

Journal of Law and Technology at Texas



Volume 3 2019-2020 Pages 1-101

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First printing, 2019.

www.jolttx.com

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Volume 3, Part 1

THE EMPIRES STRIKE BACK: REASSERTION OF TERRITORIAL REGULATION IN
CYBERSPACE

PAYOLA 3.0? THE RISE OF INTERNET “PLAYOLA”

AND

SMART HOME TECHNOLOGY: ABUSERS ADAPT TO TECHNOLOGY QUICKER
THAN LAWS DO

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THE EMPIRES STRIKE BACK: REASSERTION OF TERRITORIAL REGULATION IN CYBERSPACE

Jon M. Garon*

“Cyberpower is now a fundamental fact of global life. In political, economic, and military affairs, information and information technology provide and support crucial elements of operational activities.” — Franklin D. Kramer, *Cyberpower and National Security*¹

In cyberspace, as it was throughout the world, the most dominant political trend of 2018 was the rise of populism. Populist trends tend to be isolationist, nationalistic, and antagonistic to free trade and the free movement of capital. While analysts do not typically ascribe an anti-technology sentiment to the populist movement, much of the cyberspace technologies are controlled by U.S. multinational corporations.

The dominance of several U.S. technology companies has shifted Internet and Cyberspace regulatory policy to the forefront of battles over globalization and trade between the U.S. and China as well as the U.S. and Europe. These companies have triggered protectionist legislation throughout Europe and Asia, and their lax privacy protections have triggered additional regulation within the U.S. at the state level.

Because some of the government regulation is designed to enhance military readiness, it also serves to propel a populist agenda to promote greater militarization, which extends into cyberspace. This raises concerns regarding state-sponsored cyberterrorism and the march toward autonomous, networked cyber and kinetic weaponry that may have horrific consequences. These trends, along with the continued expansion of criminal cyberattacks, increased identity theft, and the continued expansion of

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¹ CYBERPOWER AND THE LAW 1 (Franklin D. Kramer, Stuart H. Starr & Larry K. Wentz eds., 2009).

corrosive, hate-filled social media sources, define the shifts in cyberspace policy and practice. This review highlights the recent trends and influences on cyber law with the aim to anticipate key issues that will shape the coming year.

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I. INTRODUCTION.

Both in cyberspace and throughout the world, the most dominant political trend of 2018 was the rise of populism.² Populist leaders “tapped into a backlash against immigration and a globalized economy that many people feel has left them behind.”³ Populist trends tend to be isolationist, nationalistic, and antagonistic to free trade and the free movement of capital.⁴ While analysts do not typically ascribe an anti-technology sentiment to the populist movement, much of the cyberspace technologies are controlled by the U.S. oligopoly that includes Apple, Microsoft, Facebook, Amazon, Netflix, and Alphabet’s Google, sometimes referred to as the FAAMG companies⁵ or FANG companies.⁶ The dominance of these U.S. companies has shifted Internet and cyberspace regulatory policy to the forefront of battles over globalization and trade between the U.S. and China as well as the U.S. and Europe.⁷

The political tailwinds propelling domestic populism have also pushed for greater limits on global companies. As a result, a political distrust of the FAAMG/FANG oligopoly has suddenly created some

² See generally Ronald F. Inglehart & Pippa Norris, *Trump, Brexit, and the Rise of Populism: Economic Have-Nots and Cultural Backlash*, (Harv. Kennedy Sch., Working Paper No. RWP16-026, 2016) <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2818659>.

³ Marc Champion, *The Rise of Populism*, BLOOMBERG (Jan. 21, 2019), <https://www.bloomberg.com/quicktake/populism>.

⁴ See Angelos Chryssogelos, *Populism in Foreign Policy*, OXFORD RESEARCH ENCYCLOPEDIAS (July 2017) <http://oxfordre.com/politics/view/10.1093/acrefore/9780190228637.001.0001/acrefore-9780190228637-e-467>.

⁵ Will Kenton, *FAAMG Stocks*, INVESTOPEDIA (Mar. 6, 2018), <https://www.investopedia.com/terms/f/faamg-stocks.asp#ixzz5VwTdxahs> (“FAAMG is an abbreviation coined by Goldman Sachs for five top-performing tech stocks in the market, namely, Facebook, Amazon, Apple, Microsoft, and Alphabet’s Google.”).

⁶ Will Kenton, *FANG Stocks*, INVESTOPEDIA (Mar. 18, 2019), <https://www.investopedia.com/terms/f/fang-stocks-fb-amzn.asp#ixzz5VwU13A1T> (“FANG is the acronym for four high-performing technology stocks in the market as of 2017 – Facebook, Amazon, Netflix and Google (now Alphabet, Inc.)”).

⁷ See Robert Hackett, *Cyber Saturday—A CEO-Felling Privacy Bill, Facebook Ad Scandals, Chinese Spy Charges*, FORTUNE (Nov. 3, 2018), <http://fortune.com/2018/11/03/consumer-data-privacy-bill-wyden-facebook-ad-china-spy-charges/>; Simon Johnson, *Opinion: Should Facebook be more tightly regulated?*, MARKETWATCH (Apr. 9, 2018), <https://www.marketwatch.com/story/should-facebook-uber-and-other-tech-companies-be-more-tightly-regulated-2018-03-31>.

movement at the state level to regulate the power of these companies in the marketplace.⁸ Columbia law professor Tim Wu captures the essence of this distrust, stating that “we must not forget the economic origins of totalitarianism, that ‘massively concentrated economic power, or state intervention induced by that level of concentration, is incompatible with liberal, constitutional democracy.’”⁹

Unfortunately, the growing fears of totalitarianism parallel earlier trends toward greater cyberspace militarization, increasing concerns around state-sponsored cyberterrorism, and a continued march toward autonomous, networked cyber and kinetic weaponry that may have negative consequences. These trends, along with a growing rate of criminal cyberattacks, increased identity theft, and the continued expansion of corrosive, hate-filled social media sources, make up the 2019 year in review for cyberspace.

There is a growing recognition of the militarization of cyberspace and the impact caused by the expansion of cyberspace beyond the Internet through network-connected devices, autonomous technologies, and artificial intelligence.¹⁰ While this trend continues, 2018 saw the expansion of regulation of cyberspace as a trend that characterized the most comprehensive pattern of the past year.

This review highlights the recent political trends and influences on cyber law with a hope to anticipate the key issues that will shape the future of cyberspace and society.

⁸ See, e.g., Brian Barrett, *What would Regulating Facebook Look Like*, WIRED (Mar. 21, 2018), <https://www.wired.com/story/what-would-regulating-facebook-look-like/>; Tony Romm, *Why a Crackdown on Facebook, Google and Twitter Could Come From the States Before Congress*, WASH. POST (Mar. 2, 2018), https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/the-switch/wp/2018/03/02/as-d-c-sits-on-the-sidelines-these-states-are-looking-to-regulate-facebook-google-and-twitter/?utm_term=.8ca879c42082. See also Tim Wu, *Be Afraid of Economic ‘Bigness.’ Be Very Afraid*, N.Y. TIMES, (Nov. 10, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/11/10/opinion/sunday/fascism-economy-monopoly.html> (noting “we have allowed unhealthy consolidations of hospitals ... the pharmaceutical industry; accepted an extraordinarily concentrated banking industry, [and] despite its repeated misfeasance failed to prevent firms like Facebook from buying up their most effective competitors... There is a direct link between concentration and the distortion of democratic process.”).

⁹ Wu, *supra* note 8 (quoting lawyer and consumer advocate Robert Pitofsky).

¹⁰ See Jon M. Garon, *Cyber World War III: Origins*, J. L. & CYBER WARFARE (forthcoming 2019), <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3078327>.

II. THE CURRENT CYBER APPROACH: FOREIGN REGULATORS LEVERAGE ANTITRUST AND DATA PRIVACY LAWS TO ADVANCE PROTECTIONISM.

EU regulators are engaging in protectionist activity by enforcing antitrust laws and structuring privacy laws to reduce value of customer data for business intelligence. In particular, these regulators are enforcing non-traditionally cyber laws to limit FAAMG companies' reach and to promote EU protectionism.

a. EU Domestic Protectionism Under Antitrust Laws.

Recently, EU regulators have engaged in economic warfare with FAAMG companies by leveraging existing antitrust laws and enacting new privacy laws in the cyber context. For example, in July 2018, EU regulators fined Google a record \$5.1 (€4.34) billion for illegally tying features of Google Chrome to Google's Android operating system in contravention of EU antitrust laws.¹¹ Specifically, regulators found that Google had violated EU antitrust laws when the company:

- required manufacturers to pre-install the Google Search app and browser app (Chrome) as a condition for licensing Google's app store (the Play Store);
- made payments to certain large manufacturers and mobile network operators on condition that they exclusively pre-installed the Chrome app on their devices; and
- prevented manufacturers from pre-installing Google apps on mobile devices that also ran alternative versions of Google's Android operating system (i.e., "Android forks").¹²

EU Commissioner Margrethe Vestager, who prosecuted the case, stated that "Google has used Android as a vehicle to cement the dominance

¹¹ European Commission Press Release IP/18/4581, Antitrust: Commission Fines Google €4.34 Billion For Illegal Practices Regarding Android Mobile Devices To Strengthen Dominance Of Google's Search Engine (July 18, 2018).

¹² *Id.*

of its search engine. These practices have denied rivals the chance to innovate and compete on the merits. They have denied European consumers the benefits of effective competition in the important mobile sphere.”¹³

In addition to pursuing a protectionist agenda through antitrust law, EU regulators also seek to regulate FAAMG’s content. For example, the EU conditioned expansion of Netflix and Amazon streaming services to include minimum quotas of 30% European content on their platforms.¹⁴ The plan is awaiting approval by the EU Parliament and the member states.¹⁵ The plan also requires expanded content control, which will impact video-sharing platforms that have weak content control regarding violence or obscenity. “Online platforms will need to create a ‘transparent, easy-to-use and effective mechanism to allow users to report or flag content’ [Google and Facebook, in particular] will also have to take measures against content ‘inciting violence, hatred and terrorism.’”¹⁶

Record regulatory fines and increasing content restrictions reflect a pattern of cyber regulation. The EU also fined Google \$2.7 billion the prior year for favoring its shopping service.¹⁷ EU Commissioner Margrethe Vestager is now investigating whether Amazon is leveraging data from the retailers it hosts on its site to undercut those retailers price points.¹⁸ In a similar investigation, Vestager is also investigating anti-competition concerns regarding Apple’s acquisition of Shazam and its ability to use Shazam data to unfairly promote Apple music.¹⁹

¹³ *Id.*

¹⁴ See Julia Fioretti, *EU Strikes Deal Forcing Netflix, Amazon To Fund European Content*, REUTERS (Apr. 26, 2018), <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-eu-media/eu-strikes-deal-forcing-netflix-amazon-to-fund-european-content-idUSKBN1HX2M2>.

¹⁵ *Id.*

¹⁶ *Id.*

¹⁷ See Adam Satariano & Jack Nicas, *E.U. Hits Google With Record Fine In Software Case*, N.Y. TIMES (July 19, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/07/18/technology/google-eu-android-fine.html> (“Competitors said that after Google was fined €2.4 billion, or \$2.7 billion, in an antitrust case last year for favoring its comparison-shopping service in search results, the company sidestepped the rules.”).

¹⁸ Sara Salinas, *Amazon Hit By EU Antitrust Probe*, CNBC (Sept. 19 2018), <https://www.cnbc.com/2018/09/19/eu-probing-amazons-use-of-data-on-third-party-merchants.html>.

¹⁹ Anita Balakrishnan, *Apple’s Deal For Shazam Draws ‘In-Depth Investigation’ From Europe*, CNBC (April 23, 2018), <https://www.cnbc.com/2018/04/23/european-commission-announces-in-depth-investigation-into-apples-shazam-deal.html>.

In contrast to Europe’s veil of regulatory fairness that masks its domestic protectionism, India has been more forthright in its protectionist legislation against U.S. retailers including Amazon and Walmart.²⁰ The policies bar “the American companies from selling products supplied by affiliated companies on their Indian shopping sites and from offering their customers special discounts or exclusive products.”²¹ These regulations targeted at online retail are part of a broader protectionist pattern in India that has also targeted financial firms, data retention, and other aspects of the technology industries.²² The movements in Asia and Europe echo the protectionist approach of the current U.S. administration, and reflect a general global shift back to protectionist regulations and me-first policies.²³

b. EU Domestic Protectionism Under Privacy Laws.

In Europe, the direct economic fines, investigations, and regulatory attacks on U.S. technology companies under antitrust law is buoyed by a strident new approach to privacy law that is structured to reduce the value of customer information for business intelligence. According to the EU, the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) “is the most important change in data privacy regulation in 20 years. The regulation will fundamentally reshape the way in which data is handled across every sector, from healthcare to banking and beyond.”²⁴ An EU-published brochure on the GDPR highlights the competitive agenda of the law, stating, “European rules on European soil: companies based outside the EU must apply the same rules as European companies when offering their goods or services to individuals in the EU.”²⁵

²⁰ See Vinu Goel, *India Curbs Power of Amazon and Walmart to Sell Products Online*, N.Y. TIMES (Dec. 26, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/12/26/technology/india-amazon-walmart-online-retail.html>.

²¹ *Id.*

²² *Id.*

²³ See Matthew Lee, *AP Analysis: Other Nations Adjust to ‘America First’ Policy*, ASSOCIATED PRESS (Sept. 21, 2018), <https://www.apnews.com/93c62e82b68b4561b0dfe40b5dc0e641> (“In his first several months, Trump withdrew from a trans-Pacific trade deal, the Paris climate accord and pulled the U.S. out of the U.N.’s science, educational and cultural organization.”).

²⁴ EU GDPR, <https://eugdpr.org/> (last visited Mar. 25, 2019).

²⁵ Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers (EC), *The GDPR: New Opportunities, New Obligations: What Every Business Needs to Know About the EU’s General Data*

In May 2018, the GDPR went into effect. Within the first day, large technology companies, like Google, Instagram, WhatsApp, and Facebook, have been sued and face more than \$8 billion (EUR 7 billion) in fines.²⁶ For example, Ireland’s Data Protection Commission has sought a \$1.63 billion fine against Facebook for its data breaches and its alleged failure to put proper protections in place.²⁷

The GDPR effect is multifold, offering EU residents enhance privacy protection and increasing international barriers to entry.²⁸ “[T]he statute itself suggests another set of stakeholders: litigants, non-profit organizations, data protection professionals, and data regulatory authorities.”²⁹

As one GDPR guide explains, “on the face of it, the GDPR is quite a terrifying prospect.”³⁰ The guide states that the GDPR was motivated to keep the EU “at the forefront of the modern information economy while creating a ‘level-playing field’ among the member countries of the EU.”³¹

As an alternative to pure-protectionist motivations for GDPR, some European historians trace the origins of heightened EU data protection to the adoption of Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights (“ECHR”) in 1953.³² Another view posits that the European value of privacy stems from the government-led prosecution of Jews during World War II.³³ Regardless of the origins of the European privacy right, the impact

Protection Regulation (May 25, 2018), *The GDPR: New Opportunities, New Obligations*, https://ec.europa.eu/commission/sites/beta-political/files/data-protection-factsheet-sme-obligations_en.pdf.

²⁶ Chris A. Denhart, *New European Union Data Law GDPR Impacts are Felt by Largest Companies: Google, Facebook*, FORBES (May 25, 2018), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/chrisdenhart/2018/05/25/new-european-union-data-law-gdpr-impacts-are-felt-by-largest-companies-google-facebook/#704f2f7f4d36>.

²⁷ See Sam Schechner, *Facebook Faces Potential \$1.63 Billion Fine in Europe Over Data Breach*, W. S. J. (Sept. 30, 2018, 2:08 PM), <https://www.wsj.com/articles/facebook-faces-potential-1-63-billion-fine-in-europe-over-data-breach-1538330906>.

²⁸ See generally Roslyn Layton & Julian McLendon, *The GDPR: What It Really Does and How the U.S. Can Chart A Better Course*, 19 FEDERALIST SOC’Y REV. 234 (2018).

²⁹ *Id.*

³⁰ ALAN CALDER, *EU GDPR: A POCKET GUIDE, SCHOOL’S EDITION 2* (2018).

³¹ *Id.* at 3.

³² *Id.* at 10 (“Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.”).

³³ See, e.g., Olivia Waxman, *The GDPR Is Just the Latest Example of Europe’s Caution on Privacy Rights. That Outlook Has a Disturbing History*, TIME (May 24, 2018),

has been that EU regulations tend to focus on preventing exploitation by private parties rather than limiting state authority.³⁴

The impact of the GDPR is to strengthen the power of the individual to control the private use of their data and the power of nonprofit organizations to take collective action against the holders of the data.³⁵ Although the GDPR is sometimes characterized as a consumer-protection law, the regulation is structured as a trade regulation designed to reduce the power of the holder of large data sets.³⁶ The new regulation has very explicit guidance on the processing of personal information:³⁷

1. Processing³⁸ shall be lawful only if and to the extent that at least one of the following applies:
 - (a) the data subject has given consent to the processing of his or her personal data for one or more specific purposes;
 - (b) processing is necessary for the performance of a contract to which the data subject is party or in order to take steps

<http://time.com/5290043/nazi-history-eu-data-privacy-gdpr/> (noting that during the 1930s, German census workers collected information on residents' nationalities, native language, religion and profession, and some historians believe IBM-subsidiary manufactured Hollerith machines were used to process this information and identify Jews).

³⁴ Bob Sullivan, *'La Difference' Is Stark In EU U.S. Privacy Laws*, NBC NEWS (Oct. 19, 2006, 11:19 AM), http://www.nbcnews.com/id/15221111/ns/technology_and_science-privacy_lost/t/la-difference-stark-eu-us-privacy-laws/#.W_V3WOhKiUk (arguing that the difference in EU and U.S. privacy laws stems from basic premise that Europeans have a deep distrust for corporations and Americans are concerned with governmental privacy invasion).

³⁵ Council Regulation 2016/679, of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 April 2016 On The Protection Of Natural Persons With Regard To The Processing Of Personal Data And On The Free Movement Of Such Data, And Repealing Directive 95/46/EC (General Data Protection Regulation), arts. 78–79, 82, 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 80–81 [hereinafter “Council Regulation 2016/679”].

³⁶ See Layton, *supra* note 28 at 234, 236.

³⁷ Council Regulation 2016/679, arts. 1–3, 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 32–33.

³⁸ Council Regulation 2016/679, art. 4(2), 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 36 (defining “Processing” as “any operation or set of operations which is performed on personal data or on sets of personal data, whether or not by automated means, such as collection, recording, organisation, structuring, storage, adaptation or alteration, retrieval, consultation, use, disclosure by transmission, dissemination or otherwise making available, alignment or combination, restriction, erasure or destruction . . .”).

at the request of the data subject prior to entering into a contract;

- (c) processing is necessary for compliance with a legal obligation to which the controller is subject;
- (d) processing is necessary in order to protect the vital interests of the data subject or of another natural person;
- (e) processing is necessary for the performance of a task carried out in the public interest or in the exercise of official authority vested in the controller;
- (f) processing is necessary for the purposes of the legitimate interests pursued by the controller or by a third party, except where such interests are overridden by the interests or fundamental rights and freedoms of the data subject which require protection of personal data, in particular where the data subject is a child.

Point (f) of the first subparagraph shall not apply to processing carried out by public authorities in the performance of their tasks.³⁹

The definition of “consent” in the GDPR is much more restrictive than in the U.S. Under the GDPR, consent means “any freely given, specific, informed and unambiguous indication of the data subject’s wishes by which he or she, by a statement or by a clear affirmative action, signifies agreement to the processing of personal data relating to him or her.”⁴⁰ Informed consent requires that the data subject be, at minimum, aware of the controller’s identity and the intended purposes of processing the personal data.⁴¹ The GDPR Preamble states, “Consent should not be regarded as freely given if the data subject has no genuine or free choice or is unable to refuse or withdraw consent without detriment.”⁴² In this way, the focus is on the trade regulation of the data holder much more than the autonomy of the individual who has data in the dataset.

In practice, this eliminates services exclusively offered to end-users who consent to data reuse, and all-or-nothing terms of service agreements. However, if the data or processing is required to provide the service, it is not subject to this general rule. For example, a consumer can use a map

³⁹ Council Regulation 2016/679, art. 6, 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 36–37.

⁴⁰ Council Regulation 2016/679, art. 4. 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 33.

⁴¹ Council Regulation 2016/679, recital (42), 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 8.

⁴² *Id.*

function without consenting to the use of tracking GPS information, but the software could not provide the user his or her location on the map without the GPS turned on. Marketing, advertising, and consumer demographic information are generally unrelated to the function of a company's services, so they cannot be required under the terms of service.⁴³

The GDPR overrides the notion of contractual consent by altering the terms through which a contract can be formed.⁴⁴ This operates in stark contrast to the multitude of "clickwrap" decisions in the U.S.,⁴⁵ which have

⁴³ *Id.* at recital (43).

⁴⁴ See Lisa V. Zivkovic, *The Alignment Between the Electronic Communications Privacy Act and the European Union's General Data Protection Regulation: Reform Needs to Protect the Data Subject*, 28 *TRANSNAT'L L. & CONTEMP. PROBS.* 189, 211 (2018) (discussing the GDPR restrictions on lawful processing to six bases, which ultimately increases previous consent standards).

⁴⁵ See, e.g., *Hancock v. AT&T Co.*, 701 F.3d 1248, 1255 (10th Cir. 2012) (stating "Clickwrap is a commonly used term for agreements requiring a computer user to 'consent to any terms or conditions by clicking on a dialog box on the screen in order to proceed with [a] . . . transaction.'" (citing *Feldman v. Google, Inc.*, 513 F.Supp.2d 229, 236 (E.D.Pa. 2007))); see *Treiber & Staub, Inc. v. United Parcel Serv., Inc.*, 474 F.3d 379, 385 (7th Cir. 2007) (stating "one cannot accept a contract and then renege based on one's own failure to read it," in reference to contract dispute between plaintiff-jeweler and defendant-shipper); *Serrano v. Cablevision Sys. Corp.*, 863 F.Supp.2d 157, 164 (E.D.N.Y. 2012) (stating that "'Clickwrap' contracts are enforceable under New York law as long as the consumer is given a sufficient opportunity to read the end-user license agreement, and assents thereto after being provided with an unambiguous method of accepting or declining the offer."); *DeJohn v. The TV Corp. Int'l*, 245 F. Supp. 2d 913, 919 (C.D. Ill. 2003) (stating that because the plaintiff had the opportunity to review the terms of the defendant's agreement, "failure to read a contract is not a get out of jail free card.") (applying New York law); Ronald J. Mann & Travis Siebeneicher, *Just One Click: The Reality of Internet Retail Contracting*, 108 *COLUM. L. REV.* 984, 990 (2008) (noting that clickwrap forms with (1) terms within a frame that the user must scroll to get to a button that must be checked to proceed, and (2) terms within a frame and button outside and below that must be checked to proceed, "are largely accepted as forcing assent to all the terms included in the contract . . ."); Juliet M. Moringiello & William L. Reynolds, *Survey of the Law of Cyberspace: Electronic Contracting Cases 2005-2006*, 62 *BUSINESS LAWYER* 195, 201-03 (2006); Mark A. Lemley, *Terms of Use*, 91 *MINN. L. REV.* 459, 472-75 (2006) (discussing various cases where courts have enforced browsewrap licenses against businesses). *But see* *Specht v. Netscape Commc'ns Corp.*, 306 F.3d 17, 28-32 (2d Cir. 2002) (concluding that when consumers are urged to download free software through a single button click, reference to existing license terms

shifted the bargaining power between two contractual parties for specific types of goods and services.

The greatest change triggered by GDPR may be its extraterritorial effect. “The GDPR aspires to a broad jurisdictional reach, and it is intended to cover any company, anywhere in the world, with an online presence that ‘monitors the behavior’ of EU data subjects.”⁴⁶ The regulation provides for the protection of EU data subjects’ data in any country where the data is found, with substantial fines for noncompliance.⁴⁷

In practice, the GDPR will impact all companies, including FAAMG, that engage in business involving EU citizens’ data. Specifically, Article 3(2) states the intended jurisdiction:

This Regulation applies to the processing of personal data of data subjects who are in the Union by a controller or processor not established in the Union, where the processing activities are related to:

- (a) the offering of goods or services, irrespective of whether a payment of the data subject is required, to such data subjects in the Union; or
- (b) the monitoring of their behaviour as far as their behaviour takes place within the Union.⁴⁸

GDPR regulations present many challenges to U.S. companies. These tend to fall into three broad categories: (1) disparity in international data regulations, (2) greater consequence of data breaches, and (3) conflict in U.S. and EU constitutional principles.

First, the usage of the data will be more restricted under EU regulation than its U.S. counterpart.⁴⁹ Individuals in corporate data systems will have a much greater right to opt out of those databases, to receive much clearer and more detailed information about the use of one’s information,

on a non-obvious sub-screen is insufficient to place consumers on constructive notice) (applying California law).

⁴⁶ Kurt Wimmer, *Free Expression and EU Privacy Regulation: Can the GDPR Reach U.S. Publishers*, 68 SYRACUSE L. REV. 547, 549 (2018).

⁴⁷ See Council Regulation 2016/679, arts. 82–83, 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 82-83 (discussing fines for non-compliance).

⁴⁸ *Id.* at recital (23).

⁴⁹ *Id.* at art. 6. See also Paul M. Schwartz & Karl-Nikolaus Peifer, *Transatlantic Data Privacy Law*, 106 GEO. L.J. 115, 179 (2017).

and to require that generalized usage provisions are not used as a pretext for undisclosed third-party transfers of information.⁵⁰

Second, the epidemic of data theft, ransomware, and disruption caused by external data breaches and internal employee misconduct may have a greater consequence for the corporate owners of the data and a higher cost for the response to each data breach.⁵¹ Regulators application may also extend liability under GDPR to data security, data storage, and data-breach notification contractors who are involved in the breach.⁵²

Third, and conceptually most challenging, is that GDPR restrictions may conflict with the U.S. fundamental right of free speech. Our constitutional right in free speech grates against EU fundamental notions of privacy, like the right to be forgotten.⁵³ Even Great Britain has not been amused. During testimony about the right to be forgotten, Minister for Justice and Civil Liberties, Simon Hughes, stated that “[a]nything that is impractical, impossible and undeliverable is a nonsense, and we should not countenance it.”⁵⁴ Although this conflict may not be the most financially

⁵⁰ Council Regulation 2016/679, arts. 6–7, 2016 O.J. (L 119) 1, 46.

⁵¹ See Jane E. Kirtley & Scott Memmel, *Rewriting the “Book of the Machine”*: *Regulatory and Liability Issues for the Internet of Things*, 19 MINN. J. L. SCI. & TECH. 455, 498 (2018) (stating “the GDPR requires that data breaches be reported if personal data is involved, such as in DDoS and ransomware cyberattacks. Companies dealing with personal data must be able to identify and deal with security breaches, in addition to creating a mandatory notification system . . .”).

