ACCESS TO CITIZENSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION

HANDBOOK FOR HUNGARY

EUROPEAN INTEGRATION FUND
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Prepared by the Migration Policy Group in coordination with Menedék - Hungarian Association for Migrants

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INTRODUCTION

The project ‘Access to Citizenship and its Impact on Immigrant Integration (ACIT)’ funded by the European Fund for the Integration of Non-EU Immigrants provides a new evidence base for comparing different elements of citizenship in Europe.

The five consortium partners (the European University Institute, the Migration Policy Group, University College Dublin, University of Edinburgh and Maastricht University) have developed four sets of citizenship indicators on citizenship laws, their implementation, the share of citizenship acquisition among the foreign-born, and naturalisation's impact on integration for all 27 EU Member States, accession candidates (Croatia, Iceland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey) and European Economic Area countries (Norway, Switzerland).

The outcomes of this research were presented to politicians, civil servants, members of civil society and academics in ten EU Member States (Austria, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom) in order to use this information to improve their policies and practices. Citizenship stakeholders were asked to share their insights about which factors influence naturalisation rates, on the impact of citizenship on integration, on past and future policy changes and on the political environment for citizenship reform. These ‘national roundtables’ were a key element of this research as the national stakeholders had the opportunity to interpret the results and give meaning to the numbers.

The Migration Policy Group produced this handbook based on the results from the citizenship indicators and the responses of national stakeholders at the national roundtable. It provides a snapshot of how the vast amount of data of this project can be used for national policy debates. All citizenship stakeholders, be they policymakers, academics, non-governmental organisations or others, can go online and create their own graphs, dig into the data and use this information for presentations, debates or publications. All the results are accessible through an interactive online tool and comparative reports at http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators.¹

¹ For more information on the background and methodology see appendix and visit http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators. For more detailed information on citizenship laws and procedures in see the EUDO country profile for Hungary at http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Hungary.
1. CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION INDICATORS: WHO BECOMES A CITIZEN?

How likely are foreign born immigrants to become citizens in Europe and how long does it take them? Citizenship Acquisition Indicators measure the share of foreign-born immigrants (aged 16-74) in 2008 that have acquired citizenship as well as the number of years between arrival in the country of residence and the acquisition of citizenship. These includes people born as non-Hungarian citizens outside the present-day territory of Hungary.

Overall, 67% of foreign born people have become citizens in Hungary. This rate is significantly higher than the EU-15 (34%) and EU-12 (51%) averages. The acquisition of citizenship varies considerably across the EU. Between 60% and 70% of foreign-born immigrants are citizens in Sweden and the Netherlands, over 70% in Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia and Lithuania. Citizenship acquisition is more common in EU-12 countries, which are generally new and small countries of immigration with facilitated naturalisation due to state succession and co-ethnics abroad. Citizenship acquisition in Hungary is likely to have increased since 2008 due to the 2010 changes in the law that facilitates the naturalisation of people with Hungarian descent living outside of Hungary. The 2011 Immigrant Citizens Survey confirms this finding, with much higher naturalisation rates among native Hungarian speakers than non-native speakers.

Share of citizenship acquisition among foreign-born persons in EU-12 countries, 2008

Source: http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators

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2 See methodological appendix for more information.
It takes foreign-born people on average five and a half years to become citizens in Hungary which is less than half as long as the average in EU-12 countries. In the EU-12 countries, it takes on average 12 years to become a citizen, in EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland, it takes on average 10 years. There is a difference in the time that it takes ethnic Hungarians to become citizens in Hungary compared to all other immigrants. This difference was confirmed by Immigrant Citizens Survey; In Budapest, the average speed for Hungarian native speakers to naturalise was 5 years compared to 9.5 for non-native speakers.

**Speed of naturalisation in EU-12 countries**

![Graph showing speed of naturalisation in EU-12 countries](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)

What explains why immigrants become citizens in Europe and how long it takes? The analysis concludes that the duration of residence, immigrants’ country of origin, gender, background (education, employment and family status among others), and policies are determining factors to apply for citizenship.

**Residence matters:** Our multivariate analysis shows that the longer immigrants have settled in an EU-15 country, Norway and Switzerland, the more likely they are to become citizens.

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4 This number includes all foreign born immigrants regardless of their country of origin or reason for migration.

