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Esame in sede referente della proposta di legge C. 2124 Iezzi

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Access to citizenship for migrants' descendants and revocation grounds in Europe

A comparative perspective on A.C. 2124

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Summary. This statement situates A.C. 2124 in the European comparative landscape (EU-27, EFTA and the United Kingdom; law in force on 1 June 2026), drawing on the GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset. On access, Italy is already among the most restrictive states in Europe for the descendants of migrants born on its territory; the proposed preclusion grounds would attach the broadest criminal bar in Europe to a birthright entitlement: any conviction, of any gravity, for any offence across two entire titles of the penal code, with no time window. The empirical evidence indicates that early and secure access to citizenship supports precisely the integration that the bill's explanatory statement takes as its objective. On revocation, twenty-seven of the thirty-two states compared have no provision revoking citizenship for ordinary offences; A.C. 2124 would place Italy alongside the only three states that revoke for serious crimes committed after acquisition (Belgium, Cyprus and Malta; two further states have narrowly confined provisions), without the judicial and statelessness safeguards of the closest precedent, Belgium, and in tension with the individual proportionality assessment required by EU law. The Portuguese Constitutional Court has twice struck down legislation of this design as violating the equality principle and creating, in effect, second-class citizens. Where the Committee wishes to introduce conduct conditions, European practice offers models with clear limits.

1 Introduction and scope of this statement

President, Members of the Committee,

I thank you for the invitation to contribute to your examination of A.C. 2124. I hold the Chair in Citizenship Studies at the European University Institute in Florence, where I co-direct the [Global Citizenship Observatory \(GLOBALCIT\)](#), which documents and compares the citizenship laws of states around the world through open-access databases used by researchers, governments and international organisations.

This statement offers a comparative, evidence-based perspective on the two central aspects of the bill: the conditions under which the descendants of migrants, born and raised in Italy,

may acquire Italian citizenship (article 4, paragraph 2, of Law no. 91 of 1992), and the grounds on which citizenship, once acquired, may be revoked (article 10-bis). I comment more briefly on the extension of the language requirement and on the oath. I do not address questions of domestic constitutional law, on which the Committee has other sources of advice. My aim is to situate A.C. 2124 within the European landscape: the Servizio Studi dossier compares France, Germany, the United Kingdom and Spain, and I extend that comparison to all EU member states, the EFTA states (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland) and the United Kingdom, drawing on the GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset. The annexed tables and figures summarise this evidence.

2 The bill in brief

A.C. 2124 consists of a single article that amends Law no. 91 of 1992 in four respects. Letter a) introduces grounds precluding acquisition of citizenship by persons born in Italy who have resided here without interruption until the age of majority (article 4, paragraph 2): any conviction for an offence against a person or against property (Titles XII and XIII of Book II of the penal code) or for drug offences, as well as security grounds. Letter b) extends the B1 Italian-language requirement to this group, removes two existing exemptions, and extends to naturalisation the criminal-conviction bars that currently apply to acquisition by marriage. Letter c) requires the oath of loyalty to be pronounced in Italian. Letter d) widens the list of convictions for which citizenship already acquired may be revoked, adding homicide, female genital mutilation, trafficking in persons and sexual violence to the current terrorism-related grounds.

In what follows I concentrate on the first and the last of these: *the conditions of access to citizenship for the descendants of migrants born in Italy* (letter a), and *the grounds for revoking citizenship once acquired* (letter d). These two provisions define, respectively, the access to and the potential exit from citizenship for persons of migrant origin, and it is on these two points that the European comparison is most instructive (Tables 1 and 2).

3 The new preclusion grounds in comparative perspective

Why does access to citizenship matter? A substantial empirical literature documents that acquiring citizenship strengthens the integration of immigrants, notably in the labour market (Gathmann and Garbers, 2023). For children born in the country to immigrant parents the evidence is especially compelling: studies using the introduction of a conditional *ius soli* in Germany in 2000 as a natural experiment provide causal evidence that children perform significantly better when they are granted citizenship at birth (Felfe, Rainer and Saurer, 2020; Cygan-Rehm, 2018); a study published this year finds, in the same natural experiment, that children granted citizenship at birth were recorded as crime suspects about 70 per cent less often than comparable peers, with the decline concentrated in property and drug offences (Andres, Bauernschuster, Dahl, Rainer and Schüller, 2026). Register-based research on the Netherlands shows that earlier access to citizenship during childhood is associated with better educational outcomes (Labussière, 2023). Nor is this the view of researchers alone: survey evidence shows that Italian citizens themselves recognise that native-born children in Italy are entitled to citizenship, especially those born to parents with a certain period of legal residence (Donnalaja and Vink, 2023).

