

Incidence of Antisemitism Worldwide Debate on 20 June 2019

Summary

On 20 June 2019, the House of Lords is due to debate a motion moved by Baroness Berridge (Conservative) that “this House takes note of the incidence of antisemitism worldwide”. This briefing looks at several recent reports that have sought to measure the incidence of antisemitism around the world.

Statistics indicated that in 2018, the number of Jews killed in antisemitic attacks worldwide reached its highest level since the 1990s. A report produced by Tel Aviv University noted a rise in antisemitic acts, both violent and non-violent, in many countries and cities around the world in 2018 and a sense of antisemitism becoming “normalised” in the public sphere. A large-scale survey of people who considered themselves Jewish, carried out across twelve EU member states in 2018, found that:

- antisemitism pervades everyday life;
- pervasive antisemitism undermines Jewish people’s feelings of safety and security;
- antisemitic harassment is so common that it becomes normalised; and
- antisemitic discrimination in key areas of life remains invisible.

An overwhelming majority (89%) of participants in the survey felt antisemitism was getting worse. This contrasted with another EU survey that looked at perceptions of antisemitism among the general population. Only 36% thought antisemitism had increased in the past five years. The European Commission described this as a “clear perception gap of the problem of antisemitism”.

In the UK, the Community Security Trust (CST) recorded the highest ever number of antisemitic incidents in 2018. It noted an upward trend over the last three years. Nevertheless, the CST believes antisemitic hate crime and hate incidents are significantly under-reported. The UK Government has suggested that a rise in religiously motivated hate crime may be partly attributable to better recording, but the Home Office acknowledges that official figures may not capture the full extent of hate crime.

The Government states it is tackling antisemitic hate crime through its hate crime action plan. It has set out plans to address online hate crime in the recently published online harms white paper. The Government also explains that it undertakes work to promote freedom of religion or belief around the world and to address post-Holocaust issues through the Foreign and Commonwealth Office’s human rights work.

Definition of Antisemitism

The International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance (IHRA), an intergovernmental organisation, adopted the following working definition of antisemitism in 2016:

Antisemitism is a certain perception of Jews, which may be expressed as hatred towards Jews.

Rhetorical and physical manifestations of antisemitism are directed toward Jewish or non-Jewish individuals and/or their property, toward Jewish community institutions and religious facilities.¹

The working definition is not legally binding.² To guide the IHRA in its work, the working definition is accompanied by a list of what the IHRA describes as “contemporary examples of antisemitism”. The list is not intended to be exhaustive. The examples are:

- Calling for, aiding, or justifying the killing or harming of Jews in the name of a radical ideology or an extremist view of religion.
- Making mendacious, dehumanizing, demonizing, or stereotypical allegations about Jews as such or the power of Jews as collective—such as, especially but not exclusively, the myth about a world Jewish conspiracy or of Jews controlling the media, economy, government or other societal institutions.
- Accusing Jews as a people of being responsible for real or imagined wrongdoing committed by a single Jewish person or group, or even for acts committed by non-Jews.
- Denying the fact, scope, mechanisms (eg gas chambers) or intentionality of the genocide of the Jewish people at the hands of National Socialist Germany and its supporters and accomplices during World War II (the Holocaust).
- Accusing the Jews as a people, or Israel as a state, of inventing or exaggerating the Holocaust.
- Accusing Jewish citizens of being more loyal to Israel, or to the alleged priorities of Jews worldwide, than to the interests of their own nations.
- Denying the Jewish people their right to self-determination, eg by claiming that the existence of a State of Israel is a racist endeavour.
- Applying double standards by requiring of it a behaviour not expected or demanded of any other democratic nation.
- Using the symbols and images associated with classic antisemitism (eg claims of Jews killing Jesus or blood libel) to characterize Israel or Israelis.
- Drawing comparisons of contemporary Israeli policy to that of the Nazis.
- Holding Jews collectively responsible for actions of the state of Israel.³

Regarding the working definition, the IHRA states that “criticism of Israel similar to that levelled against any other country cannot be regarded as antisemitic”.⁴

The IHRA’s working definition has been adopted by a number of governments and government bodies: the UK (the first to do so), Israel, Austria, Scotland, Romania, Germany, Bulgaria, Belgium, Lithuania, Republic of North Macedonia, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Republic of Moldova, Czech Republic, Greece (Ministry of Education), Hungary and France.⁵ Announcing the UK Government’s adoption of the definition in December 2016, Sajid Javid, then Secretary of State for Communities and Local Government, explained how the Government viewed its significance:

The Government believe that the definition, although non-legally binding, is an important tool for criminal justice agencies, and other public bodies to understand how antisemitism manifests itself in the 21st century, as it gives examples of the kind of behaviours which depending on the circumstances could constitute antisemitism. It will be for public bodies and agencies to implement the definition and embed it in operational guidance as relevant.⁶

Incidence of Antisemitism

Several recent studies have sought to measure the incidence of antisemitism around the world. Some research has looked at the number and trends over time of violent and non-violent incidents of antisemitism. Other analyses have focused on studying how antisemitism is perceived by Jewish people and by the wider population.

Global Reviews

The Israeli Ministry of Diaspora Affairs publishes an annual report on antisemitism, looking at trends and events around the world.⁷ The most recent report was published in January 2019 to coincide with International Holocaust Remembrance Day. It stated that in 2018, the number of Jews killed in antisemitic attacks reached its highest level since the 1990s.⁸ The report cited the deaths of 13 people in three separate incidents: a student was murdered in California, a Holocaust survivor was killed in an attack at her home in Paris, and eleven people were shot in an attack on a synagogue in Pittsburgh.⁹ The report said antisemitic violence in 2018 was “led by neo-Nazis and white supremacists”. However, it also suggested there was “room for hope”, as “more and more governments are declaring their commitment to fighting antisemitism and appointing emissaries to that end”.¹⁰

Tel Aviv University’s Kantor Center for the Study of European Jewry recently published its 2018 annual report on antisemitism worldwide.¹¹ The report contained summaries from different regions and countries around the world. Its key findings included a rise in violent antisemitic incidents and a sense of antisemitism becoming “normalised” in the public sphere:

The most disturbing finding identified in 2018 is the sense of insecurity prevalent among Jews and confirmed by surveys. They do not feel an integral part of society anymore and sometimes they even sense a state of emergency. Antisemitism is mainstreaming, even normalised as a constant presence, in the public as well as in the private sphere. A rise of 13% in the number of major violent antisemitic incidents was registered; 13 Jews were murdered.

The year 2018 and the beginning of 2019 witnessed an increase in almost all forms of antisemitic manifestations, in the public space as well as in the private one. A sense of facing a state of emergency situation is increasing among Jews in some countries; physical insecurity and questioning their place in society and in the parties that were their political home are more prevalent. The calls “Jews to the gas” and “death to the Zionists” are openly and publicly voiced [...]

The number of the major violent cases monitored by the Kantor Center team has increased by 13%, from 342 to 387. The countries with the highest number of cases are the US (over 100 cases); the UK (68); France and Germany (35 each); Canada (20); Belgium (19); the Netherlands (15); and Argentina (11). It should be noted that the numbers of reported cases in Eastern Europe have been much lower in comparison to Western Europe, going down from 12 cases in the Ukraine in 2018 to a few in each of the other countries.

The main modus operandi remain cases of vandalism (216, 56%); threats (89, 23%); and weaponless means (55, 14%). These numbers show that while the use of weapon and arson is in lower numbers, most of the attacks are against people. Indeed, at least 138 people were attacked (36%) and private property was damaged (104 cases, 27%). The reason is that persons and their property are less protected than synagogues (47 cases, 12%) and community centres (22, 6%). Cemeteries and monuments are still a traditional target (76 cases, 19%).¹²

The report noted that data collection methods differed from country to country. However, most of the data gathered included not only cases of serious violence, but also incidents of harassment, insult, minor threats, verbal assaults, Holocaust denial and social media shaming.¹³ The report highlighted that non-violent incidents, such as harassment and insults, could cause harm by creating an “antisemitic atmosphere”. Looking at the full range of different types of incidents, the report noted a rise in many countries and cities around the world:

[...] in Italy 197 cases of all types were registered, a 60% increase; in South Africa—62 incidents, 25%. In the UK—1652 documented incidents, a rise of 16%. In France, a 74% rise, from 311 to 541 incidents was recorded. In Australia—366 cases, a rise of 59%. A 22% rise in New York was noted by the city police.¹⁴

