1.01 Before entering the field, it is helpful for orientation to scope out or recall key concepts and terminology. Acronyms and abbreviations are also summarized at the back of this book.

1.1 The field: data protection, privacy and security

1.02 The terms ‘data privacy’ and ‘data protection’ are often used interchangeably, in particular in the context of comparisons of Anglo-Saxon data privacy laws and continental European data protection laws. Actually, the two terms and legislative concepts have quite different origins and purposes. Here is a simplified overview:

1.1.1 Data protection

1.03 Data protection is about protecting individuals (the data subjects) from the effects of automated data processing. When you try to understand or comply with European data protection laws, keep in mind that the default rule is ‘verboten’ (German for: forbidden). Businesses and other organizations are generally prohibited from processing personal data, unless they obtain consent from the data subjects or they find an applicable statutory exemption. European data protection laws are first and foremost intended to restrict and reduce the automated processing of personal data – even if such data is publicly available. My home state, the German State of Hessen, enacted the first data protection law in 1970 due to growing concerns regarding dangers of automated data processing for individual freedoms. Citizens and politicians were concerned that George Orwell’s forecast for 1984 could become reality: where ‘glass citizens’ are observed and controlled by an omniscient ‘big brother’, the government. More recently, these concerns were joined by fears regarding ‘little brothers’, namely private companies that amass data and databases for commercial purposes, which can then be conveniently (ab)used by governments or criminals. Due to these
concerns, legislatures decided to regulate automated data processing like other dangerous activities. The Hessian data protection law – and laws of other German states and European countries – established a general prohibition and regulatory regime regarding the processing of personal data. One key feature of European-style data protection laws is a data minimization requirement: companies are prohibited from collecting, using and retaining data, unless they obtain consent or have another compelling reason to process the data. And, companies are required to minimize the amount of data they collect, the instances of processing, the people who have access and the time periods for which they retain data. In practice, many companies in Europe collect and process personal data as much as their competitors in other parts of the world. European data protection laws provide for exemptions and data subjects grant consent to allow this. But, the principal hostility to personal data processing and databases in European data protection laws is important to keep in mind for purposes of understanding and applying European data protection laws. And, this hostility is probably one reason for the fact that European companies do not lead in information-driven economy sectors such as electronic commerce, cloud computing, software-as-a-service and social networking, where much of the innovation and market leaders come from the United States and increasingly also Asia. In 2014, people in Europe reacted with outrage to revelations about large-scale surveillance regarding electronic communications by the United States National Security Agency (NSA) and European intelligence services. Yet, current drafts of the EU Data Protection Regulation continue to largely exempt data processing for national security purposes and European politicians instead push hard for a right to be forgotten.

1.1.2 Data privacy

The United States and other countries outside of Europe, by contrast, generally allow data processing. Data privacy laws are primarily intended to protect individuals from intrusion into seclusion and interception of confidential communications. Given this focus, individuals are usually not protected, unless they have a reasonable expectation of privacy in a particular situation. Companies can – and frequently do – destroy such expectations of privacy by notifying individuals of the companies’ data collection and processing activities, for example, in employee handbooks, website privacy statements and in-store warnings about security cameras. Individuals receive some protection in the sanctity of their homes, for example, but communications and activities outside receive
little or no protection, e.g., information in public records, assembling in the open, calls on cell phones in public, postings on the Internet or via social networking platforms, etc. Instead of enacting one comprehensive data protection law, the United States have enacted numerous sector- and threat-specific laws at Federal and State level to address specific concerns narrowly and without too much collateral damage to freedom of information and technological progress.

1.1.3 Data security

More recently, legislatures around the world have started to supplement data privacy laws with sectoral data security laws. These laws aim to protect individuals from specific harms resulting from unauthorized access to personal information, in particular identity theft (e.g., criminals using someone’s personal data to acquire or charge credit cards). Examples include data security breach notification laws (California passed the first law in 2003, with most U.S. states and many countries following suit thereafter), detailed prescriptions regarding technical and organizational measures to protect health information in HIPAA and U.S. state laws in California, Massachusetts, Nevada and New York requiring encryption of certain data in certain circumstances.