Where does Italy stand today on access to citizenship for the descendants of migrants?

Figure 1 maps, and Table 1 details, the thirty-two states on the two relevant modes: acquisition at birth based on birth in the country, and acquisition after birth based on birth in the country. Italy grants nothing at birth: unlike in France, Germany, Spain, Belgium, Portugal, Greece, Ireland, Malta, the Netherlands, Luxembourg or the United Kingdom, a child born in Italy to foreign parents is born a foreigner, whatever the parents' residence history. The after-birth route of article 4(2) is correspondingly demanding: legal residence without interruption for the entire period from birth to the age of majority, with a one-year declaration window. Germany attributes citizenship at birth after five years' parental residence with a permanent right of residence; France automatically at birth if one of the parents was born in France and, otherwise, after five years' residence of the child since age eleven, automatically at the age of 18; the United Kingdom, beyond attribution at birth where a parent is settled, registers a child after its first ten years. Italy's requirement, eighteen years of uninterrupted legal residence, is already among the most demanding in Europe.

Can migrants' descendants born in the country acquire citizenship?

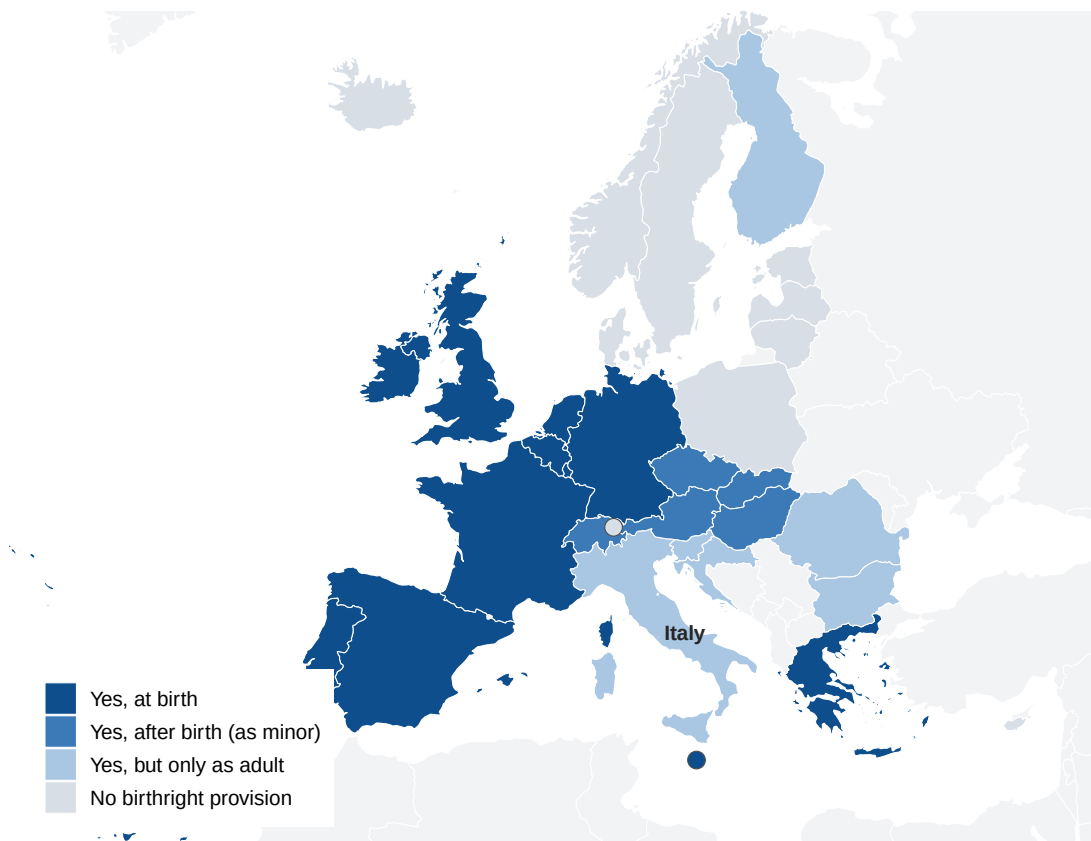


Figure 1: Access to citizenship for migrants' descendants born in the country to non-citizen parents (GLOBALCIT modes A02, ius soli at birth, and A05, ius soli after birth), EU-27 + EFTA + UK. Law in force on 1 June 2026, classified by the most inclusive provision available; provisions for foundlings (A03a) and children otherwise stateless (A03b) are excluded, as well as provisions that apply to minors irrespective of their place of birth. A.C. 2124 would not change Italy's class, but would attach preclusion grounds to the after-birth route of article 4(2). Malta and Liechtenstein are shown as markers; states outside the EU-27 + EFTA + UK coverage are unclassified (lightest shade). Summarises Table 1. Source: GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset (preliminary data, v4.0 update in progress), updated for this brief to 1 June 2026.

What would letter a) add? Here it is important to be precise, because a criminal-record condition on after-birth acquisition is not unheard of among European countries. Finland refuses its young-adult declaration to persons sentenced to imprisonment; Ireland bars registration of minors charged with or convicted of specified serious offences; the United Kingdom applies a good-character requirement from age ten; the Netherlands may refuse the option declaration of the Netherlands-born on a time-limited assessment of present danger to public order; Portugal, since May 2026, bars, in the facilitated naturalisation procedure for minors born in Portugal (and only there, not in attribution at birth), those of criminal age convicted, by final judgment, to an effective prison sentence of more than three years for terrorism, violent or