experiencing each of the impacts. However, it is very notable that on each of the measures used, hate crime victims as a group were more likely to report such post-victimization psychological impact than victims of other crimes (Figure 12).

³² See: Iganski, P. & Lagou, S. (2016) 'The psychological impact of hate crimes on victims: an exploratory analysis of data from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey', in Dunbar, E.W. (ed.) *The psychology of hate crimes as domestic terrorism*, Santa Barbara, CA: Praeger, page 287.

Figure 12: Psychological impact of hate crime victimization



The pattern of difference between hate crime victims and victims of other crimes in terms of the post-victimization psychological response is consistent with the evidence from the Crime Survey for England and Wales³³—even to the extent that anger, and loss of confidence are among the most common impacts reported by hate crime victims.³⁴ The pattern of difference is also consistent with the evidence from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey.³⁵

WORRY ABOUT POTENTIAL CRIME VICTIMIZATION

An examination of the association between actual crime victimization and worry about potential interpersonal crime victimization also reveals a clear pattern of difference between the survey respondents who were victims of hate crime and victims of other crimes (Table 6).

³³ See: Iganski, P. & Lagou, S. (2014) 'The personal injuries of "hate crime"', in Hall, N., Corb, A., Giannasi, P. and Grieve, J. (eds.) *The Routledge International Handbook on Hate Crime*, London: Routledge, pp. 41-43.

³⁴ The observed differences for anger, shock, depression, anxiety/panic attacks, difficult sleeping, annoyance, vulnerable, violated and unsafe would not be statistically significant if the data were generated from a probability sample. However, the consistency of the survey's findings with the evidence from the Crime Survey for England and Wales and the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey underlines their reliability and indicates that it is likely with a larger sample size all differences would be statistically significant.

³⁵ See: Iganski, P. & Lagou, S. (2016) 'The psychological impact of hate crimes on victims: an exploratory analysis of data from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey', in Dunbar, E.W. (ed.) *The psychology of hate crimes as domestic terrorism*, Santa Barbara, CA: Praeger, page 288.

TABLE 6: WORRY ABOUT POTENTIAL CRIME VICTIMIZATION		
	Hate crime Column %	Other crime Column %
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING MUGGED AND ROBBED?		
Very worried	23.1	22.4
Fairly worried	59.4	43.5
Not very worried	15.1	26.5
Not at all worried	2.3	7.6
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING PHYSICALLY ATTACKED BY STRANGERS?		
Very worried	33.7	18.0
Fairly worried	47.3	40.3
Not very worried	17.9	26.1
Not at all worried	1.1	15.6
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING SUBJECT TO A PHYSICAL ATTACK BECAUSE OF YOUR ETHNIC, RACIAL, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN OR RELIGION?		
Very worried	16.2	14.2
Fairly worried	44.8	38.6
Not very worried	27.5	31.4
Not at all worried	11.5	15.7
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING HARASSED, PESTERED OR BOTHERED IN PUBLIC PLACES OR AT SCHOOL, COLLEGE OR WORK, BECAUSE OF YOUR ETHNIC, RACIAL, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN OR RELIGION?		
Very worried	13.4	12.2
Fairly worried	46.1	29.2
Not very worried	26.8	34.8
Not at all worried	13.7	23.8
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING SEXUALLY ASSAULTED?		
Very worried	15.8	10.0
Fairly worried	42.3	18.1
Not very worried	17.4	23.6
Not at all worried	24.6	48.3
HOW WORRIED OR NOT WORRIED ARE YOU ABOUT BEING OFFENDED OR THREATENED ON SOCIAL MEDIA?		
Very worried	9.1	4.4
Fairly worried	38.3	16.1
Not very worried	20.2	26.9
Not at all worried	17.9	25.4
I never use social media	14.6	27.3
<i>Unweighted n</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>207</i>

