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Perception of Inequalities between the National Majority Group and Minority Groups and Justifications for the Existing Inequalities in Europe: Insights from the RAISE WP4 Survey

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Key findings

The perception of ethnic, religious and origin-based inequalities differed by country, sphere of life, and minority characteristics. This report presents the findings of two survey experiments embedded within the RAISE WP4 survey, which was conducted in six European countries: Belgium, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey. The study investigates how people perceive inequalities between national majority and minority groups, and how they justify the existing inequalities in three spheres of life: the labour market, housing, and policing. The analysis provides rare comparative insights into public perception of inequalities, including the perceived role structural and institutional discrimination play in explaining existing inequalities. The results show that the perception of inequalities and justifications for their presence varied not only by country, but also by minority group and by life sphere.

PERCEPTION OF ETHNIC, RELIGIOUS AND ORIGIN-BASED INEQUALITIES IN EUROPE

Perceived inequality was modest and unevenly distributed across countries. In the Western and Central European countries in the study, there was a general perception that ethnic, religious and origin-based minorities are disadvantaged relative to the majority, but it was not very strong. This perception was stronger in the three Western European countries in the study than in Poland and Hungary. However, the Dutch housing market was an exception, with respondents on average viewing members of the majority as slightly disadvantaged compared to minorities.

Turkey presented a distinct pattern. Perception of inequalities in Turkey diverged from that in the other five countries. Respondents tended to view the majority group as disadvantaged relative to minorities in all three life spheres.

The minority's ethnicity, religion and migration status all independently affected the perception of inequalities. While the exact hierarchy of ethnicities varied by country and life sphere, in most countries, groups described as Roma, Afghan, Syrian and Nigerian were generally considered as more disadvantaged compared to the majority than groups described as Ukrainian or Chinese, with those described as Turk (outside of Turkey), Bosniak and Indian positioned somewhere in between. In all countries except for Turkey, minority groups born abroad were generally perceived as noting greater inequality than those born in the country. However, the perception of inequalities was not affected by whether they were described as having migrated for safety or for better opportunities. When described as Muslim, the minority groups in these countries were perceived as being more disadvantaged compared to the majority than when described as Christian, except for the Dutch housing market, where this difference was not significant. In Turkey, neither minority's ethnicity, religion nor migration status had a significant impact on the perception of inequality relative to the majority group.

Political orientation was related to the perception of inequalities in almost all contexts. In the three Western European states and Poland, right-wing political views were consistently associated with a lower perception of inequality to the disadvantage of minorities in the labour market, housing and policing. In Hungary, political orientation was not a significant predictor of perceived inequalities. In Turkey, in turn, a more conservative worldview was associated with a lower perceived minority advantage.

The perception of inequality was associated with financial security, gender, education and place of residence (yet not everywhere). Of the respondent characteristics studied, financial security was the most consistent predictor of the perception of inequalities based on ethnicity, religion, and origin.

Those who felt more financially secure were more perceptive of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities. Women tended to be more perceptive of such inequalities than men, although this result did not hold in all countries and spheres of life. Furthermore, if significant, perceived disadvantage of minority groups tended to increase with growing level of education and growing locality size.

Outgroup contact and belonging to a minority were less predictive. Outgroup contact was not a significant predictor in every country and sphere but where significant, it was positively related to perceived inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities. Surprisingly, belonging to the minority in question was not consistently related to the perception of inequalities.

JUSTIFICATIONS FOR EXISTING RELIGIOUS, RACIAL, AND ORIGIN-BASED INEQUALITIES

Discrimination was perceived as a likely cause of inequalities. Respondents across the six countries showed a moderate level of support for justifications for religious, racial, and origin-based inequalities pertaining to different types of discrimination. This included support for individual discrimination (e.g. by employers, landlords, or police officers) and institutional discrimination as likely causes of existing inequalities. Respondents also recognised structural discrimination as a likely root of inequalities, and namely side-effect discrimination, where inequality is caused by discrimination in other spheres of life, and past-in-present discrimination, where inequality is caused by earlier discrimination within the same social sphere.

Support for different justifications was moderate and balanced. There were no substantial differences in the level of support for different justifications across countries. In particular, justifications pointing to structural discrimination, which is often harder to spot, were not systematically less supported than other justifications. At the same time, support for any single justification was moderate, suggesting that people did not hold strong opinions on the causes of religious, racial, and origin-based inequalities.

Justification pointing to minority group's fault was least supported, except in policing. In the labour and housing markets, respondents were least likely to attribute inequality to the fault of the minority group. However, in policing, the explanation suggesting that minorities more often break the law or are less familiar with local laws and regulations received the strongest support.

Political orientation was an important predictor of support for different justifications. In the Western and Central European states in the study, respondents with more right-wing political views were less supportive of explanations pointing to discrimination and more supportive of the justification blaming the minority group. By contrast, in Turkey, the trend was reversed: conservative respondents were more supportive of justifications attributing inequality to discrimination and less supportive of the justification pointing to the fault of the minority group.

Surprisingly, education, belonging to a minority and outgroup contact were not consistently related to support for different explanations for inequality. More educated individuals were not necessarily more likely than less educated individuals to endorse discrimination-related explanations of inequality and not less likely to blame minorities. Similarly, outgroup contact and belonging to the minority in question were not consistently related to greater support for justifications pertaining to different types of discrimination.

Gender and life satisfaction mattered but not everywhere. While not observed in every country and sphere, women tended to support justifications pointing to different types of discrimination more strongly than men. Furthermore, people who reported higher levels of life satisfaction were more

likely to attribute inequalities to discrimination than those who reported lower levels of life satisfaction.

Public perception of inequalities was reliant on the context. The RAISE WP4 survey revealed a complex picture of how ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities are perceived and justified across Europe. The observed inter-country and inter-sphere differences point to the need for context-sensitive strategies to raise public awareness of existing inequalities and counteract different forms of discrimination.

1. Introduction

Previous research has provided evidence for the presence of ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities in Europe, with minorities tending to have worse socio-economic outcomes, often referred to as ethnic, Muslim or migrant penalties (Connor and Koenig 2015; Luthra 2013; Kislev 2017; Piccitto, Avola, and Panichella 2025; Cantalini, Guetto, and Panichella 2022; 2023; Borgna and Contini 2014). The socio-economic gaps between minorities and the majority have been explained by various factors, including differences in human capital, cultural differences, more explicit migration effects, receiving country's institutional context or direct discrimination. Previous studies have indeed found discrimination based on ethnic, religious and racial grounds to be present in Europe in various spheres of life: in the labour market (Zschirnt and Ruedin 2016; Quillian et al. 2019; Thijssen et al. 2022; Lippens, Vermeiren, and Baert 2023), housing (Flage 2018; Auspurg, Schneck, and Hinz 2019), education (e.g. Wenz 2020) and other spheres (e.g. Aidenberger and Doehne 2021; Liebe and Beyer 2021; Zhang, Gereke, and Baldassarri 2022). Discrimination may, however, take more covert, structural forms, where inequalities are reproduced through the existing norms, rules, practices and habits, accumulating in time and scope (Bohren, Hull, and Imas 2022; Pager and Shepherd 2008; Williams 2000; Wrench 2016).

An important pathway to counteract existing discrimination and the resultant inequalities between social groups is to increase the awareness of the presence of inequalities and of the fact that they can be the product of the system in which people live. Before undertaking steps that could increase awareness that inequalities are not simply a result of differences between groups, and that there are forms of discrimination that are embedded in structures and institutions of the society, there is a need to study the actual degree of the awareness of inequalities and of their perceived causes in the society. By researching how people perceive ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities in their countries and the role structural factors play in producing them, this report aims to contribute to the existing state of knowledge on the awareness of structural racism and xenophobia in the European context. With it, we aim to deepen the understanding of how members of European societies view the chances of different subgroups of the society, how they justify inequalities experienced by minorities, in particular to what extent they think individual, institutional and structural discrimination play a role in shaping them. Such public perceptions may not come without further social effects, including on social cohesion (Han et al. 2012; Janmaat 2013). One of the underlying mechanisms for such impacts to occur is that beliefs about racial, ethnic, religious and origin-based inequalities and their causes likely shape support for integration and redistribution policies (Alesina, Ferroni, and Stantcheva 2024).

The report is a product of the Horizon Europe-funded project entitled *Recognition and Acknowledgement of Injustice to Strengthen Equality* (RAISE). It draws on data from the online survey (henceforth the RAISE WP4 survey) conducted in six European countries: Belgium, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey (Brunarska et al. 2025). This survey was the core of the project's Work Package 4 (WP4) *Awareness of inequalities and the attribution of it to racism and xenophobia*. The main objective of this WP was to collect and draw conclusions from new survey data on the perception of and justifications for the existing ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities, in particular the extent to which people in the six countries attribute the existing inequalities to structural discrimination. By researching the public perception of the role of different types of discrimination in producing and maintaining inequalities in Europe, we aim to fill in a notable gap in the extant research, which has so far been largely inattentive to this topic in the European context. By explicitly covering the question of the perception of inequalities based on religious grounds, we specifically address the underresearched issue of religious inequalities in Europe.

Perceived discrimination, and perceived inequalities more broadly, have been extensively studied from the perspective of minorities. The majority perspective on the existing inequalities and their sources has been relatively understudied. So far, this has mostly been researched in the US context, where it was focused on racial inequalities, particularly on the white-black divide, which constitutes one of the most relevant social cleavages in the US (Kluegel 1990; Hays, Chang, and Decker 2007; Hunt 2007; Hartmann, Gerteis, and Croll 2009; Croll 2013; Manning, Hartmann, and Gerteis 2015; Smith 2014; Alesina, Ferroni, and Stantcheva 2024). Meanwhile, relatively little is known about the public awareness of and justification for ethnic and racial inequalities in the European context, let alone inequalities based on religious grounds or between members of the receiving population and immigrants. By addressing those research gaps, we contribute to the literature on the perception of inequalities and their perceived causes. Through the RAISE WP4 survey, we aim to gain understanding on how the whole population (both people who do and those who do not identify as minority members on the grounds considered) view ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities and their sources in Europe, assuming that it is the whole population that should recognise and acknowledge structural racism for social change to become possible. Due to the pioneering nature of our research and unique character of the collected data, this report is meant to be an exploratory endeavour, aimed at mapping the public perception of the existing inequalities and their origins in Europe.

The report is based on unique data collected via two survey experiments embedded in the RAISE WP4 survey. The use of an experimental approach to measure people's perception of inequalities, and namely the experimental approach known as factorial survey experiments, allowed us to disentangle the effects of different characteristics of minority groups on respondents' evaluations, and namely: ethnicity, religion and migration status. In other words, we wanted to be able to say, whether, for example, ethnicity and migration status independently influence the extent to which people view a given minority group as (un)equal to the majority. By randomly varying these attributes of the minority in question, we were also able to cover a larger number of groups, decreasing the risk of survey fatigue. This is also why we randomly assigned respondents to three different minority groups when asking them to justify the existing inequalities. By separating the questions of the perception of and the justification for inequalities, and employing a vignette approach, we attempted to minimise the bias that occurs in standard survey questions starting with the assertion that the groups in question have been disadvantaged (Hartmann, Gerteis, and Croll 2009). To this end, we first asked people about their perception of inequalities between the majority group and selected minority groups in three different spheres of life, also letting them express the opinion that it is actually the majority that is disadvantaged. Only then did we present respondents with a description of specific cases, where we claimed inequality to the disadvantage of minority groups to be present, asking them to assess how likely they think it is that the described inequality is due to a specific reason. In this respect, our approach differs from those used in the American studies, where questions about the reasons for inequality have usually been preceded by an assertion that Blacks perform worse than Whites in various spheres of life (e.g. Kluegel 1990; Hunt 2007; Smith 2014; Shelton 2017; Hartmann, Gerteis, and Croll 2009; Croll 2013; Campbell and Schuman 1968; Douds, O'Connell, and Bratter 2019; Nelson and Joselus 2022), and where respondents were rarely given the opportunity to express the viewpoint that inequality occurs to the disadvantage of majority members (for exception, see Neville et al. 2000). Despite these limitations of previous studies, in designing the questions capturing justifications, we built on survey instruments used in the American context (Douds, O'Connell, and Bratter 2019; Kluegel 1990; Hunt 2007; Smith 2014; Shelton 2017; Mo and Conn 2018; Campbell and Schuman 1968; Henry and Sears 2002), though adapting them to fit to the contemporary European setting and to the study of

inequalities based on grounds other than the racial one. We also expanded the list of potential justifications, in an attempt to cover different types of discrimination. By developing an original operationalisation strategy to measure the perception of inequalities and the justifications for them, we bring methodological novelty to the study of the perception of inequalities. We have also measured a range of other variables, in an attempt to demonstrate how beliefs about inequality and its causes vary between different subgroups of the society and how perceived inequality and support for different justifications for the existing inequalities depend on various respondent characteristics.

In the sections that follow, we first present our data and methodological approach. Next, we present the findings from the two experiments, attempting to highlight different patterns in the data. Starting with Experiment 1, we first discuss the differences in how people in the six countries viewed inequality between the majority and different minority groups, and, second, seek predictors of perceived inequality. We then turn to Experiment 2, beginning with the overall patterns in people's evaluation of different justifications for the existing inequalities, and moving on to identifying predictors of support for different justifications.

In analysing our data, we put special emphasis on inter-country differences as well as on differences between the three spheres of life our experimental data cover: the labour market, the housing market and policing. Despite its focus on Europe, the geographical coverage of the RAISE WP4 survey allows comparisons between highly diverse contexts. The studied societies differ with regard to the phase of a migration cycle (Fassmann and Reeger 2012), ethnic, racial and religious diversity, the level of integration of minorities, and the discrimination they face in the society, which likely influenced the public perception of inequalities and of their origins. At the same time, WP4 survey applied the same methodology in all the six countries, making inter-country comparisons possible. This makes it stand out from previous single-country studies.

2. Data and methods

The study draws on individual-level survey data from the RAISE WP4 survey, which was collected in March 2025 from a representative sample of the population aged 18–70 in six countries: Belgium, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey. The survey pooled 12,004¹ respondents in the six countries (approximately 2,000 per country)². Country samples were constructed using quotas based on gender, age, region of residence, and the level of education, in order to match the population structure with regard to these variables, according the latest Eurostat data. The survey was administered with the use of CAWI (Computer-Assisted Web Interviewing) method, based on the existing international online panel of people who participate in surveys for incentives. The fieldwork was outsourced to Ipsos – a renowned research company experienced in conducting large-scale international surveys and managing its own international Internet panel iSay, covering all six RAISE countries (see *Ipsos Final technical report* for more details on the data collection process)³. The questionnaire was initially developed in English⁴ and was later translated into the seven languages (Belgian French and Flemish Dutch in Belgium). In designing the study, particular emphasis was placed on comparability across countries. This was achieved by paying special attention to the terms used in the English questionnaire to ensure they apply equally well to all contexts, by careful translation of the English questionnaire into the national languages, and by using the same survey platform (which was ensured by fielding the study on one international internet panel). The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Centre of Migration Research at the University of Warsaw (approval no. CMR/EC/VI_2/2023).

The survey included two built-in factorial survey experiments (Auspurg and Hinz 2015), which were developed as part of the Work Package 4 of the RAISE project (Experiments 1 and 2), as well as another experiment (Experiment 3), which was developed as part of WP7 of the RAISE project. Such experiments enable the evaluation of the effect of systematically changing the object of people's judgment through randomisation (Mutz 2011). Randomisation was performed independently in each experiment and in each country. Experiments 1 (on the perception of inequalities) and Experiment 2 (on the perceived causes of inequalities) were placed relatively early in the questionnaire in order to avoid bias due to prior questions. They were preceded by several simple warm-up questions that were unrelated to the content of the experiments and/or were needed to establish the sampling quotas. This report discusses the results of Experiments 1 and 2.

We run all analyses on weighted data, using post-stratification weights accounting for both the marginal quotas for region of residence and education, and the cross quotas for age and gender combined. This ensures that the samples reflect the studied populations in terms of these variables.

¹ To ensure comparability between different parts of the report, we excluded respondents who reported gender other than male or female (n=35) from our final estimation sample (their number in the national samples was too small to allow reliable estimates).

² N=2,001 in Belgium, N= 2,000 in Germany, N=2,000 in Hungary, N=2,001 in the Netherlands, N=2,000 in Poland and N=2,002 in Turkey.

³ Ipsos report is part of the replication package for all the analyses presented in the current report, allowing the recreation of all the operations conducted on the original survey data available on the osf.io platform (doi: [10.17605/OSF.IO/V8YE7](https://doi.org/10.17605/OSF.IO/V8YE7)).

⁴ For the original English-language questionnaire, see RAISE Deliverable 4.2 (Brunarska et al. 2024). The questionnaire is also part of the replication package on osf.io (see previous footnote).

Experiment 1: Perception of inequalities

In Experiment 1, we aimed to measure the public perception of ethnic, religious and immigrant status-based inequalities between the majority group and different minority groups. To this end, we used multidimensional vignettes (profiles), which enabled us to simultaneously vary three different attributes of a minority group that we wanted the respondent to compare against the majority group, and estimate their relative causal effect on our variable of interest – the perception of inequalities based on ethnic, religious and migration-based grounds. By randomly varying these attributes, we ensured that the differences in the respondents' perceptions were solely due to the experimental manipulations (Hainmueller, Hopkins, and Yamamoto 2014; Mutz 2011).

Each respondent was asked to rate questions on the perception of inequalities in three different spheres of life (the labour market, housing market and policing) three times – for three different minority profiles. These profiles were different combinations of categories of three attributes: ethnicity⁵, religion, and migration status – an immigrant status (birthplace) combined with a reason for immigrating (see Table 1). We selected nine ethnic groups that were used in each country: *Roma*, *Afghans*, *Chinese*, *Syrians*, *Ukrainians*, *Turks* (or *Turkmens* in Turkey), *Bosniaks*, *Indians* and *Nigerians*. The religion attribute was represented by three different categories: *Christian*, *Muslim* and *non-religious*. Finally, the third attribute comprised three categories: *have lived in [country]⁶ since birth*, *came to [country] to make their lives better* and *came to [country] to save their lives*. For the selection of ethnic groups, we went for a double-comparative design: a combination of a single-destination multi-group design and a single-origin-multiple-destination design (Di Stasio and Lancee 2020; Lancee 2021). We have initially considered selecting functionally equivalent groups, which however proved complicated with the six countries studied. We therefore prioritised direct equivalence, selecting the same groups in each country (with the exception of Turks, who were replaced with Turkmens in Turkey). As we wanted to disentangle the effects of ethnicity from the effect of religion (Heath and Martin 2013; Di Stasio and Lancee 2020; Helbling and Traunmüller 2020; Yemane 2020), we prioritised religiously heterogeneous ethnic groups. Given our focus on Christian vs. Muslim populations, we selected several groups that can be associated with both religions, such as Syrians, Bosniaks and Nigerians. We refrained from including groups that might be considered politically controversial in the countries studied, such as Kurds in Turkey or Russians, for fear that their inclusion might bias the results. To avoid implausible vignettes or restrictions imposed on the combination of ethnicity and reason for immigrating, we prioritised groups whose members were likely to have come as refugees.

Table 1. Multifactorial design of Experiment 1: attributes and attribute categories

Attributes		Attribute categories
x1	ethnicity	1 = Roma
		2 = Afghans
		3 = Chinese
		4 = Syrians
		5 = Ukrainians
		6 = Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)

⁵ Ethnicity was operationalised by nationality to facilitate recognition of the groups among respondents. In some cases, a given national group is composed of numerous ethnic groups (for instance, Afghans may be e.g. Pashtuns, Tajiks, Hazaras or Uzbeks; Chinese – the Han Chinese but also e.g. Zhuang, Hui, Manchus, Uyghurs or Miao; the same concerns also Indians and Nigerians).

⁶ Words and phrases in square brackets were exchanged for a country-specific content in each country.

		7 = Bosniaks
		8 = Indians
		9 = Nigerians
x2	religion	1 = Christian
		2 = Muslim
		3 = non-religious
x3	migration status:	1 = have lived in [country] since birth
	immigrant status & reason	2 = came to [country] to make their lives better
	for immigrating	3 = came to [country] to save their lives

With such a design, the full factorial, resulting from each possible combination of the attribute categories, amounted to 81 different configurations of the three attributes (9x3x3). While we did not impose any restrictions on the possible combinations of ethnicity and migration status (birthplace and reason for immigrating), in order to prevent invalid assessments (Auspurg and Hinz 2015), in each country, we excluded the following three least plausible combinations of ethnicity and religion: Muslim Ukrainians, Christian Afghans, and Christian Turks. This resulted in 72 different profiles. With such a small vignette universe, we were able to use the full factorial with restrictions (i.e. there was no need to draw a vignette-sample, Kleinewiese 2022; Su and Steiner 2020). Since we wanted each respondent to rate three different profiles, we split the 72 vignettes into 24 sets of three vignettes (see Table A1 in the Appendix for an overview of our experimental sets). Each respondent was randomly assigned to a 3-profile set, with the order of profiles within a set randomised to eliminate the potential order effects (the order was constant across the three spheres of life though). To generate the sets, we used blocks generated by the SAS %MktEx macro (Kuhfeld 2010)⁷.

Each respondent evaluated three different vignettes in three spheres of life, amounting to nine evaluations in total and allowing for comparisons within subject, between subject and between spheres. Within each sphere, we asked respondents to indicate their perception of existing inequalities between the majority group in the country and a minority group described by a particular profile. To this end, each respondent was presented with three short descriptions (profiles) that read as follows (the underlined parts were randomly varied):

Diverse people live in [country]. Among them are, for example, Syrians who are Muslim and who came to [country] to save their lives.

Each of these vignettes was followed by a series of three questions:

- 1) Who do you think has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?
- 2) Who do you think has a harder time finding housing?
- 3) Who do you think is more likely to be stopped by the police?

In line with the Auspurg and Hinz's (2015) recommendation, responses to these questions were evaluated on an 11-point scale, with labelled ends and a midpoint.⁸ On this scale, 0 represented the greatest inequality to the disadvantage of a majority group, 5 represented no inequality, and 10 represented the greatest inequality to the disadvantage of a given minority group. The use of such a

⁷ We used SAS OnDemand for Academics – SAS Studio, <https://welcome.oda.sas.com/>.

⁸ The midpoints of the respective response scales were labelled in the following manner: Syrians who are Muslim and who came to [country] to save their lives have the same chances of finding a job / have the same chances of finding housing / have the same chances of being stopped by the police.

symmetrical scale gave respondents the opportunity to consider the majority group in the country (in most cases their own group) as disadvantaged. For the purpose of further analysis, we recoded the responses to cover the range from -5 to 5, which we found to be less informative for respondents but more useful for analytical and presentation purposes (with 0 representing no inequality).

Experiment 2: Justifications for inequalities

In Experiment 2 of the RAISE WP4 survey, we attempted to measure how people in Europe justify racial, religious and origin-based inequalities they are confronted with. To this end, we presented respondents with cases where a given minority group was described as performing worse than the majority. In operationalising justifications for the existing inequalities, we built on previous studies conducted in the US context that focused on explanations for the Black-White socioeconomic gap. These included studies based on the General Social Survey (Hunt 2007; Kluegel 1990; Shelton 2017; Smith 2014) and Portraits of American Life Study (Douds, O'Connell, and Bratter 2019). In these studies respondents could attribute the Black disadvantage to factors such as discrimination, innate ability to learn, education opportunities, and motivation/willpower. We were also inspired by studies on causal attributions for racial or ethnic inequality based on data from the American National Election Study (Campbell and Schuman 1968; Gurin, Miller, and Gurin 1980), as well as by studies attributing racial inequality to either external vs. internal factors or structural vs. individualistic vs. cultural explanations (Nelson and Joselus 2022; Croll 2013; Hartmann, Gerteis, and Croll 2009; see also Bailey 2002 for a context other than the US). Our approach can, however, be considered original in that we have: 1) adapted the list of justifications evaluated by the respondents to the contemporary European context, 2) gone beyond the perceived reasons for race-based inequalities, and 3) attempted to cover different types of discrimination, with a special focus on institutional and structural discrimination.

In Experiment 2, respondents were presented with three short vignettes (one for each sphere of life, similarly as in Experiment 1: the labour market, housing market, and policing), each describing the existing inequalities between members of the majority group and a particular minority group. The minority group was randomly selected from the following groups:

- *people of different [skin colour or race]⁹ than most [country's majority group];*
- *people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group];*
- *people of foreign origin.*

Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the three minority groups, which were kept constant across the three spheres of life.

The vignettes in the respective spheres took the following form:

- *A company in [country] employs diverse people. Among them are people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]. Members of this group earn less and have worse jobs than most of the company's [country majority group's] employees.*

⁹ To account for the country context, this phrase was replaced with *ethnicity or race* in Hungary and Turkey, *skin colour* in Germany, and *race or skin colour* in the Belgian French questionnaire. The question on how to capture racial differences was a subject of discussion within the entire WP4 team and, while controversial, we decided to use the term *race* in the contexts other than Germany (in which it has strong historical connotations and cannot be used).

- *A recent study conducted in a [country's] city showed that it takes longer for people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group] to find housing in a good neighbourhood.*
- *A recent study conducted in a [country's] city suggested that people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group] are more often stopped by the police.*

Since the vignettes referred to a fictitious company and fictitious studies, respondents were debriefed at the end of the survey.

Each vignette was followed by the following question: *What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?*, with responses evaluated on an 11-point scale, where 0 = 'not at all likely' and 10 = 'very likely'. This question had seven different endings, each referring to a different justification that people might give for the situation described in the vignettes. The justifications selected covered different types of discrimination: individual, institutional, and structural, as well as explanations that did not point to any form of discrimination.

Individual discrimination, defined as exclusionary actions or differential treatment based on personal racism, prejudice and negative stereotypes, was captured by the following items in the respective spheres:

- *employers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate*
- *landlords and real estate agents are prejudiced against this group and discriminate*
- *police officers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate.*

Institutional discrimination was defined as contemporary policies and practices of dominant institutions based on laws, norms, rules that determine access to resources and by intention have a differential and exclusionary impact on members of a subordinate group (Burns 2011; Pincus 1996). This concept was operationalised by a pair of items in each sphere, referring either to more specific rules or to broader policy:

- *the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in this group are often not recognised*
- *existing regulations make renting housing to immigrants in this group more complicated due to additional formalities*
- *the police have a policy to check this group more*

for the more specific rules, and

- *existing regulations favour majority members (in both the labour and housing markets)*
- *the police are more lenient with the majority members (in the policing example)*

for the broader policy.

Structural discrimination was conceptualised as the norms, rules, practices, habits and expectations that reproduce inequalities, which accumulate in time and scope. This can be due to either earlier discrimination within the same social sphere (past-in-present discrimination) or due to discrimination in (an)other social sphere(s) (side-effect discrimination) (Bohren, Hull, and Imas 2022; Pager and Shepherd 2008; Williams 2000; Wrench 2016).

Past-in-present discrimination was operationalised in the following ways:

- *members of this group were unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult for them to work their way out of lower-paid jobs*
- *this group has been unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult to work their way out of worse neighbourhoods*

- *due to unfair treatment in the past, this group has tended to be stopped by the police more often and the association of being a suspect has stuck.*

Side-effect discrimination within the respective sphere was operationalised as follows:

- *this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in access to child care, which makes it harder for them to get better jobs*
- *this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in the labour market, and thus tends to have worse paid and less stable jobs, which makes it harder for them to find housing*
- *this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, when looking for housing, and thus tends to live in worse neighbourhoods where it is more common to be stopped by the police.*

The two remaining justifications that do not directly imply discrimination related either to structural differences between groups – without specifying the reasons for these differences, namely:

- *members of this group may not have the necessary skills or knowledge*
- *members of this group may not have the skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing in [country]*
- *members of this group may not have knowledge about the local laws and regulations*

or to members of the minority group being responsible for the situation described in a vignette – captured by the following items:

- *members of this group are not trying hard enough* (in the case of the labour and housing markets)
- *members of this group more often break the law* (for policing).

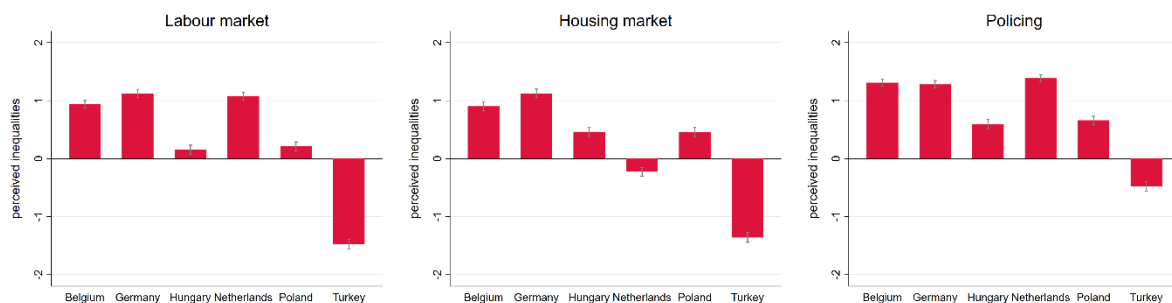
In the sections that follow, we first present the basic descriptive statistics for the variables measuring the perception of and justifications for inequalities, and examine their distribution across the main population subgroups. Next, we run models that allow us to identify the determinants of the perception of and the justification for inequalities. In doing so, we explore cross-country differences, and show how the perception of inequalities and the justification for inequalities differ between the countries studied. The potential predictors included respondent gender (0 = *male*, 1 = *female*), age, education level (*primary*, *secondary* or *tertiary*), life satisfaction (1 = *very dissatisfied*, 5 = *very satisfied*), financial security (1 = *with great difficulty*, 6 = *very easily*), outgroup contact (0 = *none*, 4 = *most of them*), political orientation (0 = *the left*, 10 = *the right*), minority status (0 = *no*, 1 = *yes*) and locality type (*rural area or village*, *small or medium-sized town*, *large town or city*). For the definitions of, and summary statistics for, all the variables included in the analysis, see Table A2 in the Appendix.

3. Perception of inequalities

3.1. How people perceive inequalities?

We start from discussing the findings from Experiment 1, looking at the mean level of perceived inequality between the majority group and minorities included in the experiment – across all attribute categories (categories of ethnicity, religion and migration status). Figure 1 shows that, out of the six populations studied, respondents in Germany, the Netherlands and Belgium were on average most perceptive of inequality to the disadvantage of minority members in the labour market and policing. However, mean values were close to 1 (where 0 means equality and only 5 means minorities definitely have a harder time finding a job or are definitely more likely to be stopped by the police), meaning that, on average, people in these countries considered minorities to be only slightly disadvantaged relative to majority members. In the housing market, the same was true for Germany and Belgium, while Dutch respondents, on average, found minorities to be slightly advantaged relative to majority members. In Hungary and Poland, the mean perception of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities in the three spheres of life was generally weaker than in Germany and Belgium¹⁰. Turkish respondents, in turn, on average, perceived Turks to be disadvantaged compared to minorities in all spheres, with inequality perceived to be greater in the labour and housing markets than in policing.

Figure 1. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minorities by sphere of life



Note: Mean of all responses to the respective questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles defined by three attributes: ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across all attribute values. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

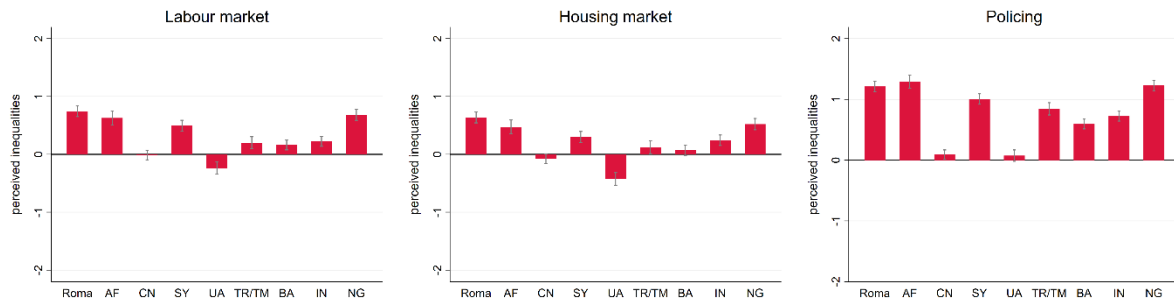
Next, we focus on perceived inequalities between the majority group and selected minority groups depending on the characteristics of the minority groups included in our experimental manipulation. First, we present the results for all the six RAISE countries combined, to later disaggregate the results by country to investigate inter-country differences. This disaggregated approach is important since different categories may constitute a reference level in each country. In particular, Turkey differs from the remaining countries in terms of which religious groups are considered as outgroups to the majority and in terms of social distance towards different ethnic groups.

¹⁰ By discussing the findings, we test each time if the reported values (see error bars on bar plots) and/or differences were significantly different from 0. However, we do not provide the test statistics in order to make the report more accessible to less statistically-literate readers. Interested readers might consult the replication code enabling to produce the respective statistics.

Ethnicity as an important factor driving inequalities

We begin with looking at ways people perceived inequalities between the majority group and different ethnic minorities¹¹ across different spheres and countries. Figure 2 shows perceived inequalities for all six countries combined, differentiating between ethnic groups and the three spheres of life covered by Experiment 1: the labour market, the housing market and policing.

Figure 2. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and selected ethnic minorities by sphere of life



Note: Mean of all responses for a given ethnicity to the respective questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of migration status and religion. Country codes on x axis stand for different nationalities, not countries. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

It shows a similar pattern of results for the perception of inequalities in the labour and the housing markets. On average, people in the six countries viewed Roma, Afghans, Nigerians and Syrians as being the least equal (most disadvantaged) to majority members in these spheres. Moreover, they also found that Turks (Turkmens in Turkey) and Indians have a harder time than majority members finding a job or housing in the country (the same applied to Bosniaks in the labour market). Meanwhile, Ukrainians were perceived as having an advantage over the majority group in both the labour and the housing markets. Moreover, Chinese were perceived as having the same chances of finding a job and housing as majority group. Ukrainians were also perceived as having the same chances of being stopped by the police as majority members. The remaining eight groups were considered to be disadvantaged compared to the majority in this regard (though this was only marginal for Chinese). Overall, respondents in the six countries tended to perceive greater inequality to the disadvantage of ethnic minorities in policing than in the other two spheres. It is important to note again, however, that most of the means did not exceed the value of 1, meaning that, on average, respondents in the six countries did not perceive inequality between the majority and different ethnic minorities to be high in the spheres of life studied.

We now turn to inter-country differences. Figure 3 shows the perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and selected ethnic minorities by country. It demonstrates a similar

¹¹ The differences described should not be interpreted as differences between ethnic groups as such, given that the actual composition of these groups by religion and/or migration status in a given country may differ from what respondents in our vignettes were exposed to. Each ethnicity in the experiment was described as Christian in about one-third of the vignettes, as Muslim in about one-third, and as non-religious in the remaining one-third, although in reality, the majority of members of a given ethnicity may belong to one of the three categories (or even a different category, not included in the vignettes, as in the case of Indians, for example).

pattern of results in Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands, and a similar pattern in Poland and Hungary. Residents of the former three countries viewed all ethnic minorities as disadvantaged in the labour market compared to majority members (with Chinese and Ukrainians being considered as the least disadvantaged). Residents of Poland and Hungary, in turn, viewed Roma, Afghans, Syrians and Nigerians as having a harder time finding a job in their labour markets, while Ukrainians were considered relatively advantaged (the same applied to Chinese in Hungary). The remaining groups (Turks, Indians, Bosniaks, and Chinese in Poland) were considered equal to majority members in this regard. In Turkey, respondents viewed all ethnic groups included in the minority profiles as having an advantage over Turks in the labour market – i.e. as being able to find a job more easily than Turks, regardless of ethnicity. Moreover, Turkey noted less diversity in perceived inequalities by ethnicity than the other countries studied.

Figure 3. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and selected ethnic minorities by country

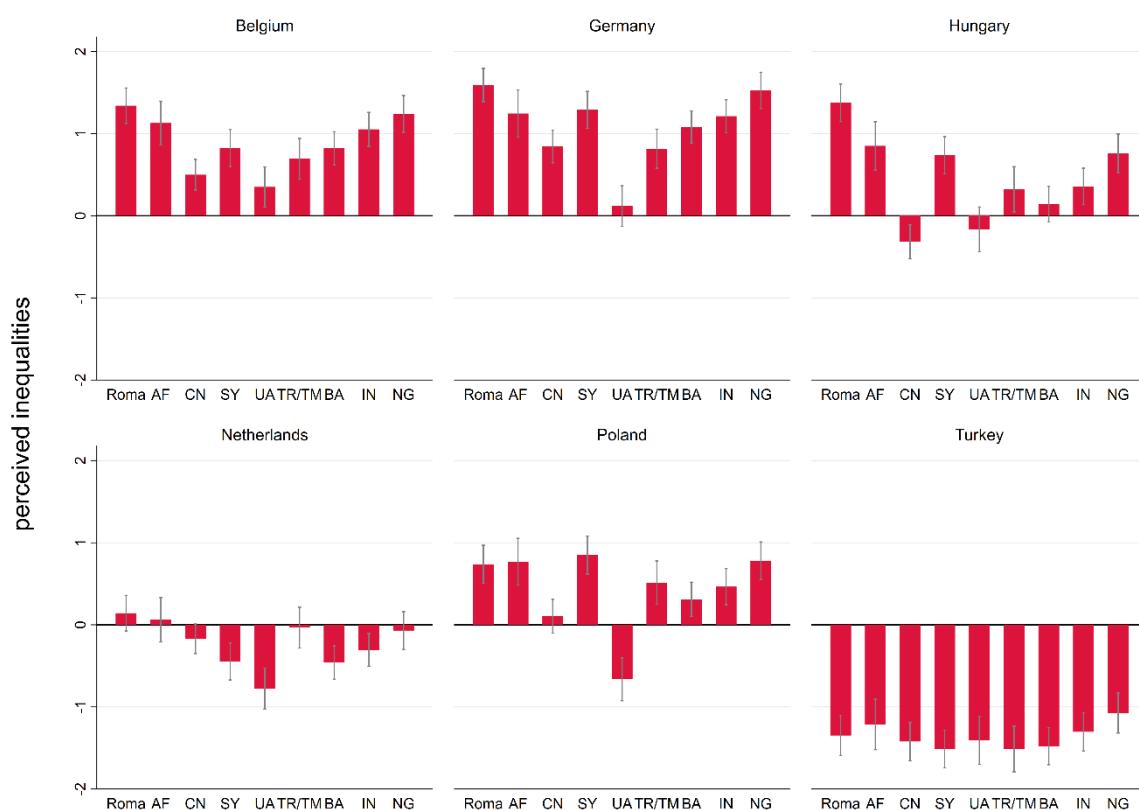


Note: Mean of all responses for a given ethnicity to the question: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding a job' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of migration status and religion. Country codes on x axis stand for different nationalities, not countries. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 4 shows how respondents perceived inequalities in the housing market. The Turkish subsample stood out again with the uniform pattern of perceived inequality to the disadvantage of Turks, regardless of the ethnic minority group assessed by respondents. As in the labour market, Hungary and Poland showed a similar pattern, with all ethnic groups, apart from Ukrainians, Chinese, and Bosniaks in Hungary, considered as having a harder time finding housing than the majority

group. Polish respondents, on average, assessed Chinese as having the same chances of finding housing as Poles, while considered Poles to have a harder time finding housing than Ukrainians. Hungarian respondents, in turn, on average, found Chinese as relatively advantaged and considered Ukrainians and Bosniaks as being equal to Hungarians in this regard. The distribution of responses in Belgium and Germany again looked similar, with the same ethnic groups perceived as the most and the same groups perceived as the least unequal to the majority as in the labour market. Residents of both countries saw all ethnic groups included in the profiles as facing more hurdles in the housing search than the natives. The only exception was Ukrainians in Germany who were considered to be equal to Germans in this regard. Surprisingly, given the similarity with Belgium and Germany noted in the labour market, people in the Netherlands either saw minorities as equal to the natives in terms of housing search efforts (this was true for Roma, Afghans, Chinese, Turks and Nigerians) or saw majority members as having a harder time finding housing than the minorities (this was visible for Ukrainians, Syrians, Bosniaks and Indians).

Figure 4. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and selected ethnic minorities by country



Note: Mean of all responses for a given ethnicity to the question: who has a harder time finding housing?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding housing' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of migration status and religion. Country codes on x axis stand for different nationalities, not countries. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Finally, Figure 5 depicts perceived inequalities in policing, depending on the ethnicity of the minority and the country. It shows a similar pattern to that seen in the labour market, with the three Western European countries showing a similar picture and the two Central European countries also noting a

similar pattern. Respondents in the former three countries viewed all minorities as being more likely to be stopped by the police than members of the majority. The smallest disproportion was again found in the case of Chinese and Ukrainian ethnicities. In Poland and Hungary, respondents perceived minorities as being more likely to be stopped by the police, except for Chinese and Ukrainians, who were either considered as equally likely to be stopped by the police as the majority (Chinese in Poland and Ukrainians in Hungary) or even considered less likely (Chinese in Hungary and Ukrainians in Poland) to experience police stopping than the majority. Turkish respondents viewed minorities as being less likely to be stopped by the police, except for Afghans and Nigerians. The mean scores for these two groups were not significantly different from 0, meaning that they were considered equal to Turks in this respect.

