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1 PhD (Can.), Osgoode Hall Law School, York University; Editor in Chief, Global-Regulation. First presented at the TBGI project Graduate Student Research Retreat, Baldy Center for Law and Social Policy, State University of New York at Buffalo, November 2-3, 2014 I would like to thank Professor Stepan Wood of Osgoode Hall Law School, York University and the TBGI project for his wise advise and comments. This paper was written thanks to the generous support of the TBGI project.

“Today what we are experiencing is the absorption of all virtual modes of expression into that of advertising…All current forms of activity tend toward advertising and most exhaust themselves therein”.  

1. Introduction

In the online world, children privacy has turned into one of the most valuable commodity. The desire to sell, market and advertise has acceded all moral values penetrating even the gentle fabric of regulation, aimed to place constrains and create boundaries between the corporation and children’s most inner psychological mechanisms of well being and healthy development. As Kline stated: “The consumption ethos has become the vortex of children's culture”.

An illustration of this intrusive and cynical practice is illustrated by Steeves and Tallim reporting a fourteen-year old girl taking the “Ultimate Personality Test” on the children’s website emode.com. The website told the girl “that she values her image”, therefore it recommended that she visit e-diets, one of their advertisers, to “prep her body for success”.

The online world is a challenge to privacy for all users. Children face this challenge in a much more profound ways than other users and their ability to identify the harm and cope with it is inherently limited. There is no dispute that measures to protect their online privacy should be implemented and enforced. However, as this paper will demonstrate, the interacting players in these regulatory field does not always have the benefit of the children as their main target.

The harm to children privacy online can stem from several sources. As website are seeking personal details to be used as a commodity, they employ automatic collection (e.g., cookies), methods in which the children are ‘contributing’ their personal information in order to sign up for a service or participate in a competition, or voluntarily, when using social networking sites like Facebook, Twitter and others.

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6 Fraction of data implemented by the website in the user’s browser. This mechanism provide the website with the user’s previous activity (Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF), “HTTP State Management Mechanism – Overview”, April 2011. [http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc6265#section-3](http://tools.ietf.org/html/rfc6265#section-3)

7 See in general, the OECD Working Party on Information Security and Privacy, “The Protection of Children Online - Risks faced by children online and policies to protect them”, May 2, 2011.
As many adults, children do not read the privacy statements in websites they use. These privacy statements are often written in a legal language heard to understand even for adults. Although the law usually require parental consent, children’s website often overlook, ‘detour’ and try to avoid the need for such consent. When they do require it, they often do it in a way that causes much burden on the children and their parents.

Moreover, because of children’s lack of understanding what does it mean to have their privacy breached (an abstract concept which is hard to explain), they often provide their information with no hesitation failing to comprehend the implication of such act. As the online world is relatively new and privacy breaches within it are a phenomenon that increase over time, there is a lack of appropriate tools to educate children (and adult) in this respect, a fact that only increase children’s vulnerability and amplify the problem.

Marketers are employing invasive methods to turn children’s privacy into a commodity as online monitoring, profiling without the children’s knowledge and while the children are not equipped to understand and cope with such strategies. Consumer groups are concerned about potential “negative impacts on children’s future self image and well-being” due to the use of these techniques.

The protection of children’s privacy online is mainly regulated by two regulatory
instruments: command and control implemented through legislation at the federal and/or state level, and self-regulation driven by the internet industry. Self-regulation usually produced industry standards as the International Chamber of Commerce’s (ICC) Advertising and Marketing Communication Practice, the International Advertising Bureau UK and US codes, the Federation of European Direct and Interactive Marketing (FEDMA) code and many more).

These regulatory instruments are either general in its application and encompass all marketing practices or has a more narrow scope applying only to online marketing, covering all users or children in specific.\textsuperscript{13}

This article analyzes the regulation of children’s privacy online (see Diagram 1 – The Field), especially in the context of personal information collection as a commodity, in the United States and the European Union according to Eberlein et al. Transnational Business Governance Framework. The article reviews the regulatory structure of this field in these two jurisdictions including global organizations, according to Elberlein et al components and questions. In the analysis, a map of the regulatory interactions within this global realm is presented and discussed. Finally, conclusions are drawn and suggestions are made.

