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CITIZENSHIP



ACCESS TO CITIZENSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION

HANDBOOK FOR ESTONIA



TALLINN UNIVERSITY



ACCESS TO CITIZENSHIP AND ITS IMPACT ON IMMIGRANT INTEGRATION

HANDBOOK FOR ESTONIA

Prepared by the Migration Policy Group in cooperation with
Institute of Political Science and Governance at the University
of Tallinn

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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, shares of citizenship acquisition and citizenship’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 a more comprehensive overview of citizenship laws and procedures see the EUDO country profile at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Estonia>

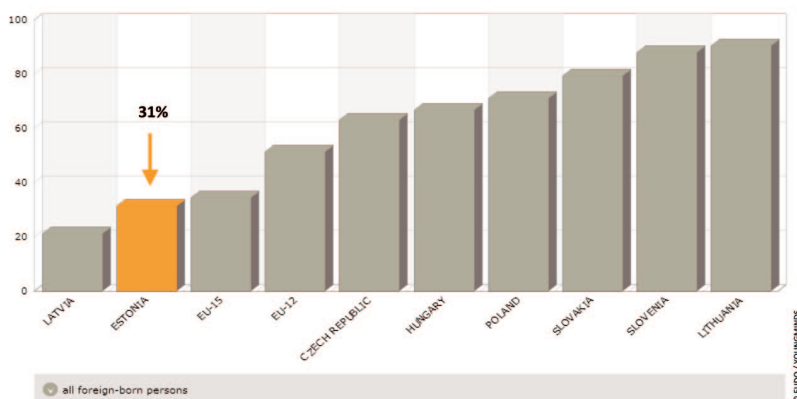
1. CITIZENSHIP ACQUISITION INDICATORS: WHO BECOMES A CITIZEN?

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.²

In the figure below, 'foreign born' refers to people born outside of the territory of Estonia who were not automatically citizens upon independence. While this figure does not include the many people born in Estonia, it serves as a useful indicator of acquisition of citizenship for international comparison.

Overall, 31% of people born outside of Estonia have become citizens in Estonia since independence. This share is far lower than the average in the EU-12 countries. 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. In the EU-12 context, only Latvia has seen a smaller share of its foreign-born population become citizens.

Share of naturalised persons among first generation in EU-12, 2008



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

What explains why immigrants become citizens in Europe and how much time it takes? The analysis for Western Europe concludes that residence, immigrants' country of origin, gender, background (education, employment and family status among

² See methodological appendix for more information.

others), and policies are determining factors to apply for citizenship. Due to data limitations this kind of analysis is currently not possible for many EU-12 countries, including Estonia. The following paragraphs refer to EU-15 countries.

The evidence from Western Europe shows that residence matters: Our multivariate analysis³ shows that the longer immigrants have settled in an EU-15 country (or Norway and Switzerland), the more likely they are to become citizens. Immigrants' background plays a major role. The foreign born population that immigrated from less economically developed countries tend to naturalise more often in Europe than immigrants from 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. Immigrants from less developed countries also take longer to acquire citizenship than immigrants from higher 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 have become citizens in their country of residence.

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.⁴

More importantly, inclusive citizenship laws in the country of residence have a major effect on whether or not immigrants naturalise:⁵

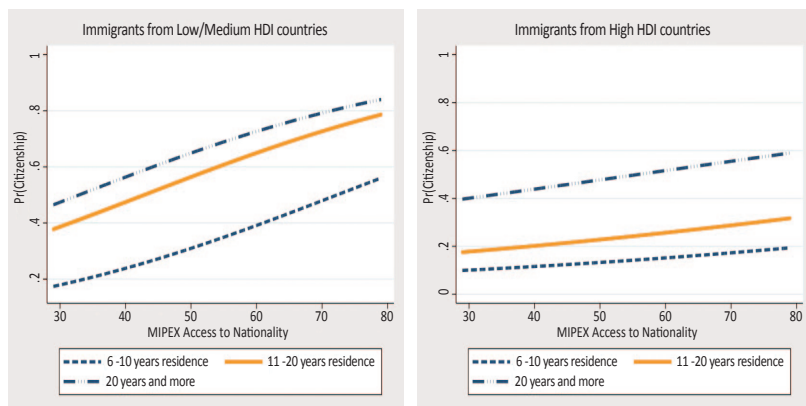
3 See Vink, M./ Prokic-Breuer, T./ Dronkers, J. (2013): Immigrant naturalisation in the context of institutional diversity: policy matters, but to whom? [International Migration](#) [forthcoming].