1.1.4 Data privacy as an umbrella term

In line with common language usage and in the interest of simplicity, this Field Guide will use the term ‘data privacy’ collectively for data protection, data privacy and data security, except where differentiation matters.

1.2 The territory: Europe, United States and ROW

Most companies are dealing with data privacy issues in more than one jurisdiction, given the global nature of the world economy. But while businesses have to solve global problems, the laws they have to comply with remain territorial. On the Internet, companies can reach more than 190 countries instantaneously – and each country has its own laws. In the United States alone, you are dealing with laws made by 50 states plus federal laws enacted by the US Congress. In Europe, you will find some harmonization due to the EU Data Protection Directive, which has been implemented in the 31 member states of the European Economic Area (EEA) and closely followed by Argentina, Colombia,
Israel, Switzerland, Russia, Uruguay and some candidates for EU membership. Given a certain level of harmonization in Europe, this Field Guide can occasionally refer to general principles of ‘European laws’. But this should not obscure the fact that companies have to comply with each individual European country’s laws, if applicable, and possibly also additional laws of states, provinces and other subsections within a European country.

This Field Guide is intended to provide you with guidance for all territories and help you identify globally recurring themes and pitfalls to watch out for. For illustrative purposes, you will see examples mostly from Europe and the United States. Europe and the U.S. have had data privacy laws, litigation and regulatory proceedings for the longest time and so they are the most charted territories with respect to many issues. Also, Europe and the U.S. lend themselves well to illustrations because they are frequently on the opposing end of the spectrum of regulatory approaches: Europe tends to be more protective/paternalistic with respect to individuals and quick to regulate and require companies to obtain prior approvals, submit filings and comply with various formal requirements. The United States on the other hand has consciously passed on European-style omnibus data protection legislation and taken a hands-off approach on most data privacy topics. Once you have familiarized yourself with the U.S. and European position on a particular question, you can often navigate other countries (charmingly referred to as ‘ROW’ for ‘rest of world’) by grouping them closer to the U.S. or European position. This is particularly effective when you have to implement global systems or processes and your organization or technology can accommodate only a limited number of options.

Please keep in mind that you are looking at approximation and high-level themes when the Field Guide refers to European or U.S. laws for orientation purposes. Some states within and outside the U.S. and EEA have different laws or interpretations of laws, many countries do not have any specific laws yet and there is little harmonization in other continents and regions (e.g., Asia-Pac, Latin America, Middle East and Africa).

1.3 The species: personal data, PII and sensitive data

When you encounter terms like ‘personal data’ and ‘personally identifiable information’ in laws or contracts, you must check the applicable
definitions to determine the impact of a particular provision. When
you draft a website privacy statement, notice or contract clause, you
can either assume a very broad range of application or include an
express, limiting definition yourself.

1.3.1 Personal data

1.11 For the purposes of European data protection laws, personal data is
any information that relates to an identifiable human individual. For
example, a person’s name, photo, address or birth date would be con-
sidered ‘personal data’. It is not necessary that the data by itself allows
identification of the data subject. It is sufficient that the data relates in
a meaningful manner to an individual person who could be identified.

1.12 For example, a company phone number that can be answered by a
number of persons does not constitute ‘personal data’, but an indi-
vidual extension that is permanently allocated to an individual person
does. An Internet Protocol (IP) address of a router or other device can
constitute personal data if it relates to an individual user (e.g., single
person household). But, an IP address does not constitute personal
data if it relates to a large business without a reasonable connection
to an individual person. The question whether IP addresses, photos
and phone numbers constitute personal data has been hotly debated
for years by academics and even legal practitioners, but if you take a
close look, it often does not matter to a company: If some of the data
that your company processes can be linked to an individual, then you
have to either treat all of the data as personal data or differentiate.
But, differentiation is usually impractical or too expensive to imple-
ment. For example, if you implement cookie technology to analyze
website visitor conduct and you log IP addresses in the process, you
will inevitably gather some IP addresses that can be linked to an indi-
vidual and for compliance purposes, it does not matter whether the
large majority of IP address could be excluded from the scope of data
privacy laws.