5 Note that that the time of access to citizenship in Estonia and Latvia does not take into account the time of state creation. It includes the Soviet Union period.

Immigrants’ background plays a major role. People born in less economically developed countries tend to naturalise more often in Europe than people born in higher developed countries. Immigrants coming from medium and under-developed countries are on average 2.5 times more likely to be citizens than those coming from highly developed countries, such as the EU Member States. Immigrants from less developed countries also take longer to acquire citizenship than immigrants from highly developed countries. Across EU countries, the role of immigrants’ backgrounds can be reflected in the different results for EU and non-EU citizens: Immigrants from outside the EU (on average from lower developed countries) are commonly much more likely to be citizens.

Gender matters: Foreign born women in the EU-15 are usually more likely to be citizens than men. Education, employment, family status and the use of language are additional factors that influence the acquisition of citizenship. Across most EU-15 countries, immigrants from less developed countries who have at least secondary education are about 42% more likely to naturalise than those with only primary education. Immigrants from both developing and developed countries are more likely to be citizens if they speak the country of residence’s language at home, if they are married, and if they are employed.

Policies matter: While these individual factors do play a role, citizenship laws significantly influence how many immigrants become citizens because they determine the conditions under which immigrants can choose to naturalise.

One example is the acceptance of multiple nationality: Immigrants from less developed countries that reside in EU countries that accept dual citizenship are 40% more likely to be citizens of the country of residence.7

More importantly, inclusive citizenship laws in the country of residence have a major effect on whether or not immigrants naturalise:8

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7 Multiple nationality must be tolerated by both the country of origin and the country of residence.
8 Policies are measured by an adjusted score of the Migrant Integration Policy Index, see [www.mipex.eu](http://www.mipex.eu/)
Probability of citizenship acquisition in EU-15 countries

This graph above shows how policies affect immigrants’ uptake of citizenship on average in EU-15 countries, Norway and Switzerland. **Citizenship policies matter more for immigrants from less developed countries, especially for newcomers** (as the three lines in on the left are steeper than the lines for immigrants from higher developed countries on the right). As for immigrants coming from highly developed countries, they are not only less likely to acquire citizenship, but whether or not they do so also seems to depend on fewer factors that go beyond the time of residence in the country.

Unfortunately, the analysis of factors that influence naturalisation is currently not possible for Central and Eastern European countries due to a lack of good quality statistics. However, the different policies on access to nationality in Hungary are likely to have a major impact on naturalisation rates for different types of foreigners.

**Results from the National Roundtable**

National roundtable participants emphasised that it is important to consider the special naturalisation procedure in Hungary in order to properly understand the share of citizenship acquisition. The vast majority of naturalisations go through the facilitated procedure for persons inside or outside Hungary who can prove some sort of ancestry dating back to the Hungarian empire. These persons are subject to different requirements than immigrants that go through the ordinary-residence naturalisation procedure. Unfortunately, the data does currently not permit to distinguish different channels of naturalisation.

9 The horizontal axis in the graph represents the ‘openness’ of citizenship laws across EU countries. The vertical axis represents the probability that foreign born immigrants are citizens. This analysis used pooled data from the European Social Survey (2002-2010) available for 16 Western European countries (EU-15, minus Italy, plus Norway and Switzerland). The graph shows that citizenship laws have a different effect for immigrants from different countries and with different length of duration in the country.

Source: Vink, M./ Prokic-Breuer, T./ Dronkers, J. (2013), also see http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators
2. CITIZENSHIP LAW INDICATORS: WHAT ARE IMMIGRANTS’ LEGAL OPPORTUNITIES TO BECOME A CITIZEN?

Since citizenship policies influence why more immigrants become citizens in one country and not the other, what are the legal opportunities and obstacles that they face in Europe? Citizenship Law Indicators describe and compare legal rules for birth-right acquisition, naturalisation and loss of citizenship across countries and over time. Indicators measure degrees of inclusion and individual choice on a 0 to 1 scale. The provisions of citizenship laws have different target groups, such as immigrants, native born, emigrants, family members of citizens or stateless persons. A score of close to 1 indicates that the legal rules are relatively inclusive for the respective target group or allow more choice of citizenship status to its members, whereas a score close to 0 indicates more exclusion or lack of individual choice.

Overall, Hungary’s citizenship regime is slightly more restrictive than in most EU countries, in particular for foreigners born in Hungary, ordinary naturalisation, and voluntary renunciation of Hungarian citizenship.