European Surveys

The Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA), a European Union body, carried out an online survey in May–June 2018 of nearly 16,500 people who considered themselves Jewish.¹⁵ The survey covered twelve EU countries that are home to over 96% of the EU’s estimated Jewish population, including the UK.¹⁶ It asked questions about respondents’ experiences and perceptions of antisemitism. The FRA drew four key findings from the survey data:

- **Antisemitism pervades everyday life**
Antisemitism pervades the public sphere, reproducing and engraining negative stereotypes about Jews. Some member states responded by appointing coordinators on combating antisemitism, while others adopted or endorsed a non-legally binding, working definition of antisemitism agreed on in May 2016 by the International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance (IHRA) and welcomed by the European Commission as a useful initiative aiming to prevent and combat antisemitism.
- **Pervasive antisemitism undermines Jews’ feelings of safety and security**
Many Jews across the EU cannot live a life free of worry for their own safety and that of their family members and other individuals to whom they are close. This is due to a risk of becoming targets of antisemitic harassment and attacks.
- **Antisemitic harassment is so common that it becomes normalised**
People face so much antisemitic abuse that some of the incidents they experience appear trivial to them. The normalisation of antisemitism is also evidenced by the wide range of perpetrators, which spans the entire social and political spectrum.
- **Antisemitic discrimination in key areas of life remains invisible**
The very low reporting rate for antisemitic discrimination, combined with the apparent normalisation of incidents, prevent the true extent of antisemitic discrimination from coming to the attention of relevant authorities, equality bodies or community organisations.¹⁷

This survey followed a previous survey of seven EU countries the FRA carried out in 2012. The FRA noted that due to the nature of an online open survey, comparisons between the two sets of results should be read with caution as they could be affected by several factors.¹⁸ However, the FRA highlighted the fact that “an overwhelming majority of survey participants feel that antisemitism is getting worse”.¹⁹

Findings from the Fundamental Rights Agency Survey

Manifestations of antisemitism

- 85% of respondents consider antisemitism and racism to be the most pressing problems across the EU member states surveyed.
- 89% believe antisemitism has increased over the past five years in the country they live in.
- 89% consider antisemitism expressed online as a problem in the country they live in, and 88% believe it has increased over the last five years.
- Most survey respondents say they are regularly exposed to negative statements about Jews.

Safety and Security

- Nearly half (47%) of respondents worry about becoming a victim of an antisemitic verbal insult or harassment in the next twelve months, while over one third (40%) worry about being physically attacked in the same period.
- One third (34%) of respondents said they at least occasionally avoid visiting Jewish events or sites because they would not feel safe there, or on the way there, as a Jew.
- 70% believe that their national government's efforts to combat antisemitism are not effective.

Harassment, physical violence and vandalism

- On average, over one third of all respondents (39%) experienced some form of antisemitic harassment in the five years before the survey. More than one quarter (28%) encountered such harassment in the twelve months before the survey.
- Across the twelve countries surveyed, 3% of all respondents personally experienced a physical attack because they are Jewish in the five years before the survey. In the twelve months before the survey, 2% of all respondents experienced a physical attack because they are Jewish.
- Across the twelve countries surveyed, 4% of all respondents say that their property was deliberately vandalised because they are Jewish in the five years before the survey; 2% experienced this in the twelve months before the survey.

Discrimination

- 11% of all respondents say they felt discriminated against for being Jewish in the twelve months before the survey in one or more of the five areas listed in the survey—employment (at work or when looking for work), education, health or housing.

In January 2019, the European Commission published a Eurobarometer survey on perceptions of antisemitism in Europe.²⁰ The survey questioned nearly 28,000 participants across the 28 EU member states in face-to-face interviews.²¹ Key findings on people's opinion of antisemitism and its manifestations were as follows:

- Half of Europeans (50%) consider that antisemitism is a problem in their country. However, a majority of respondents do so in eight EU member states: Sweden, France, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Italy, Belgium and Austria.
- Around a fifth of Europeans (19%) have friends or acquaintances who are Jewish.
- Only around a third of Europeans (36%) believe that antisemitism has increased in their country over the past five years. This is the majority view in six EU member states. All other respondents are of the opinion that antisemitism has remained the same (39%), decreased (10%) or have no opinion (15%). These respondents form a majority in 22 countries.

