

with connections to the US and Austria. The network was involved in trafficking firearm parts and components for the purpose of reactivating and reassembling weapons. The police investigation revealed the potential involvement of organised crime groups and further transactions between the main suspect and criminal gangs active in drug trafficking and were able to link the main suspect to another supplied in the United States.

The main suspect, a Spanish national and resident, held two firearms licences granted to him for the purpose of hunting and sports activities. With these licenses, he was able to purchase deactivated firearms as well as firearms components required for the reactivation of firearms in Austria, where such transactions were subject to fewer restrictions. He shipped these components to Spain through postal and fast parcel services, where he used them to illegally assemble and reactivate previously deactivated weapons.

Case study 6: reduced firearms trafficking in Estonia.¹⁹⁷

After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Estonian society faced significant upheaval during the early years of its transition to democracy. This period saw a rise in crime and the emergence of organised criminal groups, along with the proliferation of weapons and a marked increase in violence, including gun violence.

Since regaining independence, Estonia has undergone substantial changes in its approach to firearm trafficking. The country has strengthened its institutions and implemented stringent firearms laws: although Estonian legislation lacks any specific legislation or sentencing for firearm-trafficking, this offence is covered in the penal code by the very broad term “unlawful handling.” The illicit handling of firearms, essential parts of them and ammunition is punishable by up to three years’ imprisonment, although if it is the second case, or involving large quantities, or committed by a group, it is punishable by up to five years. In cases concerning the illicit handling of firearms, their essential parts and ammunition prohibited for civilian use, it is punishable by from one to five years. Similarly, for a second time, or in large quantities, punishment increases to between 5 and 15 years.

Today, the trafficking of firearms and the general availability of illicit firearms in Estonia have significantly diminished. This shift is also evident in the scope and characteristics of gun violence, which is currently considered a low-level threat.

The provided case studies offer only a snapshot of the actual illicit trafficking figures but highlight that the illicit trafficking of firearms poses a significant challenge to EU Member States. Each trafficker or organised crime group involved in this activity has the potential to supply firearms to individuals who may use these weapons to harm EU citizens.

Although the reduction in levels of firearms trafficking and violence in Estonia is likely a result of both broader socio-economic developments and multiple measures, it does demonstrate that the broad criminalisation of firearms offenses likely plays a significant role in the effective and efficient approach to combating firearms trafficking. Additionally, as illustrated by the first two case studies, international cooperation in addressing cross-border criminal activities - especially when

¹⁹⁷ The Flemish Peace Institute “Firearm related violence and trafficking in Estonia,” 2022.

individuals or organised crime groups exploit differences in legislation between different jurisdictions - is necessary. Coordinated action and harmonised criminalisation at the European level can thus contribute to more effectively tackling such illicit cross-border activities.

Modification of markings of firearms

The preparatory study for the impact assessment made clear that fourteen Member States have not criminalised the falsification, illicit obliteration, removal, or alteration of the markings of a firearm. Among the thirteen Member States that have criminalised this, three do not extend this criminalisation to the modification of markings on essential components, which, it should be noted, is not included in the UN Firearms Protocol.

Case study 7: altered or no firearms markings in Greece between 2019 - 2022. ¹⁹⁸

UNODC data on the markings of seized weapons in Greece illustrates that firearms markings are often erased or altered. The Greek authorities seized 59, 101, 17, and 73 firearms with altered markings between 2019 and 2022, and 33, 102, 21, and 68 firearms with no markings over the same period.

However, Greek legislation does not specifically define the offenses of falsification, illicit obliteration, removal, or alteration of the markings on firearms and essential components. The only relevant provision is Article 7(8) of L. 2168/1993, which is part of the legislation on illegal possession. This provision criminalizes acts of deleting or falsifying the number or any other element of the weapon's marking or of an essential component. These acts are punishable when committed intentionally, with short-term imprisonment ranging from three months to five years and a pecuniary penalty between 600 and 15,000 euros. Additionally, there is an administrative sanction of temporarily suspending the authorization to legally possess a weapon for up to three months, which is the only administrative sanction provided for legal entities.

Case study 8: a Swedish case of altered firearm markings, 2022. ¹⁹⁹

In a notable case on November 4, 2022, in Sweden, a search of a defendant's residence led to the discovery of a bag containing a Kalashnikov automatic rifle with a 7.62 x 39 mm caliber. The rifle had altered markings and was found alongside associated magazines and ammunition.

The court noted that the seized weapon had their serial numbers altered, emphasizing that such modifications hinder efforts to trace the weapon's origin or supply route up to the point of seizure. This, the court stated, could be indicative of an environment where such weapons are likely to be used for criminal purposes. The district court convicted the defendant for aggravated firearms offence and drugs offence and sentenced the defendant to three years' imprisonment.

Additionally, according to broader UNODC data in Sweden, Swedish authorities have reported an increase in the seizure of firearms with altered markings over several years: 175 firearms in

¹⁹⁸ UNODC data based on the annual Illicit Arms Flows Questionnaire: [dp-firearms-arms-seized | dataUNODC](#)

¹⁹⁹ UNODC case law: case B 903-23. URL: https://sherloc.unodc.org/cld/case-law-doc/illicitfirearmscrimetype/swe/2023/case_b_903-23.html?lng=en&tmpl=sherloc

UNODC data based on the annual Illicit Arms Flows Questionnaire: [dp-firearms-arms-seized | dataUNODC](#)

2019, 219 in 2020, 208 in 2021, and 284 in 2022. Moreover, the seizures of firearms without markings also increased significantly during the same period: 83 in 2019, 176 in 2020, 243 in 2021, and 540 in 2022.

The Swedish court decision highlighted the significant challenges that erasing or altering firearm markings poses to the investigation and prosecution of firearms trafficking offenses. The absence of criminalisation for this issue in various Member States complicates the gathering of specific data and the prosecution of these offenses. However, the above case studies and statistics demonstrate the ongoing - and possibly growing - relevance of this issue.

3. illicit possession of firearms

The following case studies focus on an issue that, while not explicitly addressed, are implicitly indicated by the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive: the illicit possession of firearms. Tackling this issue is essential for ensuring a comprehensive criminalization strategy to tackle firearms-related threats.

The legal basis for this offense is implicitly clear in the Firearms Directive but has not been explicitly defined in the UN Firearms Protocol. While all Member States enforce sanctions for this offense, the methods of sanctioning vary significantly among them. This inconsistency in classification and enforcement leads to challenges in effective enforcement and prosecution.

Case study 9: seizures in Europe based on the illicit possession of firearms, 2020-2022. ²⁰⁰

UNODC data on arms seizures in Europe based on the legal justification of “illicit possession” demonstrate that there were 8,629 seizures linked to illicit possession in 2020, 11,587 seizures in 2021, and 7,496 seizures in 2022.

However, the actual number is likely much higher: the questionnaire that led to these results was completed by only 10 EU Member States in 2020, 9 in 2021, and 9 in 2022. Additionally, the dark figure likely far exceeds the official seizure statistics.

Case study 10: operation Conversus, 2023. ²⁰¹

In an operation led by Romania and Bulgaria, law enforcement agencies from 31 countries targeted individuals suspected of buying, and subsequently thus illicitly possessing, weapons from firearms traffickers.

As the procurement of illegal firearms becomes increasingly difficult and expensive, both individuals and organised crime groups often turn to converted alarm and signal weapons to acquire and possess firearms. Most of the seized weapons in operation Conversus were alarm and signal models produced in Turkey before a change in national legislation governing their production. These weapons were imported into the EU and legally offered for sale in Bulgaria

²⁰⁰ UNODC data based on the annual Illicit Arms Flows Questionnaire: [dp-firearms-arms-seized | dataUNODC](#).

²⁰¹ Europol: « 22 firearms traffickers arrested across Europe.»

and other Member States. However, once sold, they were frequently trafficked across borders and converted into lethal firearms in other countries, both within and outside the EU.

This contributed significantly to the illicit acquisition and possession of illegal firearms. The operation not only involved numerous house searches and seizures but also led to the arrest of 22 firearms traffickers across Europe.

Case study 11: 1,388 firearms seized in 16 European countries, 2024. ²⁰²

Europol reported on a law enforcement operation led by Romania and coordinated by Europol, involving more than 630 house searches and resulting in 107 arrests. This operation, conducted in February 2024, spanned 16 European countries. Nearly 500 converted, or ready to be converted, illicit firearms were recovered during the operation, together with almost 900 illicit firearms, as well as 60,192 rounds of unconverted, converted, and live ammunition.

Europol further explained that individuals and organised criminal networks often use gas, alarm and signal firearms, as certain models remain easy to modify to discharge live ammunition and convert into lethal weapons. Once these firearms enter the EU, they are usually bought for an affordable price from legitimate marketplaces. The weapons would then be converted and resold in other countries where obtaining, importing, and possessing a handgun requires a license.

If illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking, or the illicit modification of firearm markings cannot be proven, there is a risk that harmful firearms activities may remain unpunished. A comprehensive criminalisation strategy must therefore also address the issue of illicit possession. While the data in the case studies offer only a snapshot, it is evident that each of these weapons could potentially be used in future illegal and criminal activities, such as organised crime or terrorist attacks. Consistency in classification and enforcement regarding the illicit possession of firearms may provide an additional tool to counter this threat.

Additionally, operation Conversus, which involved the legal production of alarm and signal models in Turkey, highlights the importance of a harmonised level of criminalisation across jurisdictions to close legal loopholes and mitigate security threats.

4. illicit brokering activities, arms embargo violations, and record-keeping and licensing offences

The UN legislative guidelines to implement the Firearms Protocol suggests States Parties to enhance their legal frameworks by including additional voluntary offenses beyond those specified in the Protocol. These suggested offenses encompass illicit brokering, violations of arms embargoes, and misconduct related to record-keeping and licensing. These voluntary or complementary offences may help to enforce an EU-wide firearms control regimes.

Illicit brokering activities

²⁰² Europol: “Almost 1 400 firearms removed from circulation in 16 European countries.”

The criminalisation of brokering activities conducted to circumvent established systems is at the discretion of individual nations. However, this approach can result in varying rules and penalties across Member States, thereby potentially weakening the coherence and effectiveness of the EU legal framework.

Case study 15: dealer supplied guns and ammo to more than 100 crime scenes, 2017. ²⁰³

A legally registered firearms dealer in the UK was found to be supplying criminals with hundreds of firearms. These firearms were either fraudulently acquired in the United States or illicitly reactivated. For example, he imported prohibited 1950s Colt pistols from Chicago, Las Vegas, and Denver, falsely declaring them as antiques over a century old to evade regulations. His illicit brokering activities were linked to over 100 crime scenes, including gangland murders and a firearms attack on a police helicopter.

The judge remarked that the firearms dealer had disregarded his legal responsibilities as a registered firearms dealer and that he was “at the top of the chain of supply of handguns and ammunition to criminal gangs.” The judge sentenced him to 30 years in prison.

The case study above highlights the potential consequences of illicit brokering activities, which can have negative impacts on multiple countries. It may be beneficial to consider incorporating these offenses into a comprehensive EU-wide criminalisation framework aimed at addressing the firearms threat.

Arms embargo violations

Under Article 41 of the UN Charter, the Security Council can impose sanctions, including arms embargoes, which all Member States must follow. Additionally, countries that are parties to the Arms Trade Treaty must not authorise the transfer of conventional arms, including firearms, if it violates such arms embargoes. These measures may be considered arms control measures, but they could simultaneously also act as crime control measures.

Case study 16: transnational trafficking of arms and dual-use goods to Libya and Iran, 2018.

²⁰⁴

Three Italian nationals were arrested in Venice on 31 January 2017. They were charged with trafficking arms and dual-use items to Libya and Iran, in violation of both countries' arms embargoes, between 2011 and 2015. The goods were negotiated and sold in several African, Asian, and European countries. Without passing through Italian territory, the products were shipped to Iran and Libya. The illegal trade included 13,950 M14 rifles, but also the selling of anti-tank and surface-to-air missiles, helicopter spare parts, and ammunition made in the Soviet Union.

²⁰³ Vlaams Vredesinstituut “Project DIVERT: Firearms fraud in the European Union”, p. 44. The Guardian: “Antique-gun dealer jailed for 30 years for supplying to gangsters.”

²⁰⁴ UNODC case law, Sent. 57163/2018, URL: https://sherloc.unodc.org/cld/case-law-doc/illicitfirearmscrimetype/ita/2018/sent_571632018.html?lng=en&tmpl=sherloc

Even though the rifles did not pass through Italian territory, the Prosecutor opened jurisdiction because the perpetrators were Italian nationals. The three individuals were respectively convicted to 3 years and 8 months imprisonment and a EUR 8,500 fine, 3 years and 6 months imprisonment and a EUR 9,000 fine, and 2 years imprisonment.

The above example illustrates that the integration of arms embargo violations in an EU-wide criminalisation strategy may aid in countering and sentencing both internal and external illicit trafficking flows. This could also be beneficial in addressing potential jurisdictional issues.