\textsuperscript{13} Examples for a general scheme is the ICC’s Advertising and Marketing Communication Practice; specific to marketing to children are the Self-Regulatory Guidelines for Children’s Advertising by CARU or the non-binding Ethical Guidelines for Advertising to Children by European Association of Communication Agencies (EACA, 2006).
2. TBGI analytical Framework

Transnational business governance (TBG) describes systematic efforts to regulate business activities that encompass a high degree of non-state authority in the implementation of regulatory capacities internationally.\textsuperscript{14} Eberlein \textit{et al.} framework is unique in focusing on the analysis of regulatory interactions and providing a theoretical structural tool to analyze a regulatory field from the perspective of the entities interacting within it.

TBG schemes involve different interacting actors, pursuing varieties of interests, values, and beliefs.\textsuperscript{15} Eberlein \textit{et al.} analytical framework include six components:

(i) framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives;
(ii) formulating rules or norms;
(iii) implementing rules within targets;
(iv) gathering information and monitoring behavior;
(v) responding to non-compliance via sanctions and other forms of enforcement;
(vi) evaluating policy and providing feedback, including review of rules.

For each component, Eberlein \textit{et al.} identify six questions that are crucial in analyzing interactions:

(1) who or what is interacting
(2) what drives and shapes the interactions
(3) what are the mechanisms and pathways of interaction
(4) what is the character of the interactions
(5) what are the effects of interaction
(6) how do interactions change over time

Elberlein et al. framework is flexible thus allowing (and even recommending) employing some, and not all, of the components as well as few of the questions in analyzing a given regulatory field. Therefore, only the relevant components and questions will be included in the next section.

In its strongest form, the Elberlein et al. framework seek to shift the paradigm of regulatory analysis by focusing on the regulatory interaction rather than on the regulation itself. This is a powerful and influential shift as the focus on regulatory interactions and the analysis through these lenses, enable to identify deviations in the regulatory process thus pinpointing the cause for any derail in a given regulatory process that caused it to turn from the desired route towards better and more efficient regulation to protect the


vulnerable party from the potential deleterious effects of the harm. This point is demonstrated well in chapter 3.3 supra regarding the EU-US debate on the regulation of personal data transfer.

In light of Kuhn\textsuperscript{16} seminal work on paradigm shift, the framework architects and advocates should not be coy in situating in the right place to gain recognition and influence based on its added value in identifying and even amending cases of impaired regulatory process leading to an unwanted result. The first step would be to omit the words ‘Transnational’, ‘Business’ and ‘Governance’ from the framework definition thus allowing for its full weight potentially encompassing the entire regulatory field, to penetrate the discipline.

Moreover, the framework creates an opportunity to place law in its natural position, as a field of regulation. This simple and accurate statement will relax the tension artificially created between these allegedly separate fields and restore the important proportions often overlooked by those mistakenly arguing to the contrary, that regulation is a branch of law. The implications of such a restorative and correctional measures, among others, on legal and regulatory education and the regulators and regulations of the future, cannot be overstated.

3. Children’s Privacy Online – Regulatory Interactions Analysis

The following chapter reviews the regulatory scheme of children’s online privacy in the USA and the EU including global organizations according to Eberlein \textit{et al.} relevant components and the questions identified for each component. The genera regulatory scheme is shown in Table 2 – The Regulatory Structure.

Diagram 2 is constructed in three columns: the US, the UN and the OECD and the EU. The legend includes three main regulatory schemes: law, industry and community, each in its own color. The UN and OECD column is a symbol for global regulation while the US and EU columns includes regulation which is specific to these two jurisdictions. For example, while the IAB is a global organization dealing both with the US and the EU, its background is white as it is global, and its color is red as it is belongs to the law scheme.

CARU, being a ‘Safe Harbur’ under the US COPPA and an industry organization (as will be detailed in the coming section), is blue for industry and dark blue for federal. It is also tending to the left side – i.e. a US entity, while FEDMA, its EU equivalent, is tending to the right. Finally, Diagram 2 is illustrative and non-exhaustive, aiming to provide an overview of the regulatory structure of children’s online privacy regulation.