Figure 5. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and selected ethnic minorities in being stopped by the police by country



Note: Mean of all responses for a given ethnicity to the question: who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of being stopped by the police' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of migration status and religion. Country codes on x axis stand for different nationalities, not countries. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Minority members born abroad perceived as facing more inequality than those born in the country

Next, we focus on the role of a migration status in shaping perceptions of inequality between the majority and minority groups (Figure 6). On average, people in the six RAISE countries perceived minority members born abroad as facing more inequality than those born in the country. Moreover, additional tests showed that the reason minority members had come to the country – to save their

lives or to make their lives better – did not matter for the perception of inequality relative to the majority group. These observations held for all spheres of life considered.

Figure 6. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups with different migration status by sphere of life



Note: Mean of all responses for a given migration status to the respective questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and religion. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

As regards inter-country differences, the migration status of the minorities did not influence how respondents in Turkey and Hungary viewed inequality between the majority group and minorities in the labour market (Figure 7). In contrast, respondents in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and Poland, perceived minorities with an immigrant status as more unequal to the natives in terms of hardships in their job search than minorities born in the country, regardless of the reason for immigrating. In Poland and Hungary, minority groups that have lived in the country since birth were on average considered equal to the majority in terms of job search. The same applied to minorities that came as economic migrants in Hungary (those who came as refugees were considered slightly disadvantaged relative to the majority).

Figure 7. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups with different migration status by country



Note: Mean of all responses for a given migration status to the question: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding a job' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and religion. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

In the housing market (Figure 8), migration status proved irrelevant to perceptions of inequality in Turkey and the Netherlands. In Belgium and Germany, economic migrants were perceived as having harder time finding housing than minorities born in the country. However, minorities who came as refugees were not perceived differently than either economic migrants or minorities who had lived in Belgium or Germany since birth. In Poland and Hungary, again, minorities who came as migrants were perceived as being more unequal (disadvantaged) to the majority than those who were born in the country. Nevertheless, the reason for their arrival to the country did not matter for how (un)equal they were perceived to be in the housing market.

Figure 8. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups with different migration status by country



Note: Mean of all responses for a given migration status to the question: who has a harder time finding housing?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding housing' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and religion. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

With regard to police stops, as in the labour market, the migration status of the minority did not affect the perception of inequality between the majority and minority groups in Hungary and Turkey (Figure 9). In Belgium and the Netherlands, on average, migration status increased the perception that minorities are more unequal to the majority, but no difference was noted depending on the reason for immigration. German respondents found minorities who had come to save their lives to be more disadvantaged in terms of police stops than those who had lived in Germany since birth. However, no difference was recorded between migrant minorities who had come as refugees and those who had come as economic migrants. In Poland, groups who had come to the country to make their lives better were considered as more disadvantaged in terms of police stops than groups who had lived in Poland since birth.

Figure 9. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups with different migration status in being stopped by the police by country

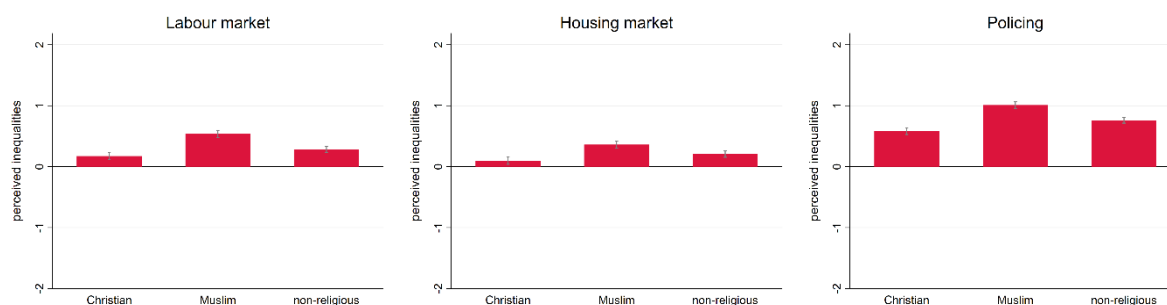


Note: Mean of all responses for a given migration status to the question: who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of being stopped by the police' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and religion. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Muslim groups perceived as more unequal to the majority (in countries where Islam is a minority religion)

Finally, we looked at how minority group's religion affected the perception of inequalities between the majority group and selected minority groups. Figure 10 shows that in the six countries studied, on average, minority groups were considered to be most unequal with the majority when they were described as following Islam, and also more unequal when they were described as non-religious than when they were described as Christian. This pattern was consistent across all three spheres of life covered by the experiment. However, these averages were naturally distorted by the fact that the scores presented in Figure 10 are for the pooled Turkish data and the data from the remaining five countries. Given the different reference levels (religion of the majority group), we should look at the results disaggregated by country.

Figure 10. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups by sphere of life: the role of minority group's religion



Note: Mean of all responses for a given religious status to the respective questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and migration status. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 11 shows that in the labour market, respondents in all countries but Turkey viewed Muslim minorities as the most unequal to the majority. In Hungary and the Netherlands, non-religious minority groups were considered as more disadvantaged in the labour market than Christian minority groups. In Belgium, Germany and Poland, however, respondents on average did not report any difference in inequality between Christian and non-religious minorities. At the same time, Christian minority groups in Poland and Hungary were on average considered equal to the majority group in the labour market. The same applied to non-religious minority groups in Poland. In Turkey, religion did not seem to matter at all, with minority groups described in the profiles considered to have equally greater chances of finding a job in the Turkish labour market than Turks, regardless of whether they were described as Muslim, Christian or non-religious.

Figure 11. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups by country: the role of minority group's religion



Note: Mean of all responses for a given religious status to the question: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding a job' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and migration status. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

The same pattern of results was also visible in the housing market (Figure 12), with the exception of the Netherlands and Hungary. In the Netherlands, respondents perceived Christian minorities to be as unequal with (advantaged to) the majority as non-religious minorities, with Muslim minorities being slightly less unequal (less advantaged). However, all minorities, regardless of religion, were still considered to be statistically significantly more advantaged compared to the Dutch. In Hungary, in contrast to the labour market, the average perception of inequality to the disadvantage of Christian minorities was not statistically different from the one to the disadvantage of non-religious minorities.

Figure 12. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups by country: the role of minority group's religion



Note: Mean of all responses for a given religious status to the question: who has a harder time finding housing?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of finding housing' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and migration status. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

The perception of inequalities between the majority and minority groups in policing (Figure 13), depending on the religion of the minority group, also followed the pattern observed in the labour market (cf. Figure 11). The only exception was Belgium, where on average respondents perceived non-religious minorities as being more unequal with the majority than Christian minorities with regard to their chances of being stopped by the police.

Figure 13. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in being stopped by the police by country: the role of minority group's religion



Note: Mean of all responses for a given religious status to the question: who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances of being stopped by the police' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Minority profiles are defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of ethnicity and migration status. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Readers interested in exploring the effects of ethnicity, religion and migration status for each sphere and country can study the corresponding 18 plots in the Appendix (Figures A1–A18). Examining each figure across the three rows (religion), three columns (migration status) or bars (ethnicities) allows seeing how the change in one of the attributes while holding the two other constant changes the perception of inequality. Another way of summarising the findings from Experiment 1 by accounting for all attributes simultaneously is offered in Figure 14. It presents the results of multilevel OLS regression, with profiles clustered in respondents and profile sets controlled for. The reference levels for the attributes were *Ukrainians* for ethnicity, *Christians* for religion, and *lived since birth* for migration status.

Given that not all of the respondent replies indicated minority disadvantage or equality, when describing and interpreting the results, one has to distinguish between inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities (advantage of the majority) and inequalities to the advantage of minorities (disadvantage of the majority). By such a symmetrical construction of the response scale, a positive coefficient means a positive relationship with perceived inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities (in case of Turkey, for example, this takes the form of a negative relationship with

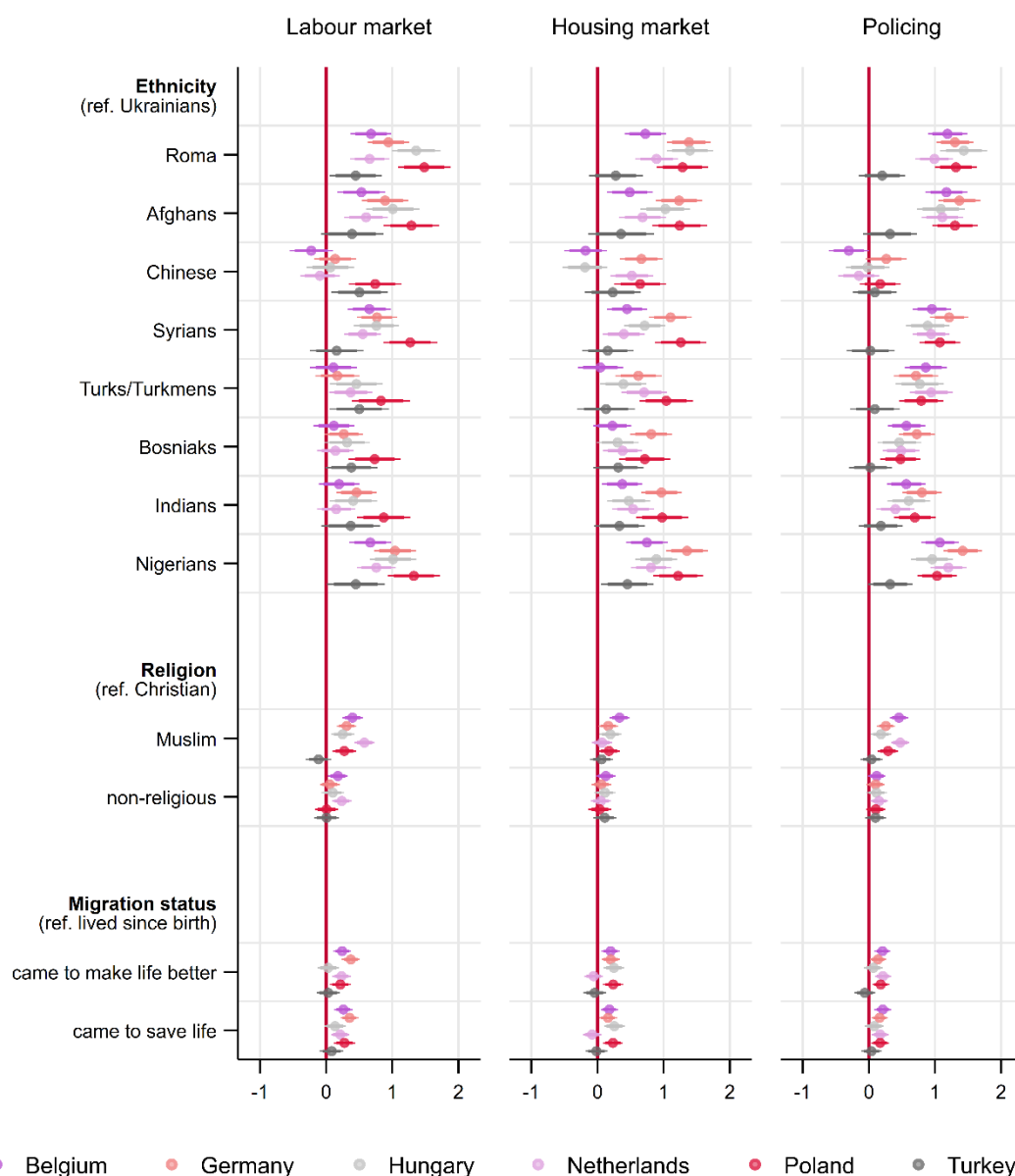
perceived inequalities to the advantage of minorities). Therefore, a description of the coefficient in terms of the relationship between a given variable and perceived inequalities (without specifying the direction) is not unequivocal – positive on the minority disadvantage side and negative on the minority advantage side.

Ethnicity more predictive of perceptions of inequality than migration status or religion

The pattern of results is somewhat complex when the focus is on the role of ethnicity. In general, it can be concluded that ethnicity of a minority group affected people's perceptions of inequalities, independent of the effect of religion and migration status. Here, we discuss these results for the Ukrainian-other ethnicities comparisons. People of Ukrainian ethnicity proved to be consistently considered as less disadvantaged relative to the majority than other ethnicities by respondents in Poland in all spheres (except for Chinese ethnicity in policing), in Germany in the housing market and in policing, and more advantaged than other ethnicities in Turkey in the labour market (except for Syrian ethnicity) and in the Netherlands in the housing market, religion and migration status held constant¹². People of Ukrainian ethnicity were also consistently considered as less likely to be stopped by the police than other ethnicities included in the study (apart from Chinese ethnicity) in all the countries but Turkey. Some of the inter-group comparison inform the discussion on the perception of racial inequalities. The results show, for example, that people of Nigerian ethnicity were considered as more disadvantaged (or less advantaged, e.g. in Turkey) relative to the majority than people of Ukrainian ethnicity in all countries and spheres studied. The picture was, however, less clear-cut, for instance, for people of Chinese ethnicity, who were considered to be as disadvantaged or more disadvantaged than people of Ukrainian ethnicity, except for policing in Belgium, where they were considered less disadvantaged relative to the majority.

¹² Further in the text, we do not always underline the fact that these are not simply comparisons between different ethnic groups but rather the effects of ethnicity disentangled from the effects of religion and migration status. We signal this by speaking about *Ukrainian ethnicity* rather than *Ukrainians*, for example.

Figure 14. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variables based on the questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, respectively, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Responses to individual vignettes clustered in respondents. Vignette sets controlled for. Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A3.1–A3.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata `coefplot` command (Jann 2014).

Figure 15 additionally shows how respondents' evaluations of Nigerian ethnicity differed from evaluations of other ethnicities. In all countries apart from Turkey, people of Nigerian ethnicity were considered to be more disadvantaged relative to the majority than people of Chinese, Ukrainian, Turkish, Bosniak and Indian ethnicity in the labour market. They were also seen as more disadvantaged than people of Syrian ethnicity in Germany, Hungary and the Netherlands.

Respondents also found them to be as disadvantaged as people of Roma and Afghan ethnicity, with the exception of Hungary, where respondents considered groups described as Roma to be more disadvantaged than those described as Nigerian (in fact, respondents in Hungary considered Roma ethnicity to be more disadvantaged in the labour market than any of the ethnicities in the study). In Turkey, when the minority was described as Nigerian, it was found more disadvantaged (less advantaged) than when it was described as Syrian or Ukrainian, but as (dis)advantaged as the other ethnicities in the study. As regards inequalities in the housing market, people of Nigerian ethnicity were considered as having a harder time finding housing than those described as Chinese, Syrian, Ukrainian, Turk (Turkmen in Turkey), Bosniak and Indian – with the exception of Chinese, Bosniak and Indian in Turkey, Turk in the Netherlands and Poland, and Syrian in Hungary and Poland, who were considered as (dis)advantaged in the housing market as people of Nigerian ethnicity (similarly to Roma in all countries in the study but Hungary, and Afghan in all countries but Belgium). In Hungary, Roma were again seen as the most disadvantaged out of the ethnicities included in the study. In policing, people of Nigerian ethnicity were also generally seen as more disadvantaged than those described as Chinese, Syrian, Ukrainian, Turkish, Bosniak and Indian (with the exception of Syrian in Belgium, Hungary and Poland, Turkish in Hungary, and Turkmen and Indian in Turkey). People of Nigerian ethnicity were perceived as disadvantaged as those of Afghan ethnicity in all countries except for Poland, where people of Afghan ethnicity were perceived as more likely to be stopped by the police. Nigerian and Roma ethnicities did not show differences in perceived frequency of police stops, except in Hungary and Poland, where Roma were viewed as more likely to be stopped by the police than Nigerians, and the Netherlands, where Nigerians were viewed as subject to more frequent police stops than Roma¹³.

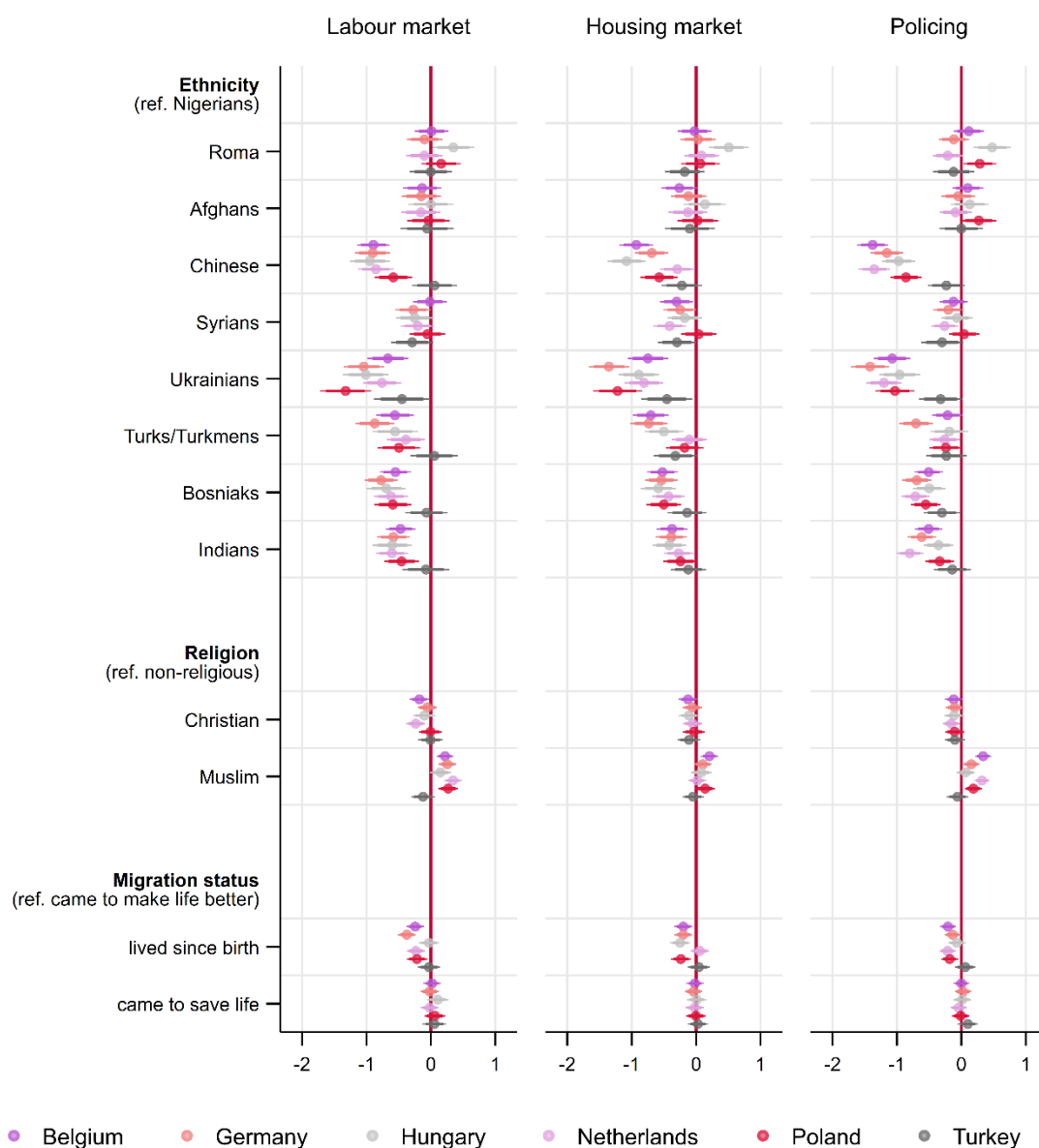
With regard to religion, we see again that the religion of the minority group did not emerge as a significant predictor of perceived inequality between the majority and minority groups in Turkey, regardless of the life sphere (Figure 14). In the remaining five countries studied (apart from the housing market in the Netherlands), when the minority group was described as Muslim, it was perceived as more disadvantaged compared to the majority than when it was described as Christian, ethnicity and migration status held constant. As regards the differences between minorities described as Christian vs. those described as non-religious, when all attributes are accounted for, Christian minorities were only perceived as less disadvantaged relative to the majority than non-religious minorities in Belgium (in all spheres) and the Netherlands (labour market and policing). When non-religious was taken as a reference category (Figure 15), describing a minority as Muslim increased the perceived disadvantage of a minority group relative to the majority in all countries except for Turkey, Hungary for the housing market and policing, and the Netherlands for the housing market.

In Turkey, also the migration status of a minority group had no impact on the perception of inequality (Figure 14). In all spheres of life considered, the fact that a minority was described as having lived in the country since birth made it less disadvantaged relative to the majority than a minority described as having been born abroad in the eyes of respondents in Belgium, Germany and Poland. In the Netherlands this was only the case in the labour market and policing, while in Hungary in the housing market. In the labour market, Hungarian respondents found refugees to be slightly more disadvantaged relative to the majority than the same minorities born in the country, but there was no difference between minorities described as economic migrants and those described as native-born. A change of the reference category to economic migrants (Figure 15) shows that

¹³ While we interpret the coefficients as differences between the reference ethnicity and the remaining ethnicities, it has to be borne in mind that respondents have not directly compared these groups – they compared each minority against the majority group.

describing a group as coming to save their lives rather than to make their life better did not change the perception of inequalities. This result was consistent across all countries and life spheres.

Figure 15. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates, alternative reference levels

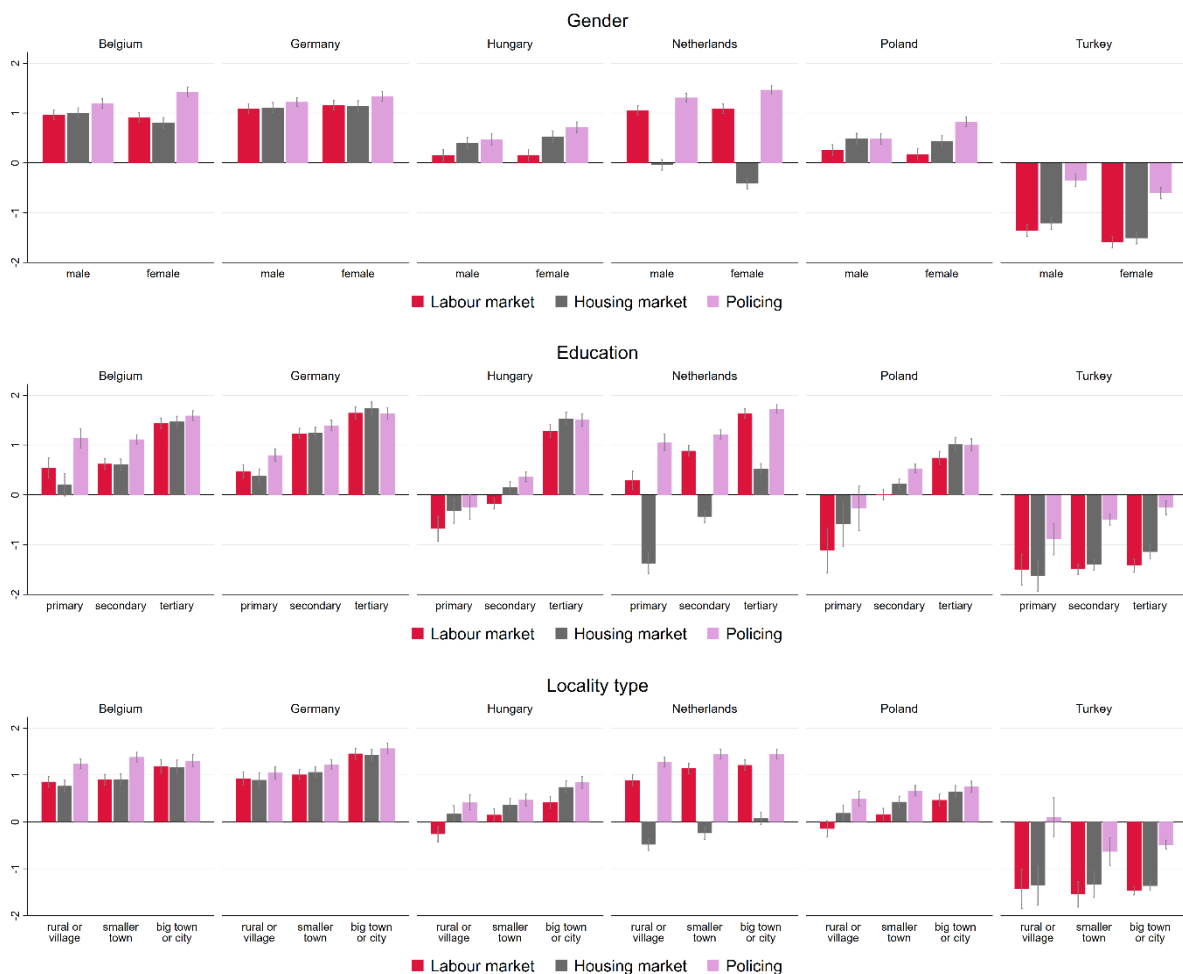


Note: Dependent variables based on the questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 means 'definitely natives', 0 stands for 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances' (marked by the horizontal line), and 5 – 'definitely a given minority profile'. Responses to individual vignettes clustered in respondents. Vignette sets controlled for. Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A4.1–A4.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata coefplot command (Jann 2014).

3.2. Determinants of the perception of inequalities

In this section, we explore how different socio-demographic characteristics influenced how people in the six RAISE countries perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups. We start by presenting average levels of perception among subgroups of the population distinguished by gender, education and type of locality (Figure 16). With regard to gender differences, the first panel of Figure 16 along with additional statistical tests show that in all countries studied except for Germany, women were on average more perceptive of inequalities in policing than men. Meanwhile, in all countries but Turkey, there was no gender difference in the perception of inequalities in the labour market. Regarding perceived inequalities in the housing market, there were no gender differences in Germany, Hungary and Poland. At the same time, women proved to be more perceptive of inequalities (in favour of minorities) in the Netherlands and Turkey, while they were less perceptive of housing market inequalities in Belgium. It is worth noting that in the Netherlands, these were women who drove the overall perception that minorities are advantaged in the housing market relative to the Dutch (men, on average, considered minorities equal to the Dutch in this respect).

Figure 16. Perception of inequalities between the majority group and minority groups by gender, education and type of locality



Note: Mean of all responses to the respective questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, (each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 = 'definitely natives', 0 = 'natives and a given minority profile have the

same chances', marked by the horizontal line, and 5 = 'definitely a given minority profile') by gender, education and locality type, respectively. Minority profiles defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion. The presented scores are averaged across different values of the three attributes. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

When broken down by the level of education (Figure 16, second panel), the perception of inequalities showed a clear trend in all spheres of life studied, with the perception that minorities are disadvantaged compared to the majority increasing with the growing level of education. The only exception was Turkey, where the education attainment had no effect on perceived inequalities in the labour market. The perception that minorities are advantaged compared to Turks in the housing market and policing decreased with the growing level of education. At the same time, in Poland and Hungary respondents with primary education considered minorities to be advantaged relative to the majority in all spheres of life. In the Netherlands, the view that minorities are advantaged relative to the Dutch in the housing market observed in the whole sample was only present among respondents with primary and secondary education. Respondents with secondary education in Poland found minorities equal to the majority in the labour market. This also applied to respondents with primary education in Belgium as regards the housing market and respondents with primary education in Poland as regards policing.

As far as locality size is concerned, it did not affect the perception of inequalities in the labour and housing markets in Turkey and inequalities in policing in Belgium and Poland. Otherwise, the general trend was that the perception that minorities are disadvantaged relative to the majority increased with the size of the locality. Rural respondents in Poland and Turkey found minorities equal to the majority in the labour market and policing, respectively. This also applied to residents of big towns and cities in the Netherlands as regards the housing market.

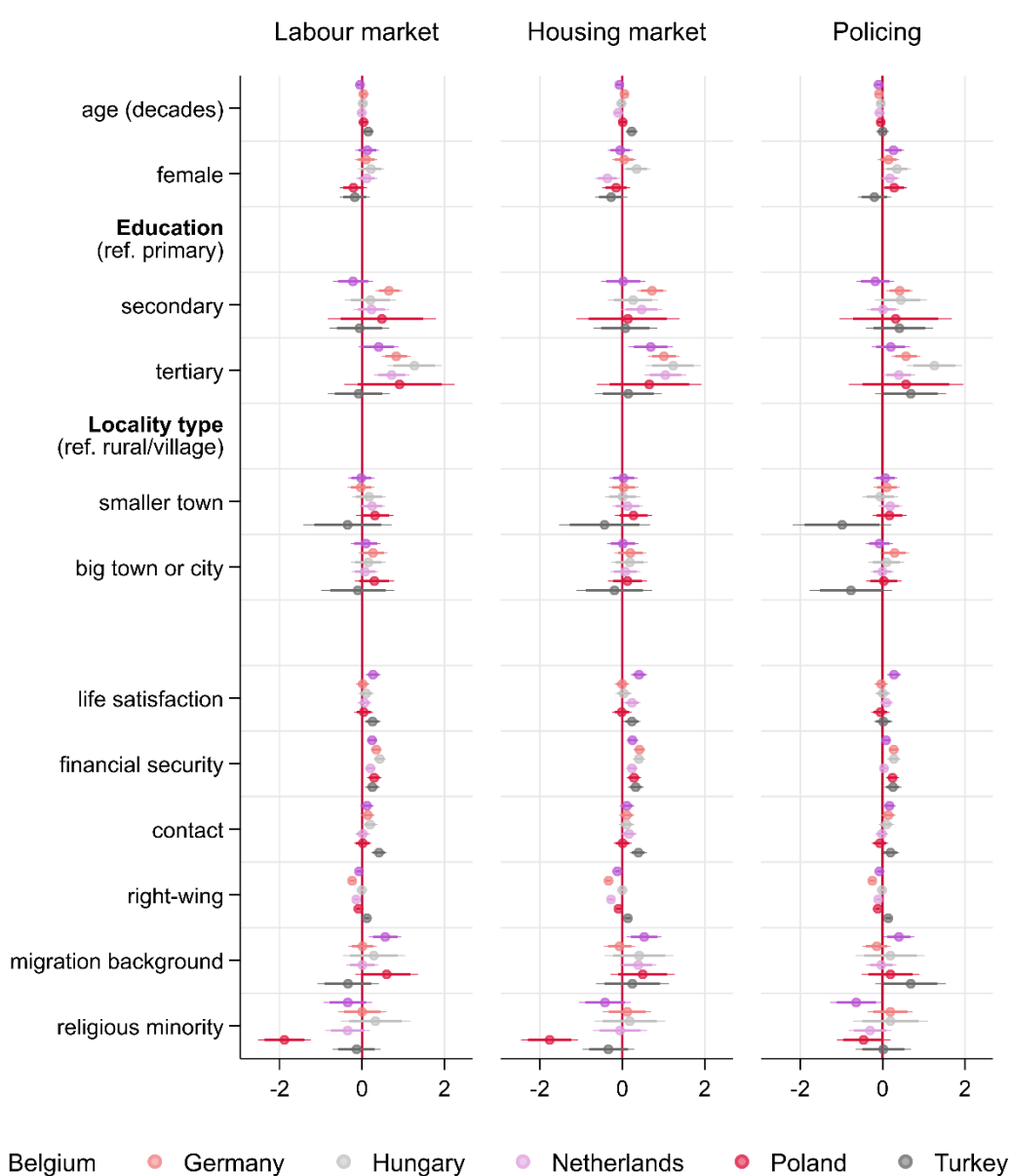
Predictors of perceptions of inequality not consistent across countries

Next, we investigate the role of different respondent characteristics simultaneously, while controlling for minority characteristics. To this end, for each country, we run a multilevel regression model with minority profiles clustered in respondents and controlling for profile sets. In addition to ethnicity, religion and migration status of the assessed minority group and the respondent's age, gender, education and locality type, we also included life satisfaction, financial security, outgroup contact, political orientation and minority status (captured by two dummy variables: migration background and religious minority) among the predictors (see Table A2 for definitions and summary statistics). Figure 17 summarises the results of the respective 18 models (for each country and each life sphere). It demonstrates that from among the respondent characteristics considered, financial security was most consistently related to the perception of inequalities between the majority and minority groups across the countries and spheres studied. It was positively associated with perceived inequality to the disadvantage of minority groups in the labour and housing markets in all the countries surveyed. In policing, this was the case in all countries except Belgium and the Netherlands, where there was no statistically significant relationship. Taking into account that Turkish respondents on average perceived minorities to be advantaged relative to the Turks, when described in terms of perceived inequalities as such, it may be stated that greater financial security is negatively linked to perceived inequalities (i.e. negatively linked to the perception that minorities are advantaged) in Turkey.

Political orientation was a significant predictor in all countries apart from Hungary in all spheres of life. In all of these countries but Turkey being more right-wing was associated with lower levels of perceived minority disadvantage. In Turkey, in turn, a more conservative worldview was consistently associated with lower levels of perceived minority advantage (meaning lower perceived inequality, as

Turkish respondents generally considered Turks to be disadvantaged relative to minority groups). Turkey also differed from the other five countries in terms of the role of age. While in the other five countries age was not significant in the labour and housing markets when all the other variables were accounted for, apart from the Netherlands in the housing market, where it was negatively related to the perceived minority disadvantage (or to put it differently: was positively related to the perceived minority advantage), in Turkey it was positively related to perceived inequalities to the disadvantage of minority groups (i.e. negatively related to the perceived inequalities to the advantage of minorities) in these two spheres. In policing, age was either negatively related to the perception of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities (Western European countries in the study) or unrelated to it (Hungary, Poland and Turkey).

Figure 17. Perception of inequalities between the majority group and minority groups: the role of respondent's characteristics, multilevel OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is perceived inequalities (based on the questions: who has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?; who has a harder time finding housing?; and who is more likely to be stopped by the police?, each rated on a 11-point scale, where -5 = 'definitely natives', 0 = 'natives and a given minority profile have the same chances', 5 = 'definitely a given minority profile') in the respective sphere of life. Minority profiles defined by ethnicity, migration status and religion included among the predictors. Responses to individual vignettes clustered in respondents. Vignette sets controlled for. Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A5.1–A5.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata coefplot command (Jann 2014).

Gender did not emerge as a significant predictor of the perception of labour market inequalities. With regard to the housing market, we found women to be more perceptive of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities in Hungary, while more perceptive of the inequalities to the advantage of minorities in the Netherlands. Women in Belgium, Hungary, Poland and the Netherlands were also more convinced than men in these countries that minorities are more likely to be stopped by the police, all else held constant.

Life satisfaction was also not consistently related to perceived inequalities in the countries and spheres studied. Those who were more satisfied with life were more likely to perceive that minority groups have a harder time finding a job relative to the majority than those less satisfied with life in Belgium and Turkey, more likely to perceive that they have a harder time finding housing in Belgium, Turkey and the Netherlands, and more likely to perceive that they are more likely to be stopped by the police in Belgium, *ceteris paribus*. Otherwise, the relationship between life satisfaction and perceived inequalities was not significant.

Locality type did not prove to be a significant predictor of perceived inequalities in the housing market. With regard to the labour market, residents of big town and cities in Germany were more perceptive of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities than residents of smaller localities, while in the Netherlands, residents of smaller towns were more perceptive of it than rural dwellers. In policing, residents of big towns and cities in Germany were more perceptive if minority disadvantage than rural dwellers; in Turkey, in turn, urban dwellers were more convinced than rural dwellers that Turks are more likely to be stopped by the police than minority members, all else held constant.

The results also suggest that education appeared to be positively related to the perception of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities, all else held constant, with the exception of Turkey and Poland for labour and housing market inequalities, and Belgium and Poland for police stops, where no significant association was found (in the housing market in the Netherlands, more educated individuals were less likely to perceive minority advantage).

Outgroup contact was not significantly related to the perception of inequalities in all countries and spheres but when it did, it showed a consistent pattern. It was positively related to perceived inequality to the disadvantage of minority members in the labour market in Germany and Hungary, while in policing in Belgium and Germany. Regarding the perception of housing market inequalities in the Netherlands, contact reduced the perception that natives are disadvantaged compared to minorities. The same concerned the perception of inequalities among Turkish respondents in all the life spheres studied.

Given that the panel coverage in each country was the general population and not specifically members of the majority, we also accounted for minority status in our models. Given the three attributes in Experiment 1 (religion, ethnicity and migration status), we included migration background (where immigrants and people with at least one immigrant parent were considered to have migration background) and religious minority status among our independent variables. The results show that migration background made people more perceptive of inequalities to the

disadvantage of minorities only in Belgium, where this result held for all spheres of life studied, and in Poland for the labour market. In the Netherlands for the housing market and in Turkey for policing, migration background reduced the perception that minorities are advantaged relative to the majority. In Poland, in turn, respondents who considered themselves to be of a different religion or beliefs than most Poles were less perceptive of inequalities to the disadvantage of minority members in the labour and housing markets than those who did not consider themselves members of a religious minority, all else held constant. A similar relationship between the perception of inequalities and religious minority status was also observed among Belgian respondents in policing.

4. Justifications for the existing inequalities

4.1. How people justify the existing inequalities?

We now turn to discussing the results of Experiment 2 on the justifications for the existing inequalities. Figure 18 shows that in each sphere of life – the labour market, the housing market and policing – the patterns for all the six countries combined looked similar across the three minority groups studied (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group], people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group], people of foreign origin).

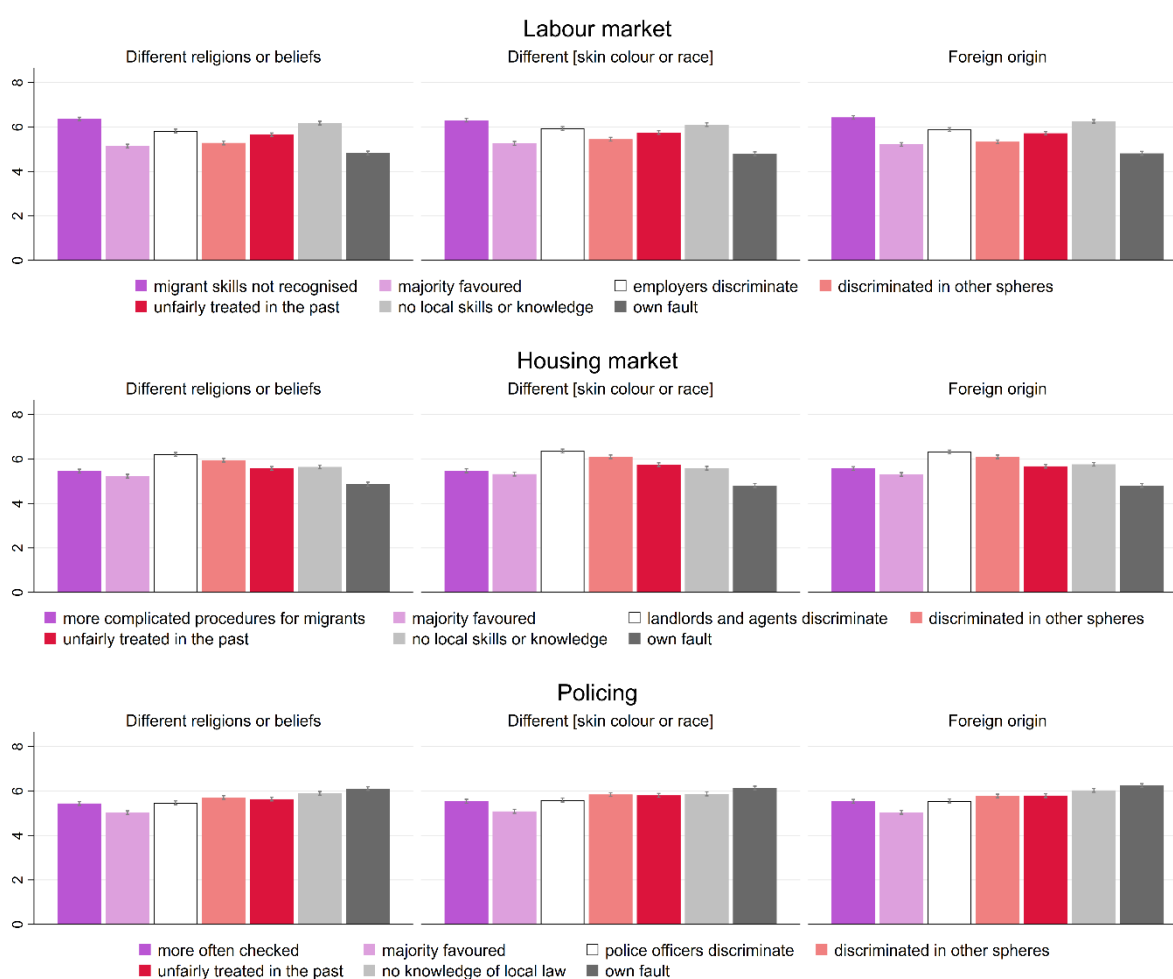
As regards the labour market, respondents found it most likely that members of the described minority earn less and have worse jobs than most of the company's employees belonging to the majority group because 'the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in this group are often not recognised', because 'members of this group may not have the necessary skills or knowledge', and because 'employers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate'. Hence, they gave the highest support for justifications referring to institutional discrimination against immigrants, actual differences between the groups (not necessarily discrimination-related), and individual discrimination. They to a smaller extent justified the described inequality with structural discrimination (though they were more supportive for past-in-present discrimination than side-effect discrimination) and by institutional discrimination operationalised as existing regulations favouring the majority members. On average, respondents in the six countries were least supportive of the justification pointing to the minority groups own fault (stating that 'members of this group are not trying hard enough').