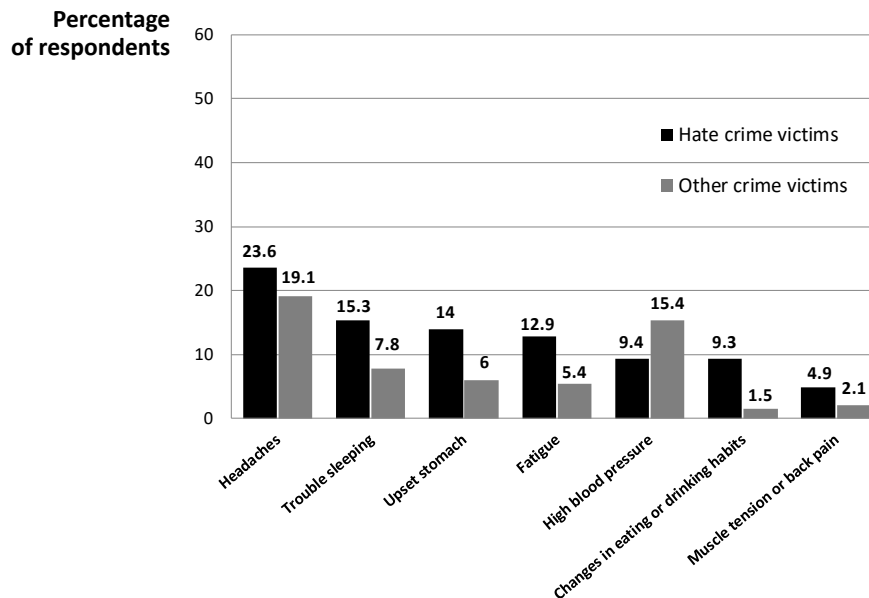
This association does not appear to have been examined in the international evidence to date concerning hate crime victimization. This hate crime survey therefore offers unique insights into the impact of hate crime.

Notably, for each of the measures used concerning worry about potential interpersonal crime victimization—worry about being mugged or robbed; worry about being physically attacked by strangers; worry about being physically attacked or harassed or pestered or bothered because of their ethnic, racial, national origin or religion; worry about being sexually assaulted; and worry about being offended or threatened on social media, hate crime victims in the survey were more likely than victims of other crime to state they were very worried and fairly worried.³⁶

PSYCHOSOMATIC SYMPTOMS

Survey respondents who reported that they had been a victim of hate crime were more likely as a group to report psychosomatic symptoms such as headaches, trouble sleeping, changes to eating and drinking habits, upset stomach, fatigue, and muscle tension (Figure 13).³⁷ The questions about psychosomatic reactions following crime victimization were drawn from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey which similarly shows that hate crime victims as a group are more likely to report psychosomatic symptoms.³⁸

Figure 13: Psychosomatic reaction following crime victimization



n: Hate crime victims = 90, Other crime victims = 207

³⁶ The observed difference in worry about physical attack because of ethnic, racial, national origin or religion, would not be statistically significant if the data were generated from a probability sample.

³⁷ Only the observed differences for changes in eating or drinking habits and upset stomach would be statistically significant if the data were generated from a probability sample. However, the consistency of the survey's findings with the survey evidence from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey underlines their reliability and indicates that it is likely with a larger sample size all observed differences would be statistically significant.

³⁸ See: Iganski, P. & Lagou, S. (2016) 'The psychological impact of hate crimes on victims: an exploratory analysis of data from the U.S. National Crime Victimization Survey', in Dunbar, E.W. (ed.) *The psychology of hate crimes as domestic terrorism*, Santa Barbara, California, page 289.

CRIME AVOIDANCE BEHAVIOUR

Perhaps understandably given the greater level of worry about potential interpersonal crime victimization reported by the crime victims in the survey, they were also more likely to state that they avoided certain places— such as shops, cafes, public transport, sport or cultural facilities and other public places—for fear of being treated badly because of their ethnic, racial, or national origin, their religion, or their political beliefs (Table 7).³⁹

TABLE 7: CRIME AVOIDANCE BEHAVIOUR		
	Hate crime column %	Other crime column %
DO YOU AVOID CERTAIN PLACES SUCH AS SHOPS, CAFES, PUBLIC TRANSPORT, SPORT OR CULTURAL FACILITIES OR ANY OTHER PUBLIC PLACES, FOR FEAR OF BEING TREATED BADLY BECAUSE OF YOUR ETHNIC, RACIAL, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN OR RELIGION?		
Yes	58.2	34.7
No	41.8	65.3
DO YOU AVOID CERTAIN PLACES SUCH AS SHOPS, CAFES, PUBLIC TRANSPORT, SPORT OR CULTURAL FACILITIES OR ANY OTHER PUBLIC PLACES, FOR FEAR OF BEING TREATED BADLY BECAUSE OF YOUR POLITICAL BELIEFS?		
Yes	44.2	32.3
No	55.8	67.7
<i>Unweighted n</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>207</i>

The pattern of difference between hate crime victims and victims of other crimes in terms of crime avoidance behaviour is consistent with the evidence from the Crime Survey for England and Wales.⁴⁰