⁵² *Id.*; see also *Internet of Things Privacy: What GDPR Means for IoT Data*, LANNER (Oct. 20, 2017), <https://www.lanner-america.com/knowledgebase/iot/internet-things-privacy-gdpr-iot-data-protection/> (discussing liability under GDPR for breaches of IoT data).

⁵³ See e.g., Case C-131/12, *Google Spain SL v. Agencia Española de Protección de Datos*, 2014 EUR-Lex CELEX, ¶. 98 (May 13, 2014) (discussing instances where data subject may be entitled to have sensitive private information, like a decades-old auction related to social security debt, unlinked from his name); see also Michael J. Kelly & David Satola, *The Right to Be Forgotten*, 2017 U. ILL. L. REV. 1, 3 (2017) (defining the “right to be forgotten” as “the right of an individual to erase, limit, or alter past records that can be misleading, redundant, anachronistic, embarrassing, or contain irrelevant data associated with the person, likely by name, so that those past records do not continue to impede present perceptions of that individual.”).

⁵⁴ EUROPEAN UNION COMM., *EU DATA PROTECTION LAW: A ‘RIGHT TO BE FORGOTTEN’?*, 2014 HL 40, ¶37 (UK) (citing Rt Hon Simon Hughes MP, Minister for Justice and Civil Liberties, 9 Jul. 2014 Parl Deb HL (2014) Q38,

significant, it reflects the stark divide between EU and U.S. policies and political histories.

GDPR and the related right to be forgotten may have had implications in the British EU referendum (Brexit). For example, news outlet Information Age noted additional debates on “how Brexit would impact the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), which encompasses a number of data protection laws including Google’s ‘Right to be Forgotten.’”⁵⁵ As the final deadlines for Brexit loom, the extraterritoriality of the GDPR provides some answers while the lack of a Brexit agreement fuels additional uncertainty.

III. TERRITORIALITY BEYOND THE GDPR: REGULATORY AND RESTRICTIVE APPROACHES.

The consequence for U.S. companies with European customers on these three areas of data hygiene will be profound, if not transformative. More important than the specifics of the regulatory compliance, however, are the implications to territoriality itself. GDPR provides an existential proof of concept that territorial boundaries can be drawn around the movement of information.⁵⁶ When these techniques are adopted by more totalitarian regimes, however, the potential for significant global tension will become apparent.

As states learn to reassert territorial controls over Internet content and extraterritorial controls over multinational corporations doing business in their territories or among their citizens, the ability to harness data for state control greatly increases. Take the case of China:

[Chinese government] [r]eforms in 2017 and 2018 further centralized the regulatory landscape for social media and

<http://data.parliament.uk/writtenevidence/committeeevidence.svc/evidencedocument/eu-sub-f-home-affairs-health-and-education-committee/the-right-to-be-forgotten/oral/11381.html>).

⁵⁵ Nick Ismail, *How Will Brexit Impact Google’s Right to be Forgotten?*, INFORMATION AGE (Nov. 29, 2016), <https://www.information-age.com/brexit-impact-google-right-to-be-forgotten-123463440/>.

⁵⁶ See, e.g., Andrew Guerra, *General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) Principles and Primer*, IBM, <https://www.ibm.com/blogs/bluemix/?s=General+Data+Protection+Regulation+%28GDPR%29+Principles+and+Primer> (June 27, 2019) (“Geo-fencing is the ability to separate workloads within a trusted compute pool, and helps solves for data sovereignty requirements. Data can only be decrypted on good, known hosts in authorized geographies.”).

Internet platforms, including increasing the resources available to strengthen the censorship infrastructure through a central government agency. Changes in regulations and increased censorship strengthened the Great Firewall, especially through significant limitations on the use of virtual private networks (“VPN”) software that allow users to access blocked information. As part of Xi Jinping’s “cyber sovereignty” campaign, government regulators required state-run telecommunications firms to use technology to block VPNs and other circumvention tools. The stakes for challenging dominant state narratives increased--regulations from the Cyberspace Administration of China released in 2017 now impose real name registration requirements for users seeking to post online content or comments, and legal liability for Internet platform providers who fail to regulate online content.⁵⁷

General Secretary of the Communist Party of China Xi Jinping’s ability to garner control of both domestic sovereignty and cyber sovereignty anticipates a new world order in which both democratic states, like EU member states, and dictatorial states, like Russia and China, will

⁵⁷ See generally Joy L. Chia, *Rights Lawyering in Xi’s China: Innovation in the Midst of Marginalization*, 41 *FORDHAM INT’L L.J.* 1111, 1127–28 (2018) (citing Zhou Xin, *It’s The Mysterious Department Behind China’s Growing Influence Across The Globe. And It’s Getting Bigger*, *SOUTH CHINA MORNING POST* (Mar. 21, 2018, 3:00 PM), <https://www.scmp.com/news/china/policies-politics/article/2138196/its-mysterious-department-behind-chinas-growing>); Lucy Hornby, *China’s VPN Crackdown Is About Money As Much As Censorship*, *FIN. TIMES* (Jan. 21, 2018), <https://www.ft.com/content/35eafc9a-fcf8-11e7-9b32-d7d59aaec167>; *China Tells Carriers to Block Access to Personal VPNs by February*, *BLOOMBERG NEWS* (July 10, 2017), <https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2017-07-10/china-is-said-to-order-carriers-to-bar-personal-vpns-by-february>; Guójiā Hùliánwǎng Xīnxī Bàngōngshì Gōngbùlè “Hùliánwǎng Fābù Pínglùn Guǎnlǐ Tiáoli” (国家互联网信息办公室公布<<互联网跟帖评论服务管理规定>>) [The National Internet Information Office Announced the “Regulations on the Management of Internet Posting Comments”], Zhōngguó Wǎngluò Kōngjiān Guǎnlǐ Jú (中国网络空间管理局) [Cyberspace Administration of China] (Aug. 25, 2017), http://www.cac.gov.cn/2017-08/25/c_1121541481.htm.

increasingly use the technologies and regulations of modern data management to control the experience for their citizens.⁵⁸

This reassertion of state control is unsurprising. Since at least 1998, Russia has claimed that free Internet is a form of “information terrorism.”⁵⁹ It spent the past two decades seeking to use the weapon to its own advantage while simultaneously attempting to stop the West from using online and cyber tools to promote democratic ideals. In 2008, at a U.N. disarmament conference, Russian Defense Ministry member Sergei Korotkov advocated that “anytime a government promotes ideas on the Internet with the goal of subverting another country's government—even in the name of democratic reform—it should qualify as ‘aggression.’ And that, in turn, would make it illegal under the U.N. Charter.”⁶⁰

In April 2018, Russia’s Internet regulator Roskomnadzor (RKN) made a frontal assault on the Russian instant-messaging app, Telegram.⁶¹ Nearly 19 million IP addresses were blocked in the first weeks of the campaign, which also impacted sites such as Amazon, Google, Microsoft, Mastercard, Twitch, Slack, SoundCloud, Viber, Spotify, FIFA, Nintendo, and many others.⁶² Amazon and Google resisted these efforts, but only to a point.⁶³ Although the companies objected to the restrictions, they began enforcing their terms of service provisions to ban domain fronting, a

⁵⁸ See generally Jon M. Garon, *Revolutions and Expatriates: Social Networking, Ubiquitous Media and the Disintermediation of the State*, 11 J. INT’L BUS. & L. 293 (2012).

⁵⁹ Tom Gjelten, *Seeing the Internet as an ‘Information Weapon,’* NAT’L PUBLIC RADIO (Sept. 23, 2010), <http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=130052701>.

⁶⁰ *Id.*; See also Timothy L. Thomas, *The Russian View of Information War*, FOREIGN MILITARY STUDIES OFFICE (Feb. 7-9, 2000), <https://community.apan.org/wg/tradoc-g2/fmso/m/fmso-monographs/202359> (discussing various reasons driving Russia’s calls at the U.N. for a “world-wide information security policy and to limit the development of information weaponry and operations.”).

⁶¹ Ingrid Lunden, *Russia’s Game Of Telegram Whack-A-Mole Grows To 19M Blocked IPs, Hitting Twitch, Spotify And More*, TECHCRUNCH (Apr. 19, 2018), <https://techcrunch.com/2018/04/19/russias-game-of-telegram-whack-a-mole-grows-to-19m-blocked-ips-hitting-twitch-spotify-and-more/>.

⁶² *Id.* (noting “[t]he technique uses HTTPS encryption to communicate with a censored web host even though it looks like it’s communicating with another host like Amazon Web Services. One service is on the outside of the HTTPS request, the real domain is on the inside and censors are none-the-wiser from a technical point of view, unless they block the first domain entirely.”).

⁶³ *Id.* (noting that Google and Amazon initially appeared to not buckle under the pressure of Russian regulators regarding IP hopping).

technique that helps client websites shift their HTTPS request to a generalized service instead of a communications platform in order to avoid government shutdowns.⁶⁴ By enforcing the terms of service, the companies gave Russia exactly the assistance it needed to conduct the crackdown.

As noted in a letter by U.S. Senators Ron Wyden (D-Ore.) and Marco Rubio (R-Fla.), the decision

prevents millions of people in some of the most repressive environments including China, Iran, Russia and Egypt from accessing a free and open internet. Dissidents, pro-democracy activists, and protestors living under authoritarian regimes need access to secure communications enabled by domain fronting techniques to stay safe and organize.⁶⁵

The increase in trade and content restrictions targeting global multinational corporations is taking a toll on their ability to operate independently of state regulation. Governments such as India are also looking for increased privacy and data security regimes.⁶⁶ India continues to expand its restrictive approach, adopting aspects of both the European regulatory model and Chinese restrictive model.⁶⁷

⁶⁴ See Patrick Howell O'Neill, *Lawmakers Call On Amazon And Google To Reconsider Ban On Domain Fronting*, CYBERSCOOP (July 17, 2018), <https://www.cyberscoop.com/domain-fronting-ban-letter-ron-wyden-marco-rubio-amazon-google/>.

⁶⁵ Letter from Senator Ron Wyden & Senator Marco Rubio, U.S. Senate, to Jeff Bezos, CEO, Amazon.com, Inc., & Larry Page, CEO, Alphabet Inc. (July 17, 2018), <https://assets.documentcloud.org/documents/4609286/Wyden-Rubio-Letter-to-Amazon-Alphabet-Re-Domain.pdf>.

⁶⁶ See generally Saritha Rai, *India Considers Sweeping GDPR-Style Curbs for Online Data*, BLOOMBERG (July 30, 2018), <https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2018-07-30/india-considers-sweeping-gdpr-style-curbs-for-online-data>.

⁶⁷ See, e.g., Vindu Goel, *India's Regulators Seek to Rein In Internet Giants*, N.Y. TIMES (Aug. 31, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/08/31/technology/india-technology-american-giants.html> (noting that Indian regulators want to establish European-style data protection for its citizens, while also adopting the Chinese approach of maintaining its right to obtain private information).

In addition, Thailand has attempted to join the club of totalitarian cyber regimes.⁶⁸ Pending legislation in the country would create a “new government agency sweeping powers to spy on Internet traffic, order the removal of content, or even seize computers without judicial oversight”⁶⁹ Large Internet companies are also confronting other Southeast Asian, countries, like India, Vietnam, and Indonesia, over similar proposals.⁷⁰

China continues to make additional advances with its integration of new technologies for surveilling minority or dissident groups. For example, China now uses artificial intelligence to track its Uighur Muslim minority, facial-recognition-equipped eyeglasses to improve individual surveillance, and a big-data policing system ironically named “Skynet.”⁷¹ A report by Human Rights Watch captures the chilling power of artificial intelligence and big data turned against a society:

Perhaps the most innovative—and disturbing—of the repressive measures in Xinjiang is the government’s use of high-tech mass surveillance systems. Xinjiang authorities conduct compulsory mass collection of biometric data, such as voice samples and DNA, and use artificial intelligence and big data to identify, profile, and track everyone in Xinjiang. The authorities have envisioned these systems as a series of “filters,” picking out people with certain behavior or characteristics that they believe indicate a threat to the Communist Party’s rule in Xinjiang. These systems have also enabled authorities to implement fine-grained control, subjecting people to differentiated restrictions depending on their perceived levels of “trustworthiness.”

Authorities have sought to justify harsh treatment in the name of maintaining stability and security in Xinjiang, and

⁶⁸ See generally Patpicha Tanakasempipat, *Thai Proposal for All-Powerful Cyber Agency Alarms Businesses, Activists*, REUTERS (NOV. 16, 2018), <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-thailand-cyber/thai-proposal-for-all-powerful-cyber-agency-alarms-businesses-activists-idUSKCN1NL0JP>.

⁶⁹ *Id.*

⁷⁰ *Id.*

⁷¹ Maya Kosoff, *China’s Terrifying Surveillance State Looks A Lot Like America’s Future*, VANITY FAIR (July 9, 2018), <https://www.vanityfair.com/news/2018/07/china-surveillance-state-artificial-intelligence>.

to “strike at” those deemed terrorists and extremists in a “precise” and “in-depth” manner. Xinjiang officials claim the root of these problems is the “problematic ideas” of Turkic Muslims. These ideas include what authorities describe as extreme religious dogmas, but also any non-Han Chinese sense of identity, be it Islamic, Turkic, Uyghur, or Kazakh. Authorities insist that such beliefs and affinities must be “corrected” or “eradicated.”⁷²

If there are differences between the regulatory attempts over privacy, security, and trade practices from a decade ago and today, they include the ever-increasing sophistication of totalitarian nations, a new willingness of democratic countries to introduce intrusive regulatory regimes, and a diminution of multinational corporate media companies’ ability to withstand regulatory pressure. Taken together, these changes are making the power of governments stronger than ever when it comes to regulating conduct on the internet and throughout the increasingly data-driven society.

IV. THE U.S. GETS INTO THE ACT.

The reaction to the current cyber environment has motivated governments at every level of jurisdiction to increase regulation and enforcement. Currently, California’s approach to cybersecurity regulation far outpaces other states, though others have recently begun to address these data privacy issues. At the federal level, the U.S. government has approached cyber concerns via enhancing export controls.

⁷² Maya Wang, HUMAN RIGHTS WATCH, ERADICATING IDEOLOGICAL VIRUSES: CHINA’S CAMPAIGN OF REPRESSION AGAINST XINJIANG’S MUSLIMS (Sept. 9, 2018), <https://www.hrw.org/report/2018/09/09/eradicating-ideological-viruses/chinas-campaign-repression-against-xinjiangs#>.

a. A Californian Approach to Cyber Protection: The California Consumer Privacy Act of 2018.

In the U.S., California continues to take the lead on cybersecurity legislation.⁷³ In 2018, California extended its lead by enacting two significant pieces of legislation that impact privacy and data security.

The first of these laws is the California Consumer Privacy Act of 2018 (CCPA),⁷⁴ which has been labeled “the broadest United States privacy law.”⁷⁵ The second statute is the “Security of Connected Devices” law, designed to regulate and secure internet-connected devices (“IoT devices”) and the Internet of Things.⁷⁶ Both laws will become effective on January 1, 2020.⁷⁷ California also enacted a Net Neutrality state law that directly conflicts with federal efforts to deregulate telecommunications.⁷⁸

The CCPA has been labeled the American GDPR,⁷⁹ and while the analogy is reasonable, the two regimes differ significantly. Like the GDPR,

⁷³ See, e.g., James F. Brelsford, *California First State to Require Online Privacy Policies*, JONES DAY COMMENTARIES (2004), <https://www.jonesday.com/California-First-State-to-Require-Online-Privacy-Policies-01-06-2004/#> (last visited Mar. 31, 2019) (stating “[i]n 2003, California enacted groundbreaking consumer rights legislation in the areas of database security, sharing of personal financial information, spam, and the use of personal information in direct marketing. Maintaining its pioneer status, California is the first state to require that all companies that collect personal information online from California residents must post online privacy policies that describe their practices in a conspicuous manner.”); See generally Chuck DeVore, *California Seeks to Regulate the Internet in a Drive to Resurrect Net Neutrality*, FORBES (May 31, 2018, 10:24am), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/chuckdevore/2018/05/31/california-seeks-to-regulate-the-internet-in-a-drive-to-resurrect-net-neutrality/#3b0de8f627c1>; Randall Stempler, *California Takes the Lead in Regulating the Internet of Things*, POLSINELLI BLOGS (Oct. 2018), <https://www.jdsupra.com/legalnews/california-takes-the-lead-in-regulating-56214/> (last visited Mar. 31, 2019).

⁷⁴ California Consumer Privacy Act of 2018, 2018 Cal. Stat. ch. 55 (A.B. 375) (codified as amended at CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.100 (2018)).

⁷⁵ Stempler, *supra* note 73.

⁷⁶ CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.91.04 (West 2018).

⁷⁷ *Id.* §§ 1798.91.04, 1798.175.

⁷⁸ Cecilia Kang, *California Lawmakers Pass Nation’s Toughest Net Neutrality Law*, N.Y. TIMES (Aug. 31, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/08/31/technology/california-net-neutrality-bill.html>.

⁷⁹ See Bret Cohen et al., *California Consumer Privacy Act: The Challenge Ahead – A Comparison of 10 Key Aspects of The GDPR and The CCPA*, HOGAN LOVELLS DATA PROTECTION BLOG (Oct. 3, 2018), <https://www.hldataprotection.com/2018/10/articles/consumer-privacy/california-consumer-privacy-act-the-challenge-ahead-a-comparison->

the CCPA provides Californians rights to control the collection, use, and dissemination of data through an amendment of California Civil Code 1798. As explained in the legislative finding for the statute, the goals of the CCPA are the following:

- (1) The right of Californians to know what personal information is being collected about them.
- (2) The right of Californians to know whether their personal information is sold or disclosed and to whom.
- (3) The right of Californians to say no to the sale of personal information.
- (4) The right of Californians to access their personal information.
- (5) The right of Californians to equal service and price, even if they exercise their privacy rights.⁸⁰

Under these provisions, third parties must provide consumers with explicit notice and opportunity to opt out before the sale or resale of personal information.⁸¹ This requirement, particularly the ability of the public to say no to the sale of their personal information, as the potential to significantly reduce the marketability of consumer information.

These CCPA goals are consistent with the consumer protection provisions of the GDPR. The two statutory schemes will undoubtedly expand the enforcement and scope of data management requirement and consumer protection.

Like the EU, California seeks to expand its influence outside the state. The CCPA covers any enterprise that collects consumers' personal information, determines the processing of that information, and "does business in the State of California," and either (A) "[h]as annual gross revenues in excess of twenty-five million dollars (\$25,000,000)," (B) transacts "the personal information of 50,000 or more consumers,

of-10-key-aspects-of-the-gdpr-and-the-ccpa/ (comparing the CCPA with the EU's GDPR).

⁸⁰ CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.100 § 2(h) (1)–(5)

⁸¹ CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.115(d) (West 2018) ("A third party shall not sell personal information about a consumer that has been sold to the third party by a business unless the consumer has received explicit notice and is provided an opportunity to exercise the right to opt out pursuant to 1798.120.").

households, or devices, or (C) “[d]erives 50 percent or more of its annual revenues from selling consumers’ personal information.”⁸²

While the CCPA’s extraterritorial effect differs from that of the GDPR, both governments seek to extend a broad net outside their physical territory to protect their residents wherever they transact in cyberspace. California, however, has the additional concern that state laws do not interfere with interstate commerce.⁸³ Implicit in the Commerce Clause, the Dormant Commerce Clause “precludes the application of a state statute to commerce that takes place wholly outside of the State’s borders, whether or not the commerce has effects within the State.”⁸⁴

Because the CCPA requires that the consumer be a California resident and the entity at least conduct business in California,⁸⁵ there is less of a risk that the law applies to out-of-state transactions. Thus, the CCPA is likely to avoid triggering the Dormant Commerce Clause.

However, the CCPA may still violate the Dormant Commerce Clause if it “is clearly excessive in relation to the putative local benefits.”⁸⁶ The CCPA imposes a condition upon a corporation of another state seeking to do business in California.⁸⁷ As such, the regulation may be subject to constitutional scrutiny.

The Dormant Commerce Clause concerns will continue with privacy and customer control legislation because of the actual or potential consequence of having a patchwork of state laws—and international

⁸² See generally CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.140(c)(1)(A)–(C) (West 2018).

⁸³ See generally *Sam Francis Found. v. Christies, Inc.*, 784 F.3d 1320, 1323 (9th Cir. 2015) (noting that the dormant Commerce Clause provides a limitation on states’ powers and bars states from unduly regulated interstate commerce, in the context of California’s Resale Royalty Act).

⁸⁴ *Id.* (quoting *Healy v. Beer Inst.*, 491 U.S. 324, 336 (1989) (ellipsis and internal quotation marks omitted)).

⁸⁵ See CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.140(g) (West 2018) (defining “consumer” as a “natural person who is a California resident . . .”).

⁸⁶ *S. D. v. Wayfair, Inc.*, 138 S. Ct. 2080, 2091 (2018).

⁸⁷ See *Am. Library Assoc. v. Pataki*, 969 F. Supp. 160, 169 (S.D.N.Y. 1997) (stating that courts have held “that state regulation of those aspects of commerce that by their unique nature demand cohesive national treatment is offensive to the Commerce Clause.”, citing *Wabash, St. L. & P. Ry. Co. v. Ill.*, 118 U.S. 557, 7 S.Ct. 4 (1886) (holding railroad rates exempt from state regulation)).

obligations—that require customer databases to be broken up or coded based on the state’s various regulatory regimes.⁸⁸

“The courts have long recognized that railroads, trucks, and highways are themselves ‘instruments of commerce,’ because they serve as conduits for the transport of products and services.”⁸⁹ “The Internet is more than a means of communication; it also serves as a conduit for transporting digitized goods, including software, data, music, graphics, and videos which can be downloaded from the provider's site to the Internet user's computer.”⁹⁰

The Dormant Commerce Clause issues are not automatically fatal to all Internet regulation, but where the regulation allows individual states to create substantial burdens for the same data in various locations, the regulation may be too much. “Concerns about the cross-border costs of state Internet regulation are heightened when the sale and transmission of digital goods as opposed to real-space goods are at issue.”⁹¹

There is a practical burden in a requirement that forces a business to track the residency of each consumer in a database—in addition to the persons national citizenship for purposes of GDPR and the IP-address-

⁸⁸ See *S. Pac. Co. v. State of Ariz. ex rel. Sullivan*, 325 U.S. 761, 773 (1945) (addressing state regulation of train lengths). The Supreme Court in *S. Pac. Co.*, was addressing train lengths, but the nearly identical language can be understood by analogy to protect various entries into a database or consumer files in a business database. For example:

Compliance with a state statute limiting [train lengths or data sets requires these] to be broken up and reconstituted as they enter each state according as it may impose varying limitations upon [the varying consumer protection schemes]. The alternative is for the carrier to conform to the lowest [] limit restriction of any of the states through which its [trains or data] pass, whose laws thus control the carriers' operations both within and without the regulating state.

⁸⁹ *Am. Library Ass’n v. Pataki*, 969 F.Supp. 160, 173 (S.D.N.Y. 1997) (citing *Kassel v. Consolidated Freightways Corp.*, 450 U.S. 662 (1945)).

⁹⁰ *Id.*

⁹¹ Jack L. Goldsmith & Alan O. Sykes, *The Internet and the Dormant Commerce Clause*, 110 *YALE L. J.* 785, 824 (2001). See generally, ORIN S. KERR, *COMPUTER CRIME LAW* 697 (2013); Tony Glosson, *Data Privacy in Our Federalist System: Toward an Evaluative Framework for State Privacy Laws*, 67 *FED. COMM. L. J.* 409, 420–21 (2015).

based geolocations.⁹² Given these conflicting demands, inconsistent standards, and risks of liability, “firms would likely choose to comply with the most stringent state laws across the board, rather than incurring the expense . . . and tailoring their products accordingly.”⁹³

The push to use California law as the new national platform is precisely what California lawmakers hoped to achieve.⁹⁴ “[T]he Golden State . . . promised a wall of resistance to conservative policies coming out of Washington, D.C. And as President Donald Trump approaches his 100-day mark, Californians have beefed up vows to push back with legislation and lawsuits.”⁹⁵ For the Internet, “California will attempt to go it alone in regulating internet access after . . . restor[ing] Obama-era regulations barring the telecommunications industry from favoring certain websites.”⁹⁶

If California’s goal is to use its state’s influence to change the national standards for consumer protection of privacy, then it is much more likely to run afoul of the Dormant Commerce Clause than if it were merely seeking to protect its residents from the same risks. The expansive nature of the legislation increases the likelihood of a successful constitutional challenge.

Beyond the jurisdictional differences between the GDPR and the CCPA, there are other differences as well. The CCPA, for example,

⁹² See Glosson, *supra* note 91, at 422–23 (“With the advent of geolocation technology, however, the question becomes more complex. Now it is often possible, at least in theory, to distinguish communications sent to devices in New York from those sent to devices in any other state.”). *But see* James E. Gaylor, *State Regulatory Jurisdiction and the Internet: Letting the Dormant Commerce Clause Lie*, 52 VAND. L. REV. 1095, 1121 (1999) (The broad rail analysis initially used in the telegraph cases eventually gave way to more state regulation. “[T]he Court concluded that the state where a telegraph contract was made had sufficient interest to regulate that contract, even though it might affect conduct in other states.”).

⁹³ Glosson, *supra* note 91, at 422.

⁹⁴ Katy Steinmetz, *7 Ways California Is Fighting Back Against President Trump’s Administration*, TIME (Apr. 6, 2017), <http://time.com/4725971/california-resisting-trump-administration/>.

⁹⁵ *Id.*

⁹⁶ Melody Gutierrez, *California OKs Net-Neutrality Rules: Trump Administration Promptly Sues*, S.F. CHRON. (Sep. 30, 2018, 7:54 PM), <https://www.sfchronicle.com/business/article/California-restores-Obama-era-net-neutrality-13270511.php> (“First, however, the state will have to prevail in a legal fight with the Trump administration’s Justice Department, which sued to block California from installing its own rules minutes after [Governor] Brown signed the bill.”).

introduces the undefined concept of “household” information to the term personal information.⁹⁷ “While not defined in the CCPA, a ‘household’ will likely cover, at minimum, data linked to a particular address, even if such data is not linked to any natural persons or device identifiers.”⁹⁸

Uniquely, the CCPA also carves “publicly available” information into information that can be used without consent.⁹⁹ However, the CCPA states that information is not considered “‘publicly available’ if that data is used for a purpose that is not compatible with the purpose for which the data is maintained and made available in the government records or for which it is publicly maintained”¹⁰⁰ (i.e., beyond the scope of original intent). This distinction may allow real estate agency sites, like Zillow, Trulia, or Realtor.com, to use real estate records without consumer consent but prohibit a healthcare company or goods reseller from data mining this information. Many of the terms in the CCPA are opaque and in need of interpretation.

Both the GDPR and CCPA have notice requirements, but the CCPA also requires that the business maintain lists of personal information that the business has sold or disclosed.¹⁰¹ Both laws have some access rights, opt-out rights, anti-discrimination protections, and deletion rights.¹⁰² However, the CCPA includes certain exemptions for data requests that may violate the First Amendment; for example, if the requests interfere with a right to “exercise free speech, ensure the right of another consumer to exercise his or her right of free speech, or exercise another right provided for by law.”¹⁰³

⁹⁷ See CAL CIV. CODE § 1798.140(o) (defining “personal information” as “information that identifies, relates to, describes, is capable of being associated with, or could reasonably be linked, directly or indirectly, with a particular consumer or household.”).