\textsuperscript{16} Kuhn, Thomas, \textit{The Structure of Scientific Revolutions} (1962).
3.1 Global Organizations

The regulation of children’s privacy online by global organization is analyzed according to the component of Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives. This component will be addressed using the framework six questions.

(i) Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives

Data protection law normative basis rests on human rights treaties. Relevant treaties are the Universal Deceleration of Human Rights (UDHR)\textsuperscript{17} and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR).\textsuperscript{18} The only data protection binding international treaty is the Council of Europe Convention 108.\textsuperscript{19}

Calls for an international convention dealing with data protection and privacy has been made; An example, is the 27\textsuperscript{th} International Conference of Data Protection and Privacy Commissioners held in 2005. The Conference declared the ‘Montreux Declaration’, in appealing the United Nations “to prepare a binding legal instrument which clearly sets

\textsuperscript{17} http://www.ohchr.org/en/udhr/Pages/UDHRIndex.aspx.
out in detail the rights of data protection and privacy as enforceable human rights”. Internet companies also made similar appeals; In 2007 Google called for the creation of “global privacy standards”. However, according to Bygrave, so far “there does not exist a truly global convention or treaty dealing specifically with data privacy”. The Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations (UN) in 20th November 1989. This convention has been ratified by 193 countries (excluding the USA, Somalia and South Sudan). Article 16 of the convention deals with the child’s right to privacy.

The UN issued its Guidelines concerning Computerized Personal Files In 1990. These guidelines take the form of a non-binding guidance document. The UN General Assembly has requested “governmental, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations to respect those guidelines in carrying out the activities within their field of competence”.

The OECD is an international organization based in Paris that deals with economic and social policy and currently has 34 member countries, including many EU member states, Canada and US. Discussions of privacy related issues began in the OECD in 1970, and culminated in publication of the OECD Privacy Guidelines in 1980. The Guidelines are a non-binding set of principles that member countries may enact.

While representing the industry, the Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB), a global organization with multinational members from the Forbs 500, holds the international ties so to speak, being the only one, but the UN and the OECD, to have this capacity thus influence.

An Interview with Senior Director of Policy at the (IAB) help to understand it role: “IAB Does not have a specific policy with regards to children privacy online and tend to be active when new regulation is suggested representing its members to provide feedback to the government. An example would be IAB providing industry feedback on COPPA when being reviewed”.

29 OECD Guidelines, Explanatory Memorandum, para. 25.
30 June 2014, On file with the Author.
Within global organization, the interaction is between the organization itself, the members of the organization and external entities as other global organizations, industry and interests groups. As there is common understanding that children’s privacy protection is a worthwhile cause, the main question is to what extent and using which measures the protection should be facilitated.

The parties to this interaction use formal as well as informal discussion, public pressure and persuasion to promote their position. The interactions character is one of cooperation but below the surface there is plenty of competition between the competing interests of the parties interacting. The effects of the interaction are two fold: on one hand the cooperation is promoting harmonization of the regulation on a global scale therefore promoting the regulation effectiveness, but on the other hand, the struggle between competing interests prevent progress in setting clear agenda, thus weakening the regulatory protection altogether.

It seems that the nature of the interactions does not change over time but the increase in awareness to the harms associate with privacy breaches as well as the industry progress in taking advantage of personal data as a commodity tend to create more understanding and consensus that the protection of children’s online privacy is vital.

3.2 The United States

The regulation of children’s privacy online in the USA is analyzed according to the following components: Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives and Formulating rules and norms. As this article deals with the macro federal and global level, states role is beyond its scope.

(i) Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives

The US constitution does not have an express grant of the right to privacy. Nonetheless, through a long line of cases, the US Supreme Court has established and recognized a number of privacy rights embedded in the Constitution First Amendment, 31 Fourth 32 and

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31 Amendments to the Constitution of the United States of America, http://www.gpo.gov/fdsys/pkg/GPO-CONAN-1992/pdf/GPO-CONAN-1992-7.pdf, “AMENDMENT [I.] - Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances”.

