PRIVACY AND DATA PROTECTION BASED ON THE GDPR

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Privacy and Data Protection based on the GDPR

Understanding the General Data Protection Regulation

Leo Besemer

Foreword

Chapter 1 of "Privacy and Data Protection based on the GDPR" describes how in 1890 the Boston lawyer and future U.S. Supreme Court Justice, Louis Brandeis, together with his partner Samuel Warren, published in the Harvard Law Review a classic article – "The Right to Privacy". A key topical concern of Brandeis and Warren was the first introduction to consumer markets of portable and cheap cameras and their potential use by 19th century paparazzi to harm people's confidentiality. In other words, the main issue which triggered their article was technological development resulting in abuse of the individual's right to privacy – plus ça change …

The right to privacy was included in the European Convention on Human Rights drafted in 1950. It created an essential human rights standard which is binding on the Council of Europe members. The consistency it introduced to Europe is highly important. For instance, when comparing privacy rights in Irish and English law, Article 40.3.1 of the Constitution of Ireland adopted by a vote of the people in 1937 provides that "the State guarantees in its laws to respect, and, as far as practicable, by its laws to defend and vindicate the personal rights of the citizen". The courts have held that one of these personal rights is the Irish citizen's right to privacy.

On the other hand, in Kaye v Robertson [1991] FSR 62, it was stated by Lord Justice Glidewell that "it is well known that in English law there is no right to privacy, and accordingly there is no right of action for breach of a person's privacy". Both countries have subsequently incorporated the Convention rights – including the Article 8 right to privacy - into national legislation. And another vital point is that these are "human" rights – rights we all have by virtue of our common humanity and not because of our citizenships, or the jurisdictions in which we reside. Likewise, our right to the protection of our personal data under European Union law provides a shared standard for and across all Member States.

Although there is significant overlap between our right to privacy and our right to protection of our personal data, they are not identical. This is often misunderstood – privacy and data protection are frequently thought to be 100% synonymous. But as Leo points out, they are separate and distinct rights under the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Similarly, the Council of Europe has its Convention on Human Rights, separate from its more specific Convention 108+ for the protection of individuals with regard to the processing of personal data.

To demonstrate, Article 5 of the GDPR sets out six basic principles for the application of our data protection rights. And, for example, a failure to adhere to the obligation under Article 5(1)(f) for securing personal data from "accidental loss" is not, per se, an infringement of privacy. However, a data protection failure resulting in accidental loss, e.g., of a hospital patient's medical records, could have potentially fatal consequences – there can be nothing more serious.

This highlights a key theme of the GDPR – taking appropriate account of the risks to data subjects resulting from failures to protect their personal data. Part IV – "Risks assessment and mitigation" – covers this very well. The word "risk" appears eight times in the English language text of data protection Directive 95/46/EC, compared to 75 times in the GDPR. However, this is very frequently ignored by organizations. This was plainly shown to me by a survey I did in 2019

of data protection officer (DPO) recruitment advertisements throughout Europe. DPOs are required under Article 39(2) to take a risk-oriented approach to the performance of their tasks. The implication is that risk assessment and management is an essential component of the DPO's expertise. But in my survey this risk expertise was neither required by, nor desirable for, 76% of employers. It is also important to emphasize that although the six basic GDPR principles are legal obligations, they also provide a first-rate framework for the data management and governance described in Chapter 6. So, even if not required to, it would still be in every organization's interest to apply them. An obvious illustration is the Article 5(1)(d) requirement to keep personal data accurate and up-to-date. However, to the extent that our organizational decisions are based on data which is inaccurate or out of date, they will be flawed and less effective. Therefore, we clearly should be doing this anyway.

In order for organizations to reach a good compliance standard with the data protection principles, it must be absorbed into organizational culture from top to bottom. Under Article 38(3) GDPR, DPOs must "directly report to the highest management level". This infers that, firstly, the highest management must have a reasonable understanding of what is being reported to them and, secondly, that data protection compliance must be carried out as a strategic issue. Leo's book can provide very effective support to you and your colleagues in reaching this understanding and applying it in practice.

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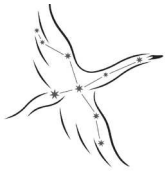

Fintan Swanton is the Irish Confederation of European Data Protection Organizations (CEDPO) representative.

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Acknowledgements

While writing the first version of this book, people in my neighborhood asked me "Isn't it incredibly boring to write about privacy law?" Others told me about the misconceptions they had seen in the companies and organizations where they work: "People seem to think that everything is different now, or even that everything they need to do is now illegal." You can hear the same message in TV news: "Government organization X cannot function properly because of the limitations imposed by privacy law," and "Errors in the healthcare sector because patient data may no longer be exchanged, while this is urgently needed".

Five years later, much of that sentiment is still the same. Companies are still struggling, trying to stretch the limitations of the GDPR to cover their needs to use personal data for commercial gain, using even more intrusive techniques than ever before. Government organizations are still among the worst offenders. In the Netherlands, where I live, members of parliament have proposed to change privacy laws, without even thinking for a minute that the Dutch parliament has no power to change European law. And what I wrote in the first version of this book is still valid. If government officials really need to process personal data to do their jobs properly, there will be a lawful ground for processing, usually some European or national law instructing them how.

It was a pleasure to write this book, and no, it is not boring. On the contrary, the more I studied the details to try to tell a clear and comprehensible story, the more interesting it became.

This book is not just an effort made by one solitary person in a silent room, somewhere in the rural north of the Netherlands. Acknowledgements to Rita Pilon and Carolina Baigorria of EXIN for their support while writing this book, to Fintan Swanton for kindly providing a perfect foreword that, five years after he wrote it for the first version of this book, has lost little of its actuality. And, last but not least, to Marja, my wife and the love of my life, for her unwavering support in everything I want to achieve.