Record-keeping and licensing offences

Firearms control regimes are typically based on licensing, authorisation and record-keeping systems for various types of firearms-related conduct, such as importing and exporting. The criminalisation of these issues is left to the discretion of individual states.

Case study 17: export of 4,000 assault rifles based on false end-user certificate, 2019. ²⁰⁵

The German company Heckler & Koch exported over 4,000 assault rifles to Mexico from 2006 to 2009. To bypass German export control restrictions due to human rights concerns, Heckler & Koch officials colluded with the Mexican procurement office to obtain a falsified end-user certificate that excluded certain states, including Jalisco, Chiapas, Guerrero, and Chihuahua. However, some of the firearms ended up in Guerrero State, which had been seen as the most important customer from the outset, according to internal Heckler & Koch email communications.

In 2014, seven students were killed and 43 went missing in Iguala, Mexico. Investigations revealed that some of the rifles used were from the Heckler & Koch shipment.

In 2019, two company officials were convicted of export fraud, and 3.7 million euros from the sale were confiscated. One accused person was convicted for a term of imprisonment of 1 year and 10 months, while the other accused was convicted for a term of imprisonment of 1 year of 5 months.

Case study 18: operation Gravilla, 2015. ²⁰⁶

Operation Gravilla uncovered multiple instances of fraud involving gun shop owners who manufactured and distributed illegally sized ammunition to unauthorized users. These individuals forged registry books and police control documents to divert legal components for illegal production.

In Castellón and Valencia, two shop owners were found supplying explosive materials such as gunpowder and primers. Seized items included 25 firearms, 20 kilograms of gunpowder, 30,000 cartridges, military-grade ammunition, a silencer, 55,000 primers, cash, ammunition reloading equipment, and numerous counterfeit documents.

²⁰⁵ UNODC Case law, BGH, Urteil vom 30.03.2021, 3 StR 474/19. URL: https://sherloc.unodc.org/cld/en/case-law-doc/criminalgroupcrimetype/deu/2021/bgh_urteil_vom_30.03.2021_3_str_47419.html

²⁰⁶ Vlaams Vredesinstituut "Project DIVERT: Firearms fraud in the European Union", p. 63.

The above cases illustrate that the establishment of specific offences regarding record-keeping and licensing may improve the overall comprehensiveness and effectiveness of the EU approach towards the firearms threat.

5. Conclusion

The threat of firearms is a complex and multidimensional issue that requires the criminalisation of multiple activities: a key supply channel for illicit firearms within the EU comes from illicit manufacturing, which also includes illegal conversion of non-lethal weapons into fully functioning firearms, illicit reactivation of deactivated firearms and new technologies such as 3D printing. Furthermore, criminal organisations also use illicit transfers and/or trade between EU Member States as a source for their firearms. The modification of markings, illicit brokering and misconduct in the context of record-keeping and licensing are often accompanying crimes to firearms trafficking. Lastly, illegal possession of firearms, essential components and ammunition is not just a result of illicit manufacturing and trafficking of firearms but is also often a prerequisite for trafficking. Externally, the supply channels are mostly linked to illicit firearms trafficking across borders and can include violations of arms embargoes.

The above case studies illustrate the consequences of an uneven criminal framework within the borderless EU area and demonstrate the need for EU-wide criminalisation. To address the threats associated with the criminal use of firearms, robust criminal-law rules are needed that allow for the prosecution and punishment of acts that infringe the Firearms Directive, the Firearms Regulation, and the UN Firearms Protocol.

ANNEX 8: EXECUTIVE SUMMARY OF THE PREPARATORY STUDY ASSESSING AND COMPARING THE CRIMINALISATION OF OFFENCES RELATED TO FIREARMS

1. INTRODUCTION

In 2023, the European Commission commissioned a study to map and compare how firearms-related offences are criminalised in the Member States ⁽²⁰⁷⁾. This Mapping Study was conducted in light of the [2020-2025 EU action plan on firearms trafficking](#) ⁽²⁰⁸⁾. One of the four priorities focuses on increasing pressure on criminal markets. The EU Action Plan established that this priority should be implemented, amongst other actions, by identifying possible gaps in the existing EU legislative framework on the criminalisation of firearms trafficking.

The Mapping Study provides a comprehensive overview of the Member States' legislation ⁽²⁰⁹⁾ regarding the criminalisation of firearms-related offences. Through a series of country studies, undertaken by national experts, the study examines how four specific firearms-related offences are defined and sanctioned in the Member States. These four offences are illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking, falsification, illicit obliteration, removal, or alteration of the markings (hereafter illegal modification of markings), and illegal possession.

This **executive summary**, drafted by the Commission services, provides an overview of the findings of the Study. The summary focusses on the main problems identified by the study. These problems include the divergences in how Member States define firearms offences, the incomplete or partial implementation of the definitions in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive in national legislation, and the significant differences in the level of sanctions imposed. The executive summary is based on the overall report of the Study and includes specific examples from the Member States.

2. THE MAPPING STUDY

2.1. Scope of the Study

The scope of the study is to provide a mapping on how Member States implemented the offences provided by the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (hereinafter, UN Firearms Protocol) ⁽²¹⁰⁾ and the Directive (EU) 2021/555 (hereafter Firearms Directive) ⁽²¹¹⁾.

²⁰⁷ 28 studies assessing and comparing the criminalisation in the Member States and the UK in relation to Northern Ireland of offences related to firearms, under Specific contract HOME-2022-ISF-TF1-FW-LECO-0044

²⁰⁸ COM/2020/608 final.

²⁰⁹ It is worth noting that the Mapping Study also assessed the situation in the United Kingdom, with regard to Northern Ireland. However, this executive summary does not take into account the findings related to Northern Ireland, as they will not be included in the legislative actions that will be the subject of the Impact Assessment, of which this executive summary is a part.

²¹⁰ United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 2326, p. 208; Doc. A/55/383/Add.2.

²¹¹ Directive (EU) 2021/555 on control of the acquisition and possession of weapons (codification),

These firearm offences are illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking of firearms, illegal modification of markings on firearms and illegal possession of firearms.

In light of the emerging risks connected to the new technology of the 3D printing of firearms, the Mapping Study analysed if Member States have specific provisions to criminalise 3D printing of firearms or how this is added to the offence of illicit manufacturing of firearms.

2.1.1. Legal basis

The UN Firearms Protocol and the EU Firearms Directive establish the framework for the criminalisation of firearms-related offences. Article 5 of the UN Firearms Protocol requires Parties to adopt legislative measures to criminalise the illicit manufacturing and trafficking of firearms, as well as the illicit modification of firearm markings.

The Firearms Directive defines illicit manufacturing and trafficking in Article 1(1), points 11 and 12. The Directive also sets out rules on the acquisition and possession of firearms, including the requirement for authorisation and the prohibition on certain categories of firearms. These rules form an implicit basis requiring Member States to criminalise illegal possession of firearms. Furthermore, Article 23 of the Firearms Directive requires Member States to establish rules on penalties applicable to infringements of national provisions adopted pursuant to the Directive, which must be effective, proportionate, and dissuasive.

2.1.2. Aim study and methodology.

The Mapping Study provided an overall report, based on findings from 27 country fiches, one for each Member State (²¹²). Each country fiche includes an analysis of the relevant national legislation and administrative provisions in the field of firearms. In particular, the experts analysed the legislation notified by the Member States in the context of the transposition of the Firearms Directive. Additionally, the experts gathered publicly available relevant case law, administrative measures, documents (e.g., instructions, policy documents such as strategies), and relevant publications/reports to better understand the practical implementation of sanctions.

Following the finalisation of the report by the experts, each Member State received its country fiche. Member States were asked to provide a factual check of these reports and send possible comments to the Commission services, in order to make sure that the quality of the report was as high as possible.

The criminalisation of firearm offences is primarily governed by criminal law or specific firearms legislation. Depending on national practices, the study evaluates either the criminal law, the firearms law, or both. In addition to criminal sanctions, the country profiles also consider administrative sanctions.

²¹² The Commission consulted the Member States in order to verify the accuracy of the country fiches. Comments were received from 16 Member States. In preparing this executive summary, the Commission has taken into account the observations submitted by the Member States that identified factual errors in the contributions provided by the national experts.

3. DEFINING THE OFFENCES REGARDING FIREARMS

3.1. Illicit manufacturing

Both the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive include a definition of illicit manufacturing. These definitions read as follows:

UN Firearms Protocol, Article 3(d) states :

“Illicit manufacturing” shall mean the manufacturing or assembly of firearms, their parts and components or ammunition:

- (i) From parts and components illicitly trafficked;*
- (ii) Without a licence or authorization from a competent authority of the State Party where the manufacture or assembly takes place; or*
- (iii) Without marking the firearms at the time of manufacture, in accordance with article 8 of this Protocol.*

Article 1(1)(11) of the Firearms Directive states :

‘illicit manufacturing’ means the manufacturing or assembly of firearms, their essential components and ammunition:

- a) from any essential component of such firearms illicitly trafficked;*
- b) without an authorisation issued in accordance with Article 4 by a competent authority of the Member State where the manufacture or assembly takes place; or*
- c) without marking firearms at the time of manufacture in accordance with Article 4;*

3.1.1. Coverage of illicit manufacturing as an offence

Almost all Member States have covered the offence of illicit manufacturing in their criminal or firearms legislation. The exceptions are Malta and Sweden, where the **definition of the offence only partially covers the scope of the definition** set down in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive. In Sweden, illicit manufacturing is only criminalised if it concerns the manufacturing of military firearms, thereby leaving a gap concerning civilian firearms. In Malta, the definition of illicit manufacturing has been literally transposed from Article 1(1)(11) of the Firearms Directive. However, this transposition is incomplete, as the manufacture of firearms is only penalised as an offence if it concerns the manufacture of firearms listed under Category A of the Firearms Directive.

3.1.2. Constitutive elements

Both the UN Firearm Protocol and the Firearms Directive provide as constitutive elements for the offence of illicit manufacturing: the manufacturing or assembly of firearms, their parts and components or ammunition from either illicitly trafficked parts and (essential) components, without a license or without marking the firearms.

Firstly, **manufacturing firearms from illicitly trafficked essential components** is not considered a criminal offence in five Member States (Austria, France, Hungary, Malta⁽²¹³⁾ and Sweden⁽²¹⁴⁾). Additionally, in six other Member States (Belgium, Greece, France, Spain, Italy, Luxembourg, and Poland), the text of national law makes it not directly clear whether the definition of illicit manufacturing also covers manufacturing from illicitly trafficked essential components. For instance, in Belgium, illicit manufacturing is not defined as such in national legislation. Some of the criminal conducts which constitute illicit manufacturing are considered offences and sanctioned pursuant to the Belgian Weapons Act. However, Belgian law does not include a clear prohibition to manufacture firearms from essential components of firearms illicitly trafficked.

The second constitutive element of illicit manufacturing, **manufacturing without authorisation** is not covered in Sweden ⁽²¹⁵⁾.

The last point, setting out the constitutive element of **manufacturing without marking** is not set out as an offence in two Member States (France and Sweden ⁽²¹⁶⁾).

3.1.3. Illicit manufacturing by means of 3D printing

The emergence of 3D printing technology gives rise to concerns regarding the sufficiency of current national firearm legislation to effectively address the illegal production of firearms and essential components by means of 3D printing.

None of the EU Member States have legal provisions specifically addressing 3D printed firearms. However, in those Member States that criminalise the illicit manufacturing of all civilian firearms, the definition of illicit manufacturing can be considered general enough to include illicit manufacturing of firearms by means of 3D printing.

Nevertheless, the Commission has received reports by EMPACT Firearms, highlighting operational challenges encountered in gathering sufficient evidence to substantiate the offence of illicit manufacturing of 3D printed firearms or their essential components. Specifically, when a workshop is discovered and 3D printed firearms or essential components are seized, the police often face difficulties in proving that the 3D printed firearms or components are functional, as this is a necessary condition for prosecution in cases of illicit manufacturing.

In addition, it is often not clear from the national legislation whether the **3D printing of essential components** is covered by the existing legal framework. At least in four Member States (Greece, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Romania), the existing legal framework covers the illicit 3D printing of firearm essential components explicitly. For instance, in the Netherlands, as soon as a person makes an object that can be considered an essential part of a firearm, the act is penalised under the general prohibition of manufacturing weapons without approval.

²¹³ Malta has transposed the definition of illicit trafficking literally, including the constitutive elements. However, Maltese law does not provide a sanction for these offences.

²¹⁴ The references to the situation in Swedish law, only affect the illicit manufacturing of military firearms, since Sweden does not criminalise illicit manufacturing of civilian firearms.

²¹⁵ The references to the situation in Swedish law, only affect the illicit manufacturing of military firearms, since Sweden does not criminalise illicit manufacturing of civilian firearms.

²¹⁶ With regard to manufacturing of essential components and ammunition, the legislation in Sweden is silent on these issues (even with regard to military firearms).