highly organised crime. But every one of these conditions is limited in at least one of three ways: by a gravity threshold, by a list of specified serious offences, or by a time-limited assessment. The proposed comma 2-bis has none of the three. Any conviction, of any gravity, for any offence in Titles XII and XIII of Book II of the penal code, a catalogue that runs from homicide to defamation and minor property offences, would preclude acquisition indefinitely, unless and until judicial rehabilitation. Unlimited clean-record requirements do appear in Table 1, but only in discretionary naturalisation procedures (Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovenia), where the administration weighs the record within an overall assessment. No state in Table 1 attaches an unlimited conviction bar to an entitlement-based birthright route of the kind article 4(2) provides: comma 2-bis would combine the broadest bar with the strongest type of claim to citizenship.

Two further design points deserve attention. Comma 2-ter suspends acquisition whenever criminal proceedings are merely pending, and, as the Servizio Studi dossier itself observes, names only *archiviazione* and final acquittal as outcomes that lift the suspension, omitting other favourable outcomes. And the bill creates two different criminal catalogues for adjacent routes: the art. 4(2) bar covers the offences of Titles XII-XIII and drug offences; the new naturalisation bar (comma 1-bis of article 9.1) instead incorporates the art. 6 catalogue that governs acquisition by marriage. If the Committee wishes to introduce a conduct condition, European practice offers guidance on how to do so coherently and with due regard to the relevant safeguards.

4 Extending revocation of citizenship in comparative perspective

Letter d) does not create the power to revoke citizenship: that power has existed since 2018, and it is confined to terrorism-related and subversion-related offences, grounds that are security-based in the comparative typology. What letter d) does is cross a line that almost all European legal orders maintain: it extends revocation from security grounds to ordinary, although serious, criminal offences.

Figure 2 shows how uncommon that step would be. Of the thirty-two states compared, twenty-seven, including Italy today, have no provision revoking citizenship for ordinary offences. France's provision is listed under this mode but is restricted in scope (misconduct in public office and evasion of military service). Lithuania's applies only where a conviction predating the grant is discovered afterwards. Revocation for serious crimes committed after acquisition exists, in practice, in three states: Belgium, Cyprus and Malta (Table 2). Germany's Basic Law prohibits deprivation of citizenship; Spain's Constitution protects citizens by origin. The 1997 European Convention on Nationality, which Italy signed, permits deprivation only on an exhaustive list of grounds, and ordinary criminal offences are not among them.

Can citizenship be revoked based on ordinary offences?