People born in the Hungarian territory have slightly better access to citizenship compared to several other EU-12 countries, where *ius soli* citizenship is available only for foundlings and/or stateless persons. People born in Hungary may apply for (discretionary) naturalisation after five years of residence in Hungary. However, policies are much more inclusive in most EU 15 countries and becoming more inclusive in emerging countries of immigration such as Portugal and perhaps soon Italy and the Czech Republic. Additionally in Hungary, a child born in wedlock to a Hungarian citizen automatically acquires Hungarian citizenship. A child born to unmarried parents acquires citizenship if the father or the mother is formally recognised as a citizen of Hungary (*ius sanguinis*).

It is more difficult to lose Hungarian citizenship, voluntarily or involuntarily, than in most EU-12 countries. Hungarians can only be deprived of their citizenship in the case of fraudulent acquisition or the establishment of foreign citizenship (of foundlings) (*involuntary loss*). Likewise, it is more difficult to renounce Hungarian citizenship voluntarily than in most other EU countries. Hungarian citizenship can only be renounced by a person living abroad who has acquired a foreign citizenship (*renunciation*).

10 See methodological appendix for more information.
11 For a more comprehensive overview of Hungary’s citizenship law see the EUDO country profile for Hungary at [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Hungary](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Hungary).
Hungary has more restrictive ordinary naturalisation policies than most EU countries, mainly due to demanding residence, civic knowledge and economic resource requirements. The only area where Hungary follows EU-wide reform trends on ordinary naturalisation is the acceptance of multiple nationality (renunciation).

Hungary has one of the longest de facto residence requirements in Europe, on par with very few other countries. Immigrants can apply for naturalisation if they have resided in Hungary for eight years after long-term residency status has been acquired (which itself can be a three year process). Applicants are permitted six months of absence from Hungary during this eight year period (residence).

The civic knowledge exam is more demanding than in most EU countries, among which about half do not even impose such a requirement. In Hungary, Applicants for naturalisation must pass an exam on the constitution, Hungarian history and Hungarian literature (civic knowledge). More positively, applicants over 65 or below 18, applicants with physical or mental disabilities, and applicants who attended a Hungarian language primary or secondary school or university either in Hungary or in another state are exempt from the exam requirement.

Hungary has more restrictive economic resource requirements than most EU countries. The law requires that applicants for ordinary naturalisation are able to support themselves in Hungary, but the exact level of income required is not defined, and the sufficiency of economic resources is evaluated on a discretionary basis. Additionally, legal residence can be revoked if a non-citizen becomes unemployed. As legal residence is required for ordinary naturalisation, it is very unlikely that an application for naturalisation would be successful without employment (economic resources). Half the countries studied do not impose any economic resources requirement. Those that do tend to require only a very basic income level.

12 Ordinary naturalisation refers to ‘any mode of acquisition after birth of a nationality not previously held by the target person that requires an application by this person or his or her legal agent as well as an act of granting nationality by a public authority’ (EUDO citizenship glossary).
Provisions for ordinary naturalisation

Hungary provides better access to naturalisation for refugees and stateless persons than most EU countries. Recognised refugees are entitled to naturalisation after three years of residence in Hungary. Stateless persons are entitled to naturalisation if they have been resident in Hungary continuously for three of the last five years. However the other demanding ordinary naturalisation requirements apply in both cases (refugees and stateless persons).

Access to citizenship for family members of citizens is more restricted in Hungary than in most other EU countries. Naturalised or naturalising immigrants cannot transfer or extend Hungarian citizenship to their children, unlike in many EU countries. Similarly, there is no provision that automatically extends citizenship to the spouse of a person who naturalises. Spouses of citizens are entitled to naturalisation after three years of marriage and three years of residence in Hungary. However, the other demanding ordinary naturalisation conditions apply, such as the absence of criminal convictions, economic self-subsistence, and knowledge of constitutional issues (citizenship test) (family based naturalisation).