4 Multiple nationality must be tolerated by both the country of origin and the country of residence.

5 Policies are measured by an adjusted score of the Migrant Integration Policy Index, see www.mipex.eu/

Probability of acquisition of citizenship for EU-15, Norway and Switzerland⁶

Source: Vink, M./
Prokic-Breuer, T./
Dronkers, J. (2013),
also see [http://
eudo-citizenship.eu/
indicators](http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators)



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.

6 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.

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.⁷ 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.

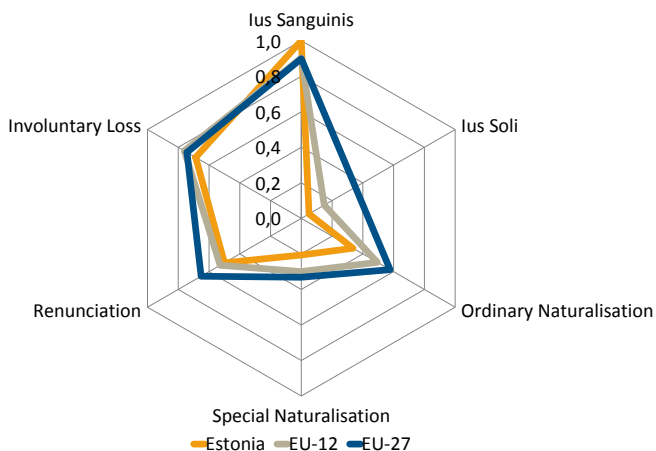
Overall, Estonia's citizenship regime is more restrictive than in most EU-12 countries.⁸ While children born to an Estonian parent have unrestricted access to citizenship at birth (*ius sanguinis*), Estonia offers very limited access to citizenship based on *ius soli* to children born in Estonia to non-citizen parents (*ius soli*). Children found in Estonia automatically acquire Estonian citizenship. Children (under age 15) born to stateless parents in Estonia are eligible for citizenship through a facilitated naturalisation procedure. This facilitated procedure is also available to children (under age 15) of a naturalised parent. All other children born in Estonia to non-citizen parents can access citizenship only through the ordinary, residence-based naturalisation procedure at the age of majority.

Naturalised citizens can lose their Estonian citizenship due to foreign military or public service, fraudulent acquisition, violent actions against constitutional order, or failure to renounce foreign citizenship during/after naturalisation. As dual citizenship is not permitted, the acquisition of a foreign citizenship will theoretically lead to the loss of Estonian citizenship.

⁷ See methodological appendix for more information.

⁸ For a more comprehensive overview of citizenship laws see the EUDO country profile for Estonia at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Estonia>

Overall results of the Citizenship Law Indicators



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

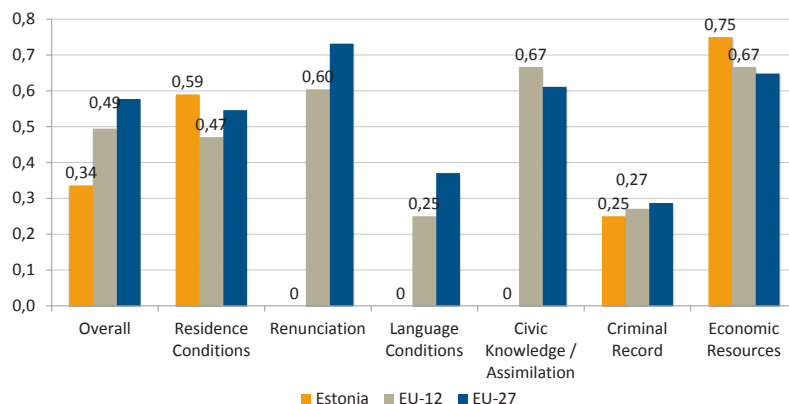
Compared to most EU-12 or EU-27 countries, Estonia provides more legal obstacles for ordinary residence-based naturalisation. Demanding language and civic tests and the requirement to renounce any foreign citizenship(s) are major barriers to naturalisation.