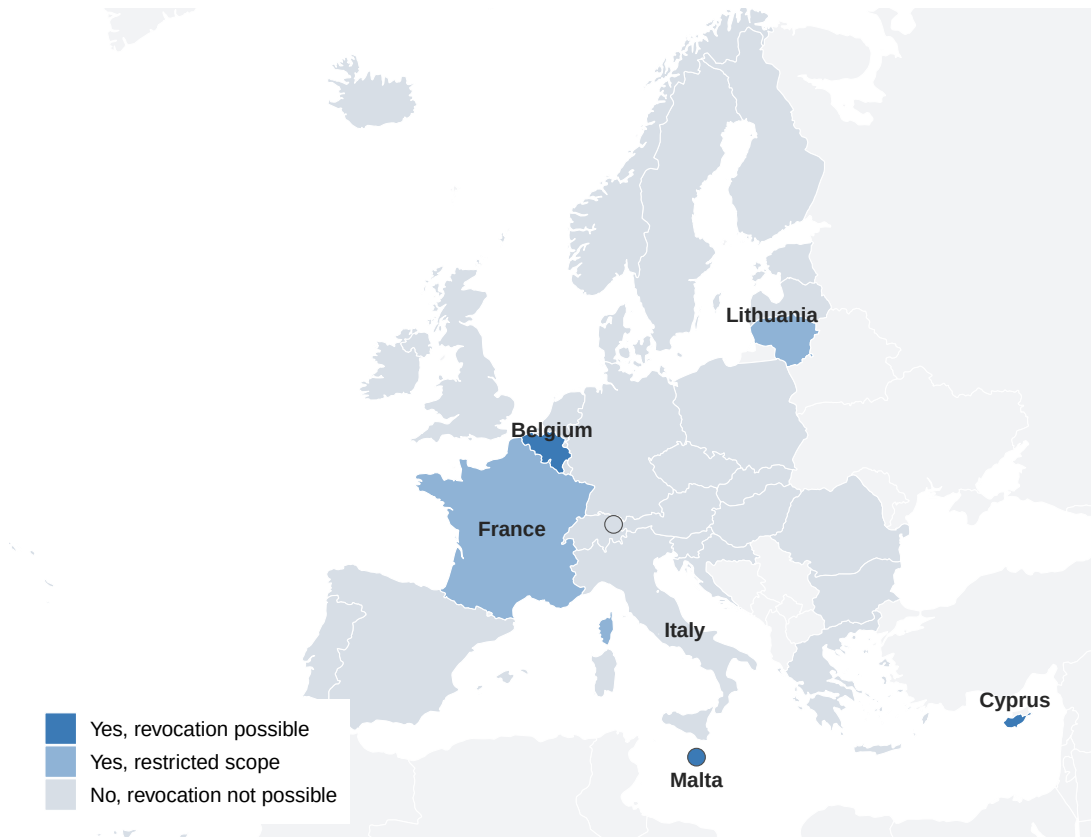


Figure 2: Revocation of citizenship based on ordinary (serious) criminal offences (GLOBALCIT mode L08, “loss due to other offences”), EU-27 + EFTA + UK. Law in force on 1 June 2026: under A.C. 2124, Italy would move to the “yes” group. Provisions on revocation of citizenship on grounds seriously prejudicial to the security of the State (mode L07) are excluded. Malta and Liechtenstein are shown as markers; states outside the EU-27 + EFTA + UK coverage are unclassified (lightest shade). Summarises Table 2. Source: GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset (preliminary data, v4.0 update in progress), updated for this brief to 1 June 2026.

Three features of the proposed extension deserve the Committee’s attention. First, exposure: revocation reaches only citizenship acquired under articles 4(2), 5 and 9, never citizenship by birth, and, through the other-citizenship condition, in practice only dual citizens. A person born and raised in Italy who acquired citizenship at eighteen under article 4(2) could lose it upon conviction for the new offences; a peer with an identical life history who is a citizen by descent could not. The Portuguese Constitutional Court has twice struck down legislation of precisely this design, in preventive review (rulings nos. 1134/2025 of December 2025 and 409/2026 of May 2026): an ancillary penalty of loss of citizenship for serious crimes, confined to citizens who acquired citizenship otherwise than by birth, violates the equality principle and creates, in effect, second-class citizens. That objection applies with particular force here, because the revocation perimeter of article 10-bis includes persons born in Italy who acquired citizenship on grounds facilitated precisely by that birth, whether by declaration at majority under article 4(2) or by naturalisation after three years’ residence under article 9(1)(a-bis): for them, only the moment of acquisition, later in life, separates them from citizens by birth. Second, procedure: the closest precedent, Belgium’s Act of 8 February 2026, couples its broadened offence list with safeguards stronger than those of article 10-bis on two points: revocation is pronounced