Another aspect of 3D printing firearms are the **preparatory acts**, such as the creation, possession, and/or distribution of the blueprints necessary for printing firearms and essential components. The general definition of illicit manufacturing of firearms does not include these acts in its scope. Therefore, in most Member States, there is no guidance or case law on the coverage of blueprints for 3D-printed weapons, and it is not clear whether or not it would fall under firearms' legislation.

Key findings

The assessment of national transposition of the definitions of illicit manufacturing reveals the following key findings:

- **Limited scope of implementation:** In two Member States, the implementation of the definition of illicit manufacturing is incomplete, with the scope of the offence covering only a part of civilian firearms (limited to category A) or not at all (limited to military weapons).
- **Incomplete criminalisation:** Not all Member States have enacted legislation to criminalise every constituent element of the offence of illicit manufacturing, as required by the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive.
- **Specific gaps in coverage:** In particular, many Member States do not include manufacturing from illicitly trafficked essential components in the definition of the offence of illicit manufacturing, or it cannot be determined with certainty that this is covered.
- **Illicitly manufacturing firearms by means of 3D printing** is not covered as a separate offence in any Member State. Furthermore, the preparatory acts necessary prior to the manufacturing of firearms by means of 3D printing are not covered as a criminal offence in any Member State.

3.2. Illicit trafficking

The UN Firearms Protocol, the Firearms Directive and the Regulation on import, export and transit of firearms include a definition of illicit trafficking. These definitions read as follows:

UN Firearms Protocol, Article 3(e) states :

“Illicit trafficking” shall mean the import, export, acquisition, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of firearms, their parts and components and ammunition from or across the territory of one State Party to that of another State Party if any one of the States Parties concerned does not authorize it in accordance with the terms of this Protocol or if the firearms are not marked in accordance with article 8 of this Protocol.

Article 1(1)(12) of the Firearms Directive states :

‘illicit trafficking’ means the acquisition, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of firearms, their essential components or ammunition from or through the territory of one Member State to that of another Member State, if any of the Member States concerned does not authorise it in accordance with this Directive, or if the firearms, essential components or ammunition are not marked in accordance with Article 4;

Article 2(1)(35) of Regulation 2025/41 ⁽²¹⁷⁾ states :

‘illicit trafficking’ means the import, export, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of listed goods to, from or across the territory of a Member State to or from the territory of a third country, if any of the following applies:

(a) the Member State concerned does not authorise it in accordance with this Regulation;

(b) the listed goods are not marked in accordance with the rules on marking referred to in Article 6(1); or

(c) the listed goods are declared for release for free circulation without the marking required in the rules on marking referred to in Article 6(2), unless they are exempt in accordance with paragraphs 2 or 3 of that Article;

3.2.1. Coverage of illicit trafficking as an offence

For the offence of **illicit trafficking**, there is a divergence in how Member States define the offence. However, this divergence is of a lesser extent as for illicit manufacturing.

In most Member States, the definition of illicit trafficking is implemented. However, in a federal state like Belgium, where import and export of firearms, including relevant criminal provisions are regional competences, one of the federal regions has not set out the definition of illicit trafficking. As a result illicit trafficking is not criminalised in that region.

There is a difference between the definitions of illicit trafficking in the UN Firearms Protocol and the definition in the Firearms Directive regarding the **scope of the cross-border element**. Under the Firearms Directive, the cross-border element is limited to intra-EU movements, namely from or through EU Member States. Conversely, under the UN Firearms Protocol, illicit trafficking covers all movements to or from another state party of the Protocol, including third countries. This broader scope is a logical consequence of the UN Firearms Protocol being an international treaty. Pursuant to the EU Regulation on the import and export of firearms, which implements the provisions of the UN Firearms Protocol, the definition of illicit trafficking is also applicable to movements of firearms to third countries. Given that this Regulation has direct effect, the definition of illicit trafficking will be directly applicable within the legal systems of the Member States 48 months following the date of entry into force of the Regulation

The study shows however that most Member States define illicit trafficking in line with the Firearms Directive, limiting the cross-border scope to intra-EU movements. Austria, Belgium, and Cyprus do reflect both trafficking from or through EU countries and to or from a third countries.

²¹⁷ Regulation (EU) No 2025/41 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 December 2024 on import, export and transit measures for firearms, their essential components and ammunition, implementing Article 10 of the United Nations Protocol against the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime (UN Firearms Protocol) (recast), *OJ L*, 2025/41, 22.1.2025.

However, in these Member States, trafficking with relation to a third country is subject to higher penalties than trafficking between EU countries.

3.2.2. *Constitutive elements*

The material scope of the offence of illicit trafficking, as defined under the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive, is not fully reflected in all Member States. In particular, in seven Member States (Austria, Belgium ⁽²¹⁸⁾, Czechia, Spain, Italy, Malta and Sweden), the legislation does not include all the **criminal behaviours that constitute the essential elements** of the offences defined in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive. In both the definition of the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive, illicit trafficking constitutes of committing criminal conducts, such as cross-border acquisition, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of firearms, their essential components or ammunition, without prior authorisation. In Italy, for instance, national law does not regulate ‘illicit trafficking’ as a definition, but illicit trafficking is penalised under Italian legislation as unauthorised trade in weapons ⁽²¹⁹⁾. Under Italian law, the notion trade includes importation, export, sale, collection for commercial or industrial reasons of weapons. While some criminal conducts mentioned in the UN Firearms Protocol and Firearms Directive definition are expressly included by Italian legislation, other criminal conducts such as acquisition, delivery, movement and transfer are not covered. This makes that Italy only partially covers the offence.

Both the definitions in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive include as further constitutive element: **trafficking firearms without correct marking**. However, this is not reflected in the legislation of four Member States (Belgium, Spain, Italy and Malta). As indicated above, under Italian law, the offence of illicit trafficking is penalised as unauthorised trade in weapons. However, this notion of trade does not cover trafficking of firearms, essential components or ammunition without markings. In Belgium, where import and export of firearms is a regional competence, the Flemish and the Brussels Capital Region penalises certain aspects of illicit trafficking. However, transfers, imports or exports of firearms, essential components or ammunition which are not marked are not covered by the relevant criminal provisions.

In a similar manner as for illicit manufacturing, **trafficking of essential components** is not explicitly criminalised in some Member States. In Spain, it is unclear to determine, based on the current legislation, whether the offence of illicit trafficking also includes the trafficking of essential components. For instance, in Spain the definition of illicit trafficking is almost literally implemented in national law. However, the national legislation does not link sanctions to the illicit trafficking of essential components. It is therefore unclear, whether this is criminalised in Spain.

3.2.3. *Key findings*

The assessment of national transposition of the definitions of illicit trafficking reveals the following key findings:

²¹⁸ Only with regard to the Flemish and the Brussels Capital Region. The Walloon Region does not criminalise illicit trafficking of civilian firearms as such.

²¹⁹ Article 695 of the Criminal Code.

- **Incomplete implementation:** Not all national legislations fully implement the definition of illicit trafficking as set out in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive.
- **Partial implementation:** In many Member States, the legal definition of illicit trafficking is implemented in an incomplete manner, with national definitions only partially covering the constitutive elements required by the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive.
- **Specific gaps in coverage:** In particular, some Member States do not sanction key elements of the definition of illicit trafficking, such as the trafficking of firearms without marking.
- Most Member States limit the cross-border scope of illicit trafficking to intra-EU movements.

3.3. Falsification, illicit obliteration, removal, or alteration of the markings

The UN Firearms Protocol, under Article 5(1)(c), provides for the criminalisation of the offence of falsifying or illicitly obliterating, removing, or altering the marking(s) on firearms (hereafter illegal modification of markings).

Article 5(1)(c) of the UN Firearms Protocol reads as follows:

1. Each State Party shall adopt such legislative and other measures as may be necessary to establish as criminal offences the following conduct, when committed intentionally:

(c) Falsifying or illicitly obliterating, removing or altering the marking(s) on firearms required by Article 8 of this Protocol.

Based on this provision, the state parties to the Protocol are bound to criminalise, when committed intentionally, the conduct of falsification or illicit obliteration, removal or alteration of the markings on firearms, affixed in accordance with Article 8 of the UN Firearms Protocol.

3.3.1. Coverage of illegal modification of markings as an offence

The study highlights the fact that **less than half of the EU Member States have criminalised** the offence of illegal modification of markings. In 14 Member States (Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Spain, Croatia, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Malta, The Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden), this conduct is not criminalised.

3.3.2. Constitutive elements

Of the 13 Member States that do criminalise the illegal modification of markings, **only eight Member States** (Cyprus, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Ireland and Poland) **have fully reflected** the requirements of Article 5(1)(c) of the UN Firearms Protocol regarding the criminalisation of the illegal modification of markings.

Five Member States (Belgium, Greece, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia) criminalise the illegal modification of markings partially. The UN Firearm Protocol defines illegal modification of marking only with regard to firearms. It does not extend the scope to essential components. Nevertheless, considering its importance to ensure proper traceability, the Firearms Directive requires that essential components are marked. Notably, it should be remarked that in two Member States (Belgium and Denmark), the illegal **modification of markings on essential components** is not criminalised.

Key findings

The assessment of national transposition of the definitions of illegal modification of markings reveals the following key findings:

- **Limited criminalisation:** Less than half of the EU Member States have criminalised illegally modifying markings.
- **Incomplete definitions:** Among the Member States that have criminalised the offence of illegal modification of markings, the definitions in national law do not consistently include all the constitutive elements required for the offence.
- **Gaps in coverage:** Specifically, the modification of markings on essential components is not uniformly included as an element of the offence of illegal modification of markings in national law ⁽²²⁰⁾.

3.4. Illegal possession

Although the Firearms Directive does not define illegal possession of firearms, it implies that Member States should criminalise this offence. Article 5 stipulates that only licensed individuals or those specifically permitted under national law may acquire and possess firearms. Article 6(1) further requires that acquisition and possession of firearms should be allowed only to persons who have a good cause, who are at least 18 years of age and who are not likely to be a danger to themselves or others, to public order or to public safety. Additionally, article 9(1) of the Firearms Directive requires Member States to take all appropriate measures to prohibit the acquisition and possession of the firearms, the essential components and the ammunition of category A firearms as defined in Annex I of the Firearms Directive. Article 10(2) requires authorisation for the possession of firearms listed in category B. Under Article 11(1) of the Firearms Directive, individuals are prohibited from possessing category C firearms unless they have first declared the possession to the authorities. Based on these articles in the Firearms Directive, **illegal possession can be described as the offence of possessing firearms, without an authorisation, licence, or without being specifically permitted to acquire and possess such firearms under national law.**

3.4.1. Coverage of illegal possession of firearm as an offence

No Member State provides an explicit definition of illegal possession as an offence. Nevertheless, all Member States criminalise conducts that corresponds with the illegal possession as described above.

The manner how the criminal behaviour constituting illegal possession, is criminalised differs between Member States. Some Member States include conduct, such as carrying, using, storing, keeping, holding, selling etc.. Furthermore, certain Member States penalise some criminal behaviour more severely, e.g. carrying firearms in Italy and France.

In Belgium, Czechia, Greece, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Finland, and Slovakia illegal possession of firearm is criminalised in a general manner, whereby no differentiation is made based on the category of the firearm as defined by Annex I of the Firearms Directive. In other Member States, illegal possession of some firearms categories are only sanctioned in administrative or minor offences. For instance, unlawful possession of category C6 (deactivated firearms) is an administrative offence in Romania,

²²⁰ It should be remarked that the UN Firearm Protocol defines illegal modification of marking only with regard to firearms. It does not extend the scope to essential components. However, the Firearms Directive requires that essential components are marked.

penalised only by an administrative fine. In Hungary, possession of category A and B firearms without authorisation is subject to criminal sanctions, whilst any other infringement of rules regarding the possession of firearms is a minor offence. In Czechia owning, possessing, or carrying a firearm or ammunition without holding a firearm licence is only an administrative misdemeanour.

Furthermore, if we then look at the illegal possession of essential components and ammunition, this is not explicitly criminalised in Spain and Romania.

3.4.2. Key findings

The assessment of national definitions on illegal possession reveals the following key findings:

- Conduct constituting illegal possession is sanctioned in all Member States. However, the manner how Member States sanction differs significantly between Member States.
- Some Member States only provide for administrative sanctions for the illegal possession of specific types of firearms.
- Inconsistent criminalisation of essential components and ammunition: The possession of essential components and ammunition is not uniformly criminalised across all Member States.

4. SANCTIONS

The UN Firearms Protocol does not specify requirements on the nature or severity of the sanctions for the offences of illicit firearms manufacturing, illicit firearms trafficking and illegal modification of markings. In the same vein, Article 23 of the Firearms Directive does not prescribe minimum and maximum sanctions for illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking. The Directive only provides the general clause that the penalties provided shall be effective, proportionate and dissuasive.