To be eligible for naturalisation, non-citizens must have legally resided in Estonia for eight years with permanent residence status for the five years prior to application. Any absence from Estonia cannot exceed 90 consecutive days per year (*residence*).

Applicants for naturalisation in Estonia must renounce any previous citizenship. There are no specified exemptions to this requirement (*renunciation*). The majority of EU countries now tolerate multiple nationality, while those with renunciation requirements tend to have many exemptions for humanitarian reasons (refugees, stateless) and vulnerability reasons (impossibility due to costs, distance, policy of country of origin).

Applicants for naturalisation must also provide a language certificate or pass an oral and written test at the relatively high B1 level. The language requirement does not apply to applicants who were schooled in the Estonian language. Applicant must also pass a test on Estonian Constitution and Citizenship Act (*language and civic knowledge*). Some exceptions are possible for disabled and those born before 1 January 1930. Children (under age 15) born in Estonia to stateless parents and children (under age 15) of naturalised parents are exempted from both tests.

Provisions for ordinary naturalisation

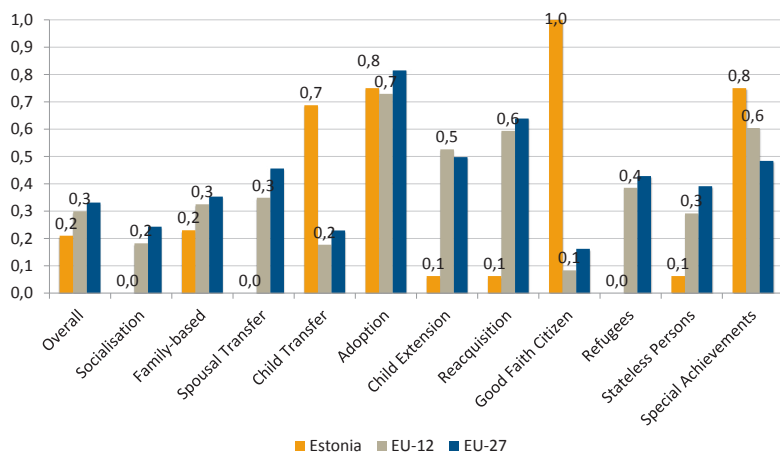


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Overall, Estonia provides limited preferential access to citizenship compared to other EU-12 countries, particularly for spouses. There are no legal provisions that offer preferential access to citizenship for spouses of naturalised Estonian citizens. A naturalised Estonian citizen can apply for citizenship for his or her minor children (under age 15), but the naturalisation decision is at the discretion of the authorities (*child transfer*). Applicants for naturalisation in Estonia may include their minor children on the citizenship application, but the naturalisation decision is also discretionary (*child extension*), which makes this provision much weaker than in most EU12 or EU27 countries. Estonia is also missing an entitlement to naturalisation through socialisation. Socialisation-based entitlements in countries such as Latvia, Sweden, Norway and France facilitate naturalisation for those educated and socialised in the country.

There are very limited provisions for stateless persons and no special provision for refugees. Resident stateless minors (under 15 years) are eligible for Estonian citizenship if they were born in Estonia after February 26, 1992 and if the parents (or single or adoptive parent) have also been resident in Estonia for five years and are also stateless or of 'undefined' citizenship (including citizens of USSR before August 20, 1991) (*stateless persons*).

Provisions for 'special naturalisation'



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

Results from the National Roundtable⁹

The situation of the Russophones in the Baltics is a unique situation in Europe. In addition to a noticeable number of immigrants, Estonia has a large Russian speaking minority of which some have dual citizenship (formally not permitted), some have Russian citizenship, some have naturalised to become Estonian citizen and others are stateless. As a result, Estonia has a large share of its population excluded from national electoral politics. In this context, limited ius soli for children born in Estonia and the refusal of dual citizenship are perceived to be the major legal issues of citizenship in Estonia.

