

Blockchain and Data Protection

Tensions between blockchain technology and data protection principles

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Agenda (1/2)



1 Allocation of roles and responibilities under the GDPR

2 Data subject rights under the GDPR

- Principles of purpose limitation and data minimization vs blockchain finality
- 4 Techniques to mitigate data protection risks

Agenda (2/2)



5 Data Privacy Impact Assessment

6 Privacy by Design

7 Legal grounds under the GDPR

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1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (1/8)



1. Exhaustive list of roles under the GDPR:

- (Joint) controller, Art. 4 (7), Art. 26: "natural or legal person (...) which, alone or jointly with others, determines the purposes and means of the processing of personal data (...)" > similar to "business" under CCPA
- Processor, Art. 4 (8): "natural or legal person (…) which processes personal
 data on behalf of the controller" > similar to "service provider" under CCPA

2. The usual players in a blockchain environment:

- Miners
- Nodes
- Wallets
- Users
- Developers of smart contracts
- Oracles
- Governance bodies

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (2/8)



1. Miners

- Definition:
 - Mining is the act of solving a mathematic puzzle within the proof of consensus model based on the protocol as defined in the blockchain software (NIST)
 - Miners validate transactions to be added to the blockchain
- Legal implication:
 - Miners ≠ controllers ➤ not determine the specific purpose of any data processing activity
 - Miners ≠ processors ► not carry out specific services based on instructions of the controllers
 Note: The blockchain protocoll doesn't contain instructions as to how to deal with personal data written on a blockchain

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (3/8)



2. Nodes

- Definition:
 - Nodes are the decentralized computers that store a copy of the blockchain
 - Storing is an IT operation and cannot be linked to a decision-making process (controller)
- Legal implication:
 - Nodes ≠ controllers ≠ processors ► using the blockchain technology and participating in the blockchain network cannot be interpreted as a determination of the means and the purpose of a specific data processing activity ► belong to blockchain infrastructure

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (4/8)



3. Wallets

- Definition:
 - Wallets are software packages at the application level designed to store and manage asymetric keys and addresses used for transactions (NIST)
 - Allow blockchain users to control their own private key and to interact with the blockchain network by sending transactions to miners for validation purposes
- Legal implication:
 - Wallets ≠ controllers ≠ processors ► wallets are only the vehicel to pass data to miners ► this happens under the control of the blockchain users

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (5/8)



4. Users

- Definition:
 - Participate in any transaction in a blockchain network provided that such transaction stores or processes personal data
 - <u>CNIL</u>: User = controller when (i) the user is a **natural person**; and (ii) the processing is related to a **professional or commercial activity**; or, when the user is a **legal person that submitts personal data to a blockchain**
 - <u>EU Blockchain Observatory:</u> User = controller when the user submitts personal data to the blockchain as part of his business activity
- Legal implication:
 - Delineation from the household exemption of Art. 2 (2c) of the GDPR
 ▶ household/private activity ▶ GDPR doesn't apply ▶ user ≠ controller

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (6/8)



5. Developers of smart contracts

Definition:

- Smart contract is a piece of software that, once deployed to a blockchain network, may be executed independently from their developer when called by a blockchain user
- Developer creates an algorithm to be built in the software

Legal implication:

- <u>CNIL</u>: Developer has no role to play unless he intervenes in the data processing actively
- Developer only provide a software solution to blockchain users and don't operate that software while blockchain users write personal data to the blockchain leveraging the algorithm of the smart contract
- Developer ≠ controller ≠ processor

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (7/8)



6. Oracles

Definition:

- Oracles are agents that allow the transfer of external data feeds to the blockchain leveraging smart contracts
- Necessary to process external real-world events to be inputted onto the blockchain for further usage
- Oracles have a strong influence on the data processing operation and its result carried out by the smart contract algorithm

Legal implication:

- Oracles = controller if they have a commercial interest in the related data processing and the outcome of that data processing activity
- Requires case-by-case consideration
- Rule of thumb: Oracles belong to blockchain infrastructure

1. Allocation of roles and responsibilities (8/8)



7. Governance bodies

Definition:

- Only applicable in private blockchains
- Group of natural persons and/or legal entities tasked with monitoring blockchain transactions
- Defining the roles of the participants upfront

Legal implication:

