Research on the availability and accessibility of data on hate crime in Lincolnshire

Final report

Introduction

At the heart of this research project lay the following question:

> If a citizen or a community organisation wanted to know what the state of hate crime was in their area, to what extent would they be able to get clear, accurate information, from the data that is available to them?

JUST Lincolnshire are looking to develop a more complete understanding of the landscape surrounding data on hate crime in the county. While some information is available as open data, it is suspected that most information on hate crime is not being reported or shared among relevant stakeholders. As such, JUST Lincolnshire is seeking to get a better understanding of the data available, and start a dialogue with stakeholders about what it would take to achieve more cohesion and collaboration.

The research was facilitated by the Lincolnshire Open Research and Innovation Centre (LORIC) at Bishop Grosseteste University, and was supported by Research England's Policy Support Fund.

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Terminology

Hate Crime: "Any criminal offence which is perceived by the victim or any other person, to be motivated by hostility or prejudice, based on a person's disability or perceived disability; race or perceived race; or religion or perceived religion; or sexual orientation or perceived sexual orientation or transgender identity or perceived transgender identity."[1]

Protected Characteristics: In the UK, it is illegal to discriminate against someone based on their protected characteristics. Those are age; gender reassignment; being married or in a civil partnership; being pregnant or on maternity leave; disability; race including colour, nationality, ethnic or national origin; religion or belief; sex; and sexual orientation.[2]

Monitored strands of hate crime: Protected characteristics that are monitored centrally as strands of hate crime. In England and Wales, those strands are race or ethnicity; religion or beliefs; sexual orientation; disability; and transgender identity.

Microagression: "A comment or action that subtly and often unconsciously or unintentionally expresses a prejudiced attitude toward a member of a marginalized group (such as a racial minority)" (Merriam-Webster)[3]

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[1] https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/hate-crime-england-and-wales-2020-to-2021
[2] https://www.gov.uk/discrimination-your-rights
[3] https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/microaggression

Methodology

The research was done in two stages: a secondary/open data desktop research stage, and a round table discussion with 14 different stakeholders on the 6/7/22.

The desktop research aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What data is available that can help us better understand hate crime in Lincolnshire?
2. What might the applications of this data be?
3. To what extent is that data readily available?

During the round table, participants were then invited to reflect, over the course of the day, on the following themes:

1. Current and past challenges in reporting on hate crime in Lincolnshire.
2. Data for reporting on hate crime: what is being done already to collect data on hate crime, and what is needed to improve it?
3. Towards a joined-up approach to hate crime reporting: What can organisations do to improve hate crime reporting?
4. Towards a joined-up approach to hate crime reporting: What can organisations do to increase collaboration on hate crime reporting?

The round table employed techniques from participatory action research, which is a methodology that encourages the collaboration between researchers and stakeholders in exploring social issues. In this case, participants not only contributed their feedback to the project, they actively reflected on the data as it was presented and added context and further interpreted it. Over the course of the day, facilitators from LORIC frequently remarked on the emerging themes, made notes, and encouraged participants to reflect on where the different contributions lay between themes. Interpretations of open data were also actively challenged by participants, prompting a more in-depth examination and analysis over the course of the day.

All contributions on the day were voluntary and anonymous. Participants who gave their consent for their organisational affiliation to be shared will be listed in the final report of this project.

Open data relating to hate crime in England and Wales

The most comprehensive dataset available on hate crime is the government's statistical release on Hate Crime in England and Wales, which reports on instances of hate crime relating to monitored hate crime strands since 2011. There was an exception for 2019/2020, when Greater Manchester Police Force were not able to supply the data.

Some caveats to go with that release:

- It only covers the monitored strands of hate crime. Hate crimes that were not identified as having been motivated by prejudice against the five monitored characteristic are not recorded.
- Data for religious hate crimes was only recorded when targeted religion was recorded by the police.
- In some offences more than one religion has been recorded as being targeted.
- Outcomes data change as the cases go through court.
- The dataset includes crimes that "involve: racially or religiously aggravated assault with injury, racially or religiously aggravated assault without injury, racially or religiously aggravated criminal damage, racially or religiously aggravated public fear, alarm or distress and racially or religiously aggravated harassment." The other notifiable offences included "crimes such as theft, burglary and sexual offences for example."

As seen by the statistical release, all instances of reported hate crime rose in volume over time across all monitored strands. While total number of offenses was 42,255 in 2012/2013, that number had almost trebled in 2020/2021. It is worth noting, however, that the release only reflects instances of hate crime which were both reported to the police and recorded as having been motivated by hostility or prejudice against one of the monitored characteristics. In other words, increase in reporting could be due to an increase in confidence on the part of victims, on a change in recording on the part of police, or both.
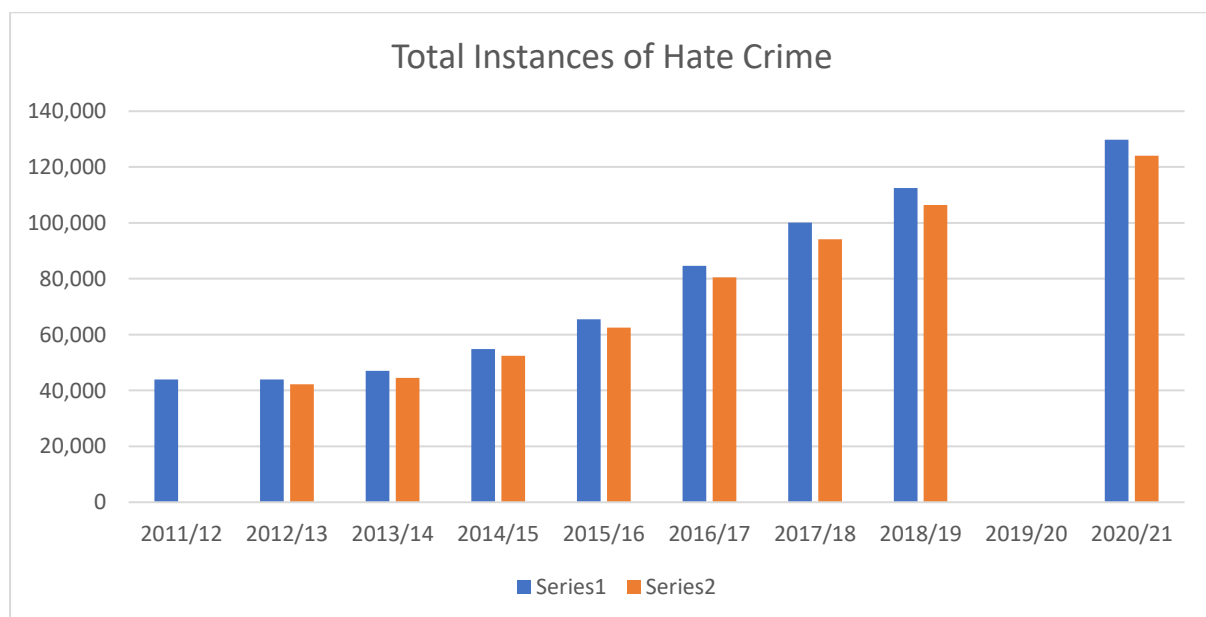
Series 1 represents number of motivations

Series 2 represents number of offenses.

The most recorded strand of hate crimes is the one relating to race or ethnicity. Hate crimes where race or ethnicity was recorded as one of the motivating factors represented between 70% and 82% of all motivations, and between 74% and 85% of all offences. While the overall percentage of hate crimes that were perceived as being motivated by hostility or prejudice towards a race or ethnicity appears to reduce over time, their overall volume has increased significantly, with 92,052 offences being recorded in 2020/2021.
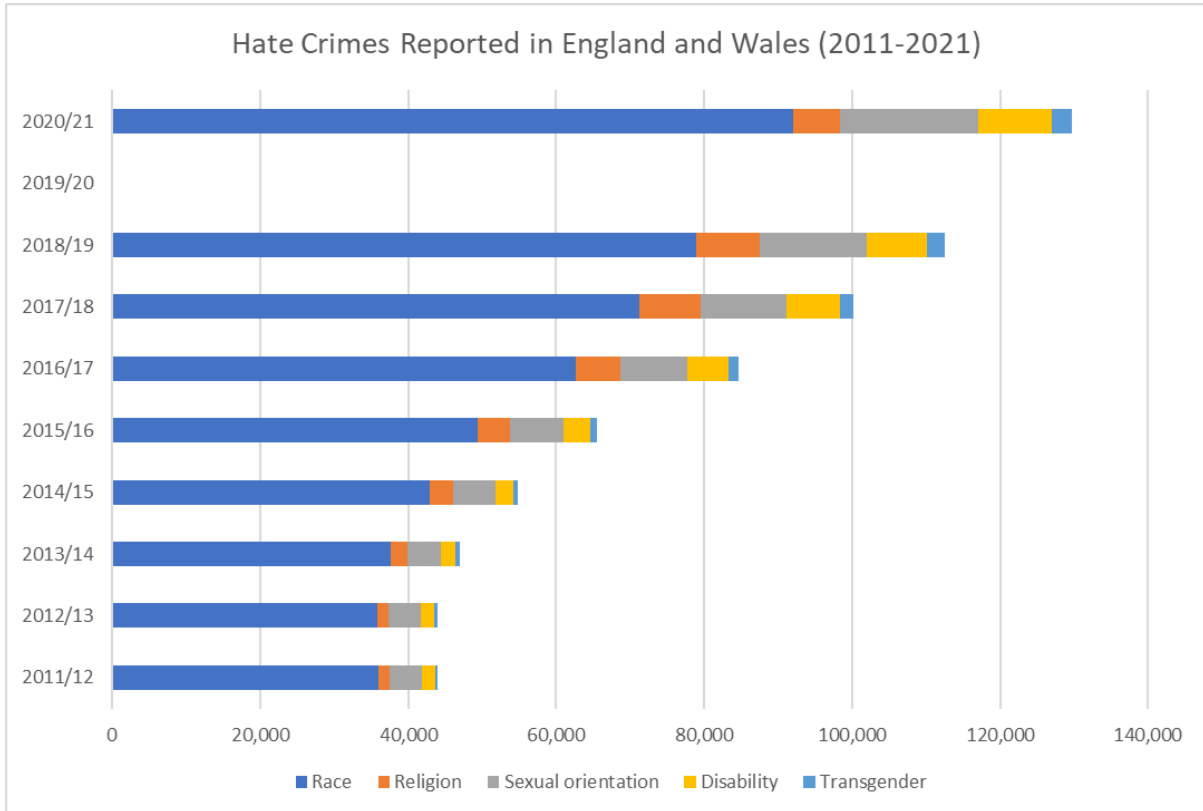
The next most common strand of hate crime was that which was perceived as being motivated by hostility or prejudice towards sexual orientation. While only 10% of all recorded hate crimes in 2011/2012 were related to hostility or prejudice towards sexual orientation, that percentage rose to 14% of motivations, and 15% of offences in 2020/2021.