32 Id., “AMENDMENT [IV.] - The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized”.

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Fifth, Ninth Amendment, and in the "concept of liberty guaranteed by the first section of the Fourteenth Amendment." The Constitution and the Supreme Court are interacting. As the Constitution is a static factor (almost impossible to be amended), the Supreme Court through the cases brought before it, drive the interaction and shape it in its interpretation of the Constitution in the context of privacy. The Supreme Court is not free of political influence that in turn shape the said interaction. As the Constitution is mainly static, the mechanisms and pathways of the interaction are limited as well as the character of the interaction.

The interaction affects the regulatory capacity and performance in setting the principles of the scope of the regulation and the means allowed to be used in implementing and enforcing the regulation. The interaction itself does not tend to change over time as the Constitution is mainly static. Nonetheless, different Supreme Court judges allow different levels of interpretation.

(ii) Formulating rules and norms

In order to prevent Internet businesses from breaching the privacy rights of children, Congress enacted in 1998 the Children's Online Privacy and Protection Act ("COPPA"). The Federal Trade Commission ("FTC") is required by COPPA to create specific rules for the regulation of online collection of personal information from children under the age of 13 years old. In April 21, 2000 the Final Rule of the FTC's became effective and enforceable.

An Internet operator may be able to satisfy COPPA requirements by following alternative sets of self-regulatory guidelines that have been created by certain industry groups and self-regulatory programs known as "safe harbors." In order to become safe harbors, interested organizations must submit their self-regulatory guidelines to the FTC. The

33 Id., “AMENDMENT [V.] - No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation”.
34 “AMENDMENT [IX.] - The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people”.
40 Id.
41 Children's Online Privacy Protection Rule, 16 C.F.R. § 312.10(a) (2001).
42 Id., § 312.10(b).
FTC will then publish the interested organization suggested guidelines for public comment, and decide if the suggested guidelines meet the FTC’s Rule’s criteria. The safe harbor's guidelines must provide, "substantially similar requirements" that creates the same or better protections as the requirements detailed in COPPA.

The safe harbor's guidelines must also contain effective methods of independently assessing a website's compliance with the guidelines. The FTC has approved a number of safe harbors, including the Children's Advertising Review Unit of the Council of Better Business Bureaus (CARU), the Entertainment Software Rating Board (ESRB), and TRUSTe.

While Congress enacted COPPA and the FTC articulated its principles and administer it, other actors are involved in this regulatory interaction, mainly industry organizations like CARU and the ESRB through the ‘Safe Harbor’ option, online companies approaching children, parents and finally the children users.

The interactions in the context of the ‘Safe Harbors’ between the FTC and the industry organizations is driven by the FTC desire to allow self-regulation on one hand and the industry wish to self-regulate itself as a mean of avoiding ‘top-down’ regulation by the FTC. It would be reasonable to assume that the more informal interaction within this regulatory realm, i.e. between the FTC, industry, parents and children’s, are driven and shaped by the interests of each actor. Nonetheless it should be noted that parents and children interests are not necessarily identical as children strive for more engagement even at the price of their privacy, while parents take a more careful approach.

When it comes to the interaction between industry organizations administering the ‘safe harbors’ and the FTC, the mechanisms and pathways are, at least in principle, simple and clear. The ‘safe harbor’ is supposed to comply with COPPA and the FTC oversee the ‘safe harbor’ operators that in turn oversee the online companies for compliance. With the other actors as parents and children, the mechanisms and pathways are less clear and can take the form of advocacy groups and other informal dimensions.

The character of the interactions varies. Among the organizations providing ‘safe harbors’ and between it and the FTC there is an element of competition, as they all offer an option to comply with COPPA. However, at least on the surface, the dominant character of the interaction is one of coordination as all the parties manifested goal is to protect children’s privacy. The character of the interaction between parents and children and the rest of the actors, mainly the industry, can be defined as chaos, since forces, not always predictable, are pulling to different directions.

The effects of the interaction on the regulatory capacity and performance of actors in the given regulatory space is twofold. The interaction between the FTC and industry’s ‘safe harbors’ supposed to enhance regulatory capacity and performance, but may, at the same time, erode the capacity and performance of both interacting actors. This complex nexus may also occur when interacting with parents and children, pushing to opposite

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43 Id., § 312. 10(b)(2)(ii).
44 Id., § 312.10(b)(1).
45 Id., § 312.10(b)(2)(iv).
directions, thus creating confusion.