- Governance body = controller if it has control over the processing of personal data by determining its purpose and means (usage of smart contract algorithms)
- Governance body may determine one participant to act as controller provided that participant is empowered to make decisions on behalf of the group. Other group members = processor or (joint-/co) controllers

2. Data subject rights under the GDPR (1/3)



- 1. How do data subject rights apply to the blockchain?
- a) Applicability of the GDPR
 - Once one block contains personal data and the block is added to the blockchain ► storage = data processing pursuant to Art. 4 sec. 2 of the GDPR
 - Data subject may exercise his rights pursuant to Art. 15 22 of the GDPR. **Problem: against whom?**
- b) Distinction between public and private blockchains in relation to enforcing data subject rights
 - Private blockchains: Governance body to be the first choice to address any data subject rights. Joint controllers according to Art. 26 of the GDPR
 - <u>Public blockchains:</u> Data subjects face a challenge to (i) identify the controller, and to (ii) get the controller to carry out his obligations

2. Data subject rights under the GDPR (2/3)



- 2. Factual enforceability of particular data subject rights
- a) Right to access personal data, Art. 15 GDPR
 - Basic right: prerequisite for the exercise of any other right under the GDPR
 - Necessary to understand which data is being processed and for what purpose
 - <u>Problem:</u> In a public blockchain a controller, once identified, is factually unable to access data submitted to the blockchain: data is typically encrypted or hashed; impossible to determine whether the related data is personal and relates to the data subject concerned
- b) Right to rectify personal data, Art. 16 GDPR
 - Right to request rectification of inaccurate personal data and to complete personal data which is incomplete
 - Problem: Impossibility to modify data registered onto a blockchain

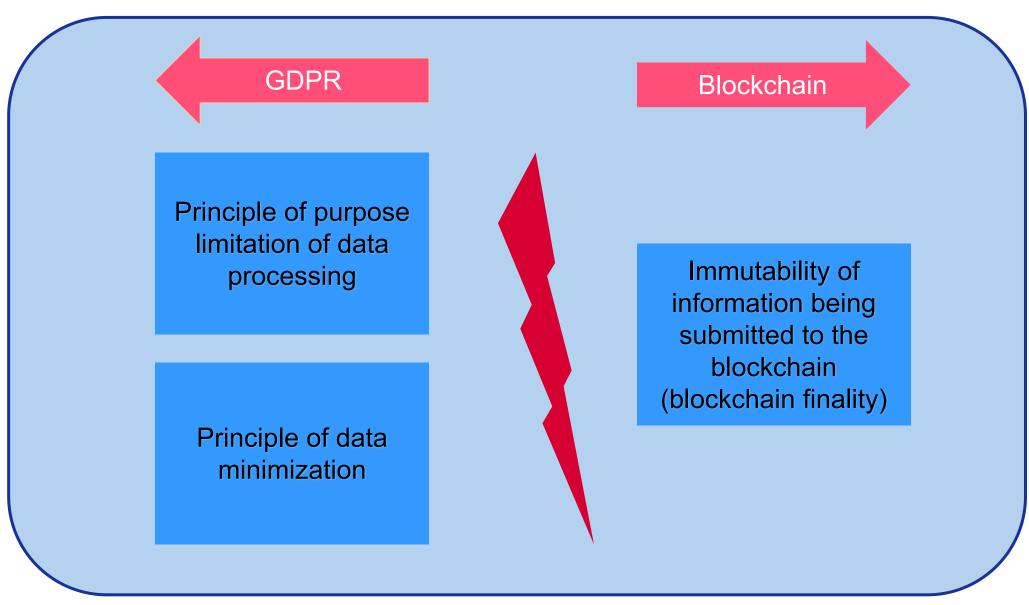
2. Data subject rights under the GDPR (3/3)



- c) Right to erasure ("right to be forgotten"), Art. 17 GDPR
- What does erasure mean?
 - Data subject may request the erasure of his/her personal data provided one of the conditions set out in Art. 17 sec. 1 GDPR applies
 - Erasure as a legal term is defined very broadly (e.g. expunge, overwriting, making data unusable)
 - <u>Problem:</u> Impossibility to delete data once registered onto the blockchain
 - <u>But:</u> This is not a Catch 22 situation since alternative solutions are permissible when the erasure is virtually not viable ▶ see *techniques to mitigate data protection risks*