I have a very good relative who has been born both as an Estonian citizen and lived 30 years in St. Petersburg and is a Russian citizen at the same time. So every time he crosses the borders nervously, as he takes out one of the passports on one side and another one on the other side. Because everybody knows- if there aren't any stamps, something is wrong. They won't let him in or out or whatever. So in that sense the situation is not really normal.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn, 18 January 2013)

We have an international tool, the Council of Europe Convention on Nationality. Not so many have signed and ratified it, but the process is going on. And it says there in black and white that dual citizenship is a very advisable tool nowadays due to the process of naturalisation and large migration. Estonians believe that citizenship is somewhat a

⁹ The Estonian national roundtable, organised by the 'Institute of Political Science and Governance of the University of Tallinn', hosted in two focus groups discussions. The first discussion was held in Estonian language. It included four civil servants and two politicians. The second discussion was conducted in Russian and included eight representatives of non-governmental organisations and media.

privilege for ethnic and native people, but it is simply a possibility to participate in the social life to the utmost. And if you became a citizen of USA by being born there, then why can't you obtain Estonian citizenship if you live here permanently.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, NGO)

Another issue is loss of citizenship of those who have naturalised in Estonia. This can generate mistrust and disbelief in the Estonian state.

The negative perception of the possibility to take away the citizenship of naturalised citizens, and not simply to take away but to take it away for untrustworthiness, is very common among the Russian community. It cannot be taken away from the citizen by birth. This basically means that the state passes along some kind of judgment of citizenship. So that, ok, we will give it to you, but with certain reservations. Beware! And this is actually a very bad thing for the trust in the state.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

An often mentioned obstacle for naturalisation is the demanding B1 language requirement. In particular elderly people struggle to reach B1 level. The way of measurement through a formalized exam may be more difficult for older generation who are not familiar with this kind of testing. In contrast, one participant stated that many who criticise the language test have actual limited experience with it and are sometimes not well informed about the content.

This (language exam) is one thing that for sure is an obstacle. Before it was A2, now it is B1. This is a big difference, because B1 is the one a person should ideally master after elementary school where he studies Estonian language, only Estonian language (...) and, well for an elderly person it is actually too hard, really.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

But as for the language exam, the question is the form of the language exam, which is understandably made according to international standards, but it requires a certain kind of thinking. People who finished school during the Soviet era, 30-40 years ago- they don't know how to take that kind of an exam. Abstract thought is required there. A very concrete example: it was necessary to write an essay about 'why you didn't stay home during New Year's Eve'. And the person later told to his teacher: 'What should I have written? I was at home'.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

At the same time, contextual knowledge about the contents of the language exam and how hard or easy it is for different societal groups is, well, extremely low. Most of the people who express negative opinions have never themselves taken a language exam. And in that sense there is a lot of work to be done here.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

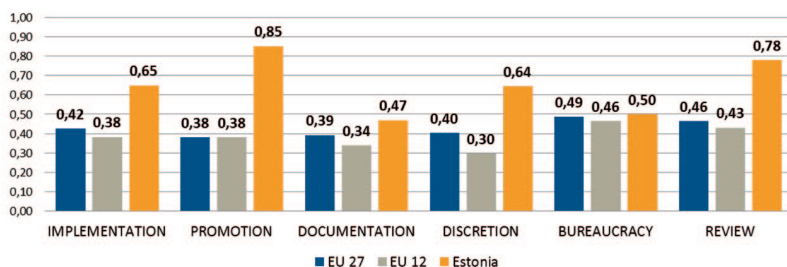
3. CITIZENSHIP IMPLEMENTATION INDICATORS: WHAT ARE THE PROCEDURAL OBSTACLES TO ORDINARY NATURALISATION?

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.¹⁰

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.

In contrast, while Estonia's citizenship laws are more restrictive than in most EU-12 countries, there are very few procedural obstacles to ordinary naturalisation.¹¹

Overall results of Citizenship Implementation Indicators



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

Promotion

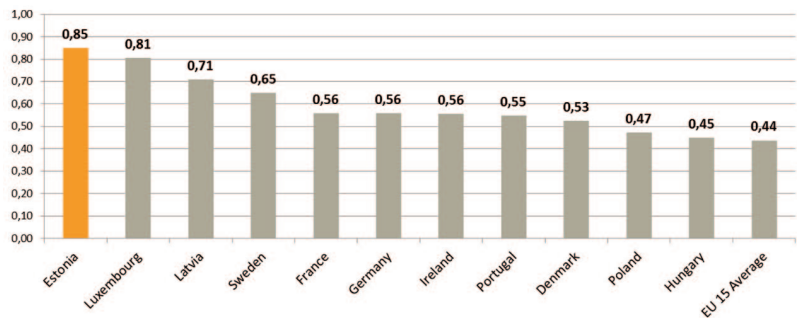
Estonia does more than most EU countries to encourage naturalisation. The Estonian government funds campaigns to promote naturalisation through the Integration and Migration Foundation Our People. Currently, the campaigns do not target the general public and there is no cooperation with foreigner or non-citizen NGOs. Es-

¹⁰ For more information see appendix and visit <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>. The scores for Germany were calculated as the average...