3.3 The European Union

The regulation of children’s privacy online in the EU is analyzed according to the following components: Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives and Formulating rules and norms. Each component is addressed using the framework six questions, as mentioned above. As this article deals with the macro federal and global level, member states role is beyond its scope.

(i) Framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives

Directive 2005/29 on unfair business-to-consumer commercial practices (“The UCP Directive”), one of the cornerstones of EU consumer policy, explicitly recognizes that children constitute a group of particularly vulnerable consumers deserving, as such, special protection.47

By referring to the age as a criterion for determining the impact of a commercial practice on consumers, the UCP Directive explicitly acknowledges that children-consumers deserve special protection. This special protection is confirmed by Point 28 of Annex I of the UCP Directive which provides that, “including in an advertisement a direct exhortation to children to buy advertised products or persuade their parents or other adults to buy advertised products for them”, is an unfair commercial practice and should therefore be prohibited.

It is only in the absence of more specific rules that UCP Directive applies.48 Specifically, in respect to advertising to children, Point 28 of the Annex explicitly states that it is “without prejudice to Directive 89/552”.

The Television Without Frontiers Directive (“The TVWF Directive”),49 has now been replaced by the Audiovisual Media Services Directive (“The AVMS Directive”).50 The TVWF Directive created binding minimum standards for all the Member States and contained provisions restricting the amount of advertising to which children were exposed.51

Nevertheless, television advertising to children was not altogether banned and restrictions imposed were unlikely to be effective in curbing significantly their exposure, except for tobacco products, as well as medicines and medical treatments available only on prescription, whose advertising was prohibited. The TVWF Directive suggested that children were perceived as particularly vulnerable, but the provisions relating to advertising to children were insufficient to alleviate the growing concerns associated with

48 See Article 3(4).
49 OJ 1989 L298/23.
50 OJ 2010 L95/1.
51 “Children's programmes, when their scheduled duration is less than 30 minutes, shall not be interrupted by advertising or by teleshopping” (Article 11 (5)).
the commercialization of childhood.

The EU was given a chance to re-assess its legislative framework during the revision process of the TVWF Directive by the AVMS Directive. The reform led to three major changes: the extension of the scope of the TVWF Directive to new media (i.e., the Internet); the extension of its scope to new marketing techniques (i.e., product placement); and the extension of its scope to new problems (i.e., food marketing).

As the AVMS Directive is a measure of minimum harmonization (as was the TVWF Directive), Member States are entitled to apply stricter requirements for audiovisual media service providers established on their territories.52

The privacy rights of minors are not mentioned explicitly in the Data Protection Directive 53 and the Electronic Communications Directive. 54 The Electronic Communications Directive set rules of privacy for the telecommunications industry that implementing principles from the Data Protection Directive.55 A reform to the Data Protection rules was suggested by the European Commission in 2012, to increase online privacy rights and enforce Europe’s “digital economy.”56

While the EU parliament is framing the regulatory agenda and setting objectives, in practice it is interacting with the member states, the EU Court and global organizations mentioned in the next section. The Directives formulation and its interpretation and harmonization are not done in a vacuum and influences by these interactions.

These interactions are driven and shaped by the parties interests, some of which correlating and some contrasting. For example, The EU parliament interest in harmonization can be contested by member states different perception of the subject matter.

The mechanisms and pathways of interaction are two fold: before and after the enactment of the Directives. Before the enactment of the Directives, the interacting parties are operating to influence the legislation and after the enactment, they are operating through interpretation of the legislation and the implementation of it. The interactions character is mainly of cooperation, however, with the different perception of the subject matter, competition becomes a dominant character.

The effects of the regulatory interaction on the regulatory capacity and performance of

52 Article 4 of the AVMS Directive states that “Member States shall remain free to require media service providers under their jurisdiction to comply with more detailed or stricter rules in the fields coordinated by this Directive provided that such rules are in compliance with Union law”.


actors depends on the specific interaction and the period in which it occurs. Influence of
industry, for example, on the formulation of the directive is different in its effect than the
interpretation of courts and member states after the Directive is affirmed. There is also a
difference between member states interpretation and the EU Court ruling as the former
relates to a specific member state while the former relates to all member states.

