CookiePro

THE ULTIMATE COOKIE HANDBOOK FOR PRIVACY PROFESSIONALS

Disclaimer:
No part of this document may be reproduced in any form without the written permission of the copyright owner.

The contents of this document are subject to revision without notice due to continued progress in methodology, design, and manufacturing. OneTrust LLC shall have no liability for any error or damage of any kind resulting from the use of this document.

OneTrust products, content and materials are for informational purposes only and not for the purpose of providing legal advice. You should contact your attorney to obtain advice with respect to any issue. OneTrust materials are informative and do not guarantee compliance with applicable laws and regulations.
OneTrust is the category-defining enterprise platform to operationalize trust. More than 12,000 customers, including half of the Fortune Global 500, use OneTrust to make trust a competitive differentiator, implementing central agile workflows across privacy, security, data governance, GRC, third-party risk, ethics and compliance, and ESG programs. The OneTrust platform is backed by 200 patents and powered by the OneTrust Athena™ AI. Our offerings include OneTrust Privacy, OneTrust DataDiscovery™, OneTrust DataGovernance™, OneTrust Vendorpedia™, OneTrust GRC, OneTrust Ethics, OneTrust PreferenceChoice™, OneTrust ESG, and OneTrust DataGuidance™.
THE ULTIMATE COOKIE HANDBOOK FOR PRIVACY PROFESSIONALS

JANUARY 2022
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 1: Understanding the Terminology and Requirements</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 2: Available Lawful Bases for Tracking Technologies</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 3: The Future of the Regulation ePrivacy Regulation</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 4: OneTrust FAQs</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 5: CCPA Requirements, Rights and Terminology</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 6: California Privacy Rights Act (CPRA) of 2023</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company and Resources</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Handbook Contributors:**

Efrain Castaneda Mogollon; Manager, Privacy Counsel
Matteo Quartieri; Privacy Associate, Privacy Counsel
Alexis Kateifides; Senior Center of Excellence Counsel, Privacy Counsel
Ashlea Cartee; Product Marketing
Part 1: Understanding the Terminology and Requirements

Terminology

Overview of Cookies

When a user visits a website, the website requests the user’s browser to store a cookie on the computer or mobile device. A cookie is a small piece of data (text file), generated by a website, that remembers information about users and website usage, such as language preference or login information.

All cookies are browser specific. For example, if you use Internet Explorer, visit a website and select “French” as your preferred language, a cookie may be placed on your computer so that when you visit this website in the future, it will know to display it in French. However, if the next time you visit that same website, you use Chrome instead of Internet Explorer, the site will not know that you prefer seeing it in French.

For example, websites use cookies to:

• Identify users;
• Remember users’ custom preferences (such as language preference); and
• Help users complete tasks without having to re-enter information when browsing from one page to another or when visiting the site later:
  • Browsing from one page to another: For example, when online shopping, a cookie is what allows a visitor to select an item to purchase and seeing this item again when they click and are directed to the “Check-out” page; or
  • When visiting the site later: For example, when you enter
your e-mail address and password and click “remember me” so that when you visit the site again, your e-mail address and password will already be “pre-typed”

However, cookies can also be used by search engines and online advertisers for online behavioral advertising usually enabled by a third-party (not the website publisher) who is usually an ad tech vendor.

Cookies are enabled by the publisher of a website or by third parties.¹ Originally, they were created to enable e-commerce solutions for the web, as the web did not have memory capabilities (e.g. to remember what items have been added to a shopping cart and by whom). Today, cookies are meant to enhance the overall experience of a person visiting a website by tracking a wide range of data such as user preferences, activity, login details, IP addresses, location, etc.

**Different Types of Cookies**

A cookie can be classified by its lifespan, purpose and the domain to which it belongs. By lifespan, a cookie is either a:

- Session or temporary cookie which is erased when the user closes the browser; or
- Persistent cookie which remains on the user’s computer/device for a pre-defined period.

As for the domain to which it belongs, there are either:

- First-party cookies which are set by the web server of the visited page and share the same domain; or
- Third-party cookies stored by a different domain to the visited page’s domain. This can happen when the webpage references a file, such as JavaScript, located outside its domain.
A commonly accepted classification of cookies according to their purpose includes five different categories:

- **Strictly necessary cookies**: these are essential cookies enabled for the proper functioning of websites and are used to perform basic functions. Without these cookies a website may not function as intended.

- **Performance cookies**: they collect information about how visitors use a website – usually aggregated information that does not identify individuals. The information collected is used to provide publishers with statistical information about the site. Typically, analytics cookies are found in this category.

- **Functional cookies**: these are cookies that are generally there to support site functionality that is visible or advantageous to the user or their experience of the site, they enable websites to remember choices and provide a more personalized experience.

- **Targeting cookies (advertising)**: these cookies are enabled in behavioral advertising contexts. They are usually set by digital advertising businesses for the prime or sole purpose of managing the performance of adverts, displaying adverts, and/or building user profiles. Typically, these cookies would be set by a third-party buying ad space (or impressions) on a website.

There are other types of cookies, such as Flash cookies. Flash cookies are an example of tracking methods that are less noticeable and harder to remove. Flash cookies are cookies that “respawn” after deletion. It is a standard HTTP cookie backed up by data stored in additional files that are used to rebuild the original cookie when the user visits the originating site again. They are stored in a different place on your device or online, which means that they are not deleted when you delete your browser cookies.
**Cookie Walls**

As defined by the European Commission, a “cookie wall” prevents users – who do not consent to the use of cookies – from accessing a website or a service without offering an alternative that does not require consent to the use of cookies.

**Third-Party Cookies**

A third-party cookie is a cookie that does not originate from the website that you are visiting. It is placed on a user’s device by a website from a domain other than the one you are visiting. The most common third-party cookies are enabled by social media platforms, marketers, advertisers and ad tech companies. Third-party cookies embed a “piece” of their website in a different website, and this allows them to store cookies on your machine, in addition to those stored by the first party. For example, if you visit a news website and the site has ads on it, the news website itself can store cookies on your device (first party cookies), but your browser is also communicating with another website – which is the website that has the ad that is displayed on the news website. This other website can also store a cookie on your device, which is a third-party cookie.

Third party cookies have been used by marketers since the late 90s to track users’ online behavior and user experience was personalised by them with individual ads in line with their interests. Usually, third parties buy ad space on websites through a process called Real Time Bidding (RTB) based on the limited information they receive about the potential interests of the website visitors. Usually, ads and content delivered this way are tailored to the interests of website visitors, therefore potentially highly invasive of their privacy, mainly due to the fact that website visitors are largely unaware of this process.
and the ways their personal data are processed and shared with third parties in order to achieve personalisation.

**OTT-I**

Over-the-top services bypass cable, broadcast, and satellite television platforms, the types of companies that traditionally act as distributors of content, in order to disseminate their own content. In other words, as BEREC defined in their 2016 report, an OTT is “content, a service or an application that is provided to the end user over the public Internet.” This definition encompasses applications, content or a service.

These are IP-based communications systems that are not covered by the scope of the ePrivacy Directive. Examples of OTT-I services include messenger and VoIP applications (such as WhatsApp, Signal, Skype, Line, etc.), email services, and media streaming services.

There are two important things to note from this definition: 1) OTT refers to the way content is provided and not to a specific type of content provided; 2) OTT content is usually provided by a third party, not the Internet Service Provider (ISPs may also offer OTTs in connection with their service).

**Real Time Bidding (RTB)**

RTB is the process of selling and buying ad space, or impressions, on websites for ad tech vendors to show to website visitors. This is achieved through a real-time, online auction of ad space in the form of a programmatic instantaneous tender that is triggered when a user visits a website. Once a bid request is triggered an auction starts and the ad space or internet impression goes to the highest bidder,
which serves the ad on the page. The bid request usually generates a data set about the user that includes information such as demographics, browsing history, location, and the page being loaded, which will then be used for the advertiser to publish a targeted ad on the impression bought. This process takes no longer than the time it takes a webpage to load when a user visits a website.

There are three main parties involved with the RTB process:

- **Publishers**: they usually are controllers of personal data as defined in the GDPR and are the ones that initiate the auction by sending bid requests every time a user loads a webpage.

- **Ad tech vendors**: parties bidding for internet impressions (ad space) as a site loads onto a user’s equipment. The request for a bid is passed from the publisher (of the website the user is loading) to an ad exchange platform.

- **Ad exchange platforms**: give advertisers access to information used to determine the value of a specific impression and, at a larger scale tailor specific marketing campaigns to specific groups of users.

**Consent Management Platform (CMPs)**

Digital consent management is a process whereby website owners and/or publishers meet privacy requirements, through the use of an interface that can developed in-house, or – more commonly – by a third party. CMPs help website owners, and publishers with their data processing obligations, including ePrivacy and GDPR obligations, as well as CCPA and CPRA requirements in California. Digital consent management usually takes the form of layered information presented to users, and a preference mechanism that provides granular cookie choice to users. CMPs are providers that enable website publishers to automate their consent management processes, they typically are data processors of website publishers.
and must comply with GDPR processor obligations. The term CMP was coined in the context of the IAB Transparency and Consent Framework.

**Transparency and Consent Framework (TCF)**

The **TCF** is an industry framework delivered by the Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB) Europe designed to help entities in the digital advertising ecosystem achieve transparency and downstream user choice to third parties. Publishers, advertisers and CMPs can voluntarily apply to adhere to the technical specifications and policies of the framework. The framework is dynamic and is updated according to the circumstances. Each party involved in the TCF has its own responsibilities for ensuring the proper implementation of the technical specifications, support of obligatory features and compliance with the policies.

**Other Tracking Technologies**

Historically, techniques for tracking and storing people's preferences on the web have relied on HTTP cookies – small text files that ‘tag’ a person’s browser so it can be uniquely identified. HTTP cookies are only one of the various techniques available to track user behaviour online.

For example, web beacons (also called web bugs or pixel tags) are often-transparent graphic image, usually no larger than 1 pixel x 1 pixel, that is placed on a Web site or in an email and is used to monitor the behavior of the user visiting the website or sending the email. The technology is often used in combination with cookies. Web beacons allow companies and online marketing agencies, for example, to know if readers are opening the html emails they receive. When the Web beacon
loads (which happens when the email is opened), the Web beacon is embedded invisibly in the email graphics, so the company can find out if the recipient opened the email, and when it was opened. It can also help gather information such as the IP address of the computer, the URL of the web page the bug is located on, the URL of the page the bug came from, the time the bug was observed, a set cookie value, and the type of browser that was used to get web bug graphic image.

Device and browser fingerprinting are common tracking techniques that are more subtle than cookies. Device fingerprinting allows the identification of devices by collecting information stored in applications that are locally installed. The information stored by local applications may include unique identifiers, such as a MAC address and serial numbers, making it possible to identify users. The technology can identify a user even when cookies are turned off or have been deleted.

Browser fingerprinting consists in collecting large amounts of diverse and stable information that is unique to each family of web browsers. In addition, by using this technique “fingerprinters” can retrieve information about browser plugins and extensions, browsing history and hardware properties.

Although this handbook focuses on cookies, the ePrivacy Directive and proposed draft ePrivacy Regulation apply to anyone who stores information on a user’s device, which means it applies to any similar technologies (such as Local Shared Objects) and any terminal equipment (laptop, smartphone, tablet, smart TV or other similar devices). At the same time, the draft ePrivacy Regulation (addressed below in this handbook) would apply to both the use of processing and storage capabilities of users’ terminal equipment and the collection of information from the same terminal.
equipment, covering types of tracking technologies that go beyond the concept of cookie.

Requirements under EU Regulations and Frameworks

The ePrivacy Directive

The ePrivacy Directive is primarily concerned with the confidentiality of electronic communications in publicly available communications networks, and many of its requirements cover publicly available telecommunications services.

Requirements for cookies in Europe are derived from the ePrivacy Directive, the current version of which came into effect in 2011.

The ePrivacy Directive is primarily concerned with the confidentiality of electronic communications in publicly available communications networks, and many of its requirements cover publicly available telecommunications services. Industry frameworks, such as the TCF reflect this obligation in their policy. For example, the TCF lists several purposes and the lawful processing grounds available for each purpose. The first purpose in the list reflects the obligation contained in Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, namely, to obtain consent for the use of tracking technologies in general, regardless of the nature of the data that they process.
Consent: The Only Legal Basis Available for Cookies

Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, requires, that any “storing or retrieving” (writing or reading) of information from an end user’s terminal equipment be subject to consent unless the cookie falls within the narrow exception to the consent requirement allowed by the ePrivacy Directive.

Note that this requirement may cover a wide range of circumstances and applies to a range of different technologies and techniques for storing and retrieving information from a user’s device (so called “terminal equipment”).

Web cookies are the most common technology to be directly impacted by the consent rule. It is the requirement for cookie consent that has given rise to the use of various cookie notification banners and pop-ups found on many websites.

Additionally, because cookies are stored on the end-user terminal equipment, both first party and third-party cookies are covered by the rule. Consent needs to be given for all types of cookies when a user land on a webpage and the website publisher is the person responsible for collecting the user’s consent (whether the cookie is a first party cookie or a third-party cookie).

Cookies Exempt from the Consent Requirement

The only allowable exception is when the use of the cookies is “strictly necessary” for the operation of the site. Exemptions allowed under this rule are quite narrow.

Consent is not required if the cookie is:

• Used for the sole purpose of carrying out the transmission of
a communication; and

• Strictly necessary for the provider of an information society service explicitly required by the user to provide that service.

Cookies clearly exempt from consent according to the EU advisory body on data protection, the Article 29 Working Party, now European Data Protection Board (‘EDPB’), include:

• User-input cookies (session-id) such as first-party cookies to keep track of the user’s input when filling online forms, shopping carts, etc., for the duration of a session or persistent cookies limited to a few hours in some cases.
• Authentication cookies, to identify the user once he has logged in, for the duration of a session.
• User-centric security cookies, used to detect authentication abuses, for a limited persistent duration.
• Multimedia content player cookies, used to store technical data to play back video or audio content, for the duration of a session.
• Load-balancing cookies, for the duration of session.
• User-interface customization cookies such as language or font preferences, for the duration of a session (or slightly longer).
• Third-party social plug-in content-sharing cookies, for logged-in members of a social network.

It is also important to note that outside the necessity exemption, consent is the only legal basis for setting cookies. This strict consent requirement contrasts with comprehensive data protection and privacy laws, such as the General Data Protection Regulation (‘GDPR’), which allows for additional legal grounds for processing (like legitimate interest, or necessity for the performance of a contract).
The Directive Created a Fragmented Landscape in the EU

One of the key difficulties with the ePrivacy Directive was that its requirements had to be written into national law in each EU Member State, which sets it apart from a Regulation like the GDPR. This created variation in interpretation.

National regulators have also put out their own guidance interpreting the rules around cookies differently, including when and how consent can be obtained/given, as well as what types of cookies that may be exempted from the consent requirement.

Regulators also have widely differing powers and approaches to enforcement. The same website with the same cookies, but serving different national markets, can vary in what information and options are given to users.

The situation is both complicated for website publishers and confusing for end-users, who are faced with a choices galore on every website they visit, and often no real choices at all. For businesses that operate in multiple countries in the EU, attempts to comply with the letter of the law can bring many challenges, and when there’s a low chance of regulation enforcement, there’s a good chance that companies will do as little as possible to comply.

In an effort to harmonise the approach to ePrivacy obligations, on 18 June 2021 the EDPB adopted an ‘Internal EDPB Document 04/2021 on criteria of territorial competence of supervisory authorities to enforce Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive’. This document outlines that although there are no clear criteria in the ePrivacy Directive regarding its territorial application, caselaw from the European Court of Justice sheds
some light into this aspect of enforcement. In particular, when the data processing is regulated exclusively by the national law provisions transposing Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, regulators competent for the enforcement of the ePrivacy Directive are entitled to exercise the powers conferred to them by their national law when:

• the controller/service provider is established in their territorial jurisdiction;

• the processing is carried out in the context of the activities of an establishment located in their territorial jurisdiction, even when exclusive responsibility for collecting and processing belongs, for the entire territory of the EU, to an establishment situated in another Member State; and

• in the absence of controller/service provider or establishment in their territorial jurisdiction, the national law provides another criterion for its enforcement.

**GDPR**

The GDPR entered into force on 25 May 2018. As regulations are directly applicable in each Member State, the goal of the GDPR was to harmonize the data protection framework across the European Union.

While the ePrivacy Directive ensures the protection of fundamental rights and freedoms, it covers the respect for private life and confidentiality of communications in the electronic communications sector. On the other hand, the GDPR covers all matters concerning the processing of personal data not specifically addressed in the ePrivacy Directive or future ePrivacy Regulation.
The GDPR and Cookies

Recitals in the GDPR make it clear that some types of cookies will, by their nature, involve processing of personal data. There are 2 recitals that are key to this:

**Recital 30**

*Natural persons may be associated with online identifiers [...] such as internet protocol addresses, cookie identifiers or other identifiers. This may leave traces which, when combined with unique identifiers and other information received by the servers, may be used to create profiles of the natural persons and identify them.*

This means that cookies, which are used to uniquely identify the device and/or the individual associated with using the device, should be treated as personal data.