¹¹ For a more comprehensive overview of citizenship procedures see the full report at the EUDO country profile for Estonia at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/country-profiles/?country=Estonia>

tonia offers an information service, a hotline, easily accessible online material and an application-checking service. There are only low costs involved in applying and free or easily reimbursed language courses are available to assist in meeting the language requirement. There are also free of charge preparation courses related to a civic test. However, strong promotional activities may generally be undermined by more serious legal obstacles.

Promotion in selected EU countries



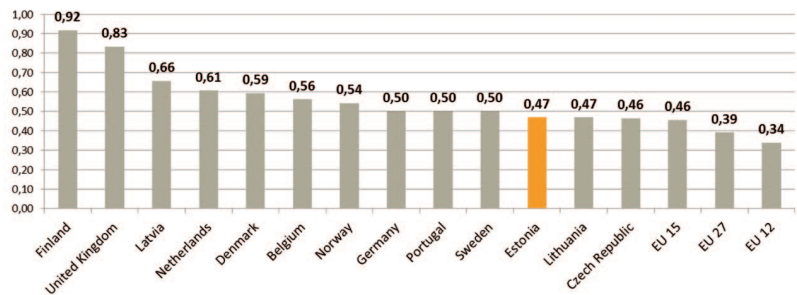
Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Documentation

It is generally easier to provide all the required documentation for naturalisation in Estonia than in most EU countries. Estonia does not require a birth certificate from the country of origin in addition to proof of identity. The current residence permit is enough to prove regular residence rather than all residence permits acquired in the past. The documentation for language and civic knowledge requirements is clearly defined. Other Eastern European countries use subjective interviews to determine language skills.

No exemptions for providing documentation for economic resource requirement for the elderly, the disabled or refugees, no exemptions for the requirement to renounce previous citizenship(s) and no exemptions for refugees from the language requirement may be an obstacle in practice.

Documentation



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

Discretion

Overall, ordinary naturalisation is a discretionary procedure in Estonia, it is not a right. However, discretion is less of an obstacle in Estonia than in most EU countries because the language and civic knowledge requirements are clearly defined and there are also clear guidelines for the assessment of economic requirements.

Review

Estonia offers favourable opportunities for judicial review of decisions taken on naturalisation claims. The applicant has the right to a reasoned decision, the applicant can appeal to the highest national court and the applicant can also appeal the assessment of integration requirements (language, civic knowledge).

Results from the National Roundtable

Quite favourable implementation scores in Estonia have resonated with the perception of participants at the national roundtable. The procedures are not seen as an obstacle and the efforts to promote naturalisation, for example through ceremonies, are acknowledged. More could be done to explain the content of the language exam.

It was really surprising for me, how popular they (ceremonies) turned out to be. Of course, it depends, not everybody goes there. But the fact that many people feel, so to say, necessary to do so. They still go there and they get, well, the minister or someone shakes their hand and says congratulations.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, civil servant)

However, negative public opinion and discrimination, especially towards the Russian speaking minority, may be a more serious deterrent for non-citizens to apply for Estonian citizenship. Awareness campaigns may be a way to address negative public sentiment.

They have been told that they don't belong since the moment they were born.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, NGO)

But I can understand those people, who were born here, even if their ethnic background is different. You were born here, you've lived here your entire life, and one day you are told that you don't belong here, and you should go back to the country of your ancestors. It is natural that people feel the rejection.