This leaves it up to the Member States discretion, to decide the manner and level of the penalties for the behaviour described under illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking of firearms, illegal modification of markings and illegal possession of firearms. As a consequence, there is a great variation in the range of sanctions and in the modalities of the sanction.

4.1. Range of sanctions

4.1.1. Criminal sanctions

The study provides a mapping of the criminal prison sanctions and fines set out across the Member States as penalty for the different firearms offences. The study compared sanctions for both natural persons (imprisonment and fines) and for legal persons (fines).

Some Member States do not set out an upper limit on the fines. These Member States work with daily penalty systems, whereby the fine is calculated on the basis of the income or turn-over (for legal persons), or on the amount of advantage received from the offence. In Hungary, the maximum fine for legal persons, convicted for illicit trafficking is calculated based on the value of the financial advantage achieved or intended to be achieved by the offence multiplied by three. Therefore, where the average fine is mentioned below, it is only calculated based on fines in the Member States that impose a maximum fine.

It should be remarked that for the Member States that set out a maximum fine, the study could not identify how often, in practice, national courts impose the actual maximum fees as sanction.

Offences of **Illicit manufacturing** are sanctioned on average by the Member States with a maximum sentence of 5 years and 4 months of imprisonment. There is a large divergence between the maximum sentences provided in the Member States: the highest maximum sentence is 15 years (Cyprus), and the lowest is 4 months (Denmark).

The average maximum criminal fine for natural persons is EUR 1,062,985. There is also a large divergence for maximum fines for natural persons: the highest maximum fine is EUR 10 million in Germany, and the lowest is EUR 1,600 in Malta. Six Member States (Bulgaria, Czechia, Spain, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia) do not provide for criminal fines for natural persons, yet some of them provide instead for administrative fines. Criminal fines are not provided for legal persons in five Member States (Bulgaria, Germany, Greece, Finland and Italy). Yet Bulgaria and Germany provide administrative fines instead. For legal persons, the average maximum fine for illicit trafficking across the Member States is EUR 6,192,553. Four Member States (Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Croatia) do not provide maximum fines for legal persons – these Member States use daily rate systems or similar systems to calculate the fine.

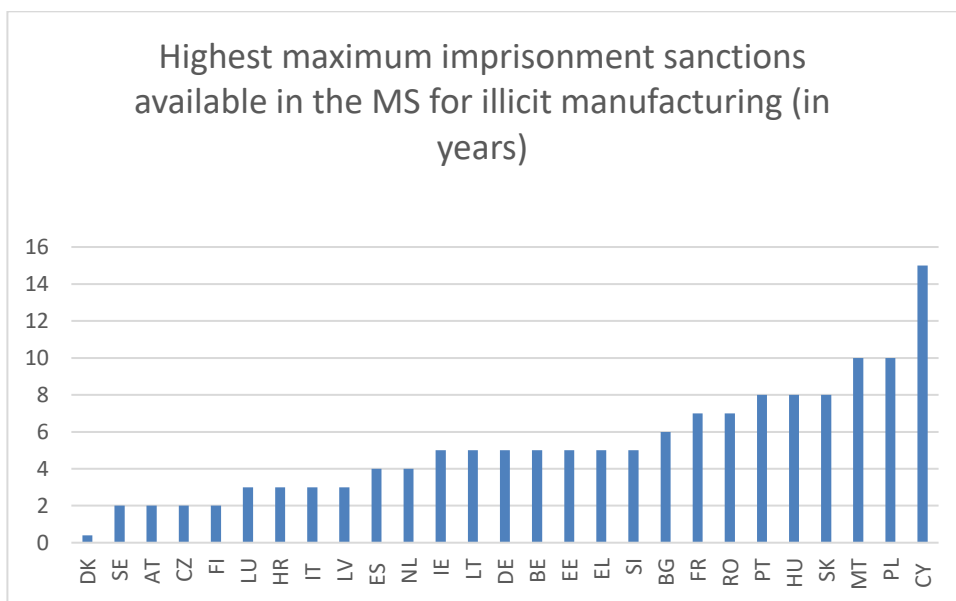


Figure 1: Highest maximum imprisonment sanctions available in the MS for illicit manufacturing (in years)

Illicit trafficking is sanctioned on average with a maximum sentence of 6 years of imprisonment. Also, for illicit trafficking, there is a large divergence between the maximum sentences provided in the Member States: the highest maximum sentence is 15 years (Germany), and the lowest is 4 months (Denmark).

Furthermore, the maximum fines for natural persons on committing illicit trafficking have large divergence between Member States. The average maximum fines are EUR 999,734 for natural persons and EUR 5,839,503 for legal persons. In four Member States (Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Croatia), there is no upper limit set for criminal fines for natural persons. Additionally, Czechia, Denmark, Hungary and Slovenia do not provide an upper limit for legal persons. Furthermore, criminal fines are not provided for legal persons in four Member States (Bulgaria, Germany, Greece and Italy).

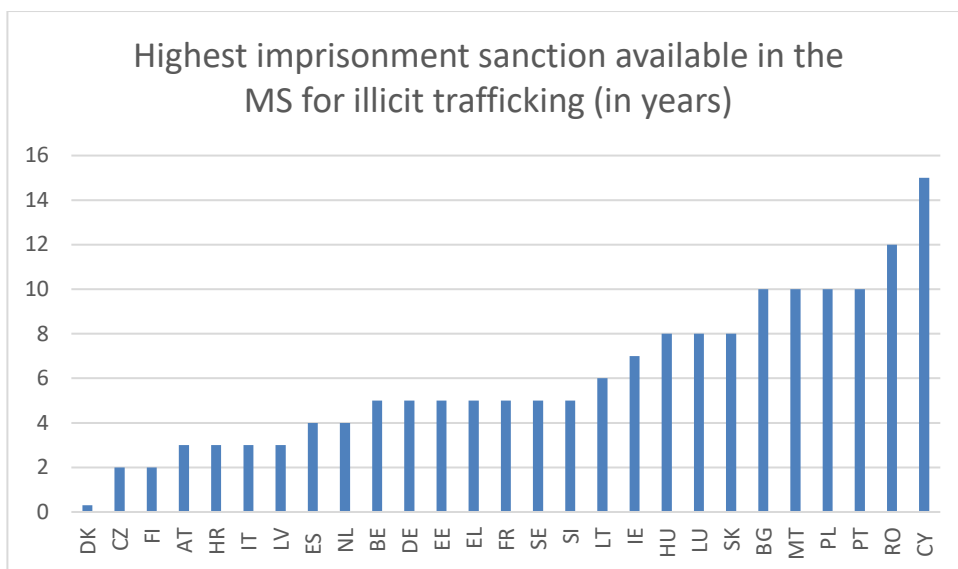


Figure 2: Highest maximum imprisonment sanctions available in the MS for illicit trafficking (in years)

Of the thirteen Member States that criminalise the **illegal modification of markings**, as described under Article 5(1)(c) of the UN Firearms Protocol, the average maximum sentence is 4 years and 2 and half months of imprisonment. The Member State with the highest maximum imprisonment sanction is Cyprus with 10 years and the Member State with the lowest is Denmark with 4 months.

The average fines for natural persons are EUR 999,734, in the Member States that impose an upper limit on fines. Three Member States do not set out an upper limit for fines (Denmark, Estonia and Finland) for natural persons who illegally modify markings. Two Member States do not provide criminal fines (Czechia and Estonia) as sanction for natural persons, even though these offences are criminalised in these Member States. For legal persons, the average fine is EUR 621,276. Denmark and Czechia do not set out an upper limit for fines for legal persons. Two Member States do not provide criminal fines for legal persons (Greece and Finland).

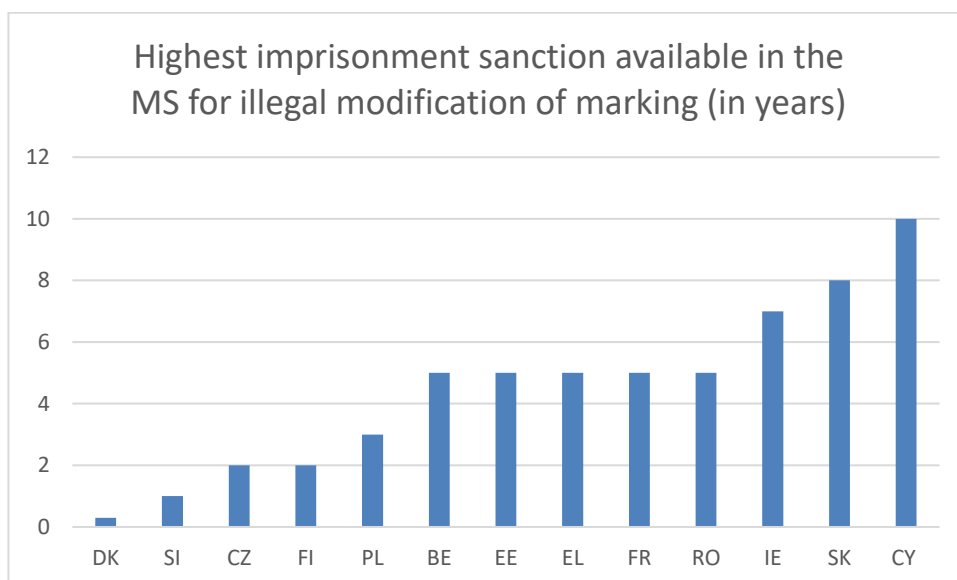


Figure 3: Highest maximum imprisonment sanctions available in the MS for the illegal modification of markings (in years)

Illegal possession is sanctioned on average with a maximum sentence of 5 years and 3 months of imprisonment. The highest maximum sentence is 10 years (Cyprus), and the lowest is 4 months (Denmark).

The average maximum fine for natural persons across the Member States is EUR 944,531. For legal persons, the average fine is EUR 6,118,589.

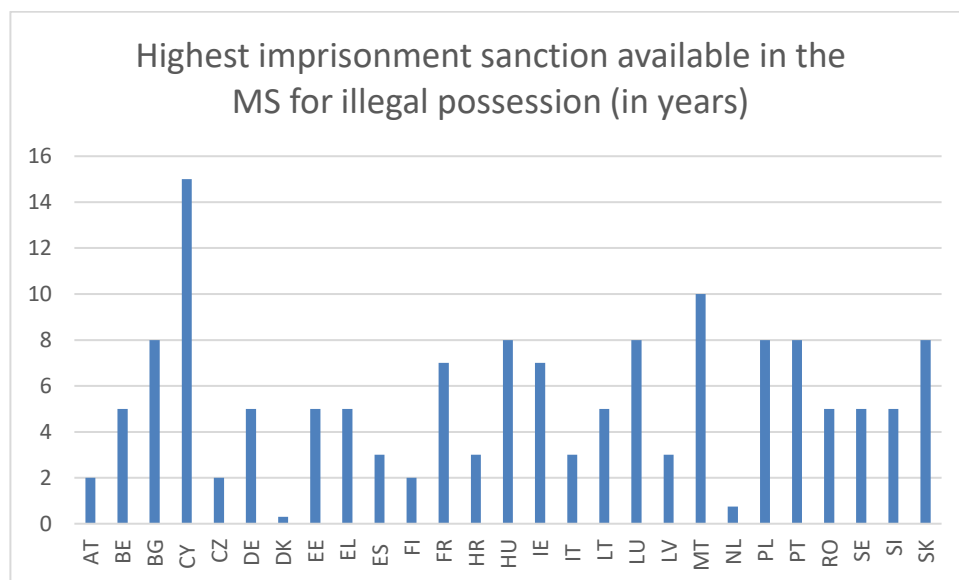


Figure 4: Highest maximum imprisonment sanctions available in the MS for the illegal possession (in years)

As is mentioned above, the lowest maximum term of imprisonment sanction for the four firearms offences is four months. In addition, other Member States also have **very low imprisonment terms as maximum penalty**. For illicit manufacturing five Member States have sanctions of less than three years of imprisonment. For illicit trafficking, this is the case in three Member States. For illegal modification of markings and illegal possession four (²²¹) Member States provide maximum sanctions of lower than three years in prison.

4.1.2. Administrative sanctions

Administrative sanction are different from criminal sanctions. While administrative sanctions have the aim to also penalise and discourage certain behaviour, they have a different legal nature than criminal sanctions. Generally, administrative sanctions are penalties imposed by administrative authorities rather than through the criminal justice system. They are typically less severe than criminal sanctions and often involve financial fines or other non-criminal penalties. These sanctions are governed by administrative law and are enacted under laws separate from the criminal code.

²²¹ Of the thirteen Member States that criminalise the offence of illegal modification of markings, only four Member States provide prison sanctions of more than three years.

The study discovered that administrative sanctions on firearms-related offences encompass mostly financial fines. Nevertheless, for the offences of illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking and illegal possession, Austrian law foresees that administrative sanctions also encompass a deprivation of freedom of maximum six weeks. This detention can be imposed by an administrative authority.