(ii) Formulating Rules and Norms

Modeled after the OECD principles, a main part of the Data Protection Directive, is the
strong restrictions on the transfer of EU residents’ data outside of the EU. Under these
restrictions, without an agreed solution, the EU-US trade would be drastically impacted.
Therefore, in 1998 negotiations has commenced between the US department of
Commerce (DOC) and the EU Commission with respect to the steps that could be taken
to avoid US businesses (which include most of the internet giants) from being cut off
from access to EU residents’ data.57

While the parties agreed that improvements in data protection were necessary, they were
divided with respect to the best solution. The US supported a solution suggested by a
FTC report finding that given the fluid, evolving nature of the “information economy,”
self-regulation by industry is the best method to achieve maximum protection with
minimal constraint on future development.58

The EU held the opposite extreme, arguing that anything less than comprehensive data
protection legislation was insufficient. During 1998 and into 1999, the DOC submitted
multiple proposed self-regulation schemes (referred to as “safe harbors”), all rejected by
the EU Working Party on the Protection of Individuals with Regard to the Processing of
Personal Data (Working Party), stating that it “deplore[] that most of the comments made in…previous position papers do not seem to be addressed in the latest version of the US
documents.”59

Nonetheless, By the summer of 2000, the DOC had worn down the Commission’s
resistance to agree to some form of self-regulation. According to Soma: 60 “With
extensive behind the scenes lobbying, and despite the strenuous objections of the
Working Party, the Commission issued a decision on July 26, 2000 confirming the
adequacy of the draft Safe Harbor proposal submitted by the DOC on July 21 of that
year”.61

57 Soma et al., supra note 55.
58 Id., at 298; For the text of the report, see FTC, Self-Regulation and Privacy Online: A Report to Congress
59 Working Party on the Protection of Individuals with Regard t the Processing of Personal Data, Opinion
7/99 on the Level of Data Protection Provided by the “Safe Harbor” Principles as Published together with the
Frequently Asked Questions and other Related Documents on 15 and 16 November 1999 by the US
60 Soma et al., supra note 55.
the Harbour Privacy Principles and Related Frequently Asked Questions Issued by the US Department of
The EU Commissioner and the US Department of Commerce are the primary actors in this interaction. Since all the major internet corporations are US based, the interaction is driven by this American dominance. The Commissioner is driven by interests of a more stricter regulation while the DOC tends towards a industry based self-regulation, similar to the safe harbors employed by COPPA.

While the formal mechanisms of these interactions are discussions and drafts submitted by the parties, it is clear that informal exchange and communication is an important part of this discussion. From the description of the interaction above, it is clear that the interaction character was one of competition, rather than cooperation as would be expected in this case.

4. Conclusions

Analyzing a regulatory field using Eberlein et. al analytic framework and focusing on the interactions between the regulatory entities, brings to mind Marshal McLuhan’s famous saying in the context of media ecology: ‘The Medium is the Message’. As it is the form in which the regulation is formulated, resulting from the competing forces driving the interacting parties involves, that sets the tone and by the end of the day determines the regulatory structure, the agenda, the rules and the compliance.

As illustrated in Diagram 3 – The Regulatory Interactions, the web of ties and influence are nothing but simple. It can be inferred that this global regulatory framework tends towards the industry being the leading global player supported by multinational corporations.
If we judge the influence of each interacting party by the web of ties and the amount of interaction it has with the other interacting parties involved, there is no doubt that there is a clear dominance of the industry, in this regulatory realm of children privacy protection online.

As said above, while other parties usually tends towards a stricter protection of children’s privacy online, the industry natural tendency would be to oppose too strict regulation since a large portion of its revenue is dependent on the use of children’s information as a commodity.

Therefore it is suggested to include an analysis of the regulatory interactions (e.g., using Eberlein et. al framework) when discussing new or amended regulatory measures in each one of the levels described in this article. This will allow a better understanding of the overall regulatory picture and may prevent a bias towards more powerful actors, as the industry.