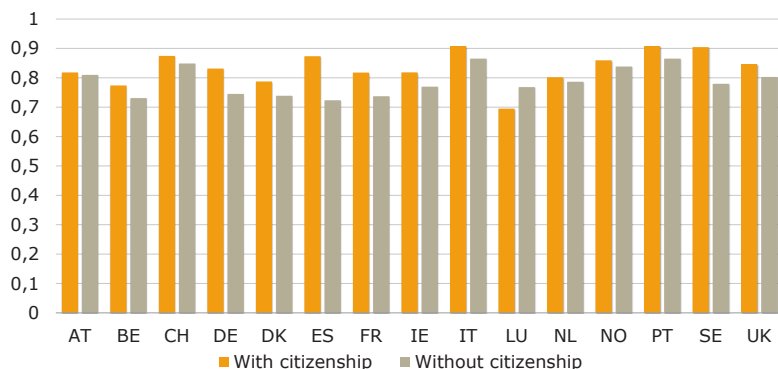
(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, NGO)

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.¹²

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



Source: ACIT
conference
presentation

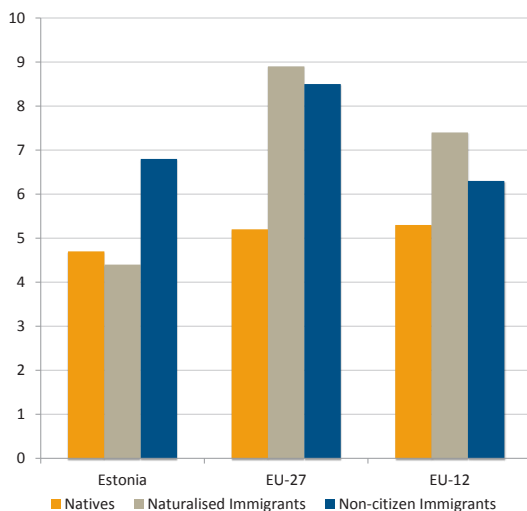
Overall, naturalised migrants are more often employed, less often overqualified for their jobs, have better housing conditions and have less difficulty paying household expenses.¹³ On average across Europe, the difference between naturalised and non-naturalised is particularly high for immigrants from non-EU countries.

¹² The handbook features a selection of Citizenship Integration indicators. For more information see appendix and <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

¹³ For more information see OECD (2011) 'A passport for the better integration of immigrants' and Citizenship Integration Indicators at <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/about/acit>

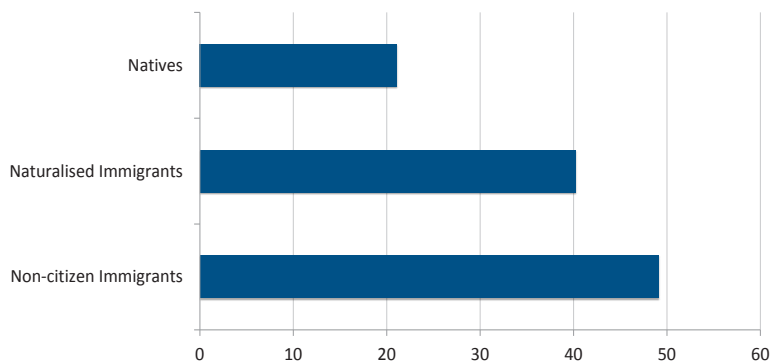
In the case of Estonia, the benefit of citizenship appears to be quite large in many areas of life. Naturalised non-citizens are less likely to be unemployed, less likely to be overqualified, less likely to have difficulties making ends meet, and less likely to live in an area with problems of crime, violence or vandalism. It is important to note that only first-generation, foreign-born migrants are included in our data. Second and later generations without the citizenship of their country of residence are not included in the data set.

Unemployment Rates, 2008 (%)



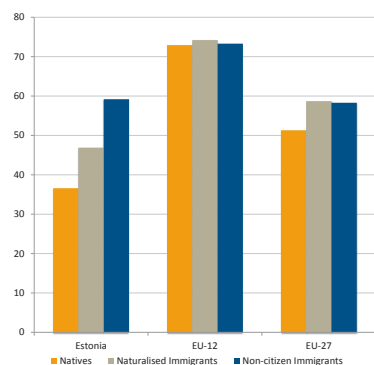
Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Overqualification rates, Estonia, 2008 (%)