For **illicit manufacturing**, six Member States foresee administrative sanctions for natural persons (Austria, Bulgaria, Germany, Spain, Latvia and Slovakia). The average maximum administrative fine in these Member States is for natural persons EUR 10,119. In Bulgaria and Germany, the assembly of firearms without marking is only sanctioned by an administrative sanction. In these Member States, no criminal sanction is provided for natural persons. Four Member States (BG, CZ, DE, LV) provide for administrative fines for legal persons who committed illicit trafficking. For legal persons this is on average EUR 2,554,230.

Illicit trafficking is sanctioned in eight Member States (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechia, Germany Spain, Latvia and Slovakia) through administrative fines. The average highest administrative fee for natural persons is EUR 242,833. Also here, four Member States (BG, CZ, DE, LV) provide for administrative fines for legal persons for illicit trafficking. The average administrative fine for legal persons is EUR 2,676,730.

For **illegal modification of markings**, no Member State foresees an administrative sanction. The Member States that penalise these offences provide criminal sanctions.

Illegal possession of firearms is subject to administrative sanctions in seven Member States (Austria, Czechia, Germany Spain, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia). The average maximum administrative fine (EUR 2,879) is substantively lower than the other firearm offences. Only Germany and Czechia also provide for administrative fines for legal persons. The average maximum fine is EUR 3,339,700.

Key findings

The assessment of national provisions on criminal and administrative sanctions for firearms offences reveals the following key findings;

- **Large variations in sanctions:** There is a significant divergence among Member States in the highest and lowest maximum imprisonment sanctions and fines for firearms offences.
- **Low maximum sentences:** Some Member States have established very low maximum sentences for firearms offences.
- **Not all Member States provide financial fines as a criminal sanction for legal persons** convicted of firearms offences.

4.2. Modalities of sanctioning

This part provides an overview of the accompanying sanctions that can be imposed under national law, as identified by the Study. Furthermore, this part provides a summary on how Member States' legislations regulate the sanctioning of aggravating circumstances and how Member States sanction the attempt to commit a firearms-related offence.

4.2.1. *Accompanying sanctions*

Accompanying sanctions are criminal law measures that are imposed by the courts in addition to the main criminal sanctions for an offence (imprisonment or fines). Accompanying sanctions are dependent on the main sanctions, meaning it cannot be imposed unless a main sanction is also applied. For firearms-related offences, the study shows that accompanying sanctions often focus on mitigating the risk of firearms towards public security.

The **confiscation of the firearms** which are the object of an illicit trafficking offence, is in all Member States an accompanying sanction. For illicit manufacturing and illegal modification of markings, the confiscation of the firearms can be imposed as an additional sanction in all Member States, except Sweden (where illicit manufacturing is not an offence regarding civilian firearms). For illegal possession, only three Member States (France, Romania and Sweden) impose the confiscation of the firearms involved as an additional sanction. French law also imposes property confiscation, including confiscation of proceeds, as a specific additional sanction for firearms manufacturing.

The **withdrawal or refusal of the firearms authorisation** is another possible accompanying sanction for the offences of illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking and illegal modification of markings. Only eleven Member States (Belgium, Bulgaria, Germany, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia and Sweden) include this accompanying sanction in their national framework for illicit manufacturing and illegal modification of markings. Eleven Member States provide these additional sanctions for illicit trafficking (Bulgaria, Germany, Denmark, Finland, France, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia, Belgium, Romania). For illegal possession, only five Member States (Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Ireland and Romania) include withdrawal as an additional sanction in their national framework. When the withdrawal of an authorisation is included in the national framework, this is not a mandatory penalty. It remains within the discretion of the courts to decide if the withdrawal of the authorisation is imposed, as an accompanying sanction for a specific case. Only in Finland, the withdrawal of licences is mandatory if the licence holder committed an aggravated firearms-related offence, yet for other firearm offences, the decision to withdraw a licence lays within the discretion of the judicial authorities.

The **deprivation of rights**, related to the possession and use of firearms, can be imposed as additional sanction in multiple Member States. Examples are the deprivation of the right to carry, acquire or possess firearms. Furthermore, the deprivation could also include the revocation of hunting rights. Sanctions entailing the deprivation of certain rights are included in the national framework in ten Member States (Estonia, Spain, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Portugal and Romania) for the offences of illicit manufacturing and illegal modification of markings. In eight Member States, the deprivation of rights are an accompanying sanction for illicit trafficking (Estonia, Spain, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland and Portugal).

Lastly, a **prohibition to engage in certain professional activities** is included in the national framework, as accompanying sanction, for the offences of illicit manufacturing, trafficking of firearms and illegal modification of markings in thirteen Member States (Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, Finland, Greece, Spain, France, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Poland and Portugal). In Spain and Romania, such prohibition are included in the national framework as an accompanying sanction for illegal possession of firearms.

4.2.2. *Aggravating circumstances*

Aggravating circumstances are factors associated with committing an offence that the law recognizes as increasing its severity, resulting in more severe penalties. The study examined two kinds of aggravating circumstances in relation to firearm-related offences. Firstly, the study looked at aggravating circumstances specific to the firearm offences. These are typically the number of firearms involved or whether certain dangerous weapons (²²²) are involved. Secondly, the study focused on two more general aggravating circumstances; if a firearms-related offence is committed in the context of organised crime or with a terrorist intent.

The **number of the firearms involved in the offence** of illicit manufacturing is considered an aggravating circumstance in nine Member States (Austria, Bulgaria, Czechia, Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Sweden, Slovenia and Slovakia). In at least two Member States a high number of trafficked firearms is included in the national framework as a specific aggravating circumstance for the offence of illicit trafficking (Austria and Slovenia). For illegal possession high numbers of firearms are an aggravating circumstance in Bulgaria and Sweden.

The illicit manufacturing **of dangerous weapons** is an aggravating circumstance in four Member States (Finland, the Netherlands, Romania, and Slovenia). In particular, illicit manufacturing or trafficking of category A firearms is only considered as aggravating circumstance in Romania. Illicit manufacturing of war materials or military equipment (²²³) is an aggravating circumstance in three Member States (Austria, Greece, and Sweden).

A firearms-related offence committed by commercial actors, such as brokers and dealers, can lead to specific aggravating circumstances. For example, illicit manufacturing committed by commercial actors leads to higher sanctions in six Member States (Austria, Belgium, Germany, Hungary, Sweden and Finland).

In all Member States, illicit manufacturing, trafficking and illegal possession, committed in the **context of organised crime**, leads to higher penalties. In some Member States, firearms offences committed in the context of organised crime are considered as aggravated circumstances. In these Member States, convicted persons will receive higher penalties if the firearm offence is committed in context of a criminal organisation. For instance, this is the case for Germany, France, Greece, Hungary, Slovakia and Sweden. In Bulgaria, Spain, Croatia, and Italy, a firearms offence, committed within the framework of a criminal organisation is considered a specific offence in its own right. Where a conviction is obtained for a firearms offence as a specific offence of organised crime, the sanctions imposed are also more severe than those applicable to a firearms offence committed outside the context of organised crime.

²²² The concept of "dangerous weapons" is a term employed by national legislation. The scope of which varies significantly from one Member State to another. In general, a number of Member States consider high-calibre firearms, military weapons, and automatic firearms to be inherently dangerous.

²²³ The concept of "war materials or military equipment" is a term employed by national legislation. The scope of which varies significantly from one Member State to another. Typically, this notion covers specific military weapons (tanks, heavy artillery), but in some Member States "war materials or military equipment" include also some of the firearms of category A.

Directive (EU) 2017/541 on combating terrorism (²²⁴) provides a list of intentional acts considered as **terrorist offences**, when committed with a terrorist intent. The four firearms-related offences discussed in the study are not included in this list. Nevertheless, all Member States, except Germany, consider the fact that a firearms-related offence is committed with a terrorist intent as an aggravating circumstance.

Illicit manufacturing or illicit trafficking offences committed with aggravating circumstances can lead to higher imprisonment sanctions. On average, the maximum prison sentences are then increased with 4 years and 5 months.

4.2.3. *Attempt*

The attempt of a criminal offence occurs when someone takes intentionally significant steps towards committing a crime but ultimately does not complete the act. In many legal systems, attempt is sanctioned with a lower penalty than what would be imposed if the offence was fully completed. It should be noted that according to Article 5(2)(a) of the UN Protocol, an attempt to commit illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking or illegal modifications of markings should be criminalised.

A significant number of Member States does not sanction attempts for at least one of the firearms-related offences. For illicit manufacturing, attempt is sanctioned in 17 Member States. Those who do not sanction it are Belgium, Cyprus, France, Germany, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Luxembourg, Romania, Sweden. For illicit trafficking the situation is similar, except that Romania also sanctions attempt. Of the thirteen Member States that criminalise the illegal modification of markings, an attempt is not sanctioned in two Member States: Romania and Slovenia. In most of the thirteen Member States, the attempt to commit one of the firearms-related offences, is not criminalised in the specific law on firearm offence, but by the general principles of penal law, as set out in the criminal code.

4.2.4. *Key findings*

Key findings on the imposition of accompanying sanctions by Member States:

- **Significant divergence:** There is considerable divergence between the accompanying sanctions that can be imposed under national law for the four firearms-related offences.
- **Limited availability of risk-mitigating sanctions:** In more than half of the Member States, accompanying sanctions aimed at mitigating the risks associated with firearms, such as the withdrawal or refusal of firearms authorisation, cannot be imposed as a sanction for the four firearms-related offences.
- **Limited use of confiscation:** For the offence of illegal possession, only three Member States provide the additional sanction of confiscation, which also mitigates the risks associated with firearms.

Key findings on the setting out of aggravating circumstances by Member States:

²²⁴ Directive (EU) 2017/541 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 March 2017 on combating terrorism and replacing Council Framework Decision 2002/475/JHA and amending Council Decision 2005/671/JHA, OJ L 88, 31.3.2017.

- **Divergence in aggravating circumstances:** There is significant divergence among Member States in the way national laws impose aggravating circumstances.
- **Inconsistent consideration of public security risks:** Circumstances linked to public security risks, such as the number of firearms involved or the dangerous nature of firearms, are not consistently considered as aggravating factors across all Member States. For example, only four Member States consider the manufacturing of dangerous firearms as an aggravating circumstance.
- A significant number of Member States do not sanction attempt to one of the firearm offences.
- In all Member States, committing firearm offences in the context of organised crime leads to higher penalties, either as an aggravating circumstance or as a specific offence in its own right, resulting in more severe sanctions.
- All Member States, except one, consider committing firearm-related offences with a terrorist intent as an aggravating circumstance, leading to higher penalties.

5. MAIN KEY FINDINGS

The assessment conducted in the Study reveals significant divergences and gaps in the implementation of the four firearms-related offences by the Member States. Considering all the findings from the study, these are the key findings:

- **Incomplete implementation of definitions:** Some Member States have not implemented or have only partially implemented the definitions for the offences as provided by the UN Firearms Protocol.
 - o In some Member States, the implementation of the firearm offences does not fully cover or only partially covers the scope of the firearm offences defined in the UN Firearms Protocol. For example, only illicit manufacturing of category A firearms is covered.
 - o Less than half of the Member States have implemented the offence of illegal modification of markings.
- **Incomplete definitions:** Not all definitions of the firearms-related offences in national law include all the constituent elements, as provided by the definitions in the UN Firearms Protocol and the EU Firearms Directive.
 - o In many Member States, the definition of illicit manufacturing does not cover the element of **manufacturing from illicitly trafficked essential components**.
 - o In multiple Member States, the definition of illicit trafficking does not cover the element of **trafficking of firearms without marking**.
- Illicitly manufacturing firearms by means of **3D printing is not covered as a separate offence** in any Member State. Furthermore, the preparatory acts necessary prior to the manufacturing of firearms by 3D printing are not covered as a criminal offence in any Member State.
- **Wide range of maximum prison sentences:** There is a significant disparity between the highest and lowest maximum prison sentences imposed by national laws for the four firearms-related offences.
- **Low maximum imprisonment sanctions:** Many Member States impose very low maximum prison terms as a penalty for the four firearms-related offences, with the lowest maximum penalties being only three months.
- **Insufficient mitigation of firearms risks in accompanying sanctions:** Many Member States lack effective sanctions to mitigate the risks associated with firearms, such as withdrawal or refusal of firearms authorisation, and confiscation.
- **Aggravating circumstances are inconsistent in considering public security risks:** Circumstances linked to public security risks, such as the number of firearms involved or the dangerous nature of firearms, are not consistently considered as aggravating factors across all

Member States. For example, only four Member States consider the manufacturing of dangerous firearms as an aggravating circumstance.

- **A significant number of Member States do not sanction the attempt to one of the firearms-related offences.** Even though Article 5(2)(a) of the UN Protocol foresees that an attempt to commit illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking or illegal modifications of markings should be criminalised.