When asked why they think it takes longer for members of a given minority group than for most members of the majority group to find housing in a good neighbourhood in one of the cities in their country, according to a recent study, respondents in the six countries on average rated discrimination on the part of landlords and real estate agents as the most likely reason. Side-effect discrimination – operationalised as: the minority group being discriminated in other spheres, for example, in the labour market, and thus tending to have worse paid and less stable jobs, which makes it harder for them to find housing – was the second most supported justification for the described inequality in the housing market. The justification that received the least support was again the one pointing to the minority group's own fault, captured by the statement that minority members are not trying hard enough.

In policing, in turn, the justification indicating the fault of the minority group, claiming that the described inequality – members of a given minority group being stopped by the police more often than the majority residents of a described city – is due to members of the minority group breaking the law more often, received the highest average scores. The next most supported justifications were those pertaining to members of the minority group potentially not knowing the local laws and

regulations, as well as those relating to structural discrimination. Regarding the latter, respondents, considered past-in-present and side-effect discrimination as equally likely reasons for the described inequality between the majority group and racial minorities as well as people of foreign origin. Specifically, they to the same extent supported the justification stating that the minority group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, when looking for housing, and thus tends to live in worse neighbourhoods where it is more common to be stopped by the police as the one stating that due to unfair treatment in the past, the minority group has tended to be stopped by the police more often and the association of being a suspect has stuck. In the case of religious minorities, side-effect discrimination was considered as a slightly more likely cause than past-in-present discrimination. Across the three minority groups, respondents were least convinced that the reason for the inequality is the fact that the police are more lenient with the majority group members.

Figure 18. Justifications for the existing inequalities by minority group and sphere of life



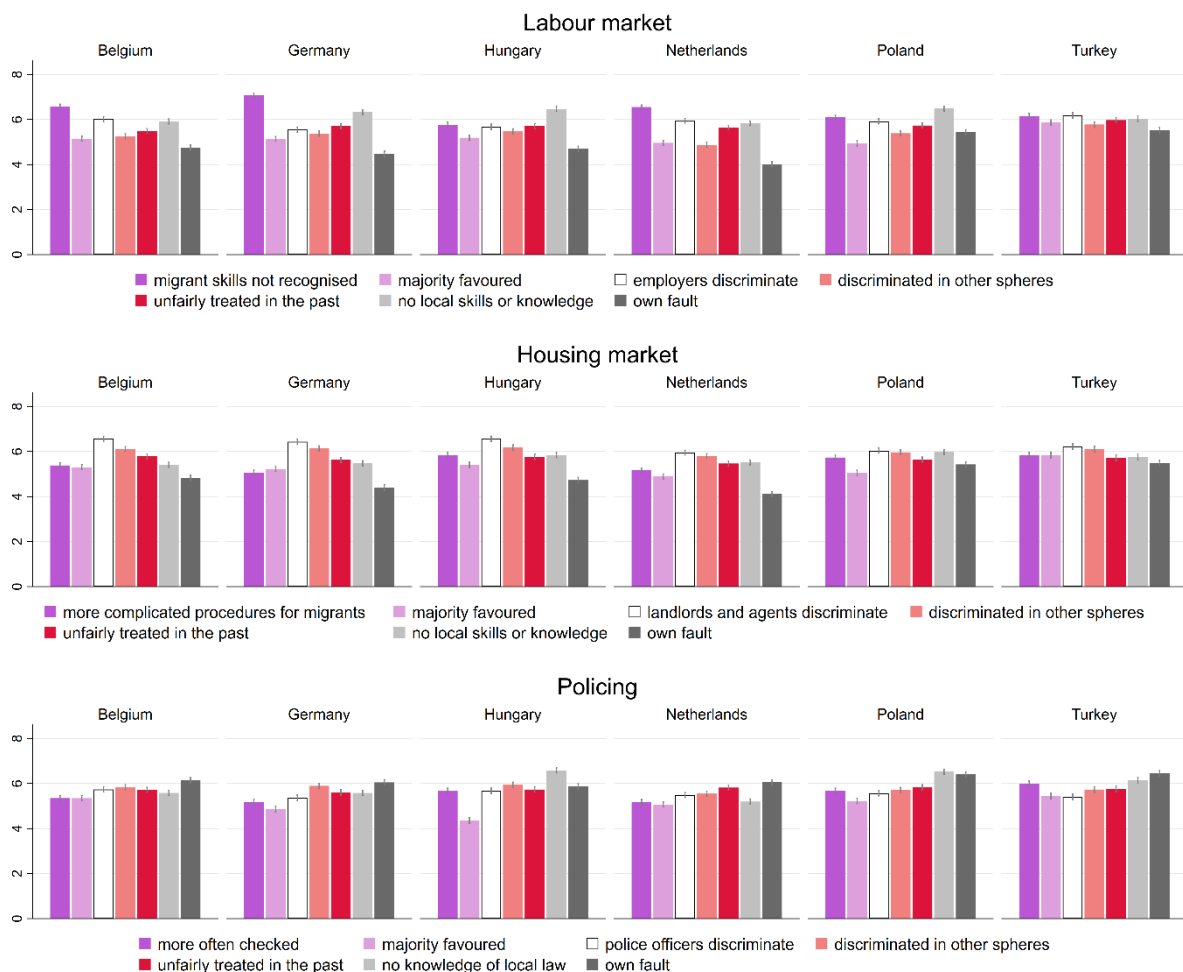
Note: Means of all responses for a given minority group (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin) and sphere of life to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality occurs due to a specific reason (for exact formulation of the reasons, see the Data and methods section). Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Since the average scores of the respondents looked similar across the three minority groups studied, we now turn to investigating inter-country differences without differentiating between minority groups. Figure 19 presents the average scores for each justification by country and sphere of life. It

shows that the rankings of justifications differed between the countries as well as between the spheres within a given country.

Regarding the labour market vignette, the justification pertaining to the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in the described group often not being recognised (a form of institutional discrimination) was, on average, the most supported one in Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands. In Hungary and Poland, respondents were on average most supportive of the justification related to members of the minority group potentially not having the necessary skills or knowledge. In Turkey, the differences between the justifications that were offered for the described inequality in the labour market were less visible. Turkish respondents were the least supportive of the justification relating to the group's own fault or side-effect discrimination as the likely reasons for the described inequality. The belief that the described inequality is likely the fault of members of the minority group (not trying hard enough) was also least popular (and even more strongly) in the three Western European countries studied and in Hungary. It was also among the least strongly supported justifications in Poland, along with the side-effect discrimination. However, among Polish respondents, these two were preceded by existing regulations favouring the majority members in the ranking of the least likely reasons for the described inequality.

Figure 19. Justifications for the existing inequalities by country and sphere of life



Note: Means of all responses for a given country and sphere of life to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality occurs due to a specific reason (for exact formulation of the reasons, see the Data and methods section). The presented scores are averaged across different minority groups (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of

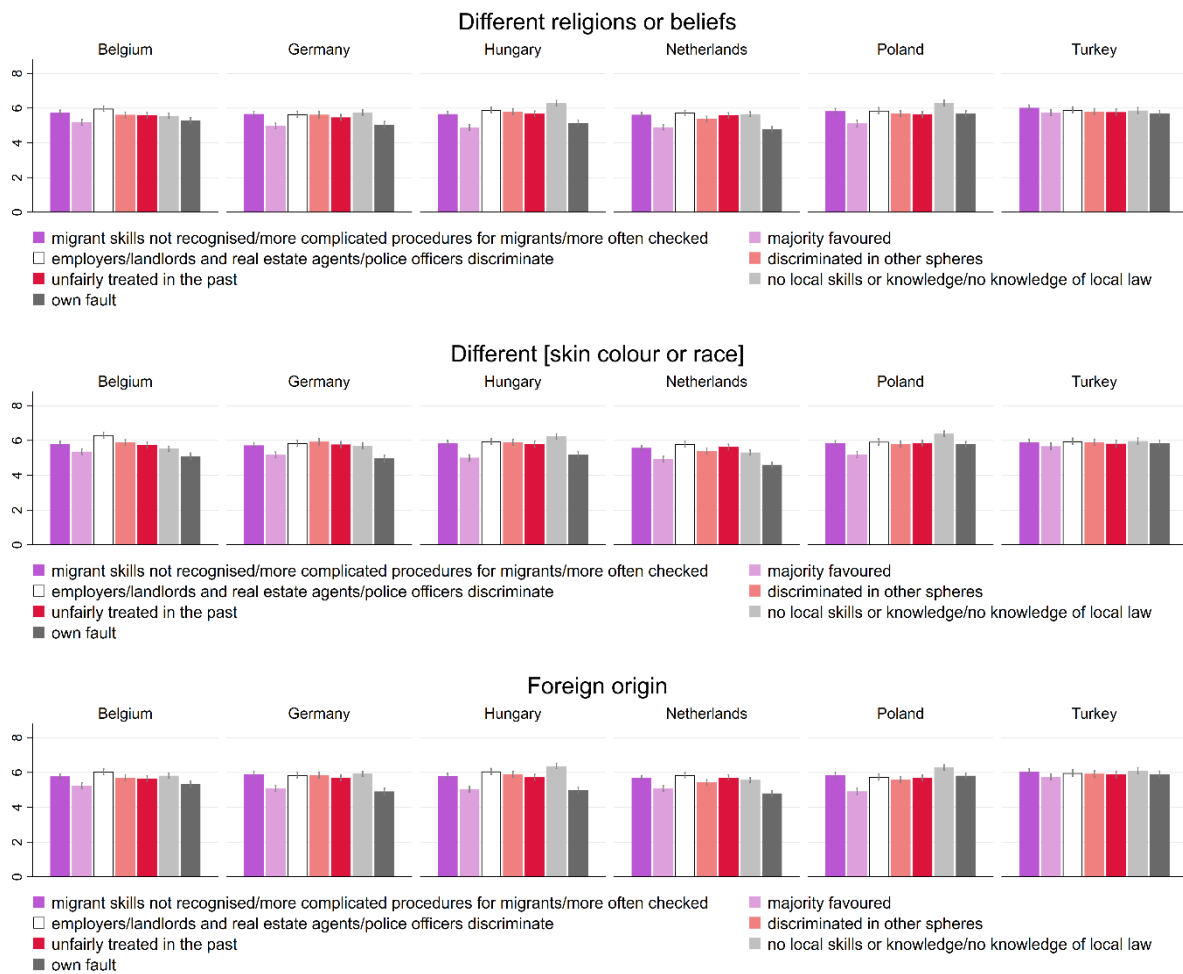
different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin). Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

When exposed to a description of inequality in the housing market, respondents in all the six countries studied, on average, considered individual discrimination on the part of landlords and real estate agents to be the most likely reason for the described inequality. In Poland, this factor was considered to be as likely a reason as side-effect discrimination and members of the minority group not having the skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing. The item capturing side-effect discrimination was also the second most likely reason for the described inequality in the remaining five countries covered by the survey. On average, respondents in all six RAISE countries were also least likely to attribute the described housing market inequality to the fault of the minority group.

In all countries except for Hungary, the justification pointing to the minority group's own fault was considered as the most likely reason for the described inequality in policing. In Hungary, this justification was preceded by the justification stating that members of the minority group described in the vignette may not have knowledge about the local laws and regulations, and was considered as likely as individual and structural discrimination. Respondents in Poland, on average, rated this justification as being as likely as the one stating that members of the minority group described in the vignette may not have knowledge of the local laws and regulations. The justification pertaining to the police being more lenient with the majority group members was found to be the least likely reason for the described inequality by respondents in all the six countries. This was along with individual discrimination in Turkey, members of the minority group potentially not having knowledge of the local laws and regulations in the Netherlands, and the police having a policy to check this group more in Belgium and the Netherlands.

Figure 20 presents the average evaluation of each justification by country and minority group. It shows that the observation made based on an aggregated picture presented in Figure 18, that the patterns look very similar across the three minority groups described in the vignettes, held for each country studied. For an alternative visualisation of this fact, see Figure A19 in the Appendix.

Figure 20. Justifications for the existing inequalities by country and minority group



Note: Means of all responses for a given country and minority group (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin) to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality occurs due to a specific reason (for exact formulation of the reasons, see the Data and methods section). The presented scores are averaged across different spheres of life. Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

Interestingly, Figures 19-20 also show that, although the perception of inequalities differed considerably in Turkey (all spheres) and in the Netherlands (housing market) as compared to the other countries, the way Turkish and Dutch respondents justified the inequalities they were exposed to (confronted with) did not differ much from the way respondents in the remaining countries did it.

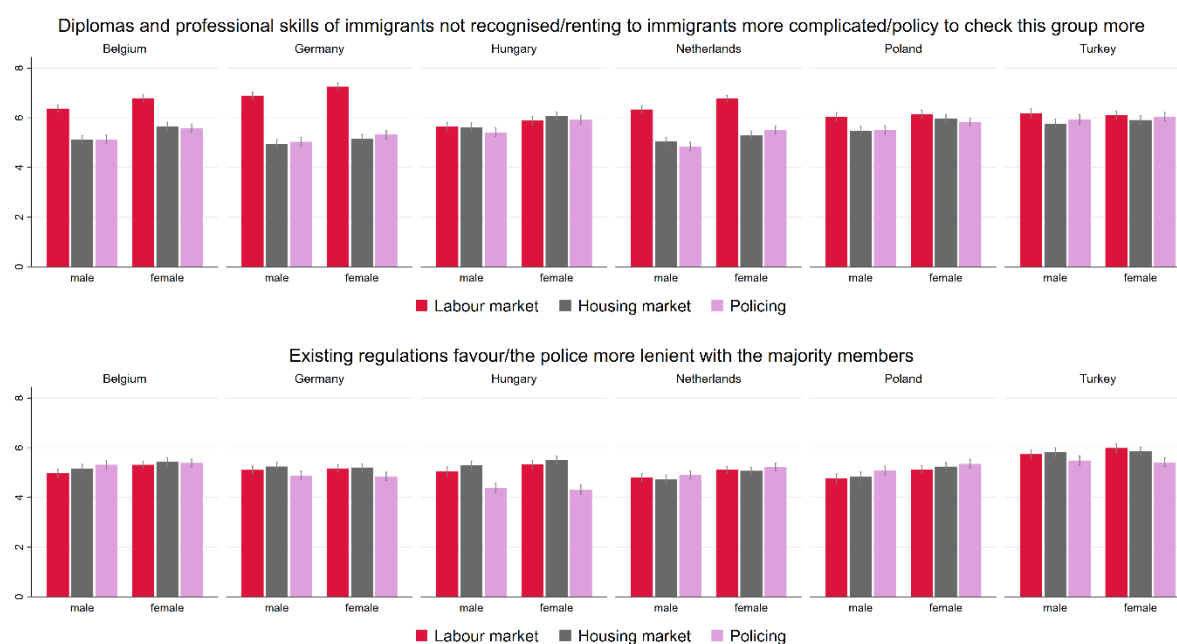
4.2. Determinants of justifications for the existing inequalities

We next explore differences in how people justify the existing inequalities depending on their socio-demographic characteristics. As in Experiment 1, we start by looking at mean scores across population subgroups by gender, level of education and size of locality, before moving on to more complex, multivariate analyses.

Figure 21 and additional statistical tests suggest that men and women differed in how they justified the existing inequalities in all countries except for Turkey, where gender differences were noted only

occasionally. Although not consistently across all countries and spheres, women tended to be more supportive of justifications capturing institutional discrimination (see the top two panels of Figure 21). They were also more supportive of the justification pertaining to individual discrimination by employers, landlords and real estate agents, and police officers, respectively (third panel from the top). This observation held for all countries but Turkey (and Netherlands with regard to the housing market). Women also generally recorded higher scores on justifications capturing structural discrimination. The exceptions were Turkey with regard to side-effect discrimination in the housing market and past-in-present discrimination in all spheres, Germany with regard to side-effect discrimination in the labour market, and Poland with regard to side-effect discrimination in the labour market. The justification pertaining to members of the described minority not having the necessary local skills or knowledge was, on average, less strongly supported by women than men in Belgium, Germany and Poland with regard to the described inequality in the labour market, in Germany and the Netherlands with regard to the housing market, and in the Netherlands with regard to policing. Otherwise, women did not differ from men in their view of the lack of local skills or knowledge as a potential reason for existing inequalities, with the exception of Turkey, where they were more supportive of this explanation for the described labour market inequalities than men. As regards the justification relating to the minority group's own fault (the bottom panel of Figure 21), women in the three Western European countries in the study were less supportive than men of the claim that the described labour market inequality was due to members the minority group not trying hard enough. The same applied to women in Belgium, Germany and Poland as regards the housing market inequality. Women in Belgium and Germany were also less supportive than men of the statement that the inequality in policing is due to members of this group breaking the law more often. Otherwise, apart again from Turkey, where they were more supportive of the 'own fault' explanation for the labour market inequalities than men, women did not differ from men in the extent to which they blamed the minority group for the existing inequalities.

Figure 21. Justifications for the existing inequalities by gender and country



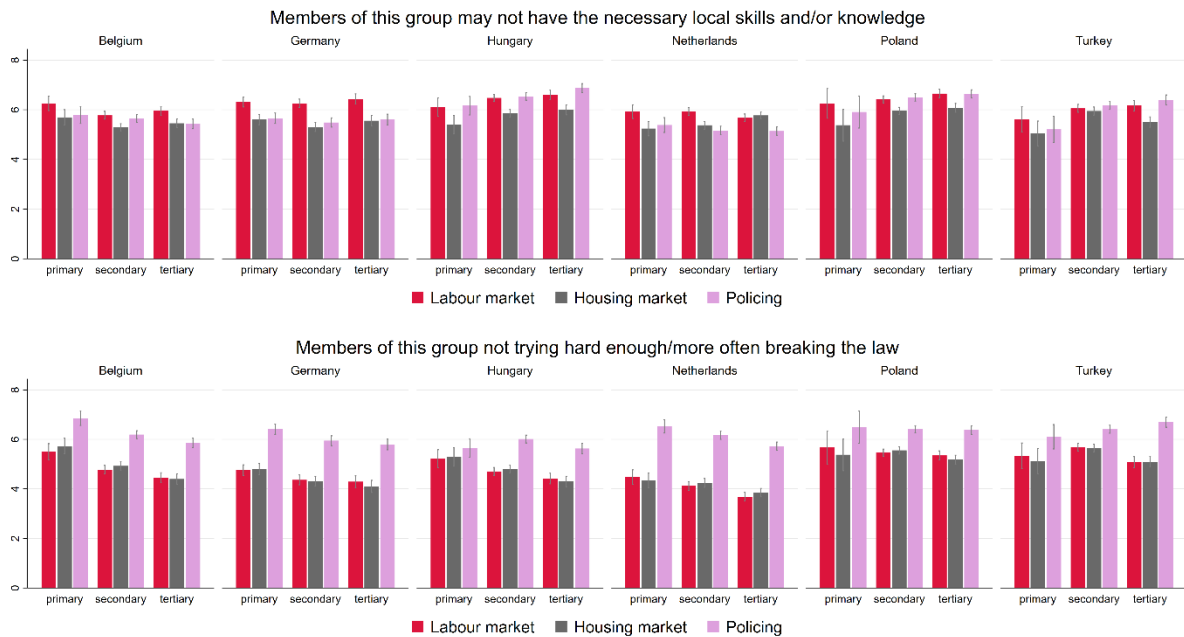


Note: Means of all responses for a given country and gender to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality in a given life sphere occurs due to a specific reason. The presented scores are averaged across different minority groups (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin). Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

As demonstrated in Figure 22, there was no consistent pattern in the relationship between education and justifications for existing inequalities across countries and spheres. More educated individuals were more supportive than less educated individuals of the claim that described inequality in the labour market is due to the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in the described group often not being recognised in all countries except for Turkey. They were, however, not more supportive of the respective claims capturing institutional discrimination in the housing market (true only for Hungary and the Netherlands, while reversed in Belgium) and policing (reversed in Belgium). The evaluation of the second claim capturing institutional discrimination – that inequality is due to the majority being favoured – was unrelated to the respondent's level of education in Germany, the Netherlands, Turkey in the labour market; in all countries but Belgium and Poland in the housing market; in Belgium, Germany and Poland in policing, and otherwise not consistently related to it in other country-spheres. The perception that the existing inequalities are due to prejudice and discrimination against the described minority group by employers, landlords and real estate agents or police officers was stronger among more educated respondents in all countries except for Poland and Turkey in the labour and housing markets. The belief that the described inequality was due to side-effect discrimination (the minority group being discriminated against in other spheres which impacts their performance in the given sphere) was either equal across the three education levels (this applied to labour market inequality in all countries except for the Netherlands, and to inequality in policing in Germany and Poland) or higher among the more educated people (with the exception of housing market in Belgium). The view that the described inequality occurred due to unfair treatment in the past (capturing past-in-present discrimination) was stronger among the more educated individuals in all countries but Belgium and Poland as regards the labour market, in Belgium, Hungary and the Netherlands as regards the housing market, and in Hungary and the Netherlands as regard policing. Surprisingly, in Belgium the relationship between support for this justification and the level of education was reversed for the labour market and policing. No uniform pattern was also observed in the relationship between education level and attributing the described inequality to the lack of local skills or knowledge on the part of the minority in question. This relationship was positive in Hungary as regards labour market inequalities, in Hungary, the Netherlands and Poland as regards housing market inequalities, and in Hungary, Poland and Turkey as regards inequalities in policing. It was negative in Belgium (labour and housing markets), the Netherlands (labour market) and Germany (housing market). Furthermore, it did not follow a 'linear trend' in Turkey as regards housing market inequalities. Otherwise, it was not significant. In all countries except for Poland with regard to the labour market and Poland and Turkey with regard to policing, education turned out to be negatively related to the perception that the existing inequalities are the fault of the minority (not trying hard enough or breaking the law more often).

Figure 22. Justifications for the existing inequalities by education and country



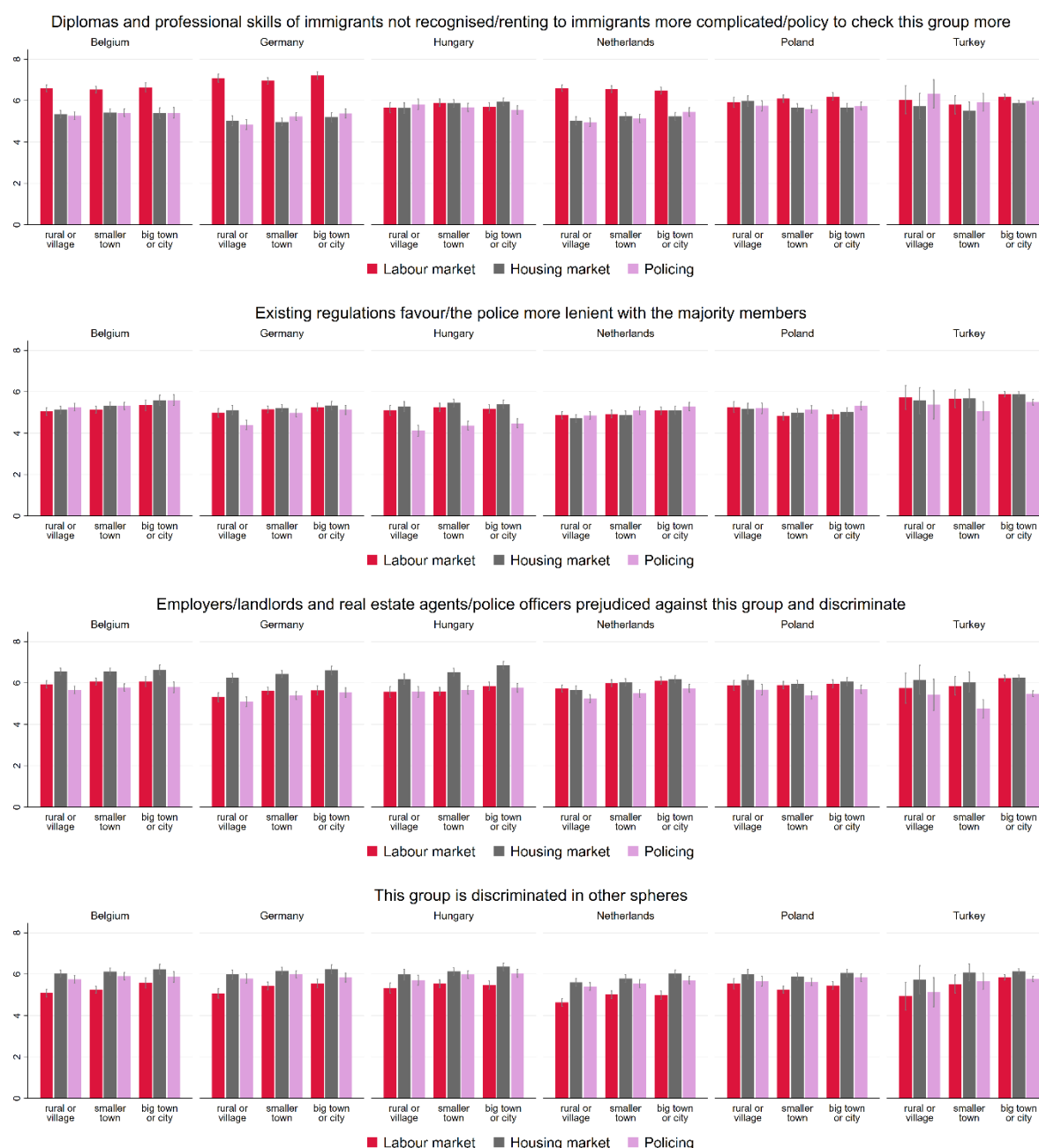


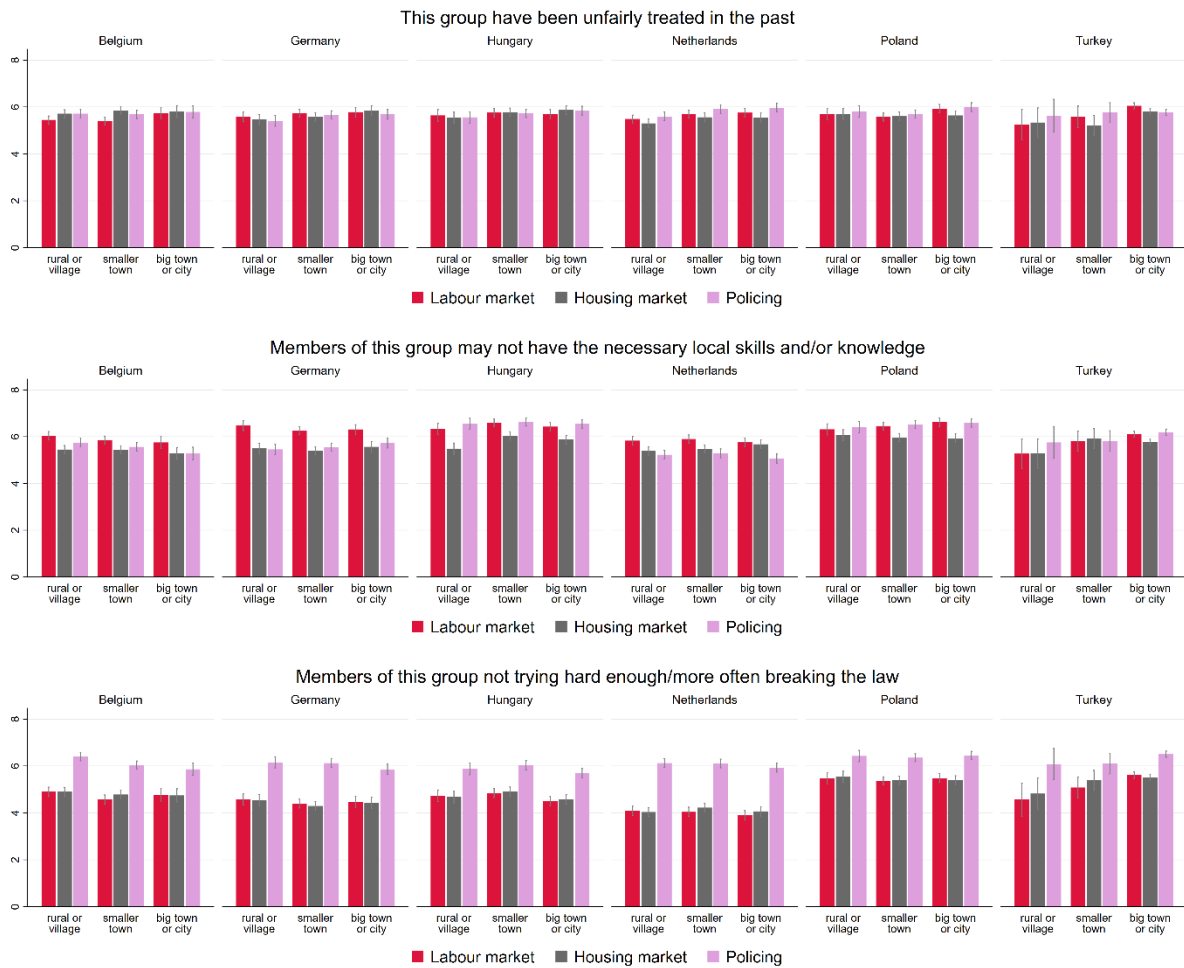
Note: Means of all responses for a given country and education level to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality in a given life sphere occurs due to a specific reason. The presented scores are averaged across different minority groups (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin). Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

The type of locality seemed to be more consistently related (or rather unrelated) to justifications for the existing inequalities across the countries and spheres studied, though not without exceptions. The most general pattern was that the size of the respondent's locality of residence was either unrelated to their support for justifications pertaining to different forms of discrimination, or positively related to it (Figure 23). An exception was Poland with regard to the labour market inequality, where rural residents were more supportive of the justification capturing the more general institutional discrimination than urban dwellers. Support for the justification pertaining to the minority group's own fault was either unrelated to the size of locality or negatively related to it. The exception here was Turkey, where residents of big towns or cities were more supportive of this justification for the existing labour market inequalities than residents of smaller towns and rural areas. Overall, however, locality size proved to be unrelated to support for the different justifications considered in over half of country-spheres. Regarding the positive association between the size of locality and support for justifications pertaining to different types of discrimination, for institutional discrimination, this was true for Germany and the Netherlands in policing, as well as for the more concrete operationalisation of institutional discrimination for Germany in the labour market, and for the more general operationalisation of institutional discrimination in Belgium and the Netherlands in the housing market and Belgium and Hungary in policing. As for the justification related to individual discrimination, a positive association with locality size was observed in Germany and the Netherlands in all three spheres, in Hungary in the housing market, and in Poland and Turkey in policing. As regards structural discrimination, the positive association appeared in the three Western European states and Turkey for support for side-effect discrimination in the labour market, as well as in Hungary and the Netherlands in the housing market and policing. For past-in-present structural discrimination, this was only true for Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey in the labour market, Germany, Hungary and Turkey in the housing market and the Netherlands and Poland in policing. The no-skills justification was predominantly unrelated to locality size. The only exceptions

were Poland and Turkey in the labour market, and Hungary and the Netherlands in the housing market, where rural residents were less supportive of this justification than residents of cities (and smaller towns in Hungary in the housing market). In Belgium, residents of cities were less supportive of this justification than rural residents. Finally, a negative association between locality size and support for the justification pointing to the minority group's own fault was observed in Belgium and Hungary with regard to inequalities in the labour market and policing, and in Hungary with regard to the housing market inequalities.

Figure 23. Justifications for the existing inequalities by locality type and country





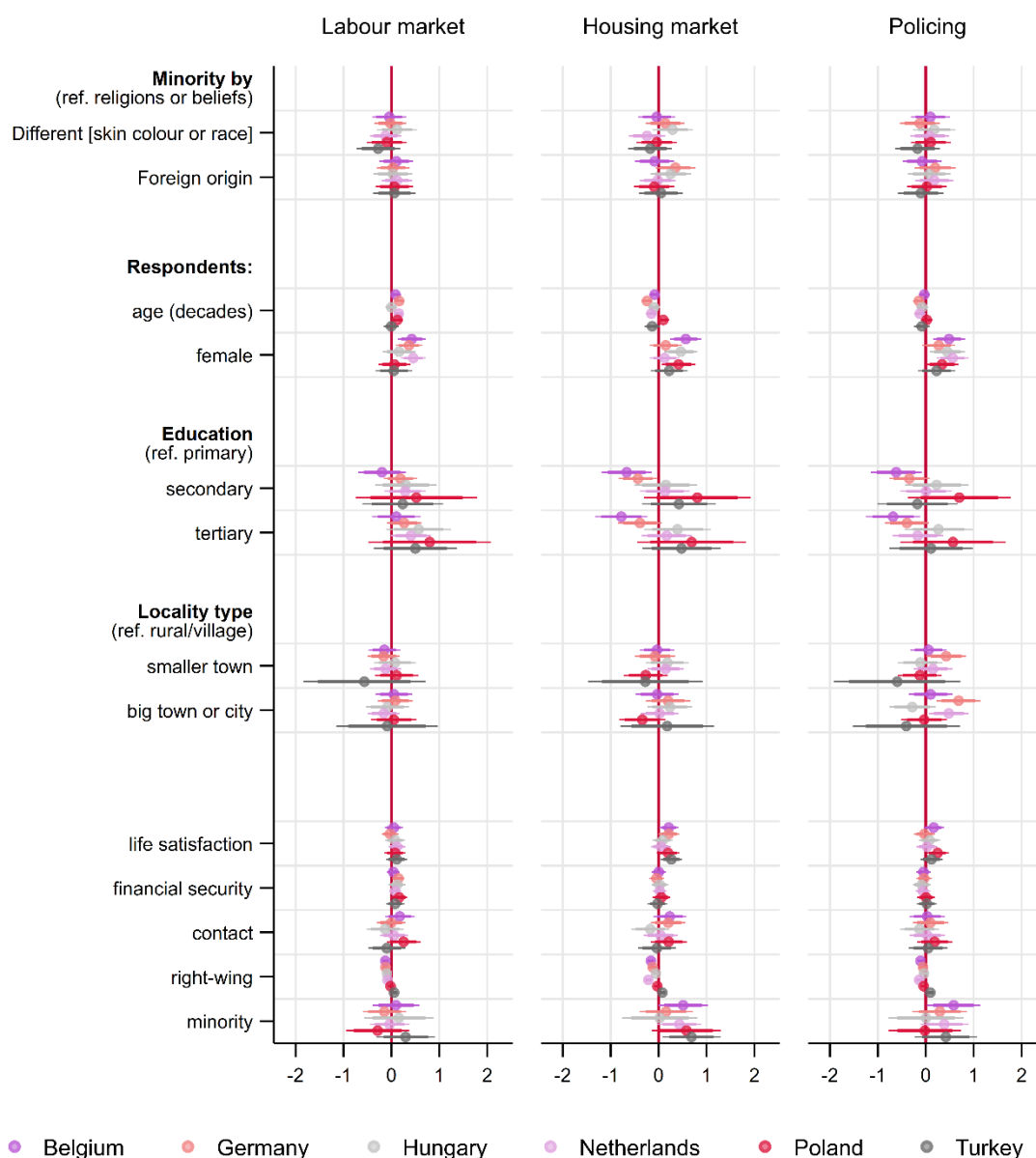
Note: Means of all responses for a given country and locality type to the questions on how likely (0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely') respondent thinks the described inequality in a given life sphere occurs due to a specific reason. The presented scores are averaged across different minority groups (people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]; people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]; people of foreign origin). Error bars stand for 95% confidence intervals.

We next examine the role of different socio-economic factors at once for each of the justifications considered.

Institutional discrimination as a cause of inequalities

Figure 24 presents the results of 18 models for one of the justifications pertaining to institutional discrimination (the more specific one) in each of the three spheres by country. Most importantly, it indicates that it did not matter which group respondents in the six countries were assigned to in Experiment 2, with support for this justification being the same irrespective of whether respondents were asked about people of different religions or beliefs than the majority, people of different [skin colour or race] or people of foreign origin. The only exception was Germany, where respondents expressed slightly more support for this justification when asked about people of foreign origin than when asked about people of different religions or beliefs as regards the existing inequalities in the housing market.

Figure 24. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to institutional discrimination, OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in a given minority group often not being recognised, existing regulations making renting housing to immigrants in the given minority group more complicated due to additional formalities, the police having a policy to check the given minority group more, respectively (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A6.1–A6.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata coefplot command (Jann 2014).

Age was not consistently related to the attribution of the existing inequalities to institutional discrimination. It was positively associated with this justification with regard to labour market inequality in all countries except for Hungary and Turkey. It proved, however, to be negatively related to the respective justification for the existing inequalities in the housing market in all countries except for Poland. In policing, age was only significant, and positively related to the given

justification, in Germany and the Netherlands. The results point to the presence of gender differences in attributing inequalities to factors that may be deemed institutional discrimination. Women were generally more supportive of this justification, all else held constant, although not in every country or sphere. In the labour market, this was true for Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands; in the housing market, for Belgium, Hungary and Poland; and in policing, for all countries except for Turkey. The findings show that the people who were more satisfied with life were more supportive of this justification, but this result held only for selected countries and spheres. A positive relationship was only present in Belgium, Germany, Poland and Turkey when the question concerned housing market inequalities, and in Belgium and Poland as regards police stops. Financial security did not affect the perception that the existing inequalities in the housing market or in policing are likely due to institutional discrimination. When asked about lower earnings and worse jobs among minorities, respondents in Germany and Poland were more supportive of the institutional discrimination justification when they felt financially more secure, all else held constant. Contact with the respective outgroup¹⁴, captured by the structure of the respondent's friendship network, did not affect support for the justification relating to institutional discrimination. Political orientation was irrelevant in Poland across the three spheres, when other characteristics were accounted for. In Belgium and the Netherlands, in turn, being more right-wing, was negatively related to support for the justification pertaining to more specific examples of institutional discrimination in all life spheres considered. In Turkey those who positioned themselves more to the right in terms of their political views were more supportive of this justification, all else held constant. In the remaining country-spheres, conservative views were either unrelated to or negatively associated with support for this justification for the existing inequalities. Belonging to the minority in question was not related to support for this justification for the labour market inequalities. However, it was positively related to it when the question concerned house search in a good neighbourhood taking longer for the minority group in all countries except for Germany and Hungary. Regarding the frequency of police stops, minority status was positively related to support for this justification only in Belgium and the Netherlands. Locality size was not a significant predictor of support for this justification in the labour or housing markets. The only exception was Germany with regard to labour market inequalities, where residents of big towns or cities were more perceptive of inequalities than residents of smaller towns, *ceteris paribus*. In policing, the exceptions were Germany and the Netherlands, where urban dwellers were more supportive of it than rural dwellers, and residents of big town or cities were more supportive than residents of smaller localities, respectively, all else held constant. The level of education was a significant predictor only in selected countries and spheres. As regard the perception of labour market inequalities, the relationship between the level of education and the belief that the described inequality is due to the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in a given minority group often not being recognised was positive when significant. When asked about inequalities in the labour market, tertiary educated respondents in Hungary and the Netherlands were more supportive of this justification than those with primary education at most. In Belgium and Poland, in turn, they were more supportive of it than those with secondary education. As regards housing market inequalities and inequalities in policing, education was only significant in Belgium and Germany. Respondents whose level of education did not exceed primary level were more supportive of justifications pertaining to institutional discrimination (i.e. existing regulations making renting housing to immigrants in the given minority group more complicated due to additional formalities and the police having a policy to check the given minority group more) than those with secondary or tertiary education.