Rare in Europe, Hungary offers some of the most generous access to nationality for descendants of citizens and persons with cultural affinity with the nation. Descendants of a (former) citizen of Hungary are entitled to naturalisation if they possess a permanent residence permit and declare themselves to be of Hungarian ethnicity. The 2010 amendment to the Hungarian citizenship law gave Hungarian speakers with probable descent from a Hungarian citizen the most privileged access to Hungarian citizenship. Individuals who meet these criteria can naturalise if they have a clear criminal record and are not considered a threat to public order or national security [Art.4(3)]. Neither residence nor subsistence in Hungary, nor a test civic knowledge exam is required (descendants and cultural affinity). In Europe, only Latvia has provisions on naturalisation for reasons of cultural affinity that score as so inclusive as Hungary’s.
Provisions for ‘special naturalisation’

Results from the National Roundtable

The main point of discussion at the national roundtable was Hungary’s exceptionally generous access to naturalisation for anybody living inside or outside of Hungary who can proof ‘likely origin from Hungary’ including any ancestry in the Hungarian empire. In fact, this special procedure accounts to the vast majority of naturalisations, while in most other EU countries ordinary residence-based naturalisation is more common. According to a participating civil servant, only 200-300 immigrants go through the ordinary residence naturalisation procedure every year compared to hundreds of thousands that have gone through the special naturalisation procedure.

People of lower social class status, which is both global and local, suffer serious disadvantages during the procedure stemming from their class status. This selection should be looked into.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Budapest, 24 January 2013, NGO)

While this procedure could be interpreted as an ethnic policy, many participants stated that the law goes beyond ethnic conceptions of citizenship; it goes back to the time of the Hungarian empire. Theoretically, individuals in Ukraine, Romania, Serbia, Croatia and all Slovaks (as long as they master a minimum level of Hungarian) could receive Hungarian citizenship according to one civil servant at the event. Media have reported the creation of intermediaries outside of Hungary that advertise services to obtain naturalisation in Hungary. This boosts fear over uncontrolled immigration into Hungary and the EU. Several roundtable participants stated that there is growing concern of naturalisation of individuals that have effectively no link with Hungary. Some emphasised that the procedure sends a negative signs towards immigrants who have lived in Hungary for decades and who struggle to go through a demanding ordinary procedure to become citizens.

Source: [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)
For instance, in Ukraine and Russia there are intermediary actors advertising their services in newspapers to facilitate finding documents that state the individual had ancestors living in the the territory of Hungary. Well, we know from the media that so far around 370,000 individuals went through special naturalisation. I would be interested to know who these 370,000 people are, how their social stratification looks like compared to the Hungarian data.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Budapest, 24 January 2013, academic)

You used to hear this: ‘I’m an ethnic Hungarian from Transcarpathia, I don’t want to stand in the same line with the Chinese’. However, now the interviewees turned in this respect: ‘I’ve been living and paying tax here for 25 years, those getting naturalised in the special way don’t even live here! What is going on?’. I’m convinced that it would have been an important psychological moment when introducing the special procedure to put in place some easing for those under the main rule. It would have been a win-win situation, instead of the feeling of being discriminated against.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Budapest, 24 January 2013, academic)

For ordinary naturalisation, the demanding citizenship exam and economic resources requirements were perceived as major obstacles. According to one NGO representative, the vast majority of Hungarians would not pass the citizenship test. The language requirement is very demanding and not measured according to the Common European Framework of Reference on Languages. Several participants have called for a standardisation of the language level required. Economic resource and housing requirements for ordinary naturalisation are seen as being ‘well above the Hungarian average’ and thus de facto discrimination against low-income families.

Several roundtable participants expressed the need to lower naturalisation requirements, especially for stateless persons. Similar to refugees, the residence requirement for stateless persons should be lowered to three years in respect of international legal commitments.
3. CITIZENSHIP IMPLEMENTATION INDICATORS: WHAT ARE THE PROCEDURAL OBSTACLES TO ORDINARY NATURALISATION?

Opportunities created by the law may be undermined by problems in the procedure. Creating indicators is one way to measure the major opportunities and obstacles in the procedure. Citizenship Implementation Indicators measure on a 0 to 1 scale the formal aspects of the ordinary naturalisation procedure: promotion activities, documentation requirements, administrative discretion, bureaucratic procedures, and review and appeal options. 38 indicators compare all implementation stages, from efforts by public authorities to inform applicants to the options to appeal a negative decision. A score of 1 means that the country facilitates naturalisation and involves few practical obstacles. A score of 0 reflects a procedure with little facilitation and many practical obstacles.13

In the majority of countries there is a link between the policies and the way that they are implemented. In general, countries that have more legal obstacles also tend to have more practical obstacles in the procedure and vice-versa. Similarly, Hungary has both restrictive has on average more restrictive naturalisation procedures than most EU-12 and EU-15 countries.14 While Hungary promotes naturalisation a little more than most EU countries and somehow facilitates documentation, Hungary’s ordinary naturalisation procedure is one of the most discretionary and bureaucratic in the EU. The lack of judicial review in case of refusal of naturalisation is a major practical obstacle in Hungary and very rare in the EU.