1.13 Data can cease to qualify as ‘personal data’ if it is redacted or aggregated
in a manner that destroys the connection to an individual. Encryption
and partial redaction do not do the trick, however, as long as someone
holds the key and could re-identify the data subject. Thus, for the most
part, you have to treat encrypted data still as ‘personal data’ under
data protection laws. On the other hand, true aggregation can remove
data from the scope of data protection laws. For example, if you take
information on video rental habits of a thousand randomly selected individuals, merge the information to create statistical information, the resulting aggregate data is no longer ‘personal data’ (while the raw data on individual habits continues to be personal data). Theoretically, you could also redact data relating to an individual by removing names and all identifiers from a profile. But, this is harder than one would think in practice. If the redacted data sets retain any information that allows the reversal of the redaction process (e.g., an address, birth date/place, etc.), then the data will typically continue to qualify as ‘personal data’ under European data protection laws.

1.3.2 Personally identifiable information (PII)

In stark contrast to the broad concept of ‘personal data’ under European laws, many other countries use slightly different terms and define them much more narrowly. For example, the California Civil Code uses the term ‘personally identifiable information’ in many statutory sections and defines the term narrowly and differently each time, depending on each section’s context and purpose. Other California laws, as well as federal law and the laws of other states, use different definitions. Often only particularly sensitive types of information are covered (e.g., credit card numbers, social security numbers, etc.).

1.3.3 Sensitive data

Most jurisdictions and laws apply higher standards to certain categories of personal data. Reasons and covered categories vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. For example, laws in the United States protect social security numbers and credit card information particularly because consumers are exposed to high identity theft risks due to relatively lax authentication procedures by banks and merchants. Identity theft is less of a concern in Europe, but under European laws, companies generally have to observe special restrictions regarding personal information relating to:

- political opinions;
- trade union membership;
- medical or health conditions (e.g., employee sick days, prescriptions, clinical trial data – even if stored by impersonal IDs without patient names);
• racial or ethnic origin (e.g., place of birth, photos showing skin color);

• religious or philosophical beliefs (e.g., German church tax status in payroll systems);

• information relating to sexual orientation (e.g., marital status in jurisdictions that do not recognize same sex marriages); and

• certain types of criminal records.

1.16 Some limited exceptions apply in Europe, particularly for collection and local processing of sensitive data by employers as required by law. Companies need to obtain express consent, however, before transferring any sensitive data outside the European Economic Area (see Chapter 3).

1.17 International conflicts between national laws are also possible. For example, a company might be required to produce certain sensitive data in U.S. litigation or government investigations, which the company is prohibited from sharing under European laws. But, upon closer review, you can avoid many apparent conflicts. For example, U.S. export control compliance programs can require collection of certain information on citizenship and residency of foreign workers with access to controlled U.S. technology, but information on racial or ethnic origin (which would constitute ‘sensitive personal data’ under European laws) is usually not required.

1.18 Laws in the United States and other jurisdictions also differentiate between various categories of personal data with respect to particular scenarios. There are hardly any common themes beyond what common sense would suggest, so companies must survey their data collection practices in each relevant jurisdiction separately.

1.4 Activities encountered: transfers and other forms of processing

1.19 European data protection laws regulate any processing of personal data and define the term ‘processing’ very broadly to include any activity relating to personal data. Processing includes collection, recording, organization, storage, adaptation or alteration, retrieval, consultation,
use, disclosure by transmission, dissemination or otherwise making available, alignment or combination, blocking, erasure and destruction, whether by manual or automated means. Even as you are redacting personal data – making it anonymous – you are processing the personal data under European laws and you trigger the same general prohibitions and data minimization requirements.

Under U.S. and other countries’ laws, however, data privacy laws tend to pertain to particular activities. In most jurisdictions, people and data privacy laws tend to be particularly sensitive with respect to one form of processing: data transfers. A transfer occurs when one company sends data to another company or country via email, mail or otherwise, but also if someone in the other company or country can remotely access data via the Internet or other technologies. Thus, if a company posts an employee directory for all employees worldwide to access, that constitutes a data transfer to all jurisdictions where such data is available. If you post information on the Internet, you transfer such information everywhere. Therefore, a ‘transfer’ in the broadest sense of the word occurs every time you allow someone else to access data – regardless of the technical means or commercial context.