- At least half of all Europeans think that six of the nine manifestations of antisemitism are a problem in their country. Holocaust denial is considered the most pernicious problem, followed by antisemitism on the internet, antisemitic vandalism or graffiti, and expressions of hostility and threats towards Jewish people in public places.²²

Behind these headline statistics, the European Commission noted that one of the most “striking findings” of the Eurobarometer survey was that people’s perceptions were “very divided”:

While every other European [ie one person in two] considers antisemitism to be a problem in their country, four in ten Europeans actually do not consider it to be an issue in their country.

[...] There are also significant differences in perception among member states. People saying that antisemitism is a problem is highest in countries with significant Jewish communities, and where physical attacks against the Jewish community have taken place, including Sweden, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, UK, and Belgium. Swedish (81%) and French (72%) respondents are the most likely to say that antisemitism is a problem in their country. Both countries stand out with heightened perception throughout the survey.

Europeans with Jewish friends and acquaintances are more likely to be aware of the issues as well as [of the] increase in antisemitism, as well as those who belong to a minority themselves.²³

The European Commission also noted that the findings of the Eurobarometer survey of the wider population differed from those of the FRA study, which polled people who identified as Jewish:

Nine in 10 (89%) Jews consider that antisemitism has increased in their country, with more than eight in 10 (85%) considering it to be a serious problem. Jews around Europe rate antisemitism as the biggest social or political problem where they live [...] The Eurobarometer results published today shows that there is clear perception gap of the problem of antisemitism, with only 36% of the general public saying they think antisemitism has increased in the past five years.²⁴

A poll carried out for CNN by the polling organisation ComRes in September 2018 indicated what CNN described as “complicated, contrasting and sometimes disturbing attitudes about Jews, and some startling ignorance”.²⁵ ComRes questioned over 7,000 people living in Austria, France, Germany, the UK, Hungary, Poland and Sweden.²⁶ Key findings from the poll included:

- Three in ten (28%) adults say Jewish people have too much influence in finance and business across the world, compared with other people.
- One in five (20%) adults say Jewish people have too much influence in media across the world compared to other people.
- Three in ten (31%) adults agree Jewish people use the Holocaust to advance their position or to achieve certain goals.²⁷

Katie Harrison, director of ComRes’s Faith Research Centre, commented that the survey had uncovered “unspoken” attitudes about antisemitism:

Forty-four percent of the adults in the European countries we surveyed see antisemitism as a growing problem in their countries, but their answers to other questions suggest that maybe they think this is happening somewhere else. Someone else is doing the bad thing, somewhere else.²⁸

UK Figures

In the UK, police figures and data collected by Jewish community organisations give a picture of the occurrence of antisemitic incidents. The Home Office published police recorded crime figures on religious hate crimes targeted against people perceived to be Jewish for the first time in October 2018.²⁹ These figures covered England and Wales. Previous data for England and Wales was not broken down by religion. Similarly, published statistics on hate crime in Scotland and Northern Ireland are not broken down by religion in this way.³⁰

Based on the number of crimes recorded by the police, in 2017/18 there were 672 religious hate crime offences against victims whose religion was perceived to be Jewish.³¹ This accounted for 12% of the recorded religious hate crime offences. The Home Office observed that this made Jewish people the second most commonly targeted group after Muslims, who were targeted in just over half (52%) of the recorded religious hate crime offences. In the 2011 census, 4.2% of the population of England and Wales identified as Muslim and around 0.5% as Jewish.³² In England and Wales, a hate crime is defined as “any criminal offence which is perceived, by the victim or any other person, to be motivated by hostility or prejudice towards someone based on a personal characteristic”.³³ “Perceived religion” means the religion targeted by the offender.³⁴ The Home Office noted that in the majority of offences, the perceived and actual religion of the victim will be the same, but in some cases, it will differ.³⁵

It should be noted that the figures on the perceived religion of victims of religious hate crime come with several caveats:

- It is believed that police recorded crime figures typically under-represent the level of crime. For example, the Home Office has stated that of the hate crime incidents covered by the Crime Survey of England and Wales—another source of statistics on crime—53% had been reported to the police.³⁶ The Crime Survey of England and Wales may itself under-represent the level of hate crime as it does not cover all crimes which may have a hate component, such as homicide and public order offences, and it does not cover crimes against people under the age of 16.³⁷
- As this was the first year that collection of data on the perceived religion of the victims was mandatory, the Home Office published these figures as experimental statistics.³⁸
- For some forces, the number of offences recorded with ‘unknown religion’ is relatively high.³⁹
- The figures did not include data from the Metropolitan and Lancashire police forces, which supplied data based on the actual religion of the victim, rather than the perceived religion. However, data from those two forces showed a similar picture to the national one, with 15% of the victims of religious hate crime identifying as Jewish.⁴⁰ Data published on the Metropolitan Police website indicates that there were 519 antisemitic hate crimes reported to the force in 2017/18.⁴¹ This rose to 597 in 2018/19, an increase of 15%.