This position is also consolidated in Recital 26, which states that personal data is also defined by data that can reasonably be used, either alone or in conjunction with other data to single out an individual or otherwise identify them indirectly.

Use of pseudonymous identifiers (e.g. strings of numbers or letters,) which is what cookies often contain to give them uniqueness, also qualifies as personal data. So under the GDPR, any cookie or other identifier that is uniquely attributed to a device or user and therefore capable of identifying an individual, or treating them as unique even without actually identifying them, counts as processing of personal data.

This will certainly cover almost all advertising and targeting cookies, web analytics cookies, and functional services like survey and chat tools that record user identification in cookies.
The GDPR and Consent

Under the existing rules of the ePrivacy Directive, cookies that are not strictly necessary are subject to consent. The definition of consent and the conditions for lawful consent are those imposed by the GDPR.

To understand the impact this might have for cookies, it helps to look at Recital 32 of the GDPR:

*Consent should be given by a clear affirmative act establishing a freely given, specific, informed and unambiguous indication of the data subject’s agreement to the processing of personal data relating to him or her, such as by a written statement, including by electronic means, or an oral statement. This could include ticking a box when visiting an internet website, choosing technical settings for information society services or another statement or conduct which clearly indicates in this context the data subject’s acceptance of the proposed processing of his or her personal data. Silence, pre-ticked boxes or inactivity should not therefore constitute consent. Consent should cover all processing activities carried out for the same purpose or purposes. When the processing has multiple purposes, consent should be given for all of them. If the data subject’s consent is to be given following a request by electronic means, the request must be clear, concise and not unnecessarily disruptive to the use of the service for which it is provided.*

There is also a key condition for consent in Article 7(3) of the GDPR:

*The data subject shall have the right to withdraw his or her consent at any time [...] It shall be as easy to withdraw as to give consent.*

The definition of consent as laid down in the GDPR is,
therefore, specific. The adaptation of consent-collecting mechanisms in light of the definition of consent under the GDPR is something organizations should carefully consider, especially since the topic of cookies has been a major focal point for European regulators the last few years. Several supervisory authorities have been quite active since 2019 analysing cookies challenges and the interplay between the GDPR and ePrivacy rules. An increasing number of EU supervisory authority are issuing detailed guidance and recommendations with regards to the interpretation of the finer points of both laws when tracking technologies such as cookies are involved. The different positions of the main European data protection authorities are examined in further detail in Part 2 of the handbook.

The viability of Legitimate Interest as a legal basis for the use of tracking technologies

Within the European landscape, it must be firstly considered that the ePrivacy Directive details that the use of cookies and other similar tracking technologies must be only allowed on condition that the subscriber or user concerned has given his/her consent, after having received clear and comprehensive information. Only cookies that are deemed strictly necessary - according to the ePrivacy Directive and criteria issued by supervisory authorities - are exempt from obtaining consent. Nevertheless, website visitors must be kept informed about the presence of cookies or other trackers. In other words, the transparency obligation remains even if there is an exception to consent.

In addition to guidance issued by supervisory authorities, industry groups such as the Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB) have published further recommendations on the
relationship between the legal basis of legitimate interests, as provided by Article 6(1)(f) of the GDPR, and the installation and use of cookies.

In particular, the French data protection authority (‘CNIL’), after having released new guidelines and recommendations on the use of cookies in 2020, addressed the issue of legitimate interest in its FAQs on the guidelines and recommendations. More specifically, CNIL notes that is necessary to distinguish:

• the deposit and reading of cookies on the user’s terminal device: for these operations the legislation implementing the ePrivacy Directive (Article 82 of the Act No. 78-17 of 6 January 1978 on Data Processing, Data Files and Individual Liberties (as amended)) requires the prior consent of the user, subject to the above-mentioned exceptions.

• the processing operations carried out on the bases of the data obtained through cookies and tracking technologies: for these operations one of the legal bases provided by Article 6 of the GDPR must be met. In this regard, CNIL recalls that the European Data Protection Board (‘EDPB’) generally considers consent as the most appropriate legal basis in the context of processing carried out for advertising purposes. However, CNIL also reminds that it is up to each data controller to determine, on a case-by-case basis, the most suitable legal basis for the data processing activity.

In conclusion, CNIL stresses the fact that even when the data controller considers a processing based on legitimate interests for the data he/she collected via cookies, such processing activity will only be possible if the cookies have been accepted for that specific purpose, as in case of refusal the data could not be collected in the first place.
The UK Information Commissioner Office (‘ICO’) also addressed the topic of legitimate interests as a valid legal basis in relation to cookies in its guidance on the relationship between cookies and the GDPR. Specifically, the ICO recalls that if cookies require consent under PECR (the UK cookie legislation), then organizations cannot use one of the alternative lawful bases from the GDPR to set them.

Therefore, if the cookies that are set are not exempt from Section 6 of PECR, then only consent can be used, and the same must meet the UK GDPR standards. This is also the case whether or not personal data is involved. After having obtained consent in compliance with PECR, then in practice consent is also the most appropriate lawful basis under the UK GDPR. The ICO notes that trying to apply another lawful basis such as legitimate interests when UK GDPR-compliant consent has been already collected would be an unnecessary exercise and would create confusion for users.

On the other hand, if the use of cookies falls under one of the exemptions under PECR, then the consent requirement does not apply. Therefore, the technical process of storing or accessing information on the device falls out of PECR and, where personal data is involved, the UK GDPR will apply.

In relation to the use of cookies and the processing of personal data within real time bidding (‘RTB’) operations, the ICO stressed in its update report into ad tech and real time bidding that, when organizations try to apply legitimate interests as a legal ground after consent has been already collected, they would also need to ensure that they had both valid consent and had also fulfilled all of the legitimate interest requirements. This could also imply an element of unfairness,
such as in cases where individuals understand their personal data is processed on the basis of consent, yet once they withdraw that consent, the organization then continues to process via legitimate interests. Therefore, and in relation to RTB, the ICO concludes that the nature of the processing within RTB makes it impossible to meet the legitimate interests' lawful basis requirements, meaning that legitimate interests cannot be used for the main bid request processing. In conclusion, the ICO considers that the only lawful basis for 'business as usual' RTB processing of personal data is consent (i.e. processing relating to the placing and reading of the cookie and the onward transfer of the bid request).

The Italian data protection authority ('Garante') further addresses the topic within its latest cookie guidelines, stating that the legitimate interest of the data controller will not be a viable lawful ground for the use of cookies and other tracking instruments, as the applicable law does not address further legal bases that could make the processing activity lawful, other than the data subject’s consent or in the case of exceptions to the same, in case of technical cookies.

The EDPB also expressed its view on the interaction between consent and other lawful grounds for processing in its guidelines on consent under the GDPR. The EDPB, after recalling the obligation of respecting data subjects' choice in relation to the withdrawal of consent, further outlines that 'sending out the message that data will be processed on the basis of consent, while actually some other lawful basis is relied on, would be fundamentally unfair to individuals.'

Therefore, the EDPB notes that the controller cannot swap from consent to other lawful bases, as in the case of a
controller experiencing problems with the validity of consent and therefore retrospectively utilizing the legitimate interest basis in order to justify the processing.

Controllers must in fact have decided in advance of collection what the applicable lawful basis is.

The EDPB further addressed the issue of the most appropriate legal basis for processing personal data obtained through cookies within its Guidelines 8/2020 on the targeting of social media users. The EDPB notes that any subsequent processing of personal data, including personal data obtained by cookies, social plug-ins or pixels, must have a legal basis under Article 6 of the GDPR, and that, in the case of processing of observed or inferred data, legitimate interest cannot act as the appropriate legal basis, as the targeting relies on the monitoring of individuals’ behaviour across websites and locations using tracking technologies. In such circumstances, the appropriate legal basis for any subsequent processing is likely to be the consent of the data subject.

The International Working Group on Data Protection in Technology (‘the Berlin Group’) also briefly touched on the use of legitimate interests as a lawful legal ground within the digital advertising ecosystem. Specifically, the Berlin Group outlined in its Working Paper on the Risks emerging from the Tracking and Targeting Ecosystem in the Digital Advertising Market that, although legitimate interest can be the legal basis for processing personal data under a number of legal frameworks, it must always be considered that it also requires a balance of interests between the ones of the controller and the data subject’s privacy interests. Therefore, questions arise in the context of digital advertising in relation to individuals’ reasonable expectation, especially for profiling-
related processing of personal data. In fact, as the majority of players in the digital advertising ecosystem do not have direct relationship with individuals, and considering the severe interference with fundamental privacy rights of these practices, it is doubtful whether the legitimate economic interests of the players of the advertising ecosystem can prevail.

The discussion around the use of legitimate interests for the use of cookies has also been undergoing within the guidance provided by industry advertising bodies such as IAB Europe. In particular, IAB Europe published its GDPR guidance on legitimate interests’ assessments for digital advertising in early 2021. The guidance recognizes the existence of concerns that legitimate interest is being considered by subjects in the industry to be the ‘easy’ alternative to consent, and that legitimate interests’ assessments are being done as a pro forma exercise. Therefore, one key purpose for the guidance, is to help establish a common understanding of how a properly thorough legitimate interests’ assessment has to be done in the digital advertising ecosystem.

Specifically, and in relation to the use of cookies, the guidance provides that, although legitimate interests can be relied upon as a legal basis to process personal data, organizations always need to balance these interests with the rights and interests of the individual. In particular, they should be aware of regulators’ views on the use of legitimate interests in relation to digital advertising, as ‘legitimate interests cannot be used as a basis for setting cookies, and where processing of personal data is dependent on non-essential cookies, which require consent, that consent is a prerequisite to the subsequent processing.’

The guidance goes on and provides that organizations should be cautious in relation to data collected in association with
cookies, as well as that tracking technologies require the provision of clear and comprehensive information to users, as well as consent (as defined by the GDPR) for their use. This is a developing area of law, but there is a need to ensure that subsequent processing of data collected with cookies is disclosed and otherwise taken into account in legal basis analyses.

However, and in relation to the position of vendors within the IAB TCF, it must also be considered that legitimate interests is included within the definition of legal basis as provided by the TCF’s policies, which provide that the processing’s legal basis may be consent, in accordance with Article 6(1)(a) of the GDPR, or legitimate interests, in accordance with Article 6(1)(f) of the GDPR.

More specifically, the TCF includes legitimate interests as one of the vendor’s potential legal basis (alternatively with the user’s consent) for the following processing purposes:

- select basic ads;
- create a personalized ads profile;
- select personalized ads;
- create a personalized content profile;
- select personalized content;
- measure ad performance;
- measure content performance;
- apply market research to generate audience insight;
- develop and improve products;
- ensure security, prevent fraud, and debug; and
- technically deliver ads or content.
However, the TCF also notes that, in addition to complying with relevant data protection laws, vendors wishing to rely on their legitimate interest for the processing of personal data are only allowed to do so if:

- they can verify that the appropriate information has been provided to the user at the time that the processing of his/her personal data begins; and
- the user has not exercised his/her right to object to such processing.

Furthermore, implementations of interfaces for user choice should in general avoid showing both legal bases – Legitimate Interest and Consent – together within one category. The purpose of consent is that nothing is deployed prior to user acceptance, if a consent toggle is presented in the “off” position, alongside a Legitimate Interest toggle switched to the “on” position, it instantly defeats the purpose of showing a consent toggle because there is nothing to be consented to anymore (i.e. cookies have been dropped based on a legitimate interest). This type of implementation of user choice generates a dark pattern whereby users are led to think that they have the ability to withhold consent but in reality that is only an illusion enabled by a void consent toggle placed next to a Legitimate Interest toggle. Whilst both legal bases are available, they are mutually exclusive.

**Approaches to Consent**

Consent in the context of electronic communications will now need to meet the conditions of the GDPR (including the necessity to be informed, about specific purposes, freely given and unambiguous consent), which has the following implications:
• The implied consent approach is no longer valid. Simply visiting a site for the first time would not qualify as affirmative action, which means that loading cookies immediately on the first landing page would not be acceptable. Especially when those cookies are targeting users for personalized advertising. This has been clarified and settled by the European Court of Justice in their decision of the landmark case regarding the website of Planet 49 (you can read a summary of the decision below in the section we have dedicated to case law).

• Advice to adjust browser settings is not enough. The GDPR says it must be as easy to withdraw consent as to give it. Telling people to block cookies if they don’t consent would not meet this criterion, since it would be difficult and ineffective in relation to non-cookie-based tracking and would not provide enough granularity of choice.

• If there is no genuine and free choice, then there is no valid consent. The GDPR also says people who do not consent cannot suffer detriment because of their choice, which means that sites must provide some service to users who do not accept those terms.

• Sites must implement an always-available opt-out mechanism. Even after getting valid consent, there must be a route for people to change their mind, thus fulfilling the requirement that withdrawing consent must be as easy as giving it. If accepting cookies is as easy as clicking a link on a landing page, then withdrawal of consent must be just as simple.

• Website publishers should give visitors an opportunity to act before cookies are set on the first visit to the site. Once fair notice is given, continuing to browse won’t be, in most circumstances, a valid consent obtained via an affirmative action. Certain exceptions to this rule are provided by the Spanish data protection authority, as explained in Part 2 of
the handbook. In any case, website publishers should still implement the persistent opt-out option. Specific precautions will also have to be adopted for sites that contain health-related content, or other sites where the browsing history may reveal sensitive personal data of the visitor.

- Consent needs to be specific to different cookie purposes. Sites that use different types of cookies with different processing purposes will need valid consent mechanisms for each purpose. This means granular levels of control, with separate consents for tracking and analytics cookies, for example.

### Part 2: Operationalizing EU Cookie Requirements and Best Practices

#### Tips from the EU Commission for Lawful Cookie Use

- Ask yourself whether the use of cookies is essential for a given functionality, and if there is no other, non-intrusive alternative.

- If you think a cookie is essential, ask yourself how intrusive it is: what data does each cookie hold? Is it linked to other information held about the user? Is its lifespan appropriate to its purpose? What type of cookie is it? Is it a first or a third-party setting the cookie? Who controls the data?

- Evaluate for each cookie if informed consent is required or not:
  - First-party session cookies DO NOT require informed consent.
  - First-party persistent cookies DO require informed consent. Use only when strictly necessary. The expiry period must not exceed one year.
• All third-party session and persistent cookies require informed consent.
• Before storing cookies, gain consent from the users (if required) by implementing the Cookie Consent Kit in all the pages of any website using cookies that require informed consent.

**Cookie Notice/Policy**
Inform users about the use of cookies in plain, jargon-free language in a dedicated “cookie notice” page linked from the service toolbar of the standard templates. This page should explain:
• Why cookies are being used, (to remember users’ actions, identify users, collect traffic information, etc.).
• If the cookies are essential for the website or a given functionality to work or if they aim to enhance the performance of the website.
• The types of cookies used (e.g. session or permanent, first or third-party).
• Who controls/accesses the cookie-related information (website publisher or third party).
• That the cookie will not be used for any purpose other than the one stated.
• How users can withdraw consent.

The EU Commission provides in all EU languages a standard template to create your own cookie notice page (241kB). If a site does not use any cookies, the dedicated “cookie notice” page should use the template and just mention this.

**Recommendations from EU Institutions and European Data Protection Authorities**
At the EU-level, the most recent opinions issued by the European Data Protection Supervisor (‘EDPS’) and the Article 29 Working Party (‘WP29’) on the reform process of the ePrivacy Directive are from 2017 and 2016, respectively. However, they are still able to give an idea of the EU regulators’ vision in relation to the ePrivacy rules evolution process.

**EDPS – Opinion No. 6/2017 on the ePrivacy Regulation**

The position of the EDPS is that the provisions of the ePrivacy Directive should be modernized and strengthened, and that there is a need to “complement and particularise” the GDPR to clarify the relationship between the two instruments.

The EDPS favors the creation of a new ePrivacy Regulation on the basis that it would be consistent with the approach of the GDPR, enabling harmonization of both protections and compliance efforts, as well as further reliance on the one-stop-shop principle in the GDPR.

With respect to Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, the EDPS believes that the definition and interpretation of consent must be consistent with the GDPR, and that users should be given “real control” over the use of cookies. The EDPS also stresses the fact that only allowing access to content that’s subject to consent to the use of cookies is not consistent with genuine consent.

The EDPS also think that it must be clarified the situations where choice would not be considered freely given, focusing on situations where the privacy impact is highest, or where there is least amount of freedom of choice, thus impacting both cookie consent and ad-blocking detection.
A further recommendation for consent exemption for first party analytics is also in place, provided they are purely for aggregated statistical purposes.