Hate crimes that were perceived as being motivated by disability, religion, and transgender identity followed similar patterns, rising both in volume and in percentage of motivations and offenses over time.

Looking at appendix tables, the data for Lincolnshire looks like this for 2020/2021:

	Race	Total Religion	Sexual orientation	Disability	Transgender	Total number of motivating factors	Total number of offences
Lincolnshire	459	18	123	61	28	689	664
% of motivating factors	67%	3%	18%	9%	4%		
% of offences	69%	3%	19%	9%	4%		

There was no historical data available for Lincolnshire, but that breakdown shows that the distribution of hate crimes recorded follows the same trends as the rest of England and Wales, with racially motivated hate crimes being the most recorded/reported ones. Perhaps what is most interesting
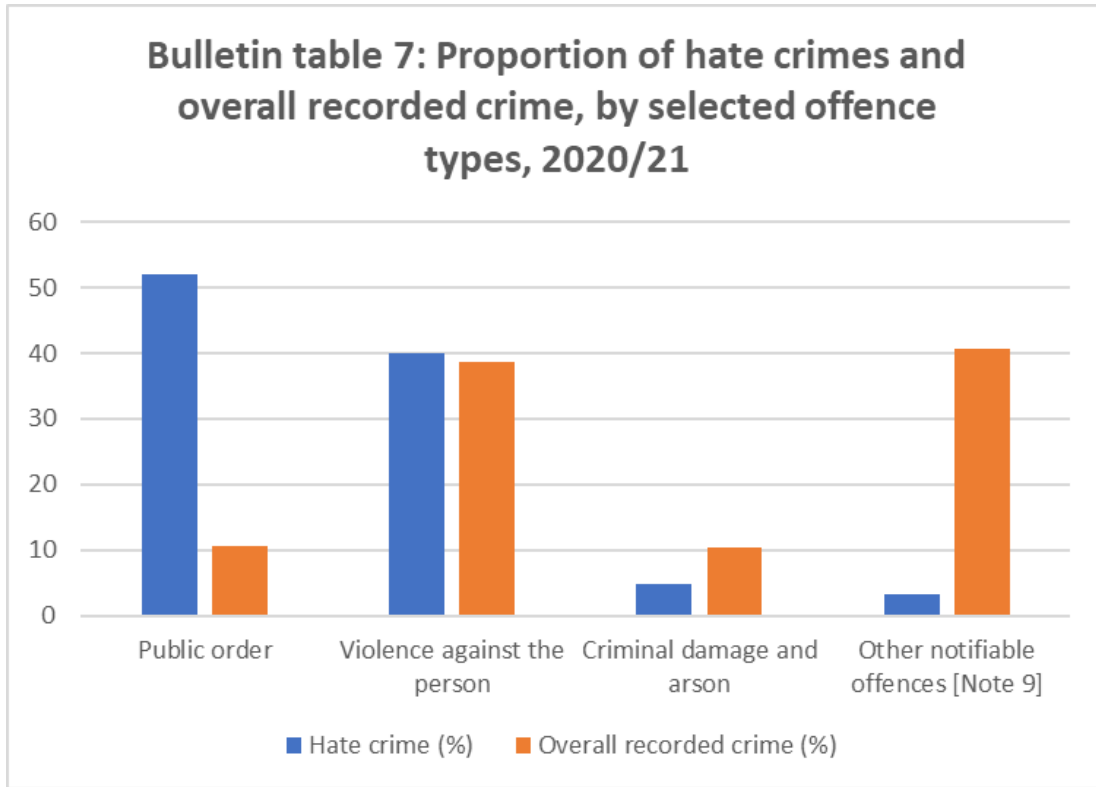
about the Lincolnshire data is the percentage of racially motivated hate crimes given the demographic makeup of the county (97% of the population identified as White at the last annual population survey[4]).

Not all hate crimes fell into the same category. As noted in the initial statistical release, hate crimes comprise a wide range of offenses, from violence against the person to theft and burglary. What this means is that sometimes hate crimes can go under-reported because of how the data is recorded, or even because it is not possible to assign any motivation to the offenders. Over 50% of recorded hate crimes in 2020/2021 were "public order" offences, followed by "violence against the person". By comparison, only 11% of overall recorded crime were public order offences.
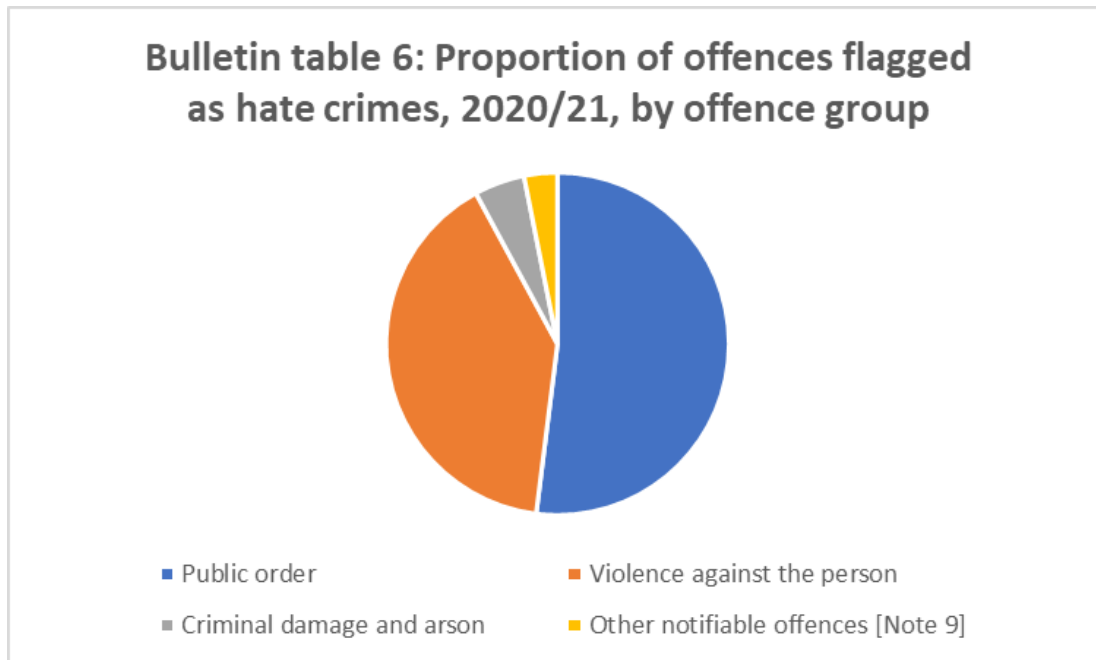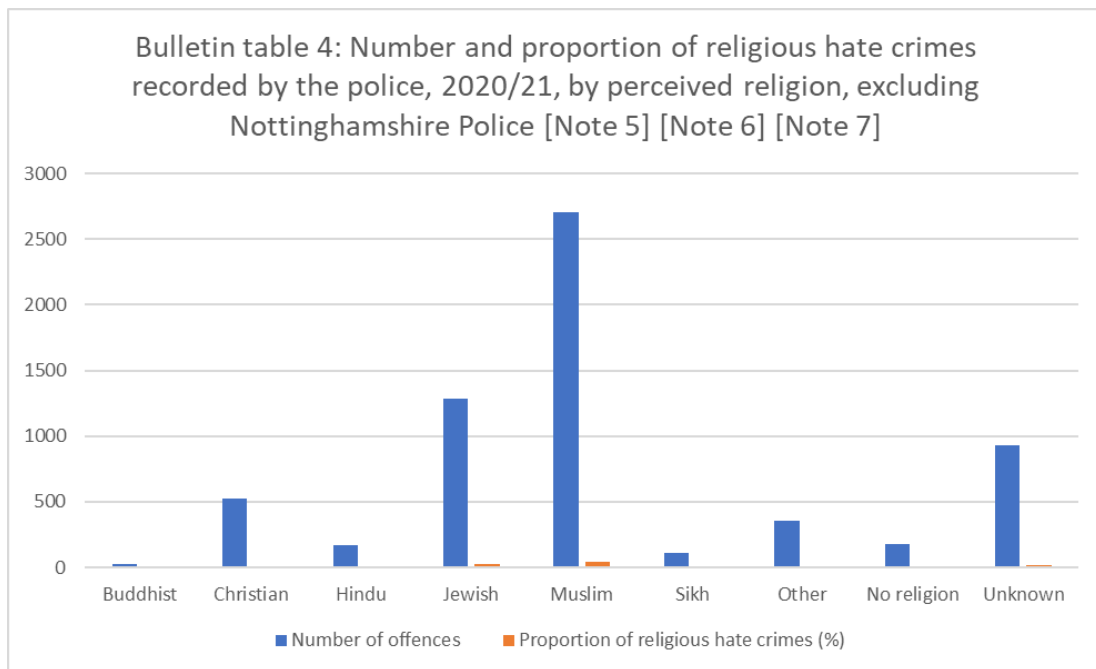

In other words, offenses tend to be recorded as hate crimes when they can unambiguously be classified as such.

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Bulletin table 7: Proportion of hate crimes and overall recorded crime, by selected offence types, 2020/21

On a similar vein, most of the hate crimes recorded as being motivated by hatred or prejudice against a particular religion seemed to be against Muslim or Jewish people.

Bulletin table 4: Number and proportion of religious hate crimes recorded by the police, 2020/21, by perceived religion, excluding Nottinghamshire Police [Note 5] [Note 6] [Note 7]

That is not to say that all hate crime statistics are not a reflection of reality. According to the ONS, the majority of people aged 16 years and over who said they are victims of crime are Black, Asian, or Mixed

race. Indeed, mixed-race males were more likely than any other group to be victims of crime in the period reported.[5]

Recorded offences also do not reflect the rate to which such offences are charged or even summonsed. According to the government release on hate crime, only 9% of racially or religiously aggravated assaults (with or without injury and harassment) were charged or summonsed (see bulletin table 9). Offenses flagged as hate crimes were more likely to be charged or summonsed if they were public order offenses, but not by a significant margin (see bulletin table 10). Finally, crimes relating to race, religion, or sexual orientation were more likely to result in a charge or a summons than those related to disability or transgender identity (see bulletin table 11). However, the median number of days taken to assign an outcome was considerably bigger for hate crime flagged offenses than non-hate crime ones. (6 times more for criminal damage and arson, three times more for public order offences, and twice as more for violence against the person.)