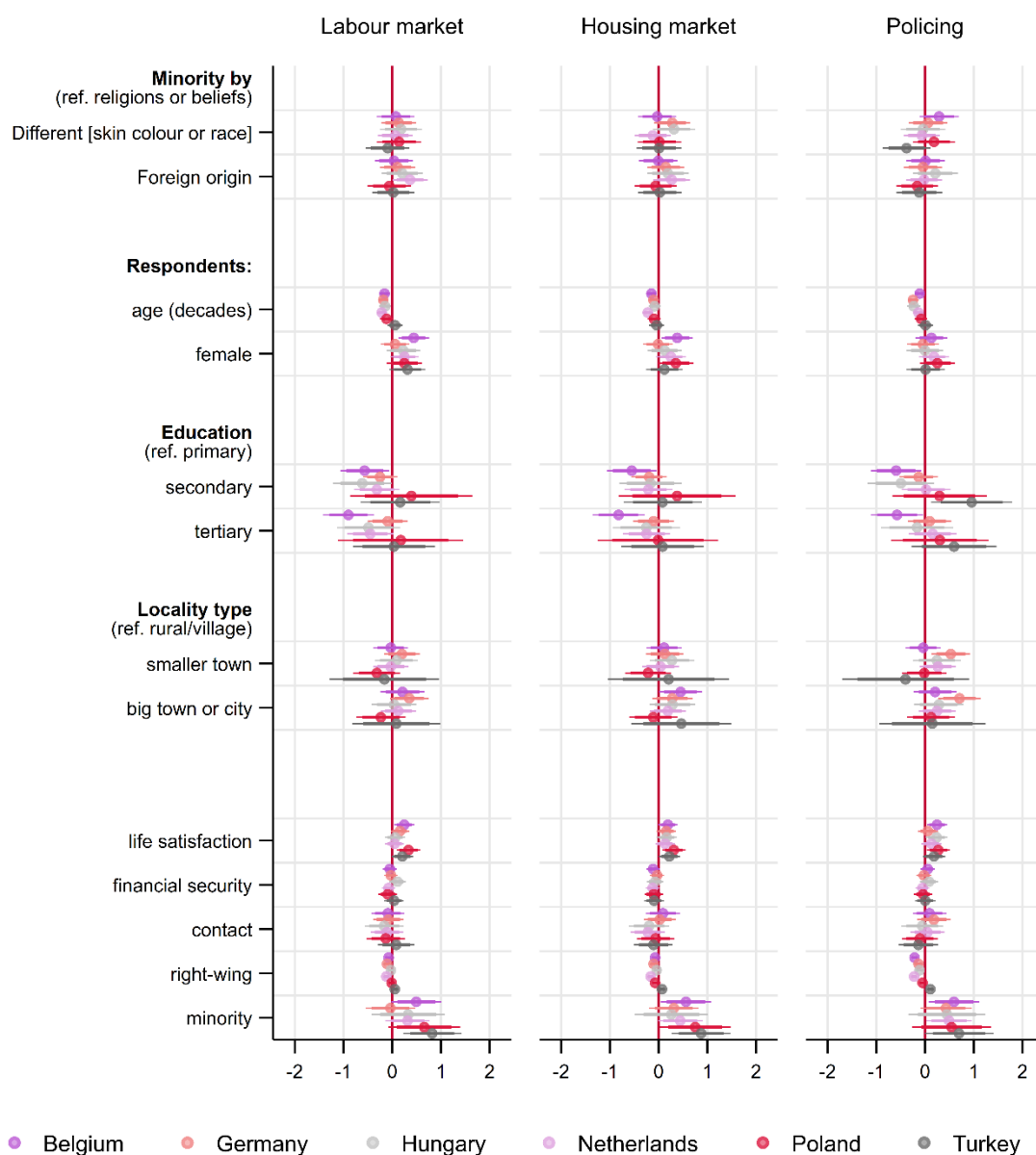
¹⁴ People of different [skin colour or race] than the respondent, people of different religion or beliefs than the respondent and people of foreign origin or natives (for respondents with migration background).

Support for the second justification pertaining to institutional discrimination but captured by its more general form – namely, majority members being favoured by institutions – also did not show much difference depending on the minority groups assigned to a respondent (Figure 25). There were a few exceptions, however. These included the existing labour market inequalities in the Netherlands, which were more likely to be justified by a more general institutional discrimination when the question concerned people of foreign origin than when it concerned either people of different religion or beliefs or of different skin colour or race. These also concerned housing market inequalities in the Netherlands, which were more likely to be justified by a more general institutional discrimination when the question concerned people of foreign origin than when it concerned people of different skin colour or race than the majority. Furthermore, these also included the existing inequality in policing in Turkey, which was more likely to be justified by a more general institutional discrimination when the question concerned people of different religion or beliefs than when it concerned people of different ethnicity or race than the majority, and inequality in policing in Poland, where it was more likely to be justified with the police being more lenient with the majority members when the question concerned people of a different skin colour or race than when it concerned people of foreign origin.

The pattern of results for the remaining predictors was similar, yet not entirely consistent with the justification capturing the more tangible manifestations of institutional discrimination discussed above. The most striking difference concerned the role of age with regard to labour market inequalities in Belgium, Germany and the Netherlands. While age in these countries was positively related to support for the justification referring to more tangible manifestations of institutional discrimination in the labour market, it was negatively related to support for the justification referring to the existing regulations favouring the majority. In Belgium and the Netherlands, women were more supportive than men with similar characteristics of the more general institutional discrimination justification with regard to the labour and housing market inequalities. The same was true for women in Turkey with regard to the labour market, and for women in Poland with regard to the housing market. Otherwise, no gender differences were recorded. Life satisfaction was positively related to support for this justification in all countries except for Hungary and the Netherlands (labour market), all countries apart from Hungary in the housing market and all countries apart from Netherlands and Germany in policing. Neither financial security nor contact with the minority group predicted support for this justification for existing inequalities. Only in Belgium and the Netherlands financial security was negatively associated with support for the justification related to the more general institutional discrimination in the housing market. As with previously discussed justification, political orientation was either unrelated or negatively related to support for the justification pertaining to a more general institutional discrimination, depending on the sphere and country. The only exception was Turkey, where individuals who were more right-leaning were more supportive of this justification, all else held constant. Minority ingroup status was also positively related to this justification in Turkey, as well as in Belgium (irrespective of the life sphere), Poland (labour and housing markets), the Netherlands (housing market and policing) and Germany (policing only). When other variables were accounted for, locality type did not appear to be a significant predictor of support for a more general institutional discrimination. The only exceptions were Belgium, where residents of big towns and cities were more supportive of this justification for the described housing market inequalities than those of smaller localities, and Germany, where being an urban dweller made one more supportive of this justification for inequalities in policing, and where residents of big town or cities were more supportive of it as regards labour market inequalities than residents of rural areas and villages, *ceteris paribus*. Surprisingly, support for the justification pertaining to a more general institutional discrimination was found to be negatively related to the level of education. This

was the case in Belgium in all spheres, as well as in Hungary (with respondent with secondary education less supportive of this justification than those with primary education), and the Netherlands (with respondent with higher education less supportive of this justification than those with primary education) when the focus was on the labour market inequalities. Turkey stood out in this respect with respondents with secondary education being more supportive of this justification in policing than comparable respondents with either primary or tertiary education. In Hungary, in turn, respondents with secondary education were less supportive of this justification in policing than comparable respondents with tertiary education. In Poland, respondents with secondary education were more supportive of this justification for housing market inequalities than those with higher education; however, there was no difference between those with primary education and those with higher education.

Figure 25. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to a more general institutional discrimination, OLS estimates



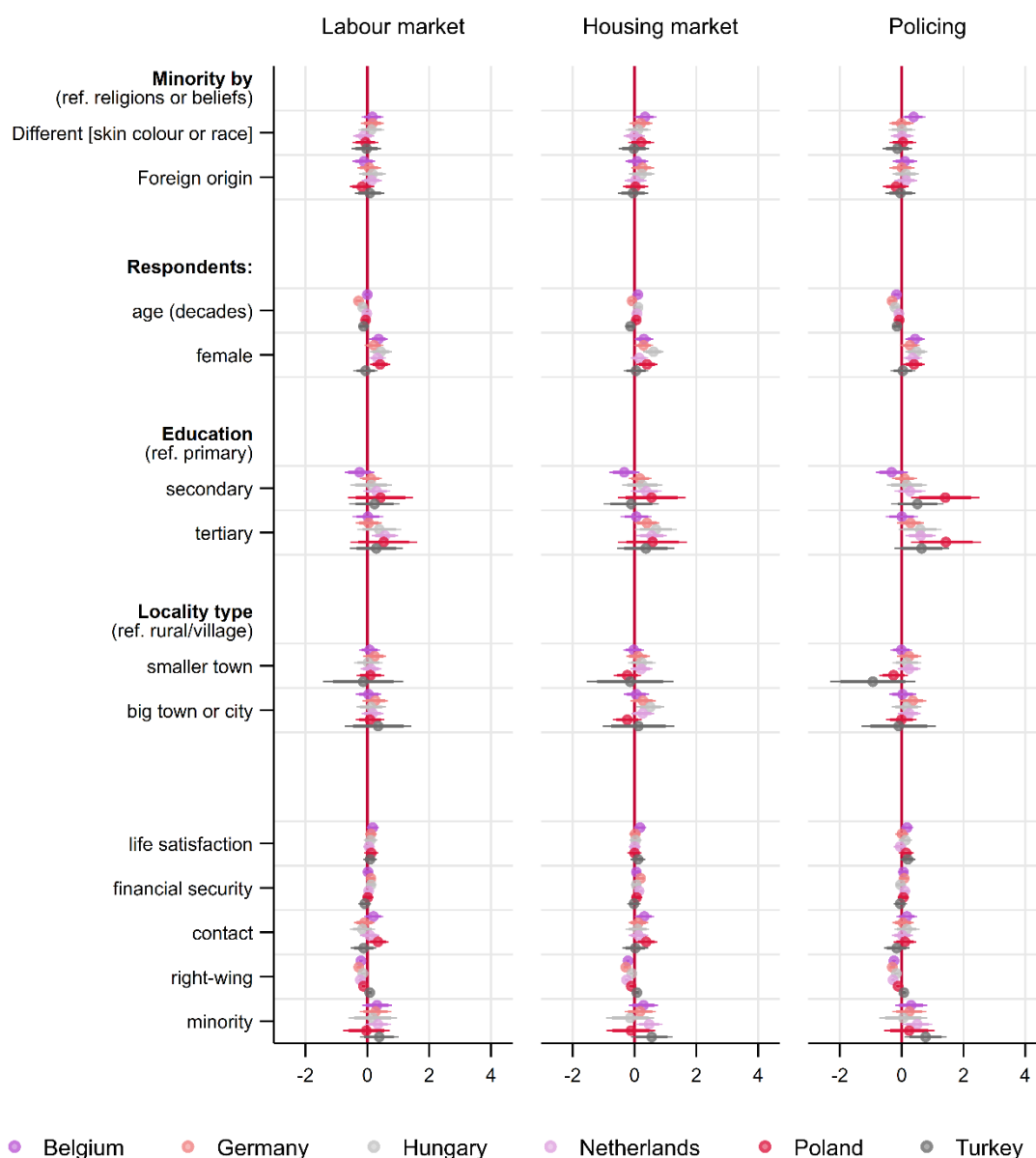
Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to the existing regulations favouring majority members (labour market and housing) or the police being more lenient with the majority members (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A7.1–A7.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata coefplot command (Jann 2014).

Individual discrimination as a cause of inequalities

When the focus was on individual discrimination as a justification for the described inequalities in the labour market, housing market and policing, the minority group to which a respondent was assigned mattered only in the latter two spheres in Belgium (Figure 26) and in the Netherlands as regards labour market inequalities. Respondents in Belgium were more supportive of this justification in the two spheres when asked about people of different skin colour or race than the majority than when asked about people of different religions or beliefs. In the Netherlands, respondents were more likely to justify the described inequalities in the labour market with the discrimination on the part of employers when asked about people of foreign origin than when asked about racial minorities.

Age did not show any clear pattern in terms of its relationship with support for individual discrimination as a likely cause of the described inequalities. It was negatively related to the belief that individual discrimination was a likely cause of the described inequalities in the labour market in Germany and Hungary, in the housing market – in Germany and Turkey, and in policing – in all countries except for Poland. As regards inequalities in the housing market, age was positively associated with the perception that discrimination by landlords and real estate agents is a likely cause of inequalities in Belgium, Hungary and the Netherlands. In all countries except for Turkey (in all spheres), Germany (in the labour market) and the Netherlands (in the housing market), women identified individual discrimination as a more likely cause of the described inequalities than men did, all else held constant. Level of education was unrelated to attributing the described labour market inequalities to discrimination by employers in all studied countries except for the Netherlands, where highly educated individuals were more supportive of this justification than those with lower levels of education, and Belgium, where those with higher levels of education were more supportive of it than those with secondary education, all else being equal. Regarding existing inequalities in the housing market, they were more likely to be explained by individual discrimination among people with higher education than among those with primary education in Germany, Hungary and the Netherlands. This was also true for those with higher education compared to those with secondary education in Hungary, Belgium and Turkey, and for those with secondary education compared to those with primary education in the Netherlands, all else held constant. Regarding inequalities in policing, respondents with higher education were more supportive of the justification pointing to individual discrimination than comparable individuals with primary or secondary education in Hungary and the Netherlands. The gap between those with higher education and those with secondary education was also visible in Belgium. In Poland, respondents with only primary education were less likely than those with either secondary or higher education to attribute more frequent police stops among minorities to individual discrimination.

Figure 26. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to individual discrimination, OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality is due to employers, landlords and real estate agents, police officers, respectively, being prejudiced against the given minority group and discriminating it (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A8.1–A8.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata `coefplot` command (Jann 2014).

Moreover, the results show that life satisfaction was generally unrelated to the opinion that individual discrimination is a likely cause of existing inequalities. However, a positive relationship was found in all spheres in Belgium and in policing only in Turkey. Similarly, financial security was positively related to the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to individual discrimination only in Germany (with regard to inequalities in the labour and housing markets) and the Netherlands (with regard to housing market only). Financial security was not a significant

predictor of support for the justification pertaining to individual discrimination by police officers in any of the countries studied. Contact with the minority group members (i.e. the proportion of respondents' friends belonging to the described minority group) was positively related to individual discrimination as a perceived cause of the described inequalities only in Poland (with regard to inequalities in the labour and housing market) and Belgium (with regard to the housing market). Very belonging to the described minority group was also largely unrelated to support for this justification; the positive relationship was only recorded in the Netherlands (in all spheres) and in Turkey (in the housing market and policing). Political orientation was the factor most consistently related to the perception that individual discrimination is a likely cause of the described inequalities. In all countries except for Turkey, where this relationship was reversed, respondents with more right-wing political views were less supportive of the statement attributing inequality to individual discrimination. In most of the countries studied, the type of locality was not related to the perception that individual discrimination is a likely cause of the described inequalities. The exceptions were Hungary, where residents of big towns and cities were more likely to perceive individual discrimination as a cause of inequalities in the housing market than comparable residents of rural areas or villages; Germany, where this gap was observed in policing; and Turkey, where residents of big towns and cities are more supportive of this justification for inequalities in policing than residents of smaller towns, all else held constant.

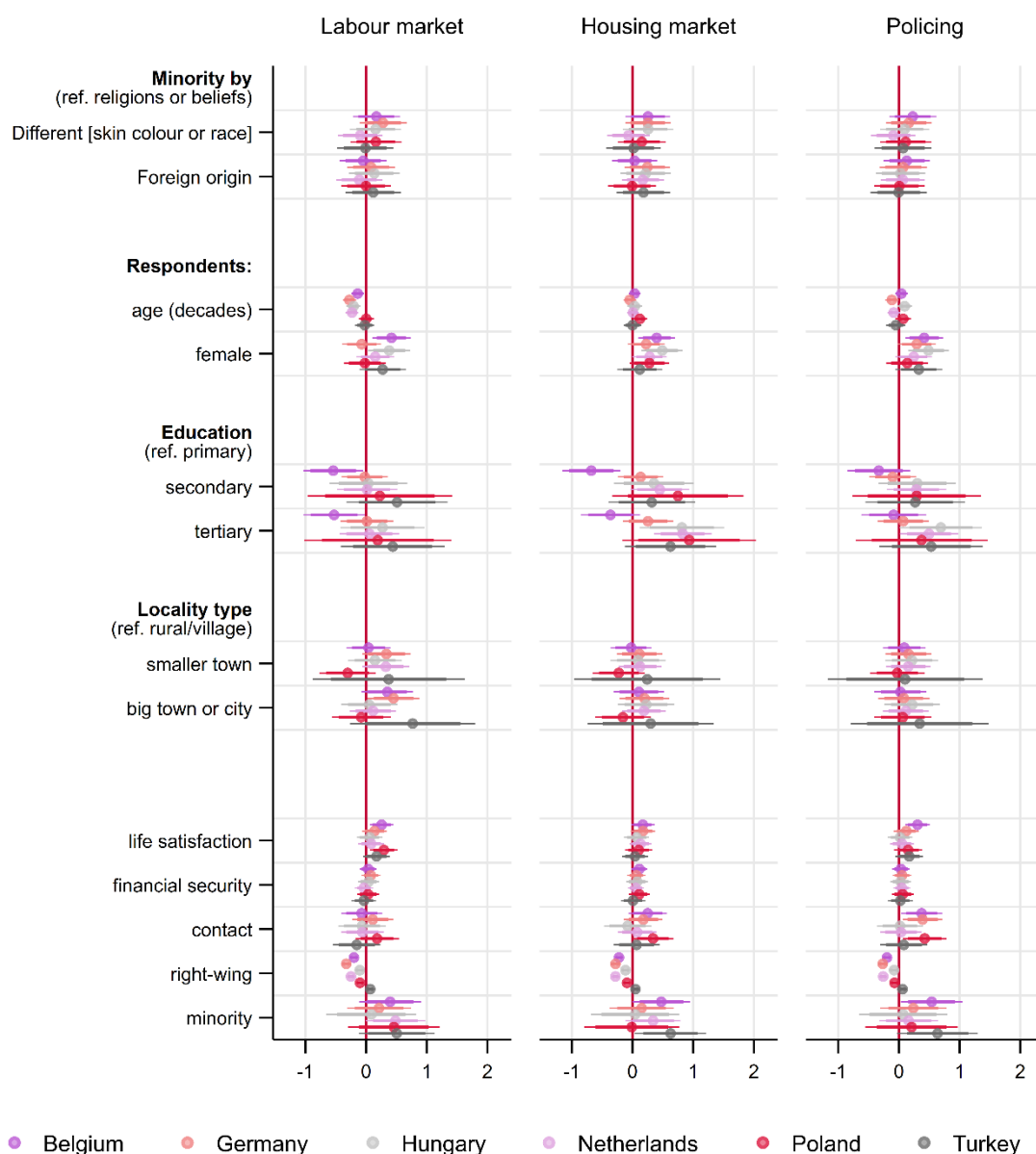
Structural discrimination as a cause of inequalities

Figure 27 presents the results of models that regress the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to side-effect discrimination on the same set of predictors. It shows that the minority group to which respondents were assigned in Experiment 2 did not play a role in predicting their level of support for justification of inequalities pertaining to side-effect discrimination. The role of the respondent's age varied depending on the country and sphere of life considered. In the three Western European countries and in Hungary, older individuals were less supportive of this justification for labour market inequalities than comparable younger individuals. Age was unrelated to support for this justification in Turkey, regardless of the sphere of life. In Poland, age only mattered as regards housing market inequalities (with older individuals being more likely to view side-effect discrimination as the likely cause of inequalities). In the remaining five countries, in turn, age was unrelated to the perception that the described housing market inequality is due to the given minority group being discriminated against in other spheres. As regards police stops, age was negatively related to this perception among German and Dutch respondents, positively related among Hungarian respondents, and unrelated in the remaining three countries. If gender was a significant predictor, these were women who were more perceptive of side-effect discrimination as a likely cause for the described inequalities. However, gender differences were not recorded in every country and sphere. This result held for labour market inequalities in Belgium and Hungary, housing market inequalities in all countries except for Germany and Turkey, and policing in all countries studied except for Poland. Education was unrelated to the belief in side-effect discrimination as a likely cause of the described labour market inequalities in all countries except for Belgium. Interestingly, Belgian respondents with the lowest level of education were more supportive of this justification for the existing labour market inequalities than comparable individuals with higher levels of education. As regard inequalities in the housing market, if significant, education was positively related to support for this justification, with people with higher education being more supportive of it than those with primary education in Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey, more supportive than those with secondary education in Belgium, Hungary and the Netherlands, and with people with secondary education more supportive of it than those with primary education in the

Netherlands. The only exception to this was Belgium, where respondents with primary education were more supportive of the explanation pointing to side-effect discrimination than those with secondary education. As regards police stops, education was only a significant predictor of support for side-effect discrimination as a cause of more frequent police stops among minorities in Hungary and in the Netherlands. In Hungary, respondents with higher education were more supportive of this justification than those without higher education and in the Netherlands respondents with higher education were more supportive of this justification than those with primary education.

Overall, if significant, higher life satisfaction was associated with greater support for side-effect discrimination as a likely cause of the described inequalities. However, this pattern was only visible in selected country-sphere combinations. In the labour market, for example, the positive association was present only in Belgium, Poland and Turkey. As far as housing market inequalities are concerned, the positive association was present only in Belgium and Germany, whereas in policing it was present only in Belgium. Self-perceived financial security was generally not associated with support for this justification, except for Belgium in the housing market, where the two were positively related. Outgroup contact was not related to the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to discrimination against the minority group in question in other spheres. Being a member of the minority group in question was positively related to this perception, but only in Belgium, the Netherlands and Turkey. Housing market inequalities were more likely to be explained by side-effect discrimination among minority group members than non-minority group members in Belgium and Turkey but not in the remaining four countries. Outgroup contact, in turn, was positively related to this explanation of housing market inequalities in Belgium and Poland. In policing, the positive association with outgroup contact was present in Belgium, Germany and Poland, and with minority status in Belgium and Turkey. Political orientation was a significant predictor of support for the justification pointing to side-effect discrimination, with right-wing leaning respondents being less supportive of this justification in all countries except for Turkey. In Turkey, the relationship was reversed with regard to labour market inequalities and inequalities in policing, while it was not significant in housing. The negative relationship recorded in the remaining five countries held across the three life spheres. The type of locality did not prove to be a significant predictor of the perception that side-effect discrimination is the likely cause of the described inequalities in the housing market or policing in any of the countries. As regards side-effect discrimination as a perceived cause of the described labour market inequalities, the type of locality mattered only in the Western European countries in the study. In Germany, urban dwellers were more supportive of this justification than rural dwellers. In Belgium, these were residents of big town and cities who were more supportive of this justification than residents of rural areas and villages, all else held constant, while in the Netherlands, these were residents of smaller towns that were more supportive of it than comparable residents of rural areas or villages.

Figure 27. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to structural (side-effect) discrimination, OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to the given minority group being discriminated in other spheres (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A9.1–A9.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata `coefplot` command (Jann 2014).

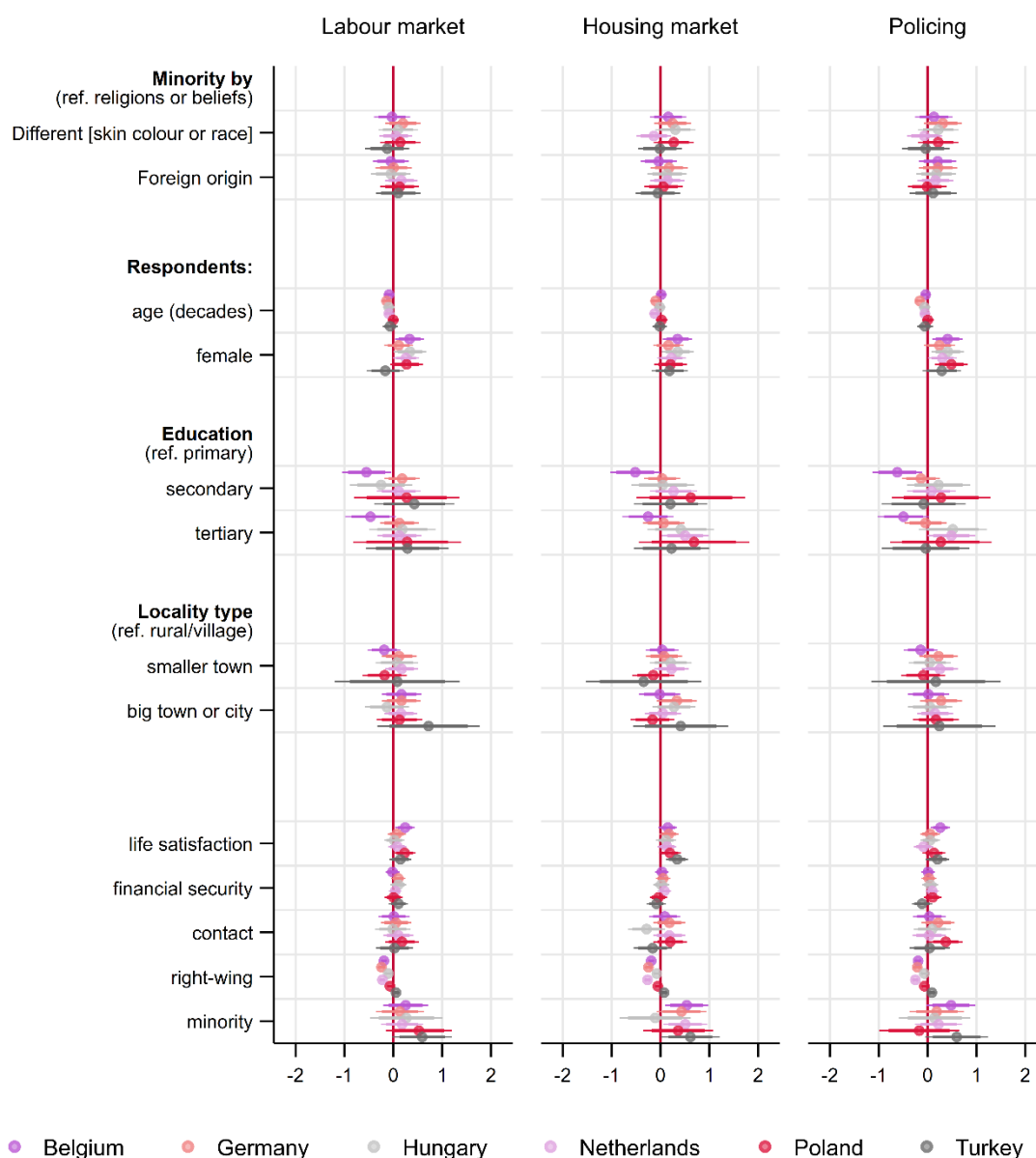
Figure 28 demonstrates that the minority group to which respondents were randomly assigned in Experiment 2 did not impact their perception of whether the described inequalities occurred due to past-in-present discrimination. The only exception was Germany, where respondents were more likely to attribute inequalities in policing to this reason when asked about people of different skin colour than when asked about people of different religions or beliefs than the majority.

This justification was negatively related to age, but only in selected countries and spheres. This was true for all countries except for Poland and Turkey as regards labour market inequalities, and for

Germany and the Netherlands as regards housing market inequalities. Regarding policing, this was true for Germany only. As with the previous justifications, women were more supportive of structural discrimination than men. This result held for all countries but Germany and Turkey when the focus was on inequalities in the labour market or in policing, and for all countries except for Germany, Turkey and Poland when the focus was on inequalities in the housing market. Education level was a significant predictor of the perception that the described inequality is likely due to the given minority group having been unfairly treated in the past only in Belgium, the Netherlands and Hungary. In Belgium, this perception was the strongest among the least educated individuals, all else held constant, as far as unequal labour market outcomes and police stops were concerned (these were those with secondary education who were the least supportive of this justification with regard to inequalities in housing). In the Netherlands, in turn, this perception was the strongest among the highly educated individuals, *ceteris paribus*, but only with regard to inequalities in policing. As regards housing market inequalities, only the gap between respondents with higher education and those with primary education was significant, *ceteris paribus*. In Hungary, only respondents with higher education differed from those with secondary education in being more likely to attribute the current inequalities in the three life spheres to unfair treatment in the past.

If significant, satisfaction with life was again positively related to the attribution of inequalities to structural discrimination. When the focus was on past-in-present discrimination, this was true among Belgian and Polish respondents assessing the causes of labour market inequalities, among Belgian, German, Polish and Turkish respondents assessing housing market inequalities, and respondents in Belgium and Turkey when the question was about the causes of inequalities in policing. Financial security did not prove to be a significant predictor of support for the justification pointing to past-in-present discrimination in any of the countries and spheres. Neither did outgroup contact, except for Poland, where it was positively related to support for this justification as regards inequality in police stops. Minority ingroup status increased the perception that the described inequalities are due to past-in-present discrimination in Poland and Turkey as regards the labour market, in all countries except for Hungary and Poland as regards the housing market, and in Belgium and Turkey – as regards policing. Right-wing political leaning was consistently negatively related to the perception that the described inequalities are likely due to the given minority group having been unfairly treated in the past in all countries except for Turkey, where the relationship was reversed. The type of locality was unrelated to the belief that inequalities in policing were caused by past-in-present discrimination. As regards labour market inequalities, residents of big towns and cities were more supportive of this justification than residents of smaller towns in Belgium, Poland and Turkey. When asked about potential causes for the described housing market inequalities, people living in big towns and cities were more likely than comparable residents of rural areas and villages in Germany, and more likely than comparable residents of smaller towns in Turkey, to say that past unfair treatment is why it takes longer for minority group members to find housing in a good neighbourhood.

Figure 28. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to structural (past-in-present) discrimination, OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to the given minority group having been unfairly treated in the past (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A10.1–A10.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata `coefplot` command (Jann 2014).

Non-discrimination-related justifications for inequalities

Apart from justifications pertaining to different types of discrimination, respondents were also asked to assess how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere was due to the lack of the necessary local skills and/or knowledge among members of a given minority group, or due to the fault of members of the given minority group. Figure 29 presents the results of the 18 models that regress support for the former justification on the same set of variables as before. It shows that the

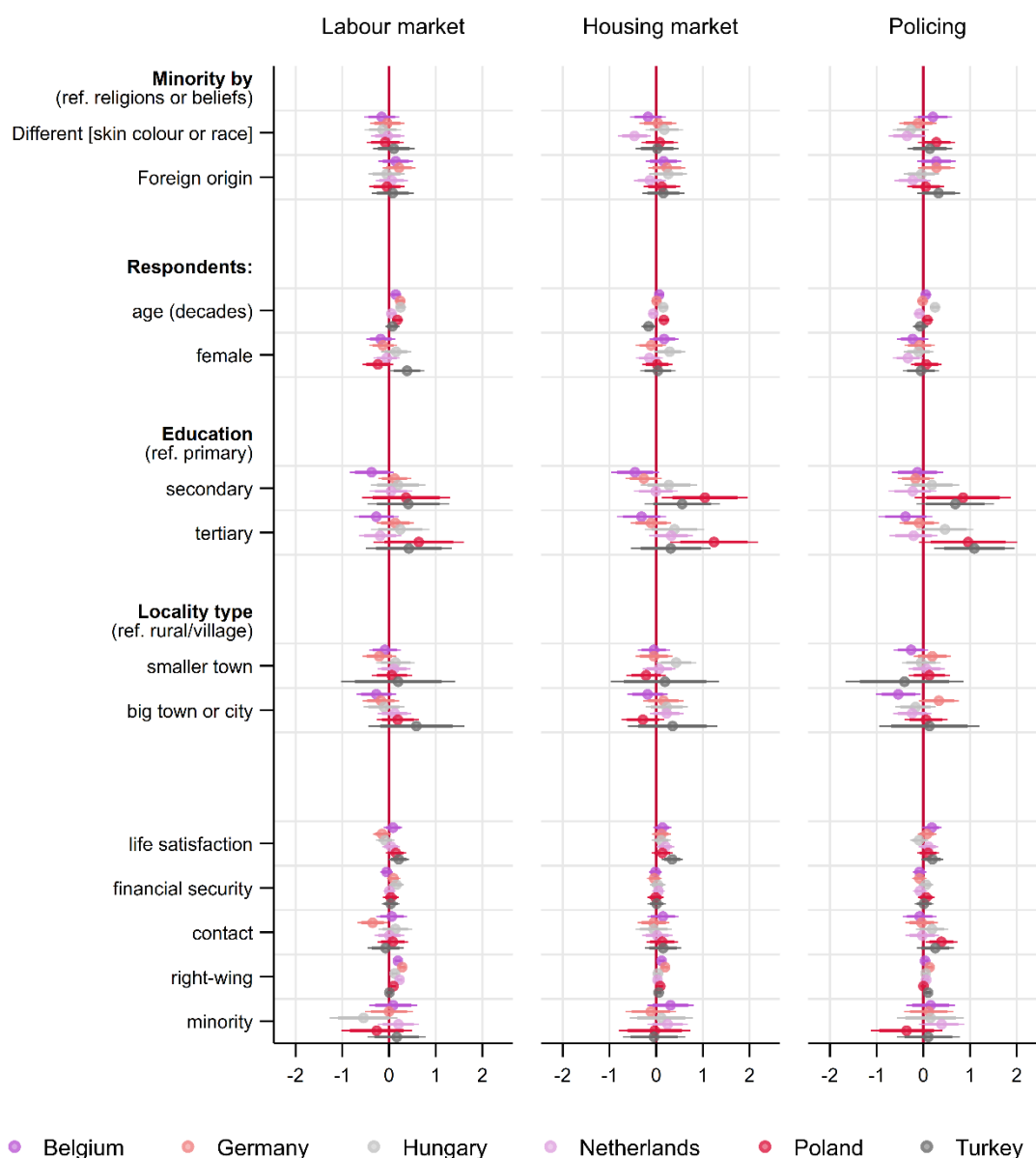
minority group to which a respondent was assigned had an impact on the perception of housing market and policing inequalities in the Netherlands, labour and housing market inequalities in Belgium, and policing inequalities in Germany. Specifically, Dutch respondents were less supportive of the view that the existing inequalities were likely due to members of a given minority group lacking the necessary local skills and/or knowledge when asked about minorities distinguished based on skin colour or race than when asked about minorities distinguished based on religion or beliefs (housing and policing), or than when asked about people of foreign origin (housing). Belgian and German participants were more supportive of this justification in respective spheres with regard to people of foreign origin than with regard to racial minorities.

In all countries except for the Netherlands and Turkey, age was positively associated with the perception that the described inequalities in the labour market are likely due to members of a given minority group lacking the necessary local skills and/or knowledge. In policing, the positive association was present only in Hungary. In the housing market it was present in Hungary and Poland. In Turkey, in turn, the association between age and support for this justification for housing market inequalities was negative. Women were more likely than men to attribute the described inequalities to a lack of skills and knowledge among minorities only in Turkey when inequality concerned the labour market and in Hungary when it concerned the housing market. In the Netherlands, women were more likely than men to attribute more frequent police stops of minorities to a lack of knowledge about the local laws and regulations among minorities. Otherwise, gender was not significantly related to support for this justification. Education did not prove to be a consistent predictor of support for this justification either. All else held constant, individuals with secondary education in Belgium were less supportive of this justification for the labour and housing market inequalities than individuals with primary education. In Poland, people with higher levels of education were more likely than those with less than secondary education to attribute the described inequalities in the housing market and policing to this reason. The same was true for respondents in Turkey with regard to inequalities in policing. Higher levels of support for this justification for the existing inequalities was found among highly educated individuals than among people with secondary education in Poland with regard to the labour market, the Netherlands with regard to the housing market, and in Hungary and Turkey with regard to policing. In Hungary, those with higher education were also more supportive of this justification with regard to police stops than those with primary education, all else held constant.

Life satisfaction, if significant, in most cases was positively related to the belief that a lack of necessary skills or knowledge likely caused the described inequality. However, this was only true for Turkey (across all life spheres considered), in the Netherlands with regard to housing market inequalities and in Belgium with regard to policing. In one case, a higher level of life satisfaction was related to lower support for this justification: this concerned labour market inequalities in Germany. Financial security was not a significant predictor of this justification overall. The only exception was Hungary, where higher levels of self-perceived financial security were associated with a greater tendency to view lower earnings and inferior job prospects for the minority employees of the fictitious company as the result of a lack of necessary skills or knowledge. Outgroup contact was also largely non-significant. It was significantly related to the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to members of a given minority group lacking the necessary local skills and/or knowledge only in Germany, where higher proportion of minority members among respondents' friends was related to lower support for the justification pointing to structural differences in skills or knowledge as the cause of the described labour market inequalities. It was also significantly related to this perception in Poland, where a higher proportion of outgroup members among respondents' friends made them more supportive of the statement that more frequent police stops among the given

minority group were due to members of this group lacking knowledge of local laws and regulations. Minority status was not generally a significant predictor of support for this justification. The only exception was the Netherlands, where the two were positively associated in relation to inequalities in policing. Right-wing political leaning was positively related to the belief that the described inequalities were due to a lack of local skills or knowledge across the six countries, but this was not always statistically significant. Lower earnings and worse jobs among minority employees were more likely to be attributed to a lack of skills or knowledge by the more conservative respondents in all countries except for Turkey. The longer time taken by minority members to find housing in a good neighbourhood was more likely to be viewed as the result of a lack of skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing by the more right-leaning respondents in Belgium, Germany and Poland. Meanwhile, the belief that the more frequent police stops experienced by minority members were due to their lack of knowledge about the local laws and regulations was stronger among more right-wing respondents in Germany, the Netherlands and Turkey. The type of locality was unrelated to support for this justification as regards labour market inequalities in any of the countries. As regards housing market inequalities, it was only significantly related to the belief that the underlying factor were the lacking skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing in Hungary, where residents of smaller town were more supportive of this justification than rural dwellers, all else held constant. In policing, a significant relationship was recorded only in Belgium and Germany, though the two countries differed in how the type of locality was related to support for the justification pertaining to knowledge of local laws and regulations. In Belgium, residents of big cities or towns were less supportive of it than residents of rural areas or villages, *ceteris paribus*. In Germany the reverse was true.

Figure 29. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely due to members of a given minority group not having the necessary local skills and/or knowledge, OLS estimates



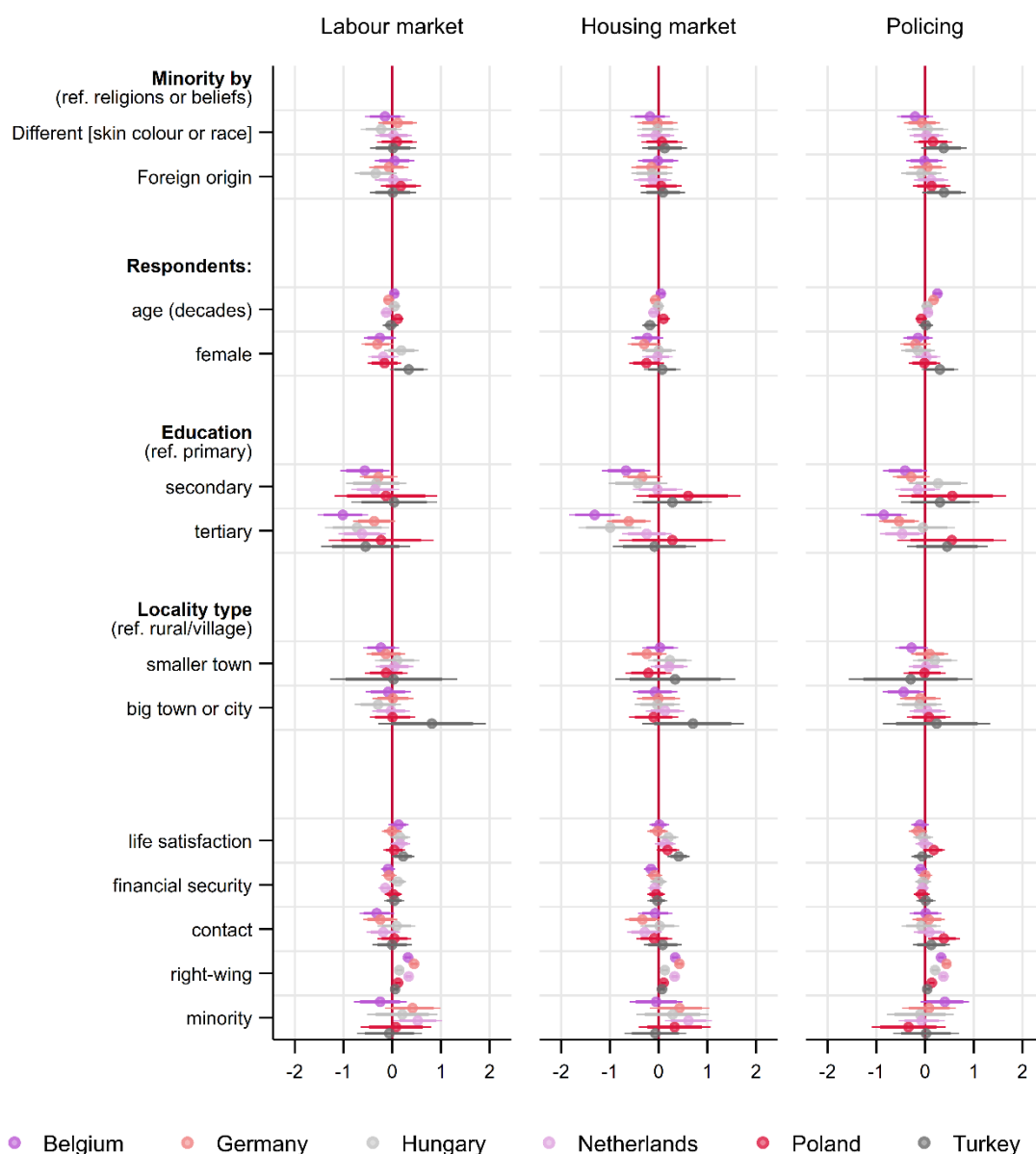
Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to members of a given minority group not having the necessary local skills and/or knowledge (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A11.1–A11.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata `coefplot` command (Jann 2014).