⁹⁸ Cohen et al., *supra* note 79.

⁹⁹ See generally CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.140(o)(2).

¹⁰⁰ *Id.* (noting additional exemptions on what is considered “publicly available” information).

¹⁰¹ CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.130(a)(5)(C).

¹⁰² Cohen et al., *supra* note 79.

¹⁰³ David Kessler & Anna Rudawski, *CCPA Extends “Right to Deletion” to California Residents*, NORTON ROSE FULBRIGHT DATA PROTECTION REPORT (Sept. 27, 2018), <https://www.dataprotectionreport.com/2018/09/ccpa-extends-right-to-deletion-to-california-residents/>.

Given the strength of EU privacy rights, it is unsurprising that GDPR does not provide a similar exemption.¹⁰⁴

California has not limited itself to the CCPA. Another of the recently enacted statutes, the Security of Connected Devices (SCD) law,¹⁰⁵ has the following purpose:

This bill, beginning on January 1, 2020, would require a manufacturer of a connected device, as those terms are defined, to equip the device with a reasonable security feature or features that are appropriate to the nature and function of the device, appropriate to the information it may collect, contain, or transmit, and designed to protect the device and any information contained therein from unauthorized access, destruction, use, modification, or disclosure, as specified.¹⁰⁶

The statute proposes requirements for protecting networked devices that are limited to those devices sold or offered for sale in California.¹⁰⁷ The statute is further limited by exempting devices that are governed by federal law, regulations, or guidance.¹⁰⁸ These limitations could reflect an attempt to address the Commerce Clause issues. Cybersecurity expert Robert Graham critiques the law, given its backward-looking nature that prioritizes adding currently undefined “reasonable and appropriate” security measures rather than emphasizing isolation technologies.¹⁰⁹ However, the law does emphasize the need for better security requirements for the introduction of

¹⁰⁴ See generally *id.*

¹⁰⁵ S.B. 327, ch. 886, 2017-18 S. Reg. Sess. (Cal. 2018) (statement of Sen. Hannah-Beth Jackson) (codified as amended at CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.91.04).

¹⁰⁶ *Id.*

¹⁰⁷ See CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.91.05(c) (defining “manufacturer” subject to the statute as a “person who manufactures, or contracts with another person to manufacture on the person’s behalf, *connected devices that are sold or offered for sale in California.*”) (emphasis added).

¹⁰⁸ CAL. CIV. CODE § 1798.91.06(d).

¹⁰⁹ Robert Graham, *California’s Bad IoT Law*, ERRATA SECURITY BLOG (Sept. 10, 2018), https://blog.erratasec.com/2018/09/californias-bad-iot-law.html#.W_gfvuhKiiO, (“This law is backwards looking rather than forward looking. Forward looking, by far the most important thing that will protect IoT in the future is ‘isolation’ mode on the WiFi access-point that prevents devices from talking to each other (or infecting each other).”).

IoT devices. It is possible the FCC will create regulations that supersede the California statute or that Congress will move forward on IoT legislation.¹¹⁰

b. Other States' Approach to Cyber Policy.

California is not the only state adding new legislation to improve cybersecurity. For instance, Ohio passed Senate Bill 220, which became effective November 2, 2018, “to provide a legal safe harbor to covered entities that implement a specified cybersecurity program”¹¹¹ This law reflects another effort to encourage proactive cybersecurity behavior. In this case, the statute creates limited immunity from Ohio tort claims for those companies that adopt a written cybersecurity program and comply with that program.¹¹² To be compliant under the new laws, companies must adopt an industry-recognized cybersecurity framework, such as one of several NIST-published frameworks, or comply with a federal statutory regime, if the company is an entity required to comply with such laws.¹¹³ In addition, companies that accept credit card payments must comply with “both the current version of the ‘payment card industry (PCI) data security standard’ and conform[] to the current version of another applicable industry recognized cybersecurity framework.”¹¹⁴

Other states have expanded deceptive trade practices laws to cover online activities. Oregon has expanded its state deceptive trade practices law to include a violation for being materially inconsistent with a company’s website related to the use, disclosure, collection, maintenance,

¹¹⁰ See generally IoT Cybersecurity Improvement Act of 2017, S.1691, 115th Cong. (2017); IoT Consumer TIPS Act of 2017, S.2234, 115th Cong. (2017); SMART IoT Act, H.R.6032, 115th Cong. (2018).

¹¹¹S.B. 220, 132nd Gen. Assemb., Reg. Sess. (Ohio 2018) (codified as amended at OHIO REV. CODE ANN. § 1354.01 (West 2019)).

¹¹² See OHIO REV. CODE ANN. § 1354.04 (West 2019) (noting limitation of private right of action).

¹¹³ *Id.* § 1354.03. In addition to a NIST framework, a compliant entity could use other frameworks such as FedRAMP, CIS Critical Security Controls or ISO 27000. The federal programs include HIPAA, GLBA, FISMA and HITECH.

¹¹⁴ *Id.* § 1354.03(D).

or destruction of personal information.¹¹⁵ This expansion of the state deceptive practices law is similar to laws in Pennsylvania and Nebraska.¹¹⁶

States have also enacted statutes to promote biometric information privacy. Illinois first passed its biometric data privacy law in 2008,¹¹⁷ with Texas enacting one in 2009.¹¹⁸ More recently, and after limited state legislative action, Washington also passed a biometric privacy law in 2017.¹¹⁹ Although the Illinois and Texas statutes have been on the books for over a decade, plaintiffs' attorneys have just recently recognized the potential application.¹²⁰ Plaintiffs initially had difficulty prevailing because of the lack of injury.¹²¹ But in 2019, the Illinois Supreme Court reversed this trend, stating that "a person need not have sustained actual damage beyond violation of his or her rights under the [Biometric Information Privacy] Act in order to bring an action under it."¹²² The willingness of the Illinois Supreme Court to recognize the potential harm in biometric privacy invasion highlights the growing concerns in the U.S. over privacy.¹²³

¹¹⁵ See generally David Kitchen & Alan L. Friel, *Oregon Expands Deceptive Trade Practices Act to Include Misrepresentations About PI Usage*, BAKERHOSTETLER DATA PRIVACY MONITOR (Jul. 26, 2017), <https://www.dataprivacymonitor.com/enforcement/oregon-expands-deceptive-trade-practices-act-to-include-misrepresentations-about-pi-usage/>.

¹¹⁶ *Id.*

¹¹⁷ 740 ILL. COMP. STAT. 14/1 (2008).

¹¹⁸ TEX. BUS. & COM. CODE ANN. § 503.001 (West 2018).

¹¹⁹ H.B. 1493, 65th Leg., Reg. Sess. (Wash. 2018).

¹²⁰ See Jeffrey L. Widman, *Measuring the Impact of the Illinois Biometric Information Privacy Act*, FOX ROTHSCHILD PRIVACY COMPLIANCE AND DATA SECURITY (June 21, 2018), <https://dataprivacy.foxrothschild.com/2018/06/articles/data-protection-law-compliance/the-illinois-biometric-information-privacy-act/> (noting the recent increase in class actions filed for alleged BIPA violations).

¹²¹ See e.g., *Santana v. Take-Two Interactive Software, Inc.*, 717 F. App'x. 12, 16–18 (2d Cir. 2017) (affirming holding that plaintiffs failed to allege defendant-company's alleged Illinois BIPA violations raised a material risk of improper data access by third parties); see also *Rosenbach v. Six Flags Ent. Corp.*, No. 2–17–0317, 2017 IL App (2d) 170317, *1 (Ill. App. Ct. Dec. 21, 2017) (affirming that a plaintiff "aggrieved" by a BIPA violation must allege that such a violation caused actual harm), *rev'd*, 2019 IL 123186, *5 (Ill. Jan. 25, 2019).

¹²² *Rosenbach v. Six Flags Ent. Corp.*, 2019 IL 123186, *5 (reversing holding that actual damage is required to bring an action under BIPA).

¹²³ See e.g., Catalin Cimpanu, *Wendy's Faces Lawsuit For Unlawfully Collecting Employee Fingerprints*, ZDNET: ZERO DAY (Sep. 23, 2018, 8:10 AM), <https://www.zdnet.com/article/wendys-faces-lawsuit-for-unlawfully-collecting->

These states' actions represent just a few of the significant changes to cyber privacy laws across the U.S.¹²⁴ California has added additional laws beyond those covered. Furthermore, many other states have enacted one or more Internet, privacy, or cybersecurity laws. These states include Arizona,¹²⁵ Connecticut,¹²⁶ Delaware,¹²⁷ Minnesota,¹²⁸ Missouri,¹²⁹ Nebraska,¹³⁰ Oregon,¹³¹ Pennsylvania,¹³² and many others.

The enactment of state-level legislation highlights the growing national concern over data misuse and distrust of the corporate institutions collecting and sharing personal information. The same trends that are driving global politics are equally at play in setting local policies.

c. Expansion of Federal Export Controls to Address Cyber Concerns.

At the federal level, one recent piece of legislation is the Export Controls Act of 2018 (ECA).¹³³ The ECA expands the categories of products subject to export controls,¹³⁴ a move consistent with current national protectionist trends. Although the statute does not specify particular technologies subject to the new controls, the new regulated products may include those related to “cybersecurity, artificial intelligence, machine learning, autonomous vehicles, 3D printing, augmented virtual reality, gene editing, financial technology, semiconductors, robotics,

employee-fingerprints/ (discussing a 2018 class-action BIPA case filed in Illinois state court).

¹²⁴ See generally, *State Laws Related to Internet Privacy*, NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF STATE LEGISLATURES (Feb. 8, 2019), <http://www.ncsl.org/research/telecommunications-and-information-technology/state-laws-related-to-internet-privacy.aspx> (listing current state laws related to internet privacy).

¹²⁵ ARIZ. REV. STAT. ANN. § 41-151.22 (2018) (e-Reader privacy).

¹²⁶ CONN. GEN. STAT. § 42-471 (2018) (online social security number protection).

¹²⁷ DEL. CODE ANN. tit. 6, §§ 1205C, 1206C (2018) (notification of privacy policy and e-Reader privacy, respectively).

¹²⁸ MINN. STAT. §§ 325M.01-.09 (2018) (protection of search behavior).

¹²⁹ MO. REV. STAT. § 182.815, 182.817 (2018) (e-Reader privacy).

¹³⁰ NEB. REV. STAT. § 87-302(14) (2018) (privacy policy).

¹³¹ OR. REV. STAT. § 646.607 (2018) (privacy policy).

¹³² 18 PA. STAT. AND CONS. STAT. ANN. § 4107(a)(10) (West 2018) (privacy policy).

¹³³ Pub. L. No. 115-232, § 1751 et seq., 132 Stat. 2209 (2018) (part of the National Defense Authorization Act).

¹³⁴ *Id.* at § 1758.

nanotechnology and biotechnology.”¹³⁵ Specifically, the ECA requires that the Department of Commerce establish controls on emerging and foundational technologies, requiring additional export licenses, and taking into account the potential end-users of the technology and the uses to which the technology will be put.¹³⁶

The vague outline of the export controls is likely related to the concerns raised by the Department of Defense that “the U.S. government does not have a holistic view of how fast this technology transfer is occurring, the level of Chinese investment in U.S. technology, or what technologies we should be protecting.”¹³⁷ However, the ECA’s expansion of export controls does reflect a recognition that “China is executing a multi-decade plan to transfer technology to increase the size and value-add of its economy, currently the world’s 2nd largest. By 2050, China may be 150% the size of the U.S. and decrease U.S. relevance globally.”¹³⁸

d. U.S. Judicial Demand for Privacy Protection.

In addition to the reassertion of privacy norms by nations and U.S. states, the U.S. Supreme Court has significantly expanded privacy protections under its Fourth Amendment jurisprudence.¹³⁹ Although the Court has struggled in the past decade to develop a coherent approach to

¹³⁵ Burt Braverman & Brian Wong, *Congress Enacts the Export Controls Act of 2018, Extending Controls to Emerging and Foundational Technologies*, DAVIS WRIGHT TREMAINE LLP BLOG (Sept. 26, 2018), <https://www.dwt.com/Congress-Enacts-the-Export-Controls-Act-of-2018-Extending-Controls-to-Emerging-and-Foundational-Technologies-09-26-2018/> (citing Michael Brown & Pavneet Singh, *China’s Technology Transfer Strategy: How Chinese Investments in Emerging Technology Enable A Strategic Competitor to Access the Crown Jewels of U.S. Innovation*, DEFENSE INNOVATION UNIT EXPERIMENTAL (DIUX) (Jan. 2018), [https://admin.govexec.com/media/diux_chinatechnologytransferstudy_jan_2018_\(1\).pdf](https://admin.govexec.com/media/diux_chinatechnologytransferstudy_jan_2018_(1).pdf)).

¹³⁶ Export Controls Act, Pub. L. No. 115-232, § 1758, 132 Stat. 2209 (2018); see generally Braverman, *supra* note 135.

¹³⁷ Michael Brown & Pavneet Singh, *China’s Technology Transfer Strategy: How Chinese Investments in Emerging Technology Enable A Strategic Competitor to Access the Crown Jewels of U.S. Innovation*, DEFENSE INNOVATION UNIT EXPERIMENTAL (DIUX) (Jan. 2018), [https://admin.govexec.com/media/diux_chinatechnologytransferstudy_jan_2018_\(1\).pdf](https://admin.govexec.com/media/diux_chinatechnologytransferstudy_jan_2018_(1).pdf).

¹³⁸ *Id.* at 3.

¹³⁹ See *United States v. Jones*, 565 U.S. 400, 400 (2012) (holding that the government attaching a GPS device to the vehicle to monitor the vehicle’s movements constitutes a Fourth Amendment search).

privacy,¹⁴⁰ it has recently recognized the massive role of technology in citizens' private lives.¹⁴¹ For example, in *Carpenter v. U.S.*, the Court held that prosecutors' sequester of cell phone GPS data without a warrant constituted an illegal search in violation of the Fourth Amendment.¹⁴² Writing for the majority, Chief Justice Roberts rejected the lower standard of privacy in section 2703(d) of the Stored Communications Act, which enabled law enforcement to access private cell phone data by simply showing that cell-site location information (CSLI) may be pertinent to an investigation, and held that Carpenter's Fourth Amendment rights had been violated.¹⁴³ Specifically, he noted that:

Whether the Government employs its own surveillance technology as in *Jones*¹⁴⁴ or leverages the technology of a wireless carrier, we hold that an individual maintains a legitimate expectation of privacy in the record of his physical movements as captured through CSLI. The location information obtained from Carpenter's wireless carriers was the product of a search.¹⁴⁵

The Court was clear: the lower standard of CSLI data privacy under the Stored Communications Act was “a ‘gigantic’ departure from the probable cause rule”¹⁴⁶ and therefore, “an order issued under section 2703(d) of the Act is not a permissible mechanism for accessing historical cell-site

¹⁴⁰ See *id.* at 417–18 (Sotomayor, J., concurring) (discussing the modern issues of what is a “reasonable expectation in privacy”).

¹⁴¹ See *id.* at 419 (Alito, J., concurring) (approaching the issue by considering “whether respondent’s reasonable expectations of privacy were violated by the long-term monitoring of the movements of the vehicle he drove.”); see *Riley v. California*, 573 U.S. 373, 395 (2014) (affirming suppression of cell phone evidence and noting that “it is no exaggeration to say that many of the more than 90% of American adults who own a cell phone keep on their person a digital record of nearly every aspect of their lives—from the mundane to the intimate.”); see *Grady v. North Carolina*, 135 S. Ct. 1368, 1370 (2015) (stating “a State . . . conducts a search when it attaches a device to a person's body, without consent, for the purpose of tracking that individual's movements,” but remanding on separate question of reasonableness for tracking policies).

¹⁴² *Carpenter v. United States*, 138 S. Ct. 2206, 2217–21 (2018).

¹⁴³ See *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2221.

¹⁴⁴ *Jones*, 565 U.S. 400 (2012).

¹⁴⁵ *Carpenter*, 138 S. Ct. at 2217.

¹⁴⁶ *Id.* at 2221.

records. Before compelling a wireless carrier to turn over a subscriber's CSLI, the Government's obligation is a familiar one—get a warrant.”¹⁴⁷

The *Carpenter* decision was intimated by *Jones*, but is much starker in tone.¹⁴⁸ The Government's ability to engage in pervasive surveillance requires that the Fourth Amendment be invoked to require search warrants. Relevance is not an acceptable standard:

Our decision today is a narrow one. We do not express a view on matters not before us: real-time CSLI or “tower dumps” (a download of information on all the devices that connected to a particular cell site during a particular interval). We do not . . . call into question conventional surveillance techniques and tools, such as security cameras. Nor do we address other business records that might incidentally reveal location information. Further, our opinion does not consider other collection techniques involving foreign affairs or national security.¹⁴⁹

However, following the *Carpenter* decision, not all lower courts have reversed criminal cases that rely on CSLI searches under section 2703(d) of the Stored Communications Act.¹⁵⁰ For example, one court applying *Carpenter* found that the previous CSLI searches fell within the good-faith exception to the warrant requirement, because the officers acted in good faith that the order was within constitutional bounds under its circuit precedent.¹⁵¹

e. Why the State Cares: The Public Wants its Privacy Back.

The consistent pattern of national governments, state governments, and even the Supreme Court, highlights an emphasis on resurrecting

¹⁴⁷ *Id.*

¹⁴⁸ See *Jones*, 565 U.S. at 411–12 (using a limited physical trespass analysis to find Fourth Amendment violation, without addressing broader concerns raised in the concurrence for “cases that do not involve physical contact, such as those that involve the transmission of electronic signals.”).

¹⁴⁹ *Carpenter*, 138. S.Ct. at 2220.

¹⁵⁰ See *e.g.*, *United States v. Scott*, No. 4:17-CR-50, 2018 WL 5087237, at *2 (S.D. Ga. Oct. 18, 2018) (applying a good faith exception to CSLI data acquired under a section 2730(d) request, because the request occurred 11 months before the *Carpenter* case and when the prosecutors still believed the acquisition was constitutional).

¹⁵¹ See *id.* at *2 (applying the good-faith exception as cited in *United States v. Leon*, 468 U.S. 897, 919–21 (1984)).

privacy. In the U.S., this change in the zeitgeist is likely attributable to the cascade of data protection failures at high-profile companies such as Facebook¹⁵² and Uber.¹⁵³ But in terms of sheer volume, the top data protection failure for 2018 likely goes to Aadhaar, the Indian authority that manages the personal identity card of every person in India.¹⁵⁴

In early 2018, login credentials on Aadhaar were sold to Tribune News Service reporters for 500 rupees, enabling access to the information of any of the 1.1 billion Indian citizens in the database.¹⁵⁵ “[Y]ou could enter any Aadhaar number in the portal, and instantly get all particulars that an individual may have submitted to the UIDAI (Unique Identification Authority of India), including name, address, postal code (PIN), photo, phone number and email.”¹⁵⁶

U.S.-based Facebook also failed to secure its single sign-in feature, which resulted in a massive data breach across multiple user platforms that affected 50 million people.¹⁵⁷ The single sign-in feature vulnerability also meant that Facebook users were potentially vulnerable on any other sites where they had used their Facebook accounts to login, exponentially expanding the potential scale of the breach.¹⁵⁸ In March 2018, Facebook was also forced to admit that it collected data on people’s phone calls and

¹⁵² See e.g., Mike Isaac & Sheera Frenkel, *Facebook Security Breach Exposes Accounts of 50 Million Users*, N.Y. TIMES (Sept. 28, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/09/28/technology/facebook-hack-data-breach.html> (“[T]hree software flaws in Facebook’s systems allowed hackers to break into user accounts,” exposing 50 million users.).

¹⁵³ See Mike Isaac et al., *Uber Hid 2016 Breach, Paying Hackers to Delete Stolen Data*, N.Y. TIMES (Nov. 21, 2017), <https://www.nytimes.com/2017/11/21/technology/uber-hack.html> (discussing a 2016 hack and subsequent cover up by Uber, where hackers stole data from over 57 million user accounts).

¹⁵⁴ See David Bisson, *The 10 Biggest Data Breaches of 2018... So Far, July 2018*, ALERT LOGIC BLOG (July 16, 2018), <https://blog.barkly.com/biggest-data-breaches-2018-so-far> (discussing Aadhaar hack which impacted 1.1 billion India citizens).

¹⁵⁵ Rachna Khaira, *Rs 500, 10 Minutes, and You Have Access to Billion Aadhaar Details*, INDIA TRIBUNE NEWS SERVICE (Jan. 4, 2018), <https://www.tribuneindia.com/news/nation/rs-500-10-minutes-and-you-have-access-to-billion-aadhaar-details/523361.html>.

¹⁵⁶ *Id.*

¹⁵⁷ Isaac, *Facebook Security Breach Exposes Accounts of 50 Million Users*, *supra* note 152.

¹⁵⁸ *Id.*

texts, though it denied that it was data mining the contents of these interactions.¹⁵⁹ Facebook also claimed that the data collection was only done with the user's consent to improve the user's experience on the platform.¹⁶⁰

Facebook also faces a lawsuit by Pikinis app developer Six4Three, which alleges “the social network’s chief executive ‘weaponized’ the ability to access data from any user’s network of friends—the feature at the heart of the Cambridge Analytica scandal.”¹⁶¹ These reports come on the heels of Facebook’s failure to manage the misuse of customer data by Cambridge Analytica.¹⁶² Although the actual data protection failures occurred in 2016, the full extent was not discovered until 2018.¹⁶³ The aftermath, therefore, has been a 2018 phenomenon.

The Guardian obtained a 27-page presentation produced by Cambridge Analytica in the aftermath of the Trump victory to show employees its effectiveness.¹⁶⁴ “Intensive survey research, data modelling and performance-optimizing algorithms were used to target 10,000 different ads to different audiences in the months leading up to the election. The ads were viewed billions of times”¹⁶⁵ This was the content created on behalf of the Trump campaign, not the information made by the Russians or other third parties.¹⁶⁶

¹⁵⁹ Andrew Griffin, *Facebook Admits Collecting Phone Call and Text From People’s Phones, But Claims It Had Consent*, INDEP. (Mar. 26, 2018), <https://www.independent.co.uk/life-style/gadgets-and-tech/news/facebook-cambridge-analytica-data-my-download-phone-calls-text-messages-contacts-history-a8274211.html>.

¹⁶⁰ *Id.*

¹⁶¹ Carole Cadwalladr & Emma Graham-Harrison, *Zuckerberg Set Up Fraudulent Scheme To ‘Weaponise’ Data, Court Case Alleges*, GUARDIAN (May 24, 2018), <https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2018/may/24/mark-zuckerberg-set-up-fraudulent-scheme-weaponise-data-facebook-court-case-alleges>; *see also* Six4Three LLC v. Facebook Inc., No. 17-CV-359, 2017 WL 657004, at *1 (N.D. Cal. Feb. 17, 2017) (overcoming Facebook effort to remove case to federal court).

¹⁶² *See* Paul Lewis & Paul Hilder, *Leaked: Cambridge Analytica’s Blueprint For Trump Victory*, GUARDIAN (Mar. 23, 2018, 8:53 AM), <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2018/mar/23/leaked-cambridge-analyticas-blueprint-for-trump-victory>.

¹⁶³ *Id.*

¹⁶⁴ *Id.*

¹⁶⁵ *Id.*

¹⁶⁶ *But see* Donie O’Sullivan et al., *Cambridge Analytica’s Facebook Data Accessed from Russia, MP Says*, CNN (July 17, 2018), <https://money.cnn.com/2018/07/17/technology/cambridge-analytica-data-facebook->

These and many other society-damaging activities by Facebook earned it the sobriquet “menace” to society and “obstacle[] to innovation” from philanthropist George Soros at the World Economic Summit.¹⁶⁷ In response, Facebook hired the right-leaning Definers Public Affairs organization to investigate and smear Soros.¹⁶⁸ Facebook’s leadership also lied about the hiring of Definers and strategically released an admission during late November 2018 to bury its disclosure.¹⁶⁹

The manipulation of Google, Facebook, Twitter, and Snapchat through legal advertising strategies and exploitation of Facebook’s lax partnership agreements have been linked to Trump’s victory in 2016.¹⁷⁰ In Britain, the Information Commissioner’s Office (ICO) found two violations of the 1998 UK Data Protection Act, which could result in a fine of up to £500,000.¹⁷¹ Despite the many crimes and failures of Facebook, it is certainly not alone in failing to protect data from outside threats and management failures and has fueled the populist antagonism by its misconduct. In consequence, the publicness of Facebook’s data privacy failures has likely motivated the current public push towards more data security.¹⁷²

[russia/index.html](#) (noting a possible relationship between Russia and Cambridge Analytica).

¹⁶⁷ George Soros, Philanthropist, Remarks delivered at the World Economic Forum (Jan. 25, 2018).

¹⁶⁸ Laura Mandaro, *Facebook Admits It Asked Opposition Firm Definers to Investigate George Soros*, FORBES (Nov. 21, 2018), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbes/2018/11/21/facebook-admits-it-asked-definers-to-look-into-george-soros/#33fb327f37c8>; see also Sheera Frenkel et al., *Delay, Deny, Deflect: How Facebook Leaders Leaned Out in Crisis*, N.Y. TIMES (Nov. 15, 201), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/11/14/technology/facebook-data-russia-election-racism.html> (discussing Facebook’s relationship with Definers Public Affairs company).

¹⁶⁹ Nellie Bowles & Zach Wichter, *On Thanksgiving Eve, Facebook Acknowledges Details of Times Investigation*, N.Y. TIMES (Nov. 23, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/11/22/business/on-thanksgiving-eve-facebook-acknowledges-details-of-times-investigation.html>.

¹⁷⁰ Lewis, *supra* note 162.

¹⁷¹ Warwick Ashford, *Facebook Could Face ICO Fine of Up to £500,000*, COMPUTERWEEKLY.COM (July 11, 2018, 9:30 AM), <https://www.computerweekly.com/news/252444559/Facebook-could-face-ICO-fine-of-up-to-500000>.

¹⁷² See Layton, *supra* note 28, at 236, 242 (discussing the role of GDPR for its efforts to achieve European geopolitical goals and response to Facebook abuse of market power).