Overall results of Citizenship Implementation Indicators

![Graph showing the results of Citizenship Implementation Indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)

Source: [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)

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13 For more information see appendix and visit [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators).

14 For a more comprehensive overview and the full report about Hungary’s citizenship procedures see the EUDO country profile for Hungary at [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Hungary](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Hungary).
Discretion

The ordinary naturalisation procedure in Hungary is one of the most discretionary in the EU. This means that citizenship could, in principle, still be refused even if the applicant meets all the legal requirements. In addition, the requirements on self-subsistence, threat to national security and language knowledge are not clearly defined. As a result, the responsible authority (OIN) has wide discretionary power. The applicant has no right to be informed about his application during the procedure. The citizenship exam is administered and evaluated by public officials at government offices—not by independent language and education specialists.

Discretion in the EU-12

![Discretion in the EU-12](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)

Bureaucracy

The ordinary naturalisation procedure is also one of the most bureaucratic, involving several administrative bodies. In other countries, applicants can send the application to the one specialised citizenship unit in charge with checking and deciding on their application. In Hungary, first the municipal official receives the application package, checks the application and the documents and determines if the application is complete. The application is then forwarded to the OIN. The OIN sends a notice to the applicant with the registration number of the application. The OIN then obtains information from the various respective authorities because it lacks direct access to registers and police records. In the end, the Minister of Public Administration and Justice signs the application, and the President of the State makes the final decision. While the OIN has a three month time limit to forward the application, there is no deadline for the Minister and the President to sign and approve the application.
Hungary is one of the few remaining EU countries without judicial review of the ordinary naturalisation procedure. There is no right to obtain information on the reasons for rejection. There is no right to appeal. There is also no specific right to appeal citizenship exam results. The right to a reasoned decision and appeal exists in nearly all EU countries. Indeed, since this research project, the right to a reasoned decisions and appeal have been instituted in Poland (as of 15 August 2012) and in Belgium (as of 1 January 2013), two countries with similar scores as Hungary.
Many roundtable participants highlighted the discretionary character of naturalisation in Hungary as a particular obstacle. The discretionary power to refuse applicants on unknown grounds was seen as inappropriate in a time when more and more EU countries restrict the discretion of authorities and establish clear criteria. Due to this discretionary power, the applicant can currently not claim a proper appeal procedure and legal remedy.

I think that the current system was built on a false premise and naturalisation should belong to the ministerial level and not among presidential competences. If it gets placed to ministerial level, then there won’t be any obstacles for public administration courts on the matter to look at it as public administration dispute, and as it is open in the case of any other such procedure, the obligation to state reasons, access to the file, the right to legal representation, the possibility for legal remedy, etc. would be options.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Budapest, 24 January 2013, NGO)

Reflecting Hungary’s unfavourable scores for the implementation of citizenship, participants expressed a need for more transparency in the procedure. Immigrants are often not aware of the specific requirements and documents that are needed. The government should do more to promote naturalisation through providing better and more information and campaigns.

The last one I would suggest may be the most difficult to formulate, but a promotion service is very much needed that targets non-Hungarian applicants for citizenship. It can be in the already mentioned forms of legal aid and information dissemination.

( Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Budapest, 24 January 2013, NGO)
4. CITIZENSHIP INTEGRATION INDICATORS: DOES CITIZENSHIP MATTER FOR INTEGRATION?

Are naturalised immigrants better off than immigrants that have not acquired citizenship? Citizenship Integration Indicators compare labour market participation and socio-economic status of native citizens, naturalised citizens and non-citizens based on the 2008 Labour Force Survey and EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Ten core indicators measure levels of integration in the EU-27 countries, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland with regards to the citizenship status of migrants. Indicators are organised into three categories: labour force participation, social exclusion, and living conditions.15

In most EU-15 countries, immigrants who have naturalised are often better off than immigrants who have not naturalised. This is true even after taking into account the differences in age at arrival in the country, the years of residence, education, the region of origin, the region of the destination country and the reason for migration.