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[5]https://www.ethnicity-facts-figures.service.gov.uk/crime-justice-and-the-law/crime-and-reoffending/victims-of-crime/latest

Bulletin table 9: Percentage of racially or religiously aggravated offences and their non-aggravated equivalents recorded in 2020/21 resulting in charge/summons, by offence type

Crime Type	Offence Type	Charged/ summonsed (%)
Racially or religiously aggravated offences	Public fear, alarm or distress offences	13
Racially or religiously aggravated offences	Assault with/without injury and harassment	9
Racially or religiously aggravated offences	Criminal damage and arson	7
Non-aggravated equivalent offences	Public fear, alarm or distress offences	6
Non-aggravated equivalent offences	Assault with/without injury and harassment	5
Non-aggravated equivalent offences	Criminal damage and arson	5

Bulletin table 10: Percentage of hate crimes and non-hate crimes dealt with by a charge/summons, by selected offences, recorded in 2020/21, 26 forces [Note 10] [Note 11]

Crime Type	Offence Type	Charged/ summonsed (%)
Hate crime flagged	Criminal damage and arson	7
Hate crime flagged	Public order offences	12
Hate crime flagged	Violence against the person	8
Non-hate crime flagged	Criminal damage and arson	5
Non-hate crime flagged	Public order offences	8
Non-hate crime flagged	Violence against the person	7

Bulletin table 11: Percentage of selected offences resulting in charge/summons, by monitored strand, offences recorded in 2020/21, 26 forces [Note 10] [Note 11]

Offence Type	Race	Total Religion	Sexual orientation	Disability	Transgender	Non-hate crimes
Criminal damage and arson	7%	8%	7%	1%	4%	6%
Public order offences	12%	10%	15%	3%	4%	8%
Violence against the person	9%	5%	7%	2%	3%	7%

Other sources relating to hate crime can be found in related datasets, such as the "Experience of anti-social behaviour and breaches of coronavirus (COVID-19) restrictions, Telephone-operated Crime Survey for England and Wales (TCSEW)" [6] In addition to providing further data on hate crimes experienced by people who fit into monitored strands, it gives some indication to other strands of hate crime that may be experienced but not recorded/monitored.

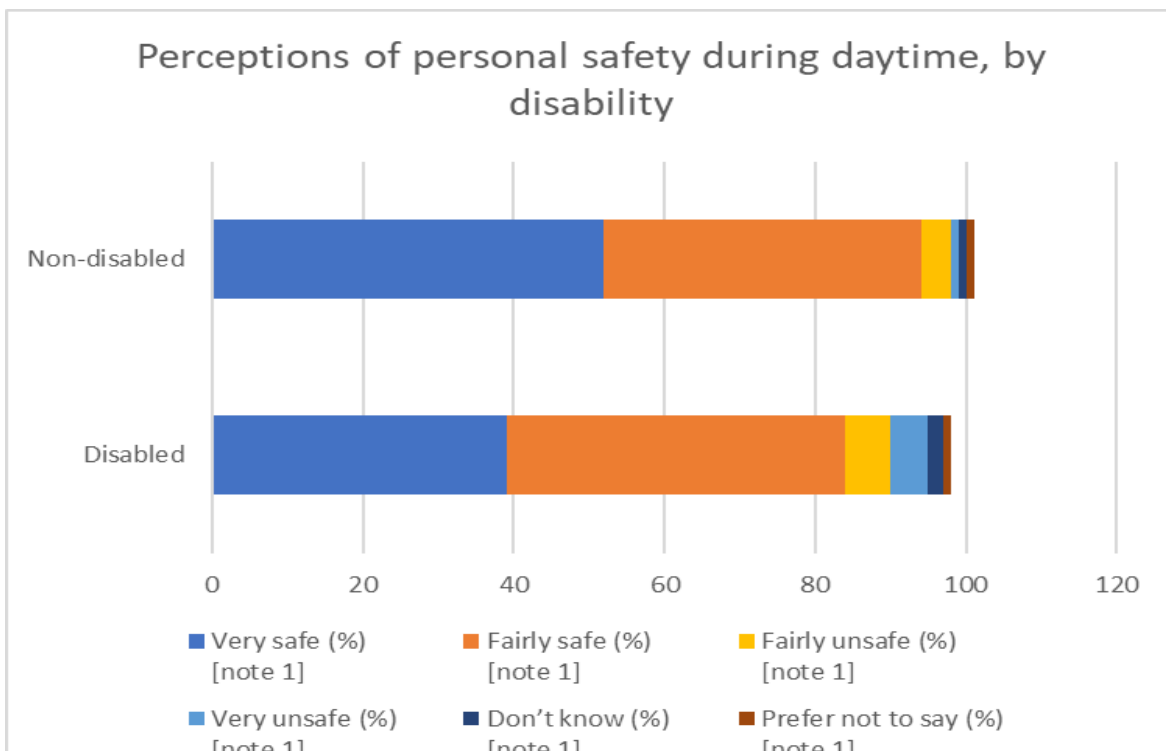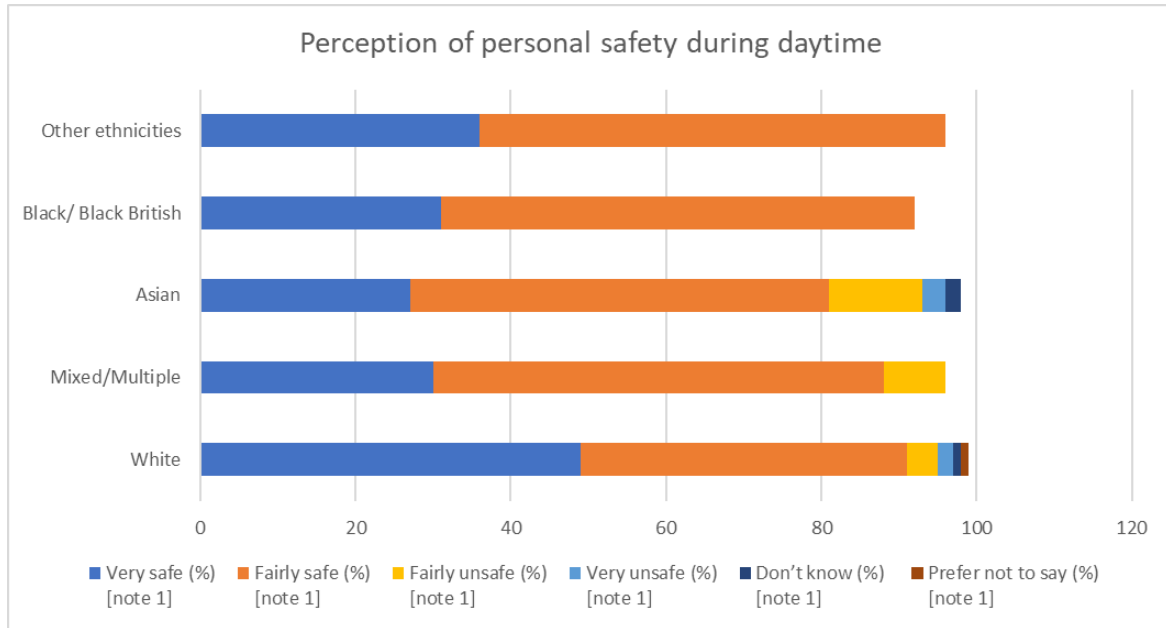| Harassment experienced	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total (%)
Respondent has been insulted, called names, threatened or shouted at in public spaces.	7%	7%	7%
Unweighted based - number of interviews	4,594	5,269	9,863
Perceived main reason(s) for harassment experienced	**Male (%)**	**Female (%)**	**Total (%)**
Race or ethnicity	7%	7%	7%
Gender	[c]	13%	7%
Gender identity (e.g. transgender)	0	[c]	[c]
Age	[c]	4%	3%
Religion or religious beliefs	[c]	[c]	[c]
Physical appearance	3%	7%	5%
Disability	3%	[c]	[c]
Sexual orientation	[c]	[c]	[c]
Education, income level or job	9%	7%	8%
Attitude/Prejudice of other people	5%	9%	7%

While the sample size of that survey is not sufficiently large to be statistically significant, it is nevertheless a useful indicator for what other kinds of hate crime citizens might be experiencing.

On a similar note, the Opinions and Lifestyle Survey's section on Perceptions of Personal Safety and Experiences of Harassment in Great Britain[7] is useful to understand how different people feel about their own communities. Some of the findings from that survey can be extremely helpful in better understanding how people who might be targeted by hate crimes or who may have been a victim of hate crime in the past may behave, the level of trust they have with their own communities, and how they feel about accessing services and support throughout their community.
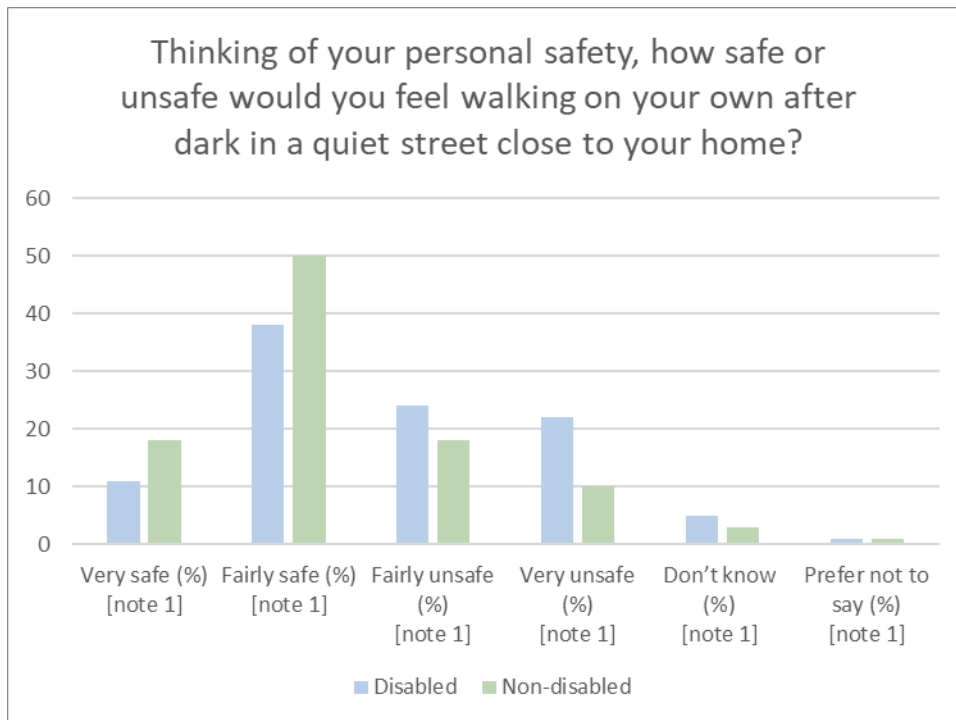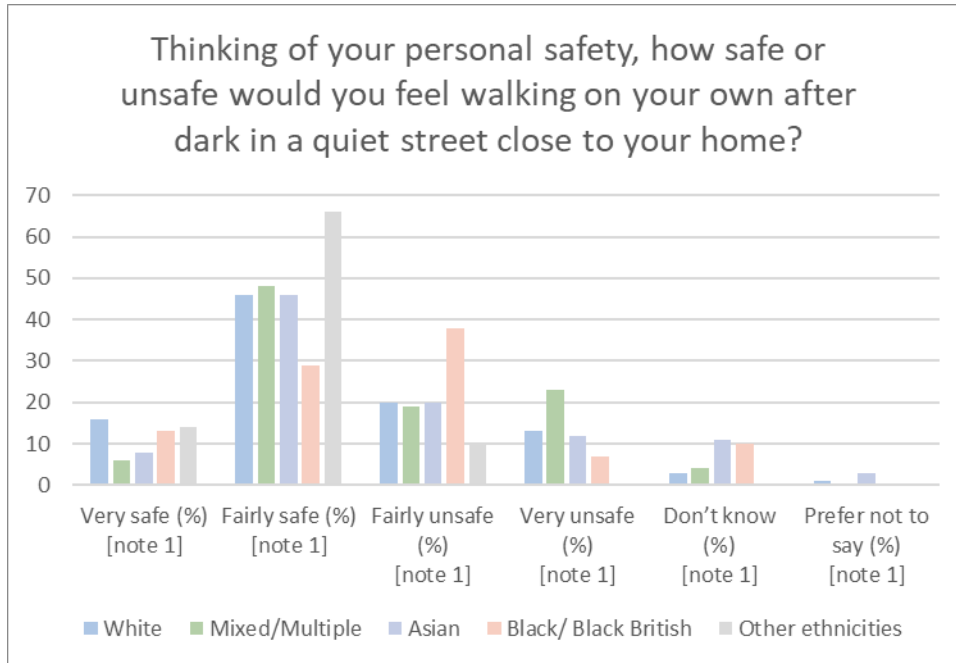
For example, most respondents to that survey felt fairly safe during the daytime across all groups, but there was a pronounced difference in the degrees to which different ethnic groups and disabled people felt. Respondents who identified as white were far more likely to feel very safe during the daytime compared to any other group; respondents who did not report having a disability were also more likely to report feeling safer during the daytime on quiet streets near their home, compared to those who did report a disability.