One of the largest data breaches of 2018 was tied to Marriott, which stemmed from its acquisition of the Starwood hotel group.¹⁷³ The size of the potential breach included 383 million people.¹⁷⁴ In addition, Starwood, which was the source of the cyber network vulnerability, failed to encrypt the passport numbers for at least 5.25 million hotel customers, who had their passport numbers stolen in plain text.¹⁷⁵ An additional 20.3 million passport numbers were stolen, but those numbers were protected by encryption.¹⁷⁶

The thefts have been attributed to the Chinese Ministry of State Security.¹⁷⁷ China plans to commit over \$150 billion towards quantum computing.¹⁷⁸ Absent lattice-based encryption or other quantum encryption techniques, it is inevitable that the encrypted information stolen and stored will be unlocked by the increasingly operational quantum computers.¹⁷⁹

The healthcare industry has also experienced significant data breaches in 2018, which has likely contributed to growing public sentiment toward data privacy. Between January and August, there were 229 data breaches impacting 6.1 million accounts.¹⁸⁰ In addition, the U.S. Centers

¹⁷³ See Ellen Nakashima & Craig Timberg, *U.S. Investigators Point to China in Marriott Hack Affecting 500 Million Guests*, WASH. POST (Dec. 11, 2018), <https://www.washingtonpost.com/technology/2018/12/12/us-investigators-point-china-marriott-hack-affecting-million-travelers/> (“Marriott acquired Starwood in 2016 and kept the reservation databases separate from its own until recently. The reservation system of Marriott hotels themselves was not affected by the breach.”).

¹⁷⁴ Peter Holley, *Marriott: Hackers Accessed More Than 5 Million Passport Numbers During November’s Massive Data Breach*, WASH. POST (Jan. 4, 2019), <https://www.washingtonpost.com/technology/2019/01/04/marriott-hackers-accessed-more-than-million-passport-numbers-during-novembers-massive-data-breach/> (“Marriott also said that the breach affected an estimated 383 million ‘unique guests,’ down from the original estimate of 500 million given when the company said in November that its Starwood guest reservations database had been penetrated by hackers.”).

¹⁷⁵ *Id.*

¹⁷⁶ *Id.*

¹⁷⁷ Michael Balsamo, *China Suspected in Huge Marriott Data Breach, Official Says*, ASSOCIATED PRESS (Dec. 12, 2018), <https://www.apnews.com/4032b90c40824fbb892206702c5d30ad>.

¹⁷⁸ Arthur Herman, *China’s Brave New World of AI*, FORBES (Aug. 30, 2018, 9:53 AM), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/arthurherman/2018/08/30/chinas-brave-new-world-of-ai/#32b786f028e9>.

¹⁷⁹ *Quantum Computers Will Break the Encryption That Protects the Internet*, ECONOMIST (Oct. 20, 2018), <https://www.economist.com/science-and-technology/2018/10/20/quantum-computers-will-break-the-encryption-that-protects-the-internet>.

¹⁸⁰ Marianne Kolbasuk McGee, *Health Data Breach Victim Tally for 2018 Soars*, HEALTHCARE INFO SECURITY (Aug. 21, 2018),

for Medicare and Medicaid Services reported that Healthcare.gov was breached less than two weeks before open enrollment for the Affordable Care Act, with 75,000 records accessed.¹⁸¹ The health care risks are arguably more serious because of the personal nature of the information available.

There have been many other cyber-attacks beyond the healthcare context. Panera Bread, for example, stored customer data in plaintext on a publicly available website.¹⁸² The Panera Bread breach is believed to have impacted as many as 37 million customers, though the company is reporting only a fraction of that.¹⁸³ Third-party app Timehop, which leverages data from social media sites, was hacked, exposing information of 21 million users.¹⁸⁴ GovPayNet exposed the receipts of 14 million users of the government payment platform.¹⁸⁵ Cathay Pacific Airways' data breach exposing 9.4 million records.¹⁸⁶ Finally, to end 2018, Tribune Publishing suffered a cyber-attack that affected its printing centers for all current and former Tribune Publishing newspapers, including stopping the distribution of Los Angeles Times' Saturday's edition.¹⁸⁷ This is a fraction of the list of successful cyber-incursions and ransomware attacks in recent history.

The consequences of systemic data breaches are taking their toll. A World Economic Forum (WEF) survey, which included global data from over 12,000 executives, found that cybersecurity risk had moved from being a top concern in only North America in 2016, to the top concern for three

<https://www.healthcareinfosecurity.com/health-data-breach-victim-tally-for-2018-soars-a-11407>.

¹⁸¹ Susan Morse, *CMS Responds to Data Breach Affecting 75,000 in Federal ACA Portal*, HEALTHCARE FIN. (Oct. 22, 2018), <https://www.healthcarefinancenews.com/news/cms-responds-data-breach-affecting-75000-federal-aca-portal>.

¹⁸² *Top 10 Application Security Data Breaches of 2018*, HIGH-TECH BRIDGE (Nov. 20, 2018), <https://www.htbridge.com/blog/top-ten-application-security-databreaches-2018.html>.

¹⁸³ *Id.* (citing security analyst Brian Krebs).

¹⁸⁴ *Id.* For example of a post-GDPR breach notification, see Press Release, TIMEHOP, Timehop Security Incident (July 4, 2018) (providing in-depth overview of hack).

¹⁸⁵ *Top 10 Application Security Data Breaches of 2018*, *supra* note 182.

¹⁸⁶ *Id.*

¹⁸⁷ Emily Alpert Reyes et al., *Foreign Cyberattack Hits Newspapers: Here Is What We Know*, L.A. TIMES (Dec. 29, 2018), <https://www.latimes.com/local/lanow/la-me-cyberattack-times-newspaper-malware-20181229-story.html>.

of the eight regions in 2018.¹⁸⁸ The different global regions had different top concerns.¹⁸⁹ “[C]yber-attacks were considered the number one risk by executives in Europe and advanced economies, while failure of national governance was the top concern for their Latin American counterparts.”¹⁹⁰ The study's findings point to a need for government action.¹⁹¹ More specifically, “[c]yber-attacks [were] seen as the number one risk for doing business in markets that account for 50% of global GDP”¹⁹² “This strongly suggests that governments and businesses need to strengthen cyber security and resilience in order to maintain confidence in a highly connected digital economy.”¹⁹³

Business leaders’ concern in economically developed countries reflects the increasing challenge of responding to cyber-attacks, the increased cost of security failures, and the risks associated with operating a business in today’s cyber world. Downtime, ransomware, customer attrition, regulatory fines, and lawsuits are combining to add to the cost of each attack while the rate of attacks is likely to only increase.¹⁹⁴ In addition, malicious or criminal attacks now account for 48% of the data breaches, making the need to respond to these outward attacks an even larger priority.¹⁹⁵

¹⁸⁸ Chloe Taylor, *Cyber-Attacks, Weak Government, and Energy Shocks Pose Biggest Risks to Firms, WEF Finds*, CNBC (Nov. 12, 2018), <https://www.cnbc.com/2018/11/12/cyber-attacks-and-weak-government-among-biggest-risks-to-firms-wef.html> (“WEF head of global risks and geopolitical agenda Aengus Collins said that the report had helped the organisation uncover some eye-catching trends. ‘Cyber-attacks are increasing in prominence, but it is striking how many business leaders point to unemployment and national governance as the most pressing risks for doing business’”).

¹⁸⁹ *Id.*

¹⁹⁰ *Id.*

¹⁹¹ *Id.* (quoting Lori Bailey, Global Head of Cyber Risk, Zurich Insurance Group).

¹⁹² *Id.*

¹⁹³ *Id.*

¹⁹⁴ See IBM SECURITY, 2018 COST OF A DATA BREACH STUDY: GLOBAL OVERVIEW 6 (July 2018). https://databreachcalculator.mybluemix.net/assets/2018_Global_Cost_of_a_Data_Breach_Report.pdf (The four cost centers of a data breach are “detection and escalation;” “notification costs;” “post data breach response” – including fines, discounts, and legal expenditures; and “lost business cost.” Ransomware payments were not included in study.)

¹⁹⁵ *Id.* at 19 (Human error was responsible for 27% of the breaches while system glitches were responsible for 25% of the failures.).

V. CYBERSECURITY INSTABILITY IS MERELY A SYMPTOM: WHERE THE WORLD IS HEADED.

The increased concern among the economically developed nations over cybersecurity risk and the tensions between the U.S. conglomerates and European and Asian regulators will likely drive the public policy for the coming years. The overlapping agenda among Asian and European regulators and U.S. states will blunt any global tension regarding disagreements over worldwide privacy policies.¹⁹⁶ California’s new privacy laws, for example, “echoes many of [the GDPR] rights, and it is likely that future U.S. privacy legislation—whether at the state or federal level—will also incorporate components of these affirmative information rights.”¹⁹⁷ The interest in expanding customer privacy will likely not be seen as a conflict between the U.S. and the EU precisely because states are struggling to enforce GDPR inspired laws within the U.S.¹⁹⁸

a. Impact of Cyber Espionage on Policy.

At the same time, there remains great distrust toward Russia, and likely other nondemocratic regimes, to the extent to which they are harboring, promoting, or operating cyberattacks against the West.¹⁹⁹ For example, in April 2017, the Dutch government expelled “four Russian hackers with diplomatic passports attempting to snoop on the Organisation

¹⁹⁶ See e.g., George P. Slefo, *Marketers and Tech Companies Confront California’s Version of GDPR*, ADAGE (June 29, 2018), <https://adage.com/article/digital/california-passed-version-gdpr/314079> (“Consumers’ personal information is clearly endangered and consumers are fed up with impacts that could last a lifetime Thus far, 48 states in all have enacted privacy laws requiring notification of security breaches involving personal information. Echoing global initiatives, especially the E.U.’s GDPR, the trend to more closely govern personal data will continue.” (quoting Chris Olson, CEO of the Media Trust)).

¹⁹⁷ Joseph Jerome, *California Privacy Law Shows Data Protection is on the March*, ANTITRUST MAG., Fall 2018, at 96.

¹⁹⁸ See *id.* (noting significant similarities regarding compliance and practical requirements between the GDPR and CCPA).

¹⁹⁹ See e.g., Nicu Popescu, *Russian Cyber Sins and Storms*, EUROPEAN COUNCIL ON FOREIGN RELATIONS (Oct. 10, 2018), https://www.ecfr.eu/article/commentary_russian_cyber_sins_and_storms (discussing the wave of indignation towards Russian-supported cyber activities).

for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons.”²⁰⁰ Two questions remain: how will these foreign cyber adversaries evolve, and how will their choices impact the public?

That Russia is very active in cyber-espionage should be a source of concern, but certainly not indignation. The American, Chinese, French, British, Iranian or North Korean governments are among the most active cyber-spies in the world. And Russian cyber-espionage is not a recent phenomenon. . . . It is quite possible that China has even more access to sensitive political, security, technical or business information from the entire world, and is quietly passing what is relevant to its companies, manufacturers, or the military.²⁰¹

This suggests that cyber-espionage is simply part of the new normal, tucked neatly into noise created by criminal cybercrime and accepted as the state of digital warfare. The consequences are changing the world, and mere privacy regulation is likely insufficient.²⁰²

As evidence of this new normal, the U.S. Department of Justice filed an indictment against a division of the Chinese Ministry of State Security’s Tianjin State Security Bureau, known as Advanced Persistent Threat 10 (“APT10”).²⁰³ The APT10 hacking group was active in the U.S. since 2006 and continued in various forms unabated until the time of the indictment.²⁰⁴ These allegations are representative of the activities described by the FBI and Defense Criminal Investigation Service:

²⁰⁰ *Id.*

²⁰¹ *Id.*

²⁰² See Jared Keller, *Hacking is the New Normal*, PACIFIC STANDARD (June 8, 2015), <https://psmag.com/news/hacking-is-the-new-normal> (discussing the pervasive nature of cyberattacks by nation states and noting that “[e]veryday Americans face the risk of cyberattack more than ever before.”).

²⁰³ See generally Sealed Indictment at 1-2, *United States v. Hua*, 18 Cr. 891 (S.D.N.Y. Dec. 17, 2018) (noting defendant-hackers are part of “hacking group operating in China known . . . as Advanced Persistent Threat 10 (the ‘APT10 Group’) . . .”) [hereinafter APT10 Indictment]; see also Press Release, U.S. Dept. Justice, Two Chinese Hackers Associated with the Ministry of State Security Charged with Global Computer Intrusion Campaigns Targeting Intellectual Property and Confidential Business Information (Dec. 20, 2018), <https://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/two-chinese-hackers-associated-ministry-state-security-charged-global-computer-intrusion> [hereinafter APT10 Press Release].

²⁰⁴ APT10 Press Release, *supra* note 203.

5. Over the course of the Technology Theft Campaign, the defendants and their co-conspirators successfully obtained unauthorized access to at least approximately 90 computers belonging to, among others, commercial and defense technology companies and U.S. Government agencies located in at least 12 states, and stole hundreds of gigabytes of sensitive data and information from their computer systems, including from at least the following victims:
 - a. seven companies involved in aviation, space and/or satellite technology;
 - b. three companies involved in communications technology;
 - c. three companies involved in manufacturing advanced electronic systems and/or laboratory analytical instruments;
 - d. a company involved in maritime technology;
 - e. a company involved in oil and gas drilling, production, and processing;
 - f. The National Aeronautics and Space Administration ("NASA") Goddard Space Center; and
 - g. The NASA Jet Propulsion Laboratory....
10. Finally, the APT10 Group also compromised more than 40 computers in order to steal sensitive data belonging to the Navy, including the names, Social Security numbers, dates of birth, salary information, personal phone numbers, and email addresses of more than 100,000 Navy personnel.²⁰⁵

The indictment highlights the pervasive efforts undertaken by the Tianjin State Security Bureau, and notes that “the APT10 Group’s hacking operations evolved over time, demonstrating advances in overcoming network defenses, victim selection, and tradecraft.”²⁰⁶

²⁰⁵ APT10 Indictment, *supra* note 203, at 9–10, 14.

²⁰⁶ *Id.* at 2.

b. Impact of Globalization and Economic Displacement on Cybersecurity.

Against the backdrop of this cyber cold war, a Department of Defense (DoD) report raises non-military alarms regarding the existential threat posed to the West by the Chinese goals for global hegemony.²⁰⁷ Among the risks highlighted by the report are the economic threat, specifically that in the next 30 years, China's economy may be 150% the size of the U.S., which will decrease the U.S.'s power globally.²⁰⁸ In addition, the DoD highlights both the legal and illegal strategies of China, such as "industrial espionage," wherein China employs "hundreds of thousands of Chinese army professionals" to conduct its campaign of cybertheft,²⁰⁹ and that "25% of U.S. STEM graduate students are Chinese foreign nationals."²¹⁰ Whether or not the report provides an accurate reflection of the true risk the Chinese strategy poses to the West, it outlines the U.S. government's concern on its own technology relevancy.

The underlying relationship between the East and West has continued to erode under 21st-century economic pressures, state disintermediation, and the tensions of the Middle East.²¹¹ It is not enough to recognize that the government control over the movement of labor and people has eroded in the age of globalization.²¹² Fears of economic

²⁰⁷ See generally Brown, *supra* note 137.

²⁰⁸ *Id.* at 3.

²⁰⁹ *Id.*

²¹⁰ *Id.*

²¹¹ See, e.g., Yury Barmin, *Syria and the Beginning of a New Cold War*, AL JAZEERA (Apr. 23, 2018), <https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/syria-beginning-cold-war-180422075430047.html> ("Events of the past few months, indeed, have shown that the conflict in Syria has gradually assumed the character of a Cold War-style struggle. Just like during the Cold War of the 20th century, today, positive diplomatic engagement between Russia and the US has been reduced to communication and coordination to avoid direct military confrontation."); see also Julian Borger & Lily Kuo, *US-China Tensions Soar as 'New Cold War' Heats Up*, GUARDIAN (Oct. 16, 2018), <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/oct/16/us-china-new-cold-war-tensions> ("Chinese officials have accused Washington of starting a new cold war, but the jostling between the two powers has already shown its potential to turn hot through accident or miscalculation, if action is not taken to defuse tensions.").

²¹² See Garon, *Revolutions and Expatriates: Social Networking, Ubiquitous Media and the Disintermediation of the State*, *supra* note 58, at 302–04.

displacement relating to immigration have raised further concerns that “could have grave consequences” for the world’s democracies.²¹³

The relationship between the cyber changes and the impacts of globalization are beyond the scope of this Article, but it is highly suggestive that social media, the Arab Spring, and state-sponsored cyber espionage are interwoven into the political and economic landscape shaping these changes.²¹⁴

c. The Growth of the Internet of Things, Cultural Challenges, and Policy.

Next add the growth of the Internet of Things (IoT) into the mix. “The Internet of Things is predicted to revolutionize the way in which we live our lives, with many industry experts tipping it to have the biggest technological impact since cloud computing, as more data than ever before can be collected, stored and analysed.”²¹⁵ It is predicted to allow hospitals to better monitor patients, allow municipalities to monitor traffic, pollution, and much more.²¹⁶ Industry giant GE estimates improvements in industry productivity will generate \$10 trillion to \$15 trillion in GDP worldwide over

²¹³ William A. Galston, *The Rise of European Populism and the Collapse of the Center-Left*, BROOKINGS (Mar. 8, 2018), <https://www.brookings.edu/blog/order-from-chaos/2018/03/08/the-rise-of-european-populism-and-the-collapse-of-the-center-left/> (“Immigration raises cultural and security concerns as well as fears of economic displacement, and it weakens the legitimacy of transnational institutions that are seen as preventing sovereign peoples from using national political means to protect themselves against the threatening developments.”); see also Kelsey P. Norman & Lisel Hintz, *The Real Refugee Crisis is in the Middle East, Not Europe*, PROJECT ON MIDDLE EAST POLITICAL SCIENCE (2017), <https://pomeps.org/2017/03/29/the-real-refugee-crisis-is-in-the-middle-east-not-europe/> (“A supra-national entity of 500 million, the E.U. is up in arms at the 1 million Syrian refugees who entered its borders last year.”) (last visited Apr. 6, 2019).

²¹⁴ See Garon, *Revolutions and Expatriates: Social Networking, Ubiquitous Media and the Disintermediation of the State*, *supra* note 58, at 297 (“At its extreme, this interconnectedness may illustrate the declining role of the nation-state in an information economy. As both goods and information have moved toward a networked, global economy, the ability of a country to control production of goods and management of content has ebbed.”).

²¹⁵ Mike Moore, *What is the IoT? Everything You Need to Know*, TECHRADAR PRO (Nov. 15, 2018), <https://www.techradar.com/news/what-is-the-iot-everything-you-need-to-know>.

²¹⁶ *Id.*

the next fifteen years.²¹⁷ Essentially, “IoT is making businesses rethink their models, products, the way they offer products and their pricing.”²¹⁸

For many of these businesses, there is also an automated IoT enabled payment system connected to the relationship.²¹⁹ Add to this another technological darling—blockchain²²⁰—and the potential for a consumer or citizen experience that is fundamentally different than the technologies of today.²²¹ This transition to IoT blockchain-based payment systems may be on the horizon, but not in the upcoming year.²²² In the meantime, scalability, processing power, interoperability, and other challenges may make the enthusiasm behind these technologies overshadow their reality.²²³ But the hype leads competitors to feel left behind, which in turn fuels a global sense that the most resource-rich, most powerful, and most cutting-edge entities will create a future on their own terms.

Imagine you are a French lawmaker. For decades, you have protected your nation’s cultural output with the diligence of a gardener tending a fragile patch against invasive killer weeds.

You have imposed quotas on the French film industry, required radio stations to play more French music than anyone seems to want to listen to, and you have worked

²¹⁷ Swati Kashyap, *10 Real World Applications of Internet of Things (IoT) – Explained in Videos*, ANALYTICS VIDHYA (Aug. 26, 2016), <https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2016/08/10-youtube-videos-explaining-the-real-world-applications-of-internet-of-things-iot/>.

²¹⁸ James Buckley, *How Banks Can Create A Successful IoT Strategy*, TECHRADAR PRO (Nov. 8, 2018), <https://www.techradar.com/news/how-banks-can-create-a-successful-iot-strategy>.

²¹⁹ *Id.* (“The hand-shake between the consumer side and the supplier side in any transaction between things requires a financial exchange. This puts banks and payments at the center of every IoT ecosystem.”).

²²⁰ See generally Christian Legare, *Blockchain & IoT Convergence: Is It Happening?*, EE TIMES (Feb. 16, 2018), https://www.eetimes.com/author.asp?section_id=36&doc_id=1332967.

²²¹ See Buckley, *supra* note 218 (discussing that banking is at the center of the future IoT ecosystem).

²²² Legare, *supra* note 220 (“The blending of blockchain with the billions of IoT devices is not for the immediate future. Blockchain processing tasks are computationally difficult and time-consuming, and IoT devices are still relatively underpowered, lacking the processing power to directly participate in a blockchain.”).

²²³ See *id.* (discussing the shortcomings of a blockchain model).

methodically to exempt your actions from international free-trade rules.

And now, out of nowhere, come a handful of American technology companies to wash away all your cultural defenses. Suddenly just about everything that a French citizen buys, reads, watches or listens to flows in some way or another through these behemoths.

There is Facebook co-opting your news media. Amazon is dominating book sales, while YouTube and Netflix are taking over television and movies. And the smartphone, arguably the most important platform for entertainment in this era, is controlled almost entirely by Apple and Google.²²⁴

The scenario helps explain GDPR, but it also does much more. Imagine instead that you are Vladimir Putin, Xi Jinping, or Kim Jong-un, an undisputed absolute ruler of your regime. These cultural challenges are vexing.²²⁵ The threat of technological irrelevance is much, much worse—it is truly horrifying.²²⁶ For revisionist countries, the threat of the digital divide is propelling increasingly aggressive and reckless responses.²²⁷

²²⁴ Farhad Manjoo, *Why the World is Drawing Battle Lines Against American Tech Giants*, N.Y. TIMES (June 1, 2016), <https://www.nytimes.com/2016/06/02/technology/why-the-world-is-drawing-battle-lines-against-american-tech-giants.html>.

²²⁵ See U.S. DEPT. DEFENSE, SUMMARY OF THE 2018 NATIONAL DEFENSE STRATEGY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: SHARPENING THE AMERICAN MILITARY'S COMPETITIVE EDGE 2 (2018), <https://dod.defense.gov/Portals/1/Documents/pubs/2018-National-Defense-Strategy-Summary.pdf> (“The central challenge to U.S. prosperity and security is the *reemergence of long-term, strategic competition* by what the National Security Strategy classifies as revisionist powers. It is increasingly clear that China and Russia want to shape a world consistent with their authoritarian model—gaining veto authority over other nations’ economic, diplomatic, and security decisions.”).

²²⁶ *But see* Yuval Noah Harari, *Why Technology Favors Tyranny*, ATLANTIC MAGAZINE (Oct. 2018), <https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2018/10/yuval-noah-harari-technology-tyranny/568330/> (discussing technology’s threat to all governments and the fear felt by common people unfamiliar with new technology and its application to them).

²²⁷ See, e.g., Matthew Bey, *The Coming Tech War with China*, STRATFOR (Feb. 6, 2018), <https://worldview.stratfor.com/article/coming-tech-war-china> (“Five years ago, by contrast, [China] was widely perceived as an imitator in technology, not an innovator. As hard as it may be for Washington to admit, China is catching up in the tech race.”); Steven Pifer, *The Growing Russian Military Threat in Europe: Assessing and Addressing*

At the 2018 Bloomberg New Economy Forum in Singapore, former U.S. Treasury secretary Hank Paulson warned of an “Economic Iron Curtain,” which would divide the world into estranged economic spheres if the U.S. and China failed to resolve their strategic differences.²²⁸ Paulson flagged the current global tensions, noting that the world is “arriving at a moment of change, challenge, and potentially even crisis.”²²⁹

i. Government Use of Monitoring Technologies.

The new “smart” policing technologies are already among us. In the U.S., for example, the ACLU has published a report listing “costly and invasive surveillance technologies that might be recording you, your family, and your neighbors right now.”²³⁰ Some of these technologies have ubiquitous social uses, including Electronic Toll Readers (E-Z Pass Plate Readers),²³¹ Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) Cameras,²³² government-owned hacking hardware and software,²³³ and Police Body Cameras.²³⁴ Other technologies are primarily limited to their surveillance purpose:

- Biometric Surveillance Technology: “Biometric surveillance technology includes facial, voice, iris, and gait-recognition software and databases. Used in combination with other surveillance technologies, like CCTV cameras, this tool can completely undermine the ability of person to travel in public or gather with friends anonymously.”²³⁵

the Challenge: The Case of Ukraine, BROOKINGS (May 17, 2017), <https://www.brookings.edu/testimonies/the-growing-russian-military-threat-in-europe/> (“Russian President Vladimir Putin and the Kremlin leadership have . . . concluded that the European security order that developed in the aftermath of the Cold War disadvantages Russian interests. They have sought to undermine that order and define Russia in opposition to the United States and the West.”).

²²⁸ Christian Edwards, *Former U.S. Treasury Secretary Hank Paulson Warns of an ‘Economic Iron Curtain’ if the U.S. and China Can’t Find a Way to Get Along*, BUSINESS INSIDER (Nov. 7, 2018), <https://www.businessinsider.com/former-treasury-secretary-hank-paulson-warns-us-china-trade-war-2018-11>.

²²⁹ *Id.*

²³⁰ See generally ACLU, COMMUNITY CONTROL OVER POLICE SURVEILLANCE: TECHNOLOGY 101 (2018), <https://www.aclu.org/report/community-control-over-police-surveillance-technology-101>.

²³¹ *Id.* at 4.

²³² *Id.*

²³³ *Id.* at 7.

²³⁴ *Id.* at 8–9.

²³⁵ *Id.* at 5.

- Stingrays: “Also known as cell-site simulators or international mobile subscriber identity (IMSI) catchers, the device mimics a cell phone communications tower, causing your cell phone to communicate with it. This communications link gives the Stingray the ability to track your location and intercept data from your phone, including voice and typed communications.”²³⁶
- Automatic License Plate Readers (ALPRs): “Mobile or fixed-location cameras that are used to take photographs of license plates, digitize them, and then store, process, and search captured data in real time or over the course of months or even years.”²³⁷
- ShotSpotter-Gunshot Detection Systems: “[M]icrophones that are designed to detect the sound of a gunshot. By placing them throughout an area, the microphones are able to triangulate a gunshot and provide police with a limited geographic location from which a gunshot emanated.”²³⁸
- Surveillance-Enabled Light Bulbs: Camera and microphone equipped, networked LED light bulbs are sold with built in surveillance capabilities that can turn any room into an invisibly monitored space.²³⁹
- Social Media Monitoring: “This software can be used to covertly monitor, collect, and analyze individuals’ social media data from platforms like Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram. It can identify social media posts and users based on specific keywords; geographically track people as they communicate; chart people’s relationships, networks, and associations; monitor protests; identify the leaders of political and social movements; and measure a person’s influence.”²⁴⁰

²³⁶ *Id.* at 3.

²³⁷ *Id.* (“Some private companies provide ALPRs to the police free of charge in return for access to the data they collect and the ability to collect fees from private citizens later, such as a vehicle owner they identify as owing outstanding court fees.”).

²³⁸ *Id.* at 5.

²³⁹ *Id.* at 6.

²⁴⁰ *Id.* at 7.