**WP29 - Opinion No. 3/2016 on the evaluation and review of the ePrivacy Directive**

The position of the WP29 is similar to the one of the EDPS. The WP29 thinks that a replacement instrument for the ePrivacy Directive should keep the substance of existing provisions, but also make them “more effective and workable in practice,” by making more precisely defined rules and conditions.

With respect to consent rules for cookies, the WP29 recommends that the wording needs updating to be more technologically neutral and capture a broader range of techniques for what they label as “passive tracking.”

They also recommend more exceptions to the need for prior consent, in light of the risk-based approach of the GDPR, where there is little impact on privacy. First party analytics are given as an example of this, if there is both information about them in the privacy policy, and a user-friendly opt-out mechanism.

There is also a recommendation that the need for consent is removed if the data is “immediately and irreversibly anonymized” on the device or network end points.

**EDPB, CJEU and National Data Protection Authorities**

More recently, the implementation of cookies’ requirements has been addressed by the European Data Protection Board (‘EDPB’), the Court of Justice of the European Union (‘CJEU’) and national data protection authorities. Organizations can now access a various range of practical recommendations in order to enable a compliant approach to cookies.
EDPB

The EDPB adopted, on 4 May 2020, its Guidelines 05/2020 on Consent under Regulation 2016/679. In particular, the Guidelines represent a slightly updated version of the Article 29 Working Party’s Guidelines on Consent under Regulation 2016/679, which were endorsed by the EDPB in its first plenary meeting. The updated Guidelines, which should from now on replace any reference to the WP29 Guidelines, provide clarification on the following cookies-related points:

• The validity of consent as provided by data subjects when interacting with ‘cookie walls’.
• The action of scrolling or swiping through a webpage, or similar user activity, as a clear and affirmative action of consent.

Conditionality as an element of a freely given consent

Key recommendations:

• Service providers cannot prevent data subjects from accessing a service on the basis that they do not consent.
• ‘Cookie walls’ are not permitted: access to services and functionalities must not be made conditional on the consent of users to the placement of cookies or similar technologies on their terminal equipment.

When data controllers offer a choice between their service, that includes consenting to the use of personal data for additional purposes, and an equivalent service offered by a different controller, consent cannot be considered as freely given. In fact, in such a case, the freedom of providing consent would be made dependent on what other market players do and whether data subjects would find the other data controller’s services equivalent.
In such circumstances, data controllers would also have to necessarily keep monitoring market developments in order to ensure the continued validity of consent for their data processing activities, as competitors may alter their service at a later stage. As a result, the EDPB states that a consent that relies on an alternative option offered by a third party must be deemed in violation with the GDPR. Content from being visible, except for a request to accept cookies and the information on which cookies are being set and for what purposes data will be processed. In such a case there is no possibility to access the content without clicking on the ‘accept cookies’ button, meaning that the data subject is not presented with a genuine choice. Therefore, consent is not freely given, and cannot be deemed valid, as the provision of the service relies on the data subject consent to the placement of cookies.

**Consent as an unambiguous indication of wishes**

The EDPB is of the idea that consent under the GDPR must always be given through an active motion or declaration, and that it must be obvious that the data subject has consented to the specific processing activity.

Therefore, the EDPB, as per Recital 32 of the GDPR, find that scrolling or swiping through a webpage, or similar user actions, will not in any case constitute a clear and affirmative action, since it may be difficult to distinguish such actions from other activity or interaction of the user. Thus, in such a case determining that unambiguous consent has been obtained will not be possible, and it will also be difficult to provide a way for the user to withdraw consent in a manner that is as easy as granting it.

**Planet49 Judgment**

The CJEU established that a pre-filled cookie banner which the
user must deselect to refuse consent is not considered lawful. In fact, valid consent to cookies requires an active and specific indication of the website visitor’s wishes. The judgment also states that the interpretation of the ePrivacy Directive does not have to change depending on whether the information stored or accessed through cookies constitutes personal data. The Planet49 case also confirms that the cookie notice must include information on both the lifespan of cookies and third parties’ access.

UK - ICO Guidance on Cookies - Key Recommendations
• Continue browsing on the website is not a valid way of expressing consent.
• Do not bundle consent into general terms and conditions or privacy notices. In fact, the request must be separate from other matters.
• Analytics cookies are not strictly necessary. Therefore, they require consent.
• Cookie walls are not allowed.
• ‘Nudging’ designs in the consent mechanism aimed at influencing the user’s choice are not allowed.

France - CNIL Revised Guidelines on Cookies and Online Trackers and finalized Recommendations - Key Recommendations
• Continue browsing, pre-filled banners, and general terms and conditions are not valid ways of obtaining consent.
• Any inaction or action other than a positive one must be considered as refusal, and non-strictly necessary cookies cannot be placed.
• Cookie walls are likely to undermine the freedom of users to consent. However, following the Conseil d’Etat decision
invalidating the CNIL former guidelines, cookie walls, although not banned in the revised guidelines, must be assessed on a case-by-case basis. In practice, if a cookie wall is set up, and subject to the lawfulness of this practice, the information provided to users must clearly indicate the consequences of their choice, with specific reference to the impossibility to access the content or service if consent is not provided.

- Users must be presented with both the possibility of consenting and refusing cookies with the same degree of simplicity. Therefore, presenting the user with two buttons on the 1st layer (‘accept all’ and ‘refuse all’) is recommended.

- Refusal of cookies may result from different actions, such as by simply closing the banner or by not interacting with the same for a certain period of time.

- Misleading design practices suggesting users that their consent is required or visually highlighting one choice over the other are not allowed.

- The data controller must be always able to demonstrate the collection of valid consent through adequate mechanisms, such as keeping a screenshot of the visual rendering in a time-stamped manner.

- CNIL recommends highlighting every purpose of cookies in the first layer with a short and prominent title, followed by a brief description. A more detailed description of the purposes will then be easily accessible from the first layer, through a drop-down button or a direct link.

- In the case of third party cookies allowing the user to navigate beyond the website/app on which they are initially installed, it is strongly recommended to obtain consent for each website/app visited by the user, so that the latter can be entirely aware of the scope of the consent he provided.

- For the demonstration of a valid collection of consent, the
mere presence of a contractual clause between publisher and third party committing one to obtain consent on behalf of the other is not sufficient. Such clause should be amended to specify that the subject collecting consent must make available to other involved parties the proof of the same, so that each actor is able to demonstrate the lawful collection if needed.

• Users’ preference/choice (consent or refusal) may be retained for a period of 6 months.
• Audience measurement and others analytic cookies may be regarded as strictly necessary and thus can be exempted from the collection of consent.
• Audience measurement cookies must be retained for a maximum period of 13 months, while information collected through them should be retained for a maximum period of 25 months.
• CNIL provided for a grace period of 6 months from the publication of finalized recommendations. Organizations should have been compliant by the end of March 2021.

Audience measurement trackers

In the most recent guidance issued by CNIL, audience measurement trackers are considered to be exempted from obtaining ePrivacy consent so long as their purpose is as limited as to only allow for the functioning and current administration of the website or application, or to test different versions of the interface to optimize editorial choice with regards to choosing the best performing interface. Article 5 goes on to say that these cookies are to be considered strictly necessary to be able to provide the service that was specifically requested by the website visitor. Here’s a link to the most recent version of their guidelines concerning audience measurement: https://www.cnil.fr/fr/cookies-
solutions-pour-les-outils-de-mesure-daudience which I summarize below and complement with the Loi Informatique et Libertes.

Although the original Article 5 of the Guidelines from 2019 indeed indicated a mechanism for opt-out should be offered to site visitors when using audience measurement technologies, the guidelines have been amended and now these technologies are to be considered strictly necessary because CNIL considers that they are essential for the proper administration of the site, which in turn is key for various other reasons - including the security dimension.

What this means is that cookies enabling audience measurement are exempt from user choice, they must be used but they also must comply with strict requirements. In order for these trackers to be exempt from the consent requirements laid down in Article 82 of the Loi Informatique et Libertès,

1. These tracker must:
   a. Have a purpose that is strictly limited to audience measurement of a specific site or app. These measurements may include:
      i. Performance measurement;
      ii. Detection of browsing issues;
      iii. Optimization of performance techniques;
      iv. Estimation of the power needed for the servers in use;
      v. Analysis of the content consulted.
         i. Produce these data anonymously – without identifying individual users in any way.
         ii. Exclusively by the website editor or site operator.

2. These trackers must not:
   b. Lead to a cross-checking or mixing and matching of the data
generated from other processing activities;
c. Result in the data being transmitted to third parties;
d. allow the aggregate tracking of the internet journey of visitors whilst using different applications or browsing different websites.

**NOTE:** Any solution using the same identifier across several sites (for example via cookies placed on a third-party domain loaded by several sites) to measure conversion rates **should be excluded from this exemption.**

In order to remain compliant whilst using audience measurement cookies without user consent, CNIL recommends to:

- Inform users about the presence of these types of trackers on the cookie notice or via the interface used for mobile devices.
- Limit the lifespan of these cookies to a timeframe of maximum 13 months – enough to provide the necessary measurement information.
- Avoid renewing these trackers every time a user visits the site. They should be dropped only once, not renewed upon every visit.
- Set a maximum retention schedule of 25 months.

The aforementioned lifespan and retention limitation is to be reviewed periodically in order to ensure that the results are limited to what is strictly necessary for the purpose highlighted in the first paragraph of this sub-section.

These cookies **do not require user choice,** they are exempt given their relevance for the proper administration of a website. Indeed, it would be paradoxical to consider these cookies essential for the good administration of the site whilst at the same time compelling
website owners to offer an opt-out mechanism, which - if used by the visitor - could hamper the good administration of the site curtailing the very reason for considering these cookies to be essential.

In sum, provided that 1) the functionality of audience measurement trackers is limited to the administration of the website or application and/or to testing different versions of the interface to optimize editorial choice, and 2) that these trackers comply with the aforementioned requirements said trackers are to considered strictly necessary and exempted from user consent. This interpretation is echoed by the Italian Garante Privacy and is likely to take hold across EU DPAs.

**Germany - DSK Guidance on Telemedia Providers - Key recommendations**

- Consent is not the only legal basis for cookies. The performance of a contract or the legitimate interest of the data controller or a third party are further possible legal bases for setting cookies.
- Cookie banners merely providing an ‘OK’ button, with no option to refuse the setting of cookies are not considered lawful.
- The lifespan of cookies is not specified under German law. However, the DSK recommends a short lifespan.
- Analytic cookies are usually strictly necessary and do not require consent.
- Cookie walls are not allowed.
Germany - DSK Guidelines on the Use of Google Analytics in the Non-Public Sector

The guidelines complement the Guidance on Telemedia and provide that:

• Google Analytics can, in its current form, no longer be considered a data processor, but rather a (joint) data controller.
• The data collected through Google Analytics does qualify as personal data according to Article 4(1) of the GDPR.
• Therefore, website providers using Google Analytics need to get free, informed, and positive user consent to the use of Google Analytics.
• Website providers must ensure that consent can be easily withdrawn and provide a clear privacy policy, respect the principle of transparency, and use the option to shorten IP addresses.

Germany - BGH Decision Following CJEU Planet49 Judgement and DSK Reaction

The German Federal Court of Justice (‘BGH’) issued, on 28 May 2020, its final decision on the case that was previously suspended in favour of a preliminary ruling procedure of the CJEU in the Planet49 case. In particular, the BGH based its decision on the Planet49 Case and confirmed that pre-ticked checkboxes do not fulfil the requirements for consent and are unlawful. Furthermore, the BGH decided that Section 15(3) of the Telemedia Act (TMG) is to be interpreted in conformity with Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive.

In addition, the DSK issued, on 26 November 2020, a resolution calling the Federal Legislature to fully implement Article 5(3) the
ePrivacy Directive in the German legislation, considering that, following the Planet49 case, opt-out consent can no longer be deemed validly obtained under the GDPR.

One notable outcome of this is the Following the above, a draft law regulating data protection and the protection of privacy in telecommunications and telemedia (‘TTDSG’) that was passed by the Federal Germany Parliament on 20 May 2021. This law, will come into effect on 1 December 2021, fully transposing Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive.

**European Court of Justice - C-193/18 Ruling of 13 June 2019 (Gmail)**

In 2018, the Oberverwaltungsgericht für das Land Nordrhein-Westfalen (Higher Administrative Court for the Land of North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany) submitted a request to the ECJ for a preliminary ruling. The request concerns a decision of the Bundesnetzagentur für Elektrizität, Gas, Telekommunikation, Post und Eisenbahnen (Federal Agency for Electricity, Gas, Telecommunications, Post and Rail Networks, Germany) (‘the BNetzA’) that found the Gmail service to be a telecommunications service and ordering, as a consequence, to comply with its obligation to register as such.

In other words, the referring court asked if Article 2(c) of the Framework Directive

*must be interpreted as meaning that a web-based email service which does not itself provide internet access, such as the Gmail service provided by Google, constitutes a service which consists wholly or mainly in the conveyance of signals on electronic communications networks, having regard to the electronic processing which the provider of that service supplies via its email*
servers, on the one hand, by assigning to the email addresses the IP addresses of the corresponding terminal devices and, on the other hand, by uploading to or receiving from the open internet the data packets relating to the emails.

The Court concluded that the operations performed by Google to maintain and ensure the functionality of its web-based email service cannot be considered to consist wholly or mainly in the conveyance of signals as within the meaning of the aforementioned article, despite the fact that it is common ground that such providers convey signals. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that Google’s Gmail service is an Electronic Communications Service within the meaning of Article 2. In addition the Court stated that ‘the fact that Google also operates its own electronic communications network in Germany is not such as to call into question the finding’. In this case only the email service was at stake, therefore it was not possible to establish Google’s responsibility ‘vis-à-vis those holding an account with Gmail for the conveyance of signals necessary for that account’s Pure OTT-I services do not constitute communications services falling under any of the legal frameworks currently applicable.

**Spain - AEPD revised Guide on the Use of Cookies - Key Recommendationss**

The AEPD guide was updated on 28 July 2020 in light of the EDPB’s revised Guidelines on Consent under the GDPR.

The guide recommends the presentation of information on cookies through layers. The first layer must contain essential information, while the second presents more detailed indications on the use of cookies.

• The mere consultation of the second layer of the cookie policy
cannot be deemed as a valid way of expressing consent.

• A user navigating a website in order to manage his/her cookie preferences is not providing valid consent.

• Continued browsing, scrolling or navigating cannot be considered a clear affirmative action under any circumstances. Therefore, these actions may no longer be considered a valid way to obtain consent, in accordance with the EDPB Guidelines on consent under the GDPR.

• Following the EDPB’s Guidelines on consent under the GDPR, cookie walls cannot be used, since they do not offer a valid alternative to consent. This is of particular importance in cases where the denial of access would prevent the exercise of a right legally recognized to a user, such as when access to a website is the only means provided in order to exercise the right. However, there may be certain circumstances where not accepting cookies shall entail being entirely or partially prevented from using the service, given that appropriate information is provided to the user and that an alternative access to the service is granted without the need of accepting cookies. The alternative service must be genuinely equivalent, and it will not be considered as valid if it is offered by a third party different from the publisher.

• Analytic cookies require consent.

• The AEPD considers good practice a validity period of no longer 24 months for user’s consent.

• The website provider may collect consent for services offered in different domains through a single website, if the services present similar characteristics.

What Are the Language Requirements for Cookie Notices and Privacy Policies in the EU?
In order to respect the principle of transparency, as provided by article 5(1)(a) of the GDPR, which requires any processing of personal data to be carried out ‘in a transparent manner’, Article 7(2) of the GDPR provides that if the data subject’s consent is given in the context of a written declaration, the request for consent shall be presented using clear and plain language. Article 12(1) of the GDPR also requires the controller to take appropriate measures to provide any information referred to in Articles 13 and 14 of the GDPR in a concise, transparent, intelligible, and easily accessible form, using clear and plain language.

In addition, the WP29, in its Guidelines on transparency, recommends the data controller to ensure that, when the data controller provides privacy notices in different languages, the translations are accurate and reflect each other in the content. The WP29 also suggests translating the privacy notice in the language of the targeted data subjects.

European regulators also expressed their view on the language requirements of privacy notices and cookie policies.

For example, the Spanish AEPD guide on cookies addresses the topic of cookie policy transparency in relation to third parties. In particular, it says that, when the website publisher provides information about third-party cookies through a link to a third party website, it must ensure that the third party is responsible for ensuring that any information provided by such links is displayed in Spanish or in any other language with co-official status in Spain. In addition, the Belgian data protection authority provides that the information included in the cookie policy must be written in a language easy to understand for the targeted audience. In practice, if the website is aimed at a French-speaking and/or
Dutch-speaking audience, the information must be provided in French and/or Dutch.