by a court rather than by ministerial proposal and decree, and it may not in fact result in statelessness, whereas article 10-bis is satisfied where the person merely may acquire another citizenship (*possieda o possa acquisire*), a condition that does not provide a guarantee against statelessness. Third, EU law: in most cases (unless the person also has another EU citizenship), loss of Italian citizenship entails loss of Union citizenship, and since the Court of Justice's ruling in *Rottmann* (C-135/08) a decision withdrawing citizenship that entails the loss of Union citizenship falls within the scope of Union law and must observe the principle of proportionality, having regard to the consequences for the person concerned. Article 10-bis provides for no such assessment: revocation follows from conviction, by decree, without any individual assessment of the consequences for the person concerned. Extending the offence list would scale up a mechanism that already fails to provide what Union law requires, and every revocation decree adopted under it would be open to challenge on that ground.

5 The language requirement and the oath

I address letters b) and c) briefly. Language requirements for naturalisation are common in Europe: most states require a level between A2 and B2, with B1, Italy's current standard, the most frequent choice (comparative detail in the [GLOBALCIT databases](#) and in *The Global State of Citizenship 2025*). Extending the requirement to article 4(2) declarants is a different matter: these are persons who have completed their entire schooling in Italian schools, and no state in Table 1 imposes a language test on an entitlement-based route for persons born in the country. For this group certification would be redundant in substance while adding cost and administrative burden. A similar observation applies to the two exemptions the bill deletes, which cover persons who have already demonstrated language knowledge under other instruments, including the EU long-term residence permit, which itself requires a language test.

More generally, where European states impose language or integration conditions, they typically pair them with express exemptions for persons for whom the requirement would be unattainable or redundant: France, for instance, exempts long-settled elderly refugees and stateless persons (fifteen years' residence, aged over seventy) from its language obligation. Germany's 2024 reform did the same for the guest-worker generation: former guest workers of the Federal Republic and former contract workers of the GDR are exempt from the written language certificate, the ability to communicate orally in everyday life sufficing, and from the naturalisation test. Whatever level the Committee retains, providing expressly for such exemptions, including for age, illness and disability, and for persons who completed their schooling in Italy, would align the text with common European practice. Further comparative detail on language and integration conditions in France, Germany, the United Kingdom and Spain is in the Servizio Studi dossier (n. 575, pp. 23 ff.).

6 Concluding observations

Allow me to conclude with four observations. First, on access: Italy is already among the most restrictive states in Europe for the descendants of migrants born on its territory, granting nothing at birth and requiring eighteen years of uninterrupted legal residence (Figure 1). The empirical evidence indicates that early and secure access to citizenship supports precisely the integration that the bill's explanatory statement takes as its objective; restricting access further risks working against that objective. Second, on revocation: extending revocation to ordinary criminal offences would move Italy from the large European majority, which knows

no such ground, to the side of the only three states that provide for it, Belgium, Cyprus and Malta (Figure 2; two further states have narrowly confined provisions), and it would do so without the safeguards that the closest precedent, Belgium, attaches to its regime: judicial pronouncement and an absolute bar on statelessness. Third, both central provisions of the bill draw the same line: they distinguish citizens by birth from citizens by acquisition, and in practice they expose Italian-born children of immigrants to conditions and to a precariousness of status that their peers do not face. The Portuguese Constitutional Court has twice, in the past year, found that design incompatible with the equality principle. The European Convention on Nationality points the same way: article 5(2) provides that each State Party shall be guided by the principle of non-discrimination between its nationals, whether they are nationals by birth or have acquired its nationality subsequently. Fourth, should the Committee nonetheless wish to proceed, European practice offers models with clear limits: conduct conditions limited by a gravity threshold, a specified-offence list or a time window; express exemptions from the language requirement and the oath for age, illness and disability; suspension rules covering all favourable outcomes; and, on revocation, a judicial procedure with an individual assessment of proportionality and of the risk of statelessness.

Further reading

Global Citizenship Observatory (GLOBALCIT), European University Institute: <https://globalcit.eu>

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Annex A Access to citizenship for migrants' descendants born in the country

Table 1: Access to citizenship for persons born in the country to non-citizen parents (GLOBALCIT modes A02, ius soli at birth, and A05, ius soli after birth), EU-27 + EFTA + UK. Law in force on 1 June 2026. Overview excludes safeguards against statelessness (modes A03a, A03b) and provisions that apply to minors irrespective of their place of birth. Source: GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset (preliminary data, v4.0 update in progress), updated for this brief to 1 June 2026; see <https://globalcit.eu/modes-acquisition-citizenship/>.