3. Principles of purpose limitation and data minimization vs blockchain finality (1/3)





3. Principles of purpose limitation and data minimization vs blockchain finality (2/3)



1. Principle of purpose limitation

Definition:

- "Personal data shall be collected for specific, explicit and legitimate purposes and not further processed in a manner that is incompatible with those purposes" (Art. 5 sec. 1b GDPR) and "A business shall not (...) use personal information collected for additional purposes without providing the consumer with notice consistent with this section" (sec. 1798.100 (b) CCPA)
- Purpose limitation is the "cornerstone of data protection" (Art. 29 Data Protection Working Party [now: EDPB])

Legal implication on blockchain:

• Blockchain, by nature, continuously processes data by storing it onto the blockchain which also includes legacy personal data (data which is not needed any more, e.g. after completion of a particular transaction)

3. Principles of purpose limitation and data minimization vs blockchain finality (3/3)



2. Principle of data minimization

Definition:

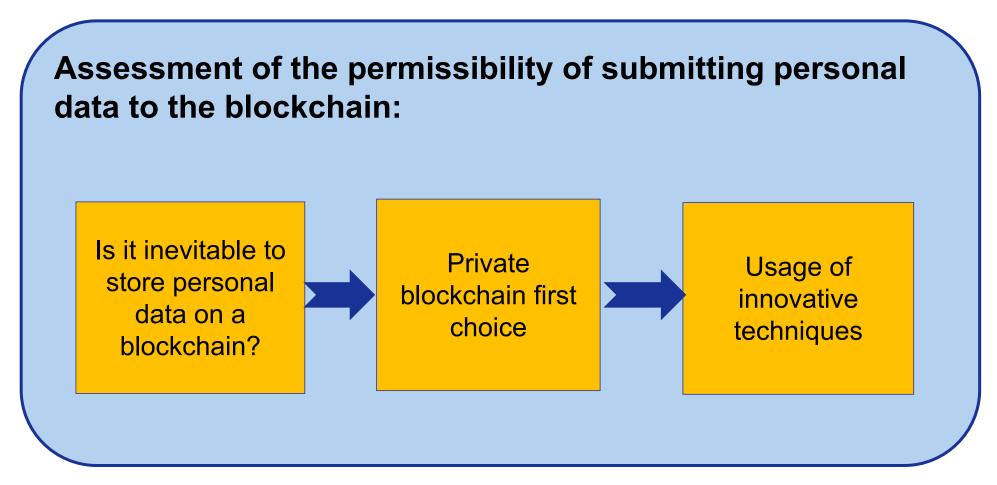
- Only those data which is necessary to meet the purpose determined by the controller must be collected and processed
- Period for which the personal data is being stored must be limited to a strict minimum (Recital 39 of the GDPR)

Legal implication on blockchain:

- Blockchain artefacts clash with the data minimization principle:
 - ► Ever-growing nature of databases containing personal data
 - ► Replication of data in a blockchain network where each node stores a full copy of the database

4. Techniques to mitigate data protection risks (1/5)





4. Techniques to mitigate data protection risks (2/5)



- Big picture: How is the data being processed and is there any need to store it on a blockchain? Offchain storage should be the first choice
- Usage of private blockchains as primary objective
- Usage of innovative encryption techniques, particularly with regard to public blockchains:
 - Anonymization as primary approach
 - If anonymization is not doable, state-of-the-art encryption, particularly hashing
 - Please note: Hashing is an encryption technique and does not entail anonymization ➤ Hashing does not turn personal data into non personal data ➤ GDPR applies

4. Techniques to mitigate data protection risks (3/5)



- Usage of interoperable blockchains ("multi-layered")
 - <u>Challenge:</u> Reconciling the storage of personal data which is not needed any more ("**legacy data**") and the principles of purpose limitation and data minimization
 - Removing legacy data from a private blockchain and transferring it to a public blockchain
 - Both blockchains are intertwined: the public blockchain links to the private blockchain
 - ► For real time data processing: private blockchain
 - ► For legacy data: public blockchain
 - Problem: Legacy data remain on the public blockchain ➤ data is being replicated and still visible
 - Result: Good instrument for safeguarding personal data, but not in line with the principles of purpose limitation and data minimization

4. Techniques to mitigate data protection risks (4/5)



- Off-chain storage and hashing of legacy data ("hashingout")
 - <u>Challenge:</u> Reconciling the storage of legacy data and the principles of purpose limitation and data minimization
 - Removing legacy data from the blockchain and storing it in an external off-chain database; linking personal data via hash point
 - Hashes of the personal data being put off-chain remain onto the blockchain
 - Problem: Hash remains on the blockchain and still qualifies as personal data
 - ► GDPR applies to on-chain hash values
 - ▶ Does hashing-out resolve the issue around the above principles and erasure requests?