These are not all the technologies in use even in the U.S.²⁴¹ Other countries use similar technologies and more, exploiting smart national identification cards to monitor the movement of the public with even greater precision.²⁴² These technologies are often targeted at minorities and dissidents.²⁴³ Within the U.S., there also are significant concerns about disparate use of the technology and disparate impact of the efficiency they bring.²⁴⁴

The new technologies enable the police, intelligence community and military to respond to alleged threats.²⁴⁵ The cost of expensive tools creates a need to justify the cost and prove the worth of the technology, fueling an expansion of their use.²⁴⁶ This, in turn, creates market opportunities for the creators of increasingly sophisticated technologies, including more autonomous products and services.²⁴⁷

²⁴¹ See e.g., Adi Kamar et. al, *NSA Turns Cookies (And More) Into Surveillance Beacons*, ELECTRONIC FRONTIER FOUNDATION (Dec. 11, 2013), <https://www.eff.org/deeplinks/2013/12/nsa-turns-cookies-and-more-surveillance-beacons> (discussing various new technologies used by the NSA).

²⁴² See e.g., Eva Dou, *Chinese Surveillance Expands to Muslims Making Mecca Pilgrimage*, W.S.J. (July 31, 2018), <https://www.wsj.com/articles/chinese-surveillance-expands-to-muslims-making-mecca-pilgrimage-1533045703> (discussing China's use of state-issued tracking devices used for "ensur[ing] the wearer's safety" to monitor Chinese Muslims on their pilgrimage to Mecca); Loreben Tuquero, *Nothing To Be Afraid Of? Other Countries Use Their National IDs in Countless Ways*, RAPPLER (Aug. 6, 2018), <https://www.rappler.com/newsbreak/iq/204657-national-id-functions-worldwide> (noting various countries' national identity cards and the uses beyond government functions, like banking and healthcare).

²⁴³ See Dou, *supra* note 242 (discussing Chinese surveillance on the minority Chinese Muslim group).

²⁴⁴ See Tamara Evdokimova, *Turning the Tide on Police Surveillance*, NEW AM. (Sept. 20, 2018), <https://www.newamerica.org/weekly/edition-218/turning-tide-police-surveillance/> (highlighting various harmful consequences that stem from the inevitable government misuse of surveillance technologies).

²⁴⁵ See e.g., *id.* (noting the police can use surveillance technologies, like automatic license plate readers (ALRPs), to respond more quickly and more effectively to an Amber Alert).

²⁴⁶ Valarie Findlay, *Quantifying, Justifying the Costs of Body-Worn Cameras*, NAT'L POLICE FOUND. (2016), <https://www.policefoundation.org/quantifying-justifying-cost-of-body-worn-cameras/> (last visited Apr. 7, 2019) (referring to the cost-benefit analysis of body-worn camera programs as an important "shell game" for the future of policing).

²⁴⁷ See Billy Perrigo, *A Global Arms Race for Killer Robots is Transforming the Battlefield*, TIME (Apr. 9, 2018), <http://time.com/5230567/killer-robots/>, (noting that five years since UN talks to ban autonomous weapons, high-tech militaries, including the

If the world once again finds itself chilling in a state of cold war, then the development of autonomous military and commercial devices pose a real and destabilizing threat to the cyber world order. “It is now undeniable that the *homeland is no longer a sanctuary*. America is a target, whether from terrorists seeking to attack our citizens; malicious cyber activity against personal, commercial, or government infrastructure; or political and information subversion.”²⁴⁸

ii. *Military Use of Autonomous Weapon Technologies.*

Thus far, it appears that concerns over fully autonomous weapons remain theoretical for the time being.²⁴⁹ But self-directed machines and devices are being developed that will inevitably put the human actor further and further into the margins of the engagement decisions.²⁵⁰

By 2016, China had tested autonomous technologies in each domain: land, air and sea. South Korea announced in December it was planning to develop a drone swarm that could descend upon the North in the event of war. Israel already has a fully autonomous loitering munition called the Harop, which can dive-bomb radar signals without human direction and has reportedly already been used with lethal results on the battlefield. The world’s most powerful nations

U.S., Russia, the U.K., Israel, South Korea and China, are using drones and weapons with increased autonomy).

²⁴⁸ U.S. DEP’T DEFENSE, SUMMARY OF THE 2018 NATIONAL DEFENSE STRATEGY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA: SHARPENING THE AMERICAN MILITARY’S COMPETITIVE EDGE, *supra* note 225 at 3 (emphasis included).

²⁴⁹ Lara Seligman, *No, the Pentagon Is Not Working on Killer Robots — Yet*, FOREIGN POLICY (Feb. 13, 2019), <https://foreignpolicy.com/2019/02/13/no-the-pentagon-is-not-working-on-killer-robots-yet/> (quoting Lt. Gen. Jack Shanahan, head of the Pentagon’s Joint Artificial Intelligence Center) (“We are nowhere close to the full autonomy question that most people seem to leap to a conclusion on when they think about DoD and AI”).

²⁵⁰ See Bonnie Docherty, *We’re Running Out of Time to Stop Killer Robot Weapons*, GUARDIAN (Apr. 11, 2018), <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/apr/11/killer-robot-weapons-autonomous-ai-warfare-un> (“Precursors have already been developed or deployed as autonomy has become increasingly common on the battlefield. Hi-tech military powers, including China, Israel, Russia, South Korea, the UK and the US, have invested heavily in the development of autonomous weapons.”); see generally Perrigo, *supra* note 247.

are already at the starting blocks of a secretive and potentially deadly arms race, while regulators lag behind.²⁵¹

Against this perceived threat, the U.S. is responding with new technologies and tactics. Self-directed autonomous weapons could change the face of warfare for those nations with the capacity to build and deploy these tools.²⁵² As the U.S. Department of Defense stated in a 2014 report, “unmanned systems (air, maritime, and ground) continue to hold much promise for the warfighting tasks ahead.”²⁵³ According to a recent congressional report, “AI is not a wholly revolutionary idea to be applied to the military domain, and it is merely the next logical step in the digitization and mechanization of the modern battlefield.”²⁵⁴ Against the fog of war, the amount of information now overwhelms the military’s capacity to analyze and respond.²⁵⁵ So AI provides a potential solution. Implicit in the choice is that to lift the fog of war, the military has to turn to the black box of AI.

Left out of most the discussion on military automation is the EU.²⁵⁶ Although its citizens remain on the borders of the countries likely to be

²⁵¹ Perrigo, *supra* note 247.

²⁵² See generally Ingvild Bode & Hendrik Huelss, *Autonomous Weapons Systems and Changing Norms in International Relations*, 44 REV. INT’L STUDIES, 393 (2018).

²⁵³ U.S. DEPT. DEFENSE, UNMANNED SYSTEMS INTEGRATED ROADMAP FY2013–2038, vii (Jan. 2014), <https://apps.dtic.mil/dtic/tr/fulltext/u2/a592015.pdf>.

²⁵⁴ CONG. RESEARCH SERV., R45392, U.S. GROUND FORCES ROBOTICS AND AUTONOMOUS SYSTEMS (RAS) AND ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE (AI): CONSIDERATIONS FOR CONGRESS 1 (2018) (citing Adam Wunische, *AI Weapons Are Here to Stay*, NAT’L INTEREST (Aug. 5, 2018), <https://nationalinterest.org/feature/ai-weapons-are-here-stay-27862>)).

²⁵⁵ See Dakota S. Rudesill, *Precision War and Responsibility: Transformational Military Technology and the Duty of Care Under the Laws of War*, 32 YALE J. INT’L L. 517, 536 (2007) (“[I]nformation overload is a problem in a way it never was before. . . . The torrent of data before commanders can crowd out the refined actionable intelligence that is the basis for not just reasonable decisions but right decisions.”).

²⁵⁶ See e.g., Marc Champion, *Europe Wants a Robot Army to Challenge the U.S. and China on AI*, BLOOMBERG (Apr. 25, 2018), <https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2018-04-25/europe-wants-a-robot-army-to-challenge-the-u-s-and-china-on-ai> (Europe “has no vast internet platforms on the scale of Google Inc. or China’s Tencent Holdings Ltd. to Hoover up the data that underlie many current technological advances in AI. Worse, those American and Chinese tech giants have deep pockets, allowing them not only to fund expensive research, but also to scoop up successful European startups.”); see also Bruno Macaes, *Europe’s AI delusion, Brussels is Failing to Grasp Threats and Opportunities of Artificial Intelligence*, POLITICO (Mar. 19, 2018), <https://www.politico.eu/article/opinion-europes-ai-delusion/> (noting that the European

engaged in kinetic engagements and economic upheavals, only Britain appears to be actively pursuing the development of this technology.²⁵⁷

iii. Current Cybersecurity Regulations Do Not Address the Larger Cyber Picture.

Against this context, current EU and U.S. regulations do not address these concerns. With their intended focus on consumer data privacy with private entities, the GDPR and new changes to U.S. law do not address the pressures fueling international cyberattacks, escalating cyber-espionage, military automation, and other trends such as the growth of autonomous technologies, IoT devices, and the ever-increasing reliance on AI technologies embedded in consumer and commercial technologies. In order to dissipate fears of cyber warfare—and reduce the impact of cyber espionage on economies—more regulation, with a focus beyond consumer privacy, is imperative.

VI. CONCLUSION

The road to hell is paved with good intentions; specifically, policymakers focus on privacy concerns, rather than broader vulnerabilities in cyberspace.

After decades struggling to tame cyberspace, 2018 became the year that the EU put its muscular GDPR privacy regime into effect, grabbing extraterritorial authority over the FAAMG multinational corporations that dominate global economics and communications. U.S. states such as California have followed suit with a range of regulations attempting to reduce the impact these companies have on the lives of the public.

Despite this, other nation states have maintained their ability to exploit new cyber technologies, causing damage to businesses, economies, governments, and citizens. Time will tell whether these consumer privacy-

Union's current AI strategy draft reflects the failure to recognize the technology's significance).

²⁵⁷ See Jamie Doward, *Britain Funds Research Into Drones That Decide Who They Kill, Says Report*, GUARDIAN (Nov. 10, 2018), <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/nov/10/autonomous-drones-that-decide-who-they-kill-britain-funds-research> (noting the UK Ministry of Defense's alleged interest in building autonomous lethal drones, in the context that the UK has refused to support UN proposals to ban them).

oriented laws actually change behaviors in online environments for the benefit of the public or merely add a layer of protectionism for Europe and its local industries.

None of these policies focus on the growing role of AI, IoT devices, and autonomous machines, or on the potential weaponization of these devices. In each sphere, however, the reaction has been the same. The role of the state has reemerged to fight its disintermediation triggered by these data-infused technologies.

The Empires are striking back. Unfortunately, they aren't addressing the gravest threats.

Payola 3.0? The Rise of Internet “Playola”

*Elizabeth Levin**

The terrestrial radio payola (or “pay-to-play”) scandal resulted in regulations, lawsuits, and millions of dollars in settlements. In light of the move away from terrestrial radio and toward Internet radio and streaming services, the payola era may seem irrelevant to modern-day practices. This view, however, is mistaken. Payola has reappeared in a new form: Spotify.

Spotify, the world’s most well-known music-streaming platform, has stated publicly that it does not accept payment for placement on its most popular playlists. But rumors of this practice have begun to surface, as have explicit agreements to pay for placement on popular playlists created by individuals—placement on which significantly increases an artist’s chances on appearing on Spotify’s own major playlists. Appearance on a Spotify-created playlist is the most direct path to higher streaming revenue, so payment for placement may significantly affect artists’ potential for success. Regulators who observe this practice on Spotify may take lessons from the payola scandal of the past and respond through regulation limiting the practice. However, regulation may not be the best answer for Internet payola, specifically in light of arguments against anti-payola regulation more broadly and its applicability or likely effectiveness given the unique nature of the Internet.

* Yale Law School, J.D. Candidate 2020. I am deeply grateful to Jacqueline Charlesworth and Lisa Alter for their feedback and for teaching the course that inspired the topic of this paper, as well as to the editors of the *Journal of Law and Technology at Texas* for their meticulous editing. All views and errors expressed in this piece are my own.

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I. INTRODUCTION

It appears that an old problem has arisen in new form: payola, the practice of an artist paying for airtime without the radio station disclosing this payment, may have appeared in online streaming services. While Spotify has publicly stated that it is against accepting payment in exchange for placement on playlists, rumors have surfaced that record labels can and have bought spots on Spotify playlists.¹ Further, some user-created

¹ Louis Aguiar & Joel Waldfogel, *Platforms, Promotion, and Product Discovery: Evidence from Spotify Playlists* (JRC Digital Economy Working Paper 2018-04), JOINT

playlists, placement on which can impact whether a song is added to an in-house playlist, have begun offering placement for payment.² If this practice of accepting payment for playlist placement—nicknamed “playola”—is a form of payola, regulation against it may be justified for the same reasons as for terrestrial radio payola, particularly given the concern that payola practices lead to a decline in music quality. On the other hand, several factors counsel against such regulation, including arguments against anti-playola regulation in terrestrial radio, the distinguishing characteristics of the Internet, and uncertainty over whether the FCC would have the authority to administer anti-playola regulation in light of its position on Internet regulation more broadly.

II. THE RISE OF INTERNET MUSIC SERVICES

a. Types of Internet Music Services

Internet music services have become primary players in the music-listening industry. Internet music providers take two primary forms: music-streaming platforms, like Spotify and Apple Music, and webcasting services, like Pandora and iHeartRadio. The market for Internet music services is fairly concentrated: a study by MusicWatch found that Spotify and Apple Music are the dominant players, with north of 20 million subscribers each; Pandora, at over 6 million subscribers, comes next; the remaining 5 million subscribers (10% of the total subscriber base) are divided between Google, YouTube, Amazon Music, and iHeartRadio.³

RESEARCH CTR., EUROPEAN COMM'N 7, https://www.tse-fr.eu/sites/default/files/TSE/documents/ChaireJLL/Digital-Economics-Conference/Conference/aguiar_luis.pdf.

² Glen Peoples, *How 'Playola' is Infiltrating Streaming Services: Pay for Play is Definitely Happening*, BILLBOARD (Aug. 19, 2015), <https://www.billboard.com/articles/business/6670475/playola-promotion-streaming-services>.

³ Cherie Hu, *Paid Music Streaming Subscribers Surpass 50 Million in US, But There's a Twist: Exclusive*, BILLBOARD (Sept. 11, 2018), <https://www.billboard.com/articles/business/8474560/paid-music-streaming-subscribers-surpass-50-million-us-exclusive>.

Music-streaming platforms are interactive, allowing users to listen to songs within that platform's collection on demand. Most also provide users with curated playlists meant to appeal to each user's individual tastes, as well as access to themed playlists created for a broader audience.⁴ Webcasting services are non-interactive, creating Internet radio broadcasts through a mix of algorithmic and human curation.⁵ While webcasting services like Pandora can operate under a statutory license in accordance with 17 U.S.C. § 144,⁶ streaming services like Spotify have to strike deals with labels and publishers to license their music for legal use.⁷

Internet radio and streaming services have been consistently growing in popularity since they hit the music-listening market.⁸ Even as the music industry as a whole has faced declining revenues, digital streaming and digital sales have continued to grow.⁹ The number of Internet music listeners paying for monthly subscriptions for music-streaming services nearly doubled from 2016 to 2018, hitting an estimated 51 million.¹⁰ While this still stands in stark contrast to the number of users streaming music for free, whether on the free tier of Spotify, on YouTube, or by sharing subscriptions,¹¹ developments in online music platforms' technological capabilities have encouraged users to switch over to paid

⁴ *What is Spotify and How Does it Work?*, TECHBOOMERS (Nov. 8, 2016, 12:14 PM), <https://techboomers.com/what-is-spotify>.

⁵ Glenton Davis, *When Copyright is Not Enough: Deconstructing Why, as the Modern Music Industry Takes, Musicians Continue to Make*, 16 CHI.-KENT J. INTELL. PROP. 373, 380 (2017).

⁶ *Id.* at 380 n. 46.

⁷ Zack O'Malley Greenburg, *Revenge of the Record Labels: How the Majors Renewed Their Grip on Music*, FORBES (Apr. 15, 2015), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/zackomalleygreenburg/2015/04/15/revenge-of-the-record-labels-how-the-majors-renewed-their-grip-on-music/#2b8b2c42fba7>.

⁸ Davis, *supra* note 5; *2017 Year-End Music Report*, NIELSEN 2 (2017), <https://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/corporate/us/en/reports-downloads/2018-reports/2017-year-end-music-report-us.pdf> ("The surge in streaming continued throughout 2017, topping all forms of music consumption.").

⁹ Nikelle Murphy, *Why Streaming Is the Future of the Music Industry, Not Its End*, CHEATSHEET (Aug. 26, 2015), <https://www.cheatsheet.com/entertainment/music/why-streaming-is-the-future-of-the-music-industry-not-its-end.html/>.

¹⁰ Hu, *supra* note 3.

¹¹ *Id.*

subscriptions, despite having these free alternatives.¹² With the growing user base, revenues have risen as well.¹³

b. Spotify and the Streaming Economy

Digital music streaming has essentially become an independent economy. The proportion of U.S.-recorded music revenues from streaming has steadily increased.¹⁴ Rather than offering digital music downloads, streaming services provide users with various subscription options.¹⁵ Generally, some amount of content is available for free, and users can pay a monthly price to access things like the ability to play any song on demand, certain playlists curated to their tastes, and more.¹⁶ Although most Spotify users elect not to pay for a premium subscription, most of Spotify's revenue comes from this service.¹⁷ Other than access to music, the main benefit that Spotify provides to its listeners is personalization—curating

¹² Davis, *supra* note 5, at 374.

¹³ Spotify has been reporting modest growth for its streaming business, but is struggling in public markets as investors have been skeptical about its ability to sustain growth long-term and become profitable. See Sarah Perez, *Spotify Plans to Buy Up to \$1 Billion in Stock*, TECHCRUNCH (Nov. 5, 2018), <https://techcrunch.com/2018/11/05/spotify-plans-to-buy-back-up-to-1-billion-in-stock/>; see also, *Spotify Expects its 2018 Revenue to Grow 20% to 30%, Slower than Last Year's Pace*, CNBC (Mar. 26, 2018), <https://www.cnbc.com/2018/03/26/spotify-expects-its-2018-revenue-to-grow-20-percent-to-30-percent-slower-than-last-years-pace.html> (noting the decline in Spotify's revenue growth from 2017 to 2018).

¹⁴ U.S. COPYRIGHT OFFICE, *Copyright and the Music Marketplace* 71 (Feb. 2015) [hereinafter Music Licensing Study], <https://www.copyright.gov/policy/musiclicensingstudy/copyright-and-the-music-marketplace.pdf>; see also Dani Deahl, *The Verge 2018 Tech Report Card: Streaming Music* (Dec. 31, 2018), <https://www.theverge.com/2018/12/31/18156503/2018-tech-recap-streaming-music-spotify-apple-soundcloud-tidal> (stating that the proportion of revenue in the music industry from streaming services has increased from 62 percent in 2017, to 75 percent in 2018).

¹⁵ Hu, *supra* note 3.

¹⁶ *Id.*

¹⁷ Kerry Flynn, *Spotify Plans to Add Interest-Based Targeting to Its Self-Serve Platform*, DIGIDAY (Feb. 1, 2019), <https://digiday.com/marketing/spotify-plans-add-interest-based-targeting-self-serve-platform/> (describing how Spotify's 2018 third-quarter earnings report reflected that only "10.5 percent of [its] revenue is from ads").

recommendations meant to help listeners discover music they like.¹⁸ The two primary forms of personalization are personalized music suggestions, and more general playlists from which a user can choose.¹⁹ An example of a music suggestion is Spotify's Discover Weekly playlist.²⁰ The general playlists, like Spotify's Today's Top Hits and New Music Friday, provide particular types of music in an accessible form.²¹

Spotify's "in-house" playlists are either curated by Spotify employees or created algorithmically.²² Some of its most popular playlists are created by employees, who frequently focus on songs and artists that are already widely known.²³ Generally, Spotify "tests" songs by including them on playlists with smaller followings before adding them to the major global lists.²⁴ Appearing on a Spotify in-house playlist has serious implications for revenue; it results both in more revenue through Spotify's pay-per-play payment system and more listeners and subscribers for the artist.²⁵ As such, Spotify can determine which songs and artists are discovered in the first place.²⁶ Although there are an estimated 2 billion playlists on Spotify,²⁷ the company's in-house playlists "have over three quarters of the followers of the top 1,000 playlists," and its "algorithmic lists have another 9.3 percent."²⁸

¹⁸ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 2.

¹⁹ *Id.*

²⁰ *Id.*

²¹ *Id.*

²² *Id.*

²³ *Id.* at 5.

²⁴ See David Pierce, *The Secret Hit-Making Power of the Spotify Playlist*, WIRED (May 3, 2017, 7:30 PM), <https://www.wired.com/2017/05/secret-hit-making-power-spotify-playlist/>.

²⁵ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 3–4; see also Steven Bertoni, *How Spotify Made Lorde a Pop Superstar*, FORBES (Nov. 26, 2013, 4:46 AM), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/stevenbertoni/2013/11/26/how-spotify-made-lorde-a-pop-superstar/>.

²⁶ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 3.

²⁷ See Craig Smith, *72 Amazing Spotify Stats and Facts (December 2018)*, DMR (Dec. 17, 2018), <https://expandedramblings.com/index.php/spotify-statistics/>.

²⁸ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 3–4.

Although being placed on a playlist does not necessarily guarantee that a song will be played, it has an empirical effect. A study by authors for the European Commission analyzed what happens to a song's streams when it appears on Spotify's most popular playlists.²⁹ To illustrate the effect of inclusion in one of these in-house playlists, when country singer Kane Brown's song "What Ifs" appeared on "Today's Top Hits," its daily stream count rose from about 200,000 times a day to nearly 500,000,³⁰ and his followers rose from 11.6 million to 29.2 million.³¹ Once it was removed from the playlist, his number of followers dropped from 30.8 million to just 10.8 million, and declined for months thereafter.³² The authors of the study concluded that getting on Today's Top Hits is worth almost 20 million additional streams, which translates to between \$116,000 and \$163,000 in revenue from Spotify alone.³³

For most artists who do not make it to a Spotify-curated playlist, the primary criticism of Spotify—and of music-streaming services more generally—is that it underpays artists.³⁴ Critics argue that music-streaming revenue cannot outweigh the shift away from purchasing physical units and downloads, even considering an overall increase in

²⁹ See Neil Shah, *Spotify Uproar Points to the Power of the Playlist*, WALL ST. J. (Jun. 6, 2018, 01:43 PM), <https://www.wsj.com/articles/spotify-disputes-point-to-the-power-of-the-playlist-1528307004> (this included Today's Top Hits, which had over 20 million followers, RapCaviar, with 9.7 million followers, and New Music Friday, with 2.7 million followers).

³⁰ *Id.*

³¹ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 10.

³² *Id.* at 13.

³³ *Id.* at 27.

³⁴ See Davis, *supra* note 5, at 374 (“[A] spokesman for Spotify confirmed that the company pays ‘between \$0.006 and \$0.0084’ in royalties to an artist each time a user streams a work by that artist. . . . [T]o the independent artist, this wage . . . is not livable.”); Music Licensing Study, *supra* note 14, at 73–74; Victor Luckerson, *Is Spotify's Model Wiping Out Music's Middle Class?*, RINGER (Jan. 16, 2019, 5:30 AM), <https://www.theringer.com/tech/2019/1/16/18184314/spotify-music-streaming-service-royalty-payout-model> (“The fact that Spotify and other streaming services offer paltry payouts to artists is widely known . . .”).

performance royalties.³⁵ Even for the most widely played songs, the musician would likely earn more through the sale of a digital download or sale of merchandise than what the artist would get from the online streams.³⁶ The decline in payment to artists can likely be attributed to the pay-per-play model, as the amount actually spent by consumers has generally stayed flat, but with a different mix of digital downloads, streaming services, and physical copies.³⁷ Streaming companies are resisting royalty rate hikes, concerned with the damage that over-paying royalties could cause to the business.³⁸ Viewed as a percentage of revenue, “royalty obligations vary from about five percent of revenue (for traditional radio) to about seventy percent of revenue (for on-demand streaming)” due to rate-setting in copyright law.³⁹ Although Spotify’s paid-subscription consumer base has grown over the years, as of 2017 Spotify still had an

³⁵ Davis, *supra* note 5, at 380–81; Music Licensing Study *supra* note 14, at 74.

³⁶ See Jessica Michelle Ciminero, *Technology, the Internet and the Evolution of Webcasters – Friends or Foes of Musicians and Their IP*, 5 BERKELEY J. ENT. & SPORTS L. 16, 30 (2016) (“[A]nd even for the most widely played songs the musician would likely earn more through the sale of a digital download.”); see also Maya Kosoff, *Pharell Made Only \$2,700 In Songwriter Royalties From 43 Million Plays of ‘Happy’ On Pandora*, BUS. INSIDER (Dec. 23, 2014, 10:12 AM), <https://www.businessinsider.com/pharrell-made-only-2700-in-songwriter-royalties-from-43-million-plays-of-happy-on-pandora-2014-12>; David Lowery, *My Song Got Played On Pandora 1 Million Times and All I Got Was \$16.89, Less Than What I Make From a Single T-Shirt Sale!*, TRICHORDIST (June 24, 2013), <http://thetrichordist.com/2013/06/24>; Doug Gross, *Songwriters: Spotify Doesn’t Pay Off... Unless You’re a Taylor Swift*, CNN (Nov. 13, 2014), <http://www.cnn.com/2014/11/12/tech/web/spotify-pay-musicians> (noting that the songwriters of the Bon Jovi hit “Livin’ on a Prayer” split \$110 in royalties from Pandora for 6.5 million plays of that song).

³⁷ Peter Kafka, *The Music Business’s Song Is on Repeat: Streaming Is Up, Sales Are Flat*, RECODE (Sep. 21, 2015, 2:00 PM), <https://www.recode.net/2015/9/21/11618774/the-music-business-s-song-is-on-repeat-streaming-is-up-sales-are-flat>.

³⁸ Mark Hogan, *A Guide to the Royalties Battle Between Streaming Services and Songwriters*, PITCHFORK (Mar. 12, 2019), <https://pitchfork.com/the-pitch/a-guide-to-the-royalties-battle-between-streaming-services-and-songwriters/>.

³⁹ Peter DiCola, *Copyright Equality: Free Speech, Efficiency, and Regulatory Parity in Distribution*, 93 B.U. L. REV. 1837, 1839 (2013); see Glenn Peoples, *Pandora Revenue Up 40 Percent, Listening Growth Softens*, BILLBOARD (Oct. 23, 2014), <https://www.billboard.com/articles/6296384/pandora-revenue-up-40-percent-listening-growth-softens>.

operating loss of \$421.3 million.⁴⁰ Digital music services also contend that the blame for underpayment of artists may lie with intermediaries such as record labels, music publishers, and performance rights organizations, rather than the services themselves.⁴¹

Another major concern with streaming services is the potential for fraud within the pay-per-play model.⁴² Streaming services uniquely allow individual consumers “to shape the revenue stream of a creator purely by consuming more of their work without any additional expense”,⁴³ in other words, creations are now rewarded by mass appeal.⁴⁴ Because the number of plays is what matters, the system can be rigged through click-fraud and “fan activism,” where hackers or actual listeners can increase the number of plays they give a song or artists for the explicit purpose of increasing their revenues.⁴⁵ With music-streaming services increasingly being seen as

⁴⁰ See Ed Christman, *Spotify's Losses More Than Double to \$581M, Revenues Rise to \$3B*, BILLBOARD (Jun. 15, 2017) <https://www.billboard.com/articles/business/7833686/spotify-2016-losses-financial-results-revenue/> (“Spotify actually hides how much they pay out to content owners.”).