Country	Ius soli at birth (A02)	Ius soli after birth (A05)	Conditions (residence, age window)	Criminal-record condition
Austria	–	Yes: facilitated naturalisation of the Austria-born (s. 11a(4)(3))	6 years' residence immediately before the application	Via general naturalisation conditions
Belgium	Yes: Code of Nationality, arts. 11(1), 11(2)	Yes: declaration (art. 12bis, §1(1))	At birth: parent born in Belgium and resident 5 of the 10 years before the birth (automatic), or parents resident 10 years and declaration before age 12; after birth: born in Belgium and resident since birth, declaration from age 18	Prosecutor may oppose the declaration on serious personal facts (<i>faits personnels graves</i>)
Bulgaria	–	Yes: adult naturalisation (art. 13)	Adults only; 3 years' permanent residence	Yes: no convictions; also means of subsistence, language, renunciation of other citizenship
Croatia	–	Yes: adult naturalisation (arts. 8–9)	Adults only; 5 years' residence	Conduct condition: respect for the Croatian legal order
Cyprus	–	–	–	–
Czechia	–	Yes: facilitated naturalisation (s. 15(1)(a))	Born in Czechia and holding a permanent residence permit; no age restriction	Via general naturalisation conditions
Denmark	–	–	–	–
Estonia	–	–	–	–
Finland	–	Yes: declaration by young adults (s. 28(2))	Ages 18–22; 6 years' permanent residence, of which the last 2 uninterrupted	Yes: no sentence of imprisonment

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Ius soli at birth (A02)	Ius soli after birth (A05)	Conditions (residence, age window)	Criminal-record condition
France	Yes: double ius soli (art. 19-3)	Yes: acquisition at majority by operation of law, with anticipated declaration (arts. 21-7, 21-11)	Automatic at 18 with 5 years' residence since age 11; declaration from age 16 (by the minor) or 13 (by the parents, residence since age 8); stricter rules for Mayotte (art. 2493, tightened by Loi 2025-412: both parents lawfully resident for over 1 year at the birth)	None for the ius soli routes
Germany	Yes: StAG §4(3)	–	Parent legally resident 5 years with a permanent right of residence (8 years until 26 June 2024; reduced by the StARModG)	n.a. (acquisition at birth)
Greece	Yes: arts. 1A, 1(2)(a)	Yes: declaration (art. 1A(1)); also naturalisation of the Greece-born (art. 5(1)(d))	At birth: parent 5 years' lawful residence before the birth plus enrolment of the child in a Greek primary school, or double ius soli (parent born and resident in Greece); after birth: school attendance plus parental-residence conditions	None for the school-based declaration; via general conditions for naturalisation
Hungary	–	Yes: facilitated naturalisation (s. 4(4)(a))	Born in Hungary and resident 5 years	Yes: clean criminal record; also subsistence and citizenship test
Iceland	–	–	–	–
Ireland	Yes: ss. 6, 6A	Yes: registration of minors (s. 15B)	At birth: parent a citizen, settled, or resident 3 of the 4 years before the birth; after birth: minor resident 2 of the last 8 years, including the year before the application	Yes: registration barred if the minor is charged with, awaiting trial for, or convicted of specified serious offences