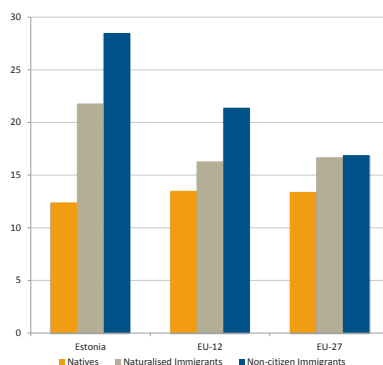


Source: <http://eudo-citizenship.eu/indicators>

Share Having Difficulty Making Ends Meet, 2008 (%)



Share living in area with problem with crime, violence, or vandalism, 2008 (%)



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

In most of 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? In the case of Estonia, more research is needed particularly on the issue of the Estonian-born Russian-speaking minority and the effect of naturalisation on their socio-economic situation.

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.¹⁴ 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.

Results from the National Roundtable

Older persons from the Russian speaking minority in Estonia may not see the benefit of becoming a citizen of Estonia, especially when they have to go through a demand-

¹⁴ For more detail, see the OECD publication ‘A passport for the better integration of immigrants?’ (2011).

ing and bureaucratic procedure. There is a higher interest among younger age groups of the Russian speaking minority, because many may look for employment or better education opportunities in the European Union countries.

It (naturalisation) also greatly depends on age groups, when you are 65 years old, it is hard to learn the language, it is practically impossible for you. In many cases you don't practically need it. So, in my electoral district, in Ida-Virumaa, the question is why you should go through that long process which is relatively complicated for you.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

7% of the population of Estonia is stateless. Stateless people have an 'alien's passport' (sometimes called 'grey' passport or non-citizen passport) which entitles them to travel. As a result, many stateless persons feel no need to either acquire Estonian or Russian citizenship.

I think that for the most part it is just people's laziness. If a person has a grey passport, he can easily go to Russia, he can have a job in EU, why would he want to enter into bureaucratic hurdles about obtaining either Russian or Estonian citizenship? You have a grey passport, and you have quite a normal life. My father has a grey passport, and he doesn't even think about going and changing it. So to me it is simply a human nature.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, politician)

There was no consensus among roundtable participants about the question whether acquiring citizenship improves a sense of belonging in Estonia. Belonging is a very subjective feeling that differs case by case. However, meeting the requirement for citizenship may be perceived as an achievement that leads to a sense of pride in membership in society. Estonian citizenship is definitely an advantage for finding employment in the public sector which is important in Estonia. Estonian citizenship may also facilitate access to further education in the rest of the EU.

I believe I am the only one behind this table, who can compare two experiences. I had Russian citizenship, I have Estonian citizenship, and I have to say I cannot make any difference.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, Politician)

In the sense that public service is restricted with citizenship, then it is clear that it influences to a certain extent, because there are quite a lot of positions in the government sector. As for, well, outside of this, I agree, it is not that big. Still, with the education system, maybe the broader influence about which we talked before.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, Politician)

But when we are talking about getting a higher education in the West, then it (citizenship) does have an impact on the situation. Because only those people who have a citizenship of any EU country have the ability to study for free in Europe. This is what comes from the legal point of view.

(Participant of the ACIT National Roundtable in Tallinn,
18 January 2013, Politician)

KEY RESULTS:

1. Overall, Estonia's citizenship regime is more restrictive than in most EU-12 countries. While children born to an Estonian parent have unrestricted access to citizenship at birth (*ius sanguinis*), Estonia offers very limited access to citizenship to children born in Estonia to non-citizen parents based on *ius soli*. There is also currently no preferential access to citizenship for refugees.
2. Estonia provides more legal obstacles for ordinary naturalisation than most EU-12 countries. In particular, demanding language and civic knowledge tests as well as the requirement to renounce any previous citizenship(s) are impediments to naturalisation. Estonia has very limited grounds for exemptions from the language requirement for naturalisation, for example, for the elderly or refugees.
3. In contrast, while Estonia's citizenship laws are more restrictive than in most EU-12 countries, there are very few procedural obstacles to ordinary naturalisation. These positive scores for the implementation of citizenship procedures resonated with participants at the National Roundtable. These implementation measures may or may not be effective for promoting naturalisation given the major legal obstacles.

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>

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 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 co-operation 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



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 \(EUDO\)](http://www.eudo.eu) 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



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