[6] https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/datasets/crimeinenglandandwalescoronavirusandcrimetables
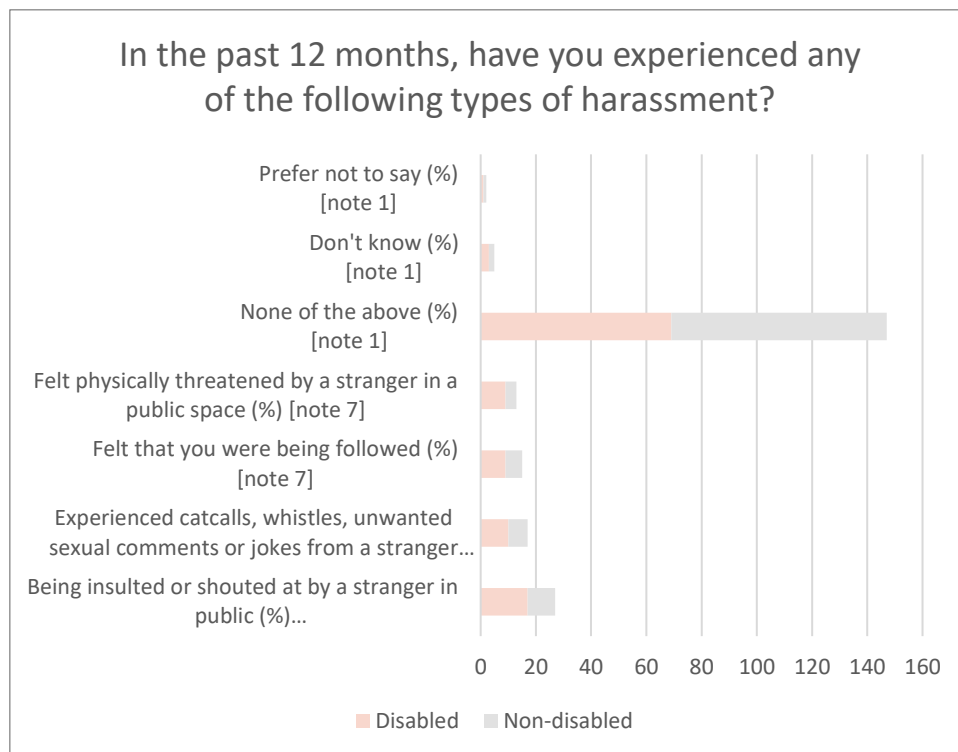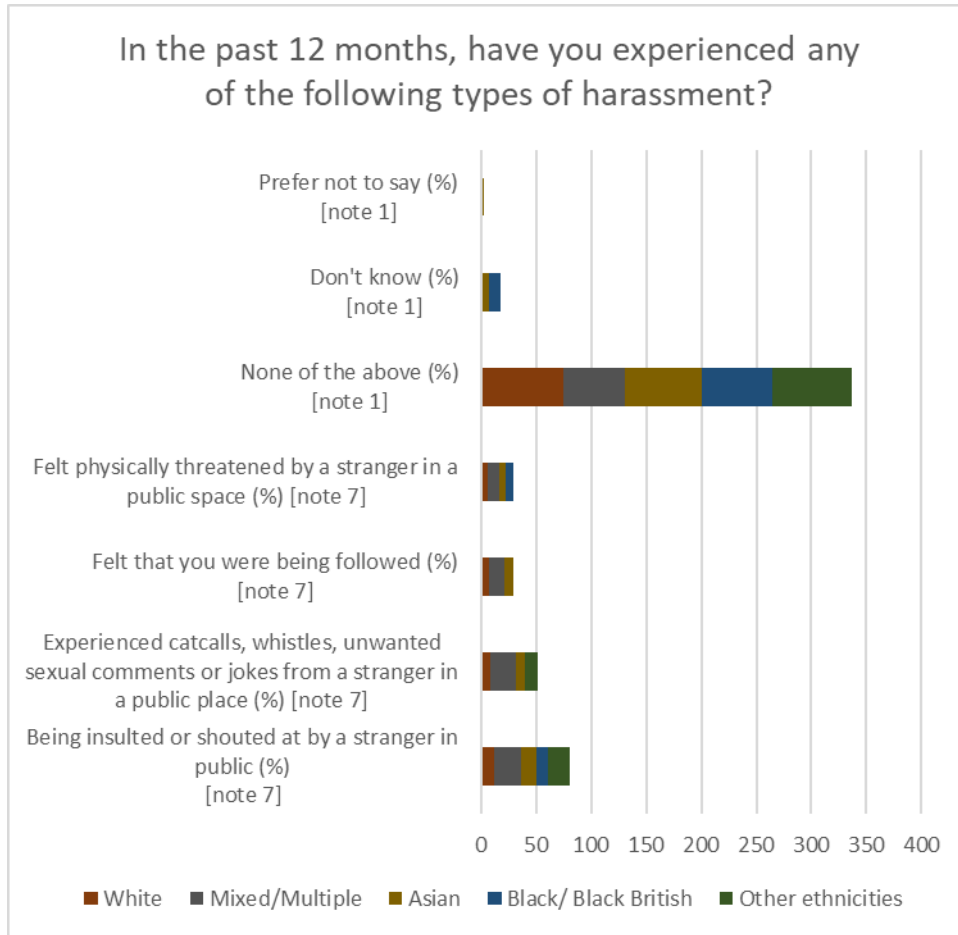[7] https://www.ons.gov.uk/peoplepopulationandcommunity/crimeandjustice/datasets/perceptionsofpersonalsafetyandexperiencesofharassmentgreatbritain

Perception of personal safety during daytime

Perceptions of personal safety during daytime, by disability

The survey also shows the impacts that feelings of safety and lack thereof can have on people's mobility, their willingness to engage with their communities, and their engagement in professional and social events. Women, ethnic minorities, and disabled people were more likely to stop going to places where people are likely to feel unsafe; disabled people were also more likely to not leave home alone if they felt unsafe. Feelings of lack of safety also increased significantly during night-time, especially for Black respondents, and disabled respondents.

Thinking of your personal safety, how safe or unsafe would you feel walking on your own after dark in a quiet street close to your home?

Legend: White, Mixed/Multiple, Asian, Black/ Black British, Other ethnicities

Thinking of your personal safety, how safe or unsafe would you feel walking on your own after dark in a quiet street close to your home?

Legend: Disabled, Non-disabled

Finally, while most survey respondents did not report experiencing harassment in the past 12 months, based on the feedback, respondents who identified as being Black, Asian, or Mixed race, as well as disabled respondents, were more likely to feel physically threatened, experience catcalls, whistles and unwanted sexual advances, or be insulted or shouted at by a stranger in public.

In the past 12 months, have you experienced any of the following types of harassment?

Prefer not to say (%) [note 1]

Don't know (%) [note 1]

None of the above (%) [note 1]

Felt physically threatened by a stranger in a public space (%) [note 7]

Felt that you were being followed (%) [note 7]

Experienced catcalls, whistles, unwanted sexual comments or jokes from a stranger in a public place (%) [note 7]

Being insulted or shouted at by a stranger in public (%) [note 7]

0   50   100   150   200   250   300   350   400

■ White   ■ Mixed/Multiple   ■ Asian   ■ Black/ Black British   ■ Other ethnicities

In the past 12 months, have you experienced any of the following types of harassment?

Prefer not to say (%) [note 1]

Don't know (%) [note 1]

None of the above (%) [note 1]

Felt physically threatened by a stranger in a public space (%) [note 7]

Felt that you were being followed (%) [note 7]

Experienced catcalls, whistles, unwanted sexual comments or jokes from a stranger…

Being insulted or shouted at by a stranger in public (%)…

0   20   40   60   80   100   120   140   160

■ Disabled   ■ Non-disabled

It is worth noting that while not all of those instances of harassment will be recorded as hate crimes, they nonetheless have an impact on the quality of life and perception of safety of victims.

Open data relating to hate crime outside of England and Wales

This report has focused on open data relating to hate crime in England and Wales, as it pertains the most to Lincolnshire. However, it is worth looking at some of the information available for Scotland, Northern Ireland, as well as open data relating to non-UK countries. This is to establish both a baseline and to identify any good practices that may be considered for reporting on hate crime data in the future.