POST-TRAUMATIC STRESS REACTIONS

Finally, for the most serious crimes they identified, respondents were presented with a series of seventeen post-traumatic stress reactions⁴¹ (Table 8) and asked to indicate whether in the past month each type of problem had bothered them because of the crime they experienced. The responses available for each reaction ranged on a scale from 'Not at all' to 'Five or more times a week/almost always'. When comparing the mean score (using a scale of 0 to 4) for each reaction for hate crime victims with victims of other crime, it is notable that for every reaction hate crime victims as a group scored more highly than victims of other crime as a group—indicating that hate crime victims were more likely to report having the reaction in the past month. If an overall mean of all the mean scores is calculated then it is also notable that the overall mean score for hate crime victims ($\bar{x} = 0.718$) was greater than the overall mean for victims of other crime ($\bar{x} = 0.506$).

Hate crime victims were more likely than victims of other crime to state that the most serious crime they experienced happened within four months before the survey. However, even when controlling for this by examining the reported post-traumatic stress reactions for those respondents

³⁹ The observed difference concerning avoidance behaviour because of political beliefs would be just below statistical significance if the data were generated from a probability sample.

⁴⁰ Iganski & Lagou (2014) Op. cit. pp. 43-44.

⁴¹ Adapted from: Foa, E., Cashman, L., Jaycox, L., & Perry, K. (1997) 'The validation of a self-report measure of PTSD: The Posttraumatic Diagnostic Scale', *Psychological Assessment*, 9, 445-451.

who experienced the most serious crime in the four months before the survey, hate crime victims as a group scored more highly on a mean score compared with victims of other crime (hate crime victims \bar{x} = 0.987; other crime victims \bar{x} = 0.588).

TABLE 8: POST-TRAUMATIC STRESS REACTIONS		
	Hate crime \bar{x}	Other crime \bar{x}
Having upsetting thoughts or images about the traumatic event that came into your head when you did not want them to	1.1319	0.7282
Feeling emotionally upset when you were reminded of the traumatic event	0.9778	0.8633
Being overly alert	0.9101	0.5080
Feeling irritable or having fits of anger	0.8938	0.7023
Being jumpy or easily startled	0.8904	0.5282
Trying not to think about, talk about, or have feelings about the traumatic event	0.7880	0.6375
Feeling distant or cut off from people around you	0.7041	0.3609
Feeling emotionally numb	0.6601	0.2943
Reliving the traumatic event, acting or feeling as if it was happening again	0.6379	0.5421
Experiencing physical reactions when you were reminded of the traumatic event	0.6312	0.5866
Having much less interest or participating much less often in important activities	0.6292	0.3583
Trying to avoid activities, people, or places that remind you of the traumatic event	0.6234	0.5752
Having bad dreams or nightmares about the traumatic event	0.5780	0.5125
Having trouble concentrating	0.5685	0.2961
Having trouble falling or staying asleep	0.5663	0.3496
Feeling as if your future plans or hopes will not come true	0.5211	0.3160
Not being able to remember an important part of the traumatic event	0.4940	0.4466
<i>Unweighted n</i>	<i>90</i>	<i>207</i>

9. CONCLUSIONS

The survey results presented in this report provide a more comprehensive account of hate crime victimization and its impact than had been available to date from the small numbers of hate crimes previously indicated by administrative data and NGO data for North Macedonia.

From a sample of 1510 respondents, and using a conservative and reliable count of crime victimization, the survey found 165 respondents who were victims of hate crime in the 12 months before the survey. This number is significant when it is considered that the 165 persons who experienced hate crime were part of just a small fraction of North Macedonia's population who were selected for the survey. This finding suggests that the actual extent of hate crime in North Macedonia is likely to be considerable. Some victims experience more than one crime in any given time period. Between them, the victims of hate crime in the survey experienced 222 hate crimes. While this figure is based on a sample of respondents, it is not an estimate. It represents the actual experience of persons who participated in the survey and the number of hate crimes far exceeds the number captured in administrative data and NGO data for North Macedonia.

The survey also provided an insight into the underreporting of crime and hate crime. Six out of ten hate crimes were not reported to the police, and half of other crimes captured by the survey were also not reported. The reasons victims gave for not reporting the crimes they experienced were common reasons provided in crime victimization surveys internationally. For those victims who did report crimes to the police, hate crime victims were less likely to say that they were treated fairly by the police and treated with respect. However, they expressed a slightly higher level of satisfaction with the police compared with victims of other crimes.