Ireland - DPC Guidance Note on Cookies and Other Tracking Technologies - Key Recommendations

• Devices using cookies may also include Internet of Things devices connected to the internet.
• Both first-party and third-party analytic cookies require consent.
• Continue browsing on the website, either through clicking, using, or scrolling, is not a valid way to obtain consent.
• When the website publisher uses a third-party Consent Management Provider (CMP), the following apply:
  • The tool or software must not contain pre-checked boxes for the use of cookie.
  • When the CMP tool keeps a record of users’ consent, the publisher must also keep a record of that consent under Article 30 of the GDPR.
  • The collected consent is valid for no longer than 6 months, and it must be re-collected afterwards.
• The interface of the cookie banner cannot ‘nudge’ the user into accepting cookies over rejecting them. At the same time, accessibility must be considered when designing interfaces.
• The DPC provided for a grace period of 6 months, and enforcement commenced from October 2020.

Italy - Garante’s guidelines on Cookies and Other Similar Tracking Technologies - Key Recommendations

• Legitimate interest cannot be considered as a lawful ground to set cookies and other similar tracking technologies.
• Possibility to re-present cookie banner to users after six
months from the initial presentation.

- Duty to position an ‘X’ button within the banner by which users can continue navigating without consenting to the use of non-technical

- ‘Authenticated’ users must be allowed to consent to the possibility of being tracked by cross-analysis of their behavior through the use of different devices.

- In case of changes to the third parties list within the ‘preference center,’ the website owner is responsible for the selection of the same third parties and for ensuring that the consequent processing remain in line with the category groups.

- Information on the criteria through which cookies are categorized semantically may be included in the privacy policy, alternatively to the dedicated cookie policy.

- Duty to include, in the footer of the website, a link in for the user to re-assess his/her cookie preferences.

- Duty to include, in any domain page, a graphic sign, an icon, or a technical feature aimed to showcase the status of the user’s expressed consents, allowing potential amendments.

- Analytics cookies used in relation to multiple domains may be deemed technical ones, even in the absence of the data minimization measures, when the controller carries out the statistical analysis himself, without such analysis not going beyond the boundaries of a mere statistical count.

**Finland - TRAFICOM guidelines on Cookies and Other Tracking Technologies - Key Recommendations**

- The purpose of the information collected and processed by cookies is crucial in assessing whether a cookie is strictly necessary. Specifically, the sole purpose of the cookies must
be to enable the message to be transmitted.

- Legitimate interest does not justify the storage and use of cookies or other data concerning the use of the service.
- Analytics cookies cannot be unambiguously considered, from the user’s point of view, to be necessary to provide a service that the user has specifically requested. However, if analytics cookies are to be considered absolutely necessary for the provision of the service in question, the service provider must be able to provide clear reasons for the procedure and protect the user’s privacy, for example, by ensuring that the data collected by the analytics is not shared with third parties or that an individual visitor is not identified from them. If these matters can be taken care of at a sufficient level and the use of analytics can be justified as necessary for the provision of the service, consent does not need to be sought.
- In addition to having the choice to accept or reject all non-necessary cookies, the user should also be given options to make more specific choices regarding different types of cookies, including third-party ones.
- Browser settings cannot be considered sufficient for consent, since the user may not have configured or been able to configure the settings to suit their preferences.
- When installing cookies, it is necessary to record at least:
  - the time at which consent was requested and obtained;
  - how consent was requested;
  - what information was given for consent; and
  - the necessary identification of the person or device from which the consent was given.
Part 3: The Future of the Draft ePrivacy Regulation

Tracking Technologies and Consent in the Proposed Regulation

Consent remains a central part of with regards to 1) the use of tracking technologies and, 2) for the transmission of metadata. Recital (20) of the Proposed Regulation indicates that due to the sensitivity of the information contained in users’ devices (that could reveal for example details about individuals’ emotional, political, and social complexities), the ‘use of processing and storage capabilities and the collection of information from end users’ terminal equipment should be allowed only with the end-users’ consent.’

The Draft ePrivacy Regulation adopts a definition of consent in line with the one provided by the GDPR. Recital (18) of the Proposed Regulation states that ‘[f]or the purposes of this Regulation, consent of an end-user, regardless of whether the latter is a natural or a legal person, should have the same meaning and be subject to the same conditions as the data subject’s consent under Regulation (EU) 2016/679.’

The obligation to obtain consent for the storage of cookies or other tracking technologies (called identifiers throughout the text) ‘lies on the entity that makes use of processing and storage capabilities of terminal equipment or collects information from end users’ terminal equipment.’ Recital (20) specifically calls out information society service providers and ad network providers as examples of entities that make use of processing and storage capabilities of users’ terminal equipment.
In fact, Article 4(a)(1) of the Proposed Regulation notes that the definitions provided by the GDPR are to be deemed applicable, including the one on consent, as included in Article 4(11) of the GDPR. Article 4(a)(1) further states that the provisions for consent under the GDPR must apply to natural persons and, mutatis mutandis, to legal persons when adequate.

The Proposed Regulation stipulates that data subjects should be periodically reminded of their right to withdraw their consent (at least once a year). By the same token, choice should be respected at the same intervals. For example, if a data subject did not provide consent, subsequent requests to consent must not be excessive and in principle should be equivalent to the periodicity with which data subjects who consented are reminded of their right to withdraw.

With regards to the use of the so-called “cookie walls”, the Proposed Draft indicates that the practice of placing a “cookie wall” can only be allowed in combination with another choice that does not involve consenting to cookies. For example, a website would be allowed to have a “cookie wall” if users can choose between consenting to cookies or paying for access. The latter option should not be conditional on the acceptance of cookies, nor should it be interpreted as consent for cookies. The options must be real independent alternatives.

The obligations laid down in the Proposed Regulation are not applicable to data that processed by services or networks with purely internal communications purposes ‘between public institutions, courts, court administrations, financial, social and employment administrations’ (Recital (13)). Once the data leave the closed network and enter the public electronic
communications network the Regulation applies. And it is worth noting that this Proposed Regulation includes in its material scope Machine-to-Machine (M2M)/IoT as well as personal/home assistance data.

The Marketplace Rule

Article 3 of the Proposed Regulation stipulates that the territorial scope of the Regulation includes: 1) the provision of electronic communication services to end-users who are in the EU; 2) the processing of content and metadata of users of electronic communication services who are in the EU; 3) the offering of publicly available directories of end-users of electronic communication services who are in the EU; 4) the sending of direct marketing communications to end-users who are in the EU; and, 5) a provider of any of the aforementioned services and processing activities who is not established in the EU shall designate in writing a representative in the EU, this shall be communicated to the competent supervisory authority.

In essence, like the GDPR, the Proposed Regulation is imbued with extraterritorial reach. And a strict interpretation of this marketplace rule would require anyone who merely reads into users’ devices in the EU to comply and have a representative in the Union. This aspect is far reaching and has important implications for users and providers of web tracking technologies.

Impact on Third Parties

The revised rules are particularly aimed at what the legislators call the “surreptitious monitoring” of online behavior. They call for all third-party storage and processing to be blocked by default. Given the way modern websites are built, often with many tags and code
elements served up by third party services, this would have wide-reaching implications, even where privacy is not a significant issue.

It will severely limit the use of third-party cookies and tracking that are generally relied upon for monetization of online services -- negotiations and lobbying from the online advertising industry on this issue are highly anticipated.

**GDPR-Level Fines**

Another area where the ePrivacy Regulation has harmonized with the GDPR is in the enforcement actions and remedies for non-compliance, including provisions for fines of up to €20M, or 4% of a company’s global revenues.

Additionally, the supervisory authorities (data protection authorities) which are responsible for GDPR enforcement will now also be responsible for the enforcement of the ePrivacy Regulation.

**Part 4: OneTrust FAQs**

**Do we need a cookies’ scanning tool, a cookie preference centre, or a cookie policy explaining the cookies used on the website?**

As outlined by the recommendations above, organizations must implement appropriate measures in order to provide the user with transparent information, so that the individual will be able to provide a lawful consent to the setting of cookies and similar technologies, in accordance with the ePrivacy Directive and its implementation legislations.
Does OneTrust have a solution for the IAB TCF?

The IAB Europe’s Transparency and Consent Framework (TCF) is a GDPR consent solution built in order to create an industry-standard approach. The objective of the TCF is to help all parties in the digital advertising chain ensure that they comply with the GDPR and the ePrivacy Directive when processing personal data or setting cookies and other tracking technologies.

The TCF creates an environment where website publishers can tell visitors what data is being collected and how their website and companies they partner with intend to use it. In addition, the TCF addresses, among other things, the presence of CMPs as an instrument to lawfully obtain and record consent.

- Enable consumers to grant or withhold consent, as well as to exercise the ‘right to object’ to data being processed;
- Enable consumers to gain greater control over whether and how vendors may use certain features of data processing, for example, the use of precise geolocation; and
- Enable publishers to gain extended control and flexibility with respect to how they integrate and collaborate with their technology partners.

In relation to CMPs, the TCF v2.0:

- Enables CMPs to capture, store, and signal consent in an industry-standard manner;
- Enables CMPs to receive global consents obtained by other publishers and CMPs;
- Records which vendors are operating in the TCF and the purposes that they wish to process personal data for, in order to update the user interface and inform users accordingly; and
• Informs CMPs when vendors use legitimate interest or consent as a legal basis for processing personal data, so that users can be informed accordingly.

OneTrust, after working closely with IAB Europe, announced that the OneTrust Consent Management Platform (CMP) is officially TCF v2.0 approved. Publishers can use the OneTrust CMP to switch to v2.0, and access resources, tools, and templates only available to OneTrust customers. OneTrust further launched a free tool for publishers to build and deploy an IAB Transparency and Consent Framework v2.0 (TCF 2.0) CMP for free and in just a few steps.

**What is the territorial scope of the ePrivacy Directive?**

Does the establishment of the organisation running the website, the location where data is hosted, the place where the majority of traffic is coming from, or the market of the website, play a role in the identification of the national applicable legislation?

The ePrivacy Directive does not have any provisions that expressly set out its geographical scope of application. However, its relationship with the GDPR must be considered in order to understand its territorial scope of application.

Firstly, it must be considered that Article 94 of the GDPR repeals the old Data Protection Directive and provides that any reference to the repealed Directive shall be construed as references to the GDPR.

The ePrivacy Directive must be thought of as a specialised subset of rules falling under the broader privacy framework established by the GDPR.

In fact, Recital 10 of the ePrivacy Directive provides that, with
reference to the electronic communications sector, Directive 95/46/EC [now GDPR] applies to all matters concerning protection of fundamental rights and freedoms, which are not specifically covered by the provisions of Directive 95/46/EC [now GDPR], including the obligations on the controller and the rights of individuals.

Article 1(2) of the ePrivacy Directive also states that the provisions of the ePrivacy Directive particularise and complement Directive 95/46/EC [now GDPR].

Therefore, since the ePrivacy Directive does not expressly address its territorial scope of application, Article 3 of the GDPR, regulating its territorial scope, acquire relevance in the context of the ePrivacy Directive.

The EDPB Opinion 5/2019 on the interplay between the ePrivacy Directive and the GDPR stated that the use of cookie triggers the application of both the ePrivacy Directive and the GDPR. Therefore, when the use of cookies implies the processing of personal data, the GDPR, and its territorial scope as a consequence, will find application.

The EDPB further outlined that, for the ePrivacy Directive to be applicable, the service and network must be offered in the EU. In addition, it stated that Articles 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive not only apply to providers of electronic communication services, but also to website operators or other businesses.

Article 3 of the ePrivacy Directive further states that its application will cover any processing of personal data carried out in connection with the provision of publicly available electronic communications services in public communications networks in
More recently, as noted above in the handbook, the EDPB adopted an internal document on criteria of territorial competence of supervisory authorities to enforce Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, outlining that, although the Directive remains silent regarding its territorial application, case law from the Court of Justice of the European Union should give an indication of how the territorial application should be organized. Specifically, when the data processing is regulated exclusively by the national law provisions transposing Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, regulators competent for the enforcement of the ePrivacy Directive are entitled to exercise the powers conferred on them by their national law, whenever:

• the controller/service provider is established in their territorial jurisdiction;
• the processing is carried out in the context of the activities of an establishment located in their territorial jurisdiction, even when exclusive responsibility for collecting and processing belongs, for the entire territory of the EU, to an establishment situated in another Member State; and
• in the absence of controller/service provider or establishment in their territorial jurisdiction, the national law provides another criterion for its enforcement.

How does implicit consent pan out with the wider EU approach to valid consent with recent case law?

Recent case law as well as several recommendations and guidelines of regulators across Europe, have deemed implied consent too vague to fulfill the strict sine qua non elements of consent as required by the GDPR. For example, users can continue
to navigate a website (e.g. by clicking on the “about” tab instead of closing the window) by mistake.

Some devices are quite sensitive and clicking on a website by mistake while dragging the cursor is quite common. In fact, many phishing attacks on the web rely on user mistakes for purposes such as getting a click on an ad to obtain users’ credentials. In an offline/analogue setting, implied consent can indeed work, because there are visible actions that are unmistakably interpreted as consent (e.g. taking something from someone’s hand without saying a word).

In this respect, the ICO is of the opinion that in an analogue setting an affirmative action is solid enough for obtaining consent. However, the same may not hold true in an online context. In addition, the trend of the CJEU has continued to be a strict view of what constitutes valid consent. For example, their decision in the case Planet49 requires a positive and unequivocal action consisting on clicking or switching or toggling preferences in order to interpret valid consent from users, boxes can’t be pre-ticked because this would go against the positive action requirement for consent to be valid.

By extrapolation, implied consent would not be upheld if such practice was challenged in court because it fails to pass a strict test of valid consent. For the time being, the Spanish regulator interprets this as an acceptable practice and can be carried out in Spain, provided that other essential elements of consent are fully respected. It is essential to have provided intelligible, unequivocal information to users before interpreting their actions as consenting to tracking technologies and purposes. Clicking on the privacy policy/cookie notice link is not valid implied consent.
Can the consent collected within one internet domain be used to place cookies through a separate domain, when both the websites are owned by the same subject? In other words, can consent be transferred among websites developed by the same entity?

In relation to different internet domains owned by the same subject, several European regulators are of the view that the consent obtained for one website can be used for other websites as well, if certain conditions are respected.

For example, the Spanish regulator’s view is that the single website providing services across different domains may use the same consent if the different domains display similar characteristics and are used for the purpose of providing services requested by users. The website must also inform the users about the websites or domains that are held by the same website provider.

Lastly, in case the website provides different services and display characteristics or offer contents which are not similar, additional precautionary measures must be implemented.

In addition, the Dutch supervisory authority notes that, if the user has been informed about the intended use of cookies and about different domains, the user’s consent may be valid for multiple domains. The user must also be offered the opportunity to browse through a comprehensive list of domains, so that there has been a free and specific expression of will. The bundled consent must reasonably be an expectation for the user, and the websites must offer the same type of service.
Lastly, the Italian supervisory authority provides for the same requirement, but in relation to the cookie policy. The website can provide a single cookie policy for different websites. The cookie policy must contain an always updated list of all the domains in which the processing is carried out through cookies.

**Is the cookie legislation applicable to organizations’ intranet, for example in the employment context?**

Article 3 of the ePrivacy Directive states that:

‘This Directive shall apply to the processing of personal data in connection with the provision of publicly available electronic communications services in public communications networks in the Community, including public communications networks supporting data collection and identification devices.’

The EDPB Opinion 5/2019 on the interplay between the ePrivacy Directive and the GDPR, in particular regarding the competence, tasks and powers of data protection authorities outlines that the ePrivacy Directive applies when each of the following conditions are met:

- there is an electronic communications service;
- this service is offered over an electronic communications network;
- the service and network are publicly available;
- the service and network are offered in the EU.

Examples of activities which do not meet all of the above criteria and are generally out of scope of the ePrivacy Directive:

- [A corporate network which is accessible only to employees for professional purposes does not constitute a ‘publically
available’ electronic communications service. As a result, the transmission of location data via such a network does not fall inside the material scope of the ePrivacy Directive].

**Is there any guidance to rely on in relation to cookies retention? How should organizations address the principles of necessity and proportionality within their business functions?**

In relation to the European landscape, as the storing of cookies or similar tracking technologies imply the processing of personal data in most of the cases, the GDPR’s provisions related to data retention must be taken into account. In particular, although the GDPR does not provide for specific retention periods in relation to personal data, Recital 39 and Article 5(1)(e), introducing the principle of storage limitation, states:

‘The personal data should be adequate, relevant and limited to what is necessary for the purposes for which they are processed. This requires, [...] ensuring that the period for which the personal data are stored is limited to a strict minimum. [...] In order to ensure that the personal data are not kept longer than necessary, time limits should be established by the controller for erasure or for a periodic review’.