Open data relating to hate crime Scotland

The Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Service of Scotland's most recent report on hate crimes in Scotland is for 2020-2021[8] and was published in October 2021. The report shows an overall increase of charges containing at least one element of hate crime, a 4% increase since 2019-2020.

As with England and Wales, racial crime remained the most reported kind, with an increase since 2019. However, the report notes that it the numbers of racial hate crime reported are nowhere near the peak, which was in 2011-2012.

Sexual orientation aggravated hate crime was the second most reported one and it also experienced an increase in reporting. Sexual orientation aggravated hate crime, religious aggravated hate crime, and disability aggravated hate crime all increased by 14% in 2020-2021.

There were 46 charges reported in 2020-2021 where transgender identity was reported as the aggravating factor. This was down from 47 in 2019-2020.
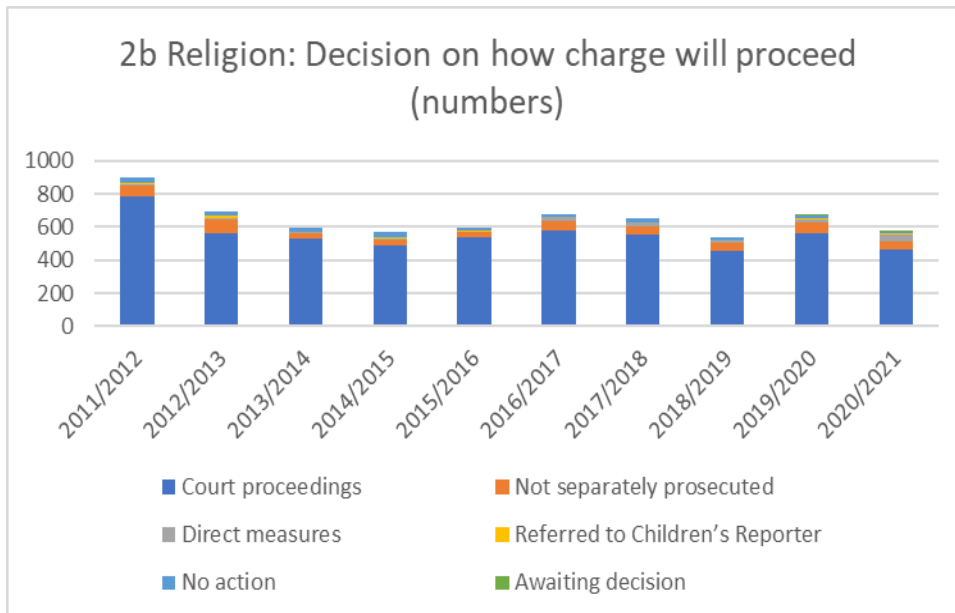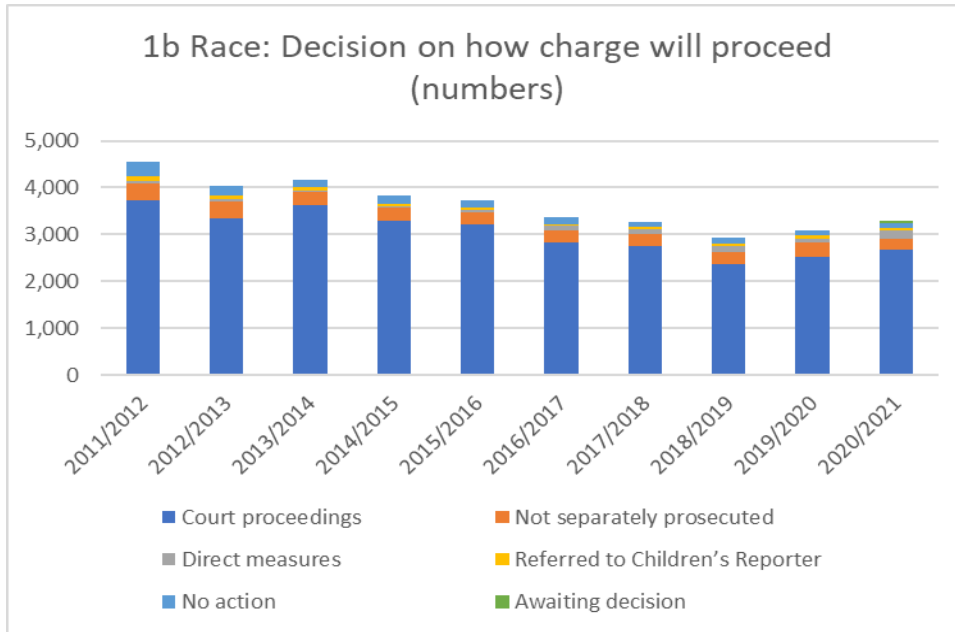
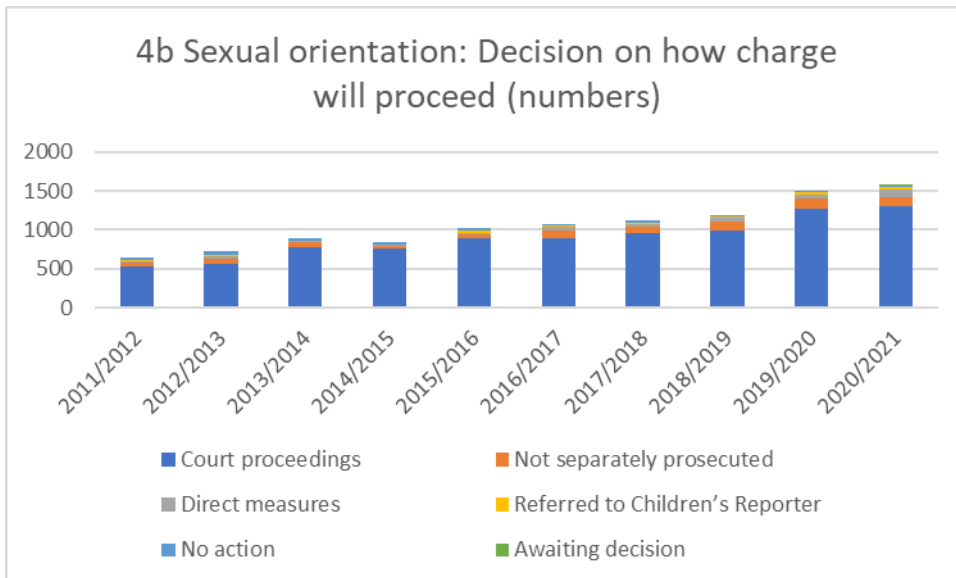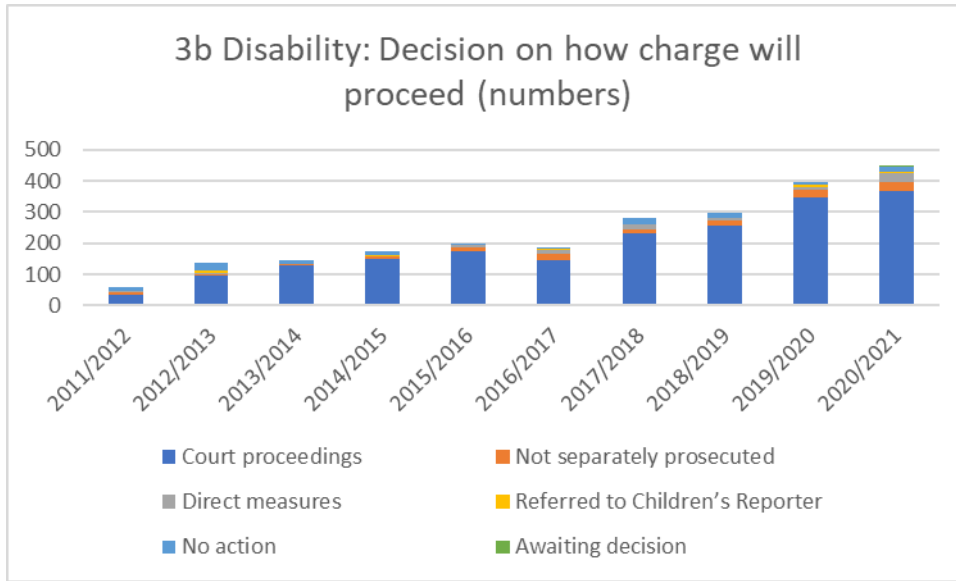Court proceedings for charges that happened in 2020-2021 broke down thusly:

- Race Crime: court proceedings commenced in respect of 81% of charges (89% if including those not separately prosecuted)
- Religious Crime: court proceedings commenced in respect of 81% of charges (89% if including those not separately prosecuted)
- Disability: court proceedings commenced in respect of 82% of charges (88% if including those not separately prosecuted)
- Sexual orientation: court proceedings were commenced in respect of 82% of charges (90% if including those not separately prosecuted)
- Transgender identity: court proceedings were commenced in respect of 32 of the 46 charges
- In all cases, no action was taken between 1% and 3% of charges.

The release also specified that 78% of accused persons were male. 7% of the accused were under the age of 18, 7% were between the ages of 18-20, 33% were aged over 40.

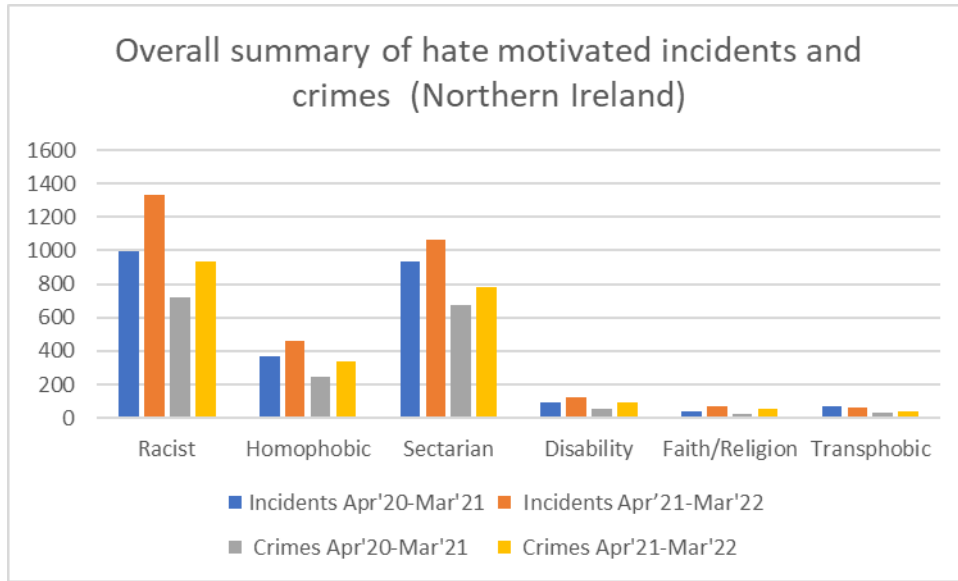[8] https://www.copfs.gov.uk/about-copfs/reports-and-statistics/hate-crime-in-scotland-2020-2021/

1b Race: Decision on how charge will proceed (numbers)

Legend: Court proceedings, Not separately prosecuted, Direct measures, Referred to Children's Reporter, No action, Awaiting decision

2b Religion: Decision on how charge will proceed (numbers)

Legend: Court proceedings, Not separately prosecuted, Direct measures, Referred to Children's Reporter, No action, Awaiting decision

3b Disability: Decision on how charge will proceed (numbers)

4b Sexual orientation: Decision on how charge will proceed (numbers)

## Open data relating to hate crime in Northern Ireland

The Police Service of Northern Ireland[9] and the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency[10] released their latest statistical bulletin on Incidents and Crimes with a Hate Motivationon 31st March 2022. In the 12 months from 1 April 2021 to 31 March 2022 there was a recorded increase of hate crime, with the exception of transphobic incidents.