Figure 30 presents the results of the 18 models that regress support for the justification pointing to the fault of the minority group on the same set of characteristics of the minority group and the respondents. Overall, it demonstrates that the characteristics used to distinguish the minority group did not affect the perception that the described inequalities are the fault of the minority group. The only exceptions were Hungary, where respondents were less supportive of this justification as regards labour market inequalities when asked about people of foreign origin than when asked about

religious minorities, and Turkey, where respondents showed lower support for this justification as regards police stops when asked about religious minorities than when asked about racial minorities or people of foreign origin.

In Poland, older people were more likely than younger people to attribute the described disparities in the labour and housing markets to low effort. In Belgium and Germany, age was also positively related to support for this justification with regard to the frequency of police stops. In the Netherlands, in turn, younger people were more likely than older people to believe that the lack of effort is the root cause of the described minority-majority discrepancies. The same was true for Turkey with regard to inequalities in the housing market. Gender was a significant predictor of the low-effort explanation only in Germany and Turkey, and not in all spheres of life. In Germany, men were more likely to support it than women when asked about inequalities in the labour and housing markets, all else held constant. In Turkey, these were women who were more likely to attribute worse outcomes among minorities in the labour market and policing to the fault of the minorities themselves. Education level was negatively related to support for this justification, if significant. In the case of labour market inequalities, support for this justification was lower among highly educated individuals than among those with primary education in all countries except for Poland and Turkey. In Belgium, there was also a significant difference between those with primary education and those with secondary education, as well as between those with secondary education and those with higher education. The latter was also true for respondents in Hungary, the Netherlands and Turkey. Regarding housing market inequalities, a significant gap in perceptions was observed between those with primary education and those with higher education in Belgium, Germany and Hungary. In Belgium and Germany, a significant difference was observed between those with primary education and those with secondary education, while in all countries except for Germany and the Netherlands – between those with secondary education and those with higher education. Finally, as regards inequalities in policing, a significant gap was observed between people with primary education and those with higher education in the Western European countries. Moreover, a significant gap was also recorded in Belgium between individuals with primary and with secondary education, as well as between those with secondary and those with higher education in Belgium, Hungary and the Netherlands.

Figure 30. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities are likely members' of the given minority group fault, OLS estimates



Note: Dependent variable is the perception of how likely it is that the described inequality in a given sphere is due to members of the given minority group not trying hard enough (labour market and housing) or more often breaking the law (rated on a 11-point scale, 0 = 'not at all likely', 10 = 'very likely'). Lines stand for 95% and 99% confidence intervals. For complete econometric output, see Tables A12.1–A12.3. Figure prepared with the use of Stata coefplot command (Jann 2014).

If significant, life satisfaction was positively related to the belief that inequalities occur due to a lack of effort on the part of minority members. This was true in Hungary, the Netherlands and Turkey with regard to labour market inequalities; in Hungary, Poland and Turkey with regard to housing market inequalities; and in Poland with regard to policing. The only exception was Germany, where people who were more satisfied with life were less likely to attribute existing inequalities in policing to minority group's own fault. Financial security was generally unrelated to support for this

justification, except for the Netherlands and Belgium, where those who felt more financially secure were less likely to believe that a lack of effort was the root cause of the described disparities in the labour and housing markets, respectively. Contact with outgroup members made people in Belgium less supportive of the statement that minority members earn less and have worse jobs because they are not trying hard enough. It also made people in the Netherlands and Germany less likely to claim that it takes longer for minorities to find housing in a good neighbourhood due to their lack of effort. In Poland, in turn, those with a higher share of outgroup members in their social networks were more likely to attribute more frequent police stops among minority members to members of this group breaking the law more often. In the remaining country-spheres, contact was not a significant predictor of support for this justification. Right-wing political orientation was consistently positively related to support for this justification across the studied countries and spheres (with the exception of Turkey as regards policing). Minority ingroup status did not explain support for the own fault justification, with the exception of the Netherlands, where those belonging to the given minority were more supportive of this justification in relation to the labour and housing market inequality than comparable majority members, and in Belgium, where the same applied to inequalities in policing. When all the other variables are accounted for, locality size was unrelated to support for the justification for housing market inequalities pertaining to minority members' own fault. The only significant difference was the one between residents of big towns and cities vs. residents of smaller towns in Hungary and Turkey as regards labour market inequalities and police stops, though the sign in the former country went in the opposite direction than in the latter. Otherwise, the only other significant difference was between urban and rural dwellers in Belgium, where rural dwellers were more likely to view more frequent police stops of minorities as the fault of the minorities themselves.

6. Summary

Our results show that the perception of ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities and their causes differed between the six European countries covered by the RAISE WP4 survey and between the three spheres of life considered. These differences make it difficult to summarise the results without oversimplifying the complex reality. Nevertheless, we will try to discuss the most important findings below, comparing them against the results of previous studies, which were mostly focused on the US.

In our first experiment, which took the form of a factorial survey experiment, we asked respondents to compare the outcomes of three minority groups in three life spheres: the labour market, the housing market and policing against the outcomes of the majority group. The sets of three minority groups, which were defined by their ethnicity, religion and migration status, were assigned to respondents at random from a larger pool of sets. Overall, the perception that minority members are disadvantaged relative to majority members was not very strong in the countries studied, yet stronger in the three Western European countries in the study than in Poland and Hungary. An exception was the Netherlands with regard to labour market inequalities, where respondents found majority members to be slightly disadvantaged relative to minorities. This result may be explained by the fact that the ‘housing crisis’ has been a salient issue in the Netherlands that has been linked to migration by many – mostly radical right – politicians, claiming that newcomers ‘take away’ housing from the Dutch.

However, the most striking were the results for Turkey, where respondents on average found Turks to be disadvantaged compared to minorities in all spheres of life considered. This is consistent with the claims present in the public discourse, including in the media, that aid provided to refugees staying in Turkey by the UNHCR and the European Union (distributed through the Red Crescent) put them in a more privileged position than Turks. The perception that immigrants, particularly refugees from Syria, are advantaged relative to Turks was so widespread in the Turkish society that the government initiated a public communication campaign aimed at rectifying some of the most widely widespread misperceptions concerning Syrian refugees. This included rumours that they receive government support that is not available for Turks.¹⁵ It is possible that these perceptions related to the largest refugee groups, such as Syrians, were projected onto other minority groups. Turkey also stood out from the other countries studied in terms of the role of different attributes of minority groups that were compared with the majority group in shaping respondents’ perceptions of inequalities.

When studying perceived inequalities, we attempted to disentangle the effects of three attributes: ethnicity, religion and migration status. The influence of ethnicity differed between countries and life spheres considered. The most general conclusion is that ethnicity of a minority group mattered in shaping people’s perceptions of inequalities, independent of the effects of religion and migration status. Although it was not consistent across all countries and spheres, there seemed to be a hierarchy of ethnicities, in terms of their perceived inequality to the majority group. On average, groups described as Roma, Afghan, Syrian or Nigerian were considered as more disadvantaged relative to the majority than groups described as Ukrainian or Chinese, with Turk, Bosniak and Indian ethnicities positioned somewhere in between. Compared to the other five countries, Turkey noted relatively little difference between ethnicities. Interestingly, in Turkey, neither religion nor migration

¹⁵ See <https://www.goc.gov.tr/kurumlar/goc.gov.tr/Yayinlar/Brosurler/dog-bilinen-yanl/Dogru-Bilinen-Yanlislar-.pdf> and <https://multeciler.org.tr/suriyeliler-devletten-para-aliyor-mu/> (in Turkish), accessed: May 20, 2025. We thank Çiğdem Kentmen for directing us to these sources.

status mattered for the perception of inequalities, regardless of the life sphere. In the remaining five countries, people generally perceived minority groups born abroad as facing more inequalities than those born in the country. However, it did not matter for the perception of inequalities whether the group was described as having come to save their lives or to make their life better. This last result was consistent across all countries and life spheres. Moreover, when described as Muslim, the minority group was perceived as being more disadvantaged relative to the majority than when described as Christian in all countries apart from Turkey, and the Netherlands with regard to housing market inequalities. This suggests that people in Western and Central European states in the study perceived Muslim and immigrant penalties to be present in their societies.

On the top of studying the effects of the three attributes of minority groups compared with the majority, we also attempted to identify characteristics of respondents associated with the perception of inequalities. However, identification of common trends in the predictors of perceived inequalities proved to be a challenging task. The factors considered were hardly ever significant across all the countries and spheres of life studied and sometimes they differed not only in magnitude, but also in the direction of the relationship. These included for instance age, life satisfaction, and, most surprisingly, minority status. Of the characteristics considered, financial security was the one most consistently related to the perception of inequalities between the majority and minority groups across the countries and spheres studied – with those who felt more financially secure being more perceptive of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities. Political orientation was a significant predictor in all three spheres of life in all countries except for Hungary. In all of these countries but Turkey being more right-wing was associated with a lower perception of inequality to the disadvantage of minorities. In Turkey, in turn, a more conservative worldview was consistently associated with a lower perceived minority advantage. In other words, it may be stated that right-wing political leaning was negatively related to perceived inequalities. Overall, if significant, the perception that minorities are disadvantaged relative to the majority tended to increase with growing levels of education and growing size of the locality. Although not without exceptions, women were generally more perceptive of inequalities than men. If significant, outgroup contact was consistently positively related to the perception of inequalities to the disadvantage of minorities. Interpreted in terms of its relationship with inequalities as such, the contact-inequalities relationship depended on the valence of the perception – increasing the perception that minorities are disadvantaged relative to the majority or reducing the perception that minorities are advantaged compared to the majority. This result is in line with perspective taking, with majority members with greater contact with minorities seeing them as more disadvantaged (or less advantaged).

In our second experiment, we presented respondents with a description of existing inequalities in each of the three life spheres studied in the first experiment, along with a list of potential causes of these inequalities. We then asked them to assess how likely they thought it was that a specific reason was at the roots of the described inequality. In answering these questions, respondents were randomly assigned to one of the three minority groups: people of different religions or beliefs than the majority, people of different [skin colour or race] than the majority and people of foreign origin. While the rankings of the most supported justifications differed between countries and spheres studied, similar patterns emerged across the three minority groups.

When exposed to a description of inequality in the labour market, respondents in the three Western European countries included in the study were most supportive of the justification pertaining to the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in the described group often not being recognised (a form of institutional discrimination). In contrast, respondents in Hungary and Poland were, on average, most supportive of the justification relating to members of the minority group potentially lacking the necessary skills or knowledge. As regards the housing market, respondents in all the six

countries studied, on average, considered individual discrimination by landlords and real estate agents, as well as side-effect discrimination to be the most likely reasons for the described inequality. Respondents in all countries were, in turn, on average, least likely to attribute the existing inequalities in the two spheres to the fault of the minority group, which was the most strongly supported justification for inequalities in policing. As regards police stops, the justification relating to the police being more lenient with the majority group members (as an operationalisation of more general institutional discrimination) was least supported across the six countries.

Overall, people in the six countries tended to recognise the role of discrimination in producing racial, religious and origin-based inequalities, and there were not substantial differences in support for different justifications. In particular, support for justifications pertaining to structural discrimination was not systematically weaker than for other justifications. This suggests that respondents in the six countries did not dismiss side-effect discrimination and past-in-present discrimination as potential sources of racial, religious and origin-based inequalities. At the same time, the level of support for any of the justifications was rather moderate, indicating that people did not hold strong opinions on the causes of inequalities. Assuming that weaker perceptions, as weaker attitudes (Eagly and Chaiken 1995), are easier to change, this indicates the potential for political communication as a promising tool for shaping public perceptions of inequalities. Interestingly, although, as shown in Experiment 1, the perception of inequalities differed considerably in Turkey (across all spheres) and in the Netherlands (in the housing market) as compared to the other countries, the way Turkish and Dutch respondents justified the inequalities they were exposed to in Experiment 2 did not differ much from the way respondents in the remaining countries did it.

Analysis of the factors influencing support for different justifications for religious, racial and origin-based inequalities also failed to provide clear conclusions. Most of the factors considered did not exhibit a consistent pattern in terms of the perceived causes of inequalities across countries and spheres. The significance and direction of the relationships studied differed between countries and spheres of life studied, yielding overall inconclusive results. While not significant in every country or sphere, women were generally more supportive of justifications pertaining to different types of discrimination than men. Similarly, people who were more satisfied with life tended to be more supportive of them than those reporting lower levels of life satisfaction. Political orientation was the factor most consistently related to the perception that different types of discrimination are a likely cause of the described inequalities. In all countries except for Turkey, where this relationship was reversed, respondents with more right-wing political views were less supportive of the statements attributing inequality to discrimination and more supportive of the justification pointing to the fault of the minority group.

The outcomes concerning the relationship between political orientation and the perception of inequalities, as well as their perceived causes, obtained in all the RAISE countries apart from Turkey, align with the findings of previous studies conducted in the American context. This includes studies demonstrating substantial partisan gaps in perceived racial inequalities, with Republican respondents being significantly less likely to believe in inequalities (see e.g. Alesina, Ferroni, and Stantcheva 2024). The findings also corroborate those of American studies in which partisanship was found to be a key predictor of the perceived causes of racial inequalities. Specifically, Democratic/more liberal respondents were more likely to attribute racial disparities to discrimination, including structural discrimination, whereas Republican/more conservative respondents were more likely to attribute them to individual effort or actions (Alesina, Ferroni, and Stantcheva 2024; Croll 2013; Kluegel 1990; Douds, O'Connell, and Bratter 2019; Hunt 2007).

Surprisingly, outgroup contact was not an important predictor of support for the justifications for the existing inequalities pertaining to different types of discrimination. This stands in opposition to the results of studies conducted in the American context, where intergroup contact was linked to a higher likelihood of attributing racial inequality to underlying systemic and historical factors, such as slavery and discrimination, rather than to a lack of effort on the part of minority group members (Mo and Conn 2018; Mijs 2023).

In light of the previous US-based studies, another surprising result was the rather murky picture regarding the role of minority status in shaping both the perception of inequalities and justifications for them. US-based studies have consistently shown that white respondents were less likely than non-White respondents to perceive inequalities in the society and to support justifications pointing to discrimination, even when controlling for other socio-demographic variables (Hartmann, Gerteis, and Croll 2009; Croll 2013; Alesina, Ferroni, and Stantcheva 2024; Manning, Hartmann, and Gerteis 2015; Shelton 2017; Hunt 2007). However, the racial divide in public opinion on the causes of racial inequality has not been shown to be universal, for example, perceived determinants of inequality did not show a division along racial lines in Brazil (Bailey 2002). Our findings regarding the role of the minority status also resonate with the results of previous studies conducted in the European context, which showed that views on the prevalence of discrimination did not differ between immigrants and natives (Behtoui and Neergaard 2009).

Furthermore, American studies provided evidence for the role of education and gender in predicting support for different explanations for the existing inequalities. Women and more educated individuals in the US were more likely than men and less educated individuals to employ structural (discrimination-related) and less likely to employ individual explanations (Hunt 2007; Douds, O'Connell, and Bratter 2019; Shelton 2017).¹⁶ However, this pattern was not evident in all countries and life spheres in our study. This links to inter-country differences that likely stem from countries' different histories of diversity. However, different outcomes to those observed in the US may also potentially be explained by differences in broader inequality belief systems, which tend to be more easily explained by socio-demographic factors in the US than in Europe. This was illustrated by the example of the Netherlands, as shown by Bertero and colleagues (2024). This would explain why only a few socio-demographic factors were associated with support for different justifications for inequalities in our sample.

Our analyses confirmed that the public perception of ethnic, racial, religious and origin-based inequalities, as well as of their origins are indeed context dependent. Future studies might find it worthwhile to investigate to what extent the perception of inequalities and beliefs about their roots depend on factors such as the phase of the migration cycle (Fassmann and Reeger 2012), ethnic, racial and religious diversity, the level of integration of minorities, or the actual discrimination they experience in the society.

The fact that the average perception that minority members are disadvantaged relative to majority members was not very strong and that people did not hold strong opinions on the causes of inequalities, means that awareness of inequalities and of structural discrimination underlying them, was not high overall in the countries studied. This leaves room for public communication campaigns that, by raising awareness and correcting the existing misperceptions could counteract structural discrimination and, in effect, lead to greater equality in the European societies.

¹⁶ Yet as shown by Wodtke (2018), the effects of education may be inflated by unobserved confounding (i.e. follow from other characteristics that go hand in hand with higher level of education).

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Appendix

Design of Experiment 1

Table A1. The sets of outgroup profiles for Experiment 1

Set	Profile	x1=ethnicity	x2=religion	x3=immigrant status & reason for immigrating
1	1	Syrians	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Ukrainians	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
2	1	Syrians	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Bosniaks	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	3	Indians	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
3	1	Chinese	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
	3	Nigerians	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
4	1	Roma	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Chinese	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	3	Syrians	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
5	1	Chinese	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Bosniaks	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Indians	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
6	1	Afghans	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Chinese	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Bosniaks	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
7	1	Roma	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Indians	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
8	1	Afghans	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Bosniaks	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
9	1	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Indians	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Nigerians	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
10	1	Afghans	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Chinese	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth

	3	Ukrainians	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
11	1	Afghans	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Indians	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	3	Nigerians	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
12	1	Roma	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Syrians	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Indians	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
13	1	Roma	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Chinese	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Indians	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
14	1	Roma	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Ukrainians	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Nigerians	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
15	1	Syrians	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Bosniaks	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Nigerians	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
16	1	Roma	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Ukrainians	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Bosniaks	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
17	1	Syrians	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Ukrainians	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Nigerians	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
18	1	Afghans	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Syrians	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Nigerians	Christian	came to [country] to save their lives
19	1	Ukrainians	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Bosniaks	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Indians	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
20	1	Chinese	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Syrians	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Bosniaks	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
21	1	Roma	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	2	Bosniaks	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
	3	Nigerians	Muslim	have lived in [country] since birth
22	1	Chinese	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Indians	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Nigerians	Christian	came to [country] to make their lives better
23	1	Roma	non-religious	came to [country] to make their lives better
	2	Afghans	non-religious	have lived in [country] since birth
	3	Turks (Turkmens in Turkey)	Muslim	came to [country] to save their lives
24	1	Roma	Christian	have lived in [country] since birth
	2	Chinese	non-religious	came to [country] to save their lives
	3	Syrians	Muslim	came to [country] to make their lives better

Definitions and summary statistics

Table A2. The definitions and summary statistics of all the variables included in the analysis

Variable	Code	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Survey question used
Long dataset							
Perception of inequalities							Diverse people live in [country]. Among them are, for example, [profiles defined within Experiment 1 - see Data & Methods]
Labour market (PLMI)		35,907	0.35	3.08	-5	5	Who do you think has a harder time finding a job in the [country's] labour market?
Housing market (PHMI)		35,907	0.24	3.17	-5	5	Who do you think has a harder time finding housing?
Policing (PPSI)		35,907	0.80	2.86	-5	5	Who do you think is more likely to be stopped by the police?
Wide dataset							
Gender (gender)		11,969	0.51	0.50	0	1	Which option best describes you? (female = 1, male = 0)
Age (age)		11,969	43.98	14.53	18	70	In what year were you born? Recoded into age
Education (education)		11,969					What is the highest level of education you have completed?
lower secondary or less	0	1,677					
upper secondary	1	6,055					
tertiary	2	4,237					
Life satisfaction (life_satisf)		11,969	3.55	0.98	1	5	On the whole, how satisfied or not are you with the life you lead? Are you...?
Financial security (fin_security)		11,969	3.47	1.26	1	6	Does the total income of your household allow you to cover all necessary expenses?
Locality (locality)		11,969					Would you describe the place where you live as ...

rural area or village	1	3,010					
small or medium-sized town	2	4,052					
large town or city	3	4,907					
Political orientation (right)		10,572	5.26	2.69	0	10	In politics, people talk of "the left" and "the right". Thinking about your political views, where would you place yourself on this scale, where 0 means the left and 10 means the right? recoded (98=.)
Contact with racial outgroup members (contact_race)		11,718	1.16	1.08	0	4	How many of your friends in [country] are of different [skin colour or race] than you? recoded (95=.)
Contact with religious outgroup members (contact_rel)		11,745	1.40	1.12	0	4	How many of your friends in [country] are of different religion or beliefs than you? recoded (95=.)
							<i>Asked if having both parents born in the country</i>
Contact with people of foreign origin (contact_forigin)		10,419	1.13	1.02	0	4	How many of your friends in [country] are of foreign origin? recoded (95=.)
							<i>Asked if having at least one parent not born in the country</i>
Contact with natives (contact_natives)		1,324	2.59	1.22	0	4	How many of your friends in [country] are native [country's majority group]? recoded (95=.)
Outgroup contact (contact)		11,806	1.29	0.93	0	4	Mean of contact_race, contact_rel, contact_forigin and contact_natives
Contact for justifications (contact_justifications)		11,969	0.29	0.45	0	1	Recoded contact_race, contact_rel, contact_forigin and contact_natives 1 if contact_race, contact_rel, contact_forigin and contact_natives = 1 depending on the minority group assigned in Experiment 2 0 otherwise

Migration background (minority_birth)	11,969	0.11	0.32	0	1	1 if at least one parent was not born in the country 0 otherwise
Racial minority (minority_race)	11,969	0.12	0.32	0	1	Do you consider yourself to be of a different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]? (yes = 1, no = 0)
Religious minority (minority_rel)	11,969	0.07	0.26	0	1	Do you consider yourself to be of a different religion or beliefs than most [country's majority group]? (yes = 1, no = 0)
Minority for justifications (minority_justifications)	11,969	0.10	0.30	0	1	Recoded minority_birth, minority_race, minority_rel 1 if minority_birth, minority_race, minority_rel = 1 depending on the minority group assigned in Experiment 2 0 otherwise
Justifications for inequality						
<u>Labour market</u>						
people of different religions or beliefs						
JJLMI1	3,988	6.37	2.50	0	10	A company in [country] employs diverse people. Among them are people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group]. Members of this group earn less and have worse jobs than most of the company's [country majority group's] employees. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because? the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in this group are often not recognised
JJLMI2	3,988	5.13	2.63	0	10	existing regulations favour majority members
JJLMI3	3,988	5.83	2.62	0	10	employers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJLMI4	3,988	5.29	2.68	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in access to child care, which makes it harder for them to get better jobs
JJLMI5	3,988	5.66	2.53	0	10	members of this group were unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult for them to work their way out of lower-paid jobs
JJLMI6	3,988	6.17	2.57	0	10	members of this group may not have the necessary skills or knowledge
JJLMI7	3,988	4.81	2.79	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough

people of different [skin colour or race]						<p>A company in [country] employs diverse people. Among them are people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group]. Members of this group earn less and have worse jobs than most of the company's [country majority group's] employees.</p> <p>What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?</p>
JJLMI1	3,985	6.36	2.55	0	10	the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in this group are often not recognised
JJLMI2	3,985	5.28	2.69	0	10	existing regulations favour majority members
JJLMI3	3,985	5.97	2.65	0	10	employers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJLMI4	3,985	5.48	2.72	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in access to child care, which makes it harder for them to get better jobs
JJLMI5	3,985	5.78	2.59	0	10	members of this group were unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult for them to work their way out of lower-paid jobs
JJLMI6	3,985	6.12	2.58	0	10	members of this group may not have the necessary skills or knowledge
JJLMI7	3,985	4.79	2.84	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough
people of foreign origin						<p>A company in [country] employs diverse people. Among them are people of foreign origin. Members of this group earn less and have worse jobs than most of the company's [country majority group's] employees.</p> <p>What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?</p>
JJLMI1	3,996	6.45	2.47	0	10	the diplomas and professional skills of immigrants in this group are often not recognised
JJLMI2	3,996	5.22	2.63	0	10	existing regulations favour majority members
JJLMI3	3,996	5.90	2.60	0	10	employers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJLMI4	3,996	5.36	2.69	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in access to child care, which makes it harder for them to get better jobs
JJLMI5	3,996	5.72	2.51	0	10	members of this group were unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult for them to work their way out of lower-paid jobs
JJLMI6	3,996	6.24	2.54	0	10	members of this group may not have the necessary skills or knowledge
JJLMI7	3,996	4.82	2.80	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough

Housing market

people of different religions or beliefs						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city showed that it takes longer for people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group] to find housing in a good neighbourhood. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJHMI1	3,988	5.46	2.72	0	10	existing regulations make renting housing to immigrants in this group more complicated due to additional formalities
JJHMI2	3,988	5.21	2.67	0	10	existing regulations favour the majority members
JJHMI3	3,988	6.21	2.63	0	10	landlords and real estate agents are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJHMI4	3,988	5.96	2.58	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in the labour market, and thus tends to have worse paid and less stable jobs, which makes it harder for them to find housing
JJHMI5	3,988	5.60	2.58	0	10	this group have been unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult to work their way out of worse neighbourhoods
JJHMI6	3,988	5.66	2.59	0	10	members of this group may not have the skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing in [country]
JJHMI7	3,988	4.88	2.80	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough
people of different [skin colour or race]						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city showed that it takes longer for people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group] to find housing in a good neighbourhood. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJHMI1	3,985	5.50	2.74	0	10	existing regulations make renting housing to immigrants in this group more complicated due to additional formalities
JJHMI2	3,985	5.34	2.72	0	10	existing regulations favour the majority members
JJHMI3	3,985	6.41	2.64	0	10	landlords and real estate agents are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJHMI4	3,985	6.15	2.61	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in the labour market, and thus tends to have worse paid and less stable jobs, which makes it harder for them to find housing
JJHMI5	3,985	5.77	2.63	0	10	this group have been unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult to work their way out of worse neighbourhoods
JJHMI6	3,985	5.62	2.61	0	10	members of this group may not have the skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing in [country]
JJHMI7	3,985	4.81	2.84	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough

people of foreign origin						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city showed that it takes longer for people of foreign origin than for most [country's majority group] to find housing in a good neighbourhood. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJHMI1	3,996	5.58	2.69	0	10	existing regulations make renting housing to immigrants in this group more complicated due to additional formalities
JJHMI2	3,996	5.30	2.64	0	10	existing regulations favour the majority members
JJHMI3	3,996	6.35	2.61	0	10	landlords and real estate agents are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJHMI4	3,996	6.11	2.55	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, in the labour market, and thus tends to have worse paid and less stable jobs, which makes it harder for them to find housing
JJHMI5	3,996	5.69	2.54	0	10	this group have been unfairly treated in the past and it is difficult to work their way out of worse neighbourhoods
JJHMI6	3,996	5.77	2.53	0	10	members of this group may not have the skills or knowledge needed to effectively look for housing in [country]
JJHMI7	3,996	4.81	2.77	0	10	members of this group are not trying hard enough

Policing

people of different religions or beliefs						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city suggested that people of different religions or beliefs than most [country's majority group] are more often stopped by the police. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJPSI1	3,988	5.45	2.74	0	10	the police have a policy to check this group more
JJPSI2	3,988	5.02	2.76	0	10	the police are more lenient with the majority members
JJPSI3	3,988	5.48	2.75	0	10	police officers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJPSI4	3,988	5.72	2.61	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, when looking for housing, and thus tends to live in worse neighbourhoods where it is more common to be stopped by the police
JJPSI5	3,988	5.64	2.63	0	10	due to unfair treatment in the past, this group has tended to be stopped by the police more often and the association of being a suspect has stuck
JJPSI6	3,988	5.90	2.69	0	10	members of this group may not have knowledge about the local laws and regulations

JJPSI7	3,988	6.12	2.62	0	10	members of this group more often break the law
people of different [skin colour or race]						
						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city suggested that people of different [skin colour or race] than most [country's majority group] are more often stopped by the police. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJPSI1	3,985	5.58	2.79	0	10	the police have a policy to check this group more
JJPSI2	3,985	5.13	2.81	0	10	the police are more lenient with the majority members
JJPSI3	3,985	5.65	2.79	0	10	police officers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJPSI4	3,985	5.89	2.66	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, when looking for housing, and thus tends to live in worse neighbourhoods where it is more common to be stopped by the police
JJPSI5	3,985	5.84	2.68	0	10	due to unfair treatment in the past, this group has tended to be stopped by the police more often and the association of being a suspect has stuck
JJPSI6	3,985	5.91	2.74	0	10	members of this group may not have knowledge about the local laws and regulations
JJPSI7	3,985	6.13	2.69	0	10	members of this group more often break the law
people of foreign origin						
						A recent study conducted in a [country's] city suggested that people of foreign origin are more often stopped by the police than most [country's majority group]. What do you think: how likely is it that it is because?
JJPSI1	3,996	5.54	2.77	0	10	the police have a policy to check this group more
JJPSI2	3,996	5.04	2.73	0	10	the police are more lenient with the majority members
JJPSI3	3,996	5.56	2.75	0	10	police officers are prejudiced against this group and discriminate
JJPSI4	3,996	5.80	2.64	0	10	this group is discriminated in other spheres, for example, when looking for housing, and thus tends to live in worse neighbourhoods where it is more common to be stopped by the police
JJPSI5	3,996	5.80	2.61	0	10	due to unfair treatment in the past, this group has tended to be stopped by the police more often and the association of being a suspect has stuck
JJPSI6	3,996	6.03	2.62	0	10	members of this group may not have knowledge about the local laws and regulations
JJPSI7	3,996	6.25	2.65	0	10	members of this group more often break the law

Perceived inequalities depending on minority characteristics by country

Figure A1. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Belgium



Figure A2. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Germany



Figure A3. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Hungary

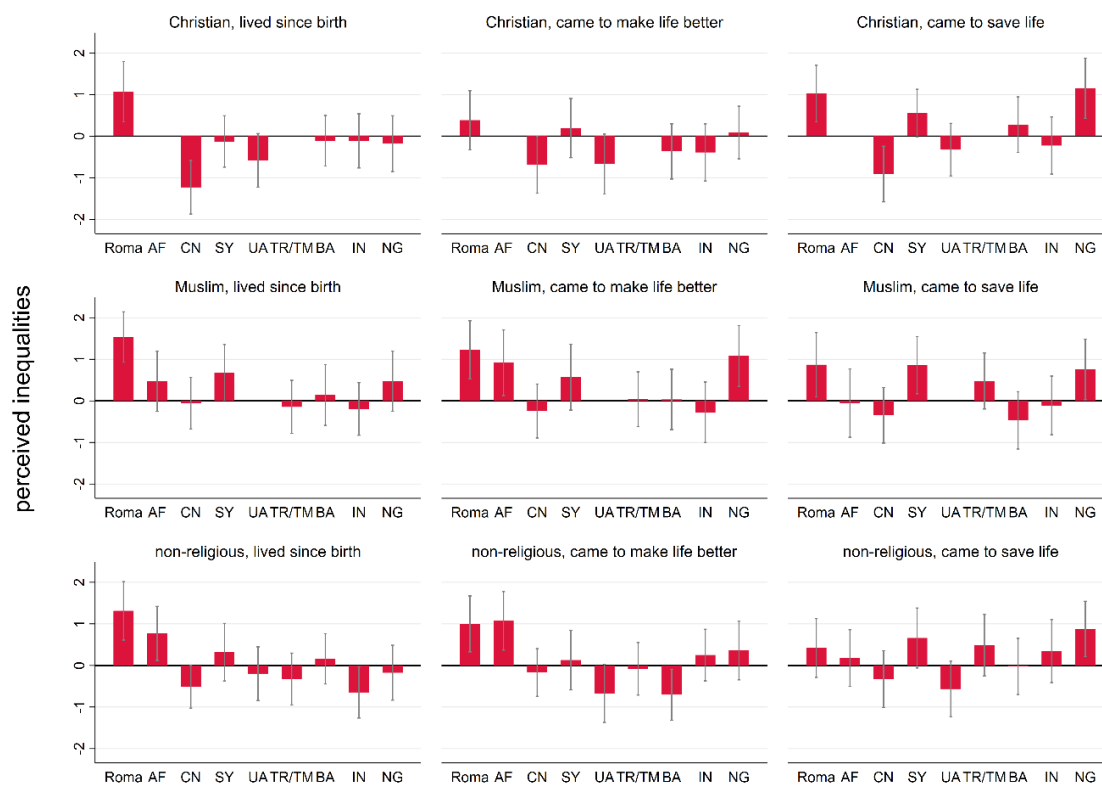


Figure A4. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, the Netherlands

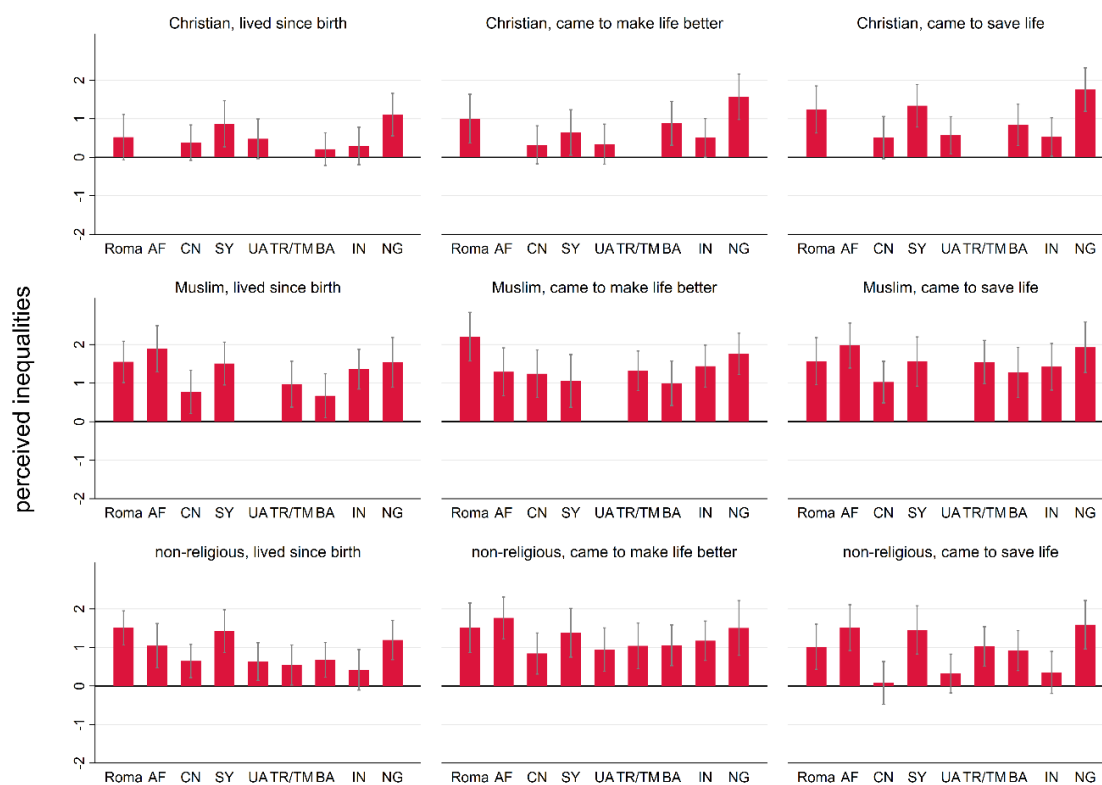


Figure A5. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Poland

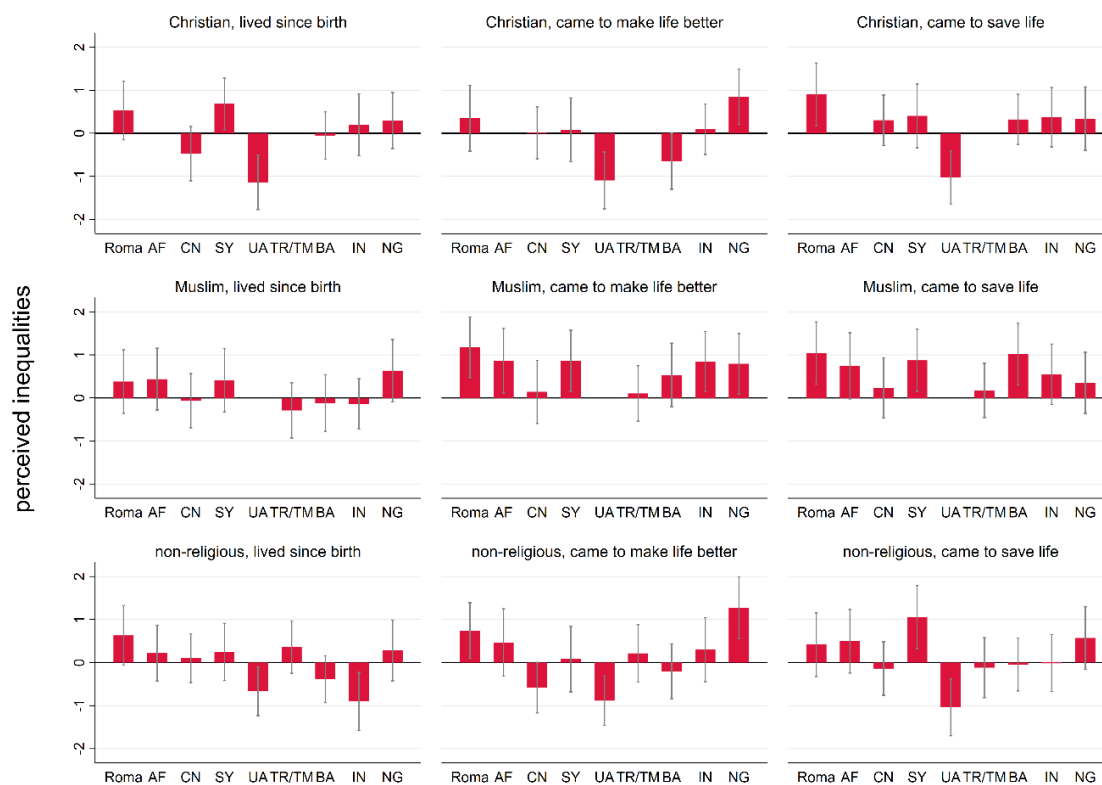


Figure A6. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Turkey

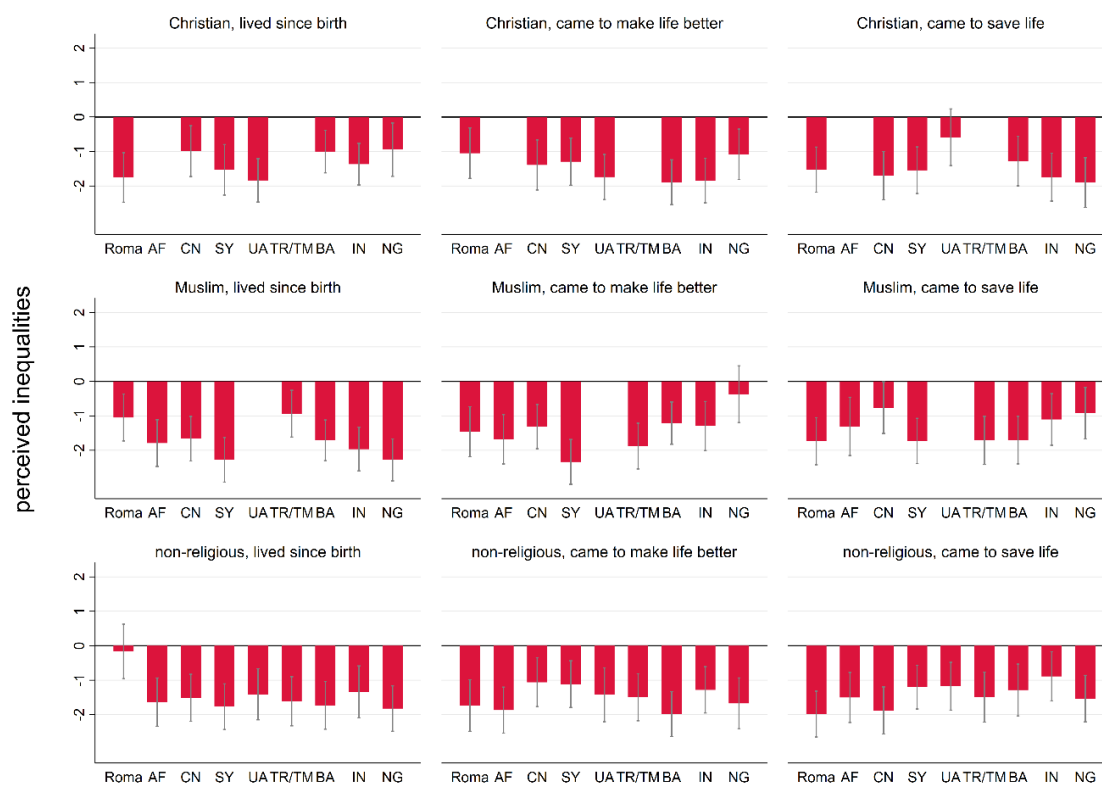


Figure A7. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Belgium



Figure A8. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Germany

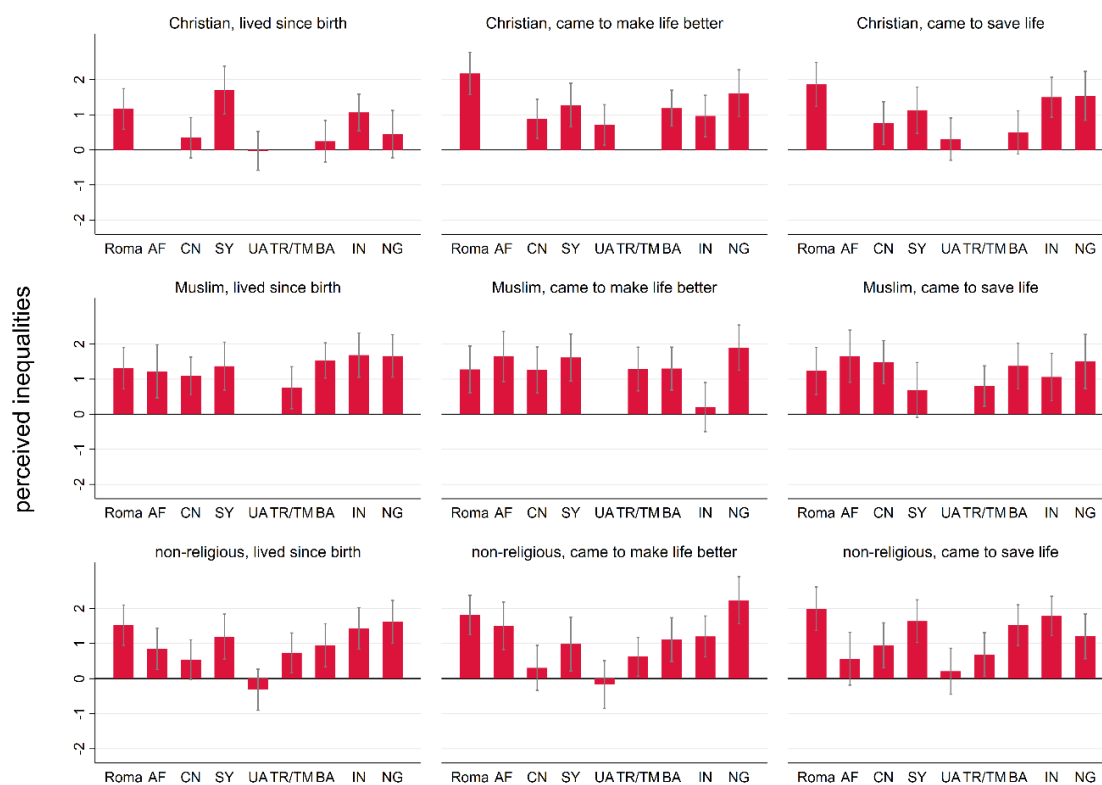


Figure A9. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Hungary

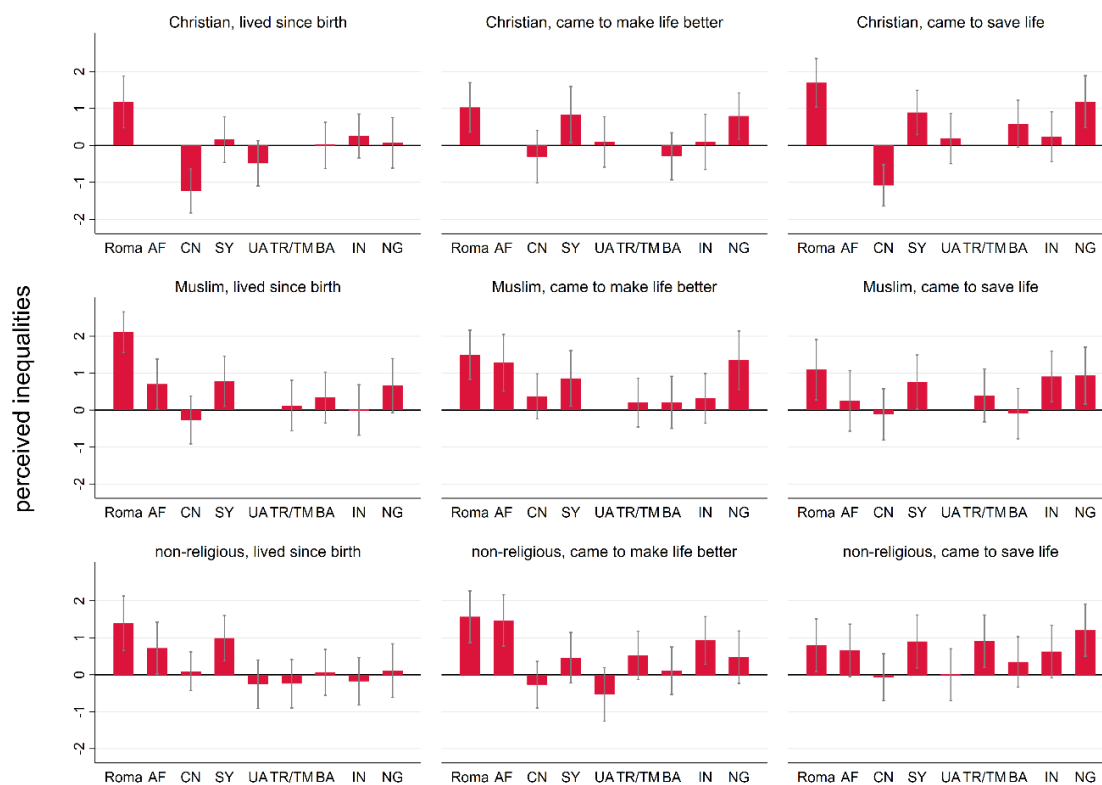


Figure A10. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, the Netherlands