‘Personal data shall be [...] kept in a form which permits identification of data subjects for no longer than is necessary for the purposes for which the personal data are processed [...]’.

Therefore, when processing personal data through the use of cookies or other similar technologies, a data controller must retain the data for a period that must be balanced with the purpose of
the processing and cannot be retained for longer than what is necessary to achieve the purpose of the processing. In this regard, an assessment of the principles of necessity and proportionality to the specific circumstance is key for organisations using cookies. In practice, the data controller must be sure that the use of cookies is proportionate in relation to his/her intended outcome and limited to what is necessary to achieve the purpose of processing. In any case, the data controller will also need to be able to justify the necessity of a given retention period, according to the principle of accountability.

From a business perspective, organisations should also consider that implementation of retention periods will reduce the risk that it becomes irrelevant, excessive, inaccurate or out of date. In addition, holding more personal data than what is needed may be inefficient, and as a result, operators might face unnecessary costs in relation to storage and security.

With specific reference to cookies and similar technologies, there is not a pan-European cookie retention period prescribed by law. However, several European regulators have provided more detailed guidance on the topic, offering organisations indications for the application of the general principles.

In this regard, a distinction must be drawn between cookies requiring the consent of the user and cookies that are exempted from this requirement, in accordance with the ePrivacy Directive. In relation to cookies not requiring the user’s consent, the former WP29 recalled in its Opinion 04/2012 on Cookie Consent Exemption that exempted cookies should have a lifespan that is directly related to the purpose they are used for, and must be set to expire once they are no longer needed, taking into account the
reasonable expectations of the average user. This suggests that these cookies should be likely be set to expire when the browser session ends, if not earlier.

However, the WP29 also reminds that, while login cookies are typically set to expire at the end of a browser session, cookies aimed to ensure the user’s security are expected to have a longer lifespan in order to fulfil their security purpose.

Organisations must also keep in mind their transparency obligations in relation to the retention of cookies. The CJEU upheld in the Planet49 case that the cookie notice must include, among other things, information on the lifespan of cookies. In fact, the duration of the operation of cookies must be deemed as included in the clear and comprehensive information which must be provided to the user in accordance with Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive. In addition, it must also be recalled that Article 13(2)(a) of the GDPR provides that the controller must, in order to ensure fair and transparent processing, provide the data subject with information relating, inter alia, to the period for which the personal data will be stored, or if that is not possible, to the criteria used to determine that period.

Lastly, organisations should also take into consideration that certain EU Member States’ data protection authorities produced guidance in relation to cookies retention, offering a non-harmonised outlook in terms of prescribed periods. Therefore, organisations must consider, on the basis of their business location, coverage, and audience, the differences between the different regulators’ guidelines. Some of this key guidance on cookies retention is discussed briefly below.
Belgium
The DPA highlights that cookies stored on the user’s terminal equipment cannot be stored beyond the period necessary to achieve the intended purposes. Therefore, the retention period must not be set as indefinite, and must also take into account the reasonable expectations of the user. Information collected and stored in a cookie, as well as information collected following the access of a cookie, should be deleted when they are no longer necessary in relation to the purposes of processing.

France
CNIL provides that, in relation to audience measurement cookies, they must not have a lifespan exceeding 13 months, and this period must not be automatically prolonged. In addition, information collected by the above cookies must be retained for a maximum period of 25 months.

CNIL also notes that the user's preference/choice (consent or refusal) may be retained for a period of 6 months.

In this regard, CNIL provides that websites, which generally keep the consent for a certain period of time, also should keep in the same way the refusal of users, in order not to re-interrogate the user at each visit. In fact, failure to keep users’ choices would result in users being presented with a new banner on every visited webpage, which would affect the freedom of their choice.

Germany
The DSK Guidance on Telemedia Providers states that shorter lifespans are more likely to meet the requirements of the balance of interests test between service providers and users under Article
6(1)(f) of the GDPR.

**Ireland**

The DPC Guidance Note on Cookies and other tracking technologies provides that the expiry date of a cookie should be proportionate to its purpose. Session cookies, for example, which are designed to only function for the duration of a browser session or slightly longer, are likely to have a very short lifespan and to be set to expire once they have served their limited purpose.

**Spain**

Cookie retention periods are not provided in the law. However, the AEPD recommends renewing users’ consent at regular intervals. In particular, it is considered good practice to consider the consent granted by users regarding a specific cookie valid for a period of no longer than 24 months. During this time, users’ preferences may be stored so they are not asked to set them up again every time they visit the relevant page.

**UK**

The ICO recalls that cookie retention depends on the purpose of the cookie. It must be ensured that the use of cookie is proportionate in relation to the intended outcome and limited to what is necessary to achieve the purpose of processing, which is likely to lead towards the determination of the duration.

**Can users’ cookie preferences be propagated across platforms (e.g. mobile, browser)?**

As outlined in the Handbook, publishers use cookies in order to optimize users’ searches on the basis of their search history and
on results they have been selecting, as well as to tailor their digital advertising activities. This practice, faces new challenges with a relevant impact on organisations’ practices, since the mobile environment entails new challenges comparative to browsers and personal computers. Whilst mobile applications and mobile browsers operate on the same physical device, they represent more isolated ecosystems than computers’ browsers, and website owners can find more difficulty in identifying a user as the same subject when using different apps or the mobile browser. As a result, cookies and other similar technologies, when installed on mobile, may be less effective than on traditional personal computers.

From a European standpoint, it must be noted that the ePrivacy Directive does not provide for a definition of ‘terminal equipment’. However, the proposed Draft ePrivacy Regulation considers the definition offered by the Commission Directive 2008/63/EC of 20 June 2008 on competition in the markets in telecommunications terminal equipment, which defines ‘terminal equipment’ as:

‘[...] equipment directly or indirectly connected to the interface of a public telecommunications network to send, process or receive information; in either case (direct or indirect), the connection may be made by wire, optical fibre or electromagnetically; a connection is indirect if equipment is placed between the terminal and the interface of the network [...]’.

In addition, the WP29 highlighted in its Opinion 02/2013 on Apps on Smart Devices that apps access data stored on the device, contacts in the address book, pictures, videos and other personal information. Therefore, Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive, requiring consent from the user on the basis of clear
and comprehensive information, is to be considered applicable. Therefore, it can be stated that the ePrivacy Directive applies to both personal computer browsers and mobile environments.

The cross-validity of cookie consent represents a topic that yet to be analysed in detail through regulators’ guidance and recommendations. However, some of the main data protection authorities, as well as industry organizations, have addressed mobile and cross-mobile consent as a whole in recent guidelines and frameworks, providing organizations with indications on best practices to be put in place in order to ensure a compliant approach.

For example, the ICO confirmed in its guidance that the use of cookies and similar technologies is not limited to traditional websites and web browsers, but also apply to mobile apps. The ICO notes that web application programming interfaces (APIs) are typically used by mobile devices and other hardware, and that they can also store or access information on the user’s device.

Consequently, the ICO underlines that the mobile app accessing the web API is the place where publishers must incorporate the consent mechanism. However, the ICO recognizes that the limited, and sometimes non-existent, physical interfaces on some internet-connected devices pose challenges when trying to inform users about cookies and their purposes. In this regard, organizations must consider alternative methods of informing users, such as:

- clear instructions packaged along with the device;
- information provided during product registration; and
- the use of a companion mobile app to provide an interface so that information can be provided and consent gained.
In relation to the use of the cookie banner on mobile, the ICO recommends that organizations consider their implementation carefully, particularly in respect of implications for the user experience. For example, a message box designed for display on a desktop or laptop web browser can be hard for the user to read or interact with when using a mobile device, meaning that the consents obtained would be invalid.

Cookie requirements for mobile devices are also addressed by CNIL in its finalized recommendations on cookies. The recommendations confirm that they regulate trackers used by publishers on both websites and mobile applications. With reference to cross validity of consent, CNIL states that, in the case of third-party cookies allowing the user to navigate beyond the website/app on which they are initially installed, it is strongly recommended to obtain consent for each website/app visited by the user, so that the latter can be entirely aware of the scope of the consent he provided.

The topic of mobile consent is also partially addressed by IAB Europe in its TCF Implementation Guidelines. In particular, when addressing the storage of consent, the Implementation Guidelines provide that, depending on the publisher preference and on the policy requirements, consent can be stored either locally or globally through a ‘shared’ cookie. In addition, IAB Europe notes that CMPs are also free to store consent separately and with a different format if needed, provided that, if consent is being stored globally, they keep the shared cookie storing global consent up to date with their local changes.

However, the Implementation Guidelines further state that
one of the most common methods for CMPs to store long term cookies is to do it on mobile, through internal data storage. In this regard, IAB Europe reminds that, although this method is easy to implement, affordable, and offers a good user experience, it also has limits, such as:

- it cannot be used as proof of consent; and
- it cannot be shared across apps, so device-wide consent may be difficult to achieve.

Lastly, the Implementation Guidelines suggest a combined approach between server-side storage, which enable to store consent for a long time and to share the same across apps, and client-side storage, for a local fast-to-access cache.

**Can browser settings be considered a lawful way to collect consent?**

The regulatory landscape regarding collection of users’ consent through browser settings continues to be a topic of discussion. While there is a broad consensus from an EU legislative perspective, there does not appear to be a harmonized approach from a national standpoint, and still lacks practical recommendations on how to carry out this activity in compliance with the law. Therefore, organizations will have to keep in mind the flexible EU regulatory environment, as well as the varying recommendations issued by national authorities.

Further to the above, Recital 32 of the GDPR addresses the collection of consent through browser settings, even if not specifically in relation to cookies:

‘Consent should be given by a clear affirmative act establishing a freely given, specific, informed and unambiguous indication
of the data subject’s agreement to the processing of personal data relating to him or her [...]. This could include [...] choosing technical settings for information society services or another statement or conduct which clearly indicates in this context the data subject’s acceptance of the proposed processing of his or her personal data’.

On the same, the EDPB specified in its Guidelines 05/2020 on Consent under the GDPR that obtaining consent from internet users via their browser settings is in principle allowed, as long as such settings are developed in line with the conditions for valid consent under the GDPR. Therefore, consent must be granular for each of the envisaged purposes and the information provided should include the identity of data controllers.

While the ePrivacy Directive does not address this topic, the Draft ePrivacy Regulation may allow the setting of cookies through technical settings in Article 4a(2) (here quoted in its last compromise proposal):
‘[...] where technically possible and feasible, for the purposes of point (b) of Article 8(1), consent may be expressed by using the appropriate technical settings of a software placed on the market permitting electronic communications, including the retrieval and presentation of information on the internet.’

In relation to the above, the EDPS expressed its vision in Opinion No. 6/2017 on the Draft ePrivacy Regulation and stated that the expression ‘where technically possible and feasible’, as provided by the draft, is not sufficiently clear, and brings the risk of annulling the obligation itself through a too broad a range of possibilities regarding interpretation. The EDPS therefore recommends that the phrase should be replaced by ‘where
technically feasible’, in order to ensure legal certainty as to the scope of the obligation.

In addition, the EDPS also highlights that compliance with the principle of Privacy by Default is necessary. In practice, tools enabling the collection of consent through browser settings must be offered to the user with privacy-friendly default settings, both at the initial set-up and at any other moment when the user changes their devices or software.

From a national perspective, organizations may face different requirements as a result of national ePrivacy legislation, and as further interpreted by national regulators.

The Belgian data protection authority, for example, has noted that consent collected through browser settings is currently not compliant with the requirements of the GDPR. Consent in this form cannot in fact be sufficiently specific in relation to the purposes of the different types of cookies.

In France, although the national ePrivacy Law provides that consent may result from appropriate browser settings on a device belonging to the user, CNIL noted in its Guidelines on cookies that browser settings cannot, according to the current state of art, allow the user to express valid consent. In fact, the Guidelines note that nowadays web browsers, if one hand present users with the possibility to customize their choices in relation to cookies, on the other do not provide a sufficient level of prior information on the same, as well as do not allow to distinguish cookies on the basis of their purposes, which would be necessary to have a freely given consent.

The Irish DPC also stated in its Guidance on cookies that users’
browser settings cannot be generally relied upon to infer consent for the setting of cookies, and that the circumstances where browser settings are likely to be considered a valid tool to collect consent are very limited and would need to be assessed on a case-by-case basis.

Lastly, the data protection authority in the Netherlands welcomes user-friendly solutions enabling consent to be given in the browser settings. However, the regulator reminds organisations storing or accessing cookies that they cannot automatically assume that, if a browser accepts cookies, users must have given their consent to the same, since many browsers, by default, accept all cookies. Therefore, if the user has not amended the settings, it cannot be concluded that he/she accepts cookies.

What is the role that actors (publishers, CMPs, vendors etc.) of the ad tech ecosystem assume in relation to the concepts of data controller, data processor and joint controllership under the GDPR? In practice, what are the elements to be take into account when assessing the role and responsibilities of organizations operating in the ad tech environment?

The advertising technology (ad tech) ecosystem is a complex digital marketing environment consisting of each component necessary to manage digital advertising campaigns for demand and supply-side platforms. The ICO defines it in its Update report into ad tech and real time bidding as a set of tools that analyze and manage information (including personal data) for online advertising campaigns and for the automation of the processing of advertising transactions. The concept of ad tech covers the end-to-end lifecycle of the advertising delivery process, which often involves engaging third parties for one or more aspects of
the services. In particular, the ad tech environment underpins real time bidding (RTB) as one of the most used programmatic advertising techniques (see the Part 1 of this Handbook for further information on RTB), where advertisers are allowed to compete for available digital advertising space in milliseconds, placing online adverts on webpages and apps by automated means.

Where ad tech actors process personal data for the purpose of online advertising, the applicable data protection regulations will have to be taken into account. In particular, it can be challenging, within such a complex ecosystem, to understand and assign to subjects active in ad tech their data protection roles and responsibilities, as presented by the GDPR. In fact, the following several operators, among others, act within the ad tech ecosystem and share data among themselves for the purpose of targeted online advertising:

- Publishers/website operators
- Advertisers
- Ad network providers
- Advertising exchanges
- Demand side platforms (DSPs)
- Supply side platforms (SSPs)
- Data management platforms (DMPs)
- Consent management platforms (CMPs)

In this regard, although the European regulators produced recommendations on how to identify and appoint data controller, processors, and joint controllers under the GDPR, the practical application of this guidance to the ad tech environment is still partially unexplored.
The EDPB addresses the concepts of controller, processor and joint controllership in its Guidelines 07/2020 on the concepts of controllers and processors in the GDPR. However, the only reference to the advertising sector contained in the guidelines is in relation to certain processing activities that can be considered as naturally attached to the role or activities of an entity. In this case, existing traditional roles and professional expertise that normally imply a certain responsibility will help in identifying the controller, such as in the case of a publisher processing the personal data of its subscribers. When the publisher processes personal data as part of its interactions with its own customers, it will have to be considered as the subject who factually can determine the purpose and means around the processing and will therefore act as a controller.

The role of ad tech actors is not otherwise mentioned in the guidelines and must therefore be reconstructed indirectly from the general definitions, as interpreted by the EDPB.

In addition, the WP29 addressed the roles of ad tech actors in relation to cookie obligations in its Opinion 2/2010 on online behavioural advertising, which, although referring to a pre-GDPR legal landscape, still presents elements of interest. Specifically, the WP29 provides recommendations in relation to the following subjects involved in behavioural advertising practices:

- Ad network providers
- Publishers
- Advertisers

Ad network providers: Considering that Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive considers irrelevant whether the entity placing the cookie is data controller or processor, the WP29 considers ad network providers obliged to obtain the user’s informed consent in the context of behavioural advertising. In addition, if the behavioural
advertising activity entails processing of personal data, the ad network provider will assume the role of data controller. In fact, ad network providers:

- ‘rent’ space from publishers’ web sites to place ads.
- set and read cookie-related information and collect other data that the browser may reveal.
- use the information gathered to build profiles and deliver ads. Publishers: Publishers rent out space on their websites for ad networks to place adverts. In practice, they set up their web sites in a way that visitors’ browsers are automatically redirected to the webpage of the ad network provider. Therefore, the WP29 notes that they should be aware that by entering into contracts with ad networks and providing them with visitors’ personal data, they assume responsibility towards their visitors. The breadth of their responsibility, including the extent to which they become data controllers, should be analysed on a case by case basis depending on the particular conditions of collaboration with ad network providers, as reflected in the service agreements.

Advertisers: Advertisers can track the campaign resulted in the click-through when visitors click on ads and visit their website. When the advertiser captures certain targeting information, such as demographic data or an interest group, it can combine the same information with the data subject’s onsite surfing behaviour or registration data. In this case, the WP29 outlines that the advertiser will assume the role of independent data controller for the relevant part of the data processing.