Employment of foreign born immigrants after statistical controls, EU-15

Overall, naturalised migrants are more often employed, less often overqualified for their jobs, have better housing conditions and have less difficulty paying household expenses.16 On average across Europe, the difference between naturalised and non-naturalised is particularly high for immigrants from non-EU countries.

In Hungary, naturalised immigrants are less likely to be unemployed. Unfortunately, no further analysis is possible for Hungary because the sample sizes of immigrants in the available data sources are too small.

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15  The handbook features a selection of Citizenship Integration indicators. For more information see appendix and http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators.
16  For more information see OECD (2011) ‘A passport for the better integration of immigrants’ and Citizenship Integration Indicators at Source: http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators.
In most of Western Europe, better outcomes for naturalised immigrants seem to be a sign that ‘better integrated’ immigrants are more likely to acquire citizenship irrespective of how inclusive or restrictive a country’s citizenship policy is. While immigrants from less developed countries are more likely to apply, among them, the ‘better integrated’ do. Thus, the most integrated immigrants become citizens regardless of how demanding the naturalisation requirements are.

But does the acquisition of citizenship itself actually improve integration outcomes? Does the policy select the best ‘integrated’ immigrants or do only the best ‘integrated’ immigrants apply regardless of the policy? Do naturalised immigrants usually have better living conditions because they have acquired citizenship or is it more common for people with better living conditions to apply for citizenship?

More national and international research is needed to clarify the effects of citizenship and better address why naturalised immigrants often have better integration outcomes. Researchers need panel data to answer this question about causality. Several studies that have used panel data analysis have found a positive effect of citizenship on labour market participation in Germany, France and the United States.\(^\text{17}\) This project found also that, although political participation increases mainly with length of residence, citizenship status makes it more likely that first generation immigrants will also engage in less conventional forms of participation, such as wearing a campaign sticker, signing a petition, taking part in a demonstration or boycotting certain products.

\(^{17}\) For more detail, see the OECD publication ‘A passport for the better integration of immigrants?’ (2011).
**KEY RESULTS:**

1. Overall, Hungary’s citizenship regime is slightly more restrictive than in most EU countries, particularly ordinary naturalisation for non-Hungarian native speakers and ius soli provisions for their Hungarian-born descendants.

2. The language and civic knowledge exam is perceived as too demanding by roundtable participants.

3. Hungary has more restrictive economic resource requirements than most EU-12 and EU-15 countries.

4. Hungary offers very generous access to naturalisation for descendants of Hungarian citizens and persons with cultural affinity with the nation. Several roundtable participants perceived this policy to be disadvantaging long-term residents in Hungary who have to go through the ordinary procedure. Others voiced concerns that this policy opens up citizenship (and as such entry in and citizenship of the EU) for persons with effectively no links to the country.

5. Hungary has not only restrictive ordinary naturalisation legal requirements, but also procedures in practice. Hungary’s ordinary naturalisation procedure is one of the most discretionary and bureaucratic in the EU. The absence of a right to appeal and a reasoned decision in case of refusal of naturalisation is a major practical obstacle in Hungary and very rare in the EU.
METHODOLOGICAL APPENDIX

CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION INDICATORS

Citizenship Acquisition Indicators have been developed by Maarten Vink (Maastricht University/ European University Institute) and Tijana Prokic-Breuer (Maastricht University). Acquisition indicators have been calculated for 25 European states. The data source for the indicators is the Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module 2008 on the labour market situation of migrants and their descendants (Eurostat). The target population includes all persons aged between 15 and 74 (or 16 to 74 in countries where the target group for the core Labour Force Survey is from 16 years old). All numbers presented are based on at least 100 respondents.

Data is presented for the following European countries: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. In Germany, information on country of birth is missing for all respondents. To determine the region of origin (EU or non-EU), the study uses the country of birth of the father and/or mother of the respondent. There was no data provided by Eurostat for Finland. Data was excluded for Bulgaria, Malta and Romania due to small sample sizes.