One notable thing about that statistical release is that it differentiates between incidents and crimes. Hate-motivated incidents may result in the recording of a crime, but a recording of a hate-motivated crime means it will also be recorded as an incident. It is also worth noting that an incident might result in multiple crimes being recorded. According to the release, around two in five racist incidents recorded in 2021-2022 did not result in a crime being recorded.

[9] https://www.psni.police.uk/globalassets/inside-the-psni/our-statistics/hate-motivation-statistics/2021-22/q4/hate-motivations-bulletin-mar-_22.pdf
[10] https://www.nisra.gov.uk/statistics/crime-and-justice/psni-statistics

Overall summary of hate motivated incidents and crimes (Northern Ireland)

Another noteworthy thing about the data produced by the Police in Northern Ireland is that it makes a distinction between ethnicity, nationality, and ethnicity and nationality combined. However, the statistical release also does not contain a lot of data on hate crimes relating to disability, transgender identity, or non-sectarian faith/religion.

Incidents and crimes over time
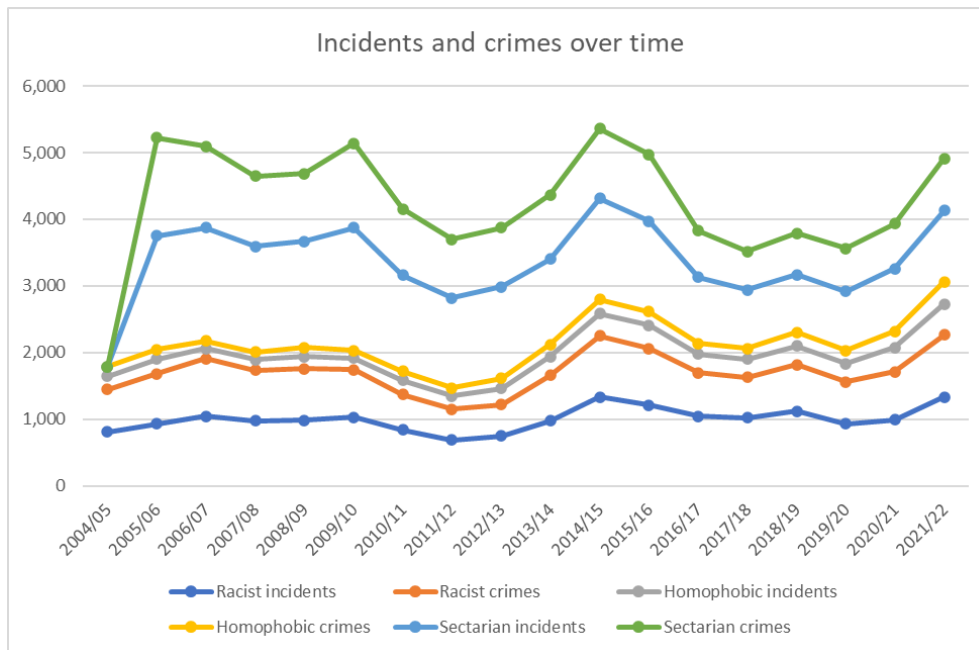
Finally, it is worth noting the definition of the perception test as reported by the Police of Northern Ireland:

> *The perception of the victim, or any other person is the defining factor in determining whether an incident is a hate incident, or in recognising the hostility element of a hate crime. Perception-based recording refers to the perception of the victim, or any other person.*[11]

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[11] https://www.psni.police.uk/globalassets/inside-the-psni/our-statistics/hate-motivation-statistics/documents/hate-motivations-definitions.pdf

Table 12 Racist crimes by ethnicity and nationality[1] of victim

			Numbers
Ethnicity (*Nationality*)	Apr'20-Mar'21	Apr'21-Mar'22	change
Asian: *of which*	95	94	-1
Bangladesh	*7*	*11*	*4*
China	*17*	*15*	*-2*
India	*16*	*17*	*1*
Pakistan	*10*	*17*	*7*
Philippines	*5*	*0*	*-5*
Portugal	*0*	*0*	*0*
UK and Ireland	*7*	*7*	*0*
All other nationalities	*16*	*14*	*-2*
Nationality missing	*17*	*13*	*-4*
Black: of which	95	114	19
Nigeria	*18*	*17*	*-1*
Portugal	*14*	*10*	*-4*
Somalia	*9*	*17*	*8*
South Africa	*2*	*1*	*-1*
Sudan	*9*	*0*	*-9*
UK and Ireland	*9*	*12*	*3*
Zimbabwe	*3*	*4*	*1*
All other nationalities	*11*	*25*	*14*
Nationality missing	*20*	*28*	*8*
Mixed/Other	82	94	12
White: of which	250	358	108
Bulgaria	*8*	*9*	*1*
Czech Republic	*1*	*2*	*1*
Hungary	*1*	*2*	*1*
Latvia	*2*	*5*	*3*
Lithuania	*8*	*11*	*3*
Poland	*63*	*79*	*16*
Portugal	*12*	*8*	*-4*
Romania	*17*	*16*	*-1*
Slovakia	*8*	*6*	*-2*
Turkey	*5*	*0*	*-5*
UK and Ireland	*92*	*150*	*58*
All other nationalities	*8*	*22*	*14*
Nationality missing	*25*	*48*	*23*
Ethnicity (*Nationality*) Missing / Unknown Person	146	224	78
Number of racist crimes with a person victim	**668**	**884**	**216**

Open data relating to hate crime outside of the UK

There is a lot of variation of the availability and quality of open data relating to hate crime outside of the UK. The US Department of JUSTice released their last bulletin in 2020.[12] The bulletin is notable for several things, including the fact that it includes both single-vias and multiple-bias incidents. The data also follows the overarching trends for the UK, in that race/ethnicity/ancestry was the most commonly reported kind of hate crime. Religion came second, sexual orientation third.

Interestingly, gender identity and gender were two distinct categories in the US Department of JUSTice release, but the numbers of reported (or recorded) hate crimes for both were extremely low. Disability was the second to last in terms of number of single-bias incidents.

69.6% of hate crimes recorded in the US were against persons. 55.1% offenders were white.

State-specific information was available, showing the bias, types of crime, and numbers of incidents over the past 3 years.[13] There was also case information and links to news items about specific incidents.

In fact, the overall US Department of JUSTice microsite for hate crime was a valuable resource not JUST for the nation as a whole but also for specific states.[14]

The European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights has released a full statement on Hate Crime Recording and Data Collection Practice Across Member States[15]. Overall, the view is that there is a lot of variation between member states in how hate crime is recorded and utilised, and the FRA has issued 5 opinions as to how this can be made better.

The European Union's Eurostat website does not include any information about hate crimes per se, but the Population and Social Conditions theme allows users to search for data on crime, violence or vandalism in the area by degree of urbanisation, by area, by poverty status, by activity limitation, sex, and age; there is also data on crimes recorded by the police, data on prisoners by offence category; data on recorded offences by category; data on international homicide and sexual offences by legal status and sex of the person involved, and more.[16]

In other words, it is possible to piece together a picture of hate crime in the European Union, but it is not straightforward and it is not easily done.

[12] https://www.justice.gov/hatecrimes/hate-crime-statistics
[13] https://www.justice.gov/hatecrimes/state-specific-information
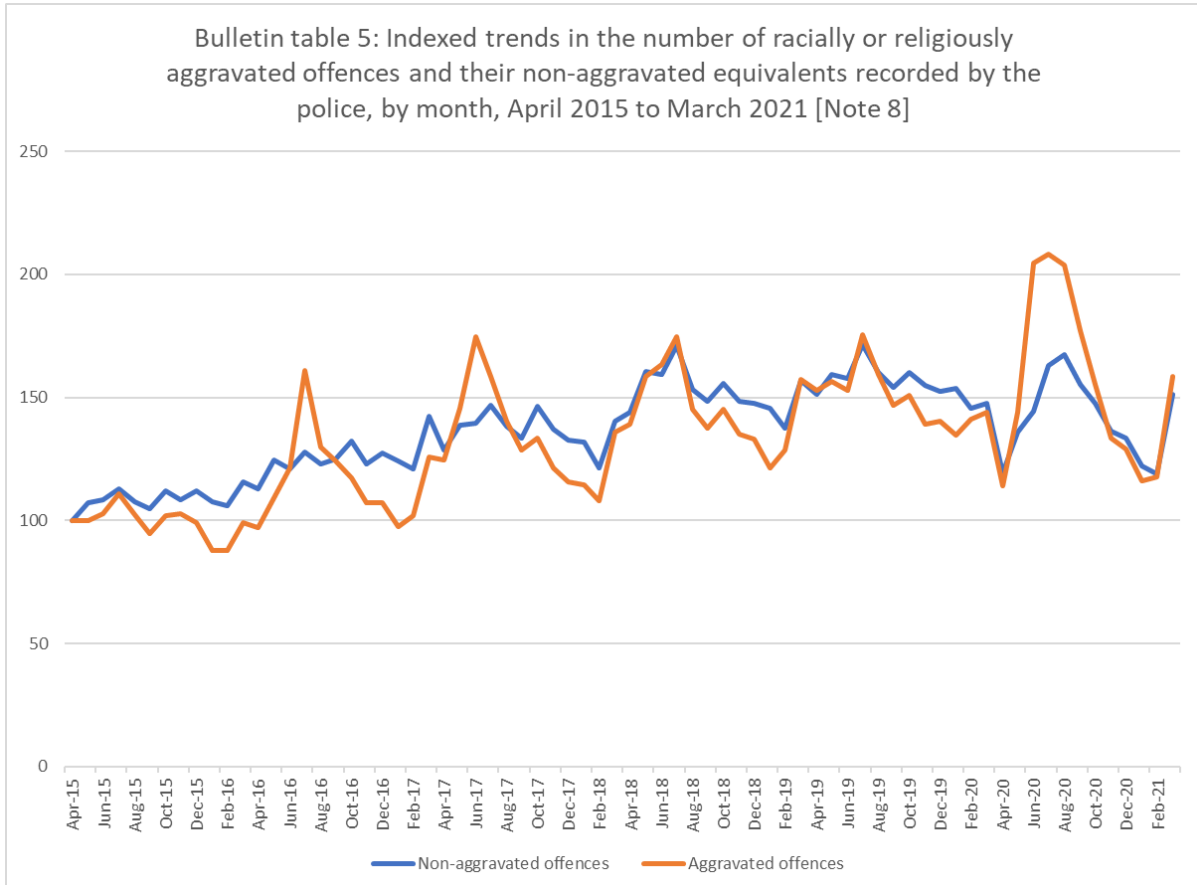[14] https://www.justice.gov/hatecrimes
[15] https://fra.europa.eu/en/publication/2018/hate-crime-recording-and-data-collection-practice-across-eu
[16] https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/main/search/-/search/dataset?_estatsearchportlet_WAR_estatsearchportlet_INSTANCE_bHVzuvn1SZ8J_pageNumber=1&_estatsearchportlet_WAR_estatsearchportlet_INSTANCE_bHVzuvn1SZ8J_pageSize=11&_estatsearchportlet_WAR_estatsearchportlet_INSTANCE_bHVzuvn1SZ8J_text=crime&_estatsearchportlet_WAR_estatsearchportlet_INSTANCE_bHVzuvn1SZ8J_sort=_score&p_auth=nPxx0l0y%3E