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Ius soli at birth (A02)	Ius soli after birth (A05)	Conditions (residence, age window)	Criminal-record condition
Italy (in force)	–	Yes: declaration at majority (art. 4(2)); also facilitated naturalisation (art. 9(1)(a-bis))	Art. 4(2): legal residence without interruption from birth to age 18, declaration within one year of majority; art. 9(1)(a-bis): 3 years' legal residence (discretionary concession)	None for the art. 4(2) declaration; discretionary integration assessment in naturalisation
Italy (A.C. 2124)	– (unchanged)	Routes unchanged, but the art. 4(2) declaration would be subject to new preclusion grounds	As in force, plus: B1 Italian-language requirement extended to art. 4(2) claimants; acquisition suspended while criminal proceedings are pending	Yes: any conviction for an offence against a person or against property (Titles XII–XIII, Book II, penal code) or for drug offences, plus security grounds, would preclude the declaration; riabilitazione lifts the bar
Latvia	–	–	–	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	–
Lithuania	–	–	–	–
Luxembourg	Yes: double ius soli (art. 4)	Yes: acquisition at majority by operation of law, with declaration from age 12 (arts. 6, 26)	5 consecutive years' residence before 18 (last year uninterrupted for the declaration) and a parent resident 12 months before the birth	None stated
Malta	Yes: art. 5(1) (descent-line variant)	–	Born in Malta as a direct-line descendant of a Malta-born ascendant born of a Malta-born parent	Acquisition must not be contrary to the public interest
Netherlands	Yes: third generation (art. 3(3))	Yes: option right (art. 6(1)(a))	At birth: parent resident at the birth who was born to a parent resident at their own birth; option: at majority, born in the Netherlands and resident since birth	Option may be refused on serious public-order suspicions (art. 6(4))
Norway	–	–	–	–
Poland	–	–	–	–

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Ius soli at birth (A02)	Ius soli after birth (A05)	Conditions (residence, age window)	Criminal-record condition
Portugal	Yes: arts. 1(1)(e), 1(1)(f)	Yes: naturalisation of minors (art. 6(2))	At birth: parent legally resident 5 years plus declaration (tightened from legal residence or 1 year irregular residence, by Lei Orgânica 1/2026, in force 19 May 2026), or double ius soli (parent born in Portugal and resident); after birth: parent 5 years' legal residence plus school attendance (the former 5-years-any-title route for applicants, of art. 6(5), was revoked in 2026)	Yes (minors of criminal age): effective prison sentence of over 3 years for terrorism, violent or highly organised crime and related offences; security and restrictive-measures bars (art. 6(1)(e)–(h))
Romania	–	Yes: adult naturalisation (art. 8(1))	Adults only; born and resident in Romania (residence-duration requirement waived)	Via general naturalisation conditions
Slovakia	–	Yes: facilitated naturalisation (ss. 7(1)(h), 7(2)(f))	Born in Slovakia, 3 years' residence, permanent residence permit	Via general naturalisation conditions
Slovenia	–	Yes: adult naturalisation (arts. 12(5)–(6))	Adults only; born in Slovenia and resident since birth	Yes: no criminal record; also tax, public-order and security conditions
Spain	Yes: double ius soli (art. 17(1)(b))	Yes: residence-based acquisition (art. 22(2)(a))	1 year's residence for the Spain-born (as minor, through representatives, or as adult)	Via general conditions (good civic conduct)
Sweden	–	–	–	–
Switzerland	–	Yes: facilitated naturalisation of the third generation (art. 24a Citizenship Act)	Born in Switzerland, permanent residence permit, 5 years' compulsory schooling; grandparent born or resident in Switzerland; parent with permanent permit, 10 years' residence and Swiss schooling; application before age 25	Via integration criteria (including respect for public order) and a no-security-risk condition

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Ius soli at birth (A02)	Ius soli after birth (A05)	Conditions (residence, age window)	Criminal-record condition
United Kingdom	Yes: ss. 1(1), 10A	Yes: registration (ss. 1(3), (3A), (4); 3(1))	At birth: parent settled (or Irish, or EUSS-settled); registration: born in the UK, from age 10 after the first 10 years' residence (maximum 90 days' absence per year), or when a parent becomes settled during minority	Yes: good-character requirement (from age 10)

Notes: – = no provision. “Via general naturalisation conditions” indicates an after-birth route operating through naturalisation, whose ordinary conditions (including criminal-record requirements) apply.

Annex B Revocation of citizenship based on ordinary criminal offences

Table 2: Revocation of citizenship based on ordinary (serious) criminal offences (GLOBALCIT mode L08, “loss due to other offences”), EU-27 + EFTA + UK. Law in force on 1 June 2026. Provisions on revocation of citizenship on grounds seriously prejudicial to the security of the State (GLOBALCIT mode L07) are excluded from this table. Source: GLOBALCIT Citizenship Law Dataset (preliminary data, v4.0 update in progress), updated for this brief to 1 June 2026; see <https://globalcit.eu/modes-loss-citizenship/>.