Another source of figures on the incidence of antisemitism in the UK is the Community Security Trust (CST). This charity describes its mission as protecting British Jews from antisemitism and related threats.⁴² It publishes an annual report detailing antisemitic incidents that have been reported to CST throughout the year.

In 2018, the CST recorded the highest ever number of antisemitic incidents, and noted a sustained upward trend over the last three years:

- CST recorded 1,652 antisemitic incidents in the UK in 2018, the highest total that CST has

ever recorded in a single calendar year. This is an increase of 16 percent from the 1,420 antisemitic incidents recorded by CST in 2017, which was itself a record annual total. CST also recorded a then-record annual high of 1,375 antisemitic incidents in 2016, making 2018 the third year in a row to see a record total; and there was also a record high of 1,182 antisemitic incidents in 2014.

- The record annual totals in 2016, 2017 and 2018 represent a sustained pattern of historically high antisemitic incident totals. Whereas previous high annual totals in 2014 and 2009 were associated with reactions to conflicts involving Israel, there has been no single trigger event to cause the high annual totals in recent years.
- CST recorded over 100 antisemitic incidents in every month of 2018, the first time this has ever happened in a single calendar year.⁴³

The CST figures paint a wider picture of the incidence of antisemitism than police recorded crime figures as they cover both hate crimes and non-crime incidents.⁴⁴ CST defines an antisemitic incident as “any malicious act aimed at Jewish people, organisations or property, where there is evidence that the act has an antisemitic motivation or content, or that the victim was targeted because they are (or are believed to be) Jewish”. CST receives reports of antisemitic incidents from a range of sources, including directly from victims or members of their family; from witnesses; from its own national volunteer structure; from security guards at Jewish buildings; and via incident data sharing programmes with police forces around the UK.⁴⁵ The categories and numbers of incidents that CST recorded in 2018 were as follows:⁴⁶

Abusive behaviour	1300	(79%)
Assault	122	(7%)
Threats	109	(7%)
Damage and desecration	78	(5%)
Antisemitic literature	42	(3%)
Extreme violence	1	(0.1%)

Although the CST figures give a broader view than the police recorded crime figures, CST suggests it is “likely that many, and perhaps even most, antisemitic incidents are not reported either to CST or to the police”.⁴⁷ It noted that the 2018 Fundamental Rights Agency survey found that only 21% of British Jews who had experienced harassment over the previous five years had reported it to the police or any other organisation. CST concluded that:

Despite improvements in reporting, it is to be expected that antisemitic hate crime and hate incidents, like other forms of hate crime, are significantly under-reported. This is particularly the case where the victims are minors; where the incident is considered of ‘lesser’ impact by the victim; and for incidents that take place on social media. Consequently, the statistics contained in this report should be taken as being indicative of general trends, rather than absolute measures of the number of incidents that actually took place.⁴⁸

The Government was asked in a recent parliamentary question what assessment it made of the reasons for an increase in hate crimes towards the Jewish community. Heather Wheeler, Parliamentary Under Secretary at the Ministry for Housing, Communities and Local Government, suggested that the rise could be partially attributable to better recording. However, she acknowledged other factors could also play a role:

Police recorded religiously motivated hate crime has increased in recent years despite a backdrop of a longer-term downward trend in the experience of hate crime overall, according to the Crime

Survey of England and Wales. We know that there have been trigger events for increases in hate crime, such as the EU referendum and the terror attacks in 2017, though data shows that these have been temporary. A significant driver for this overall increase is general improvements in police recording, and through our work with the National Police Chiefs' Council and third-party services such as the Community Security Trust, police are better at identifying whether a crime is a hate crime and victims may be more willing to come forward.⁴⁹

UK Policy

Government Policy

One strand of government policy aimed at tackling antisemitism is the hate crime action plan. This was first published in 2016 and was updated in October 2018.⁵⁰ The October 2018 update described actions the Government had taken to address antisemitism:

Alongside being the first country to adopt the International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance's working definition of antisemitism, we have worked closely with the cross government working group to tackle antisemitism to stay alive to community concerns. We have funded the important work of the Community Security Trust in providing comprehensive support to victims of antisemitism and funded work in schools to tackle prejudice and discrimination among young people. Going forward we will fund the Antisemitism Policy Trust to develop counter-narratives to those that fuel antisemitism, encourage other public bodies which have not already adopted the International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance's definition to do so, and continue to prioritise tackling antisemitism in our policy work.⁵¹

New measures announced in the update included some aimed at tackling hate crime generally, and some that specifically focused on antisemitism, for instance:

- wide-ranging Law Commission review into hate crime—to explore how to make current legislation more effective [...];
- new nationwide public awareness campaign to launch later this autumn designed to educate on what hate crime is;
- extending the Home Office places of worship scheme for a further year to support more religious institutions which are vulnerable to hate attacks;
- improving police response by offering call handlers specialist training on how to support hate crime victims and revamping the True Vision reporting website;
- over £1.5 million of further funding for groups such as the Anne Frank Trust and Kick It Out, which support young people to challenge prejudice and hatred; and
- antisemitism and anti-Muslim roundtables, hosted by ministers, to discuss responses to these issues.⁵²

James Brokenshire, Secretary of State for Housing, Communities and Local Government, said in February 2019 that the “surge in antisemitism online” was “a particular area of concern”.⁵³ He cited CST figures suggesting that the incidence of online antisemitism had risen by more than 50% since 2017, and that almost a quarter of reported incidents had an online association.

The Government published an online harms white paper in April 2019.⁵⁴ This set out plans for a new regulatory framework for online safety to be overseen and enforced by an independent regulator. Companies such as social media platforms and search engines would have a statutory duty of care towards their users. The Government said it would expect the new regulator to establish a code of

practice for companies, which would cover hate crime (among other things).⁵⁵ The Government expected the code of practice to include guidance on what constitutes ‘hateful content’, how companies should support law enforcement investigations and the processes they should have in place to support users.

The Government’s policy on tackling antisemitism in other countries has a human rights focus through the protection of freedom of religion or belief. In July 2018, the Prime Minister appointed Lord Ahmad of Wimbledon as her special envoy on freedom of religion or belief.⁵⁶ The Government said that in this role, Lord Ahmad would demonstrate the UK’s “commitment to religious freedom by promoting inter-faith respect and dialogue internationally”. He would “promote the UK’s firm stance on religious tolerance abroad, helping to tackle religious discrimination in countries where minority faith groups face persecution”.

In a speech in December 2018, Lord Ahmad argued that “the rising tide of antisemitism” and “the issues of rising religious hate crime against minority communities” posed a challenge in the UK and abroad. He said that such “divisive voices and actions” could be defeated “only through collective and collaborative action”.⁵⁷ In an earlier speech at a UN General Assembly event in September 2018, Lord Ahmad stressed the UK’s commitment to stamping out antisemitism and called on the international community to combat it in all its forms.⁵⁸

The Foreign and Commonwealth Office recently published its annual report on its activities to promote human rights and democracy around the world.⁵⁹ As well as work on promoting freedom of religion or belief, this report highlighted the UK’s work on post-Holocaust issues. It described events held to promote Holocaust education and remembrance. It reported that Lord Pickles, the UK’s envoy for post-Holocaust issues, continued to lead the Government’s work on this subject internationally, for example by calling on other countries to adopt the IHRA working definition of antisemitism and by attending meetings on property restitution.

Prosecutions

The Campaign Against Antisemitism (CAA), a charity that works to counter antisemitism, argues that “Britain has one of the strongest legislative frameworks in Europe for fighting hate crime and extremism, but it is not being used”.⁶⁰ It maintains its own register of the number of prosecutions for antisemitic crimes. According to the CAA’s figures, there were two prosecutions in 2018 for antisemitic hate crimes. It argues that: “though antisemitic hate crime has risen to record levels, the list of prosecutions has yet to record more than two dozen prosecutions per annum, out of more than 15,000 hate crimes that are prosecuted annually”. The Ministry of Justice has stated that it does not hold figures on the number of people prosecuted for antisemitic hate crime, as the law does not define an offence specifically of antisemitic hate crime.⁶¹