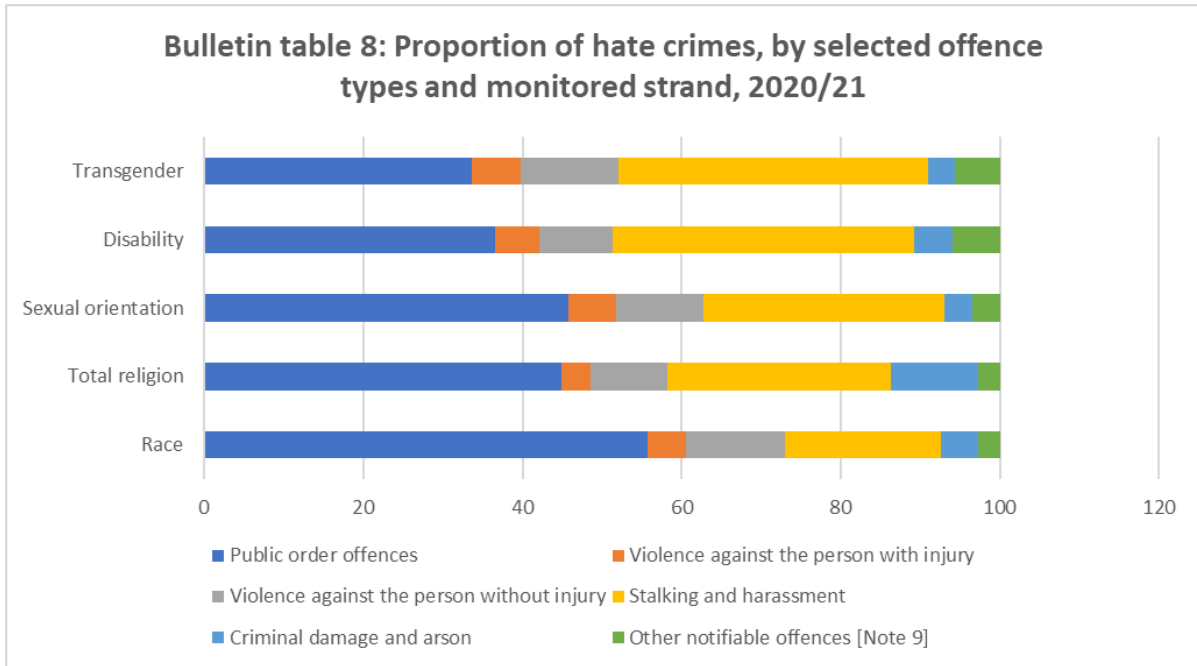## Possible applications of data relating to hate crime

High quality data on hate crime has a number of useful applications. For specific counties, it can help law enforcement and community groups distribute resources, plan education, and implement targeted strategies to help reduce instances of hate crime. For example, the nation-wide data on hate crime, which shows the indexed trends in the number of racially or religiously aggravated offences seems to indicate a spike in reporting ruing the summer months – a trend which has been sustained since 2015.

Bulletin table 5: Indexed trends in the number of racially or religiously aggravated offences and their non-aggravated equivalents recorded by the police, by month, April 2015 to March 2021 [Note 8]

On a similar note, while the proportion of hate crimes towards specific monitored strands remain more of less the same over time, the types of hate crimes vary from strand to strand. For example, while race-motivated hate crimes tend to be public order offences, the most common kind of hate crime that is recorded against transgender and disabled individuals is stalking and harassment.

Different kinds of offenses also carry with them different kinds of costs, not JUST to the victims but also to the JUSTice system. A 2018 report by the Home Office[17] states that among other things, the Lost productivity as a result of violence with injury is £2,060 per case, the unit cost of violence with injury is £11,220 per case, and the unit cost of response to a violence with injury crime is £2,500 per case. Lost productivity as a result of sexual offences is £1,120.00 per case. Cost of consequence (JUSTice and probation system) of other sexual offences is £5,220.00per case. Police unit response to other sexual offences is reported as costing £1,150.00 per case.

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[17] https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/732110/the-economic-and-social-costs-of-crime-horr99.pdf

Bulletin table 8: Proportion of hate crimes, by selected offence types and monitored strand, 2020/21

However one looks at it, hate crime represents a huge cost, one that could hypothetically be prevented through education and appropriate resource distribution. Whether through better planning, training, and campaigning, there are ways in which police forces and local community groups can better address the needs of vulnerable groups.

This brings us to the next challenge, which is the availability of data relating to hate crime, and how easy it is to use.

Themes of the round table

There were many themes of discussions had during the day, but they could be grouped in four main categories of barriers to reporting on hate crime and challenges to using data for hate crime: barriers to the individual, barriers to the community, barriers to organisations, and structural barriers. Each theme has been examined in this write-up in its own section, with data sources and suggestions on improving on reporting and collaboration between agencies listed under each theme.

Barriers to the Individual

Barriers to the Individual is a theme that focuses on the challenges that prevent individuals from reporting on hate crime and accessing support. These barriers can overlap with and be exacerbated by community, organisational, and structural barriers; they can equally exist in isolation.

These barriers can further be broken down into the following:

- Normalisation of behaviour: victims not recognizing that a hate crime has occurred; victims thinking that the behaviour is "not a big deal" or worth going to the authorities about; victims thinking that "this is JUST how people talk" or that "it's JUST a joke";
- Victims punished for standing their ground: fear of retaliation; not wanting to make more trouble for oneself; not wanting to provoke an escalation from the perpetuator;
- Lack of confidence in the authorities: poor past experiences, by the victim or by somebody they know; victims who do not believe that their complaint will be taken seriously, or that

appropriate action will be taken; victims who reached out to professionals (like teachers and schools) only to not be supported.

- Personal feelings of shame, embarrassment, or humiliation; reluctance of being seen as a victim or having that as part of one's identity; feeling that their personal bad experience is not worth the time and attention that an investigation might take.

It is worth noting that some of these barriers will have a different impact on individuals, based on the person's background, their community, their individual disposition and past experiences, as well as any other number of variables that may be present at the time the offense takes place (or immediately after). These barriers can also be conscious or unconscious.

One barrier that participants focused on during the round table was that victims may not even realize a hate crime had taken place; or that they did not think of what happened to them as a hate crime. Victims may experience verbal harassment (one of the most common forms that hate crime may take) but they may dismiss it as "not a big deal", "a joke", or "that's JUST how people talk". That interpretation may even be supported by the members of the victim's community, who may or may not consciously be leading the victim to minimise what happened to them.

The concept of microaggressions was brought up in that context, specifically the fact that due to their nature, these behaviours are both difficult to recognize and to address when they happen, by the victim or by bystanders. Participants discussed how victims might be moved to dismiss something as not being that serious or worth reporting – but also, that sometimes the kind of hate crime that occurs cannot be recorded as such, further complicating both the ability of law enforcement to know the extent of the problem, and for community groups to respond to it appropriately.

The challenges are further exacerbated by the relative inaccessibility of data on the regional level. The report produced by LORIC showcased various trends on the country level, both in terms of offenses recorded and in terms of convictions, but such data was not as easily available at a more local level.

With all this in mind, participants were asked to reflect on how reporting might be improved. The solutions proposed ranged, from most informal to the most formal:

- Build links between the community and reporting centres
- Show more willingness/openness to embrace those protected characteristics to help people more willing to report
- Raising awareness on resources
- Raising awareness on hate crime
- Education within the community
- Feedback and communication
- A more collaborative approach by organisations to discuss people
- Resources, resources, resources
- A better/clearer reporting tool
- Sharing what happens when a crime is reported

When asked to consider what organisations might be engaged to build links with individuals within the community, participants listed village halls, community centres, community centres, victim support services, services working with vulnerable groups of people who may have case studies, schools, community champions; community leaders; parish councils; co-op local stores; night-time economy – taxis, pubs, clubs. In other words, participants felt that the best way to support individuals and to help them overcome individual barriers to reporting.

Barriers to the Community

Barriers to the community refers to challenges that hinder or prevent community responses to hate crime. Within the context of the round table, participants identified three types of community barriers:

- Lack of trust: poor community experiences with the authorities; past poor responses to this particular kind of aggression; general mistrust;
- Cultural expectations: do not involve outsiders, deal with it within the community/family; generational differences; recognizing the incident but not thinking of it as a hate crime or worth reporting;
- Shame: Family/community pressure not to report;

There were multiple barriers identified by the participants that overlapped with barriers to individuals, namely feelings of shame, embarrassment, and not wanting to be seen as victim. It is also worth noting that, as with individual barriers, some of the challenges identified were in recognizing that the aggression the person had experienced was a hate crime, or that it merited reporting.

It is worth taking some time in this point to discuss the challenges and repercussions of the crime. As noted by the participants, and confirmed by the data, hate crime rarely occurs in isolation. Rather, verbal harassment (which can be recorded as a hate crime) can escalate quickly into property damage and violence (with or without injury). Furthermore, hate crime of every kind has he potential for long-lasting damage on the victim, bystanders, and wider community:

As written by one participant: "The true cost of repairing damage caused by hostility is hatred to others."