⁴¹ Music Licensing Study, *supra* note 14, at 77.

⁴² See Joseph Dimont, Note, *Royalty Inequity: Why Music Streaming Services Should Switch to a Per-Subscriber Model*, 69 HASTINGS L.J. 675, 700 (2018) (noting the ability “for some to rig the system using click-fraud techniques . . .”).

⁴³ *Id.*

⁴⁴ Luckerson, *supra* note 34.

⁴⁵ Dimont, *supra* note 42, at 688–89; see also Jonathan Griffin, *The Mystery Tracks Being ‘Forced’ on Spotify Users*, BBC (Jan. 25, 2019), <https://www.bbc.com/news/blogs-trending-46898211> (describing possible hack of Spotify, resulting in fake bands appearing in users’ playlists); Chris Welch, *Spotify Removes Silent Album that Earned Indie Band \$20,000*, VERGE (May 7, 2014, 10:25 AM), <https://www.theverge.com/2014/5/7/5690590/spotify-removes-silent-album-that-earned-indie-band-20000> (describing how a Michigan-based band earned \$20,000 in Spotify royalties through a completely silent album, which they encouraged fans to stream continuously at night while they slept). Recently, and concerningly, forms of fraud that extend beyond fraudulent plays for profit have begun to crop up as well. See Amy X. Wang, *Why Fake Beyoncé Albums on Spotify and Apple Music Highlights Streaming’s Wider Licensing Troubles*, MUSIC BUSINESS WORLDWIDE (Jan. 10, 2019), <https://www.musicbusinessworldwide.com/why-fake-beyonce-music-on-spotify-and-apple-music-highlights-streamings-wider-licensing-troubles/> (describing unauthorized leaks of Beyoncé and SZA demos).

“the new radio,” their impact on revenue is important.⁴⁶ If the only way for an artist to earn a sustainable living on Spotify is to appear on a Spotify-curated playlist,⁴⁷ then the potential for fraud or unfair practices becomes even more significant.

III. PAYOLA ON TERRESTRIAL RADIO

The term “payola” was originally used by *Variety* magazine in 1938.⁴⁸ Payola is the practice of accepting or receiving money or other valuable consideration “for the inclusion of material in a broadcast *without* disclosing that fact to the audience.”⁴⁹ Payola “represents a ‘pay-to-play’ formula in which recording industry representatives, in basic quid pro quo fashion,” pay for airtime of songs by an artist whom they represent.⁵⁰ Radio stations have four primary motivations for engaging in pay-for-play practices: first, the scarcity of airtime (due to the limited nature of the radio spectrum) increases its value; second, breaking new hits is risky but necessary for success in the radio industry; third, individuals from record labels often have existing relationships with radio stations that they can leverage for the benefit of new artists; lastly, even controlling for tracks that are likely to be unpopular, radio stations always have more tracks than time slots available.⁵¹ However, the on-air *disclosure* of pay-to-play has a cost, as it interrupts programs with announcements and may give the

⁴⁶ See Shah, *supra* note 29.

⁴⁷ See Luckerson, *supra* note 34 (“In the current streaming economy, the only way to survive is to be huge.”).

⁴⁸ Douglas Abell, *Pay-for-Play: An Old Tactic in a New Environment*, 2 VAND. J. ENT. L. & PRAC. 52, 53 (2000) (citing Kerry Segrave, PAYOLA IN THE MUSIC INDUSTRY: A HISTORY, 1880–1991, at 1 (1994)).

⁴⁹ Charles W. Logan, Jr., *Getting Beyond Scarcity: A New Paradigm for Assessing the Constitutionality of Broadcast Regulation*, 85 CAL. L. REV. 1687, 1696 n. 47 (1997).

⁵⁰ Clay Calvert, *Payola, Pundits, and Press: Weighing the Pros and Cons of FCC Regulation*, 13 COMMLAW CONSPECTUS 245, 246 (2005).

⁵¹ Patryk Galuszka, *Undisclosed Payments to Promote Records on the Radio: An Economic Analysis of Anti-Payola Legislation*, 11 VA. SPORTS & ENT. L.J. 38, 47–48 (2011).

impression that the stations are not independent in their programming choices.⁵²

The terrestrial radio “payola” scandal first hit in the 1950s.⁵³ Attempts to ban payola before 1945 were meant to restrict competition.⁵⁴ The 1950s scandal, in contrast, emerged as a response to the growing popularity of rock ‘n’ roll, which accelerated in popularity in part because of payola paid by small record labels to DJs.⁵⁵ In the late 1950s, payola became subject to FTC, FCC, and congressional investigations.⁵⁶ This resulted in Congress amending the Federal Communications Act of 1934—specifically, sections 317 and 507—to require disclosure of purchased airtime, subject to penalties under section 508.⁵⁷ Section 317 requires broadcasters to disclose any consideration received for airing certain material (such as songs) when it is broadcasted.⁵⁸ Section 507 requires disclosure of any promise of consideration before the broadcast of that material.⁵⁹

⁵² See *id.* at 48.

⁵³ Ronald Coase, *Payola in Radio and Television Broadcasting*, 22 J.L. & ECON. 269, 287 (1979). Some have estimated that payola practices in the music industry has existed since as early as the 1890s. See *id.* at 272; see also Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 49. The 1950s scandal, however, was the first time that the practice was publicly brought to light and made subject to regulation as a result.

⁵⁴ See Coase, *supra* note 42, at 316.

⁵⁵ See *id.* at 312.

⁵⁶ *Id.* at 287. Major record companies pushed for the investigation, arguing to Congress that rock ‘n’ roll was immoral music spreading through immoral business practices. Galuszka, *supra* note 50, at 51.

⁵⁷ J. Gregory Sidak & David E. Kronemyer, *The “New Payola” and the American Record Industry: Transactions Costs and Precautionary Ignorance in Contracts for Illicit Services*, 10 HARV. J. L. & PUB POL’Y 521, 522 (1987); Robin Cartwright, *What’s the Story on the Radio Payola Scandal of the 1950s?*, STRAIGHT DOPE (Aug. 31, 2004), http://www.terryewell.com/m355/Docs/Payola_Radio.pdf.

⁵⁸ Communications Act of 1934 § 317, 47 U.S.C. § 317 (2017); 47 C.F.R. § 73.1212 (2018).

⁵⁹ Communications Act of 1934 § 507, 47 U.S.C. § 508 (2017).

Following the congressional payola investigations and 1960 amendments, labels hoping to continue engaging in payola but evade punishment turned to a new solution: independent record promoters, or “indies.”⁶⁰ The so-called “independent promoters loophole” stemmed from an FCC administrative ruling in 1979 specifying that “social exchanges between friends are not ‘payola.’”⁶¹ As a result of this ruling, prosecuting payola violations—particularly those effected through interactions between independent promoters and radio stations—became more difficult.⁶² Throughout the 1980s, labels could pay a third party or independent record promoter, who would then go “promote” their songs to radio stations.⁶³ The independent promoters were able to get the songs that their clients (the record companies) wanted on the radio, by offering radio stations “promotion budgets,”⁶⁴ which included “cocaine, prostitutes, and hundreds of thousands of dollars.”⁶⁵

Independent promoters acted as brokers for hit singles, providing radio stations with information about the “quality and nature of the recording, its likely demographic appeal, its advertising support, sales performance and, ultimately, the likelihood of its public acceptance as a ‘hit record.’”⁶⁶ Since the independent intermediaries were the ones paying

⁶⁰ Lauren J. Katunich, Comment, *Time to Quit Paying the Payola Piper: Why Music Industry Abuse Demands a Complete System Overhaul*, 22 LOY. L.A. ENT. L. REV. 643, 656 (2002).

⁶¹ In re Applications of Kaye Smith Enter., 71 F.C.C.2d 1402, 1408 (1979).

⁶² Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 52 (“[I]t would be difficult to prove that gifts given to a radio station employee from an independent promoter were something more than a ‘social exchange between friends.’”).

⁶³ See Rachel M. Stilwell, Note, *Which Public - Whose Interest - How the FCC's Deregulation of Radio Station Ownership Has Harmed the Public Interest, and How We Can Escape from the Swamp*, 26 LOY. L.A. ENT. L. REV. 369, 419–28 (2006).

⁶⁴ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 64 (“[P]romotional budgets’ were meant to help increase radio stations’ audiences The promoter would charge a record label a small weekly fee and would be paid bonus fees depending on how successful the label’s records were”); Katunich, *supra* note 60, at 658 (“The promotional budget supplied by the indie, supposedly used by the radio station to buy T-shirts, billboard ads, and station vans, is in reality spent by the station in any manner that it sees fit.”).

⁶⁵ Abell, *supra* note 48, at 53.

⁶⁶ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 529 (quoting Complaint in *Isgro v. Recording Indus. Ass'n of Am.* at 6-7, No. 86-2740 (C.D. Cal. filed Apr. 30, 1986)).

the stations, it was thought that their inducements did not fall under the “payola” rules and did not need to be reported. In other words, it was thought that “[b]ecause radio stations are one step removed from record-label money, these payments are not technically payola.”⁶⁷ These promotional payments were not tied directly to the purchase of airtime for any particular song.⁶⁸ Instead, the payments resulted in the song being added to the station’s “playlist,” essentially putting it into the station’s rotation but leaving it up to the station’s programmers to decide how often it was played.⁶⁹ These features made the use of independent promoters a way, at least in the view of record labels, of circumventing payola regulations.⁷⁰ On February 24, 1986, the *NBC Nightly News* reported, in a story titled “The New Payola,” on investigations on the “re-emergence of payola at rock music radio stations” through the use of independent promoters.⁷¹ These investigations, however, only temporarily derailed the use of payola.⁷²

The practice of “independent promoter payola” was rarely addressed until New York Attorney General Eliot Spitzer initiated an investigation into the promotion of music to radio stations in 2005.⁷³ In its summary of the results of the investigation, the New York Attorney General’s office described Sony BMG’s practice of obtaining airtime for its songs “through both direct deals between high-level Sony and radio

⁶⁷ Katunich, *supra* note 60, at 656.

⁶⁸ *Id.* at 658.

⁶⁹ *Id.*

⁷⁰ Devin Kosar, Note, *Payola—Can Pay-to-Play Be Practically Enforced*, 23 ST. JOHN’S J. LEGAL COMMENT. 211, 223 (2008).

⁷¹ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 556–57.

⁷² See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 64 (“After the 1986 ban on independent promotion, the major record labels resumed using promoters’ services.”); see also Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 559–60 (“By early 1987, the ‘new payola’ scandal had faded, Senator Gore’s investigation reportedly having uncovered no evidence of wrongdoing.”).

⁷³ Kristen Lee Repyneck, Note, *The Ghost of Alan Freed: An Analysis of the Merit and Purpose of Anti-Payola Laws in Today’s Music Industry*, 51 VILL. L. REV. 695, 717–18 (2006); see Katunich, *supra* note 60, at 651–52 (2002).

executives, and indirect payments made via independent promoters.”⁷⁴ In a 2005 settlement, Sony BMG agreed to “pay \$10 million and stop giving payments and awarding expensive gifts” to radio programmers in exchange for airplay.⁷⁵ Spitzer’s investigation resulted in fines of more than \$36 million against Universal Music, Warner, EMI, and Sony BMG.⁷⁶ The FCC then conducted a nationwide payola investigation.⁷⁷ The investigation culminated in a consent decree and a \$12.5 million settlement with the four record companies.⁷⁸ The FCC’s fine was seen by some as merely a “slap on the wrist,”⁷⁹ and even after these settlements, payola continued in new forms.⁸⁰ Instead of direct payments, record labels moved to providing “incentives such as free concerts, paid vacations, bulk advertising purchases and more.”⁸¹

The rise of payola was consequential: “For record labels, radio is the most powerful promotional tool to sell albums.”⁸² In the music climate of the 1950s, record-industry moguls realized that teenagers (the primary economic force in the music market at the time) “had cash, loved rock ‘n’ roll, listened to the radio, and were easily stampeded into buying hit records

⁷⁴ Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 718.

⁷⁵ Marc Fisher, *Paying for Airplay: The Beat Goes On*, WASH. POST (Aug. 7, 2005), https://www.washingtonpost.com/archive/lifestyle/style/2005/08/07/paying-for-airplay-the-beat-goes-on/eec6fc24-9cb8-4b73-bbd6-2fbbfaa989b8/?utm_term=.d6cea1d3a86e; Press Release, Attorney General of the State of New York, Sony BMG NY Settlement: In the Matter of Sony BMG Music Entertainment (July 22, 2005), <https://ag.ny.gov/press-release/sony-settles-payola-investigation>.

⁷⁶ Kosar, *supra* note 70, at 236; see also Michael Gormley, *Warner Music Settles in Probe into ‘Payola’*, MAIL & GUARDIAN (Nov. 23, 2005), <https://mg.co.za/article/2005-11-23-warner-music-settles-in-probe-into-payola>.

⁷⁷ Kosar, *supra* note 70, at 213. Kosar notes that this investigation failed to be “legitimate and thorough,” especially in light of the evidence provided to the FCC by Attorney General Spitzer. *Id.* at 213 n.9. The FCC’s consent decree levied less than half the fines that New York State had issued to the same record labels. *Id.*

⁷⁸ Kosar, *supra* note 70, at 213.

⁷⁹ Kosar, *supra* note 70, at 213.

⁸⁰ See Krystal Conway, Comment, *The Long Road to Desuetude for Payola Laws: Recognizing the Inevitable Commodification of Tastemaking*, 16 SETON HALL J. SPORTS & ENT. L. 343, 369–70 (2006).

⁸¹ *Id.* at 372.

⁸² Abell, *supra* note 48, at 53.

by popular deejays.”⁸³ The practice of payola rose in popularity simply because of its efficiency: while major labels ignored rock ‘n’ roll, smaller labels were able to pay radio stations for a chance to get their artists’ music on the air.⁸⁴ Eventually, the major labels caught on; record executives believed that independent promoters who had financial arrangements with radio stations had the power to influence a song’s success, by either getting them on or keeping them off the air.⁸⁵ As a result of this practice, labels that lacked the resources to pay such fees were unable to generate hit records; small record labels without such resources could barely get their records played.⁸⁶

IV. SPOTIFY AND THE RISE OF “PLAYOLA”

Spotify’s official stance is that it does not allow the exchange of cash or other payment for a space on its playlists.⁸⁷ However, it is rumored that major labels are able to purchase placement on Spotify’s in-house playlists.⁸⁸ Additionally, a process has developed that is analogous to the “independent promoters loophole” of years past. While Spotify does not directly engage in payola, the way its playlists are created depends on an algorithm that takes into account the existing popularity of a song, including its placement on other playlists, particularly ones with large listener and subscriber bases.⁸⁹ This has resulted in the commodification of certain user-generated playlists; if a user-generated playlist has enough popularity, certain artists are willing to pay for a spot on that playlist. Being added to a popular playlist will not only result in an increased listener base

⁸³ See Cartwright, *supra* note 57.

⁸⁴ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 50.

⁸⁵ Stilwell, *supra* note 63, at 421.

⁸⁶ *Id.*

⁸⁷ Robert Cookson, *Spotify Bans ‘Payola’ on Playlists*, FIN. TIMES (Aug. 20, 2015), <https://www.ft.com/content/af1728ca-4740-11e5-af2f-4d6e0e5eda22>.

⁸⁸ Peoples, *supra* note 2.

⁸⁹ See Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 5; *Spotify Artists FAQ*, SPOTIFY (last visited Mar. 30, 2019), <https://artists.spotify.com/faq/promotion> (“The more streams and followers you have, the higher up you’ll appear in searches.”).

through the followers of that playlists, but will also increase the artist's chances of being located on a Spotify-generated playlist. Because of this impact, a market for playlist placement has developed.

While Spotify has publicly stated that it does not engage in payola, the market for playlist inclusion has given rise to new forms of payola unique to the music-streaming market, nicknamed “playola.”⁹⁰ Streaming services have adopted “playola” in two primary forms. The first stems from the three major record labels’ (Universal Music Group, Sony Music, and Warner Music Group) control of spots on many of the largest Spotify playlists.⁹¹ This is concerning in light of the relationship between Spotify and the major labels. For these labels, the rise of streaming services like Spotify destroyed a portion of old revenue sources—namely, the sale of physical recorded music—but opened new ones, particularly through the large licensing scheme that online-streaming services require.⁹² In exchange for stakes in online music services, record labels have been giving music startups access to the artists and their songs; the artists derive minimal royalties, while the record labels hold the ownership.⁹³ Notably, the three major labels own nearly 20% of Spotify.⁹⁴ These three labels’ ownership in digital music startups overall is estimated at about \$3 billion.⁹⁵

In spite of Spotify’s public statements denouncing the sale of playlists or of inclusion on playlists, these transactions appear to be taking place behind the scenes, as one major label marketing executive has stated that “popular playlists can and have been bought.”⁹⁶ This practice has given rise to fear that streaming playlists will become like the radio playlists of

⁹⁰ See Peoples, *supra* note 2.

⁹¹ Peoples, *supra* note 2.

⁹² Davis, *supra* note 5, at 394.

⁹³ O’Malley Greenburg, *supra* note 7.

⁹⁴ Davis, *supra* note 5, at 394 n.144. Specifically, Sony BMG owns 5.8%, Universal owns 4.8%, Warner Music owns 3.8%, and EMI has 1.9%. Aguiar & Waldfoegel, *supra* note 1, at 3.

⁹⁵ O’Malley Greenburg, *supra* note 7.

⁹⁶ Peoples, *supra* note 2.

the payola era, accepting compensation to influence content rather than operating free of financial incentive.⁹⁷ Further, the three major labels have their own playlists, controlling between 0.9 and 3.1% of the top 1,000 playlists' cumulative followers.⁹⁸ The success of these playlists makes it even more likely that Spotify will choose one of the labels' songs to add to a Spotify playlist, and makes behind-the-scenes payment for playlist placement easier to pass off as legitimate decision-making based on established popularity.

The second form of “playola” involves promotional-streaming companies that promise Spotify plays by securing song placements in highly followed playlists that influencers unaffiliated with Spotify curate.⁹⁹ Spotify does not explicitly allow “pay-for-play” behavior,¹⁰⁰ and has expressed a commitment to independent artists, such as through its creation of a “Spotify for Artists” tool, allowing new artists to submit songs for consideration to be included in Spotify-created playlists.¹⁰¹ On Spotify's FAQ, it specifically states that artists cannot pay to get on one of the 4,500 in-house playlists, though they can now upload unreleased tracks for consideration.¹⁰² However, for most artists listed on Spotify, whether they appear on a Spotify-created playlist depends on their number of followers: “the more followers you have, the more playlists you'll be on.”¹⁰³ This creates an incentive to appear on a highly subscribed playlist if possible,

⁹⁷ Peoples, *supra* note 2.

⁹⁸ Aguiar & Waldfogel, *supra* note 1, at 8.

⁹⁹ Jessica French, *This Is How You Get Added to Spotify's Curated Playlists*, MEDIUM (Mar. 8, 2018), <https://medium.com/@jessicafrech/this-is-how-you-get-added-to-spotifys-curated-playlists-7f01f2f6b891>.

¹⁰⁰ Cookson, *supra* note 87.

¹⁰¹ SPOTIFY, *supra* note 89.

¹⁰² SPOTIFY, *supra* note 89; Aric Jenkins, *The Murky Business of Spotify 'Playlist Pitching'*, FORTUNE (Aug. 10, 2018), <http://fortune.com/2018/08/10/spotify-playlist-pitching-curators/>.

¹⁰³ SPOTIFY, *supra* note 89.

including by paying for placement. Spotify does not limit independent influencers' ability to sell placement on their playlists.

The top three promotional-streaming companies are owned by major labels. Generally, “major label artists get direct access to these services” owned by their labels, while indie artists have to “pay an average of \$2,500 per song to be pitched and placed into influencer playlists.”¹⁰⁴ From the perspective of curators, pitching services are a way to monetize their playlist-making hobby.¹⁰⁵ One source described indie musician Ari Herstand's experiences with these services. After receiving three offers for Spotify visibility—\$500 for 50,000 to 100,000 plays; a four-month plugging campaign for \$5,000; or 50,000 streams for \$150—Ari went with the third, and his songs were quickly added to a user-generated playlist on Spotify with around 50,000 followers.¹⁰⁶ The playlist plugging service he used, “Streamify, had likely used click farms to generate plays,” leading to Herstand's album being removed from the platform.¹⁰⁷

Because the number of views and plays a song or artist gets increases its likelihood of being featured on a Spotify-curated playlist, this practice has serious implications. Fraudulent transactions are difficult for Spotify to detect.¹⁰⁸ As such, it would be challenging for Spotify to enforce a policy against payment for placement on user-created playlists, including popular playlists that enhance a song's chances of being featured in an in-house Spotify playlist. This “playola” functions through a third party, much

¹⁰⁴ French, *supra* note 99 (“Digmark is owned by Universal. Filtr is owned by Sony. Topsify is owned by Warner.”).

¹⁰⁵ Jenkins, *supra* note 102.

¹⁰⁶ Daniel Sanchez, *How I Got 10,000 Spotify Plays For a Totally Fake Song*, DIGITALMUSICNEWS (Dec. 5, 2017), <https://www.digitalmusicnews.com/2017/12/05/spotify-fake-plays/>.

¹⁰⁷ *Id.*

¹⁰⁸ See Tim Ingham, *The Great Big Spotify Scam: Did a Bulgarian Playlister Swindle Their Way to a Fortune on Streaming Service?*, MUSIC BUS. WORLDWIDE (Feb. 20, 2018), <https://www.musicbusinessworldwide.com/great-big-spotify-scam-bulgarian-playlister-swindle-way-fortune-streaming-service/> (describing how a Bulgarian operation received as much as \$1 million in royalties out of Spotify after uploading several third-party playlists of songs and creating fake Spotify accounts to boost their play counts).

like the “independent promoter” payola of terrestrial radio. Even if Spotify is not seeking this result, its playlists incorporate the effects of these payments. The increased likelihood of appearing on an in-house playlist, in turn, leads to an increased likelihood of receiving significant revenues and an increased listener base.

If a market for playlist placement develops, the “pay-to-be-played paradigm” of success in the online music industry may develop in streaming services, requiring artists to purchase spots on known playlists to have a chance of being placed on Spotify’s playlists.¹⁰⁹ The amount of advertising payments that would need to achieve success through Spotify is unclear; it has been noted that to earn minimum wage, an artist would need to have 1,117,021 plays per month.¹¹⁰ If this number of plays can be achieved only through placement on popular playlists, payment may be many artists’ best option. The problem with this paradigm is that many musicians, particularly new and independent ones, cannot afford to make this investment at an early stage in their career.

V. SHOULD THERE BE REGULATION OF INTERNET “PLAYOLA”?

If “playola” practices develop, either through under-the-table transactions in exchange for direct placement on in-house playlists, or through the market for user-generated playlist placement that influences the songs featured on the in-house playlists, the question becomes whether it should be regulated. “Anti-playola” regulation can best be analyzed by assessing the arguments for and against payola regulation in terrestrial radio, and applying these arguments in the context of Internet streaming services.

¹⁰⁹ See Davis, *supra* note 5, at 403.

¹¹⁰ INFORMATION IS BEAUTIFUL, *How Much do Music Artists Earn Online – 2015 Remix* (Apr. 2015), <https://informationisbeautiful.net/visualizations/how-much-do-music-artists-earn-online-2015-remix/>.

a. The Debate on Payola Regulation in Terrestrial Radio

The first source of debate on whether payola regulation is worthwhile comes from commentators dealing with the long history of payola in terrestrial radio. The debate over regulation of payola can be divided into three categories: economic efficiency, aesthetics, and morality.¹¹¹

Economic-efficiency arguments concern whether regulation makes sense from a law-and-economics point of view. Pro-regulation commentators argue that allowing payola will result in a market where only well-off players have an opportunity to succeed, or even participate. They posit that there is no efficient market for payola due to the influence of major record labels. On the other end, various law-and-economics scholars have argued that the market will efficiently price songs to reflect the costs of the music market. They also argue that allowing pay-to-play would open opportunities to smaller labels and independents, either through a set price for airtime or increased prices meant to compensate radio stations for the increased risk of airing a lesser-known artist.

The aesthetic argument posits that if payola is permitted, music will be chosen based on money paid rather than its quality. As such, the overall quality of music on radio will decline; “bad” music will be played despite its lower quality as long as the artist is willing to pay. The main response is that radio stations will not air music that their listeners will not enjoy, even if they are offered money for doing so. Because radio stations can only profit if they have a loyal base of listeners, playing “bad” music will cause harm that outweighs the compensation they may receive for playing those songs. Critics of payola regulation have also tried to reframe the debate. They argue that music quality should be measured based on

¹¹¹ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 68.

whether it is “homogeneous” or “diverse,” and that there is no reason to believe that payola will result in homogenous programming.¹¹²

The morality argument stems from the view that the harm of payola is not the pricing mechanism, but its deceptive quality. The prohibited action is not pay-to-play, but pay-to-play without disclosure. Therefore, some commentators argue that regardless of whether the price paid would stem from an efficient market for airtime, the practice of payola should be banned because it deceives listeners. The response, however, is that this deception will not be relevant where there is an efficiently priced market that encourages diverse programming. Critics of regulation also point out that other sectors of the entertainment industry engage in practices akin to undisclosed payola, and customers do not suffer for it.

i. Economic Efficiency

Government regulation of radio has traditionally been justified by scarcity: “its facilities are limited; they are not available to all who may wish to use them; the radio spectrum simply is not large enough to accommodate everybody.”¹¹³ Regulators’ decision to control limited airtime stemmed from their desire to prevent concentration of political power that could potentially be dangerous, as the combination of spectrum scarcity and the ability to broadcast was seen as having political significance.¹¹⁴ As such, both the legislature and the Supreme Court envisioned the FCC playing an intrusive role in traditional broadcasting, “choosing [who received control of airtime] from among the many who apply.”¹¹⁵ Based on the scarcity rationale, the FCC put a large number of

¹¹² See, e.g., Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 69 (“Instead of discussing whether payola leads to the promotion of ‘bad music,’ the analysis should rather focus on whether anti-payola legislation adds to the emergence of homogenized radio.”).

¹¹³ *Nat’l Broadcasting Co., Inc. v. United States*, 319 U.S. 190, 216 (1943).

¹¹⁴ See David A. Moss & Michael R. Fein, *Radio Regulation Revisited: Coase, the FCC, and the Public Interest*, 15 J. POL’Y HIST. 389, 390, 396 (2003).

¹¹⁵ *Nat’l Broadcasting Co.*, 319 U.S. at 216; see John W. Berresford, *The Scarcity Rationale for Regulating Traditional Broadcasting: An Idea Whose Time Has Passed*,

regulations on traditional broadcasters, meant to satisfy a number of public policy goals.¹¹⁶ Under this argument, because of the scarcity of the market, allowing payola practices would result in a concentration of airtime in the hands of those with the greatest wealth. As such, failure to regulate payola would result in the very concentration of power that the FCC was entrusted to avoid.