Equality and Human Rights Commission Investigation into the Labour Party

The Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) announced in March 2019 that, having received a number of complaints regarding antisemitism in the Labour Party, it believed the party may have unlawfully discriminated against people because of their ethnicity and religious beliefs.⁶² It said it was engaging with the Labour Party to give it a chance to respond. In May 2019, the EHRC said it had carefully considered the response it had received from the party and had now decided to open a formal investigation to examine the concerns further.⁶³ The commission noted it was pleased that the Labour Party has committed to fully cooperating with the investigation.⁶⁴

Further Information

- House of Commons Library, [The Contribution of the Jewish Community to the UK](#), 10 June 2019
- House of Commons Library, [Anti-Semitism in Modern Society](#), 19 February 2019
- House of Lords Library, [Holocaust Memorial Day: 27 January 2019](#), 25 January 2019
- House of Commons Library, [General Debate on Anti-Semitism](#), 16 April 2018
- All-Party Parliamentary Group Against Antisemitism [website](#)
- All-Party Parliamentary Group for International Freedom of Religion and Belief [website](#)

¹ International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance, [‘Working Definition of Antisemitism’](#), accessed 7 June 2019.

² *ibid.*

³ *ibid.*

⁴ *ibid.*

⁵ International Holocaust Remembrance Alliance, [‘Working Definitions and Charters’](#), accessed 7 June 2019.

⁶ [HC Hansard, 12 December 2016, col 30WS](#).

⁷ Israeli Ministry of Diaspora Affairs, [‘Annual Reports’](#), accessed 7 June 2019. The reports covering 2016 and 2017 are available in English; the report covering 2018 is published in Hebrew.

⁸ Agence France-Presse, [‘Anti-Semitic Killings in 2018 ‘Highest’ in Decades: Israel’](#), France 24, 27 January 2019.

⁹ *ibid.*

¹⁰ *ibid.*

¹¹ Kantor Center, [Antisemitism Worldwide 2018—General Analysis](#), 1 May 2019.

¹² Kantor Center, [‘Antisemitism Worldwide Report is Released’](#), 1 May 2019.

¹³ Kantor Center, [Antisemitism Worldwide 2018—General Analysis](#), 1 May 2019, p 5.

¹⁴ *ibid.* The UK figures were provided by the Community Security Trust; more detail on these figures is given in the UK section of this briefing.

¹⁵ Fundamental Rights Agency, [Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), December 2018.

¹⁶ Fundamental Rights Agency, [Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism Q&A](#), 10 December 2018. The twelve countries were: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden and the UK.

¹⁷ Fundamental Rights Agency, [‘Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism—Second Survey on Discrimination and Hate Crime Against Jews in the EU’](#), December 2018.

¹⁸ Fundamental Rights Agency, [Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism Q&A](#), 10 December 2018.

¹⁹ Fundamental Rights Agency, [Experiences and Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), December 2018, p 3.

²⁰ European Commission, [Special Eurobarometer 484: Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), January 2019. Eurobarometer is the name given to a public opinion survey conducted on behalf of the European Commission.

²¹ European Commission, [‘Q&A: Eurobarometer Survey on Antisemitism in Europe’](#), 22 January 2019.

²² European Commission, [Special Eurobarometer 484: Perceptions of Antisemitism](#), January 2019, p 6. The nine manifestations of antisemitism people were asked about in the survey were: antisemitic graffiti or vandalism of Jewish buildings or institutions; physical attacks against Jewish people; expressions of hostility and threats towards Jewish people in the street or other public places; antisemitism in the media; antisemitism in political life; antisemitism on the internet, including online social networks; antisemitism in schools and universities; holocaust denial; and desecration of Jewish cemeteries.

²³ European Commission, [‘Q&A: Eurobarometer Survey on Antisemitism in Europe’](#), 22 January 2019.

²⁴ *ibid.*

²⁵ Richard Allen Greene, [‘CNN Poll Reveals Depth of Antisemitism in Europe’](#), CNN, November 2018.

²⁶ ComRes, [‘CNN Anti-Semitism in Europe Poll 2018’](#), 27 November 2018.

²⁷ ComRes, [‘They’ Are Taking Over’](#), 3 December 2018.

²⁸ *ibid.*

²⁹ Home Office, [Hate Crime, England and Wales 2017/18](#), 16 October 2018, p 35. Guidance from the Crown Prosecution Service suggests that antisemitic hate crime is capable of being dealt with either as racist or religious hate crime (House of Commons Library, [Antisemitism in Modern Society](#), 19 February 2019, p 5). However, the Home Office publication did not contain data looking specifically at race hate crimes targeted against victims perceived to be Jewish.