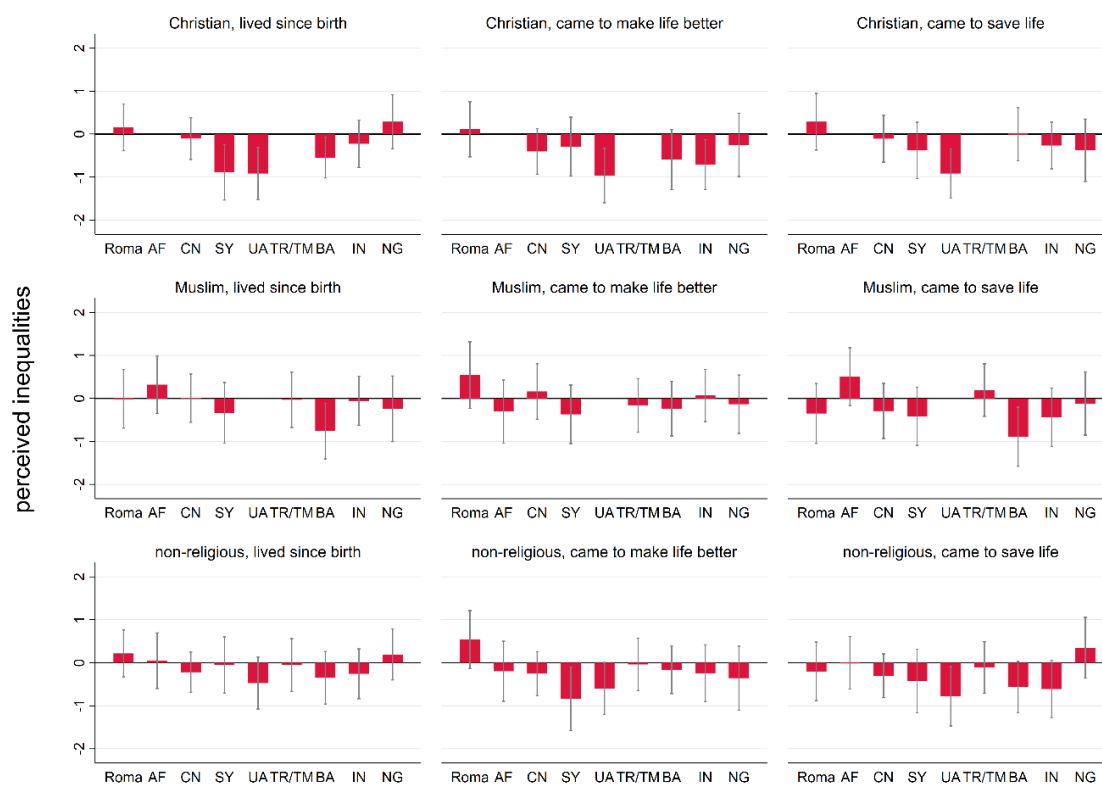


Figure A11. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Poland

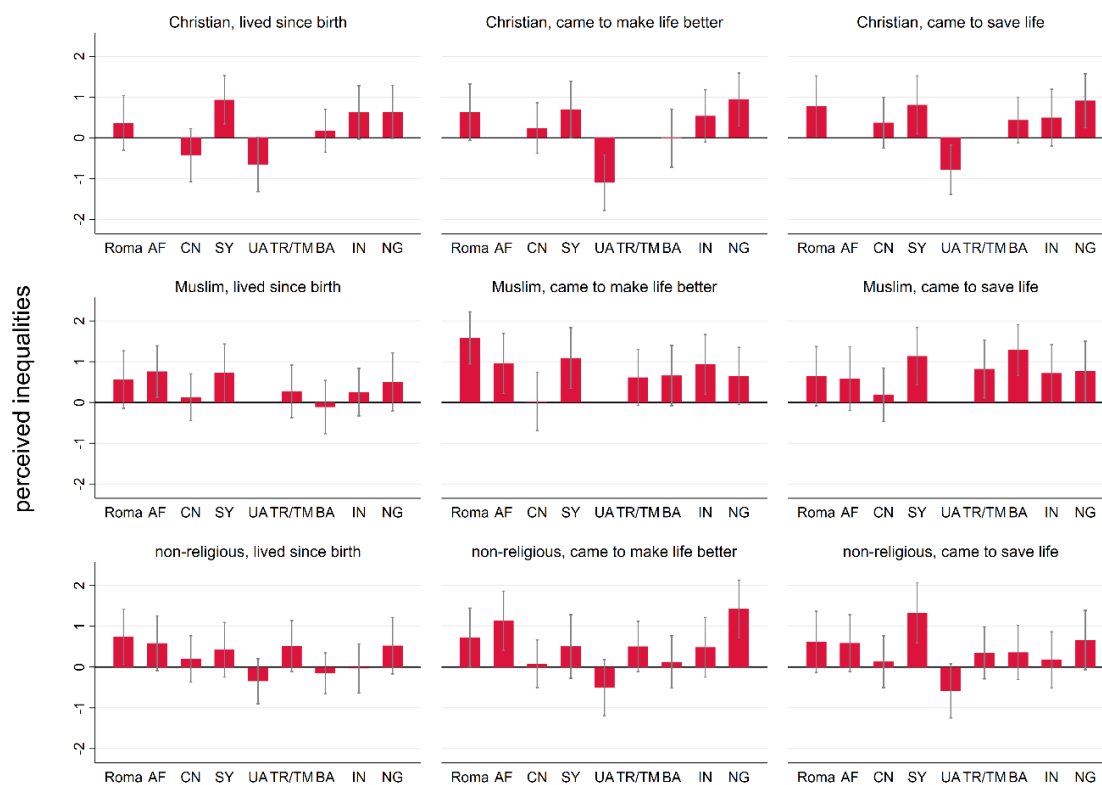


Figure A12. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority characteristics, Turkey

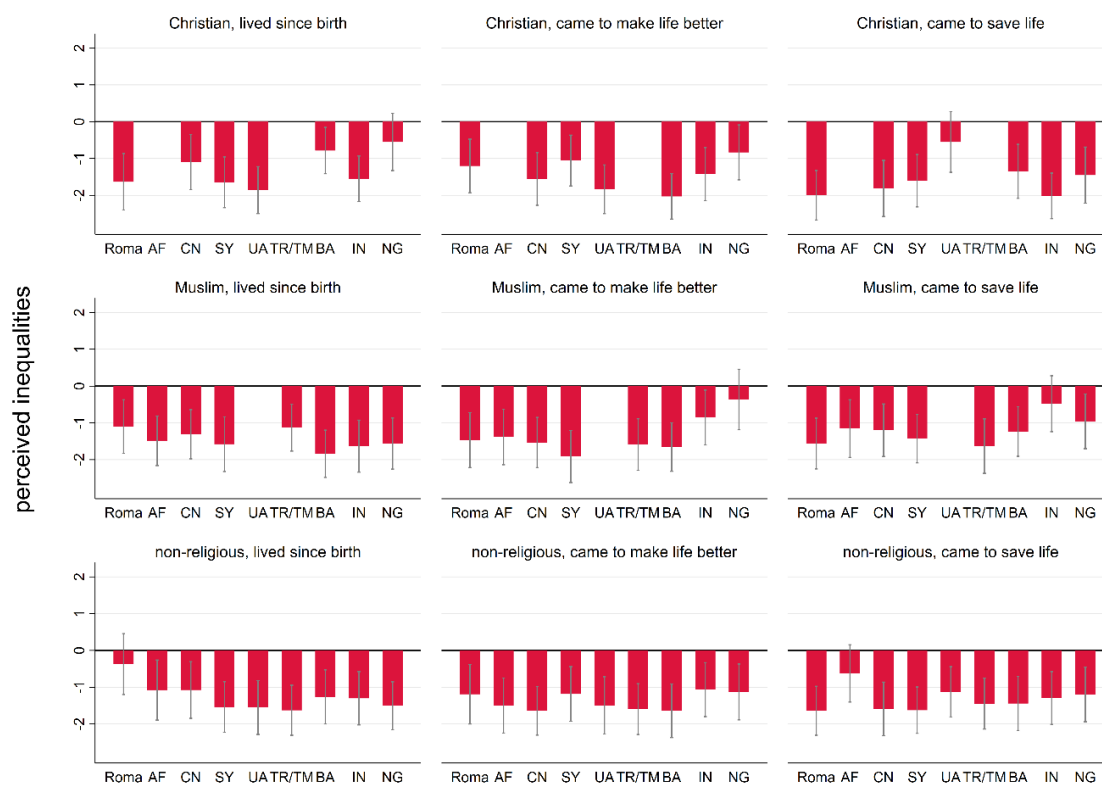


Figure A13. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, Belgium

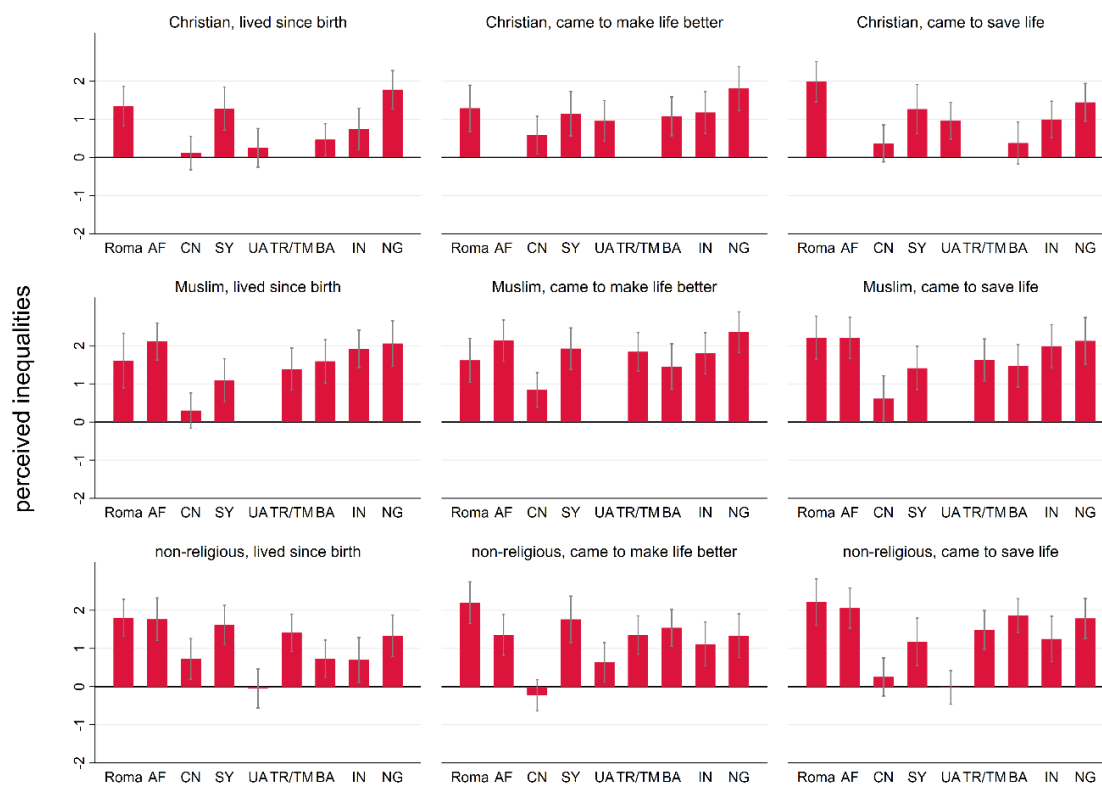


Figure A14. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, Germany

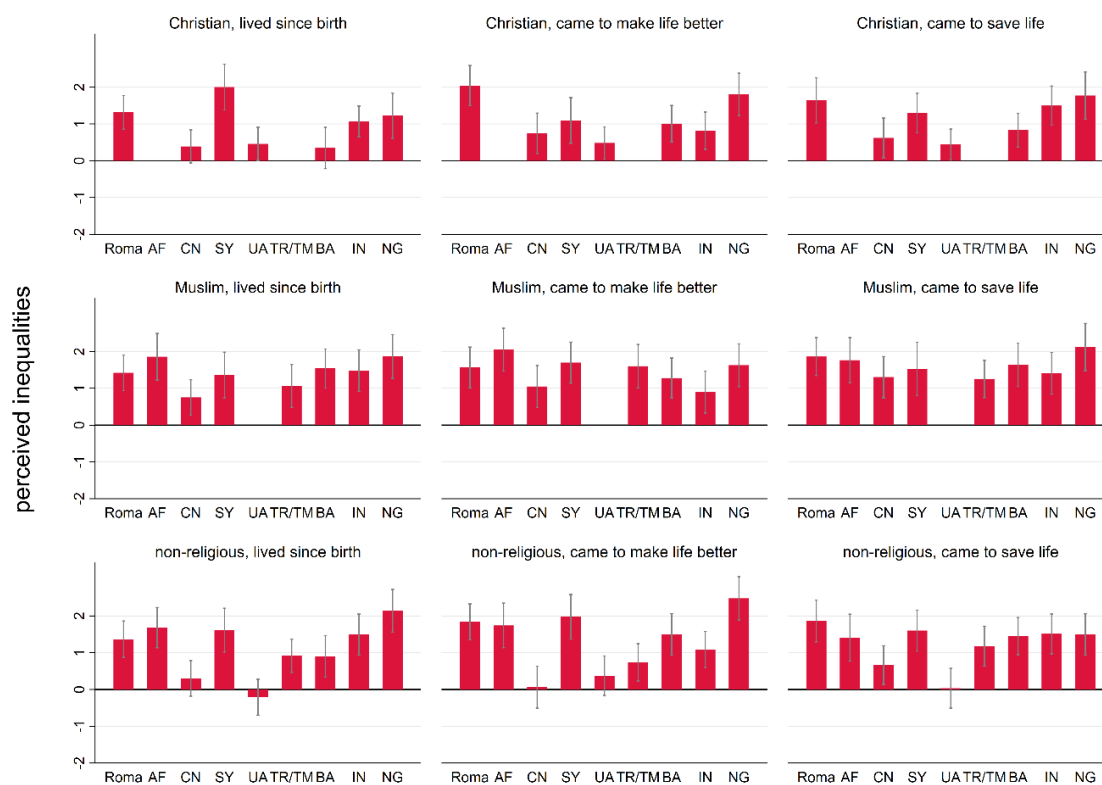


Figure A15. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, Hungary



Figure A16. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, the Netherlands

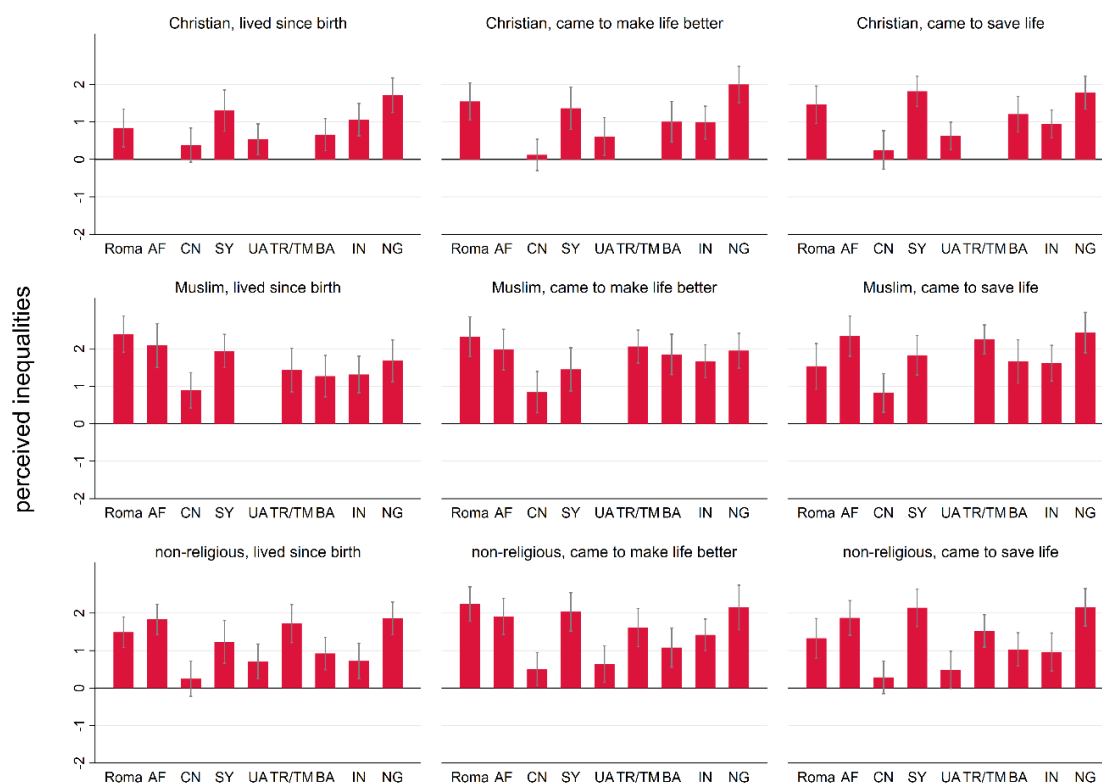


Figure A17. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, Poland

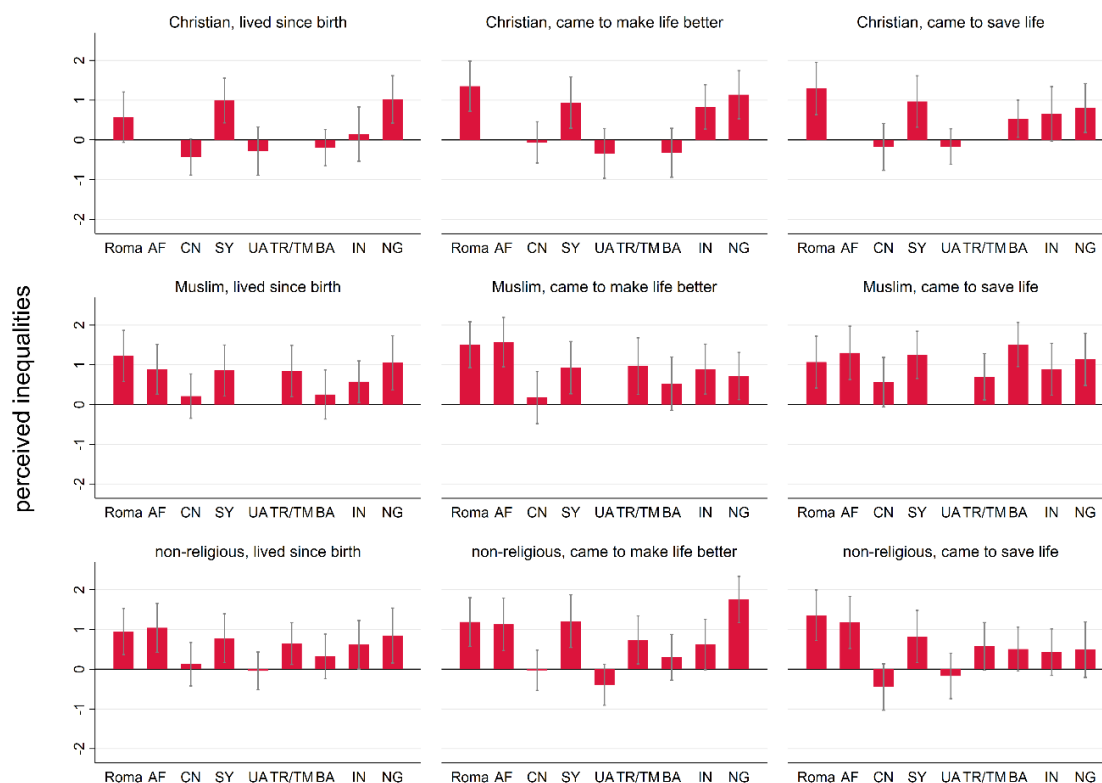


Figure A18. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority characteristics, Turkey

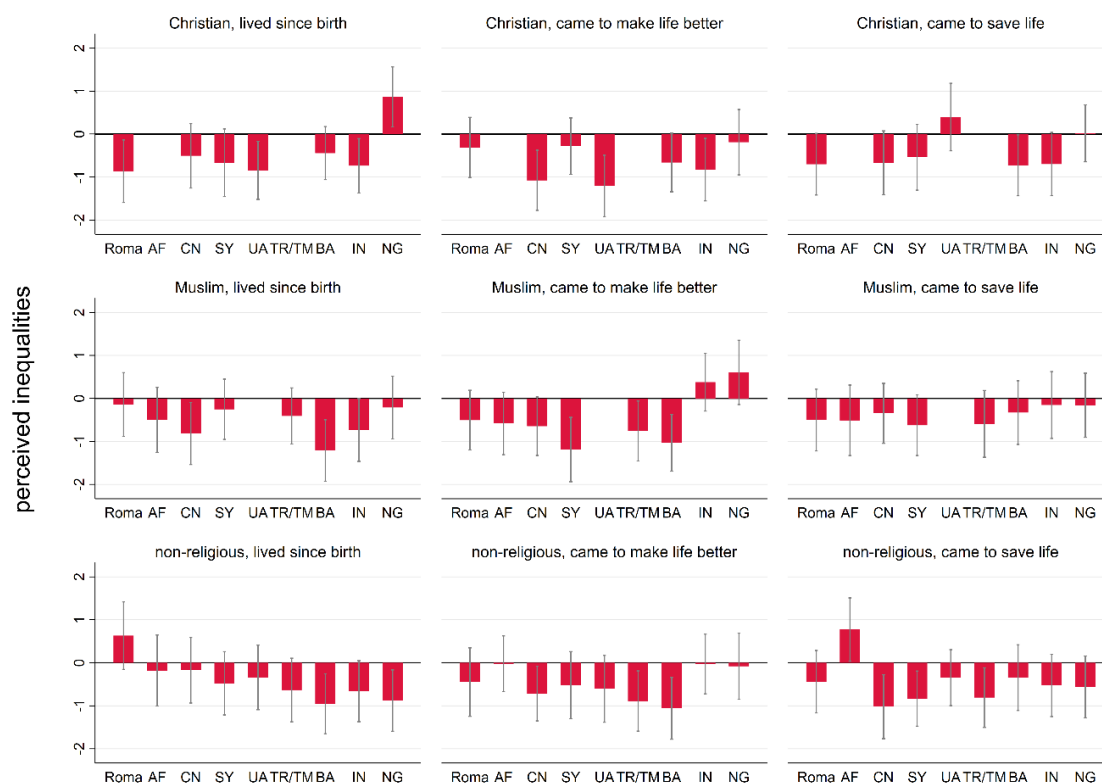
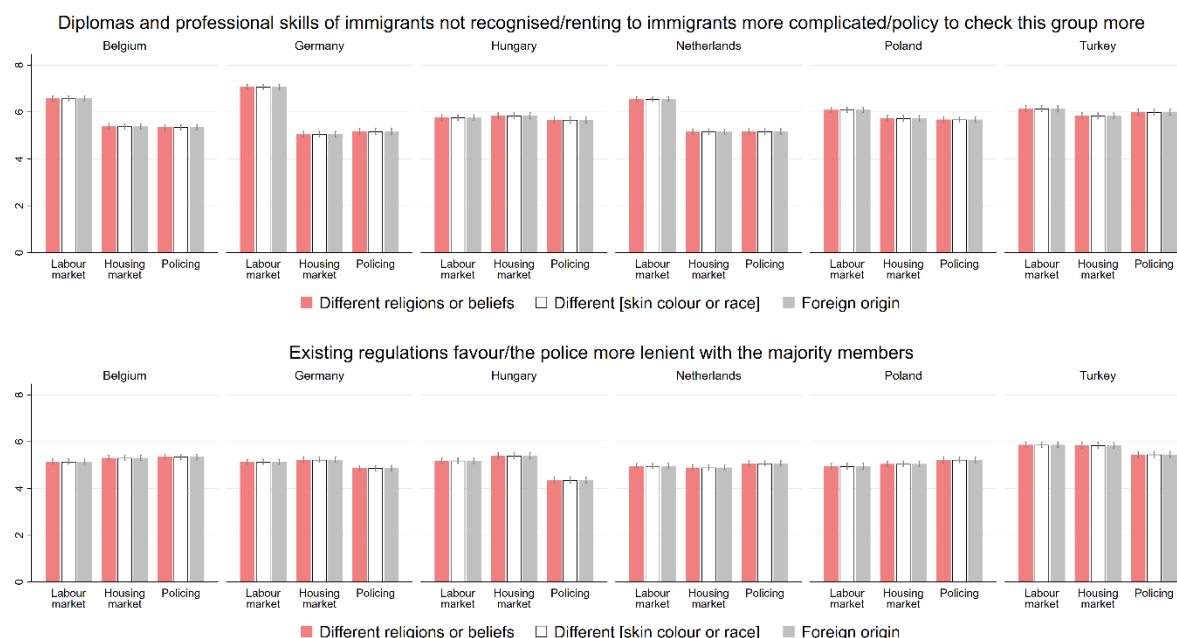
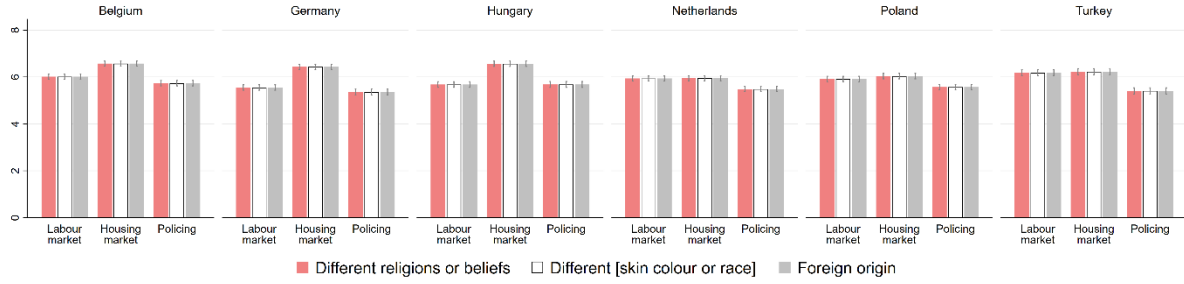


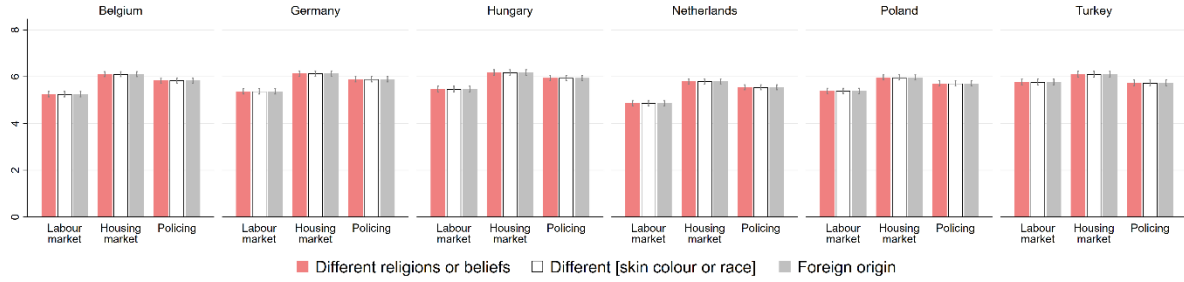
Figure A19. Justifications for the existing inequalities by country, sphere of life and minority group



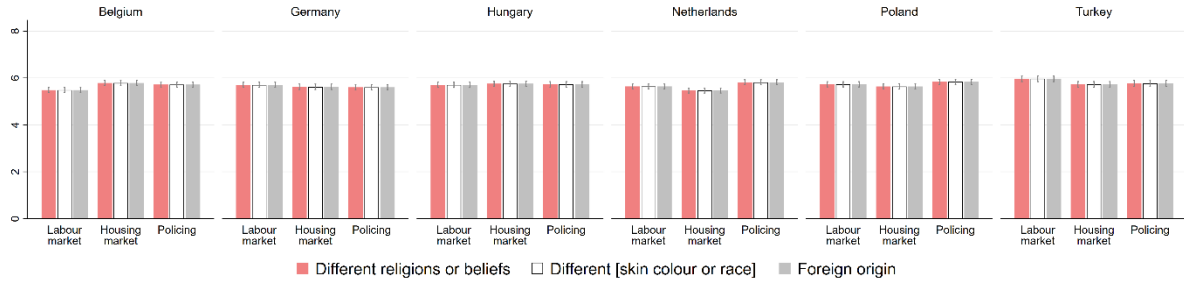
Employers/landlords and real estate agents/police officers prejudiced against this group and discriminate



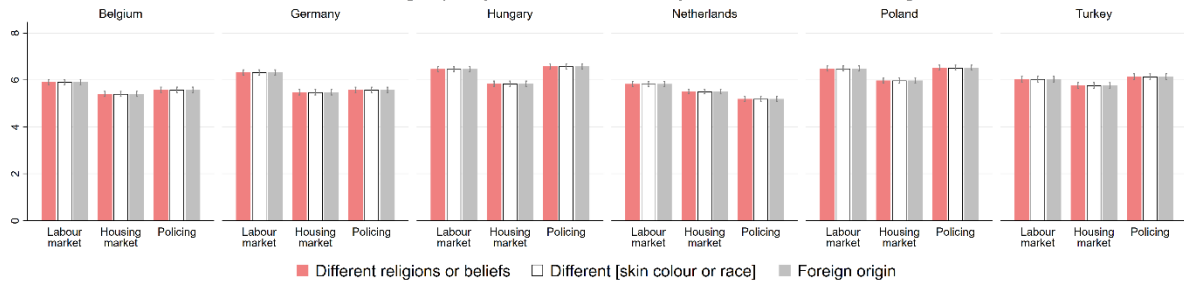
This group is discriminated in other spheres



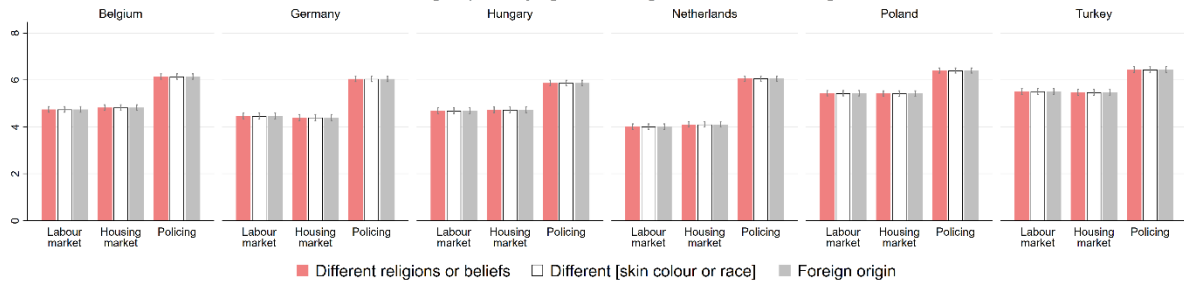
This group have been unfairly treated in the past



Members of this group may not have the necessary local skills and/or knowledge



Members of this group not trying hard enough/more often breaking the law



Complete econometric output for models presented on coefficient plots

Table A3.1. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A3.1.1) Belgium	(A3.1.2) Germany	(A3.1.3) Hungary	(A3.1.4) Netherlands	(A3.1.5) Poland	(A3.1.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	0.678*** (0.120)	0.942*** (0.122)	1.361*** (0.143)	0.658*** (0.115)	1.484*** (0.155)	0.447** (0.154)
Afghan	0.533*** (0.141)	0.892*** (0.137)	1.009*** (0.158)	0.604*** (0.128)	1.289*** (0.164)	0.392* (0.183)
Chinese	-0.225 (0.126)	0.137 (0.122)	0.064 (0.139)	-0.094 (0.116)	0.741*** (0.154)	0.504** (0.167)
Syrian	0.653*** (0.126)	0.767*** (0.118)	0.761*** (0.133)	0.553*** (0.108)	1.271*** (0.159)	0.158 (0.157)
Turk	0.111 (0.138)	0.169 (0.129)	0.456** (0.155)	0.371** (0.126)	0.829*** (0.170)	0.502** (0.174)
Bosniak	0.117 (0.119)	0.267* (0.113)	0.318* (0.134)	0.141 (0.107)	0.734*** (0.153)	0.380* (0.152)
Indian	0.196 (0.119)	0.460*** (0.119)	0.410** (0.140)	0.153 (0.112)	0.870*** (0.157)	0.372* (0.172)
Nigerian	0.668*** (0.123)	1.041*** (0.123)	1.011*** (0.137)	0.759*** (0.114)	1.325*** (0.154)	0.449** (0.170)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.398*** (0.059)	0.310*** (0.058)	0.249*** (0.068)	0.578*** (0.059)	0.275*** (0.069)	-0.116 (0.074)
non-religious	0.178** (0.058)	0.055 (0.058)	0.102 (0.067)	0.236*** (0.057)	0.007 (0.069)	0.006 (0.074)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.243*** (0.052)	0.373*** (0.053)	0.030 (0.063)	0.233*** (0.055)	0.216*** (0.062)	0.030 (0.068)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.261*** (0.054)	0.354*** (0.053)	0.135* (0.062)	0.214*** (0.054)	0.277*** (0.062)	0.083 (0.070)
Set yes	0.077 (0.260)	-0.000 (0.236)	-0.750* (0.310)	-0.083 (0.258)	-1.376*** (0.322)	-1.357*** (0.320)
Constant						
var(_const)	0.773*** (0.021)	0.719*** (0.022)	0.874*** (0.018)	0.665*** (0.024)	0.892*** (0.018)	0.933*** (0.018)
var(Residual)	0.498*** (0.020)	0.512*** (0.018)	0.675*** (0.018)	0.514*** (0.018)	0.639*** (0.019)	0.654*** (0.023)
BIC	26,887.9	26,842.3	28,799.7	26,671.3	28,487.3	28,836.9
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A3.2. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A3.2.1) Belgium	(A3.2.2) Germany	(A3.2.3) Hungary	(A3.2.4) Netherlands	(A3.2.5) Poland	(A3.2.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	0.724*** (0.122)	1.383*** (0.128)	1.398*** (0.136)	0.893*** (0.125)	1.286*** (0.151)	0.276 (0.159)
Afghan	0.487*** (0.135)	1.233*** (0.137)	1.027*** (0.145)	0.682*** (0.138)	1.242*** (0.162)	0.355 (0.193)
Chinese	-0.180 (0.125)	0.663*** (0.126)	-0.189 (0.131)	0.519*** (0.127)	0.646*** (0.152)	0.231 (0.164)
Syrian	0.446*** (0.117)	1.104*** (0.125)	0.713*** (0.122)	0.397** (0.124)	1.259*** (0.151)	0.155 (0.150)
Turk	0.043 (0.133)	0.618*** (0.136)	0.390** (0.136)	0.704*** (0.134)	1.039*** (0.157)	0.130 (0.169)
Bosniak	0.225* (0.111)	0.813*** (0.123)	0.304* (0.123)	0.379*** (0.115)	0.716*** (0.150)	0.314* (0.148)
Indian	0.374** (0.118)	0.966*** (0.120)	0.473*** (0.126)	0.538*** (0.122)	0.976*** (0.153)	0.332* (0.150)
Nigerian	0.748*** (0.122)	1.353*** (0.122)	0.890*** (0.124)	0.809*** (0.117)	1.219*** (0.148)	0.453** (0.153)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.333*** (0.059)	0.163** (0.059)	0.195** (0.064)	0.070 (0.059)	0.173** (0.064)	0.063 (0.067)
non-religious	0.126* (0.056)	0.059 (0.058)	0.114 (0.062)	0.052 (0.058)	0.034 (0.066)	0.110 (0.068)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.198*** (0.054)	0.200*** (0.054)	0.248*** (0.059)	-0.058 (0.055)	0.237*** (0.060)	-0.043 (0.066)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.180*** (0.050)	0.159** (0.053)	0.255*** (0.060)	-0.080 (0.054)	0.234*** (0.058)	-0.016 (0.065)
Set yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Constant	0.181 (0.261)	-0.021 (0.281)	-0.318 (0.347)	-0.729* (0.318)	-0.863** (0.310)	-1.237*** (0.315)
var(_const)	0.877*** (0.018)	0.853*** (0.019)	0.919*** (0.017)	0.865*** (0.017)	0.903*** (0.018)	1.010*** (0.017)
var(Residual)	0.482*** (0.019)	0.506*** (0.020)	0.608*** (0.019)	0.518*** (0.020)	0.600*** (0.019)	0.583*** (0.026)
BIC	27,105.4	27,244.3	28,362.3	27,374.1	28,189.0	28,493.6
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A3.3. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A3.3.1) Belgium	(A3.3.2) Germany	(A3.3.3) Hungary	(A3.3.4) Netherlands	(A3.3.5) Poland	(A3.3.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	1.190*** (0.115)	1.302*** (0.109)	1.436*** (0.138)	0.990*** (0.111)	1.316*** (0.122)	0.201 (0.136)
Afghan	1.173*** (0.125)	1.369*** (0.124)	1.088*** (0.141)	1.112*** (0.122)	1.302*** (0.133)	0.321* (0.159)
Chinese	-0.303* (0.118)	0.263* (0.119)	-0.017 (0.128)	-0.150 (0.120)	0.171 (0.119)	0.091 (0.128)
Syrian	0.953*** (0.112)	1.216*** (0.112)	0.890*** (0.126)	0.942*** (0.108)	1.074*** (0.119)	0.023 (0.141)
Turk	0.860*** (0.124)	0.713*** (0.129)	0.770*** (0.141)	0.942*** (0.126)	0.791*** (0.129)	0.090 (0.146)
Bosniak	0.568*** (0.110)	0.725*** (0.106)	0.459*** (0.128)	0.488*** (0.107)	0.478*** (0.118)	0.023 (0.126)
Indian	0.566*** (0.114)	0.802*** (0.115)	0.604*** (0.125)	0.402*** (0.113)	0.695*** (0.121)	0.181 (0.129)
Nigerian	1.074*** (0.110)	1.418*** (0.114)	0.957*** (0.123)	1.202*** (0.106)	1.031*** (0.116)	0.323* (0.130)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.456*** (0.053)	0.257*** (0.054)	0.183** (0.060)	0.475*** (0.054)	0.291*** (0.060)	0.040 (0.065)
non-religious	0.118* (0.052)	0.102 (0.053)	0.115 (0.061)	0.155** (0.052)	0.104 (0.057)	0.100 (0.061)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.207*** (0.047)	0.135** (0.048)	0.067 (0.054)	0.213*** (0.048)	0.180*** (0.051)	-0.061 (0.062)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.210*** (0.049)	0.162*** (0.049)	0.081 (0.056)	0.171*** (0.049)	0.170** (0.052)	0.039 (0.059)
Set yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Constant	-0.097 (0.231)	-0.131 (0.250)	-0.443 (0.305)	0.128 (0.236)	-0.332 (0.306)	-0.423 (0.303)
var(_const)	0.667*** (0.023)	0.694*** (0.023)	0.892*** (0.018)	0.515*** (0.026)	0.815*** (0.020)	1.048*** (0.016)
var(Residual)	0.397*** (0.020)	0.418*** (0.020)	0.538*** (0.021)	0.391*** (0.019)	0.472*** (0.020)	0.508*** (0.028)
BIC	25,663.6	25,946.9	27,675.8	25,116.3	26,795.1	27,993.1
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A4.1. Perceived labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates, alternative reference levels