From a national standpoint, CNIL also addressed the roles and responsibilities of subjects involved in the use of cookies and similar technologies in its recently finalised recommendation on
cookies. In particular, CNIL establishes that the publisher and the third party must be considered joint controllers for the placement of cookies when they jointly determine the purpose and means of processing, as clarified by the EU Court of Justice in the Fashion ID case. In this case, the two parties will have to establish their respective obligations under Article 26 of the GDPR, with specific reference to the collection and proof of consent.

In addition, and from an industry perspective, IAB Europe's TCF Policies also provides some general recommendations for the establishment of roles and responsibilities of digital advertising actors. In particular, the Policies provides that vendors, i.e. companies that participates in the delivery of digital advertising within a publisher’s website, app, or other digital content, may be considered under the GDPR as controllers, processors, or both, depending on the specific circumstances of the case.

In relation to the same, IAB Europe's Mobile In-App CMP API v1.0: Transparency & Consent Framework, which represents a specification dependent on the TCF dedicated to global interfaces within the mobile ecosystem of an app, also provides for an indication of vendors roles and responsibilities. Specifically, when vendors, among other actions, collects or receives personal data about the publisher’s end users, they don’t necessarily need to assume the role of controllers.

In practice, the following general recommendations can be considered when assigning roles and responsibilities to ad tech actors, always taking into consideration that roles under the GDPR cannot be assigned a priori, but must always follow a case by case assessment, also considering that a single subject may adopt more than one role.
Part 4: OneTrust FAQs

- The publisher, who sell space on its website for the placement of targeted advertising, as well as the advertiser, will likely assume the role of controllers, as outlined above.
- Ad networks will likely assume the role of controllers, as outlined above.
- DMPs, used by publishers to examine data they retain in relation to their potential and current clients, may assume both the role of controller and processor, depending on the circumstances. For example, it will have to be considered in concrete whether the DMP provides itself data coming from third parties or limits itself to facilitating the acquisition of third-party data.
- CMPs, used by publishers to manage users’ consent and marketing preferences, will in principle assume the role of processor. However, a case by case approach must be adopted in relation to the processing activities carried out by the CMP.

Are explicit consent and other derogations under Article 49 of the GDPR a viable option for the transfer of personal data collected and processed via third-party analytic and other kind of cookies following Schrems II?

The highly anticipated Schrems II judgment, as issued by the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) on 16 July 2020, in Data Protection Commissioner v. Facebook Ireland Limited, Maximillian Schrems (C-311/18) declared, on the one hand, the EU-US Privacy Shield invalid, and, on the other, upheld the use of Standard Contractual Clauses (‘SCCs’), providing clarity around the considerations that organizations and authorities should bear in mind if utilized as the transfer mechanism of choice.
When considering the use of cookies and other tracking technologies, organizations often use third party analytic cookies, as well as other kind of third-party cookies, for the purpose of monitoring the users’ usage of a website/app. Since the third-party setting cookies may be based in a third country, the use of cookies may imply the collection and subsequent international transfer of personal data. As a result of the Schrems II judgment, organizations are required to carry out an assessment of the possible transfer of personal data, in order to see whether the same can be deemed compliant with the judgment of the CJEU.

Organizations have been looking for viable solutions to transfer personal data to third countries post Schrems II, and the possibility regarding the derogations provided by Article 49 of the GDPR has been discussed, which can be implemented when:

- The third country does not provide adequate protection.
- No adequate safeguards aimed at providing protection for the data are being implemented.

Having said this, it is important to assess if the derogations can, in fact, be relied upon.

**Explicit consent (Article 49(1)(a) of the GDPR)**

The EDPB clarified in its latest FAQs on Schrems II that the transfer of personal data on the basis of explicit consent is allowed when the same consent is:

- Explicit.
- Specific for the particular data transfer or set of transfers, meaning that the data exporter must make sure to obtain specific consent before the transfer is put in place, even if this occurs after the collection of the data.
• Informed, with specific reference to the possible risks of the transfer. The data subjects should therefore be informed of the specific risks resulting from the fact that their data will be transferred to a country that does not provide adequate protection and that no adequate safeguards aimed at providing protection for the data are being implemented.

However, the EDPB stressed the fact that explicit consent, as the other derogations under Article 49 of the GDPR, are subject to a narrow interpretation, and must be considered as exceptions, and not as standard rules.

In relation to explicit consent, the Baden-Württemberg data protection authority also issued an orientation guide on the Schrems II case, outlining derogations under Article 49 of the GDPR as one possible transfer mechanism, but also recalling the narrow interpretation of the scope of Article 49 by the EDPB within its Guidelines 2/2018 on derogations of Article 49 under Regulation 2016/679 and stressing the fact that an exception should not become the rule.

In practice, this derogation may find an application in relation to the transfer of personal data through cookies, given that certain cookies could be set on the basis of consent that re-collected only after a relevant amount of time (for example 6 months or 1 year).

**Transfer necessary for the performance of a contract (Article 49(1))**

(a) of the GDPR)

The EDPB highlights in its FAQs on Schrems II that, in relation to transfers that are necessary for the performance of a contract between the data subject and the controller, organizations should
take into consideration that this derogation can find application only when:

- the transfer is occasional (to be established on a case-by-case basis).
- the transfer is objectively necessary for the performance of the contract.

However, given the occasional nature of the transfer, it might be challenging to find an application of the above derogation to a transfer of personal data carried out through the setting of cookies.

Lastly, it must be recalled that the EDPB released, following the Schrems II judgment, on 18 June 2021, its finalized Recommendations 01/2020 on measures that supplement transfer tools to ensure compliance with the EU level of protection of personal data organizations, as well as, previously, Recommendations 02/2020 on the European Essential Guarantees for surveillance measures.

The Recommendations 01/2020 aim to assist controllers as well as processors acting as data exporters with their duty to identify and implement appropriate supplementary measures where the same are needed to ensure an essentially equivalent level of protection data they transfer to third countries.

On the other hand, the Recommendations 02/2020, which constitute an updated version of the ones issued following the Schrems I Case invalidating Safe Harbor, aim to provide guidance on the elements to examine whether surveillance measures allowing access to personal data by either national security
agencies or law enforcement authorities in a third country can be regarded as a justifiable interference or not.

Although the above recommendations do not directly address the transfer of personal data carried out through the use of cookies, organizations will have to take them into account when assessing their international data transfer activities.

**Why did the French Conseil d’Etat rule against CNIL’s position on Cookie walls?**

On 19 June, 2020 the Conseil d’Etat – which is the highest administrative court in France – issued decision No. 434684 that ruled on CNIL’s powers to issue guidelines for compliance with data protection legislation, validating CNIL’s guidelines in general and, overruling CNIL’s position on cookie walls. The Conseil d’Etat did not rule over the substance of CNIL’s position on cookie walls, it ruled over CNIL’s capacity to issue such general and prohibitive policies.

The Guidelines issued by CNIL (délibération n° 2019-093 du 4 juillet 2019 de la Commission nationale de l’informatique et des libertés [CNIL] portant adoption de lignes directrices relatives à l’application de l’article 82 de la loi du 6 janvier 1978 modifiée aux opérations de lecture et écriture dans le terminal d’un utilisateur [notamment aux cookies et autres traceurs]) were challenged by a consortium of professional associations and unions in the e-commerce sector (i.e. l’association des agences-conseils en communication, la fédération du e-commerce et de la vente à distance, le groupement des éditeurs de contenus et services en ligne, l’Interactive Advertising Bureau France, la Mobile Marketing Association France, le syndicat national communication directe de la data à la logistique, le syndicat des régies internet, l’union des
entreprises de conseil et d’achat media et l’union des marques). These organisations filed a summary request at the litigation secretariat of the Conseil d’Etat requesting the invalidation of the CNIL Guidelines. The request for invalidation was sustained on the grounds of excessive power on the part of CNIL issuing obligations that lie beyond their realm of competence.

In their request, the consortium posed several questions challenging the power of CNIL and the current interpretation of article 2(f) of the ePrivacy Directive when read in light of Articles 4(11) and 95 of the GDPR (e.g.). The main challenge in the request was whether offers and contracts relating to access to digital content and services, under which the consumer undertakes to provide personal data to the professional are to be prohibited?

The claimants went on to ask if, in case of a negative answer, should the aforementioned provisions be interpreted as banning CNIL from establishing a general prohibition offers and contracts relating to access to digital content and services where the exchange of personal data is required? Quite a binary approach from the claimants.

The formulation of the request was longer and included a sub-set of questions circling around the above two points, as well as more specific challenges relating to the use of tracking technologies and the limits of the consenting requirements established by CNIL. The request stressed on the applicable provisions that limit the use of “cookie walls”, which - they claimed - in and of itself, unduly undermines the right to freedom of information as well the freedom to conduct business.
In its decision No. 434684, the Conseil d’Etat mandated the deletion of paragraph 4 in Article 2 of CNIL’s recommendations prohibiting the use of Cookie Walls. The Conseil d’Etat ruled that the interpretation by CNIL of the requirements laid down in Article 4(11) GDPR was relying on a general and absolute prohibition inferred from the sole concept of “freely given consent”. As a result the Conseil d’Etat overruled CNIL’s powers on the general and absolute prohibition to rely on cookie walls.

Is it lawful to provide, as the only alternative to the acceptance of profiling cookies, the possibility of paying a monetary amount in the form of a subscription to access the service (‘paywall’)?

The scenario where the user’s options are either to accept the use of non-technical cookies and other tracking technologies or to pay a monetary amount for a subscription to the service offered by the website/app provider has proven one where no clear-cut rule is established by the law, and where regulators have been taking different approaches, also given the different standpoints regarding those practices referenced to as ‘cookie walls.’

From a European regulatory perspective, although no provision explicitly addresses the issue, Recital 25 of the ePrivacy Directive provides:

‘Access to specific website content may still be made conditional on the well-informed acceptance of a cookie or similar device, if it is used for a legitimate purpose.’

In addition, the conditions for a lawful consent to cookies, as established by Article 7 of the GDPR, must be considered.
Specifically, Article 7(4) of the GDPR addresses the freedom of consent in relation to the performance of a contract, providing:

“When assessing whether consent is freely given, utmost account shall be taken of whether, inter alia, the performance of a contract, including the provision of a service, is conditional on consent to the processing of personal data that is not necessary for the performance of that contract.”

In this regard, the European Data Protection Board’s (‘EDPB’) guidelines on consent under the GDPR specifies that Article 7(4) of the GDPR has been drafted in a non-exhaustive fashion by the words ‘inter alia,’ meaning that there may be a range of other situations which would fall under the provision. Therefore, any element of inappropriate pressure or influence upon the data subject (which may be manifested in many different ways) preventing the same from exercising their free will, will render the consent invalid.

In addition, the EDPB expands on the concept of conditionality stating that the controller can be deemed as offering data subjects a genuine choice if the individuals are able to choose between a service that includes consenting to the use of personal data for additional purposes on the one hand, and an equivalent service offered by the same controller that does not involve consenting to data use for additional purposes on the other hand. As such, a conditional service must be considered absent as long as there is a possibility for the user to have the contract performed or the contracted service delivered by the controller without consenting to the additional data use in question.
However, the EDPB stresses that both services need to be genuinely equivalent, which must be excluded in the case where the alternative service is offered by a third party, and not by the data controller itself, as in this situation the freedom of choice would be made dependent on what other market players do and whether an individual data subject would find the other controller’s services genuinely equivalent.

From a national standpoint, Member States’ regulators addressed differently the issue of websites/apps providing users accessing their services with the possibility of subscribing to the same as the only alternative to the acceptance of cookies.

On one hand, regulators such as the UK Information Commissioner’s Office (‘ICO’) adopt a relatively strict approach.

The ICO expressed its view on the same topic in October 2018 within a response to a request for information in relation to a complaint it received regarding the ‘cookie banner’ of a media company. In particular, the complainant argued that, when accessing the media company’s website, the only options were to either accept the installation of cookies or to pay for a subscription to the service. The ICO considered the practice of the media company as non-compliant with the applicable data protection legislation, as the choice and control over the use of personal data provided to the complainant was not genuine. Therefore, the ICO concludes that the media company has not offered a free alternative to the acceptance of cookies, which makes the user’s consent not freely given and thus invalid.

On the other hand, regulators in France, the Netherlands, and
Austria adopt a less strict approach to ‘pay walls.’

The French data protection authority (‘CNIL’) issued, at the end of May 2021, a guidance on cookie walls and data monetisation, outlining that the pay wall practice is not prohibited in principle, whether the publisher’s payment version of the website represents an equivalent version of the website and is characterised by the absence of advertising tracking technologies. However, CNIL further stresses that other factors must be taken into account, such as the dominant position of the website provider, which may lead to the unlawfulness of certain paywalls. In addition, CNIL reiterate its position on pay walls within its approach to cookie walls. Question No. 27 of the FAQs on the latest cookie guidelines and recommendation provides in fact that the ‘pay wall,’ instead of conditioning the access to the service to the acceptance of cookies (as in the case of a cookie wall), conditions the same to a form of financial compensation such as a subscription. In both cases (pay wall and cookie wall) the position of CNIL seems to remain the same. As such, it will have to be determined on a case-by-case basis whether the consent of the user is freely given, and whether the cookie/pay wall is lawful. In practice, it will be of relevant importance to assess the existence of real and satisfactory alternatives for the user, always to be provided by the owner of the website/app and not by third parties.

The Dutch data protection authority (‘AP’) outlined in one of its FAQs on cookies that, while cookie walls must be considered unlawful under the GDPR, in case the user refuses the installation of tracking technologies, the website owner must always provide the individual with access to its service, for example after the payment of a monetary amount. The AP therefore seems to accept pay walls as a lawful practice.
The Austrian data protection authority (‘DSB’) addressed paywalls in a decision issued in November 2018 in relation to the cookie practices of an online newspaper. The facts of the case saw the newspaper’s website presenting the complainant with the possibility, on one hand, to access the website accepting tracking cookies, and, on the other, to access the free-ad subscription version of the website for a price of €6 per months, to be paid starting from the 2nd month of subscription.

The DSB determined that the free-ad subscription version of the service did not constitute a disproportionately expensive alternative for the user, as well as that the consequences of not giving consent to tracking cookies were far from being a significant disadvantage, not being the data subject confronted with any significant negative consequence.

The offered paywall alternative was therefore to be considered equivalent, in terms of content, to the free version accessible by consenting to cookies. As such, the DSB concluded that the consent required by the online newspaper was compliant with Articles 4 and 7 of the GDPR. However, the privacy focused NGO noyb announced, on 13 August 2021, that it had filed complaints against the cookie paywalls of seven major German and Austrian news websites, claiming that the DSB’s ruling suffered from largely inaccurate factual information before the authority, and that therefore noyb is determined to reverse this ruling.

Lastly, and from a regulatory perspective, the issue of pay walls must also be considered in the light of the upcoming ePrivacy Regulation, currently under discussion within EU institutions. In fact, when addressing the topic of ‘cookie walls,’ the draft ePrivacy Regulation notes that where access to website content is made
dependent on the consent of the end-user to the installation of cookies for additional purposes, that same consent would not be considered as depriving the end-user of a genuine choice if the user is able to, on the basis of clear, precise and user-friendly information about the purposes of cookies and similar techniques, choose between:

- a service offer that includes consenting to the use of cookies for additional purposes; and
- an equivalent offer by the same provider that does not involve consenting to data use for additional purposes.

However, the Draft ePrivacy Regulation recalls that, in the presence of a clear imbalance between the end-user and the service provider, making access to website content dependent on consent to the use of cookies may be considered as depriving the end-user of a genuine choice. Such imbalance could exist where the end-user has only a few or no alternatives to the service, and thus has no real choice as to the usage of cookies, such as in the case of service providers occupying a dominant position.

**The Future Draft ePrivacy Regulation**

When the EU Commission launched the public consultation on the ePrivacy Directive, their goals were:

- Ensuring consistency between the ePrivacy rules and the GDPR;
- Updating the scope of the ePrivacy Directive in light of the new market and technological reality;
- Enhancing security and confidentiality of communications; and
- Addressing inconsistent enforcement and fragmentation.
It is also important to understand that the ePrivacy Regulation would be lex specialis, whereas the GDPR is lex generalis. This means that when the two regulations cover the same situation (when electronic communications also qualify as personal data), the ePrivacy Regulation will apply instead of the GDPR. As explained in Recital 2(a) of the current draft of the ePrivacy Regulation:

*This Regulation protects in addition the respect for private life and communications. The provisions of this Regulation particularise and complement the general rules on the protection of personal data laid down in Regulation (EU) 2016/679. This Regulation therefore does not lower the level of protection enjoyed by natural persons under Regulation (EU) 2016/679. The provisions particularise Regulation (EU) 2016/679 as regards personal data by translating its principles into specific rules. If no specific rules are established in this Regulation, Regulation (EU) 2016/679 should apply to any processing of data that qualify as personal data. Processing of electronic communications data by providers of electronic communications services and networks should only be permitted in accordance with this Regulation.*

Negotiations on the draft text have been difficult so far, and there is still uncertainty on the likeliness of approval, which prolongs both uncertainty and risks for businesses needing to implement compliant solutions.