³⁰ Scottish Government, [‘Hate Crime: Availability of Information Recorded by Police in Scotland’](#), 27 February 2019; Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Service, [Hate Crime in Scotland 2017/18](#), June 2018; and Police Service of Northern Ireland, [Incidents and Crimes with a Hate Motivation Recorded by the Police in Northern Ireland, Update to 31 March 2019](#), 7 May 2019.

- ³¹ Home Office, [Hate Crime, England and Wales 2017/18](#), 16 October 2018, p 36.
- ³² *ibid*, p 35.
- ³³ *ibid*, p 8.
- ³⁴ *ibid*, p 35.
- ³⁵ For example, if anti-Muslim graffiti was sprayed on a religious temple of another faith, this would be recorded an offence of racially or religiously aggravated criminal damage and flagged by the respective police force as a religious hate crime against Muslims.
- ³⁶ *ibid*, p 25. This figure relates to all types of hate crime, not just religious hate crime or antisemitic hate crime.
- ³⁷ House of Commons Library, [Hate Crime Statistics](#), 28 March 2019, p 4.
- ³⁸ Home Office, [Hate Crime, England and Wales 2017/18](#), 16 October 2018, p 35.
- ³⁹ *ibid*.
- ⁴⁰ *ibid*.
- ⁴¹ Metropolitan Police, '[Hate Crime Dashboard](#)', accessed 10 June 2019.
- ⁴² Community Security Trust, '[About CST](#)', accessed 10 June 2019.
- ⁴³ Community Security Trust, [Antisemitic Incidents Report 2018](#), February 2019, p 4.
- ⁴⁴ *ibid*, p 10.
- ⁴⁵ *ibid*, p 9.
- ⁴⁶ *ibid*, p 18.
- ⁴⁷ *ibid*, p 11.
- ⁴⁸ *ibid*, p 17.
- ⁴⁹ House of Commons, '[Written Question: Antisemitism](#)', 23 May 2019, 254765.
- ⁵⁰ Ministry of Housing, Communities and Local Government, Home Office and Ministry of Justice, '[Hate Crime Action Plan 2016 to 2020](#)', 16 October 2018.
- ⁵¹ HM Government, [Action Against Hate: The UK Government's Plan for Tackling Hate Crime—'Two Years On'](#), October 2018, p 10.
- ⁵² Ministry of Housing, Communities and Local Government and Home Office, '[Hate Crime Plan Refreshed to Protect Victims and Promote Shared Values](#)', 16 October 2018.
- ⁵³ [HC Hansard, 20 February 2019, col 1525](#).
- ⁵⁴ HM Government, [Online Harms White Paper](#), April 2019, CP 57.
- ⁵⁵ *ibid*, p 68.
- ⁵⁶ Prime Minister's Office and Foreign and Commonwealth Office, '[Lord Ahmad Appointed as PM's Special Envoy to Promote Religious Freedom](#)', 4 July 2018.
- ⁵⁷ Foreign and Commonwealth Office, '[Lord Ahmad Speech: International Human Rights Day 2018](#)', 11 December 2018.
- ⁵⁸ Foreign and Commonwealth Office, '[Lord Ahmad Reaffirms UK Commitment to Stamp Out Antisemitism](#)', 27 September 2018.
- ⁵⁹ Foreign and Commonwealth Office, [Human Rights and Democracy: The 2018 Foreign and Commonwealth Office Report](#), June 2019, Cp 104.
- ⁶⁰ Campaign Against Antisemitism, '[Prosecutions](#)', accessed 11 June 2019.
- ⁶¹ House of Commons, '[Written Question: Antisemitism: Prosecutions](#)', 29 November 2018, 195490.
- ⁶² Equality and Human Rights Commission, '[Antisemitism in the Labour Party: Our Response to Complaints](#)', 7 March 2019.
- ⁶³ Equality and Human Rights Commission, '[Investigation Opened into the Labour Party Following Complaints about Antisemitism](#)', 28 May 2019. Further information about the commission's statutory powers to carry out an investigation under the Equality Act 2006 is available on its '[Inquiries, Investigations and Wider Powers](#)' webpage.
- ⁶⁴ *ibid*.

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