It is also worth noting here that the cost of a hate crime is borne not JUST by the victim, but by the community at large. According to a 2018 report by the Home Office, the estimated cost of emotional harm from crime starts at £2,540 and can go up to £26,670 per person, per case[18]. The same report notes that the unit costs as consequence of crime (productivity, mental and physical wellbeing) can be anywhere between £580 and £31,450 depending on the severity of the offence. The unit costs as response to crime (police and JUSTice response) meanwhile can cost anything between £180 to £6,940 per case. In other words, the possible repercussions of hate crime, and the long-term consequences, are far from unsubstantial, and can have significant consequences if not addressed.

Existing data/data sources

- Charities/CICs/other social organisations delivering support locally
- Information on engagement with community resources
- Resources that people can access even if they don't make official reports (Victim Links)
- Recording data on class related hate crime; Heat map; Data on all incidents
- University data; School data; Data from workplaces

How can we improve reporting?

When asked about means of improving reporting withing the communities that they serve, organisational representatives suggested several measures, including but not limited to:

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[18] Cost of emotional harm from crime, fear, estimated at £2540; cost of emotional harm from violent crime anxiety/panic attacks, estimated at £26670
https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/732110/the-economic-and-social-costs-of-crime-horr99.pdf

- Education within the community: raising awareness on hate crime, what it is, and how it manifests; and raising awareness on resources, where are they based, and how they can be accessed;
- Challenge behaviours when they occur; Learning by example; Encourage positive behaviours; Encourage people to discuss these challenges openly with friends and family; don't dismiss anyone who has the courage to report
- Introductory training in schools; openly sharing data;
- A better, clearer reporting tool; Victim support, multilingual support; Making services like STOP HATE more accessible; Media support
- Build links between the community and people through targeted activities;
- Sharing what happens when a crime is reported;
- Allocating more funding and human resource to building connections with the community and communicating outcomes with members of the community;

It was widely agreed that these measures to improve reporting will take time and effort, as building trust with communities vulnerable to hate crime is especially difficult.

Who else can we engage to improve on reporting?

- Village halls, community centres, community centres, different demographics; Children's centres and women's refuges;
- Victim support services, services working with vulnerable groups of people who may have case studies;
- Shared understandings and importance;
- Funders; Churches; Feminist groups; LGBTQ+ community; Lincolnshire county council
- Community Facebook groups; Local media

Organisational Barriers

Barriers

The barriers to reporting hate crime that participants identified that pertain to the organisational level all pertain to a lack of trust: "empty rhetoric", the lack of trust towards people who are meant to safeguard and support you, and the lack of trust in the authorities that you are supposed to report hate crimes to.

"Empty rhetoric": When participants talked about the concept of empty rhetoric, they often referred to the disparity between what organisations say in the public space about hate crime, and what organisations do in terms of their responses to hate crime.

Lack of trust towards people who are supposed to safeguard you and support you: Participants observed that this lack of trust towards organisations and authority figures (schools, colleges, teachers, safeguarding officers) could come from both the organisations who did "too little" and the organisations who did "too much".

> Organisations that took safeguarding concerns too zealously (like schools and colleges) were perceived as turning people away by making reporting too high-stakes, by having few or no informal, intermediary ways of addressing concerns, short of a formal report.

> Meanwhile organisations that treated reports of hate crime not seriously enough, and keeping investigations "in house" were perceived as having the opposite problem, in that there was

not enough transparency in how things are dealt with, why organisations came to certain decisions, and what would be done to support victims.

It is worth noting that both examples were effectively two sides of the same problem, in that they do not address the core need of victims. Participants in the round table discussed how most victims of hate crime don't want necessarily for the perpetrator to be punished – that most want the behaviour to stop and never happen again. However, by organisations doing too little or too much, they were perceived as diminishing trust in due process.

Lack of trust in authorities you are supposed to report hate crimes to: Participants observed that, in addition to not having much trust in safeguarding organisations, victims of hate crime may have very little trust in the authorities they are supposed to report to.

For some groups of victims, that lack of trust manifested in not wanting the police to come to their house; others were concerned about not being taken seriously; for yet a third group, poor relationships and poor experiences were the source of that mistrust.

Participants also noted that some groups of victims might fear that by reporting the crime to the authorities, they are opening the door to escalation and retaliation.

Finally, participants noted that some victims might not even know that the incident is recorded as a hate crime.

Existing data/data sources

Organisation-level data sources could include, but is not limited to:

- Charity data
- University data
- Schools data
- Organisational data
- Signposting data for teachers
- Trade union data
- Data on prosecutions
- Data on how things are followed up on

It was noted that the standards of reporting and transparency vary a lot from organisation to organisation and thus data may vary dramatically from one provider to the next.

How can we improve reporting?

- Awareness raising /Training
- Less bureaucracy
- More resources
- Raising awareness / Engagement with Family learning / Reminders that there have been outcomes
- Local engagement, involving local leaders
- Empowering the victims in what the response should be
- Better rules around data and who owns it

Who else can we engage to improve on reporting?

- PICC to head together

- Police
- NHS
- Social services
- Community centres
- Community groups
- Voluntary sectors

Structural barriers

The most complicated barriers that were identified over the course of the round table were structural barriers around reporting hate crime. Those barriers were grouped in the following overarching themes: the accessibility of reporting, the postcode lottery of services, lack of paths to rehabilitation and reducing recidivism rates, and the socio-cultural narrative presented in popular media around hate crime.

Accessibility of reporting/not knowing what to do: This theme manifested itself in various ways – inaccessible or hard-to-find forms; lack of knowledge and awareness of UK laws and laws governing hate crimes; lack of knowledge on how to report or lack of trust in the system.

There are also additional barriers to victims of hate crimes who may have learning difficulties, victims with multiple and complex needs, and victims who speak English as a second language.

There are additional concerns that overlap with the barriers to reporting on organisational levels – fear of reprisals, fear of not being taken seriously, and the high stakes involved in reporting. It was equally felt that the need for the victim to report and come face-to-face with the accused may result in them being more reluctant to report.

Postcode Lottery: This theme refers the impacts that location, and access to services may impact victims' willingness to report a hate crime. This includes but is not limited to: tolerance of poor behaviour, low priority given to victims of hate crime because of other, "more serious" crimes, and a lack of resources.

Rehabilitation and Recidivism: This theme was more difficult to consolidate, but it refers to the lack of clear path to rehabilitation after hate crimes occur. Participants discussed how little paths to rehabilitation there were after hate crime, how little the general public knows about what happens when hate crimes are investigated, and how poorly sometimes the problem is addressed. The participants reflected on how the lack of transparency impacted trust.

Socio-cultural narrative in media and bystander response: The final theme that emerged from discussions was around the socio-cultural narrative in media around hate crime. Examples of this theme included but were not limited to:

- "The police have more important things to deal with"
- Behaviour of our community leaders and social discourse leads the way
- "It's not really important to me."
- "It has become normalised behaviour." / Part of the culture.
- "Media narrative war on woke."
- Societal attitude to difference and social hostility.

Existing data/data sources

Examples of data and data sources that could inform structural barriers to reporting included:

- Data from Victim Links
- Council data
- Info from housing associations
- Annual population survey
- IMD data
- Data on children in need from council

- Info from housing associations
- Recidivism rates
- Information on prison interventions
- Any newspaper
- Stat agencies
- Council data on housing

How can we improve reporting?

When it came to structural barriers to reporting, most of the participants in the round table were in agreement that there were no simple solutions. Suggestions that were raised as an answer to the individual, community, and organisational barriers to reporting were raised as potential solutions to structural problems as well: solutions like empowering victims, evidencing positive interventions, better representation, alternate ways to report, and social cohesion. The highlighting of organisations with good hate crime policies was also suggested as possible solutions.

However, it was noted that structural barriers would not be removed quickly or easily. Case studies, making adJUSTments for language, laying out a clear rehabilitation path, and continuous good communication around crime and punishment were seen as valuable, but would not lead to immediate feedback.

Additionally, it was noted that structural solutions would require consistency over time – they would require media support over a long period of time, they would require consistently good education in schools around hate crime, they would require continuous encouragement of employers to engage people better around hate crime and not to get discouraged when setbacks occur.

Above all else, it was agreed that bystanders needed to be empowered to act when hate crimes occurred.

Who else can we engage to improve on reporting?

- Automatic reporting
- Mora data on smaller catchment areas
- Wishlist – clear pathway available to the public
- Sports clubs
- Age UK
- Social influences
- Community magazines

- Parish councils
- BBC Lincolnshire
- Faith groups
- Learning centres
- Local community groups, youth groups.
- Media momentum
- Celebrities/speakers
- Community leaders who can represent the voice of minority groups

- Lincoln Echo, The Lincolnite, The Lincoln Independent
- Librarians
- Communities who may be more likely to be affected by hate crime
- Gatekeepers
- Teacher training colleges

Conclusion and Recommendations

It is difficult to draw definitive conclusions given the limited scope of this study. However, returning to the original question, some pertinent observations can be made:

> If a citizen or a community organisation wanted to know what the state of hate crime was in their area, to what extent would they be able to get clear, accurate information, from the data that is available to them?

Most of the data presented in the first section report was collected over the course of several days, and required significant cleaning and sorting. While some data on hate crime is available as an open dataset, very little is known about individual counties and individual regions. To some extent, concessions have to be made in order to protect the identity and privacy of individual victims, but it is possible to have useful data available without compromising on privacy or anonymity.

Other things worth noting:

- While there is connected data available, not all of it is easy to find.
- The average user of such data (in a community organisation, or charity) may be able to access this data but may not be able to make it useable.
- Time and money is an issue.
- Usable data at the regional level is not aways available.
- It is unknown how much of the data that is already being collected is a reflection of what is happening. As noted, a lot depends on what crimes are reported and how those crimes are recorded. Without a unified approach to data, and without the trust of communities to report on hate crime, it is unlikely that the data produced is going to be useful.
- The data currently does not record intersecting instances of crimes. While there can be more than one prejudice at the heart of the crime, being able to record intersecting vulnerabilities is difficult.

In conclusion, the availability and usability of data on hate crime, particularly on a regional level, is very limited and only available to organisations who can dedicate the necessary time and human resource to extracting it. Additionally, there are huge barriers to access and barriers to reporting that operate on the individual, community, organisational, and structural levels. These barriers to access and barriers to reporting are even more complex because of how they intersect and mutually exacerbate one another.

With this in mind, the task of improving reporting and improving data quality is two-fold:

- The first task requires the continuous work towards addressing and removing as much as possible the barriers to reporting hate crime on the individual, community, and structural level.
- The second is the systemic improvement of data quality as reporting centres disclose incidents, outcomes, and how feedback was acted upon.

Sources

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