Perceived inequalities	(A4.1.1) Belgium	(A4.1.2) Germany	(A4.1.3) Hungary	(A4.1.4) Netherlands	(A4.1.5) Poland	(A4.1.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Nigerian)						
Roma	0.011 (0.100)	-0.099 (0.107)	0.349** (0.126)	-0.101 (0.110)	0.159 (0.118)	-0.001 (0.127)
Afghan	-0.135 (0.115)	-0.150 (0.119)	-0.002 (0.136)	-0.155 (0.118)	-0.036 (0.128)	-0.057 (0.161)
Chinese	-0.893*** (0.099)	-0.904*** (0.106)	-0.947*** (0.120)	-0.853*** (0.106)	-0.584*** (0.113)	0.055 (0.135)
Syrian	-0.015 (0.102)	-0.274* (0.107)	-0.250* (0.115)	-0.206* (0.101)	-0.054 (0.106)	-0.291* (0.128)
Ukrainian	-0.668*** (0.123)	-1.041*** (0.123)	-1.011*** (0.137)	-0.759*** (0.114)	-1.325*** (0.154)	-0.449** (0.170)
Turk	-0.557*** (0.113)	-0.872*** (0.116)	-0.555*** (0.137)	-0.388*** (0.115)	-0.496*** (0.128)	0.053 (0.143)
Bosniak	-0.551*** (0.094)	-0.774*** (0.099)	-0.694*** (0.118)	-0.618*** (0.101)	-0.591*** (0.111)	-0.068 (0.129)
Indian	-0.472*** (0.090)	-0.581*** (0.099)	-0.601*** (0.118)	-0.606*** (0.097)	-0.455*** (0.105)	-0.077 (0.142)
Religion (ref: non-religious)						
Christian	-0.178** (0.058)	-0.055 (0.058)	-0.102 (0.067)	-0.236*** (0.057)	-0.007 (0.069)	-0.006 (0.074)
Muslim	0.220*** (0.051)	0.255*** (0.053)	0.147* (0.063)	0.343*** (0.053)	0.268*** (0.060)	-0.121 (0.071)
Migration status (ref: came to [country] to make their lives better)						
have lived in [country] since birth	-0.243*** (0.052)	-0.373*** (0.053)	-0.030 (0.063)	-0.233*** (0.055)	-0.216*** (0.062)	-0.030 (0.068)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.018 (0.053)	-0.019 (0.055)	0.105 (0.064)	-0.019 (0.053)	0.061 (0.063)	0.053 (0.071)
Set yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Constant	1.167*** (0.267)	1.469*** (0.243)	0.393 (0.319)	1.145*** (0.269)	0.172 (0.329)	-0.872** (0.329)
var(_const)	0.773*** (0.021)	0.719*** (0.022)	0.874*** (0.018)	0.665*** (0.024)	0.892*** (0.018)	0.933*** (0.018)
var(Residual)	0.498*** (0.020)	0.512*** (0.018)	0.675*** (0.018)	0.514*** (0.018)	0.639*** (0.019)	0.654*** (0.023)
BIC	26,887.9	26,842.3	28,799.7	26,671.3	28,487.3	28,836.9
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A4.2. Perceived housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates, alternative reference levels

Perceived inequalities	(A4.2.1) Belgium	(A4.2.2) Germany	(A4.2.3) Hungary	(A4.2.4) Netherlands	(A4.2.5) Poland	(A4.2.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Nigerian)						
Roma	-0.024 (0.102)	0.030 (0.106)	0.507*** (0.119)	0.084 (0.104)	0.067 (0.116)	-0.177 (0.118)
Afghan	-0.261* (0.109)	-0.119 (0.107)	0.136 (0.128)	-0.128 (0.117)	0.023 (0.122)	-0.098 (0.150)
Chinese	-0.928*** (0.101)	-0.690*** (0.101)	-1.079*** (0.114)	-0.290** (0.106)	-0.574*** (0.112)	-0.222 (0.123)
Syrian	-0.303** (0.099)	-0.249* (0.099)	-0.178 (0.105)	-0.412*** (0.099)	0.040 (0.108)	-0.298** (0.115)
Ukrainian	-0.748*** (0.122)	-1.353*** (0.122)	-0.890*** (0.124)	-0.809*** (0.117)	-1.219*** (0.148)	-0.453** (0.153)
Turk	-0.705*** (0.108)	-0.735*** (0.113)	-0.500*** (0.116)	-0.106 (0.105)	-0.180 (0.114)	-0.323* (0.131)
Bosniak	-0.523*** (0.094)	-0.539*** (0.098)	-0.587*** (0.106)	-0.430*** (0.098)	-0.503*** (0.106)	-0.139 (0.117)
Indian	-0.374*** (0.092)	-0.387*** (0.092)	-0.417*** (0.100)	-0.271** (0.090)	-0.243* (0.104)	-0.121 (0.107)
Religion (ref: non-religious)						
Christian	-0.126* (0.056)	-0.059 (0.058)	-0.114 (0.062)	-0.052 (0.058)	-0.034 (0.066)	-0.110 (0.068)
Muslim	0.207*** (0.052)	0.105* (0.052)	0.082 (0.060)	0.017 (0.054)	0.139* (0.057)	-0.047 (0.064)
Migration status (ref: came to [country] to make their lives better)						
have lived in [country] since birth	-0.198*** (0.054)	-0.200*** (0.054)	-0.248*** (0.059)	0.058 (0.055)	-0.237*** (0.060)	0.043 (0.066)
came to [country] to save their lives	-0.018 (0.053)	-0.041 (0.052)	0.007 (0.058)	-0.022 (0.055)	-0.003 (0.060)	0.027 (0.062)
Set yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Constant	1.253*** (0.272)	1.589*** (0.281)	0.934** (0.354)	0.074 (0.320)	0.627* (0.318)	-0.717* (0.320)
var(_const)	0.877*** (0.018)	0.853*** (0.019)	0.919*** (0.017)	0.865*** (0.017)	0.903*** (0.018)	1.010*** (0.017)
var(Residual)	0.482*** (0.019)	0.506*** (0.020)	0.608*** (0.019)	0.518*** (0.020)	0.600*** (0.019)	0.583*** (0.026)
BIC	27,105.4	27,244.3	28,362.3	27,374.1	28,189.0	28,493.6
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A4.3. Perceived inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing depending on minority group's ethnicity, migration status and religion, multilevel OLS estimates, alternative reference levels

Perceived inequalities	(A4.3.1) Belgium	(A4.3.2) Germany	(A4.3.3) Hungary	(A4.3.4) Netherlands	(A4.3.5) Poland	(A4.3.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Nigerian)						
Roma	0.116 (0.091)	-0.116 (0.091)	0.478*** (0.114)	-0.212* (0.089)	0.285** (0.099)	-0.121 (0.125)
Afghan	0.099 (0.094)	-0.049 (0.101)	0.131 (0.116)	-0.090 (0.097)	0.271* (0.106)	-0.001 (0.132)
Chinese	-1.377*** (0.094)	-1.155*** (0.099)	-0.974*** (0.101)	-1.352*** (0.094)	-0.860*** (0.094)	-0.232* (0.111)
Syrian	-0.121 (0.084)	-0.202* (0.091)	-0.068 (0.094)	-0.260** (0.082)	0.043 (0.092)	-0.299* (0.127)
Ukrainian	-1.074*** (0.110)	-1.418*** (0.114)	-0.957*** (0.123)	-1.202*** (0.106)	-1.031*** (0.116)	-0.323* (0.130)
Turk	-0.215* (0.092)	-0.705*** (0.101)	-0.187 (0.114)	-0.260** (0.092)	-0.240* (0.100)	-0.233 (0.122)
Bosniak	-0.506*** (0.085)	-0.693*** (0.088)	-0.499*** (0.098)	-0.714*** (0.085)	-0.553*** (0.090)	-0.300** (0.112)
Indian	-0.508*** (0.083)	-0.616*** (0.086)	-0.353*** (0.090)	-0.799*** (0.081)	-0.336*** (0.087)	-0.141 (0.111)
Religion (ref: non-religious)						
Christian	-0.118* (0.052)	-0.102 (0.053)	-0.115 (0.061)	-0.155** (0.052)	-0.104 (0.057)	-0.100 (0.061)
Muslim	0.338*** (0.049)	0.155** (0.048)	0.067 (0.055)	0.321*** (0.047)	0.187*** (0.051)	-0.061 (0.064)
Migration status (ref: came to [country] to make their lives better)						
have lived in [country] since birth	-0.207*** (0.047)	-0.135** (0.048)	-0.067 (0.054)	-0.213*** (0.048)	-0.180*** (0.051)	0.061 (0.062)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.003 (0.048)	0.027 (0.050)	0.013 (0.055)	-0.042 (0.047)	-0.010 (0.053)	0.100 (0.062)
Set yes	1.302*** (0.243)	1.524*** (0.259)	0.697* (0.310)	1.697*** (0.245)	0.984** (0.313)	-0.061 (0.311)
Constant						
var(_const)	0.667*** (0.023)	0.694*** (0.023)	0.892*** (0.018)	0.515*** (0.026)	0.815*** (0.020)	1.048*** (0.016)
var(Residual)	0.397*** (0.020)	0.418*** (0.020)	0.538*** (0.021)	0.391*** (0.019)	0.472*** (0.020)	0.508*** (0.028)
BIC	25,663.6	25,946.9	27,675.8	25,116.3	26,795.1	27,993.1
N	5,979	5,982	5,985	5,979	5,985	5,997

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A5.1. Perception of labour market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups: the role of respondent's characteristics, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A5.1.1) Belgium	(A5.1.2) Germany	(A5.1.3) Hungary	(A5.1.4) Netherlands	(A5.1.5) Poland	(A5.1.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	0.652*** (0.128)	0.925*** (0.126)	1.494*** (0.155)	0.767*** (0.119)	1.621*** (0.169)	0.544*** (0.150)
Afghan	0.540*** (0.151)	0.864*** (0.142)	1.099*** (0.168)	0.695*** (0.137)	1.437*** (0.179)	0.558** (0.189)
Chinese	-0.214 (0.135)	0.124 (0.127)	0.154 (0.151)	-0.014 (0.122)	0.762*** (0.168)	0.544** (0.167)
Syrian	0.700*** (0.135)	0.721*** (0.122)	0.851*** (0.144)	0.651*** (0.114)	1.304*** (0.174)	0.255 (0.158)
Turk	0.126 (0.145)	0.114 (0.136)	0.462** (0.169)	0.401** (0.132)	0.962*** (0.184)	0.577*** (0.174)
Bosniak	0.133 (0.127)	0.253* (0.116)	0.371** (0.143)	0.251* (0.114)	0.789*** (0.167)	0.470** (0.150)
Indian	0.234 (0.127)	0.420*** (0.124)	0.450** (0.153)	0.234* (0.116)	0.962*** (0.169)	0.491** (0.173)
Nigerian	0.746*** (0.133)	1.049*** (0.129)	1.090*** (0.147)	0.841*** (0.117)	1.391*** (0.167)	0.527** (0.170)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.420*** (0.063)	0.308*** (0.059)	0.236** (0.074)	0.605*** (0.064)	0.254*** (0.076)	-0.110 (0.076)
non-religious	0.198** (0.061)	0.032 (0.060)	0.101 (0.073)	0.268*** (0.062)	0.014 (0.077)	0.035 (0.075)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.210*** (0.055)	0.368*** (0.055)	0.041 (0.068)	0.251*** (0.059)	0.209** (0.068)	0.048 (0.070)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.270*** (0.057)	0.365*** (0.055)	0.146* (0.068)	0.230*** (0.058)	0.286*** (0.068)	0.115 (0.070)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.049 (0.036)	0.036 (0.035)	0.019 (0.044)	-0.007 (0.035)	0.037 (0.045)	0.149** (0.055)
Gender (ref: male)	0.127 (0.112)	0.098 (0.103)	0.217 (0.126)	0.114 (0.099)	-0.211 (0.130)	-0.176 (0.142)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.219 (0.190)	0.653*** (0.127)	0.204 (0.239)	0.231 (0.168)	0.482 (0.511)	-0.062 (0.281)
tertiary education	0.403* (0.189)	0.831*** (0.136)	1.273*** (0.257)	0.718*** (0.168)	0.912 (0.520)	-0.083 (0.293)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.020 (0.124)	-0.027 (0.127)	0.170 (0.160)	0.244* (0.123)	0.314 (0.177)	-0.350 (0.416)
large town or city	0.093 (0.141)	0.266* (0.135)	0.154 (0.165)	0.070 (0.127)	0.300 (0.185)	-0.102 (0.344)
Life satisfaction	0.268*** (0.070)	0.017 (0.064)	0.100 (0.074)	0.060 (0.067)	0.040 (0.089)	0.255** (0.078)
Financial security	0.245*** (0.051)	0.345*** (0.052)	0.429*** (0.058)	0.204*** (0.049)	0.295*** (0.067)	0.252*** (0.071)
Outgroup contact	0.120	0.138*	0.194**	0.015	0.018	0.413***

	(0.063)	(0.065)	(0.072)	(0.069)	(0.081)	(0.074)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.073** (0.024)	-0.242*** (0.026)	-0.006 (0.025)	-0.141*** (0.023)	-0.089*** (0.024)	0.116*** (0.024)
Migration background	0.563*** (0.153)	0.011 (0.135)	0.288 (0.293)	0.008 (0.151)	0.598* (0.295)	-0.341 (0.289)
Religious minority	-0.345 (0.228)	0.002 (0.228)	0.324 (0.328)	-0.348 (0.209)	-1.885*** (0.248)	-0.132 (0.227)
Set Constant	yes -1.735*** (0.479)	yes -1.119** (0.400)	yes -3.175*** (0.536)	yes -0.813 (0.454)	yes -2.717*** (0.717)	yes -4.576*** (0.545)
var(_const)	0.685*** (0.023)	0.631*** (0.023)	0.776*** (0.023)	0.552*** (0.028)	0.818*** (0.022)	0.898*** (0.020)
var(Residual)	0.493*** (0.021)	0.508*** (0.019)	0.658*** (0.020)	0.514*** (0.020)	0.641*** (0.021)	0.633*** (0.025)
BIC	23,506.5	24,676.0	23,447.3	23,021.0	23,617.8	26,108.4
N	5,247	5,541	4,920	5,238	4,968	5,481

Table A5.2. Perception of housing market inequalities between the majority group and minority groups: the role of respondent's characteristics, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A5.2.1) Belgium	(A5.2.2) Germany	(A5.2.3) Hungary	(A5.2.4) Netherlands	(A5.2.5) Poland	(A5.2.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	0.687*** (0.127)	1.401*** (0.132)	1.441*** (0.149)	0.933*** (0.132)	1.415*** (0.166)	0.444** (0.156)
Afghan	0.504*** (0.141)	1.264*** (0.141)	1.135*** (0.156)	0.770*** (0.149)	1.406*** (0.174)	0.497* (0.199)
Chinese	-0.185 (0.132)	0.674*** (0.131)	-0.174 (0.144)	0.536*** (0.135)	0.695*** (0.165)	0.336* (0.165)
Syrian	0.449*** (0.122)	1.117*** (0.129)	0.779*** (0.131)	0.428** (0.131)	1.380*** (0.164)	0.281 (0.151)
Turk	0.012 (0.137)	0.613*** (0.144)	0.491** (0.150)	0.745*** (0.144)	1.129*** (0.172)	0.228 (0.171)
Bosniak	0.209 (0.117)	0.817*** (0.126)	0.362** (0.133)	0.433*** (0.122)	0.857*** (0.164)	0.443** (0.143)
Indian	0.353** (0.124)	0.942*** (0.124)	0.578*** (0.140)	0.579*** (0.131)	1.134*** (0.167)	0.427** (0.148)
Nigerian	0.782*** (0.131)	1.370*** (0.127)	0.989*** (0.133)	0.862*** (0.123)	1.360*** (0.162)	0.572*** (0.151)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.333*** (0.062)	0.166** (0.060)	0.215** (0.069)	0.106 (0.063)	0.148* (0.070)	0.056 (0.068)
non-religious	0.126* (0.059)	0.039 (0.060)	0.113 (0.068)	0.064 (0.062)	0.024 (0.072)	0.111 (0.067)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.198*** (0.058)	0.191*** (0.056)	0.222*** (0.064)	-0.077 (0.059)	0.248*** (0.065)	-0.024 (0.068)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.214*** (0.053)	0.149** (0.055)	0.224*** (0.066)	-0.097 (0.058)	0.232*** (0.063)	-0.026 (0.064)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.071 (0.038)	0.052 (0.038)	-0.022 (0.046)	-0.103** (0.039)	0.010 (0.046)	0.228*** (0.058)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.052 (0.118)	0.045 (0.113)	0.349** (0.130)	-0.362** (0.116)	-0.151 (0.130)	-0.271 (0.151)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	0.021 (0.210)	0.720*** (0.139)	0.262 (0.238)	0.470* (0.196)	0.135 (0.485)	0.073 (0.301)
tertiary education	0.690** (0.210)	1.009*** (0.149)	1.235*** (0.258)	1.046*** (0.196)	0.655 (0.495)	0.146 (0.317)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium-sized town	0.028 (0.133)	0.033 (0.139)	0.007 (0.167)	0.126 (0.144)	0.271 (0.174)	-0.432 (0.430)
large town or city	0.015 (0.150)	0.195 (0.151)	0.182 (0.172)	0.070 (0.141)	0.124 (0.182)	-0.191 (0.356)
Life satisfaction	0.406*** (0.075)	-0.002 (0.068)	0.034 (0.075)	0.236** (0.079)	-0.014 (0.091)	0.233** (0.081)
Financial security	0.246*** (0.055)	0.416*** (0.056)	0.401*** (0.061)	0.235*** (0.056)	0.283*** (0.068)	0.323*** (0.073)
Outgroup contact	0.109	0.108	0.102	0.160*	0.008	0.390***

	(0.069)	(0.074)	(0.073)	(0.076)	(0.083)	(0.080)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.122*** (0.025)	-0.334*** (0.028)	-0.001 (0.026)	-0.276*** (0.026)	-0.092*** (0.024)	0.134*** (0.026)
Migration background	0.532** (0.166)	-0.068 (0.146)	0.409 (0.324)	0.387* (0.173)	0.495 (0.302)	0.243 (0.345)
Religious minority	-0.421 (0.243)	0.119 (0.230)	0.180 (0.336)	-0.056 (0.256)	-1.764*** (0.267)	-0.338 (0.242)
Set Constant	yes -1.971*** (0.503)	yes -0.918* (0.460)	yes -2.285*** (0.565)	yes -1.293* (0.534)	yes -1.410 (0.743)	yes -4.995*** (0.574)
var(_const)	0.772*** (0.021)	0.746*** (0.021)	0.831*** (0.021)	0.746*** (0.021)	0.833*** (0.021)	0.972*** (0.018)
var(Residual)	0.474*** (0.020)	0.499*** (0.020)	0.594*** (0.021)	0.517*** (0.021)	0.595*** (0.021)	0.547*** (0.028)
BIC	23,619.6	24,949.0	23,135.9	23,582.8	23,329.0	25,667.4
N	5,247	5,541	4,920	5,238	4,968	5,481

Table A5.3. Perception of inequalities between the majority group and minority groups in policing: the role of respondent's characteristics, multilevel OLS estimates

Perceived inequalities	(A5.3.1) Belgium	(A5.3.2) Germany	(A5.3.3) Hungary	(A5.3.4) Netherlands	(A5.3.5) Poland	(A5.3.6) Turkey
Ethnicity (ref: Ukrainian)						
Roma	1.247*** (0.125)	1.326*** (0.113)	1.459*** (0.153)	1.008*** (0.117)	1.354*** (0.129)	0.327* (0.139)
Afghan	1.254*** (0.131)	1.432*** (0.129)	1.239*** (0.156)	1.097*** (0.127)	1.485*** (0.140)	0.512** (0.166)
Chinese	-0.274* (0.127)	0.252* (0.124)	-0.030 (0.142)	-0.133 (0.128)	0.204 (0.125)	0.181 (0.131)
Syrian	1.033*** (0.119)	1.242*** (0.116)	0.914*** (0.136)	0.974*** (0.115)	1.104*** (0.126)	0.130 (0.145)
Turk	0.908*** (0.131)	0.733*** (0.137)	0.821*** (0.155)	0.944*** (0.134)	0.870*** (0.137)	0.169 (0.151)
Bosniak	0.596*** (0.118)	0.732*** (0.110)	0.477*** (0.145)	0.495*** (0.114)	0.560*** (0.123)	0.081 (0.124)
Indian	0.629*** (0.123)	0.812*** (0.120)	0.654*** (0.136)	0.421*** (0.121)	0.738*** (0.125)	0.261* (0.130)
Nigerian	1.166*** (0.119)	1.439*** (0.119)	1.031*** (0.133)	1.248*** (0.114)	1.056*** (0.123)	0.388** (0.130)
Religion (ref: Christian)						
Muslim	0.482*** (0.057)	0.245*** (0.056)	0.171** (0.066)	0.514*** (0.057)	0.246*** (0.065)	-0.002 (0.065)
non-religious	0.141* (0.055)	0.061 (0.055)	0.071 (0.065)	0.180** (0.055)	0.074 (0.060)	0.062 (0.062)
Migration status (ref: have lived in [country] since birth)						
came to [country] to make their lives better	0.207*** (0.051)	0.158** (0.051)	0.094 (0.059)	0.199*** (0.050)	0.191*** (0.055)	-0.058 (0.062)
came to [country] to save their lives	0.228*** (0.052)	0.175*** (0.051)	0.096 (0.061)	0.181*** (0.053)	0.151** (0.055)	-0.002 (0.058)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.098** (0.034)	-0.088* (0.035)	-0.045 (0.045)	-0.078* (0.032)	-0.045 (0.043)	0.002 (0.060)
Gender (ref: male)	0.264* (0.103)	0.144 (0.101)	0.351** (0.129)	0.180* (0.089)	0.281* (0.122)	-0.200 (0.157)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.179 (0.179)	0.415*** (0.125)	0.443 (0.245)	0.011 (0.153)	0.317 (0.530)	0.408 (0.319)
tertiary education	0.199 (0.179)	0.568*** (0.134)	1.258*** (0.262)	0.394** (0.151)	0.568 (0.540)	0.686* (0.334)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	0.065 (0.114)	0.103 (0.124)	-0.057 (0.166)	0.186 (0.111)	0.167 (0.161)	-0.982* (0.465)
large town or city	-0.078 (0.130)	0.292* (0.135)	0.095 (0.169)	-0.003 (0.111)	0.031 (0.167)	-0.769* (0.387)
Life satisfaction	0.278*** (0.067)	-0.033 (0.063)	0.006 (0.074)	0.091 (0.061)	-0.055 (0.085)	0.017 (0.088)
Financial security	0.083 (0.047)	0.271*** (0.048)	0.272*** (0.062)	0.034 (0.044)	0.241*** (0.062)	0.251** (0.079)

Outgroup contact	0.166** (0.060)	0.138* (0.067)	0.092 (0.075)	-0.017 (0.060)	-0.065 (0.078)	0.192* (0.082)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.078*** (0.023)	-0.251*** (0.026)	-0.013 (0.026)	-0.106*** (0.021)	-0.117*** (0.023)	0.136*** (0.027)
Migration background	0.395** (0.144)	-0.144 (0.132)	0.189 (0.325)	-0.034 (0.141)	0.191 (0.274)	0.684* (0.332)
Religious minority	-0.642** (0.244)	0.187 (0.213)	0.190 (0.351)	-0.306 (0.199)	-0.461 (0.253)	0.017 (0.263)
Set Constant	yes -1.263** (0.470)	yes 0.088 (0.401)	yes -1.507** (0.530)	yes 0.497 (0.397)	yes -0.596 (0.725)	yes -1.934** (0.638)
var(_const)	0.612*** (0.024)	0.620*** (0.023)	0.833*** (0.021)	0.458*** (0.029)	0.772*** (0.023)	1.034*** (0.017)
var(Residual)	0.394*** (0.021)	0.422*** (0.021)	0.517*** (0.022)	0.380*** (0.019)	0.446*** (0.021)	0.473*** (0.030)
BIC	22,539.4	23,950.1	22,593.3	21,737.0	22,097.7	25,298.2
N	5,247	5,541	4,920	5,238	4,968	5,481