Acquisition indicators analyse several factors, including:

- **sex** (the percentage of foreign-born females and males who have acquired citizenship of the respective country of residence),
- **origin** (the percentage of foreign-born persons from EU and non-EU countries who have acquired citizenship of the respective country of residence)
- **the age at migration** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the age at which the respondent took up residence; age groups: 0-17 years; 18-39 years; 40+ years)
- **years of residence by cohort** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the number of years of residence: 1-5 years; 6-10 years; 11-19 years; 20 + years)
- **years of residence by minimum number of years** (the percentage of foreign-born persons who have acquired citizenship of their country of residence, differentiated by the number of years the respondent has minimally resided there: at least 5 years; at least 10 years; at least 15 years; at least 20 years)
- **the time until naturalisation** (the numbers of years it takes on average for foreign-born persons to acquire the citizenship of the respective country of residence)

For more information visit: [http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/citacqindicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/citacqindicators)
CITIZENSHIP LAW INDICATORS

Citizenship Law Indicators have been developed by Rainer Bauböck (European University Institute), Iseult Honohan and Kristen Jeffers (University College Dublin) in consultation with Maarten Vink (University of Maastricht) and Thomas Huddleston (Migration Policy Group).

Basic indicator scores have been calculated on the basis of a list of substantive and procedural requirements for each mode of acquisition or loss of citizenship using both additive and weighting formulas. The scoring is based on EUDO CITIZENSHIP’s qualitative databases on modes of acquisition and loss of citizenship, on the detailed country reports and additional information from standardised questionnaire answers by legal experts in the respective countries.

Citizenship indicators are aggregated at different levels in order to analyse more general features of citizenship laws. The six highest level indicators that are calculated using all 45 basic indicators are: ius sanguinis, ius soli, residence-based ordinary naturalisation, naturalisation on specific grounds, voluntary renunciation and withdrawal/lapse.

These indicators have been calculated for 36 European states. The following labels are used for average indicators: EUROPE for all 36 states, EU 27 for all 2012 member states of the EU, EU 15 for the pre-2004 EU member states and EU 12 for the post-2004 accession states. Citizenship Law Indicators are based on citizenship laws at the end of 2011. In the future, it is foreseen to offer a new edition for past years that allow analysing trends over time.

For more information visit: http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/eudo-citizenship-law-indicators where you will also find a comprehensive methodology report.

CITIZENSHIP IMPLEMENTATION INDICATORS

Citizenship Implementation Indicators have been developed by Thomas Huddleston (Migration Policy Group).

Citizenship Implementation Indicators have been calculated for 35 European states, as well as for three German federal provinces. The following list presents the five dimensions and the number of corresponding indicators and sub-indicators:

- Promotion: how much do authorities encourage eligible applicants to apply?
- Documentation: how easy is it for applicants to prove that they meet the legal conditions?
- Discretion: how much room do authorities have to interpret the legal conditions?
- Bureaucracy: how easy is it for authorities to come to a decision?
- Review: how strong is judicial oversight of the procedure?
A country’s overall score is calculated as the simple average of these five dimensions. Based on a 0 to 1 scale, countries with scores closer to 1 create fewer obstacles in the implementation of naturalisation law. For each of the five dimensions, procedures that score closer to 1 involve greater promotion, easier documentation, less discretion, less bureaucracy, and/or stronger review. Countries with scores closer to 0 create more obstacles in the implementation of the naturalisation law. For each of the five dimensions, procedures that score closer to 0 involve little promotion, difficult documentation, wide discretion, greater bureaucracy, and/or weak review. The scores are the result of country reports written for the purpose of this project and a standardised questionnaire filled in by legal experts.

For more information visit:
http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/citimpindicators

CITIZENSHIP INTEGRATION INDICATORS

Citizenship Integration Indicators have been developed by Derek Hutcheson and Kristen Jeffers (University College Dublin).

The indicators are derived from the 2008 EU Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module on ‘The Labour Market Situation of Migrants and Their Descendants’ (Eurostat). Socio-Economic Status indicators are derived from the 2008 cross-sectional EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC).

Some data may be omitted due to small sample sizes. All numbers presented are based on at least 100 respondents or 20 for the Socio-Economic Status indicators.

Citizenship indicators include:

LABOUR FORCE INDICATORS

Unemployment: the number of people aged 15 to 74 unemployed, as defined by the International Labour Organisation, as a percentage of the labour force (the total number of people employed plus unemployed) of the same age group.

Economic Activity Rate: the total number of people aged 15 to 74 employed plus the total number of people unemployed (the labour force) as a percentage of the total population of the same age group.