4. Techniques to mitigate data protection risks (5/5)



- Erasure of personal data by deleting off-chain legacy data
 - Hashing-out and deleting legacy data comply with an erasure request even though the hash of the personal data remains on the blockchain
 - Rationale: ► The on-chain hash has nothing to relate to as soon as the corresponding personal data on the external off-chain database has been deleted; the hash becomes a random string with no meaning
 - ➤ A cryptographic hash function is a "one-way function": it is not possible to recreate or reverse engineer the original data from the hash function
 - ► Deletion of the off-chain legacy/reference data changes the legal nature of the hash value from personal data to non personal data
 - Result: Hashing-out is a technique to comply with the principles of purpose limitation and data minimization as well as with erasure requests

5. Data Privacy Impact Assessment



Definition and impact on controllers

- Controller has to carry out a DPIA pursuant to Art. 35 GDPR prior to the data processing operation if
 - ▶ new technologies are used
 - ► processing is likely to result in a high risk to the rights and freedoms of data subjects
- DPIA involves balancing the interests of the data controller against those of the data subjects, in particular:
 - description of the data processing and the purpose(s)
 - ► assessment of the necessity and proportionality of the processing in relation to the purpose
 - ▶ an assessment of the risks to the data subjects
 - ▶ the measures in place to address the risk identified

6. Privacy by Design (1/2)



1. Definition and impact on controllers

- CCPA and GDPR require businesses to adopt security protocols appropriate to safeguard collected personal information
- Art. 25 GDPR more specifically requires controllers to establish appropriate technical and organizational measures to implement data protection principles and to safeguard the rights of data subjects
 - ► controller must choose that technology from the outset with the least impact on the rights of data subjects
 - ▶ privacy considerations must be factored in at the earliest possible stage
 - ► controller has to implement measures to ensure minimization of the data to be processed as well as security (e.g. pseudonymization, encryption)

6. Privacy by Design (2/2)



2. Legal implication on blockchain

- Controller should follow the sequence of assessing the permissibility of submitting personal data to the blockchain (see chart above)
- Usage of state-of-the-art encryption techniques whenever on-chain storage of personal data is inevitable (ultima ratio!)
 - ► controller should register personal data and hash or, at least, encrypt the data (CNIL as of Nov 6, 2018)

3. Potential use cases in the industry

- <u>Health sector:</u> Record and authenticate medical data and customize its use for other parties (e.g. personalized medicine, data sharing for public health research) ▶ dealing with sensitive (health) data implies that strong privacy mechanisms must be put in place ▶ need to conduct both DPDD and DPIA
- <u>Crypto currencies:</u> Adding additional layers of privacy to the transactional information (identity of blockchain users is obfuscated)

7. Legal grounds under the GDPR



1. Contractual necessity, Art. 6 (1)(b) GDPR

- Processing necessary for the performance of a contract
- Relevant regarding smart contracts

2. Consent, Art. 6 (1)(a) GDPR

- Data subject has given consent to the processing of his or her data for one or more specific purposes
- Consent can be withdrawn by the data subject at any time
- Unclear to whom the user must give consent in a blockchain context

3. Legitimate interest, Art. 6 (1)(f) GDPR

- Processing necessary for the purposes of the legitimate interests pursued by the controller or by a third party
- Submitting of personal data to a blockchain is legitimate if, e.g., the processing activity aims to prevent frauds (Recital 47 of the GDPR)
- 4. Compliance with legal obligation, Art. 6 (1)(c) GDPR and public interest, Art. 6 (1)(e) GDPR

8. Key Take Aways



It is just technology

Law is technology neutral

Tensions with GDPR can be overcome

Usage of stateof-the-art encryption is key

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Carry out PIA and DPDD

Private blockchain first

Track guidance of data protection authorities

Question & Answer

Thank you!

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