Country	Revocation possible (L08)	Offence scope	Who is exposed	Statelessness safeguard
Austria	–	–	–	–
Belgium	Yes: Code of Nationality, art. 23/1	Conviction, without suspension, to at least 5 years’ imprisonment for a serious crime from a statutory list considerably broadened by the Act of 8 February 2026 (<i>Moniteur belge</i> 18 February 2026); offence within 15 years of acquisition (previously 10); pronounced by a court on application of the public prosecutor	Citizens who did not acquire nationality at birth from a Belgian parent or adopter, nor by birthright attribution under art. 11	Yes: the court may not pronounce deprivation if it would render the person stateless (art. 23/1, §2; exception only for fraudulent acquisition)
Bulgaria	–	–	–	–
Croatia	–	–	–	–
Cyprus	Yes: Civil Registry Law, s. 113(3)(d)–(f)	Conviction, in Cyprus or abroad, for a serious criminal offence carrying a penalty of 5 years’ imprisonment or more, or another serious, degrading or morally turpitudinous offence, within 10 years of acquisition; also being wanted by EUROPOL/INTERPOL for such an offence, or sanctions listings; deprivation by order of the Council of Ministers, after advice of an independent review committee	Citizens by naturalisation or registration	No condition in the provision; not party to the 1961 Statelessness Convention or the ECN
Czechia	–	–	–	–
Denmark	–	–	–	–
Estonia	–	–	–	–
Finland	–	–	–	–

Table 2 (continued)

Country	Revocation possible (L08)	Offence scope	Who is exposed	Statelessness safeguard
France	Code civil, art. 25(2)–(3): listed under L08, but scope restricted	Misconduct in public office (corruption, abuse of official authority) or evasion of military service; offence committed between 1 year before and 10 years after acquisition. (Deprivation for terrorism and attacks on the fundamental interests of the nation, art. 25(1), is security-based: mode L07)	Citizens by declaration, naturalisation or reintegration	Yes: no deprivation if statelessness would result
Germany	–	–	–	–
Greece	–	–	–	–
Hungary	–	–	–	–
Iceland	–	–	–	–
Ireland	–	–	–	–
Italy (in force)	–	–	–	–
Italy (A.C. 2124)	Would introduce: Law 91/1992, art. 10-bis(1), as proposed	Homicide (art. 575 c.p.), female genital mutilation (art. 583-bis), trafficking in persons (art. 601) and sexual violence (arts. 609-bis, 609-quater, 609-octies), added to the existing security-based revocation grounds of art. 10-bis, Law 91/1992 (mode L07, outside this table); revocation by decree within 10 years of final conviction	Citizenship acquired under arts. 4(2), 5 or 9; citizens by birth not exposed	Revocation only where the person holds or may acquire another citizenship
Latvia	–	–	–	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	–

Table 2 (continued)

Country	Revocation possible (L08)	Offence scope	Who is exposed	Statelessness safeguard
Lithuania	Law on Citizenship, arts. 22(3), 24(6): listed under L08, but scope restricted	Loss upon discovery of a circumstance that would have barred the grant: custodial sentence, before coming to reside in Lithuania, for a premeditated crime regarded as a very serious crime under Lithuanian law, or punishment for a very serious crime in Lithuania, irrespective of whether the conviction has expired (not a ground for post-acquisition offending)	Citizens by naturalisation, simplified or exceptional procedure, or restoration	No condition in the provision; party to the 1961 Statelessness Convention
Luxembourg	–	–	–	–
Malta	Yes: Citizenship Act, art. 14(2)(c)	Any sentence of imprisonment of not less than 12 months, in any country, within 7 years of acquisition	Citizens by registration or naturalisation	Yes: no deprivation if statelessness would result
Netherlands	–	–	–	–
Norway	–	–	–	–
Poland	–	–	–	–
Portugal	–	–	–	–
Romania	–	–	–	–
Slovakia	–	–	–	–
Slovenia	–	–	–	–
Spain	–	–	–	–
Sweden	–	–	–	–
Switzerland	–	–	–	–
United Kingdom	–	–	–	–

Notes: – = no provision. Among the security-based (L07) provisions excluded from this table are Italy's current art. 10-bis (terrorism- and subversion-related offences), the United Kingdom's general deprivation power (British Nationality Act 1981, s. 40: "conducive to the public good") and Denmark's gang-crime ground (Indfødsretsloven §8B). Where the loss provision itself contains no statelessness condition, the last column records the state's treaty position (1961 Statelessness Convention; European Convention on Nationality), status June 2026.