The primary economic argument against anti-payola regulation is simply that legalizing a market for airplay is the most efficient solution.¹¹⁷ Critics posit that regulatory efforts stem from a failure to recognize the elements of the music market. In short, they say that radio is a market for music, and “should be left to regulate itself.”¹¹⁸ This argument is based on an early paper by Professor Ronald Coase on the economics of payola.¹¹⁹ Professor Coase argued three fundamental propositions of terrestrial radio payola.¹²⁰ The most relevant is his first proposition: a radio station that plays a song in effect advertises a specific product, and there is no reason to believe that a record company that dispenses payola will spend its advertising resources on “bad” music rather than “good” music.¹²¹ A potential response to the economic-efficiency argument is that it would be difficult to precisely price the airing of a song, since it is difficult to measure the relationship between the broadcasting of each track and the size of the audience for that track.¹²² However, in a competitive market for airtime, it would be in the interest of radio stations to learn as much as

FED. COMM. COMM’N, MEDIA BUREAU STAFF 1 (Mar. 2005), <https://docs.fcc.gov/public/attachments/DOC-257534A1.pdf>.

¹¹⁶ Berresford, *supra* note 115, at 3.

¹¹⁷ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 54–55, 58.

¹¹⁸ Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 725.

¹¹⁹ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 521.

¹²⁰ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 521.

¹²¹ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 521. Coase’s other propositions were that a similar pricing system was commonplace with respect to the inclusion of songs in live performances, and that movements to prohibit payola have been used since at least the 1890s as weapons by record and music publishing firms to reduce their own advertising costs and restrict advertising by new entrants. Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 521.

¹²² Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 53–54.

possible about the popularity of each track in order to develop an adequate price mechanism.¹²³

Another economic argument (not put forward by Coase) is that direct pay-for-play would actually allow independent record labels to compete with major labels that control the promotional market, since paying a finite amount for airtime is easier than the web of informal connections that determine airtime otherwise.¹²⁴ Even if payola were outlawed, program directors are still more likely to prefer airing music released by major record labels because it is easier to justify, or because it is less risky, since major labels have already put in some amount of due diligence in determining which artists they represent.¹²⁵ A legal market for airplay might give smaller labels and independent artists the opportunity to pay radio stations a price that incorporates a premium for the increased risk—the higher chance that the audience will not like the song—that the station will take.¹²⁶

ii. *Aesthetics*

Critics of payola contend that the practice results in “mediocre radio, declining listenership, and falling advertising revenues” because music is determined “by the parties with the deepest pockets” rather than being selected for its artistic merit.¹²⁷ They argue that there is less room for “creative freedom” on the air, forcing the DJ to make decisions based on economic considerations, thereby commodifying artistic expression.¹²⁸ As such, payola shifts the focus from exposing the public to capable musicians to generating maximal revenue from labels’ playlists.¹²⁹ Further, the

¹²³ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 54.

¹²⁴ See Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 731.

¹²⁵ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 70.

¹²⁶ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 70.

¹²⁷ Abell, *supra* note 48, at 55.

¹²⁸ See Conway, *supra* note 80, at 345–46.

¹²⁹ Zeb G. Schorr, *The Future of Online Music: Balancing the Interests of Labels, Artists, and the Public*, 3 VA. SPORTS & ENT. L.J. 67, 88 (2003).

limited nature of radio broadcast time means that the potential for promotion of undesirable music is felt even more acutely. If those with money take up the airtime, those with the inability to afford airtime may never be rewarded for their good music.¹³⁰ Another fear is that unregulated pay-for-play transactions will reduce radio to “one long series of infomercials.”¹³¹

The argument that payola will hurt the quality of music played on the radio can be addressed by Coase’s first proposition: radio stations will make programming decisions based on song quality rather than pay-for-play because higher-quality songs are the most economically lucrative.¹³² Regulatory efforts ignore the fact that payola renders the market for hit singles more efficient.¹³³ When a record label promotes an unpopular song, it will lose money, because “you can’t buy a hit.”¹³⁴ So long as a station can detect that this decreased quality is due to the incorporation of payola practices, it will remedy this by ceasing the use of payola, and the practice will fade away naturally. If payola increases radio quality, the practice will not disappear, but everyone—from the stations to the listeners—will be better off.¹³⁵

The aesthetic issue can also be reframed to focus not on “good” versus “bad” music, but rather on “homogenized” versus “diverse” music. We might care more about the diversity-homogenization dichotomy, because diverse radio satisfies the desires of a wider group of listeners.¹³⁶ The problem of insufficient-program diversity arises in terrestrial radio due to the limited frequency spectrum. Critics of payola argue that those who might finance radio through payola or other advertisement are likely more interested in reaching a broader audience than satisfying diverse tastes.

¹³⁰ See Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 725.

¹³¹ Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 728.

¹³² Repyneck, *supra* note 73, at 729.

¹³³ Sidak & Kronemyer, *supra* note 57, at 566.

¹³⁴ Jacob Slichter, *The Price of Fame*, N.Y. TIMES (Jul. 29, 2005), <https://www.nytimes.com/2005/07/29/opinion/the-price-of-fame.html>.

¹³⁵ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

¹³⁶ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 69.

However, payola may actually encourage programming diversity by reducing the barriers to entry for small record labels and independent artists.¹³⁷

iii. Morality

The focus of the morality argument against payola is its deceptive quality; the Communications Act outlaws not the actual process of pay-to-play, but doing so without disclosure.¹³⁸ The problem with payola is that it “blurs the line between publicity and advertising by concealing sponsorship for a price.”¹³⁹ Undisclosed sponsorship “deceives the listening audience into thinking songs are selected for airplay based on merit rather than payment.”¹⁴⁰ Implicit in this argument is the aesthetic argument detailed above, since listeners will believe that they are listening to music chosen for its quality, when in fact it was chosen based on a payment. The morality/deception argument further suggests that even if payola does not hurt the quality of music, it should not be permitted because of its deceptive nature.

A morality-based argument against anti-payola regulation is that disclosed pay-for-play “makes radio more honest.”¹⁴¹ This argument is based on the premise that, even with anti-payola regulation, some form of payment for airtime will still develop; rather than direct payments, record labels just put their resources into “trips, free records, and other promotional gimmicks.”¹⁴² This argument falls in line with the actual history of payola, in which limitations on direct payment resulted in

¹³⁷ See *supra* Section IV.

¹³⁸ Communications Act of 1934 § 317, 47 U.S.C. § 317 (2017); 47 C.F.R. § 73.1212 (2018).

¹³⁹ Ellen P. Goodman, *Stealth Marketing and Editorial Integrity*, 85 TEX. L. REV. 83, 90 (2006).

¹⁴⁰ Kosar, *supra* note 70, at 215.

¹⁴¹ Abell, *supra* note 48, at 56.

¹⁴² Abell, *supra* note 48, at 56.

payment through illicit means.¹⁴³ Furthermore, payments for airtime could create a “self-regulating system,” encouraging the development of new music while addressing the “economic realities” of the music industry, whether or not they are disclosed.¹⁴⁴ Critics of regulation also point out that pay-for-play practices analogous to payola are common in other realms of the entertainment industry.¹⁴⁵ If undisclosed payments for placement in other entertainment industries are not unlawfully deceptive, it is less clear why they should be categorized as such in music.

b. Application to Internet Music Streaming Services

i. *Economic Efficiency*

Traditionally, the primary rationale for regulating terrestrial radio has been that airspace is limited, so practices that risk reducing competition or increasing homogenization should be regulated.¹⁴⁶ Internet streaming services, however, do not have the problem of frequency spectrum limits; theoretically, there can be as many Internet radio stations as there are listeners.¹⁴⁷ Thus, even if limited airspace would sufficiently curb the market for terrestrial radio, justifying increased regulation, the Internet’s openness may make that argument inapplicable and move the Internet music market far closer to Coase’s efficient market. If “playola” practices decrease the quality of music on certain playlists, listeners are not confined to those playlists by virtue of limited selection, they can easily unsubscribe and find an alternative. Based on Coase’s first proposition, since playlist creators want their playlists to have listeners, if “playola” practices take hold, it will be because they lead to featuring music listeners want to listen to.

Further, while it is difficult and costly to obtain a license and start a terrestrial radio station, a playlist can be created by the click of a button. The market for Internet music services allows for competition among all comers, from established players to new entrants. In fact, nothing can prevent record labels from creating their own Internet radio stations or

¹⁴³ See *supra* Section III.

¹⁴⁴ Abell, *supra* note 48, at 56.

¹⁴⁵ See Conway, *supra* note 80, at 346.

¹⁴⁶ *Nat’l Broadcasting Co.*, 319 U.S. at 216.

¹⁴⁷ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 70.

playlists.¹⁴⁸ However, if this practice actually results in lower-quality music, listeners will respond by unsubscribing from those playlists, and biased playlists will be unable to succeed.

ii. Aesthetics

An efficient market for playlist placement also implicates the aesthetic argument: if allowing “playola” results in lower-quality music, users will stop listening to those playlists that incorporate it, and the practice will likely fizzle out. Since competition among Internet streaming services is much stronger than among terrestrial radio stations, if a playlist or Internet radio station incorporates “playola” practices and its quality suffers as a result, it will simply lose subscribers and listeners.¹⁴⁹ If “playola” results in similar-quality or even better music, then everyone benefits.¹⁵⁰ In all likelihood, users will subscribe only to those playlists that feature music they actually like, without considering whether “playola” practices occurred; the playlists with the best-quality music will be the ones that succeed.

As for the homogenization of music, Internet music services can be as diverse as necessary to reach the entire music-listening market; there is no limit on the number of listeners they can serve. The potential negative impact of “playola” is that if only major labels representing generic artists have the means to pay for playlist placement, niche artists may not appear on those playlists. However, the potential influence of “playola” on the diversity of programming is similar to its influence on the quality of programming—because there is no limit to the number of playlists, there will always be some playlists that do not accept “playola” and cater to those with diverse music tastes. The lack of limited airspace means that major labels’ influence is limited; even if they pay for their artists to be featured,

¹⁴⁸ See Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 74–75.

¹⁴⁹ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

¹⁵⁰ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

user-created playlists can ensure that independent or smaller artists are also within reach for the interested listener.

iii. Morality

With no implication of scarce resources, there may not be a justification for prohibiting even radio stations that use the “deceptive” practice of undisclosed pay-for-play.¹⁵¹ If users care enough to research whether certain playlists accept “playola” or are owned by record labels and find these practices unsavory, they will simply limit themselves to playlists that do not engage in these practices. The robustness of the Internet allows for alternatives to be made with relative ease. Users of streaming services who strive to be “ethical consumers” can elect to do so with a bit of extra work. The vast majority of users, however, who simply want access to songs they like, will choose their preferred playlists without regard to the practices behind the scenes, so a station’s success will depend on the quality of what they feature.

iv. Other Differences

An important distinction between terrestrial radio and Internet streaming services lies in the regulatory landscape. When terrestrial stations air music, they must pay songwriters royalties.¹⁵² However, they are not required pay performance royalties to record labels and artists.¹⁵³ Internet music streaming services, on the other hand, must pay performance royalties.¹⁵⁴ Thus far, these rates have given terrestrial radio stations a competitive advantage.¹⁵⁵ Anti-payola legislation may thus be seen as a “trade-off”; terrestrial radio stations are not allowed to accept payola, diminishing their profits, but they do not have to pay performance

¹⁵¹ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 72–73.

¹⁵² Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

¹⁵³ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

¹⁵⁴ See Digital Performance Right in Sound Recordings Act, Pub. L. No. 104-39, 109 Stat. 336 (1995); The Digital Millennium Copyright Act, Pub. L. No. 105-304, 112 Stat. 2860 (1998).

¹⁵⁵ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 74.

royalties.¹⁵⁶ Online music services are not exempt from performance royalties, arguably because airplay on the Internet does not stimulate demand for records.¹⁵⁷ If this is true, Internet music services should be allowed to engage in “playola,” either because the theoretical basis for anti-playola regulation does not apply to them, or to reduce the competitive disadvantage they face.¹⁵⁸

VI. AUTHORITY TO REGULATE INTERNET MUSIC SERVICES

Even if one concludes that Internet streaming “playola” should be regulated, the question remains whether the FCC would have the authority to do so under the Communications Act or whether a change in the law would be necessary. Further, one can ask whether such regulation would be normatively justified.

a. Legal & Statutory Bases

The national and international nature of the Internet requires that, if it is to be regulated, it should be regulated at the federal level.¹⁵⁹ The question, however, is whether the FCC as it currently stands has authority to regulate Internet music services. On a purely textual basis, “When Sections 317 and 508 of the Communications Act of 1934 were amended in 1960, the legislators could not have foreseen the advent of the Internet.”¹⁶⁰ Based on the period in which the amendments were added, one could argue that “any radio stations” must have specifically referred to

¹⁵⁶ See Doug Perlson, *Payola: Could an Old Idea Save Online Radio and the Music Industry?*, BUS. INSIDER (Sept. 8, 2008, 9:35 AM), <https://www.businessinsider.com/2008/9/could-payola-save-online-radio> (“The law did throw a legal bone to broadcasters. While it made payola illegal for terrestrial broadcasters, it gave the networks an exemption on paying performance royalties to artists. Under this theory, the artists get free promotion for their work and the networks receive their ‘payola’ in their free use of the artists’ material.”).

¹⁵⁷ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 74.

¹⁵⁸ Perlson, *supra* note 156; see also Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 74.

¹⁵⁹ See *American Libraries Ass’n v. Pataki*, 969 F. Supp. 160, 181 (S.D.N.Y. 1997).

¹⁶⁰ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 71.

terrestrial radio.¹⁶¹ Some have argue that the meaning of “radio station” can evolve to reflect current technology; because Internet radio stations describe themselves as “radio stations,” they should be treated in the same way as traditional stations, regardless of the difference in their technology.¹⁶² However, doing so would likely require amending the statutes to refer to radio “by use of any method of transmission.”¹⁶³ While the argument that the meaning of “radio stations” should evolve might apply to Internet radio services like Pandora, it is less clear in its application to streaming services such as Spotify, which provide a service that is distinct from that of traditional radio.

While the FCC traditionally considered the regulation of Internet content to be beyond the scope of its regulatory power,¹⁶⁴ the Supreme Court has construed the Communications Act as indicating that the FCC was given “regulatory power over all forms of electrical communication.”¹⁶⁵ This suggests that, if the FCC finds that regulation of Internet music streaming services is justified, it would have the authority to enact them. Additionally, the Supreme Court’s rationales for the FCC’s authority to regulate broadcast radio may apply to regulation of Internet streaming services. In *FCC v. Pacifica Foundation*, the Court held that radio fell into the same category, for the purposes of indecency regulation, as cable television,¹⁶⁶ The Court gave two justifications for its holding: first, that broadcast media had established a “uniquely pervasive presence” in the lives of Americans,¹⁶⁷ and second, “[t]he ease with which children may obtain access to broadcast material broadcasting.”¹⁶⁸

¹⁶¹ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 71.

¹⁶² See Jennifer I. Swirsky, *Payola: Should Internet Radio Stations Be Able to Accept Pay for Play while Over-the-Air Stations Are Statutorily Precluded?* 6 (2009) (unpublished manuscript) https://works.bepress.com/jennifer_swirsky/1/download/.

¹⁶³ *Id.* at 5–6.

¹⁶⁴ A. Nati Davidi, *Patrolling The Red Light District Of The Information Superhighway*, 49 ADMIN. L. REV. 429, 446 (1997).

¹⁶⁵ *United States v. Southwestern Cable Co.*, 392 U.S. 157, 168 (1968).

¹⁶⁶ *F.C.C. v. Pacifica Foundation*, 438 U.S. 726, 750–51 (1978).

¹⁶⁷ *Id.* at 748.

¹⁶⁸ *Id.* at 750.

Similar concerns would apply identically to Internet music services—the Internet is pervasive, located in most if not all homes, and usually accessible to children. While one might respond that accessibility of the Internet to children can be limited through parental control, the same argument could apply to broadcast media. One could argue that the pervasiveness of Internet music services suggests that they should be treated the same way as broadcast programming with respect to FCC authority; if the FCC’s regulatory authority is justified where a medium is pervasive, Internet music services seem to be a fit.¹⁶⁹

However, although the “pervasiveness” justification was adopted by the Court, it was not the FCC’s original justification for regulating payola practices; that reason was the scarcity of radio and potential for concentration of political power.¹⁷⁰ Since a fundamental distinction between Internet streaming services and terrestrial radio is that there is no scarcity of frequencies, even if the FCC has regulatory authority over the Internet, exercising this authority over “playola” may not be justified.¹⁷¹

Another source of potential justification for “playola” regulation is the FCC’s own statements regarding its purpose with respect to the Internet. In September 2005, the FCC released an Internet Policy Statement indicating an intent to “preserve and promote the open and interconnected nature of the public Internet.”¹⁷² Under the Internet Policy Statement, the FCC established its authority to act if it found that “Internet service providers were violating principles of openness and

¹⁶⁹ Matthew Bloom, *Pervasive New Media: Indecency Regulation and the End of the Distinction between Broadcast Technology and Subscription-Based Media*, 9 YALE J.L. & TECH. 122, 126 (2006).

¹⁷⁰ See Moss & Fein, *supra* note 114, at 390.

¹⁷¹ See Moss & Fein, *supra* note 114, at 122.

¹⁷² FED. COMM’NS COMM’N, INTERNET POLICY STATEMENT, 20 FCC Rcd. 14988 ¶ 4 (2005).

interconnectedness.”¹⁷³ In 2010, the FCC imposed three new rules on Internet broadband providers: a transparency requirement, an anti-blocking provision, and an anti-discrimination requirement.¹⁷⁴ In response to a challenge to this order by Verizon, the D.C. Circuit in *Verizon v. FCC* struck down the anti-blocking and anti-discrimination requirements as outside the FCC’s statutory authority.¹⁷⁵ It upheld, however, the FCC’s authority to regulate broadband providers in order to achieve its goals of maintaining an open Internet and deploying Internet service to all Americans as described in the Internet Policy Statement, as long as these regulations were within the FCC’s statutory authority.¹⁷⁶

Whether regulation of Internet “playola” would foster or hinder the FCC’s goal of encouraging openness and interconnectedness is up for debate. If accepting payment for playlist placement without disclosure to listeners creates limitations to entry in the music market, openness would be hindered. On the other hand, because of the nature of Internet streaming services, there is no limitation on the number of playlists that exist. Thus, even if some playlists are accepting “playola,” one could argue that this practice has little effect on the variety of music available. Still, since the Supreme Court did not strike down the FCC’s transparency requirement in *Verizon*,¹⁷⁷ it is possible that it would uphold a requirement of disclosure where payola practices are used, under the premise of encouraging openness through enhanced transparency.

b. Normative Arguments

Some commentators have argued that the current royalty structure set by Congress has been seen as a distortion of consumer choice, favoring terrestrial radio over new, competing technologies.¹⁷⁸ This may counsel

¹⁷³ Emma N. Cano, *Saving the Internet: Why Regulating Broadband Providers Can Keep the Internet Open*, 2016 BYU L. REV. 711, 715 (2016) (citing 20 FCC Rcd. 14904 ¶ 96 (2005)).

¹⁷⁴ 25 FCC Rcd. 17937 ¶¶ 54, 63, 68 (2009); Cano, *supra* note 173, at 716.

¹⁷⁵ *Verizon v. FCC*, 740 F.3d 623, 628 (D.C. Cir. 2014); Cano, *supra* note 173, at 717.

¹⁷⁶ Cano, *supra* note 173, at 718.

¹⁷⁷ *Verizon*, 740 F.3d at 659.

¹⁷⁸ See DiCola, *supra* note 39, at 1841.

against additional regulation of streaming services; their success thus far has been an uphill battle against a regulatory structure that favors terrestrial radio, and additional regulation may be too much for them to bear.¹⁷⁹ If Internet music services are swamped by regulation, the effects of their failure will not only be the success of the terrestrial radio industry; the harm will be in the limitation of consumer choice and the slowing of innovation.¹⁸⁰ Further, if one takes the “trade-off” view of the performance-royalties structure, regulating against “playola” could tip the scales even further in favor of terrestrial radio, as Internet music streaming services would not be able to engage in a practice that is justified by the market for playlist placement.

The question of FCC regulation of the Internet also depends on what the “public interest” to be served by the FCC is.¹⁸¹ In the telecommunications arena, for example, some have argued that the FCC would be better served to focus its policies on the benefits of the Internet rather than the incentives of incumbent actors in the industry.¹⁸² Here, this might justify limiting additional regulation of Internet music services, particularly in light of the existing differences in terrestrial radio and music-streaming services’ royalty structures. Over-regulation of Internet music services may result in the stifling of innovation and a limitation on consumer choice, both of which act against the FCC’s goal in the 2005 Internet Policy Statement.¹⁸³

¹⁷⁹ See, e.g., Michael A. Carrier, *Copyright and Innovation: The Untold Story*, 2012 WIS. L. REV. 891, 916-17 (2012) (describing the music industry as a “wasteland” due to its lack of venture-capital activity); DiCola, *supra* note 39, at 1841 (“Popular webcasting services like Pandora and on-demand streaming services like Spotify operate under enormous uncertainty about their future royalty obligations.”).

¹⁸⁰ See DiCola, *supra* note 39, at 1841.

¹⁸¹ Susan P. Crawford, *The Radio and the Internet*, 23 BERKELEY TECH. L.J. 933, 938 (2008).

¹⁸² *Id.* at 959–60.

¹⁸³ See 20 FCC Rcd. 14988 ¶ 4 (2005).

Finally, from a law-and-economics perspective, because some argue that prohibiting payola is economically inefficient,¹⁸⁴ critics of regulation have argued that additional regulation of payola may distort the Internet music market's pricing mechanism, which has incorporated the fact that Internet music services have to pay performance royalties, while terrestrial radio stations do not.¹⁸⁵ While the distortion of the market through heavy regulation may be impossible to avoid on terrestrial radio due to the scarcity of airwaves, commentators argue that the same "mistake" should not be made for streaming services.¹⁸⁶ This might suggest that, even with the authority to do so, regulation of Internet "playola" is something that the FCC ought not do.

VII. CONCLUSION

As the market for music streaming services has grown, several practices have developed that may be seen as analogous to the practice of illegal payola in terrestrial radio. These "playola" practices—the direct payment by record labels to streaming services for placement on in-house playlists, and payment for placement on user-created playlists that may lead to being placed on in-house playlists—can be criticized for reasons similar to the traditional criticisms of terrestrial radio payola. Specifically, one could argue that accepting payment for placement may lead to "worse" music; promoting music based on payment rather than based on artistic merit in combination with a failure to disclose placement for payment is a form of immoral deception. However, because Internet streaming services do not face the issue of scarcity, brought on by spectrum limits in terrestrial radio, the market for playlists may be more efficient, giving rise to the potential benefits of payola while controlling for its costs. Even if one concludes that "playola" practices should be regulated based on the traditional rationale for payola regulation, the FCC's approach to Internet regulation likely counsels against such regulations, particularly in light of

¹⁸⁴ See *supra* Section IV.

¹⁸⁵ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 72.

¹⁸⁶ Galuszka, *supra* note 51, at 73.

the established disparity in regulation of terrestrial radio and streaming services.

SMART HOME TECHNOLOGY: ABUSERS ADAPT TO TECHNOLOGY QUICKER THAN LAWS DO

*Kate Lanagan**

Domestic abusers have long used various resources available to them to terrorize their victims. Smart home technology is one of the newest resources that abusers manipulate to control and scare victims. Home is where a person is supposed to feel safest, but the manipulation of smart home technology by domestic abusers obliterates this sense of security and autonomy. Courts are failing to respond to abusive uses of new technology as quickly as abusers are exploiting them. To catch up, states should impose regulations that prevent known domestic abusers from exploiting smart home technology; explicitly include smart home technology in legal definitions of abuse, stalking, and harassment; and offer public educational programs about the misuse of technology.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Smart home technology includes “[i]nternet-connected locks, speakers, thermostats, lights and cameras.”¹ Smart home technology is already popular, and projections show it will become even more popular in upcoming years.² As of 2018, 32% of American households have installed some form of smart home technology.³ By 2022, this number is projected to increase to 53.1%.⁴ This increase in the number of people using smart home technology is accompanied by a concomitant increase in the number of people who abuse it. Moreover, this technology is economically accessible to the average abuser—indoor smart home cameras that can be connected to smartphones can be purchased on Amazon for as little as \$30.⁵

Historically, abusers have employed new methods of domestic violence as technology develops and provides new forms of control.⁶ The Domestic Violence Resource Centre Victoria, one of the premier institutions studying the use of smart home technology by abusers, found that 98% of practitioners who serve domestic violence clients said their

¹ Nellie Bowles, *Thermostats, Locks and Lights: Digital Tools of Domestic Abuse*, N.Y. TIMES (June 23, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/06/23/technology/smart-home-devices-domestic-abuse.html>.

² *Smart Home Penetration Rate*, STATISTA (Nov. 2018), <https://www.statista.com/outlook/279/109/smart-home/united-states>.

³ *Id.*

⁴ *Id.*

⁵ *Aobelieve Outdoor Wall Mount with Weatherproof Case for Wyze Cam Wireless Camera, Security Mounting Bracket Holder with Protective Waterproof Housing Cover for Wyze v1/v2 Camera, White*, AMAZON https://www.amazon.com/Wyze-Indoor-Wireless-Camera-Vision/dp/B076H3SRXG?qid=1539049363&refinements=p_36%3A1253504011&s=Camera+%26+Photo&sr=1-1&ref=sr_1_1 (last visited Feb. 11, 2019 5:34 PM) (selling wireless cameras for \$25.98 per camera).

⁶ Women’s Legal Service NSW, Domestic Violence Resource Centre Victoria and WESNET, *ReCharge: Women’s Technology Safety, Legal Resources, Research & Training*, SMARTSAFE (2015), <http://www.smartsafe.org.au/sites/default/files/ReCharge-Womens-Technology-Safety-Report-2015.pdf>; *see also*, Wendy Patrick, *Remote Controlled: Domestic Abuse Through Technology*, PSYCHOLOGY TODAY (Jul. 22, 2018), <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/why-bad-looks-good/201807/remote-controlled-domestic-abuse-through-technology> (“[I]nventions have provided new avenues to harass, scare, or intimidate victims in a domestic violence context.”) (citations omitted).

clients “had experienced technology-facilitated stalking and abuse.”⁷ Smart home technology now allows abusers to easily control and terrorize victims in the place in which they should feel most secure—their home. Through smartphone apps, they can use smart home technology to harass victims by remotely engaging locks, randomly blaring music, controlling lights and thermostats, and watching victims through cameras or webcams.⁸ Abusers also extract extensive and intimate information from smart home devices.⁹ Such information is so easily accessible that even non-abused consumers express anxiety about their technology and its control over them.¹⁰ An average of 70% of consumers worry about hackers invading their home systems and 58% worry that manufacturers retain access to their personal data.¹¹ Abusers’ deliberate manipulation of smart home technology terrifies victims, violates their sense of security, and makes them question their sanity.¹²

This article will examine the evolving connection between domestic violence and technology and address the complexities courts face in responding to technology-based abuse. Additionally, this article will discuss the quandary state legislators face in trying to craft laws that can keep pace with ever-changing technology to both protect victims and punish abusers. This article proposes specific initiatives to address the abusive uses of smart home technology including: (1) state regulations on this technology to prevent known domestic abusers from exploiting it; (2) legislation explicitly including exploitation of smart home technology in legal definitions of abuse, stalking, and harassment; and (3) educational programs implemented by states to educate the judiciary and the public about this topic.