Conceptually, however, an important distinction applies with respect to transfers within an organization and its circle of service providers (i.e., data processors, which often include the parent company providing IT infrastructure-as-a-service as well as unaffiliated providers of payroll processing, Internet access and physical security services). Companies do not typically have to explain details regarding data sharing with data processors in privacy notices or government filings and data subjects typically do not have a choice in this respect. To be on the safe side, you should draw the net wide and consider restrictions under data privacy laws each time you make data available to someone other than a coworker in the same company. But, you should also keep in mind that transfers to mere data processors are often less restricted than transfers to data controllers, i.e., those who use data for their own purposes. The rationale for this is that what matters to the data subject is that the company he or she entrusts with personal data stays responsible and that any individuals who act for this company comply with all of the company’s privacy promises and applicable law – regardless of the employment status of such individuals. Companies are legal fictions that do not themselves act except through employees, individual independent contractors and employees of corporate service providers. Which individuals a company chooses to process personal data – its own employees, individual
independent contractors, employees of corporate contractors or sub-contractors – does not usually affect the data subject’s privacy interests. Therefore, companies are usually permitted to share personal data with individual and corporate service providers (i.e., data processors) without notice to or consent from data subjects, so long as they execute a written data processing agreement that clearly documents the limited discretion of the service provider regarding data usage.

1.5 The observed: data controllers, processors

European data protection laws differentiate between ‘data controllers’ – who use data for their own purposes and at their own discretion – and ‘data processors’ – who process data only on behalf of a data controller as a service provider. Data controllers are the ones who are primarily obligated to comply with data protection and privacy laws. Data processors are obligated to comply with instructions from the data controller, keep data secure and refrain from using data for any purposes other than instructed from the data controller. Data processors are also referred to as ‘agents’ (in the Safe Harbor Principles), ‘business associates’ (in the U.S. under the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 – HIPAA) and service providers (in many privacy statements). A company can qualify as data controller with respect to some activities (e.g., processing of employee and customer relationship information) and as a data processor with respect to other activities (e.g., assisting its subsidiaries with payroll processing and customers with respect to computer maintenance).

Service providers that gain physical custody and technical access, but that are not allowed or expected ever to access data under any circumstances, refer to themselves as ‘data handlers’ or ‘mere conduits’ in order to excuse themselves from any direct obligations under data privacy laws. Some types of providers have a compelling case, for example telecommunications companies that are not allowed or expected to know whether their systems are used to communicate health or other information. Also, colocation providers (companies that rent secure cages to companies to host servers) and more traditional landlords usually have some physical access rights to computer systems, but very limited or no rights to access data (sometimes in the context of disaster recovery or Internet access and troubleshooting arrangements). Legislatures rarely acknowledge exemptions from data privacy laws for data handlers or mere conduits. Customers tend to insist on commitments from their
service providers just in case these qualify as data processors, business associates or the like, in order to protect themselves from challenges regarding their own data privacy compliance efforts.

1.6 The game wardens: data protection authorities, officers

European countries have established independent public authorities responsible for enforcing national data protection laws. Representatives of the national data protection authorities in the EEA form the Article 29 Working Party, which issues guidance to companies and legislatures. In many European countries and some non-European countries, companies have to notify the local data protection authority before they start processing personal data. In some countries, companies have to obtain prior approval from the data protection authorities before they engage in certain kinds of data processing activities, e.g., international transfers of personal data outside the EEA.

In Germany and a few other European countries, companies must (or may, as an alternative to notifying data protection authorities) appoint a data protection officer, either an employee or external service provider, who is tasked with monitoring whether the company complies with applicable data protection laws. Such data protection officers are not government officials, but they are required to cooperate with the local data protection authority and report serious offenses. Similarly, government agencies in Europe and elsewhere (including the NSA since February 2014) have appointed data protection officers whose task is to monitor the particular government agency’s own compliance efforts. Whether in government agencies or private sector organizations – the role of the data protection officer is focused inwards to monitor compliance by their own organizations. This distinguishes data protection officers from data protection authorities whose task is to monitor compliance by other organizations.

In the United States and other countries that have not established data protection authorities, data privacy laws are enforced by consumer protection agencies (e.g., the U.S. Federal Trade Commission) and other authorities (e.g., U.S. State Attorneys General), but prior notifications or approvals regarding automated data processing is not typically required outside Europe.