ANNEX 9: CALCULATIONS FOR COSTS FOR ADMINISTRATIONS

1. COSTS OF AN INCREASE IN STAFF IN MEMBER STATE POLICE AND PROSECUTION OFFICES

There are no studies nor data regarding a potential impact of increase in staff related to firearms offenses, instead the studies carried out during the impact assessment for a proposal for a Directive on the protection of the environment through criminal law (ECD), carried out in 2021, will be used.²²⁵

The transferability of this study comes from the fact that neutral data related to labour costs in the EU has been used and environmental crimes and firearms crimes share common problems, such as the lack in many occasions of special prosecutor offices or specialised units for investigations.

According to that study, the labour costs of additional police officers, prosecutors or judges needed to handle the environmental crime cases can be a useful approximation of the costs associated with an increase of the number of such cases resulting from the revision of the ECD. In order to estimate what number of additional personnel might be needed, it is important to understand the baseline or the current situation across the Member States.

Currently, around half of the Member States already have personnel that have some responsibility for environmental crime. They do not usually work exclusively on environmental crime, but their remit includes other specific types of crimes related to, for example, occupational health and safety, food safety, natural heritage or fraud.

The baseline research does not indicate that having specialised judges or courts for environmental crime is a common practice. The possibility for judges to work exclusively on one type of crime depends on the specificities of each national judicial system and might be unlikely²²⁶. Moreover, one of the interviewed stakeholders signalled that there is no need for judges to be specialised in a particular domain to effectively handle environmental crime cases²²⁷. (This does not, however, exclude the possibility for additional training of judges to improve their knowledge on environmental crime generally and the impacts of the revised Environment Criminal Directive.) It was, therefore, more suitable to base calculations of the expected cost of an increase in the number of environmental crime cases on the human resource needs for police officers and prosecutors in the Member States.

The starting point to generate a realistic prediction of the number of additional staff that Member States would be likely to add in reaction to the revised ECD is the current number of staff working on environmental crime in the police and prosecution offices in each Member State. However, quantitative data for these were only available for a fraction of Member States and were not entirely comparable. Using statistical data on the total numbers of police and prosecutors in each Member State, the percentage of those working on environmental crime was calculated for those Member States who reported data. This is shown in the table below.

²²⁵ More information can be found in the final report (JUST/2020/JACC/FW/CRIM/0122), study to supply the impact assessment accompanying the document for a proposal for a Directive on the protection of the environment through criminal law and replacing Directive 2008/99/EC (SWD(2021) 465 final.

²²⁶ In addition, some Member States have also highlighted the lack of sufficient number of cases to warrant having a judge dedicated to environmental crime.

²²⁷ Interview with representatives of the Swedish authorities and practitioners.

Table 1: Quantitative baseline data and calculation of % of police and prosecutors working on environmental crime in Member States for which data available

MS	Total police officers in MS*	Police working on environmental crime**	% of police working on environmental crime	Total prosecutors in MS*	Prosecutors working on environmental crime**	% of prosecutors working on environmental crime
AT	30,240	548	1.81%	375		
EL	53,156			585	1	0.17%
ES	169,139	1890	1.12%	2465	174	7.06%
FR	220,305	435	0.20%	2022		
MT	2,289	33	1.44%	19		
NL	50,389	260	0.52%	800	20	2.50%
PL	98,709			5702	59	1.03%
PT	46,363	977	2.11%	1389		
RO	50,024	322	0.64%	2521	200	7.93%
SE	20,040	84	0.42%	948	21	2.22%
SI	7,091			212		
SK	21,918	105	0.48%	978		
Average			1.0%			3.5%

*The sources for the data on numbers of police officers and prosecutors in the Member States are as follows:

Police: data from Eurostat, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/crim_just_job/default/table?lang=en%20b, except Ireland, found at: <https://www.garda.ie/en/faqs/>. All police data are 2018 except Italy latest figure available 2016

Prosecutors: data are for 2018 and taken from Council of Europe, https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/cepej/viz/CEPEJ-Explorerv2020_1_0EN/Tables

**Numbers of police and prosecutors working on environmental crime is based on information available in the 8th Round of Mutual Evaluation country reports as well as information obtained through consultations with some authorities; more details in Baseline Annex.

It was then assumed that the lowest observed percentage of police and prosecutorial staff working on environmental crime (0.20% and 0.17% respectively, cells shaded grey²²⁸) from across the Member States could be considered a reasonable proxy for the amount of *additional* staff that each Member State would be likely to take on to carry out a larger volume of work on environmental crime. The average of the available baseline data has also been calculated (1.0% for police and 3.5% for prosecutors), and these data are used to generate an estimate for the number of police and prosecutors that would require training. The total estimated costs for additional staff linked to the revised ECD are presented in the table below.

⁶⁶ These proportions are based on the proportion of total police working on environmental crime in France and the proportion of the prosecution in Greece, as these were the lowest figures from those Member States for which data were available.

²²⁸ These proportions are based on the proportion of total police working on environmental crime in France and the proportion of the prosecution in Greece, as these were the lowest figures from those Member States for which data were available.

Table 2: Costs for additional staff in police and prosecution offices in response to revised Directive

MS	Total police officers in MS*	Total prosecutors in MS*	Additional police (0.02%)	Additional prosecutors (0.17%)	Cost police	Cost prosecutors
AT	30,240	375	60	1	€ 3,768,828	€ 40,461
BE	41,370	879	82	2	€ 5,155,966	€ 94,840
BG	28,742	1526	57	3	€ 3,582,131	€ 164,649
CY	4,927	123	10	1	€ 614,055	€ 63,119
CZ	40,040	1238	79	2	€ 4,990,207	€ 133,575
DE	244,800	5882	483	10	€ 30,509,558	€ 634,642
DK	11,050	671	22	1	€ 1,377,168	€ 72,398
EE	3,893	169	8	1	€ 485,187	€ 63,119
EL	53,156	585	105	1	€ 6,624,861	€ 63,119
ES	169,139	2465	334	4	€ 21,079,886	€ 265,963
FI	7,684	393	15	1	€ 957,661	€ 42,403
FR	220,305	2022	435	3	€ 27,456,733	€ 218,165
HR	20,199	595	40	1	€ 2,517,412	€ 64,198
HU	39,423	1887	78	3	€ 4,913,310	€ 203,599
IE	14,499	109	29	1	€ 1,807,018	€ 63,119
IT	274,653	2230	542	4	€ 34,230,154	€ 240,607
LT	8,247	666	16	1	€ 1,027,828	€ 71,858
LU	1,987	55	4	1	€ 247,641	€ 63,119
LV	8,049	452	16	1	€ 1,003,151	€ 48,769
MT	2,289	19	5	1	€ 285,279	€ 63,119
NL	50,389	800	99	1	€ 6,280,009	€ 86,316
PL	98,709	5702	195	10	€ 12,302,157	€ 615,221
PT	46,363	1389	92	2	€ 5,778,246	€ 149,867
RO	50,024	2521	99	4	€ 6,234,519	€ 272,005
SE	20,040	948	40	2	€ 2,497,596	€ 102,285
SI	7,091	212	14	1	€ 883,755	€ 63,119
SK	21,918	978	43	2	€ 2,731,652	€ 105,522
Total	1,519,226	34891	3000	64	€ 189,341,968	€ 4,069,175

*The sources for the data on numbers of police officers and prosecutors in the Member States are as follows:

Police: data from Eurostat, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/crim_just_job/default/table?lang=en%20b, except Ireland, found at: <https://www.garda.ie/en/faqs/>. All police data are 2018 except Italy latest figure available 2016

Prosecutors: data are for 2018 and taken from Council of Europe, https://public.tableau.com/app/profile/cepej/viz/CEPEJ-Explorerv2020_1_0EN/Tables

2. COSTS OF AN INCREASE IN BALLISTIC DEPARTMENTS WITHIN MEMBER STATES.

Case study: costs of ballistic reports in Spain and Germany

Based on regular contacts of staff of DG HOME with ballistic experts in some Member States, it is possible to estimate that a Spanish ballistic expert needs an average of 9 hours to finalise a ballistic report of a commercial well-known pistol, assuming no hits with other cases, including reception of the object, examination, test-fired, check against the automatic ballistic system and issue of the report. The average cost of a ballistic expert per hour is €60. In Germany, for the same case this would be 8 hours with an average cost of €83 per hour. The administrative cost of the ballistic report of an essential component should be established as 1/3 of that time, so that means 3 hours in Spain and 2.6 hours in Germany.

Based on the calculation above, the cost of a ballistic report in Spain is €540 per firearm and €180 per essential component and in Germany € 664 per firearm and €221 per essential component.

In case of a ballistic report related to proving that a digital blueprint would result in the printing of functional essential components of a firearm, in Germany it is estimated that this would require an increase of 16 hours on top of the 8 hours, in order to finalise the printing of the parts and the assembly. The cost of a ballistic report of an essential component 3D printed would be 7.3 hours. The administrative cost of a ballistic report related to a digital blueprint for the manufacture of a 3D printed firearm would be 1,992€ and 605€ for an essential component.

To establish a baseline of cases, data collected under the global firearms study carried out by UNODC was used.²²⁹ The baseline for Spain was calculated, as Germany did not provide data to the Global firearms study of UNODC. During the reporting period, Spain reported the seizure of 267 firearms related to illicit manufacture, 1,111 firearms seized related to illicit trafficking, 3,713 firearms related to alteration of marking and 3,078 firearms related to illicit possession.

Based on the study carried out by the Commission, assessing and comparing the criminalisation of offences related to firearms²³⁰, it became clear that the Spanish criminal code does not contain references to essential components. Therefore, it is estimated that these figures would need to be increased by 5%.

Furthermore, there is also an estimation that the overall numbers need to be increased by 2% for the number of seizures related to firearms trafficking, as the Spanish legislation does not include all the criminal behaviours that constitute an offence related to essential elements defined in the UN Firearms Protocol and the Firearms Directive. As a result, there is an estimated increase of 5% of seizures as the conduct of illegal modification of marking is not criminalised in Spain.

Based on the calculation above, the cost of a ballistic report in Spain is € 540 per firearm and €180 per essential component. Assuming that there was a ballistic report per seized firearm in Spain, for the period 2020-22 the costs for the Spanish administration related to illicit manufacture were €144,180, for illicit trafficking €599,940, for alteration of marking €2,005,020 and for illicit possession €1,662,120. In total the costs for the Spanish administration for the period 2020-22 were of €4,411,260, so an average of €1,470,420 per year.

²²⁹ <https://dataunodc.un.org/dp-firearms-arms-seized>

²³⁰ Annex 8: Executive summary of the preparatory study assessing and comparing the criminalisation of offenses related to firearms.

A 5% increase of all seizures in general, with the inclusion of essential components as criminal offenses would represent an average increase of 136 cases per year, which would result in an additional cost of € 29,340 per year.

A 2% increase of seizures related to firearms trafficking would represent an average increase of 136 cases per year, which would mean an additional cost of €4,000 per year.

A 5% increase of seizures related to illegal modification of marking would represent an average increase of 61 cases per year, which would mean an additional cost of €33,417 per year.

As a result, the total increase in administrative costs in Spain, could be estimating to amount to € 66,757 per year.

To calculate the increase of administrative costs related to investigating 3D printed firearms, essential components and digital blueprints, the data provided by the project HamsTeR, a German research project, is used. This project identified 23 seizures of 3D printed firearms in Germany between 2020 and 2024.

PO 2 and 3 identified in the impact assessment will include the criminalisation of the illicit possession, creation and distribution of digital blueprints. As a result, there will be an increased number of seized blueprints that need to be investigated. Furthermore, it is also expected that the seizures of 3D printed firearms and essential components will increase. Using Germany as example, the average number of seized 3D printed firearms was 4.6 seizures per year during the period 2020-24. It is estimated a multiplier factor of 3 for digital blueprints, which would mean 13.6 seizures of blueprints per year, with an administrative cost of €27,091. However, if Member States cooperate in testing and identifying these blueprints, this cost could be greatly reduced.