Table A6.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A6.1.1) Belgium	(A6.1.2) Germany	(A6.1.3) Hungary	(A6.1.4) Netherlands	(A6.1.5) Poland	(A6.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.044 (0.139)	-0.021 (0.128)	0.115 (0.161)	-0.124 (0.126)	-0.098 (0.161)	-0.276 (0.177)
foreign origin	0.103 (0.135)	0.034 (0.133)	0.031 (0.159)	0.114 (0.124)	0.063 (0.153)	0.061 (0.173)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.086* (0.037)	0.161*** (0.037)	-0.003 (0.046)	0.153*** (0.035)	0.125** (0.047)	-0.003 (0.060)
Gender (ref: male)	0.425*** (0.112)	0.368*** (0.108)	0.159 (0.132)	0.455*** (0.101)	0.062 (0.129)	0.051 (0.148)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.198 (0.193)	0.188 (0.134)	0.301 (0.247)	0.286 (0.165)	0.521 (0.489)	0.234 (0.327)
tertiary education	0.102 (0.196)	0.267 (0.141)	0.567* (0.261)	0.406* (0.163)	0.798 (0.496)	0.501 (0.337)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.147 (0.127)	-0.163 (0.131)	0.073 (0.170)	-0.122 (0.124)	0.108 (0.177)	-0.565 (0.494)
large town or city	0.052 (0.149)	0.081 (0.141)	-0.083 (0.176)	-0.158 (0.129)	0.052 (0.184)	-0.090 (0.411)
Life satisfaction	0.049 (0.073)	-0.029 (0.067)	0.073 (0.081)	0.114 (0.068)	0.079 (0.085)	0.111 (0.084)
Financial security	0.039 (0.051)	0.145** (0.052)	0.115 (0.067)	0.077 (0.048)	0.161* (0.065)	0.078 (0.075)
Outgroup contact	0.174 (0.119)	-0.006 (0.114)	-0.131 (0.150)	0.051 (0.112)	0.254 (0.136)	-0.096 (0.149)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.126*** (0.025)	-0.124*** (0.028)	-0.094** (0.029)	-0.080*** (0.021)	-0.018 (0.025)	0.055* (0.027)
Minority member	0.097 (0.188)	-0.147 (0.174)	0.153 (0.282)	-0.036 (0.160)	-0.288 (0.256)	0.297 (0.237)
Constant	6.401*** (0.402)	6.296*** (0.349)	5.254*** (0.474)	5.159*** (0.360)	4.059*** (0.638)	5.229*** (0.554)
BIC	7,988.3	8,391.2	8,006.5	7,713.3	7,978.4	9,041.3
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A6.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A6.2.1) Belgium	(A6.2.2) Germany	(A6.2.3) Hungary	(A6.2.4) Netherlands	(A6.2.5) Poland	(A6.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.038 (0.149)	0.138 (0.158)	0.291 (0.164)	-0.242 (0.149)	-0.039 (0.164)	-0.177 (0.177)
foreign origin	-0.085 (0.157)	0.352* (0.161)	0.252 (0.164)	-0.019 (0.145)	-0.092 (0.163)	0.052 (0.177)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.082* (0.041)	-0.242*** (0.044)	-0.094* (0.047)	-0.151*** (0.041)	0.098* (0.049)	-0.135* (0.062)
Gender (ref: male)	0.567*** (0.125)	0.148 (0.130)	0.464*** (0.135)	0.125 (0.121)	0.416** (0.137)	0.220 (0.149)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.667** (0.203)	-0.433** (0.158)	0.152 (0.255)	0.134 (0.202)	0.808 (0.431)	0.425 (0.300)
tertiary education	-0.778*** (0.212)	-0.390* (0.177)	0.394 (0.271)	0.170 (0.202)	0.690 (0.441)	0.478 (0.316)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium-sized town	-0.033 (0.141)	-0.076 (0.161)	0.182 (0.174)	0.147 (0.148)	-0.269 (0.180)	-0.277 (0.464)
large town or city	-0.029 (0.174)	0.197 (0.178)	0.235 (0.182)	0.023 (0.152)	-0.340 (0.187)	0.179 (0.381)
Life satisfaction	0.212** (0.077)	0.213* (0.083)	0.083 (0.082)	0.053 (0.081)	0.198* (0.092)	0.266** (0.087)
Financial security	0.003 (0.057)	-0.043 (0.062)	0.024 (0.068)	0.024 (0.057)	0.060 (0.071)	-0.024 (0.079)
Outgroup contact	0.232 (0.135)	0.203 (0.139)	-0.173 (0.154)	0.042 (0.138)	0.211 (0.146)	-0.035 (0.153)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.160*** (0.028)	-0.125*** (0.033)	-0.057 (0.029)	-0.213*** (0.025)	-0.027 (0.026)	0.079** (0.028)
Minority member	0.512* (0.199)	0.156 (0.215)	0.023 (0.306)	0.431* (0.179)	0.582* (0.280)	0.687** (0.235)
Constant	6.112*** (0.428)	6.085*** (0.429)	5.497*** (0.463)	6.500*** (0.414)	3.720*** (0.580)	4.548*** (0.561)
BIC	8,376.1	9,179.1	8,052.8	8,312.0	8,149.2	9,067.0
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A6.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A6.3.1) Belgium	(A6.3.2) Germany	(A6.3.3) Hungary	(A6.3.4) Netherlands	(A6.3.5) Poland	(A6.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.097 (0.158)	-0.123 (0.162)	0.175 (0.172)	0.085 (0.158)	0.105 (0.162)	-0.172 (0.182)
foreign origin	-0.077 (0.159)	0.197 (0.165)	0.070 (0.173)	0.177 (0.155)	0.021 (0.161)	-0.103 (0.185)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.030 (0.043)	-0.143** (0.047)	-0.073 (0.050)	-0.125** (0.045)	0.021 (0.048)	-0.083 (0.062)
Gender (ref: male)	0.486*** (0.130)	0.269* (0.133)	0.450** (0.141)	0.560*** (0.129)	0.340* (0.134)	0.224 (0.152)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.618** (0.208)	-0.345* (0.164)	0.227 (0.257)	0.005 (0.208)	0.699 (0.415)	-0.173 (0.324)
tertiary education	-0.682** (0.219)	-0.393* (0.180)	0.266 (0.276)	-0.168 (0.206)	0.569 (0.427)	0.110 (0.337)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	0.058 (0.146)	0.425** (0.163)	-0.114 (0.181)	0.150 (0.157)	-0.124 (0.178)	-0.596 (0.512)
large town or city	0.102 (0.176)	0.685*** (0.179)	-0.282 (0.187)	0.481** (0.161)	-0.034 (0.185)	-0.407 (0.434)
Life satisfaction	0.166* (0.082)	-0.028 (0.083)	0.079 (0.087)	0.028 (0.085)	0.248** (0.090)	0.120 (0.091)
Financial security	-0.047 (0.060)	-0.036 (0.065)	-0.083 (0.073)	-0.059 (0.059)	0.006 (0.071)	0.021 (0.081)
Outgroup contact	0.030 (0.141)	0.096 (0.143)	-0.131 (0.158)	0.033 (0.142)	0.186 (0.142)	0.049 (0.157)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.110*** (0.028)	-0.058 (0.034)	-0.038 (0.031)	-0.138*** (0.027)	-0.044 (0.026)	0.095*** (0.027)
Minority member	0.582** (0.217)	0.293 (0.221)	0.004 (0.306)	0.387* (0.195)	-0.020 (0.292)	0.418 (0.254)
Constant	5.871*** (0.449)	6.006*** (0.425)	5.939*** (0.486)	6.025*** (0.465)	4.045*** (0.582)	5.886*** (0.601)
BIC	8,500.3	9,277.5	8,240.0	8,542.9	8,092.6	9,141.4
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A7.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to a more general institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A7.1.1) Belgium	(A7.1.2) Germany	(A7.1.3) Hungary	(A7.1.4) Netherlands	(A7.1.5) Poland	(A7.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.073 (0.150)	0.134 (0.139)	0.181 (0.166)	0.065 (0.139)	0.139 (0.176)	-0.093 (0.175)
foreign origin	0.035 (0.152)	0.108 (0.141)	0.206 (0.164)	0.365** (0.139)	-0.060 (0.172)	0.023 (0.169)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.157*** (0.040)	-0.182*** (0.040)	-0.145** (0.048)	-0.214*** (0.039)	-0.116* (0.051)	0.056 (0.060)
Gender (ref: male)	0.442*** (0.123)	0.058 (0.115)	0.227 (0.134)	0.253* (0.113)	0.249 (0.143)	0.314* (0.143)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.566** (0.195)	-0.249 (0.137)	-0.615** (0.232)	-0.314 (0.181)	0.393 (0.488)	0.166 (0.314)
tertiary education	-0.899*** (0.202)	-0.093 (0.159)	-0.487 (0.250)	-0.451* (0.182)	0.176 (0.499)	0.035 (0.327)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.030 (0.138)	0.199 (0.143)	0.086 (0.171)	-0.031 (0.141)	-0.316 (0.187)	-0.161 (0.436)
large town or city	0.210 (0.176)	0.351* (0.154)	0.038 (0.179)	0.124 (0.141)	-0.233 (0.197)	0.085 (0.349)
Life satisfaction	0.246** (0.080)	0.160* (0.074)	0.059 (0.079)	0.048 (0.075)	0.334*** (0.095)	0.207* (0.086)
Financial security	-0.048 (0.056)	-0.027 (0.055)	0.108 (0.065)	-0.073 (0.053)	-0.093 (0.075)	0.037 (0.078)
Outgroup contact	-0.089 (0.133)	-0.080 (0.123)	-0.163 (0.156)	-0.108 (0.129)	-0.132 (0.152)	0.082 (0.146)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.074** (0.027)	-0.106*** (0.031)	-0.027 (0.029)	-0.119*** (0.024)	-0.012 (0.027)	0.053* (0.027)
Minority member	0.493* (0.198)	-0.037 (0.197)	0.329 (0.292)	0.313 (0.176)	0.659* (0.286)	0.822*** (0.231)
Constant	5.821*** (0.432)	5.877*** (0.368)	5.674*** (0.449)	6.689*** (0.393)	4.361*** (0.653)	4.215*** (0.524)
BIC	8,351.3	8,722.4	8,105.5	8,139.0	8,325.1	8,932.8
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A7.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to a more general institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A7.2.1) Belgium	(A7.2.2) Germany	(A7.2.3) Hungary	(A7.2.4) Netherlands	(A7.2.5) Poland	(A7.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.031 (0.152)	0.280 (0.145)	0.313 (0.168)	-0.120 (0.144)	0.017 (0.174)	0.008 (0.178)
foreign origin	-0.007 (0.154)	0.147 (0.146)	0.190 (0.167)	0.267 (0.145)	-0.066 (0.168)	0.025 (0.172)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.148*** (0.041)	-0.107** (0.041)	-0.081 (0.048)	-0.222*** (0.041)	-0.095 (0.051)	-0.039 (0.060)
Gender (ref: male)	0.381** (0.126)	-0.013 (0.118)	0.124 (0.135)	0.252* (0.118)	0.353* (0.140)	0.119 (0.146)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.551** (0.198)	-0.194 (0.141)	-0.166 (0.249)	-0.210 (0.191)	0.378 (0.466)	0.081 (0.312)
tertiary education	-0.822*** (0.207)	-0.104 (0.161)	-0.254 (0.268)	-0.248 (0.189)	-0.011 (0.479)	0.080 (0.329)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium-sized town	0.111 (0.142)	0.127 (0.150)	0.274 (0.178)	0.038 (0.147)	-0.216 (0.184)	0.205 (0.482)
large town or city	0.451** (0.172)	0.280 (0.161)	0.284 (0.183)	0.189 (0.145)	-0.110 (0.192)	0.465 (0.397)
Life satisfaction	0.191* (0.078)	0.157* (0.078)	0.165* (0.082)	0.134 (0.078)	0.311*** (0.093)	0.220** (0.085)
Financial security	-0.113* (0.055)	-0.032 (0.058)	-0.071 (0.066)	-0.122* (0.054)	-0.101 (0.074)	-0.092 (0.078)
Outgroup contact	0.090 (0.136)	0.023 (0.126)	-0.195 (0.161)	-0.221 (0.136)	-0.061 (0.150)	-0.107 (0.154)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.072** (0.028)	-0.103** (0.032)	-0.040 (0.029)	-0.163*** (0.025)	-0.072** (0.026)	0.068* (0.027)
Minority member	0.561** (0.203)	0.313 (0.196)	0.261 (0.291)	0.444* (0.178)	0.751** (0.283)	0.873*** (0.234)
Constant	6.240*** (0.424)	5.580*** (0.401)	5.437*** (0.468)	6.690*** (0.413)	4.766*** (0.615)	4.621*** (0.541)
BIC	8,394.3	8,849.8	8,128.5	8,257.0	8,270.2	9,018.2
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A7.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to a more general institutional discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A7.3.1) Belgium	(A7.3.2) Germany	(A7.3.3) Hungary	(A7.3.4) Netherlands	(A7.3.5) Poland	(A7.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.289 (0.156)	0.061 (0.155)	-0.042 (0.178)	-0.064 (0.144)	0.184 (0.169)	-0.380* (0.190)
foreign origin	0.010 (0.152)	-0.043 (0.152)	0.211 (0.180)	-0.022 (0.143)	-0.162 (0.164)	-0.118 (0.182)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.110** (0.042)	-0.247*** (0.044)	-0.232*** (0.051)	-0.136*** (0.041)	-0.082 (0.050)	0.009 (0.063)
Gender (ref: male)	0.131 (0.125)	-0.045 (0.126)	-0.002 (0.147)	0.183 (0.118)	0.253 (0.138)	0.012 (0.152)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.594** (0.201)	-0.132 (0.152)	-0.495 (0.265)	0.020 (0.194)	0.296 (0.375)	0.956** (0.323)
tertiary education	-0.574** (0.208)	0.095 (0.172)	-0.165 (0.286)	0.155 (0.192)	0.305 (0.388)	0.596 (0.338)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.036 (0.140)	0.528*** (0.153)	0.243 (0.190)	0.264 (0.145)	-0.016 (0.179)	-0.402 (0.505)
large town or city	0.206 (0.172)	0.708*** (0.168)	0.284 (0.197)	0.247 (0.148)	0.122 (0.192)	0.148 (0.424)
Life satisfaction	0.245** (0.080)	0.057 (0.080)	0.238** (0.088)	0.130 (0.078)	0.273** (0.092)	0.184* (0.090)
Financial security	0.054 (0.056)	-0.023 (0.060)	0.080 (0.071)	-0.052 (0.054)	-0.041 (0.073)	0.004 (0.081)
Outgroup contact	0.092 (0.135)	0.180 (0.132)	-0.056 (0.166)	0.048 (0.136)	-0.108 (0.143)	-0.137 (0.157)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.215*** (0.027)	-0.135*** (0.034)	-0.113*** (0.031)	-0.224*** (0.026)	-0.050 (0.027)	0.108*** (0.027)
Minority member	0.595** (0.203)	0.429* (0.204)	0.449 (0.307)	0.492** (0.182)	0.544 (0.316)	0.696* (0.274)
Constant	6.165*** (0.437)	6.029*** (0.418)	5.117*** (0.490)	6.247*** (0.417)	4.524*** (0.569)	3.606*** (0.610)
BIC	8,376.3	9,030.4	8,350.9	8,252.1	8,203.6	9,141.4
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A8.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to individual discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A8.1.1) Belgium	(A8.1.2) Germany	(A8.1.3) Hungary	(A8.1.4) Netherlands	(A8.1.5) Poland	(A8.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.165 (0.139)	0.167 (0.143)	0.131 (0.167)	-0.122 (0.132)	-0.059 (0.161)	-0.026 (0.185)
foreign origin	-0.110 (0.143)	0.058 (0.147)	0.168 (0.166)	0.140 (0.128)	-0.175 (0.154)	0.079 (0.186)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.000 (0.038)	-0.283*** (0.040)	-0.150** (0.048)	-0.016 (0.037)	-0.055 (0.046)	-0.122 (0.065)
Gender (ref: male)	0.364** (0.116)	0.213 (0.118)	0.436** (0.137)	0.323** (0.107)	0.415** (0.130)	-0.060 (0.153)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.249 (0.186)	0.116 (0.141)	0.124 (0.261)	0.300 (0.170)	0.427 (0.410)	0.235 (0.317)
tertiary education	0.018 (0.192)	0.042 (0.162)	0.383 (0.276)	0.571*** (0.166)	0.532 (0.420)	0.290 (0.330)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium-sized town	0.074 (0.129)	0.236 (0.146)	0.029 (0.181)	0.116 (0.131)	0.100 (0.172)	-0.132 (0.503)
large town or city	0.040 (0.159)	0.257 (0.160)	0.121 (0.185)	0.170 (0.135)	0.084 (0.181)	0.351 (0.418)
Life satisfaction	0.174* (0.077)	0.113 (0.073)	0.103 (0.084)	0.054 (0.071)	0.128 (0.086)	0.090 (0.087)
Financial security	0.023 (0.053)	0.117* (0.057)	0.120 (0.066)	0.041 (0.052)	0.015 (0.069)	-0.082 (0.080)
Outgroup contact	0.199 (0.121)	-0.094 (0.128)	-0.160 (0.157)	0.081 (0.121)	0.345* (0.135)	-0.120 (0.159)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.206*** (0.025)	-0.275*** (0.030)	-0.139*** (0.030)	-0.223*** (0.023)	-0.124*** (0.026)	0.078** (0.028)
Minority member	0.313 (0.187)	0.266 (0.201)	0.176 (0.304)	0.345* (0.164)	-0.030 (0.294)	0.385 (0.244)
Constant	6.228*** (0.426)	6.970*** (0.393)	5.897*** (0.472)	6.213*** (0.375)	5.594*** (0.576)	5.806*** (0.583)
BIC	8,110.0	8,798.6	8,143.1	7,888.2	7,991.1	9,157.9
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A8.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to individual discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A8.2.1) Belgium	(A8.2.2) Germany	(A8.2.3) Hungary	(A8.2.4) Netherlands	(A8.2.5) Poland	(A8.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.343* (0.141)	0.205 (0.144)	0.117 (0.161)	-0.011 (0.134)	0.216 (0.160)	-0.020 (0.193)
foreign origin	0.082 (0.145)	0.259 (0.143)	0.235 (0.159)	0.032 (0.139)	0.031 (0.159)	-0.048 (0.190)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.109** (0.038)	-0.078* (0.039)	0.116* (0.046)	0.081* (0.038)	0.057 (0.047)	-0.133* (0.066)
Gender (ref: male)	0.304** (0.116)	0.294* (0.117)	0.613*** (0.129)	0.156 (0.112)	0.408** (0.131)	0.050 (0.158)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.330 (0.190)	0.180 (0.144)	0.252 (0.250)	0.378* (0.193)	0.554 (0.427)	-0.109 (0.347)
tertiary education	0.058 (0.195)	0.403* (0.157)	0.696** (0.263)	0.558** (0.190)	0.585 (0.435)	0.368 (0.359)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.025 (0.130)	0.113 (0.148)	0.231 (0.174)	0.222 (0.138)	-0.234 (0.173)	-0.141 (0.544)
large town or city	0.060 (0.158)	0.276 (0.161)	0.511** (0.176)	0.265 (0.140)	-0.233 (0.182)	0.128 (0.448)
Life satisfaction	0.180* (0.076)	0.021 (0.073)	0.036 (0.077)	0.010 (0.076)	0.002 (0.088)	0.114 (0.092)
Financial security	0.061 (0.052)	0.199*** (0.056)	0.058 (0.065)	0.150** (0.054)	0.068 (0.070)	-0.015 (0.085)
Outgroup contact	0.317* (0.123)	0.122 (0.122)	0.098 (0.147)	0.129 (0.124)	0.378** (0.138)	0.028 (0.161)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.213*** (0.026)	-0.279*** (0.030)	-0.083** (0.029)	-0.257*** (0.025)	-0.106*** (0.026)	0.078** (0.028)
Minority member	0.290 (0.182)	0.184 (0.198)	-0.134 (0.302)	0.473** (0.169)	-0.115 (0.306)	0.557* (0.260)
Constant	6.126*** (0.409)	6.718*** (0.374)	5.154*** (0.454)	5.683*** (0.403)	5.362*** (0.590)	5.918*** (0.621)
BIC	8,113.8	8,762.9	7,953.6	8,033.8	8,048.3	9,267.5
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A8.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to individual discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A8.3.1) Belgium	(A8.3.2) Germany	(A8.3.3) Hungary	(A8.3.4) Netherlands	(A8.3.5) Poland	(A8.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.386** (0.149)	-0.013 (0.153)	0.011 (0.171)	0.014 (0.142)	0.043 (0.168)	-0.140 (0.188)
foreign origin	0.105 (0.152)	0.007 (0.157)	0.130 (0.167)	0.142 (0.143)	-0.186 (0.162)	-0.036 (0.189)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.165*** (0.041)	-0.310*** (0.045)	-0.216*** (0.050)	-0.091* (0.041)	-0.081 (0.049)	-0.149* (0.062)
Gender	0.436*** (0.123)	0.267* (0.126)	0.482*** (0.138)	0.355** (0.117)	0.400** (0.136)	0.040 (0.155)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.324 (0.200)	0.098 (0.156)	0.162 (0.253)	0.270 (0.193)	1.409** (0.430)	0.513 (0.328)
tertiary education	0.004 (0.203)	0.288 (0.170)	0.598* (0.270)	0.613** (0.189)	1.431** (0.440)	0.645 (0.342)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.008 (0.137)	0.241 (0.151)	0.164 (0.181)	0.240 (0.145)	-0.263 (0.184)	-0.932 (0.538)
large town or city	0.028 (0.170)	0.362* (0.167)	0.156 (0.187)	0.244 (0.146)	-0.008 (0.191)	-0.094 (0.468)
Life satisfaction	0.175* (0.078)	0.009 (0.081)	0.121 (0.083)	-0.048 (0.078)	0.144 (0.094)	0.198* (0.094)
Financial security	0.057 (0.057)	0.082 (0.062)	-0.038 (0.068)	0.103 (0.054)	0.053 (0.072)	-0.049 (0.083)
Outgroup contact	0.171 (0.132)	0.041 (0.133)	0.168 (0.159)	0.023 (0.131)	0.109 (0.142)	-0.161 (0.160)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.249*** (0.026)	-0.300*** (0.035)	-0.165*** (0.031)	-0.278*** (0.025)	-0.115*** (0.026)	0.072* (0.029)
Minority member	0.307 (0.200)	0.248 (0.214)	0.055 (0.301)	0.504** (0.188)	0.244 (0.317)	0.775** (0.266)
Constant	6.686*** (0.425)	7.437*** (0.406)	6.565*** (0.480)	6.381*** (0.412)	4.391*** (0.613)	4.965*** (0.667)
BIC	8,318.9	9,067.0	8,166.5	8,197.9	8,155.2	9,292.3
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A9.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to structural (side-effect) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A9.1.1) Belgium	(A9.1.2) Germany	(A9.1.3) Hungary	(A9.1.4) Netherlands	(A9.1.5) Poland	(A9.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.169 (0.151)	0.279 (0.151)	0.157 (0.164)	-0.097 (0.144)	0.163 (0.163)	-0.011 (0.181)
foreign origin	-0.047 (0.150)	0.083 (0.154)	0.136 (0.162)	-0.113 (0.147)	-0.001 (0.160)	0.118 (0.178)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.138*** (0.040)	-0.276*** (0.043)	-0.206*** (0.046)	-0.232*** (0.041)	0.001 (0.048)	-0.023 (0.061)
Gender (ref: male)	0.419*** (0.123)	-0.073 (0.125)	0.381** (0.133)	0.151 (0.120)	-0.020 (0.133)	0.275 (0.149)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.542** (0.192)	-0.022 (0.148)	0.036 (0.249)	0.016 (0.193)	0.227 (0.462)	0.512 (0.323)
tertiary education	-0.527** (0.197)	0.015 (0.170)	0.270 (0.267)	0.054 (0.192)	0.193 (0.471)	0.439 (0.332)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium-sized town	0.041 (0.140)	0.335* (0.155)	0.146 (0.172)	0.326* (0.149)	-0.303 (0.180)	0.372 (0.486)
large town or city	0.350* (0.165)	0.453** (0.167)	0.050 (0.180)	0.115 (0.148)	-0.081 (0.188)	0.769 (0.401)
Life satisfaction	0.257*** (0.076)	0.138 (0.080)	0.058 (0.081)	0.083 (0.082)	0.293*** (0.088)	0.172* (0.084)
Financial security	0.034 (0.054)	0.079 (0.061)	0.042 (0.067)	-0.034 (0.058)	0.035 (0.071)	-0.037 (0.078)
Outgroup contact	-0.074 (0.131)	0.110 (0.132)	-0.066 (0.152)	-0.061 (0.137)	0.181 (0.140)	-0.155 (0.151)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.200*** (0.026)	-0.327*** (0.032)	-0.105*** (0.030)	-0.249*** (0.026)	-0.100*** (0.026)	0.068* (0.027)
Minority member	0.396* (0.197)	0.213 (0.204)	0.087 (0.288)	0.484* (0.190)	0.459 (0.294)	0.505* (0.243)
Constant	6.002*** (0.417)	7.031*** (0.409)	6.189*** (0.451)	6.891*** (0.414)	4.564*** (0.602)	3.816*** (0.563)
BIC	8,307.2	8,969.3	8,053.4	8,306.6	8,088.6	9,081.1
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A9.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to structural (side-effect) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A9.2.1) Belgium	(A9.2.2) Germany	(A9.2.3) Hungary	(A9.2.4) Netherlands	(A9.2.5) Poland	(A9.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.254 (0.143)	0.253 (0.145)	0.256 (0.162)	-0.067 (0.135)	0.153 (0.154)	0.018 (0.174)
foreign origin	0.034 (0.143)	0.245 (0.146)	0.217 (0.162)	0.170 (0.135)	-0.007 (0.153)	0.180 (0.172)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.035 (0.038)	-0.046 (0.041)	0.036 (0.047)	0.008 (0.038)	0.121** (0.046)	-0.000 (0.058)
Gender (ref: male)	0.398*** (0.117)	0.224 (0.118)	0.490*** (0.132)	0.281* (0.111)	0.278* (0.128)	0.119 (0.143)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.681*** (0.185)	0.134 (0.144)	0.353 (0.255)	0.449* (0.187)	0.749 (0.419)	0.318 (0.279)
tertiary education	-0.362 (0.189)	0.256 (0.161)	0.815** (0.270)	0.828*** (0.185)	0.935* (0.427)	0.626* (0.291)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.023 (0.131)	0.115 (0.146)	0.091 (0.175)	0.124 (0.137)	-0.226 (0.167)	0.243 (0.469)
large town or city	0.106 (0.161)	0.198 (0.160)	0.226 (0.180)	0.188 (0.139)	-0.158 (0.179)	0.299 (0.405)
Life satisfaction	0.169* (0.075)	0.173* (0.078)	0.068 (0.080)	0.131 (0.071)	0.102 (0.088)	0.042 (0.084)
Financial security	0.113* (0.052)	0.063 (0.059)	0.077 (0.068)	0.055 (0.052)	0.110 (0.068)	0.009 (0.078)
Outgroup contact	0.250* (0.123)	0.177 (0.124)	-0.081 (0.151)	0.076 (0.125)	0.339** (0.131)	0.067 (0.147)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.223*** (0.026)	-0.280*** (0.032)	-0.115*** (0.029)	-0.282*** (0.024)	-0.091*** (0.025)	0.049 (0.027)
Minority member	0.475** (0.184)	0.152 (0.205)	0.043 (0.283)	0.339 (0.175)	-0.012 (0.305)	0.627** (0.228)
Constant	6.213*** (0.409)	6.311*** (0.399)	5.274*** (0.465)	5.763*** (0.390)	4.232*** (0.574)	4.884*** (0.534)
BIC	8,131.7	8,808.7	7,999.9	7,997.3	7,918.5	9,001.4
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A9.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to structural (side-effect) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A9.3.1) Belgium	(A9.3.2) Germany	(A9.3.3) Hungary	(A9.3.4) Netherlands	(A9.3.5) Poland	(A9.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.227 (0.150)	0.162 (0.147)	0.095 (0.157)	-0.093 (0.142)	0.112 (0.164)	0.069 (0.182)
foreign origin	0.130 (0.149)	0.071 (0.151)	0.025 (0.158)	0.064 (0.141)	0.005 (0.161)	-0.005 (0.180)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.041 (0.040)	-0.117** (0.043)	0.094* (0.047)	-0.086* (0.041)	0.071 (0.049)	-0.051 (0.062)
Gender (ref: male)	0.416*** (0.121)	0.294* (0.123)	0.487*** (0.129)	0.243* (0.117)	0.137 (0.134)	0.328* (0.149)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.332 (0.200)	-0.103 (0.149)	0.301 (0.247)	0.289 (0.190)	0.293 (0.410)	0.267 (0.318)
tertiary education	-0.087 (0.207)	0.072 (0.165)	0.693** (0.264)	0.496** (0.186)	0.373 (0.421)	0.532 (0.331)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	0.088 (0.136)	0.159 (0.147)	0.214 (0.169)	0.154 (0.144)	-0.027 (0.175)	0.102 (0.496)
large town or city	0.026 (0.166)	0.080 (0.164)	0.221 (0.177)	0.113 (0.146)	0.064 (0.182)	0.342 (0.442)
Life satisfaction	0.307*** (0.080)	0.122 (0.080)	0.019 (0.079)	0.050 (0.077)	0.153 (0.091)	0.170 (0.090)
Financial security	0.033 (0.055)	0.051 (0.061)	0.029 (0.065)	0.048 (0.055)	0.062 (0.071)	0.025 (0.079)
Outgroup contact	0.375** (0.132)	0.391** (0.127)	0.018 (0.146)	0.035 (0.132)	0.425** (0.141)	0.080 (0.152)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.197*** (0.026)	-0.267*** (0.033)	-0.080** (0.029)	-0.259*** (0.024)	-0.072** (0.026)	0.060* (0.028)
Minority member	0.540** (0.197)	0.238 (0.211)	0.069 (0.282)	0.159 (0.189)	0.209 (0.295)	0.637* (0.258)
Constant	5.159*** (0.431)	6.707*** (0.398)	5.000*** (0.446)	6.437*** (0.394)	4.460*** (0.577)	4.205*** (0.606)
BIC	8,265.3	8,927.0	7,961.6	8,173.2	8,063.7	9,121.6
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A10.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to structural (past-in-present) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A10.1.1) Belgium	(A10.1.2) Germany	(A10.1.3) Hungary	(A10.1.4) Netherlands	(A10.1.5) Poland	(A10.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.027 (0.144)	0.198 (0.140)	0.097 (0.157)	0.050 (0.130)	0.141 (0.160)	-0.125 (0.175)
foreign origin	-0.052 (0.142)	0.007 (0.144)	-0.051 (0.157)	0.162 (0.130)	0.129 (0.153)	0.101 (0.178)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.086* (0.039)	-0.138*** (0.040)	-0.092* (0.045)	-0.090* (0.036)	-0.002 (0.046)	-0.064 (0.061)
Gender (ref: male)	0.333** (0.116)	0.108 (0.116)	0.339** (0.129)	0.258* (0.106)	0.271* (0.129)	-0.162 (0.146)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.549** (0.195)	0.181 (0.141)	-0.251 (0.249)	0.108 (0.176)	0.274 (0.419)	0.431 (0.320)
tertiary education	-0.467* (0.201)	0.124 (0.155)	0.186 (0.263)	0.124 (0.176)	0.284 (0.427)	0.290 (0.328)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.187 (0.130)	0.120 (0.140)	0.072 (0.169)	0.167 (0.131)	-0.177 (0.175)	0.082 (0.496)
large town or city	0.167 (0.157)	0.168 (0.154)	-0.130 (0.176)	0.156 (0.131)	0.125 (0.182)	0.722 (0.407)
Life satisfaction	0.242** (0.076)	0.071 (0.072)	0.018 (0.080)	0.083 (0.073)	0.233** (0.089)	0.145 (0.087)
Financial security	-0.016 (0.055)	0.102 (0.055)	0.104 (0.064)	0.039 (0.050)	0.006 (0.070)	0.106 (0.077)
Outgroup contact	0.012 (0.124)	0.056 (0.121)	-0.014 (0.142)	0.103 (0.120)	0.177 (0.135)	0.024 (0.148)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.191*** (0.025)	-0.241*** (0.031)	-0.101*** (0.029)	-0.223*** (0.023)	-0.069** (0.025)	0.055* (0.026)
Minority member	0.252 (0.178)	0.136 (0.191)	0.267 (0.286)	0.180 (0.166)	0.524* (0.263)	0.590* (0.237)
Constant	6.394*** (0.413)	6.545*** (0.388)	6.216*** (0.457)	6.386*** (0.381)	4.693*** (0.598)	4.224*** (0.600)
BIC	8,116.7	8,728.8	7,948.7	7,877.2	7,968.4	9,037.9
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A10.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to structural (past-in-present) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A10.2.1) Belgium	(A10.2.2) Germany	(A10.2.3) Hungary	(A10.2.4) Netherlands	(A10.2.5) Poland	(A10.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.159 (0.145)	0.249 (0.145)	0.306 (0.159)	-0.134 (0.138)	0.273 (0.160)	-0.012 (0.173)
foreign origin	-0.036 (0.144)	0.174 (0.148)	0.135 (0.155)	0.142 (0.136)	0.061 (0.152)	-0.053 (0.176)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.015 (0.038)	-0.100* (0.041)	-0.015 (0.045)	-0.118** (0.040)	0.022 (0.047)	-0.014 (0.058)
Gender (ref: male)	0.351** (0.117)	0.160 (0.119)	0.353** (0.127)	0.225* (0.114)	0.206 (0.129)	0.187 (0.145)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.514** (0.199)	0.035 (0.145)	0.047 (0.250)	0.265 (0.187)	0.621 (0.431)	0.205 (0.290)
tertiary education	-0.255 (0.203)	0.065 (0.165)	0.416 (0.265)	0.504** (0.186)	0.687 (0.440)	0.226 (0.300)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	0.035 (0.131)	0.076 (0.144)	0.208 (0.167)	0.226 (0.138)	-0.148 (0.167)	-0.344 (0.458)
large town or city	-0.017 (0.164)	0.335* (0.158)	0.277 (0.171)	0.047 (0.144)	-0.164 (0.176)	0.414 (0.376)
Life satisfaction	0.151* (0.074)	0.173* (0.076)	0.114 (0.079)	0.133 (0.075)	0.191* (0.087)	0.343*** (0.087)
Financial security	0.031 (0.053)	0.053 (0.059)	0.015 (0.063)	0.082 (0.055)	-0.041 (0.069)	-0.084 (0.076)
Outgroup contact	0.089 (0.124)	0.183 (0.126)	-0.285 (0.147)	0.181 (0.129)	0.201 (0.133)	-0.161 (0.152)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.190*** (0.026)	-0.247*** (0.032)	-0.077** (0.029)	-0.265*** (0.025)	-0.054* (0.025)	0.075** (0.026)
Minority member	0.539** (0.172)	0.431* (0.196)	-0.109 (0.282)	0.507** (0.173)	0.361 (0.278)	0.613** (0.232)
Constant	6.169*** (0.413)	6.013*** (0.389)	5.274*** (0.457)	5.987*** (0.403)	4.485*** (0.574)	3.962*** (0.533)
BIC	8,158.3	8,856.6	7,899.4	8,106.3	7,965.6	9,009.9
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A10.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to structural (past-in-present) discrimination, OLS estimates

	(A10.3.1) Belgium	(A10.3.2) Germany	(A10.3.3) Hungary	(A10.3.4) Netherlands	(A10.3.5) Poland	(A10.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.127 (0.149)	0.310* (0.151)	0.217 (0.161)	-0.064 (0.139)	0.215 (0.161)	-0.039 (0.190)
foreign origin	0.206 (0.148)	0.211 (0.153)	0.177 (0.158)	0.160 (0.142)	-0.012 (0.154)	0.113 (0.185)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	-0.040 (0.040)	-0.160*** (0.042)	-0.065 (0.046)	-0.055 (0.041)	0.003 (0.046)	-0.054 (0.063)
Gender (ref: male)	0.409*** (0.121)	0.241 (0.124)	0.411** (0.129)	0.301** (0.116)	0.486*** (0.130)	0.291 (0.153)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.620** (0.197)	-0.137 (0.151)	0.223 (0.252)	0.078 (0.192)	0.275 (0.391)	-0.085 (0.334)
tertiary education	-0.496* (0.203)	-0.044 (0.169)	0.516 (0.269)	0.486** (0.188)	0.271 (0.403)	-0.038 (0.349)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.143 (0.136)	0.225 (0.153)	0.042 (0.167)	0.251 (0.144)	-0.090 (0.176)	0.169 (0.513)
large town or city	0.016 (0.165)	0.276 (0.167)	0.048 (0.176)	0.151 (0.143)	0.171 (0.182)	0.241 (0.447)
Life satisfaction	0.260*** (0.078)	0.049 (0.078)	0.053 (0.079)	-0.085 (0.077)	0.130 (0.091)	0.202* (0.093)
Financial security	0.009 (0.055)	0.028 (0.061)	0.055 (0.064)	0.094 (0.054)	0.101 (0.070)	-0.115 (0.081)
Outgroup contact	0.035 (0.130)	0.214 (0.131)	0.091 (0.147)	0.032 (0.132)	0.371** (0.135)	0.039 (0.160)
Right-wing political orientation	-0.195*** (0.027)	-0.211*** (0.033)	-0.069* (0.029)	-0.251*** (0.024)	-0.066** (0.026)	0.087** (0.028)
Minority member	0.479* (0.193)	0.186 (0.216)	0.142 (0.283)	0.225 (0.187)	-0.173 (0.317)	0.595* (0.250)
Constant	6.154*** (0.426)	6.627*** (0.399)	5.421*** (0.453)	6.838*** (0.397)	4.656*** (0.570)	4.891*** (0.605)
BIC	8,266.9	8,997.9	7,952.6	8,173.4	8,028.1	9,189.3
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A11.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely due to members of a given minority group not having the necessary local skills and/or knowledge, OLS estimates

	(A11.1.1) Belgium	(A11.1.2) Germany	(A11.1.3) Hungary	(A11.1.4) Netherlands	(A11.1.5) Poland	(A11.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.159 (0.146)	-0.038 (0.142)	-0.134 (0.151)	-0.028 (0.138)	-0.081 (0.154)	0.104 (0.174)
foreign origin	0.144 (0.146)	0.216 (0.138)	-0.051 (0.152)	0.059 (0.134)	-0.044 (0.148)	0.080 (0.173)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.144*** (0.038)	0.239*** (0.041)	0.247*** (0.044)	0.053 (0.040)	0.179*** (0.046)	0.074 (0.057)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.179 (0.120)	-0.130 (0.115)	0.153 (0.124)	-0.051 (0.110)	-0.238 (0.127)	0.385** (0.145)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.373* (0.183)	0.122 (0.137)	0.192 (0.227)	0.043 (0.178)	0.366 (0.366)	0.414 (0.341)
tertiary education	-0.272 (0.188)	0.135 (0.154)	0.242 (0.242)	-0.190 (0.177)	0.637 (0.376)	0.426 (0.357)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.088 (0.132)	-0.210 (0.140)	0.141 (0.160)	0.108 (0.138)	0.061 (0.168)	0.195 (0.474)
large town or city	-0.271 (0.166)	-0.173 (0.151)	-0.107 (0.169)	0.121 (0.141)	0.188 (0.177)	0.586 (0.399)
Life satisfaction	0.086 (0.076)	-0.149* (0.075)	-0.080 (0.076)	0.045 (0.073)	0.146 (0.084)	0.210* (0.086)
Financial security	-0.049 (0.052)	0.094 (0.056)	0.157* (0.061)	0.009 (0.052)	0.041 (0.066)	0.037 (0.075)
Outgroup contact	0.060 (0.128)	-0.351** (0.124)	0.136 (0.142)	0.010 (0.123)	0.081 (0.129)	-0.073 (0.149)
Right-wing political orientation	0.191*** (0.027)	0.283*** (0.031)	0.123*** (0.026)	0.226*** (0.024)	0.095*** (0.025)	0.008 (0.027)
Minority member	0.089 (0.199)	0.000 (0.200)	-0.545 (0.282)	0.200 (0.170)	-0.263 (0.293)	0.166 (0.242)
Constant	4.553*** (0.424)	4.218*** (0.376)	4.256*** (0.434)	4.164*** (0.403)	4.089*** (0.535)	3.797*** (0.559)
BIC	8,211.9	8,699.1	7,802.9	8,021.3	7,866.3	9,044.3
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A11.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely due to members of a given minority group not having the necessary local skills and/or knowledge, OLS estimates

	(A11.2.1) Belgium	(A11.2.2) Germany	(A11.2.3) Hungary	(A11.2.4) Netherlands	(A11.2.5) Poland	(A11.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.176 (0.148)	0.037 (0.154)	0.173 (0.157)	-0.463*** (0.137)	0.077 (0.152)	0.025 (0.178)
foreign origin	0.158 (0.149)	0.228 (0.155)	0.260 (0.157)	-0.135 (0.133)	0.123 (0.152)	0.154 (0.174)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.065 (0.040)	0.008 (0.044)	0.151** (0.046)	-0.062 (0.039)	0.164*** (0.045)	-0.162** (0.060)
Gender (ref: male)	0.170 (0.122)	-0.110 (0.126)	0.287* (0.128)	-0.144 (0.112)	0.022 (0.126)	0.037 (0.147)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.454* (0.199)	-0.265 (0.151)	0.272 (0.233)	-0.008 (0.184)	1.044** (0.357)	0.559 (0.314)
tertiary education	-0.314 (0.206)	-0.109 (0.168)	0.391 (0.248)	0.321 (0.183)	1.238*** (0.367)	0.312 (0.331)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.049 (0.134)	-0.048 (0.154)	0.426* (0.167)	0.064 (0.136)	-0.216 (0.163)	0.189 (0.451)
large town or city	-0.182 (0.167)	0.155 (0.167)	0.223 (0.174)	0.223 (0.140)	-0.285 (0.177)	0.352 (0.373)
Life satisfaction	0.134 (0.075)	0.114 (0.079)	0.105 (0.079)	0.196** (0.074)	0.131 (0.087)	0.341*** (0.087)
Financial security	-0.017 (0.052)	-0.041 (0.061)	0.033 (0.065)	0.047 (0.053)	-0.011 (0.067)	0.012 (0.077)
Outgroup contact	0.146 (0.130)	-0.054 (0.133)	-0.053 (0.150)	0.023 (0.126)	0.130 (0.132)	0.151 (0.151)
Right-wing political orientation	0.117*** (0.027)	0.190*** (0.033)	0.037 (0.028)	0.029 (0.025)	0.088*** (0.024)	0.053 (0.027)
Minority member	0.307 (0.194)	-0.115 (0.208)	0.110 (0.264)	0.246 (0.168)	-0.029 (0.297)	-0.045 (0.258)
Constant	4.297*** (0.426)	4.362*** (0.412)	3.779*** (0.450)	4.753*** (0.393)	3.322*** (0.527)	4.174*** (0.541)
BIC	8,251.0	9,015.2	7,919.9	8,033.3	7,882.0	9,023.2
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A11.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely due to members of a given minority group not having the necessary local skills and/or knowledge, OLS estimates

	(A11.3.1) Belgium	(A11.3.2) Germany	(A11.3.3) Hungary	(A11.3.4) Netherlands	(A11.3.5) Poland	(A11.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	0.205 (0.160)	-0.115 (0.157)	-0.268 (0.150)	-0.348* (0.152)	0.278 (0.155)	0.138 (0.186)
foreign origin	0.278 (0.160)	0.281 (0.153)	-0.041 (0.147)	-0.226 (0.151)	0.054 (0.153)	0.326 (0.179)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.053 (0.042)	-0.016 (0.043)	0.251*** (0.042)	-0.085 (0.044)	0.088 (0.047)	-0.065 (0.063)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.228 (0.131)	-0.081 (0.126)	-0.099 (0.123)	-0.329** (0.125)	0.064 (0.128)	-0.051 (0.149)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.127 (0.214)	-0.165 (0.151)	0.182 (0.226)	-0.229 (0.200)	0.849* (0.399)	0.686* (0.322)
tertiary education	-0.382 (0.225)	-0.091 (0.164)	0.463* (0.235)	-0.208 (0.199)	0.959* (0.407)	1.094** (0.333)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.263 (0.144)	0.191 (0.156)	-0.048 (0.160)	0.068 (0.151)	0.128 (0.173)	-0.404 (0.490)
large town or city	-0.535** (0.185)	0.334* (0.166)	-0.167 (0.167)	-0.239 (0.158)	0.059 (0.180)	0.132 (0.417)
Life satisfaction	0.183* (0.081)	0.077 (0.077)	-0.091 (0.076)	0.110 (0.082)	0.101 (0.089)	0.195* (0.091)
Financial security	-0.081 (0.058)	-0.084 (0.061)	0.057 (0.061)	-0.073 (0.059)	0.063 (0.068)	0.014 (0.079)
Outgroup contact	-0.079 (0.142)	-0.037 (0.135)	0.186 (0.134)	-0.023 (0.138)	0.388** (0.132)	0.257 (0.154)
Right-wing political orientation	0.038 (0.029)	0.134*** (0.032)	0.050 (0.027)	0.061* (0.027)	0.004 (0.025)	0.101*** (0.028)
Minority member	0.156 (0.201)	0.116 (0.205)	0.153 (0.277)	0.391* (0.187)	-0.359 (0.298)	0.107 (0.261)
Constant	5.151*** (0.450)	4.933*** (0.393)	5.289*** (0.409)	5.641*** (0.441)	4.347*** (0.578)	4.224*** (0.607)
BIC	8,523.8	9,049.4	7,759.2	8,425.9	7,902.1	9,100.5
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A12.1. Factors influencing the perception that the existing labour market inequalities are likely members' of the given minority group fault, OLS estimates

	(A12.1.1) Belgium	(A12.1.2) Germany	(A12.1.3) Hungary	(A12.1.4) Netherlands	(A12.1.5) Poland	(A12.1.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.149 (0.158)	0.112 (0.155)	-0.227 (0.165)	0.029 (0.145)	0.099 (0.160)	0.017 (0.182)
foreign origin	0.047 (0.158)	-0.067 (0.156)	-0.339* (0.167)	0.024 (0.148)	0.177 (0.159)	0.013 (0.184)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.043 (0.042)	-0.075 (0.043)	0.047 (0.047)	-0.122** (0.043)	0.112* (0.048)	-0.030 (0.063)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.252 (0.129)	-0.306* (0.127)	0.185 (0.137)	-0.187 (0.120)	-0.157 (0.134)	0.341* (0.152)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.563** (0.197)	-0.280 (0.151)	-0.329 (0.241)	-0.351 (0.191)	-0.129 (0.410)	0.038 (0.342)
tertiary education	-1.015*** (0.202)	-0.370* (0.169)	-0.724** (0.255)	-0.620** (0.188)	-0.227 (0.416)	-0.547 (0.354)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.229 (0.143)	-0.129 (0.153)	0.100 (0.177)	0.045 (0.150)	-0.127 (0.170)	0.029 (0.507)
large town or city	-0.084 (0.180)	0.015 (0.163)	-0.292 (0.185)	-0.026 (0.150)	0.005 (0.182)	0.815 (0.429)
Life satisfaction	0.132 (0.080)	-0.005 (0.079)	0.163* (0.082)	0.161* (0.080)	0.041 (0.088)	0.225* (0.091)
Financial security	-0.083 (0.055)	-0.066 (0.061)	0.113 (0.066)	-0.142** (0.054)	0.023 (0.069)	0.044 (0.080)
Outgroup contact	-0.319* (0.137)	-0.244 (0.134)	0.087 (0.152)	-0.185 (0.132)	0.043 (0.136)	-0.002 (0.156)
Right-wing political orientation	0.325*** (0.027)	0.449*** (0.032)	0.145*** (0.030)	0.338*** (0.026)	0.120*** (0.025)	0.060* (0.028)
Minority member	-0.247 (0.210)	0.417 (0.221)	0.206 (0.281)	0.524** (0.194)	0.077 (0.283)	-0.059 (0.258)
Constant	3.682*** (0.449)	3.279*** (0.393)	3.374*** (0.460)	3.110*** (0.442)	4.198*** (0.573)	3.764*** (0.597)
BIC	8,471.7	9,052.9	8,121.1	8,325.6	8,009.4	9,167.4
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A12.2. Factors influencing the perception that the existing housing market inequalities are likely members' of the given minority group fault, OLS estimates

	(A12.2.1) Belgium	(A12.2.2) Germany	(A12.2.3) Hungary	(A12.2.4) Netherlands	(A12.2.5) Poland	(A12.2.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.176 (0.158)	-0.021 (0.160)	-0.020 (0.162)	-0.061 (0.147)	0.069 (0.163)	0.127 (0.178)
foreign origin	-0.015 (0.160)	-0.144 (0.164)	-0.135 (0.163)	-0.123 (0.148)	0.053 (0.164)	0.090 (0.176)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.046 (0.042)	-0.070 (0.045)	-0.009 (0.046)	-0.104* (0.043)	0.101* (0.051)	-0.179** (0.059)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.233 (0.129)	-0.298* (0.132)	0.001 (0.134)	-0.022 (0.122)	-0.249 (0.138)	0.073 (0.146)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.668*** (0.192)	-0.332* (0.157)	-0.427 (0.234)	-0.022 (0.198)	0.609 (0.415)	0.283 (0.312)
tertiary education	-1.312*** (0.203)	-0.613*** (0.176)	-0.995*** (0.251)	-0.245 (0.196)	0.282 (0.425)	-0.086 (0.332)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	0.028 (0.143)	-0.243 (0.158)	0.232 (0.172)	0.216 (0.147)	-0.210 (0.183)	0.339 (0.478)
large town or city	-0.074 (0.176)	-0.005 (0.172)	-0.028 (0.179)	0.133 (0.152)	-0.104 (0.195)	0.705 (0.404)
Life satisfaction	0.015 (0.079)	-0.021 (0.081)	0.202* (0.080)	0.133 (0.083)	0.186* (0.091)	0.413*** (0.087)
Financial security	-0.158** (0.056)	-0.086 (0.064)	-0.001 (0.067)	-0.079 (0.056)	-0.052 (0.071)	-0.029 (0.079)
Outgroup contact	-0.071 (0.137)	-0.333* (0.139)	0.021 (0.155)	-0.288* (0.138)	-0.092 (0.143)	0.085 (0.151)
Right-wing political orientation	0.340*** (0.028)	0.426*** (0.035)	0.128*** (0.030)	0.329*** (0.027)	0.104*** (0.026)	0.068* (0.026)
Minority member	-0.051 (0.213)	0.430 (0.236)	0.287 (0.289)	0.612*** (0.185)	0.328 (0.287)	-0.069 (0.247)
Constant	4.364*** (0.442)	3.684*** (0.419)	3.961*** (0.454)	2.652*** (0.465)	3.635*** (0.571)	3.739*** (0.591)
BIC	8,452.8	9,202.5	8,053.5	8,296.9	8,088.8	9,051.6
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Table A12.3. Factors influencing the perception that the existing inequalities in policing are likely members' of the given minority group fault, OLS estimates

	(A12.3.1) Belgium	(A12.3.2) Germany	(A12.3.3) Hungary	(A12.3.4) Netherlands	(A12.3.5) Poland	(A12.3.6) Turkey
Minority (ref: different religion or beliefs)						
different skin colour or race	-0.206 (0.143)	-0.060 (0.144)	0.053 (0.163)	0.027 (0.134)	0.163 (0.152)	0.384* (0.182)
foreign origin	-0.014 (0.146)	0.052 (0.148)	-0.078 (0.161)	0.124 (0.135)	0.136 (0.149)	0.389* (0.174)
Respondent characteristics						
Age (in decades)	0.255*** (0.038)	0.174*** (0.042)	0.040 (0.046)	0.062 (0.040)	-0.080 (0.046)	0.017 (0.057)
Gender (ref: male)	-0.145 (0.117)	-0.197 (0.123)	-0.142 (0.135)	0.026 (0.111)	-0.012 (0.125)	0.306* (0.145)
Education (ref: primary or less)						
secondary education	-0.409* (0.176)	-0.284 (0.148)	0.268 (0.236)	-0.151 (0.179)	0.560 (0.426)	0.308 (0.311)
tertiary education	-0.846*** (0.184)	-0.535*** (0.160)	-0.043 (0.254)	-0.468** (0.179)	0.551 (0.434)	0.453 (0.321)
Size of locality (ref: rural area or village)						
small or medium- sized town	-0.277* (0.130)	0.097 (0.147)	0.202 (0.177)	0.020 (0.136)	-0.013 (0.168)	-0.295 (0.494)
large town or city	-0.440** (0.165)	-0.098 (0.162)	-0.119 (0.180)	0.049 (0.142)	0.078 (0.176)	0.239 (0.428)
Life satisfaction	-0.102 (0.070)	-0.143* (0.073)	-0.038 (0.079)	-0.014 (0.071)	0.179* (0.087)	-0.057 (0.085)
Financial security	-0.092 (0.051)	0.006 (0.057)	-0.042 (0.063)	-0.051 (0.051)	-0.071 (0.064)	0.015 (0.077)
Outgroup contact	0.013 (0.127)	0.076 (0.130)	-0.078 (0.157)	0.090 (0.124)	0.387** (0.128)	0.128 (0.147)
Right-wing political orientation	0.330*** (0.025)	0.440*** (0.032)	0.206*** (0.029)	0.377*** (0.025)	0.138*** (0.025)	0.044 (0.027)
Minority member	0.406* (0.191)	0.084 (0.214)	-0.100 (0.267)	-0.068 (0.183)	-0.339 (0.295)	0.020 (0.261)
Constant	4.807*** (0.409)	3.931*** (0.410)	4.775*** (0.444)	4.134*** (0.430)	4.873*** (0.589)	5.398*** (0.605)
BIC	8,148.6	8,905.4	8,060.1	8,022.7	7,881.1	9,008.8
N	1,761	1,870	1,659	1,770	1,677	1,835

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001