**What Are the Changes for Cookies Brought By the ePrivacy Regulation Draft?**

Under the ePrivacy Directive, the use of tracking tools and means to access data stored in users’ terminal equipment, such as cookies, is allowed with the informed consent of the interested
user. However, the practice confirmed that the cookies rules, as introduced by the 2009 revision of the ePrivacy Directive, struggle to achieve their goal (to enable users to make a real choice and give informed consent), causing, to the contrary, the irritation of users called to repeatedly consent to the use of cookies and faced with ‘cookies walls’.

**Higher Exposure for Non-EU Organizations**

As with the GDPR, the new ePrivacy Regulation will have significant extra-territorial effects and will require websites around the world to respect the rights of EU-based visitors. The material and territorial scope of the ePrivacy Regulation, considering the new market and technological reality, covers a wider range of services entailing data processing. It applies to the provision of e-communications services to end-users in the Union, irrespective of whether the end-user is required to pay for the service. In addition, providers outside the EU must appoint a representative in the EU. The proposal applies not only to traditional telecom providers, but also to other market players (e.g. information society service providers) providing internet-based services, such as VoIP, instant messaging applications and web-based emails, with the aim of ensuring a level playing field for companies.

It applies to e-communications data processing carried out in connection with the provision and use of e-communications services and to information related to the terminal equipment of end-users. Issues related to the scope of the new regulation, as well as its definitions and exceptions, are currently under discussion.
New Rules on Tracking Tools (including cookies)

The reading, writing, collection or storage of information from the end-user’s device is allowed only under specific conditions, e.g., for the sole purpose of carrying out the transmission of an electronic communication, with the end-user’s consent, if it is needed to provide a service requested by the end-user, or for audience measuring purposes (Article 8(1) of the draft ePrivacy Regulation). The collection of data emitted by terminal equipment, e.g., via WiFi, to enable connection to another device or to a network (Article 8(2) of the draft ePrivacy Regulation) is allowed:

• For the purpose of, and the time necessary for, establishing a connection.
• If the user has given his/her consent.
• If it is necessary for the purpose of statistical counting, when the data is made anonymous or erased as soon as it is no longer needed.
• If it is necessary for providing a service requested by the user.

In any case, the service provider must provide a clear and prominent informative notice (according to Article 13 of the GDPR) and adopt appropriate technical and organizational measures.

Privacy Settings

In line with the GDPR, when provided, consent must be freely given and unambiguous, as well as expressed by a clear affirmative action. To this end, the new rules provide for the possibility that the consent is given at the level of browser settings, when technically possible and feasible (Article 4a of the draft ePrivacy Regulation), in order to avoid the consent fatigue caused by current pop-up banners.
Prior (Opt-In) Consent
The Proposed ePrivacy Regulation explicitly states that the standard to determine the lawfulness of consent is the one laid down in the GDPR.

Mirroring the GDPR’s stance on consent, the draft ePrivacy Regulation will require websites to demonstrate that a visitor’s consent was obtained, and that their consent can be withdrawn at any time.

An Exemption for Web Analytics
The ePrivacy Directive’s old exemptions from the consent rule for “strictly necessary” cookies remain intact but are now extended to include cookies that are used for web analytics.

This may be a welcome change, as the potential loss of such data was of deep concern to website publishers under the old regime.

The new provision applies to situations where the processing is carried out by the provider or by a third party on his behalf, if the conditions laid down in Article 28 of the GDPR, or where applicable, Article 26 of the GDPR (i.e. joint controllership), are met. It remains to be seen whether popular services like Google Analytics would fit into that exemption, considering the sometimes-divergent position adopted by European regulators.

Increased Responsibility for Web Browsers
Web browsers are now highly encouraged to take a more active role in mediating consent to avoid the need for overly intrusive pop-ups, but this will rely on some significant changes to the way most browsers currently work.
It remains to be seen whether they will be willing and able to take on such responsibilities, but it seems likely that Do Not Track browser settings will become far more important moving forward.

A new requirement for devices and software to be built on Privacy by Design principles, including privacy as the default setting, was clearly intended to push technology companies toward making big changes.

Under the new rules, end-users should be offered, at the browser level, a set of privacy setting options, ranging from higher (for example, ‘never accept cookies’) to lower (for example, ‘always accept cookies’) and intermediate (for example, ‘reject third party cookies’ or ‘only accept first party cookies’). Such privacy settings should be presented in an easily visible and intelligible manner.

**Example:**

![Cookie Preferences](image)

**Latest Developments on the ePrivacy Regulation**

By November 2020 the German Presidency of the Council of the European Union had not succeeded to reach the point of a
mandate or a compromise on a draft as initially planned according to their release on 6 July 2020. This stalemate meant that the negotiations with the European Parliament had not started by the beginning of 2020. One important aspect of disagreement among EU Member States revolved around the topic of the suitability of Legitimate Interest as a valid legal ground for the use of tracking technologies.

Specifically, the German Presidency stressed the fact that an agreement on the core provisions of the proposal, namely the rules for the protection of end users’ terminal equipment information is a precondition. In fact, and in relation to cookies and similar technologies the progress report, the progress report provides that:

• Should the proposals to permit access to terminal devices for the sole purpose of a legitimate interest (as outlined above), subject to specific conditions and safeguards, be supported, the Presidency would like to discuss how the security of the respective equipment can be ensured under these conditions.

• Should the last proposal of the Finnish Presidency be supported, the Presidency would like to ask the Member States whether they see a need to further discuss the provision related to requirements for access to terminal equipment in connection with IoT devices and with regard to the effective protection of end users’ privacy.

As a consequence, in their compromise draft, published on 4 November 2020, the German Presidency deleted any reference to the provisions on the use of processing and storage capabilities of terminal equipment and the collection of information from end-users’ terminal equipment when necessary for the purpose of legitimate interests.
In addition, the last compromise proposal has introduced a stricter wording aimed to define clearly the conditions when the use of terminal equipment is necessary for providing a service specifically requested by the end-user. In this regard, the draft provides that the setting of cookies, in order to be allowed, must be ‘strictly technically necessary for providing an information society service specifically requested by the end-user’.

- Security Purposes: To maintain or restore the security of end users’ information society services or terminal equipment, prevent fraud or detect technical faults for the duration necessary for that purpose.

- Software Updates That Do the Following:
  1. Is necessary for security reasons and does not change the user’s privacy settings.
  2. Informs the end user in advance of the update installation.
  3. Gives the end user the possibility to postpone or turn off the automatic installation of the update.

Moreover, the EDPB issued, on 19 November 2020, a statement on the future of the ePrivacy Regulation, welcoming the idea of adopting the same as soon as possible. However, and in relation to the regulation of cookies, the EDPB also stressed the lost opportunity to provide guidance on the practice of cookie walls within the text of the regulation itself.

However, the German Presidency of the Council, after the Member States meeting within the Council’s Working Party on Telecommunications and Information Society, published, on 20 November 2020, a new progress report on the draft ePrivacy Regulation. In particular, the report recalls the amendments
proposed by the German Presidency in the last compromise proposal, specifying though that Member States had mixed reaction to the same, and that, even if they reached a broad consensus around the deletion of any reference to legitimate interests as a legal basis for cookies, they also expressed the view that the former Finnish Presidency proposal could be considered as the starting point for future negotiations. In conclusion, the German Presidency notes that it is clear from the Member States’ reactions that further work is needed on the file, and that it is committed to working closely with the forthcoming Portuguese Presidency to facilitate further discussions and to ensure smooth progress on the proposal.

The Portuguese Presidency issued a new draft on 4 January 2021, which laid the ground for a consolidated version of the Council of Ministers that was released on 10 February 2021. This concluded more than 4 years of negotiations between Member States at the European Council level.

The new consolidated version adopted by the Council will be the basis for Trilogue negotiations, which involve the European Parliament and the European Commission. It is uncertain when a final text will be agreed. However, it is also expected that the proposed Regulation will not be adopted and will not come into force before 2023. In addition, after it comes into force, there is a vacatio legis stipulated allowing for a transition period of 24 months. This means that we can expect that enforcement will not commence before 2025.

**Characteristics of the consolidated version of the Council**

As was the case in previous drafts, the scope of the proposed Regulation is broader than that of the ePrivacy Directive. In other words, it goes beyond regulating the processing of electronic
communications data carried out in connection with the provision and the use of electronic communications services, to also encompass:

1. information stored or accessed on end-user terminal equipment (for example with tracking technologies like cookies).
2. the provision of publicly accessible directories of users of electronic communications and
3. the transmission of direct marketing to end-users by means of electronic communications.

In addition, the Regulation will also be applicable to a broader range of actors including Over-The-Top services. A revision of the definition of Electronic Communications Services and the inclusion of the revised definition in the European Electronic Communications Code paves the way for the Regulation to have a broader material scope. Recital (11) of the proposed Regulation states that ‘[i]n order to ensure an effective and equal protection of end-users when using functionally equivalent services, this Regulation uses the definition of electronic communications services set forth in the Directive (EU) 2018/1972’

Considering this definition, the Proposed Regulation lists three broad categories of services that are encompassed by its material scope according to the revised version of the definition of electronic communications services:

1. Internet access services.
2. Number-dependent and number-independent interpersonal communication services.
3. Services consisting mainly on the conveyance of signals.
The California Consumer Privacy Act (CCPA)

The California Consumer Privacy Act came into effect on January 1, 2020. This law grants all consumers new rights to notice and choice about the personal information that businesses collect and how they use or sell their personal data.

Unlike EU data protection law, CCPA covers only for-profit entities (‘businesses’). Overall, its scope is limited to commercial activities. CCPA can be interpreted to cover businesses that are established outside California if they collect or sell California consumers’ personal information.

The CCPA protects “consumers” who are natural persons and who must be California residents. Under this law, when businesses are collecting personal information of consumers based in California, they must disclose to consumers what information is being collected and for what purposes, whether they plan or intend to sell their personal information, to whom, etc. The operationalization of these new obligations varies depending on the context.

Terminology Personal Information

Personal Information is broadly defined in §1798.140(o)(1) of CCPA as ‘any information that relates to, describes, is capable of being associated with, or could be reasonably linked, directly or indirectly, with a particular California consumer, [device] or household.’ CCPA lists a non-exhaustive catalogue of examples of what is considered personal information:

- Identifiers, such as name, alias, postal address, IP address,
email address, social security number, driver’s license number, passport numbers, professional credentials, inferences drawn (profiling), education information, etc.

- Commercial information, such as records or personal properties, consumer tendencies, articles purchased, etc;
- Biometric information;
- Internet or other electronic network activity information, including browsing history and information about a users’ interaction with a website, mobile application or digital advertisement, hence tracking technologies such as cookies:
  - Geolocation data;
  - Audiovisual data;
  - Olfactory, thermal, electronic or similar information.

Although cookies are not directly addressed in CCPA, they are interpreted to be encompassed in this wide definition of personal information under ‘internet and other electronic network activity’.

**Exceptions**

As broad a definition as this is, §1798.140(o)(2) lists three types of information that are not considered personal information: publicly available information, aggregate consumer information, and de-identified information.

- Publicly available information means information that is lawfully made available from federal, state or local government records. For data to be considered publicly available, the purpose for which the information is used has to be compatible with the purpose for which the data is maintained and made available.
- Aggregate consumer information means information that relates to a group of consumers from which individual identities have been removed and that is neither directly
linked nor can be reasonably linked to a consumer or household. This should not be confused with de-identified information.

- De-identified information means data that cannot reasonably identify, relate to, describe, be capable of being associated with, or linked directly or indirectly to an individual consumer because the information has been anonymized. Businesses using de-identified data must:
  - Implement technical safeguards that prohibit re-identification;
  - Implement businesses processes that specifically address and prohibit re-identification;
  - Implement businesses processes that specifically aim at preventing the release of de-identified information;
  - Prevent any attempt to re-identify the information.

**Business**

CCPA imposes obligations on commercial entities that meet three requirements laid down in 1798.140(c)(1):

- Do business in California:
- Are operated for the profit or financial benefit of their shareholders, and:
- Collect consumers’ personal information and determines the purpose and means of the processing of those data

Besides these three requirements, for businesses to be covered by CCPA they must satisfy one or both of these two thresholds:

- Have an annual gross revenue in excess of twenty-five million dollars; or
- Alone or jointly process personal information of 50,000 or
more California consumers, households or devices (i.e. any physical object that can connect to the internet or to another device).

Sale

§1798.140(t)(1) of CCPA defines “sale” quite broadly: it means ‘selling, renting, releasing, disclosing, disseminating, making available, transferring, or otherwise communicating orally, in writing, or by electronic or other means, a consumer’s personal information by the business to another business or a third party in exchange for a monetary or other valuable consideration’.

A valuable consideration from this point of view could mean a monetary exchange or a non-monetary consideration such as, for example, the provision of services or in-kind exchanges.

The three main elements of the definition of a “sale”:

• A sale must involve Personal Information as defined in CCPA. If the operation in question involves de-identified information, publicly available information, or aggregate consumer information said operation would not involve Personal Information.

• Movement or transfer of Personal Information from one business to another, or to a third party. For example, making a cookie ID available to a third party through real-time bidding – when this cookie relates to a consumer, a device or a household.

• Consideration is defined in California case-law as a “bargained-for exchange”, whereby the exchange of (e.g.) Personal Information in return for something of value is the main intention. If the transfer of personal information is just an incidental consideration, said transfer would not constitute a sale.
These elements are cumulative and they all must be present when a business is selling Personal Information. To be able to comply with CCPA, it is important to understand when a move of personal information constitutes a “sale”.

Exceptions
CCPA specifies four scenarios where personal information is being transferred from one business to another but where such movement of personal information does not constitute a “sale”:

• Communicating opt out preferences: this applies where a business shares personal information with a third party to alert them of the consumer’s opt out preferences.

• Intentional interaction with a third party: a business does not sell personal information if the consumer has directed the business to intentionally disclose their information or uses the business to intentionally interact with a third party.

• Mergers, acquisitions and other corporate sale transactions: this happens where a third party takes control of all or part of the business, and personal information is transferred as an asset as part of that transaction.

• A business purpose: which is defined as “a business’s or a service provider’s operational purposes, or other notified purposes”. To be covered by this exception, transfers of personal information to third parties must fulfill four requirements:
  1. Necessity of the transfer: the transfer must be necessary to perform a task that has a “business purpose”.
  2. Pursuant to a written contract that prohibits the service provider from “selling, retaining, using, or disclosing the personal information”.
  3. Notice to consumers: the business has provided
compliant notice to consumers of the fact that it intends to share with service providers.

4. Limitation: the service provider does not further “collect, sell, or use” the personal information of the consumer except as necessary to perform the “business purpose.”

The business purpose exception covers a wide array of standard business activities such as security and fraud prevention, auditing, internal research and service improvement, marketing, analytics, system security, as well as mere “short-term, transient use”. It also includes performing services provided on behalf of a business, such as maintaining customer accounts, processing orders or providing advertising or marketing services.

**CCPA and Cookies**

In its definition of Personal Information, CCPA includes a non-exhaustive list of identifiers and types of information that are of a personal nature, including the term “unique identifier”. §1798.140(x) of the CCPA indicates that a unique identifier is ‘a persistent identifier that can be used to recognize a consumer, a family, or a device that is linked to a consumer or family over time and across different services’.

Examples of “unique identifiers” in CCPA include IP addresses, cookies, beacons, pixel tags, mobile ad identifiers and similar tracking technologies. It is not clear however if cookies are considered a stand-alone identifier or if they are just listed as an example of a technology that has the potential to recognize a device or a user overtime and across services.

If the information collected and processed using cookies – or other tracking technologies – can be reasonably linked to a consumer, household or device, said processing must comply with CCPA rules.
Special attention must be paid to practices such as behavioral advertising using tracking technologies. This type of processing could constitute a sale of personal information (e.g.,) by enabling third party cookies on a website that allow those parties to read and or write information contained in the cookies.

**Consumer Rights**

CCPA protects several rights of California consumers, some of which are parallel to GDPR data subject rights. CCPA protects the right to receive information; the right to request (obtain) information from businesses that are processing personal data, or right of access; the right to deletion; the right opt-out of the sale of Personal Information; the right to not be discriminated for exercising consumer rights; and the right to data portability.

Below we review the right to receive information, and the right to opt-out in the context of cookies. They are the baseline themes for compliance with CCPA in a digital context where unique identifiers are being enabled. All other rights are important for compliance, but an in-depth analysis of every CCPA consumer right is out of the scope of this handbook.