⁷ Women’s Legal Service NSW, Domestic Violence Resource Centre Victoria and WESNET, *ReCharge: Women’s Technology Safety, Legal Resources, Research & Training*, SMARTSAFE (2015), <http://www.smartsafe.org.au/sites/default/files/ReCharge-Womens-Technology-Safety-Report-2015.pdf>

⁸ *Id.*

⁹ Ronda Kaysen, *Is My Not-So-Smart House Watching Me?*, N.Y. TIMES (Apr. 27, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/04/27/realestate/is-my-not-so-smart-house-watching-me.html?module=inline>.

¹⁰ *Id.*

¹¹ *Id.*

¹² Nellie Bowles, *Thermostats, Locks and Lights: Digital Tools of Domestic Abuse*, N.Y. TIMES (June 23, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/06/23/technology/smart-home-devices-domestic-abuse.html>.

II. BACKGROUND

Courts slowly adapt to evolving forms of technology, in part as a response to legislators' failure to draft specific statutes that accurately express the many ways abusers exploit technology.¹³ Courts have historically struggled to keep up with all of the ways that technology is being used or misused.¹⁴

Abusers' misuse of technology is prevalent.¹⁵ A 2014 survey from the National Network to End Domestic Violence found that 97% of victims are being "harassed, monitored, and threatened by offenders misusing technology."¹⁶ Three of the most frequently used technologies for abuse are texting (96%), social media (86%), and email (78%).¹⁷ Survivors often have difficulty removing their abuser's access to them through these mediums because of society's dependence on technology.¹⁸ Moreover, law enforcement often has problems identifying an abuser who uses technology because it is difficult to prove the identity of a virtual abuser.¹⁹ Based on these statistics, abusers will have more modes of abuse as availability of newer technology expands and will potentially have more ways to disguise their abusive actions.

The Supreme Court began recognizing privacy in 1886 in *Boyd v. United States*, where it examined governmental invasion of one's home.²⁰ The Court stated, "[I]t is not the breaking of doors, and the rummaging of his drawers, that constitutes the essence of the offense; but it is the invasion

¹³ Melissa F. Brown, *Safety and Security in a Digital Age*, S.C. LAW., July 2010, at 38, 44.

¹⁴ *Id.*

¹⁵ See Kaofeng Lee, *A Glimpse from The Field: How Abusers Are Misusing Technology*, Technology Safety (Feb. 17, 2015), <https://www.techsafety.org/blog/2015/2/17/a-glimpse-from-the-field-how-abusers-are-misusing-technology> (follow "Click here for a copy of the report" hyperlink for access to the National Network to End Domestic Violence, *Safety Net Technology Safety Survey 2014*, 1 (2014) [hereinafter *Technology Safety Survey*]).

¹⁶ *Technology Safety Survey*, *supra* note 15 at 1.

¹⁷ *Technology Safety Survey*, *supra* note 15 at 2.

¹⁸ *Technology Safety Survey*, *supra* note 15 at 2.

¹⁹ *Technology Safety Survey*, *supra* note 15 at 2.

²⁰ *Boyd v. United States*, 116 U.S. 616 (1886).

of his infeasible right of personal security, personal liberty and private property . . . which underlies and constitutes the essence of [this] judgment.”²¹ Over a century later, SCOTUS expanded its invasion of security theme to 21st century technology in *Kyllo v. United States*.²² The Court stated in *Kyllo* that when “the Government uses a device that is not in general public use, to explore details of the home that would previously have been unknowable without physical intrusion, the surveillance is a ‘search’ and is presumptively unreasonable without a warrant.”²³ That holding dealt with warrants, but abusive use of smart home technology necessitates a further expansion of the standard of invasion of security. The autonomy and safety of a person’s private life is of utmost importance.

The original legislative intent behind the Fourth and Fifth Amendments was to protect people from *physical* home invasions.²⁴ There is an argument that these amendments should also be extended to prevent the government from abusing technology to virtually invade a person’s home.²⁵ It stands to reason that a private person (a domestic abuser) should not be able to legally invade a victim’s home, especially if the government’s invasion is prohibited as well.

While unauthorized government invasion of privacy is unconstitutional, laws limit the reach of the state.²⁶ A domestic partner’s invasion of privacy is especially problematic because the victim has likely granted access to the abuser who is unlikely to limit his reach or respond to any limits. When victims call shelters and hotlines for help, they report feeling like they are going crazy because smart home abuse is so personal and done anonymously from a distance.²⁷ In a recently sensationalized case,

²¹ *Id.* at 630.

²² *Kyllo v. United States*, 533 U.S. 27 (2001).

²³ *Id.* at 40.

²⁴ Jessica Cocco, *Smart Home Technology for the Elderly and the Need for Regulation*, 6 PITT. J. ENVTL PUB. HEALTH L. 85, 100 (2011) (referencing *Boyd*, 116 U.S. 616).

²⁵ *Id.*

²⁶ See e.g., The National Domestic Violence Hotline, *Stalking Safety Planning*, <https://www.thehotline.org/2019/01/25/stalking-safety-planning/> (last visited Feb. 25, 2019) (“The legal definition of stalking does vary from state to state.”).

²⁷ Nellie Bowles, *Thermostats, Locks and Lights: Digital Tools of Domestic Abuse*, N.Y. TIMES, (June 23, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/06/23/technology/smart-home-devices-domestic-abuse.html>.

an abuser's emotional manipulation over text messages were found to be coercive enough to cause a young man to take his own life.²⁸

Telephone harassment and GPS stalking are now recognized forms of domestic abuse, but it is taking legislators and courts a long time to acknowledge this.²⁹ In 2007, the Seventh Circuit held in *United States v. Garcia* that installing a GPS device on a car that is located on a public street does not constitute a search and that such monitoring does not violate the Fourth Amendment.³⁰ Along these same lines, the Supreme Court held in *United States v. Knotts* that “[a] person travelling in an automobile on public thoroughfares has no reasonable expectation of privacy in his movements from one place to another.”³¹ Later, New York’s highest court distinguished *Knotts* in *People v. Weaver* by asserting that improved technology requires more restrictions and held that the installation of a GPS and monitoring of a car’s location did qualify as a search under the Fourth Amendment and was thereby unconstitutional.³² The *Weaver* court stated, “It bears remembering that criminals can, and will, use the most modern and efficient tools available to them, and will not get warrants before doing so.”³³ The dissent in *Weaver* was concerned that imposing constitutional restrictions would limit law enforcement’s ability to adapt to advancements in technology as quickly as criminals would be able to.³⁴ Constitutional restraints vis a vis law enforcement aside, this concern should still be at the forefront of domestic violence courts’ agendas because abusers adapt to technology quicker than laws do.³⁵

²⁸ *Com. v. Carter*, 52 N.E.3d 1054, 1063-64 (Mass. 2016) (finding the defendant guilty of involuntary manslaughter, considering “the *defendant's virtual presence* at the time of the suicide, the previous constant pressure the defendant had put on the victim, and his already delicate mental state.”) (emphasis added).

²⁹ Aarti Shahani, *Smartphones Are Used to Stalk, Control Domestic Abuse Victims*, NPR, (Sept. 15, 2014), <https://www.npr.org/sections/alltechconsidered/2014/09/15/346149979/smartphones-are-used-to-stalk-control-domestic-abuse-victims>.

³⁰ *United States v. Garcia*, 474 F.3d 994, 997 (7th Cir. 2007).

³¹ *United States v. Knotts*, 460 U.S. 276, 281 (1983).

³² *People v. Weaver*, 909 N.E.2d 1195, 1204 (N.Y. 2009).

³³ *Id.*

³⁴ *Id.*

³⁵ *See id.*

The Violence Against Women Act of 2005 (VAWA 2005) criminalized stalking by way of surveillance, including GPS tracking.³⁶ It also extended abusers' accountability for substantial emotional harm to victims, which was a major improvement to federal stalking law.³⁷ Part of VAWA 2005's stated purpose is "to develop safe uses of technology . . . to protect against abuses of technology (such as electronic or GPS stalking), or provid[e] training for law enforcement on high tech electronic crimes of domestic violence, dating violence, sexual assault, and stalking."³⁸ VAWA 2005 also increased minimum penalties for abusers who violated already existing orders of protection.³⁹ However, many abusers still go undeterred because of loopholes in laws dealing with stalking by way of surveillance.⁴⁰ For example, the criminal definition of stalking does not include marital spying as a criminal offense.⁴¹ Abusers can also easily illegally gain control over a phone's GPS system to track the whereabouts of their victims.⁴² In December of 2018, VAWA expired.⁴³ The reauthorization process has been slow due to the government shutdown⁴⁴ and partisan fights over potential changes to existing law.⁴⁵ As of April 4, 2019, the House of Representatives voted to reauthorize VAWA, but the Senate is working on a new version.⁴⁶

³⁶ Violence Against Women and Department of Justice Reauthorization Act of 2005, Pub. L. No. 109-162, § 41102(4), 119 Stat 2960, (2006) (codified as amended 34 U.S.C. § 12442(4)).

³⁷ *Id.*

³⁸ *Id.*

³⁹ *Id.*

⁴⁰ Melissa F. Brown, *Safety and Security in a Digital Age*, S.C. LAW., July 2010, at 38, 44.

⁴¹ *Id.* at 47.

⁴² *Id.*

⁴³ Ericka Cruz, *Congress Debates Reauthorization of Expired Violence Against Women Act*, IMMIGRATION IMPACT (Mar. 20, 2019), <http://immigrationimpact.com/2019/03/20/congress-reauthorize-violence-women-act/> ("Due to the government shutdown, VAWA expired on December 21, 2018. It was briefly revived through a short-term spending bill in late January 2019 but lapsed again in mid-February. Last week, Congress resumed efforts to reinstate the legislation by passing out of the House Judiciary Committee H.R. 1585, a bipartisan bill to reauthorize VAWA and adjust some aspects of the existing law.").

⁴⁴ *Id.*

⁴⁵ Ashley Killough, *House passes reauthorization of Violence Against Women Act*, CNN, (Apr. 4, 2019 2:59 PM EST), <https://www.cnn.com/2019/04/04/politics/house-passes-violence-against-women-act-reauthorization/index.html>.

⁴⁶ *Id.*

Courts can evolve to adapt to new technologies. For example, courts recognized the use of spyware software, which collects personal information, records keystrokes, and monitors a user’s browsing history and habits, as a form of abuse.⁴⁷ Similar to smart home technology, spyware software is accessible and inexpensive.⁴⁸ It is also relatively undetectable on computers unless users purchase and install special anti-spyware detection software.⁴⁹ When abusers take advantage of spyware to abuse, they violate the Unlawful Access to Stored Communications Act (UASCA),⁵⁰ which prohibits a person from “intentionally access[ing] without authorization a facility through which an electric communication service is provided . . . and thereby obtain[ing] . . . access to a wire or electronic communication.”⁵¹ The UASCA, originally enacted in 1986, was created to protect security in the age of evolving electronic communication.⁵² As a reference point, the UASCA was passed three years prior to the invention of the “world wide web” and seven years before its public release.⁵³ The UASCA exhibits how legislators have crafted or adapted laws to evolve with similar technological advances in order to protect privacy.⁵⁴

Abusers also utilize social media to control or intimidate victims. In *Shaw v. Young*, a Louisiana court held that threatening or harassing social media posts, emails, and text messages suffice for the issuance of a permanent protective order.⁵⁵ Massachusetts stated in *Commonwealth v. Walters*, “There is no question that new technology has created increasing opportunities for stalkers to monitor, harass, and instill fear in their victims, including through use of Web sites.”⁵⁶ VAWA 2005 was amended to

⁴⁷ Melissa F. Brown, *Safety and Security in a Digital Age*, S.C. LAW, July 2010, at 38, 45.

⁴⁸ *Id.*

⁴⁹ *Id.*

⁵⁰ *Id.*; 18 U.S.C.A. § 2701 (West).

⁵¹ 18 U.S.C.A. § 2701 (West).

⁵² *Id.*

⁵³ David Grossman, *On This Day 25 Years Ago, the Web Became Public Domain*, POPULAR MECHANICS (Apr. 30, 2018), <https://www.popularmechanics.com/culture/web/a20104417/www-public-domain/> (stating the “world wide web” was invented in 1989 and made public in 1993).

⁵⁴ *See* 18 U.S.C.A. § 2701

⁵⁵ *Shaw v. Young*, 2015-0974 (La. App. 4 Cir. 8/17/16), 199 So. 3d 1180, 1187.

⁵⁶ *Commonwealth v. Walters*, 37 N.E.3d 980, 995–96 (Mass. 2015).

include provisions to prevent cyberbullying and cyberstalking.⁵⁷ Courts can recognize and adapt to technological advances; however, this adaptation seems to be slow and reluctant.

Courts have hesitated at protecting victims in public spaces, where abusers have more of a right to be.⁵⁸ Workplace violence is an example of this.⁵⁹ When domestic violence is relegated to the “private sphere,” instances of public domestic violence go unpunished.⁶⁰ Courts, historically, have “been hesitant to enter” the private realm.⁶¹ The dilemma regarding the dangers of surveillance technology has been compared to the dangers of owning a knife: “You can always cut vegetables but you can also kill your neighbor.”⁶² Many people use smart home technology legally, but, once manipulated, the oppression and harm suffered by victims is petrifying.⁶³ Smart home technology poses a unique threat: the abuser is not in the home, but the abuse happening *is* in the home. This makes it more complicated to tie the abuser to the abuse, as smart home technology can be manipulated with the click of a button from thousands of miles away. A person’s home is the crux of their private life, and courts need to protect victims there.

III. ANALYSIS

Today, technology pervades society and technology-facilitated abuse is difficult to control and stop.⁶⁴ People are increasingly using smart home technology, and its use exposes inhabitants to increased instances of abuse.⁶⁵ Courts and legislators need to catch up to advancements in

⁵⁷ Violence Against Women and Department of Justice Reauthorization Act of 2005, Pub. L. No. 109–162, § 41102(4), 119 Stat 2960, (2006) (codified as amended 34 U.S.C. § 12442(4)).

⁵⁸ Britney M. Miller, *From Private to Public: The Impact of Domestic Violence in the Workplace*, MOSS & BARNETT (May 24, 2016), <http://www.lawmoss.com/publications/from-private-to-public-the-impact-of-domestic-violence-in-the-workplace-2/>.

⁵⁹ *Id.*

⁶⁰ *Id.*

⁶¹ Claire Kelleher-Smith, Surveillance as Control: Legally Recognized Harms of Intimate Partner Spying, (2011) in DOMESTIC VIOLENCE LAW, 792-93 (Nancy K.D. Lemon, 5th ed., 2018).

⁶² *Id.* at 793.

⁶³ *Id.*

⁶⁴ Mary Graw Leary, *The Supreme Digital Divide*, 48 TEX. TECH L. REV. 65, 76 (2015).

⁶⁵ *Id.*

technology to better protect victims of abuse. States should impose certain regulations prohibiting known domestic abusers from manipulating smart home technology. Legislators need to explicitly include smart home technology in legal definitions of abuse, stalking, and harassment for both civil and criminal law. With such definitions, judges can make civil protection orders or convict abusers for manipulating smart home technology. States should also offer educational programs to assist the judiciary and the public in recognizing this form of abuse. Education programs should specifically be implemented in shelters so that victims of abuse can learn to recognize the signs.

Surveillance is key to controlling a victim, which is an abuser's main goal.⁶⁶ Federal and state laws have long recognized general surveillance as a form of domestic violence.⁶⁷ Historically, abusers control and monitor victims by stalking, arranging for someone else to follow them, or locking them into a house or room.⁶⁸ Now, abusers can purchase spyware or in-home surveillance and maintain control from anywhere in the world with the touch of an app.⁶⁹ As Massachusetts recognized in *Commonwealth v. Walters*, technology has indisputably increased a stalker's ability "to monitor, harass, and instill fear in their victims."⁷⁰

Abusers exploit technology in many ways, including using smartphones and social media apps for human trafficking.⁷¹ Technology offers an easily accessible and efficient way to control victims with minimal

⁶⁶ Claire Kelleher-Smith, Surveillance as Control: Legally Recognized Harms of Intimate Partner Spying, (2011) in DOMESTIC VIOLENCE LAW, 790 (Nancy K.D. Lemon, 5th ed., 2018).

⁶⁷ *Id.*

⁶⁸ Aarti Shahani, *Smartphones Are Used to Stalk, Control Domestic Abuse Victims*, NPR ALL THINGS TECH, (Sept. 15, 2014) <https://www.npr.org/sections/alltechconsidered/2014/09/15/346149979/smartphones-are-used-to-stalk-control-domestic-abuse-victims>.

⁶⁹ *Id.*

⁷⁰ *Commonwealth v. Walters*, 37 N.E.3d 980, 995–96 (Mass. 2015).

⁷¹ Mark Latonero, *The Rise of Mobile and the Diffusion of Technology-Facilitated Trafficking*, USC ANNENBERG CENTER ON COMMUNICATION LEADERSHIP & POLICY (Nov. 2012), <https://technologyandtrafficking.usc.edu/files/2012/11/USC-Annenberg-Technology-and-Human-Trafficking-2012.pdf>.

risk of detection—by the victim or by the authorities.⁷² Victims are uniquely vulnerable to technology because it can be used to access every part of a person’s life, including their text messages, current location, financial activities, and other aspects of a victim’s life that provides an abuser with almost unlimited ability to monitor and control their victim.⁷³ Smart home technology gives abusers the ability to pervade the most intimate and private of places: one’s home.⁷⁴ Home is where a person is supposed to feel safest, and the misuse of technology to destroy that safety obliterates any sense of security and peace.⁷⁵ The Supreme Court stated in *Union Pac. R.R. v. Botsford*, “[N]o right is held more sacred, or is more carefully guarded . . . than the right of every individual to the possession and control of his own person, free from restraint or interference of others, unless by clear and unquestionable authority.”⁷⁶ Domestic violence courts and legislators should keep privacy of victims at the forefront of their agendas.

a. Legislators Should Explicitly Include Smart Home Technology in Legal Definitions.

Courts need to become aware of the abuses of smart home technology in order to better protect victims. Smart home manipulation should be explicitly included in criminal definitions and civil protection order definitions of abuse and stalking. This would be a bright-line rule, so courts would apply the law uniformly. Judges would have no discretion as to whether manipulation of smart home technology should constitute as abuse or stalking, as it would be explicitly included in legal definitions.

b. Regulation of Smart Home Technology or Mandatory Educational Programs Could Help Protect Victims of Abuse.

State regulatory protections could be extended over smart home technology to protect victims. Security implementations provided by

⁷² See Claire Kelleher-Smith, *Surveillance as Control: Legally Recognized Harms of Intimate Partner Spying*, (2011) in *DOMESTIC VIOLENCE LAW*, 792 (Nancy K.D. Lemon, 5th ed., 2018).

⁷³ *Id.*

⁷⁴ *Id.*

⁷⁵ *Id.*

⁷⁶ *Union Pac. R.R. v. Botsford*, 141 U.S. 250, 251 (1891).

vendors alone are poor and do not protect victims.⁷⁷ For example, the Privacy Rights Clearing House analyzed 43 health-related phone apps and found that only half of the privacy policies reflected the app's actual behavior.⁷⁸ They also found that only 15% of user data was being encrypted before being sent from the mobile device to the developer's website, and none of it was encrypted while being stored locally on the device.⁷⁹ To motivate companies to make their products more secure and less susceptible to hacks, states can require manufacturers to be more transparent.⁸⁰ California enacted a law requiring a company's privacy policies to be released to the general public instead of only to customers.⁸¹ If other states implement similar regulations, it may motivate companies to make their products and policies more secure.⁸² State requirement of public disclosures shows companies that privacy advocates and the Federal Trade Commission care about security and are monitoring them.⁸³

Regulation could also include mandatory disclosures.⁸⁴ Manufacturers could use mandatory disclosures to warn purchasers of potential abuse. Additionally, smartphone applications that are used to control smart home technologies could carry basic minimum requirements and warnings. Smart home technology should not be available to those previously charged with domestic violence. The risk of abuser's manipulating this technology is too great.

States should offer data literacy and educational programs to further protect victims.⁸⁵ Public institutions, including libraries, schools, and

⁷⁷ Amadou Diallo, *Do Smart Devices Need Regulation? FTC Examines Internet of Things*, FORBES, (Nov. 23, 2013), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/amadouiallo/2013/11/23/ftc-regulation-internet-of-things/#18291d878015>.

⁷⁸ *Id.*

⁷⁹ *Id.*

⁸⁰ *Id.*

⁸¹ *Id.*

⁸² *Id.*

⁸³ *Id.*

⁸⁴ Thomas A. Lambert, *How to Regulate: A Guide for Policymakers*, 197 (2017).

⁸⁵ Elise Herron, *Watch: Intel's In-House Gender Studies Scholar Melissa Gregg Says Women Should Be Designing Smart Home Technology*, (June 25, 2018), <https://www.wweek.com/news/2018/06/25/watch-intels-in-house-gender-studies-scholar-melissa-gregg-says-women-should-be-designing-smart-home-technology/>.

shelters, could offer programs about advancements in technology and their effects on privacy. States should also offer seminars on technology as a form of continuing education for judges, lawyers, and law enforcement officers. Increasing awareness of this issue in the legal profession can allow practitioners and the judiciary to stay up-to-date with modern technology, ask the right questions, and recognize this serious form of abuse. Education within shelters could also help victims protect themselves. Many victims may not think to change passwords after fleeing abuse. Educational programs could remind them of this and help them understand the dangers that come with different forms of technology.

“Danger Assessments” are evidence-based tools to predict the likelihood a victim may suffer from serious harm or homicide.⁸⁶ These instruments are used to help determine a victim’s level of danger based on a series of questions.⁸⁷ They presently inquire into partner surveillance and stalking.⁸⁸ The manipulation of smart home technology should count as a specific form of stalking on Danger Assessments, and researchers should examine the association of such smart home stalking to serious assault and homicide. After establishing an evidence-based research association, abuses of technology should be explicitly inquired about on Danger Assessments.

Jurisdictions could add additional questions about how partners use technology or if their homes have smart home technology. Abuse victims and domestic violence advocates may not initially think of smart home technology or at-home security cameras as instruments that could be aiding the abuser. Explicitly including technology on these Danger Assessments would help advocates and victims become aware of this prevalent issue, which they may not have previously considered.

⁸⁶ See John Hopkins School of Nursing, *Danger Assessment* <https://learn.nursing.jhu.edu/instruments-interventions/Danger%20Assessment/index.html> (last visited Mar. 22, 2019 11:33 pm) (“The Danger Assessment helps to determine the level of danger an abused woman has of being killed by her intimate partner.”).

⁸⁷ *Id.*

⁸⁸ Claire Kelleher-Smith, Surveillance as Control: Legally Recognized Harms of Intimate Partner Spying, (2011) in *DOMESTIC VIOLENCE LAW*, 790-91 (Nancy K.D. Lemon, 5th ed., 2018).

c. Smart Home Technology Can Also be a Tool Against Abusers

As problematic as smart home technology is in current legal schema, it is important to note that smart home technology may also be a resource to ensure justice for victims.⁸⁹ Police can pull records from smart home technology devices to build cases against abusers.⁹⁰ If the victim has access to the smart home technology, such as a doorbell camera or in-home camera, the victim can assess whether their abuser is in the home.⁹¹ Importantly, a victim's ability to view recorded attacks may give victims insight into the extremity of the abuse,⁹² which is often downplayed by abusers and victims alike. As the law evolves with technology, it is important for law enforcement and prosecutors to realize the potential of using smart home technology as a weapon against abusers.

IV. CONCLUSION

Smart home technology gives abusers access to essentially all dimensions of a victim's life.⁹³ The abuse is unique in that it is a complete attack on an individual's autonomy and personhood.⁹⁴ An abuser's manipulation of the lights, thermostat, doorbell, and television could cause the victim to feel like she is trapped in her own home even if nobody is around.⁹⁵ This complete control over the victim's living space threatens a victim's senses of security, individualism, and autonomy. Courts must adapt to new changes in technology, and states must offer educational programs in order to protect victims of abuse.

⁸⁹ Hadeel Al-Alosi, *Technology is both a weapon and a shield for those experiencing domestic violence*, THE CONVERSATION (June 17, 2018), <https://theconversation.com/technology-is-both-a-weapon-and-a-shield-for-those-experiencing-domestic-violence-97776>.

⁹⁰ *Id.*

⁹¹ *Id.*

⁹² *Id.*

⁹³ See Claire Kelleher-Smith, *Surveillance as Control: Legally Recognized Harms of Intimate Partner Spying*, (2011) in DOMESTIC VIOLENCE LAW, 789-90 (Nancy K.D. Lemon, 5th ed., 2018). ("Nearly all abusive intimate relationships involve surveillance.")

⁹⁴ *Id.* at 790.

⁹⁵ Nellie Bowles, *Thermostats, Locks and Lights: Digital Tools of Domestic Abuse*, N.Y. TIMES (June 23, 2018), <https://www.nytimes.com/2018/06/23/technology/smart-home-devices-domestic-abuse.html>.

Courts and legislators are failing to keep up with the advancement of technology.⁹⁶ As technology evolves, creative domestic abusers develop more terrifying ways to harass and control victims from a distance in less detectable formats. Legislators, victims, courts, law enforcement, and domestic violence service providers are unfamiliar with the reach of smart home technology manipulation. Smart home technology needs to be explicitly included in legal definitions of abuse, stalking, and harassment. Smart home technology is unique in that it allows abusers to have access over the most intimate and private part of one's life: one's home. Because smart home technology is so invasive and so accessible, courts need to rapidly catch up in order to protect victims.

To correct the power imbalance between abusers and victims, the government should impose certain regulations on smart home technology, such as requiring vendors to be more transparent about their security protections.⁹⁷ In order to protect technology users and victims of abuse, public institutions such as libraries, schools, and shelters should offer data literacy and educational programs.⁹⁸ State bar associations should provide regular education on the abusive and illegal uses of technology to legal practitioners. Courts should explore the idea of educating the judiciary on technology and its abuses. A victim's privacy needs to be at the forefront of legislators' and courts' agenda.

⁹⁶ Delanie Woodlock, *The Abuse of Technology in Domestic Violence and Stalking*, 23 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN 584–602 (2016).

⁹⁷ Amadou Diallo, *Do Smart Devices Need Regulation? FTC Examines Internet of Things*, FORBES (Nov. 23, 2013), <https://www.forbes.com/sites/amadoudiallo/2013/11/23/ftc-regulation-internet-of-things/#18291d878015>.

⁹⁸ Herron, *supra* note 85.