Level of Education: the mean highest education attainment level among respondents aged 25 to 74. Values correspond to mean education levels specified by the International Standard Classification on Education: (1) primary education; (2) lower secondary education; (3) higher secondary education; (4) post-secondary non-tertiary education; (5) university degree; (6) postgraduate studies.

Overqualification rate: calculated as a share of the population aged 25 to 74 with a high educational level (ISCED 5 or 6), and having low or medium skilled jobs (ISCO
occupation levels 4 to 9) among employed persons having attained a high educational level of the same age group.

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS INDICATORS**

**Social Benefit dependence**: measures receipt of family/children related allowance, housing allowances, and social benefits not elsewhere classified as the mean share of respondents’ gross annual income.

**Poor dwelling (quality)**: aims to objectively measure the quality of the respondents’ accommodation. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that the dwelling in which they live has a problem with a leaking roof and/or damp ceilings, dampness in the walls, floors or foundation and/or rot in window frames and doors.

**Poor dwelling (environment)**: aims to objectively measure the quality of the area in which the respondent resides. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that pollution, grime, or other environmental problems in the area caused by traffic or industry is a problem for the household.

**Poor dwelling (crime)**: aims to objectively measure the quality of the area in which the respondent resides. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents who indicate that crime, violence, or vandalism in the area is a problem for the household.

**Difficulty making ends meet**: measures the level of difficulty the respondents’ household has in paying its usual expenses. Values correspond to the percentage of respondents that indicate they have some difficulty, difficulty, or great difficulty paying usual household expenses.

**Housing cost burden**: measures the average percentage of monthly disposable household income spent on monthly housing costs.

**Unmet health need**: measures the percentage of respondents who indicated that there had been at least one occasion during the last twelve months when the respondent needed medical or dental examination or treatment and did not receive treatment.

For more information visit:  
http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators/integration-indicators

**NATIONAL ROUNDTABLES**

National Roundtables were organised by national partners and the Migration Policy Group in Austria, Estonia, France, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and the United Kingdom. The purpose of the roundtables was to present the project’s country results to national stakeholders in order to gather their feedback and interpret the findings in a national policy context. Participants were asked about the factors that influence naturalisation, the impact of citizenship on various forms of
integration, the impact of national policies and the political environment for reform. The ten events took place between November 2012 and February 2013.

10-20 national stakeholders were invited to each event. Stakeholders included civil servants working in national, regional or local administration, regional or national-level politicians, members of non-governmental organisations including immigrant organisation, advocacy groups and service providers, citizenship and immigration lawyers, and academic researchers working for research institutes and universities. The full list of participants in each country is not made public because participants were insured anonymity to facilitate open debate.

The ten national roundtables were organised in two structured focus group sessions of each 60-90 minutes. The discussion was recorded and transcribed by national partners and analysed by the Migration Policy Group. All transcripts were used for content analysis using Nvivo software package for coding.

For more information, see the comparative EU level report: http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators
About EUDO-CITIZENSHIP

Democracy is government accountable to citizens. But how do states determine who their citizens are? EUDO CITIZENSHIP allows you to answer this and many other questions on citizenship in the EU member states and neighbouring countries.

EUDO CITIZENSHIP is an observatory within the European Union Observatory on Democracy (EUDO) web platform hosted at the Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies of the European University Institute in Florence.

The observatory conducts research and provides exhaustive and updated information on loss and acquisition of citizenship, national and international legal norms, citizenship statistics, bibliographical resources, comparative analyses and debates about research strategies and policy reforms.

For more information on our past and current research, visit our website at www.eudo-citizenship.eu

About the MIGRATION POLICY GROUP

The Migration Policy Group is an independent non-profit European organisation dedicated to strategic thinking and acting on mobility, equality, and diversity. MPG's mission is to contribute to lasting and positive change resulting in open and inclusive societies by stimulating well-informed European debate and action on migration, equality and diversity, and enhancing European cooperation between and amongst governmental agencies, civil society organisations and the private sector.

We articulate this mission through four primary activities focused on harnessing the advantages of migration, equality and diversity and responding effectively to their challenges:

1. Gathering, analysing and sharing information
2. Creating opportunities for dialogue and mutual learning
3. Mobilising and engaging stakeholders in policy debates
4. Establishing, inspiring and managing expert networks

For more information on our past and current research, visit our website at www.migpolgroup.com