The right to receive information and the right of access §1798.100(b) of the CCPA imposes on businesses that collect and process personal information the obligation of transparency. Businesses must inform consumers of:

- the information collected; and
- the processing purposes.

This information must be provided before or at the time of collection. Unlike the GDPR, CCPA does not draw a line between direct collection of information from the data subject, and
indirect collection through other sources. This means that the same timeframe should be respected, and the same amount of information should be made available to consumers before or at the time of collecting the data (e.g. before enabling cookies) regardless of the source.

Subparagraphs (A) and (B) of paragraph (5) of subdivision (a) of §1798.130 stipulate that, in order to comply with the transparency obligation, where businesses have a website they must also disclose in their online privacy policy a description of all consumer’s rights; and, a list of the categories of personal information that have been collected in the preceding 12 months. Businesses that sell Personal Information must include two separate lists in their online privacy policy:

• a list of categories of personal information sold in the preceding 12 months (or any lack of thereof); and
• a list of categories of personal information that was disclosed for a business purpose in the preceding 12 months (or any lack thereof).

In addition, when businesses sell personal information §1798.135(a) imposes the obligation to include a California-specific description of consumers’ privacy rights. Website publishers should inform users and enable them to exercise their right to opt-out of the sale of their personal information.

In a digital context where cookies are enabled, this is typically achieved with a cookie notice and other mechanisms such as banners providing layered information using conspicuous links.

The right to opt-out of the sale of personal information §1798.120(a) indicates that A consumer shall have the right, at any
time, to direct a business that sells personal information about the consumer to third parties not to sell the consumer’s personal information. This means that businesses that sell Personal Information must provide a clear and conspicuous link titled “Do Not Sell My Personal Information” on:

- their homepage;
- any webpage where you collect personal information;
- mobile app’s iOS/Android;
- their privacy notice; and
- in any other document or page describing the rights of California consumers.

This link must re-direct consumers to an Internet Web page that enables them to opt out of the sale of their personal information. §1798.120 stipulates that after consumer has exercised the right to opt-out, businesses are prohibited from selling that consumer’s personal information from that point forward, unless they receive express authorization from the same consumer for the sale of his or her Personal Information. Businesses must wait 12 months from the moment a consumer opted out in order to it subsequently receives express authorization from the consumer for the sale.

§1798.135 (a) (5) indicates that businesses can request consumers to opt back in, but they must respect the consumer’s decision to opt out for at least 12 months before asking the consumer to opt in.

To clarify, the opt out continues past the twelve-month period, the twelve-month period is only significant in that it represents the time that must pass for a company to try to gain a consumer’s consent to sell personal information again.
Minors between the age of 13 and 16 must be offered the possibility to opt-in, that is, to consent to their sale of their personal information before any transfer takes place.

In California, third parties that receive personal information are allowed to resell those data provided that consumers have received explicit information about the potential resale and are provided with a timely opportunity to exercise their right to opt-out of that resale.

The Attorney General in California was required to promulgate regulations to clarify and operationalize the CCPA. In general terms, the regulations that have been adopted by the Attorney General establish rules and procedures for the following:

- To facilitate and govern the exercise of the right to opt out of the sale of personal information.
- To regulate business compliance with consumers’ requests to opt-out.
- To promote consumer awareness of the right to opt out by standardizing opt-out icons or buttons.

**CCPA Cookie Banner Best Practices**

A CCPA cookie banner should include the following:

- Information about cookie use that includes details about the purpose for the use of cookies on the site and whether the site shares the information with third party companies.
- A button to accept or decline cookies. Although the CCPA doesn’t require consumers to opt-in to cookies before the website can drop cookies, it’s considered best practice to still inform the user about the data it collects. The cookie banner can include a link to a cookie settings page where a user can choose to opt-in or out, as well as see exactly what cookies
they’re consenting to.

- The CCPA requires that businesses include a link or button to an opt-out form on your home page. The button should read “Do Not Sell My Personal Information.” The link needs to route to a “Do Not Sell” page on your website. The Do Not Sell page should include a link to a privacy policy and the option to opt-out of personalized advertisements. This button is not considered a cookie banner, but it can be on or near the cookie banner – see the example below. Read more about how to comply with the CCPA Do Not Sell Rule in this blog post.

- The consumer must have the ability to withdraw consent for the sale of their personal information at any time in an easy-to-find spot on the website.

**Operationalization of the Right to Opt Out**

The Interactive Advertising Bureau (‘IAB’) and the IAB Tech Lab released technical specifications associated with the IAB California Consumer Privacy Act Compliance Framework for Publishers and Technology Companies. The Framework applies to RTB transactions involving the “sale” of Consumers’ personal information only when all participants in a transaction are Framework Participants. This Framework is flexible in that Publishers that choose not to participate can still send the same signals to downstream technology companies of their choosing.

This Framework was created as a multi-stakeholder effort with the dual aim of:

- creating a service provider relationship between publishers and tech companies; and
- providing publishers and tech companies who sell
personal information with a mechanism for limitation and accountability to be implemented when consumers opt out of a sale of PI.

This framework is created for publishers and tech companies to streamline consent – or lack thereof – to the sale of consumers’ Personal Information.

There are two main outcomes after a consumer opts-out of the sale of Personal Information:

• the sale of personal data must cease; and
• the wishes of consumers will be effectuated through a Limited Service Provider Agreement that has to flow downstream to tech companies within the value chain.

Although the Framework is primarily aimed at businesses that sell PI, the creation and facilitation of service provider relationships makes the Framework suitable for its use by businesses that do not sell PI.

The main benefits of this Framework are:

• It facilitates an efficient vehicle for the creation of service provider relationships in the ecosystem; and
• Provides a mechanism to demonstrate accountability for participants in the Framework, by requiring them to submit to audits to ensure that when the consumer opts-out, limited personal information is only being used for permitted business purposes under CCPA (e.g. auditing, detecting security incidents, short term transient use, etc.).
Part 6: California Privacy Rights Act (CPRA) of 2023

On 3 November 2020 Californians voted in favor of Proposition 24, consolidating California’s approach to the protection of consumer privacy by complementing and closing the gaps left by CCPA. The CPRA will enter into effect on 1 January 2023 and, with the exception of the right of access, will cover all personally identifiable information collected by a business on or after 1 January 2022.

Terminology Profiling
Profiling is defined as any form of automated processing of personal information to evaluate certain personal aspects relating to a natural person, and in particular to analyse or predict aspects concerning that natural person’s performance at work, economic situation, health, personal preferences, interests, reliability, behaviour, location, or movements.

Sensitive Personal Information
‘Sensitive personal information’ is defined as ‘(1) personal information that reveals (A) a consumer’s social security, driver’s license, state identification card, or passport number; (B) a consumer’s account log-in, financial account, debit card, or credit card number in combination with any required security or access code, password, or credentials allowing access to an account; (C) a consumer’s precise geolocation; (D) a consumer’s racial or ethnic origin, religious or philosophical beliefs, or union membership; (E) the contents of a consumer’s mail, email and text messages, unless the business is the intended recipient of the communication; (F) a consumer’s genetic data; and (2) (A) the processing of biometric information for the purpose of uniquely
identifying a consumer; (B) personal information collected and analysed concerning a consumer’s health; or (C) personal information collected and analysed concerning a consumer’s sex life or sexual orientation.’

**Consumer rights**

CPRA adds several rights that were left out of the CCPA and introduces the concept of sensitive personal information. Both changes are quite aligned with the GDPR model in that several GDPR rights are included here as well as certain obligations to businesses in favor of protecting consumer privacy.

The CPRA adds the right to rectify inaccurate information. The period for access requests is to be extended beyond 12 months as originally stipulated in CCPA. The CPRA will also extend the provisions for opt-out rules outlined in the CCPA. The CCPA’s rules on opt out, as with most CCPA provisions, are based on the CCPA’s definition of ‘sale’ which broadly includes acts of selling, renting, releasing, disclosing, disseminating, making available, and transferring personal information for monetary or other valuable consideration. This allows consumers to opt-out of the sale of their information to third parties. Whilst CCPA provides several exemptions concerning the sale of PII.

The CPRA will expand the application of opt-out rights to ‘sharing’ of information. The CPRA defines ‘share,’ ‘shared,’ or ‘sharing’ as ‘sharing, renting, releasing, disclosing, disseminating, making available, transferring, or otherwise communicating orally, in writing, or by electronic or other means, a consumer’s personal Information by the business to a third party for cross-context behavioral advertising, whether or not for monetary or other valuable consideration, including transactions between a business
and a third party for cross-context behavioral advertising for the benefit of a business in which no money is exchanged.’

With regards to minors, CPRA extends the right of minors (consumers under 16 years of age) to opt-in to the sale of their personal data and sets a period of 12 months for businesses to respect their choice. In other words, minors that do not consent to the sale of their PII should not be approached again with further consent requests for at least one year.

CPRA provides consumers with the right to limit the use and disclosure of their sensitive information only to what is necessary to perform the services or provide the goods reasonably expected by a consumer who has requested such services or products. In addition to the modified ‘Do Not Sell or Share My Personal Information’ links, businesses must also provide a clear and conspicuous link on their internet homepage titled ‘Limit the Use of My Sensitive Personal Information’. This can be achieved providing a single link to consumers that allows them to do both separately, opt out of the sale of their PII and limit the use or disclosure of their sensitive information. For example, a link to a preference center that enables consumers to signify their choice by toggling sliders “on” or “of”.

Categories and purposes of sensitive personal information that are collected or used by businesses must be communicated to consumers, at or before the point of collection. Further collection or use of additional sensitive information for purposes that are incompatible with those initially disclosed is only allowed provided prior notice to consumers.
Another significant change is that it introduces obligations of proportionality and retention limitation. Under the CPRA, the collection, use, retention and sharing of a consumer’s PII must be reasonably necessary and proportionate to achieve the purposes for which the information was collected or processed, and not further processed in a manner that is incompatible with those purposes.

CPRA also introduces disclosure obligations for businesses. These obligations consist of disclosure at collection of its intended retention period by category of PII or, if that is not possible, the basis for determining such periods, and it may not retain PII for longer than is necessary for the purposes disclosed at the time of collection.

**Third parties and contractual obligations**

CPRA imposes a similar contractual obligation to the controller-processor obligation in the GDPR. Section 4 of the CPRA requires all businesses that share or disclose PII to a third party or service provider for a business purpose to enter into an agreement with said third party.

The requirements of the contractual relationship include:

- Guarantees outlining that the contractor is aware of the restrictions on processing that are in place.
- Third parties to allow for the ongoing monitoring of compliance of the contract by the business; and
- Notification to the business when any other party is engaged in the cycle of processing of personal information and for service providers to notify a business if it engages a person to assist in the processing of PII on behalf of the business.
- Service providers are also prohibited from selling or sharing
the personal information that they have received from businesses.

**Exemptions**

CPRA extends the exemptions that were provided under the CCPA moratorium until 2023 on its applicability with regards to organisations that collect employee data. The moratorium on the application of The CPRA will extend similar exemptions to personal information exchanged in business to business (‘B2B’) communications where consumers act on behalf of the business and the information exchanged relates solely to the provision or receipt of a product or service to or from a business.

The CPRA outlines that its regulations on business with regards to rules on the rights to deletion, correction, access, information and data minimisation, do not apply to organisations that collect data from a natural person in the course of the natural person acting as ‘a job applicant to, an employee of, owner of, director of, officer of, medical staff member of, or independent contractor of that business to the extent that the natural person’s personal information is collected and used by the business solely within the context of the natural person’s role or former role as a job applicant to, an employee of, owner of, director of, officer of, medical staff member of, or an independent contractor of that business.’

**Enforcement**

CPRA mandates the creation of a new enforcer, the Consumer Protection Privacy Agency. This new state agency will be responsible for enforcing the provisions contained in CCPA and will have the authority to take action against businesses that fail to comply.
These requirements pose challenges that will require businesses to improve their data mapping and inventories and to maintain robust information governance programs. But also, businesses must take the necessary precautions to enable consumers to exercise their rights in a seamless manner.

## Company and Resources

**OneTrust Cookie Compliance**

OneTrust provides a comprehensive solution to help businesses meet the requirements for cookie consent. Our commitment to ongoing development means that as the legislative requirements change and new rules are imposed, we will ensure we continue to meet our customers’ needs. The OneTrust Cookie module allows you to do the following:

**Automated Auditing**

Cookie compliance starts with having an accurate understanding of what cookies and tracking technologies your sites are using. Only then can you make the proper risk-based decisions, and ensure your visitors are fully informed. Websites and the technologies they are built on are constantly changing — website publisher's needs a service that can keep up. Our auditing solution combines the power of the cloud with the unrivalled knowledge base of Cookiepedia to deliver regular, fully automated reports on your sites, giving you all the information you need to make sure you can both get and remain compliant.
Flexible Notice
We provide website publishers with the necessary tools to put a cookie notice on their websites, and with simple deployment and full editorial control over the content and user experience. OneTrust supports a wide range of user journey options and consent models, brand customization, and multi-lingual capabilities, allowing customers to easily tailor notices to their audiences. Our software-as-a-service model enables instant updates to changes to a live website without waiting for IT deployment cycles, giving the privacy and compliance team the autonomy they need to adapt to the changing regulatory landscape.

Real Consent and Control
Giving visitors the ability to consent to or deny cookies is important for true cookie compliance. With a rich mix of methods for responding to visitor choices, including integration with tag management services, OneTrust gives website publishers the power to provide granular controls for visitors, respecting their preferences while ensuring the website publisher’s control of the overall user experience.

Support from a Team of Experts
Adhering to cookie compliance laws is not as simple as it seems. Implementation of a solution often involves the needs, interests, and perspectives of business teams like marketing, legal, privacy, and IT. OneTrust’s experienced support team works with all these stakeholders to ensure customers meet their policy and legal commitments.
Resources

Legislation
GDPR

ePrivacy Directive
PDF/?uri=CELEX%3A02002L0058-20091219&from=EN

draft ePrivacy Regulation
https://www.dataguidance.com/advisories/eprivacy-regulation

CCPA & CPRA

Guidance
EU
European Commission:
cookie dedicated page

Draft ePrivacy Regulation explanatory memorandum
https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/
TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52017PC0010

EDPS
Opinion No. 6/2017 on the ePrivacy Regulation
Article 29 Working Party
Opinion No. 3/2016 on the evaluation and review of the ePrivacy Directive

EDPB
Guidelines 05/2020 on Consent under Regulation 2016/679

Opinion 5/2019 on the interplay between the ePrivacy Directive and the GDPR

Internal document on criteria of territorial competence of supervisory authorities to enforce Article 5(3) of the ePrivacy Directive

ICO
Guidance on the use of cookies and similar technologies
CNIL
Guidance and recommendations on cookies and online trackers


FAQs on guidelines and recommendations
https://www.cnil.fr/fr/questions-reponses-lignes-directrices-modificatives-et-recommandation-cookies-traceurs

Cookie walls and data monetization

DSK
Guidance on telemedia providers
https://www.datenschutzkonferenz-online.de/media/oh/20190405_oh_tmg.pdf

AEPD
Guide on the use of cookies

DPC
Guidance note on cookies and other tracking technologies
Cookie Handbook for Privacy Professionals

Garante
Guidelines on cookies and similar tracking technologies
https://www.garanteprivacy.it/web/guest/home/docweb/-/docweb-display/docweb/9677876#english

TRAFICOM
Guidelines on cookies and similar tracking technologies
https://www.traficom.fi/sites/default/files/media/file/Ev%C3%A4steohjeistus_palveluntarjoajille.pdf

IAB Europe
Transparency and Consent Framework ('TCF')
https://iabeurope.eu/transparency-consent-framework/

Case Law
Court of Justice of the European Union
Planet49 Case:

Fashion ID Case:
OneTrust
How OneTrust Helps: CCPA “Do Not Sell” Requirements

OneTrust Consent Management Platform is IAB TCF 2.0 Approved CMP
DEFINING THE FUTURE OF PRIVACY, SECURITY & GOVERNANCE

Powered by 200 awarded patents, our platform drives innovative compliance programs for companies of all sizes across the globe.

TECHNOLOGY PLATFORM
Most depth and breadth of privacy & security use cases than any solution in the market

REGULATORY RESEARCH
Most intelligent platform powered by massive regulatory datasets updated daily

PROFESSIONAL SERVICES
Most certified resources available worldwide to support your deployment

USER COMMUNITY
Largest and most active global community sharing best practices
OneTrust
PRIVACY, SECURITY & GOVERNANCE

INQUIRIES
info@onetrust.com

SUPPORT
support@onetrust.com

WEB
www.onetrust.com

LOCATIONS
Australia | Brazil | Canada | France | Germany
Japan | United Kingdom | United States