Important understanding and further innovations are provided by the results on the impact of hate crime victimization. For reliability of measurement and also for comparative purposes this hate crime survey adopted measures of crime victimization impact used in a variety of surveys internationally. In combination, the measures constituted the most extensive examination to date on the impact of hate crime. The results confirm a pattern that had already been in evidence from surveys internationally: hate crime victims are more likely as a group to report post-victimization socio-emotional, psychological, psychosomatic and behavioural impacts compared with other crime victims as a group. These evident patterns in the results from this hate crime survey also confirm the robustness of the survey. In going further than the international evidence to date, this hate crime survey also shows that hate crime victims are more likely than victims of other crime to express worry about potential crime victimization. They are also more likely to report symptoms of post-traumatic stress. All of these findings about the impact of hate crime victimization have important implications for the need to develop effective measures that respond to and combat hate crime, and the need for targeted policy and strategy by national and local authorities, and civil society organizations.

APPENDIX 1

Municipalities included in the survey by ethnic group composition according to the 2002 census

(Row percentages)

	<i>Total (N)</i>	<i>Albanian</i>	<i>Bosniak</i>	<i>Macedonian</i>	<i>Roma</i>	<i>Serb</i>	<i>Turk</i>	<i>Vlach</i>	<i>Other</i>
Brvenica	15,855	61.6	0.0	37.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.3
Butel	36,154	25.2	2.7	62.3	1.6	2.9	3.6	0.3	1.5
Chair	64,773	57.0	4.6	24.1	4.8	1.0	6.9	0.1	1.5
Chashka	7,673	35.2	0.9	57.3	0.0	0.7	5.1	0.0	0.8
Chucher - Sandevo	8,493	22.9	0.0	47.3	0.3	28.6	0.0	0.2	0.8
Dolneni	13,568	26.7	17.5	35.9	0.1	0.1	19.1	0.0	0.6
Gazi Baba	72,617	17.2	1.0	73.7	2.9	2.9	0.8	0.3	1.2
Jegunovce	10,790	43.0	0.0	55.3	0.4	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
Kichevo	30,138	30.5	0.0	53.6	5.4	0.3	8.1	0.3	1.9
Krushevo	9,684	21.3	1.4	62.8	0.0	0.4	3.3	10.5	0.3
Kumanovo	105,484	25.9	0.0	60.4	4.0	8.6	0.3	0.1	0.6
Mavrovo and Rostusha	8,618	17.2	0.4	50.5	0.1	0.1	31.1	0.0	0.7
Petrovec	8,255	22.9	17.5	51.4	1.6	5.0	0.9	0.0	0.7
Resen	16,825	9.1	0.0	76.1	1.1	0.4	10.7	0.2	2.4
Sopishte	5,656	34.3	0.0	60.2	0.0	0.6	4.3	0.1	0.5
Struga	63,376	56.8	0.2	32.1	0.2	0.2	5.7	1.0	3.8
Tetovo	86,580	70.3	0.2	23.2	2.7	0.7	2.2	0.0	0.7
Zelenikovo	4,077	29.6	4.7	61.9	2.3	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.5

APPENDIX 2

Sample size for each selected municipality by ethnic group composition

	Albanian	Bosniak	Macedonian	Moslem	Roma	Serb	Turk	Vlach	Macedonian Muslim	Other	Prefer not to say	Total
Brvenica	23	4	56	1	2	4	2	2	1	0	0	95
Butel	26	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42
Chair	96	8	42	0	7	2	12	2	0	2	0	171
Chashka	7	0	12	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	20
Chucher - Sandevo	5	1	9	0	1	6	0	0	0	0	0	22
Dolneni	9	7	12	1	0	0	6	0	1	0	0	36
Gazi Baba	35	2	140	0	6	6	1	2	0	1	1	194
Jegunovce	12	0	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	28
Kichevo	25	0	45	3	4	0	6	0	0	0	0	83
Krushevo	2	0	9	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	0	26
Kumanovo	71	0	169	0	11	24	1	1	0	1	0	278
Mavrovo and Rostusha	4	0	5	2	0	0	8	0	4	0	0	23
Petrovec	6	6	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	22
Resen	4	0	31	0	0	0	7	1	0	0	1	44
Sopishte	5	0	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15
Struga	93	0	51	2	0	1	9	8	2	0	1	167
Tetovo	167	1	52	0	6	1	5	0	0	0	1	233
Zelenikovo	2	0	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
Total	592	29	693	9	37	44	58	31	8	4	5	1510