ANNEX 10: MONITORING FRAMEWORK

Specific objective	Indicator	Baseline	Success
making it easier to investigate and prosecute	Number of: - Investigations - prosecutions - convictions - training available	Where information is available, it does not show an upward trend in firearms-related cases in the Member States.	- increase of successful prosecution of firearms offences by 20% within five years. - specialised training sessions for prosecutors accessible to at least 80% of the legal professionals involved in firearms cases within two years
ensuring a future proof enforcement of firearms-related offences	As above but then specific for privately manufactured firearms	- An increase in cases on 3D printed firearms can already be noted in multiple Member States. - EMPACT Firearms has a dedicated action to improve cooperation and exchange of information on 3D printed firearms. - removal orders on digital blueprints currently only linked to terrorism cases.	- increase in investigations and prosecutions of cases involving new technologies with 20% throughout the EU. - All Member States have a specific focus on privately manufactured firearms within their national strategies. - EMPACT Firearms dedicated action includes cooperation and sharing of information on digital blueprints known to be used to manufacture firearms and essential components. - Increased number of removal orders on digital blueprints through the application of the Digital Service Act. - threat assessment on technological developments of privately manufactured firearms. - Inclusion of the particulars of privately manufactured firearm in national databases on

			seized firearms and also within the firearms module in the firearms hub in Europol.
Ensure effective, dissuasive and proportionate sanctions	- levels of financial fines imposed on natural persons - levels of financial fines imposed on legal persons - levels of imprisonment sanctions - full use of accompanying sanctions - types and numbers of accessory sanctions	The available data shows that certain Member States have very low sanction levels which cannot be considered dissuasive and there are large discrepancies between the Member States in terms of accompanying and accessory sanctions that can be used. Additionally, there is currently no information on the factual sanctions imposed.	- An increase of the lowest sanction levels following the agreed upon minimum levels of maximum penalties. - the current gap between the Member States' lowest and highest minimum maximum penalties is diminished by 20% within five years - Given the current situation in which sanctions imposed are generally taken from the lowest segment of available sanction levels, successful implementation would show that sanctions imposed use the full range of sanction types and levels (including a wider use of accompanying and accessory sanctions). - Confiscation of profits is applied systematically. - specialised training sessions for prosecutors accessible to at least 80% of the legal professionals involved in firearms cases within two years
Ensure effective response through cooperation and harmonising data a. cooperation and coordination	- Continuation of EMPACT Firearms - Number of firearms cases at Eurojust - Number of JITs at Eurojust - Number of SIENA messages at Europol - Number of established and functional NFFPs - Number of meetings of the Focus Group of	Current levels of Eurojust cases, JITs, SIENA messages are generally low. The Commissions scoreboard on the NFFP shows that 3 Member States have not yet established a NFFP and that only 8 Member States have NFFP's that	- Firearms remains a priority within the EMPACT cycle - number of SIENA exchanges and JITs initiated for firearms at Europol and Eurojust increase by 20% respectively - Success would be that all Member States have established an NFFP and

ANNEX 11: ANALYSIS OF EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

A. Effectiveness

1. *Making it easier to investigate and prosecute*

PO1 is expected to increase the focus, on the three mandatory firearms offences as defined by the UN Protocol, of those national authorities who would be targeted by infringement proceedings. However, it would not be effective in harmonising additional offences, such as the additional offences that are defined by the legislative guidelines of UNODC. Furthermore, as the UN Firearms Protocol has different marking requirements than the Firearms Directive (the Directive requires marking of all essential components), only focusing on infringements linked to the definitions of the UN Firearms Protocol will not address the additional marking requirements. Therefore, the effectiveness of these infringements would not be as high.

Additionally, a recommendation paper on clarifying definitions could improve the legal clarity amongst Member States. However, the effectiveness would depend on Member States actually adjusting their criminal laws based on these recommendations on a voluntarily basis. Consultations with Member States revealed that multiple firearms experts doubted that their Member State would take action based on these recommendations. Therefore, recommendations alone, are considered not effective enough to tackle the gaps in definitions.

Setting up a Focus Group of specialised prosecutors against firearms trafficking would be an effective tool to improve prosecutions. When searching for specialised prosecutors to set up a consultation meeting, it became clear that there is currently a lack of prosecutors with such a specialised knowledge. This is specifically problematic as firearms cases require often certain technical skills and knowledge. As the objective of the Focus Group would be to build specialised expertise and intensify judicial cooperation, it would provide a forum for practitioners to exchange knowledge, expertise and best practices. Therefore, this would be an effective action to increase cross-border judicial cooperation and result in more successful investigations, prosecutions and convictions for trafficking offences. PO2 would be more effective than PO1 due to the legal obligations it would include. Notably, the legal obligations of harmonising the criminalisation of the mandatory firearms offences and including the offence of illicit possession, and creation and dissemination of blueprints. The inclusion of provisions on the establishment of NFFPs and cooperation with EU agencies, and on special investigative tools would further improve the effectiveness of investigations and prosecutions. However, PO2 would not benefit from the setting up of Focus Group of specialised prosecutors against firearms trafficking.

The additional clarifications brought by these non-legislative measures would enhance the overall effectiveness of PO3. This is what PO3 does. It combines the legislative measures from PO2 with some of the non-binding measures from PO1.

It is unclear whether PO4 would be more effective than PO3. It would include further legal obligations regarding the harmonisation of the wider set of firearms-related offences. Based on the consultations with the experts and position of Member States in respect of future of EU criminal

law²³¹, especially on how this option would maintain the consistency of national criminal laws, it is unclear what the real additional effectiveness of these definitions would be.

2. *Ensure effective, dissuasive and proportionate penalty types and levels for firearms-related offences*

PO1 would be effective in targeting those Member States which currently have low penalty levels. However, this would not result in mandatory minimum levels of maximum penalties at EU level.

PO2 and PO3 would be equally more effective than PO1 due to the establishment of minimum maximum penalty levels for all core firearms-related offences.

PO4 could be slightly more effective than PO2 and PO3 as it would establish minimum levels of maximum penalties for the wider set of firearms-related offences. However, as already explained above, the consultations did not result in identifying clear additional effects of the harmonising efforts of these wider sets of offences.

3. *Ensure a future proof enforcement of firearms-related offences.*

PO1 would focus on recommendations on new technologies only. However, the effectiveness of these recommendations is considered low due to the fact that already in 2021 the Commission explained how 3D printed firearms fit within the definition of illicit manufacturing²³² but still the consultation meetings with Member States show a need for further clarifications. Furthermore, within EMPACT Firearms recommendations have already been made since 2022 to criminalise blueprints used to produce privately manufactured firearms, but no EU Member State has taken up this action. In the meantime, other States in the world such as Canada, Singapore and North-Macedonia have. The adjustments in their legislations are however too recent to already draw clear conclusions regarding the effects.

PO2, PO3 and PO4 are expected to be equally more effective than PO1 due to the introduction of a harmonised offence of illicit possession, illicit creation and illicit dissemination of blueprints needed to privately manufacture firearms, essential components and ammunition. Furthermore, all three policy options would include a specific clarification in the legal text of how privately manufactured firearms, essential components and ammunition (including 3D printed) fit within the definition of illicit manufacturing.

4. *Improve law enforcement and judicial cooperation and harmonised data collection on firearms-related offences*

PO1 foresees the establishment of a Focus Group for specialised prosecutors which is considered to be an effective action to increase cross-border judicial cooperation. PO1 would invite Member States

²³¹ The future of EU criminal law: report of the presidency: overview of the discussions. Council Document 16102/24. 4 December 2024.

²³²

Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the application of Directive (EU) 2021/555 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 24 March 2021 on control of the acquisition and possession of weapons.COM/2021/647 final

to use a harmonised dataset for seizure of firearms through a recommendation. However, Member States do not consider this action to be effective.

PO2 would be more effective than PO1 due to the legal obligation for Member States to establish a National Firearms Focal Point. Well-established NFFPs improve the national coordination and cooperation throughout the entire judicial chain²³³. Member States who already have such a well-established NFFP are even supporting the Commission in advocating this towards Member States that do not yet have a NFFP or not yet a well-established one. Additionally, the legislative initiative would include a specific provision on the need to allow the use of special investigation tools. The consultation meeting with magistrates confirmed that this would be an effective measure for cross-border cooperation.

Additionally, PO2 would establish the harmonised dataset for seizure of firearms through a legal provision. As stated by the experts of the Member States, this would be considered more effective than a mere recommendation paper. To collect any further data, the initiative would refer to cooperation with Eurostat as the responsible entity to gather statistics.

PO3 would have the same requirements as PO2, and would thus be equally effective.

PO4 would extend the scope of PO2/PO3 on the offences to be criminalised to include to all firearms-related offences instead of only the core ones. In addition, it would add the obligation for Member States to collect and report data on the different firearms offences to the Commission on a yearly basis. As a result, PO4 would be considered more effective.

B. Efficiency

1. Making it easier to investigate and prosecute

PO1 is seen as not very efficient as the benefits resulting from infringement proceedings and subsequent modification of legal framework by Member States would be offset by the efforts and cost involved in those proceedings. Although the legal framework would be improved at EU level, there would still be gaps and discrepancies. Non-binding policy measures such as recommendation papers on definitions of firearms-related offences, or on how new technologies fit in current legislation and lessons learned from MS and other countries have low cost of implementation due to their voluntary basis. However, the benefits are limited as the effectiveness is subject all Member States applying those recommendations.

PO2 has a higher level of efficiency than PO1 as the cost from infringement proceedings is subtracted. The cost incurred by the legislative changes are offset by the benefit of harmonising the three mandatory firearms offences as defined by the UN Protocol and the additional core offense of illegal possession, which is considered one of the most important offenses for Member States²³⁴ and for the citizens.²³⁵

Another important benefit would be to include essential components in all the offenses, as the UN Firearms Protocol has different marking requirements than the Firearms Directive (the Directive

²³³ Council Conclusions 10726/21 on 13 July 2021 on the implementation of the National Firearms Focal Points (NFFPs) in the EU Member States.

²³⁴ Annex 2: consultation with law enforcement agencies p. 91

²³⁵ Annex 2: public consultation: need for EU actions on different firearms-related offenses p. 109.

requires marking of all essential components). Only focusing on infringements linked to the definitions of the UN Firearms Protocol will not address the additional marking requirements.

PO3 is slightly more efficient than PO2 insofar as it includes additional non-legislative measures which have a low cost of implementation, easily offset by benefits these provide, even if small.

The level of efficiency of PO3 would be higher than PO4, as the extra legal obligations of PO4 regarding the harmonisation of the wider set of firearms-related offences would mean more costs than benefits, as the extra offenses included in PO4 are not so relevant as the ones included in PO3²³⁶. In addition, the consultation meetings with the experts and position of Member States in respect of future of EU criminal law²³⁷ could not conclusively show the added benefit of harmonising the criminalisation of all the firearms-related offences. Therefore, there is a possibility that the costs for criminalising these harmful conducts would not be outweighed by the benefits for society.

2. Ensure effective, dissuasive and proportionate penalty types and levels for firearms-related offences

PO1 is seen as not very efficient as the benefits resulting from infringement proceedings and subsequent modification of legal framework by Member States would be offset by the efforts and cost involved in those proceedings.

PO2 would be of a higher efficiency than PO1 due to the benefits of establishing minimum maximum penalty levels for the core firearms-related offences reflected in the UN Firearms Protocol, without the cost resulting from infringement proceedings.

PO3 would have the same requirements as PO2, and would thus be equally efficient.

It is not clear whether PO4 would be more efficient than PO3 in establishing minimum levels of maximum penalties for the wider set of firearms-related offences. It would incur most costs as it would require more legislative and implementation work. A conservative approach puts the benefits as lower than PO2 and PO3 as the consultations have not allowed to identify any clear additional impacts of the harmonising efforts of these wider sets of offences.

3. Ensure a future proof enforcement of firearms-related offences.

PO2, PO3 and PO4 are expected to equally have higher efficiency than PO1 due to the benefit of introducing a harmonised offence of illicit possession, illicit creation and illicit dissemination of blueprints needed to privately manufacture firearms, essential components and ammunition. Furthermore, those policy options would include a specific clarification in the legal text of how privately manufactured firearms, essential components and ammunition (including 3D printed) fit within the definition of illicit manufacturing.

PO1 would focus on recommendations on new technologies only with no extra cost, but also no benefit.

²³⁶ Annex 5: analytical methods.

²³⁷ The future of EU criminal law: report of the presidency: overview of the discussions. Council Document 16102/24. 4 December 2024.

4. Improve law enforcement and judicial cooperation and harmonised data collection on firearms-related offences

PO2, PO3 and PO4 would be of a higher efficiency than PO1 due to the benefit of including a legal obligation for Member States to establish a National Firearms Focal Point. The establishment of the NFFPs would include specific costs²³⁸, but it would be offset by the increase in law enforcement and judicial cooperation.

PO2 and PO3 would establish the harmonised dataset for seizure of firearms through a legal provision. This measure would have extra costs²³⁹, with the update or creation of national databases but the benefits would be higher, as it would mean a significant increase of the intelligence picture, which is fundamental for the attribution of resources and correct assessment of the threat at national and international level. Another extra benefit would be the ability to better perform analyses through which cross-border connections can be identified.

PO2, PO3 and PO4 also add the obligation for Member States to collect and report data on the different firearms offences to the Commission. While PO2 and PO3 require such data to be provided 5 years after the implementation of the Directive, as part of its evaluation, PO4 requires such data to be provided on a yearly basis. This requirement would benefit the harmonised data collection on firearms-related offences as it is unlikely that all Member States will provide such information voluntarily. The benefit of being able to properly evaluate the Directive and its impact is seen as outweighing the costs that Member States would have to incur to provide the required data. However, the yearly reporting is seen as being more cost intensive than the requirement of reporting 5 years after implementation. PO4 is thus seen as less efficient than PO2 and PO3.

²³⁸ Annex 4: who is affected and how: II overview of costs-preferred option p.128.

²³⁹ Annex 4: who is affected and how: II overview of costs-preferred option p.128.

ANNEX 12: OVERVIEW OF THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

	UN Firearms Protocol	Firearms Directive (EU) 2021/555	Recast Firearms Regulation (EU) 2025/41
Scope of application	Transnational nature of the offences between State Parties	The internal market of the EU	The borders of the EU, therefore the connection between the EU and third countries
Definitions	“Firearm” shall mean any portable barrelled weapon that expels, is designed to expel or may be readily converted to expel a shot, bullet or projectile by the action of an explosive, excluding antique firearms or their replicas. Antique firearms and their replicas shall be defined in accordance with domestic law. In no case, however, shall antique firearms include firearms manufactured after 1899;	‘firearm’ means any portable barrelled weapon that expels, is designed to expel or may be converted to expel a shot, bullet or projectile by the action of a combustible propellant, unless it is excluded from this definition for one of the reasons listed in Part III of Annex I. Firearms are classified in Part II of Annex I. An object shall be considered to be capable of being converted to expel a shot, bullet or projectile by the action of a combustible propellant if: (a) it has the appearance of a firearm; and (b) as a result of its construction or the material from which it is made, it can be so converted;	

“Parts and components” shall mean any element or replacement element specifically designed for a firearm and essential to its operation, including a barrel, frame or receiver, slide or cylinder, bolt or breech block, and any device designed or adapted to diminish the sound caused by firing a firearm;

“Ammunition” shall mean the complete round or its components, including cartridge cases, primers, propellant powder, bullets or projectiles, that are used in a firearm, provided that those components are themselves subject to authorization in the respective State Party

“Illicit manufacturing” shall mean the manufacturing or assembly of firearms, their parts and components or ammunition: (i) From parts and components illicitly trafficked; (ii) Without a licence or authorization from a competent authority of the State Party where the manufacture or assembly takes place; or (iii) Without marking the firearms at the time of

‘essential component’ means the barrel, the frame, the receiver, whether an upper or lower receiver, where applicable, the slide, the cylinder, the bolt or the breech block, which, being separate objects, are included in the category of the firearms on which they are or are intended to be mounted;

‘ammunition’ means the complete round or the components thereof, including cartridge cases, primers, propellant powder, bullets or projectiles, that are used in a firearm, provided that those components are themselves subject to authorisation in the Member State concerned;

‘illicit manufacturing’ means the / manufacturing or assembly of firearms, their essential components and ammunition:

- (a) from any essential component of such firearms illicitly trafficked;
- (b) without an authorisation issued in accordance with Article 4 by

manufacture, in accordance with article 8 of this Protocol; Licensing or authorization of the manufacture of parts and components shall be in accordance with domestic law;

“Illicit trafficking” shall mean the import, export, acquisition, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of firearms, their parts and components and ammunition from or across the territory of one State Party to that of another State Party if any one of the States Parties concerned does not authorize it in accordance with the terms of this Protocol or if the firearms are not marked in accordance with article 8 of this Protocol;

a competent authority of the Member State where the manufacture or assembly takes place; or

(c) without marking firearms at the time of manufacture in accordance with Article 4;

‘illicit trafficking’ means the acquisition, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of firearms, their essential components or ammunition from or through the territory of one Member State to that of another Member State, if any of the Member States concerned does not authorise it in accordance with this Directive, or if the firearms, essential components or ammunition are not marked in accordance with Article 4;

‘illicit trafficking’ means the import, export, sale, delivery, movement or transfer of listed goods to, from or across the territory of a Member State to or from the territory of a third country, if any of the following applies:

- (a) the Member State concerned does not authorise it in accordance with this Regulation;
- (b) the listed goods are not marked in accordance with the rules on marking referred to in Article 6(1); or
- (c) the listed goods are declared for release for free circulation without the marking required in the rules on marking referred to in Article 6(2), unless they are exempt in accordance with paragraphs 2 or 3 of that Article;

	“Tracing” shall mean the systematic tracking of firearms and, where possible, their parts and components and ammunition from manufacturer to purchaser for the purpose of assisting the competent authorities of States Parties in detecting, investigating and analysing illicit manufacturing and illicit trafficking.	‘tracing’ means the systematic tracking of firearms and, where possible, their essential components and ammunition from manufacturer to purchaser, for the purpose of assisting the competent authorities of Member States in detecting, investigating and analysing illicit manufacturing and illicit trafficking.	/
	/	Contains definitions on alarm and signal weapons, salute and acoustic weapons, deactivated firearms, dealers, brokers, museums and collectors	Contains many more definitions linked to customs terminology and to firearms terms (same as the Firearms Directive).
Harmonised application	State Parties can be more stringent	Member States can be more stringent	Member States cannot be more stringent
Criminalisation	3 mandatory offence (illicit manufacturing, illicit trafficking and falsifying or illicitly obliterating, removing or altering the markings on firearms) + attempting to commit or participating as an accomplice in an offence + organizing, directing,	Member States shall lay down the rules on penalties applicable to infringements of the Directive and shall take all measures necessary to ensure that they are implemented. The penalties	Member States shall lay down the rules on penalties applicable to infringements of the Regulation and shall take all measures necessary to ensure that they are implemented. The penalties

	aiding, abetting, facilitating or counselling the commission of an offence	provided for shall be effective, proportionate and dissuasive.	provided for shall be effective, proportionate and dissuasive.
Confiscation, seizure and disposal	State Parties should establish rules to enable confiscation of firearms, their parts and components and ammunition that have been illicitly manufactured or trafficked. + make it possible to destroy the seized firearms	Member States need to ensure that illegally possessed category A firearms are impounded.	In the event of a reasonable suspicion of illicit trafficking of listed goods, the goods shall be seized or retained
Record-keeping	Information in relation to firearms shall be kept for not less than 10 years, in order to facilitate tracing. The information needs to include the marking of firearms and the issuance and expiration dates of authorisations for international transactions.	Member States shall ensure that all firearms may be linked to their owner at any moment. A computerised data-filing system shall contain the information of the firearm and essential components (type, make, model, calibre and serial number), the names and addresses of the suppliers and persons owning the firearms, and any conversions or modifications made to the firearms. This data shall be kept for a period of 30 years after the	Member States shall keep, for not less than 20 years, all information relating to the import, export and re-export of listed goods, which is necessary to trace and identify those goods, and to prevent and detect illicit trafficking therein

destruction of the firearm or essential component.

Marking of firearms	Each Firearms shall be marked at the time of manufacturing, at the time of import and when transferred from government stock to civilian market. The marking shall include name of manufacturer, the country of manufacture and the serial number	Each firearm AND essential component shall be marked. This marking needs to be clear, permanent and unique. It shall include name of manufacturer, country of manufacture, serial number and year of manufacture.	Firearms can only be imported if they are marked according to the UN Firearms Protocol rules and before placement on the EU market all firearms and essential components also need to be marked according to the rules of the Firearms Directive.
Deactivation of firearms	If deactivated firearms are not recognised as a firearm then offence should be established for the illicit reactivation of deactivated firearms. The principle of deactivation are: a) all essential parts of a deactivated firearms are permanently inoperable and incapable of removal or replacement; b) the deactivation is verified by a competent authority; c) a certificate will be issued after the verification.	‘deactivated firearms’ means firearms that have been rendered permanently unfit for use by deactivation, ensuring that all essential components of the firearm in question have been rendered permanently inoperable and incapable of removal, replacement or modification in a manner that would permit the firearm to be reactivated in any way; Deactivated firearms need to be verified by a competent authority, which shall issue a certificate.	Deactivated firearms can be imported if they have a certificate.

Implementing act adopted to establish technical standards for deactivation.

Requirements for export, import and transit authorisation systems	Each State Party shall establish or maintain an effective system of export and import licensing or authorization, as well as of measures on international transit, for the transfer of firearms, their parts and components and ammunition. When a third country is concerned by a transit, the State Party will ask for its consent. Simplified rules for temporary import and export for lawful purposes such as hunting, sport shooting, evaluation, exhibitions or repairs may be established. Exchange of information between State Party on receipt of dispatched goods should be possible.	Transfers of firearms between Member States are regulated through a system of prior consent which is facilitated by the Internal Market Information System. Additionally, EU hunters, sport shooters and historical reenactors can use an EU firearms pass to temporary travel through and participate in events in other Member States.	All firearms, essential components, ammunition and alarm and signal weapons need an import authorisation before they enter the customs territory of the EU AND need an export authorisation before the exit the EU. Simplified rules are established for temporary imports and exports for hunting, sport shooting, historical reenactment, evaluation, exhibition and repair. Post-shipment checks may be performed and the export needs to upload proof of receipt documents in the electronic licensing system.
Security and preventive measures	State parties shall take appropriate measures to detect, prevent and eliminate the theft, loss or diversion of, as well as the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in, firearms, their parts and components and	In order to minimise the risk of firearms and ammunition being accessed by unauthorised persons, Member States shall establish rules on the proper supervision of firearms and ammunition and	Procedure are established at import and export to perform controls on the goods. Furthermore, when non-compliant shipments are detected, these are seized or retained.

ammunition. Focus is on security and controls at the time of manufacture, import, export and transit.

rules on their proper storage in a secure manner. Firearms and their ammunition shall not be readily accessible together. Proper supervision shall mean that the person lawfully possessing the firearm or the ammunition concerned has control over it during its transportation and use.

Information and cooperation

Information exchange on case studies (on involved organised criminal groups, means of concealment, modus operandi etc.), how rules are implemented, establish a single point of contact. Cooperate on tracing of firearms and on the prevention, combat and eradication of illicit manufacturing and illicit trafficking of firearms.

Exchange of information between the Member States is facilitated through a committee.

Exchange of information is facilitated through the electronic licensing system and also through the establishment of a coordination group.

Training and technical assistance

States Parties shall cooperate with each other so that States Parties may receive the training and technical assistance necessary to enhance their ability to prevent, combat and eradicate the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms,

Exchange of information between the Member States is facilitated through a committee.

Exchange of information is facilitated through the electronic licensing system and also through the establishment of a coordination group.

Brokers and brokering	and States Parties that have not yet done so shall consider establishing a system for regulating the activities of those who engage in brokering. Such a system could include one or more measures such as: (a) Requiring registration of brokers operating within their territory; (b) Requiring licensing or authorization of brokering; or (c) Requiring disclosure on import and export licences or authorizations, or accompanying documents, of the names and locations of brokers involved in the transaction	‘dealer’ means any natural or legal person whose trade or business consists wholly or partly of either of the following: (a) the manufacture, trade, exchange, hiring out, repair, modification or conversion of firearms or essential components; (b) the manufacture, trade, exchange, modification or conversion of ammunition; ‘broker’ means any natural or legal person, other than a dealer, whose trade or business consists wholly or partly of either of the following: (a) the negotiation or arrangement of transactions for the purchase, sale or supply of firearms, essential components or ammunition; (b) arranging the transfer of firearms, essential components or ammunition within a Member State, from one Member State to another Member State, from a Member	the rules of the Firearms Directive are upheld.
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State to a third country or from a third country to a Member State;

Each Member State shall establish a system for the regulation of the activities of dealers and brokers. Such systems shall include at least the following measures:

- (a) the registration of dealers and brokers operating within the territory of that Member State;
- (b) the licensing or authorisation of the activities of dealers and brokers within the territory of that Member State; and
- (c) a check of the private and professional integrity and of the relevant abilities of the dealer or broker concerned. In the case of a legal person, the check shall be both on the legal person and on the natural person or persons directing the undertaking.

Authorisations /
to own a
firearm

Member States shall allow the acquisition and possession of firearms only by persons who have been granted a licence or, with respect to firearms classified in category C, persons who are specifically permitted to acquire and possess such firearms in accordance with national law. The ownership of a category C firearm needs to be declared. An authorisation is needed to acquire and own a category B firearm. Category A firearms are in principle prohibited to be owned by civilians although exceptions are possible.

Member States shall permit the acquisition and possession of firearms only by persons who have good cause and who are at least 18 years old (exceptions are

Import and export authorisations can only be granted if the importer or the exporter is licensed to own those firearms according to the rules of the Firearms Directive.

possible) and are not likely to be a danger to themselves or others.

Salute and /
acoustic
weapons

‘salute and acoustic weapons’ means firearms specifically converted for the sole use of firing blanks, for use such as in theatre performances, photographic sessions, film and television recordings, historical re-enactments, parades, sporting events and training; Remain in their original firearms category.

Remain in their original firearms category

Alarm and
signal weapons

No specific focus, although the definition of a ‘firearm’ contains the words that a device that is readily convertible should be considered a firearm.

‘alarm and signal weapons’ means devices with a cartridge holder which are designed to fire only blanks, irritants, other active substances or pyrotechnic signalling rounds and which are not capable of being converted to expel a shot, bullet or projectile by Also an alarm and signal weapon is subject to an import authorisation. Member States need to ensure that the devices comply with the technical standards of the Firearms Directive.

the action of a combustible propellant.

Technical standards were created to establish the non-convertibility of alarm and signal weapons. Competent authorities have to check alarm and signal weapons based on these technical standards.