How this book is organized

For many organizations processing personal data, the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) came as a shock. It was not so much its publication in the spring of 2016, but rather the articles that appeared about it in professional journals and newspapers, leading to protests and unrest. One of the concerns was that the "*law's heavy requirements would cause very expensive measures in companies and organizations*." In addition, "*the 173 recitals and 99 articles (left) too much room for interpretation,"* while "*companies that failed to comply would face draconian fines*."

This book intends to explain where these requirements came from and prove that the GDPR is not incomprehensible and that the principles are remarkably easy to understand. However, the other points cannot wholly be denied. The regulation forces companies to upgrade their data governance to a level where their data, in particular their personal data, is safe and the rights and freedoms of the data subjects involved are protected. For companies and other organizations that don't even try to comply, the fines imposed should be "*effective, proportionate and dissuasive,*" to quote Recital (151) of the GDPR.

Part I of the book covers the history of privacy and data protection, amongst other topics, showing that the "new" requirements of the GDPR were not that new at all. The material and geographical scope of the GDPR are explained, including how it interacts with and is complemented by other EU and national law. For example, when a type of processing falls outside the scope of GDPR, it does not necessarily mean no harmonized framework of national law covers it.

Part II is the backbone of this book. We start with the main characters. Who are those "stakeholders"? Who is responsible, who is accountable, and for what, exactly? What responsibilities, duties, rights, and obligations are associated with their role? The *controller*, responsible and accountable for compliance with the GDPR, including the implementation of the principles of personal data processing and the principles of data protection by design and by default. The *processor*, processing personal data on the instruction of the controller, but unlike before also responsible for their compliance with the GDPR. And the *data protection officer* as an independent advisor, facilitating a seamless merger between the company's interests and compliance with the GDPR.

We then move on to the practical side of things. The principles for processing personal data are included in Chapter 3, requiring, amongst others, that processing shall be lawful. Chapter 4 details the six lawful grounds for processing. Chapter 5 covers the rights of the data subject, the individual whose personal data will be processed. That includes what kind of requests executing those rights an organization should expect, and how to deal with those requests effectively and efficiently. Chapter 6 deals with data governance, outlining methods to deal with an organization's valuable data responsibly, and within the requirements set by the GDPR. The last chapter of this part, Chapter 7, examines modern techniques such as tracking and tracing for the collection of personal data and its further processing, and the area of tension between, on the one hand artificial intelligence and machine learning, which form the basis for valuable services and,

on the other hand, the requirements set by the law to protect the citizen whose personal data is required for this.

Part III deals with international transfers of data. The concept of data transfer and the rules regarding hiring processors in third countries. The protection of individuals in the EEA from risks of controllers processing their data through websites based in third countries, and of storage in the cloud, which in practice may amount to a server park somewhere in a distant country. The rules for transfers within the EEA and from the EEA to third countries.

Part IV concerns assessing the risks of processing and mitigating those risks. Chapter 10 details the data processing impact assessment (DPIA), which assesses the risks to the data subjects and their data caused by a processing operation and the risks for the organization. Chapter 11 covers data breaches and mitigating the consequences of such a security incident, including the mandatory procedures on investigation and notification.

Part V covers the framework of supervisory authorities (DPAs), each monitoring the implementation of the GDPR in their territory but also cooperating strongly to maintain harmonization. It also covers their legitimate basis, competencies, tasks, and powers. The role of the DPA in enforcement is covered: inspections, warnings, and administrative fines.

In this book, I refer to a "supervisory authority" as an authority overseeing international cooperation and to a "data protection authority" (DPA) as the national (or regional) institution with its tasks and responsibilities. In the context of the GDPR, there is no real difference between the two terms mentioned here.

The **Appendices** contain sources and references. The literature used in writing this book and for further reading, among them the publications of the European Data Protection Board (EDPB), extensively detailing the concepts and articles of the GDPR. And there is an index to help you find the topics you are looking for.

References to the GDPR

In this book, I will often provide references to the General Data Protection Regulation, both in footnotes and by quoting parts of the legal text, like this:

> 1. Personal data shall be:
> (a) processed lawfully, fairly and in a transparent manner in relation to the data subject ('lawfulness, fairness and transparency');
> (b) collected for specified, explicit and legitimate purposes (…)
>
> Article 5 GDPR.

In a footnote, and other literature on this topic, the second sentence of the article quoted above would be referred to as Article 5(1)(a), which is pronounced as Article 5, paragraph 1, subparagraph a. The ellipsis (…) in the second subparagraph indicates that the quote does not contain the complete article. Article 5 consists of two paragraphs, the first subdivided into six subparagraphs (a through f).

Preceding the 99 articles, the GDPR also contains 173 recitals:

Whereas:

The protection of natural persons in relation to the processing of personal data is a fundamental right. Article 8(1) of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union (the 'Charter') and Article 16(1) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) provide that everyone has the right to the protection of personal data concerning him or her.

Recital (1) GDPR.

This (first) recital of the GDPR would be referred to as Recital (1) of the GDPR, with (Arabic) figures enclosed in brackets. The recitals are an essential part of the GDPR, as they provide context and explanation of the meaning of the articles. You cannot fully understand the articles' meaning, intention, scope, and reach without considering the corresponding recitals. Unfortunately, the text of the GDPR does not indicate which recitals a specific article relates to. One must read through the complete document to see the connections.

Or take the better alternative: read this book.

PART I | Privacy and data protection history and scope

In this book's first part, we look into the history of privacy and data protection law. The need for privacy has increased tremendously over the past century, fueled by advancements in technology that offer ever more opportunities to collect information about individuals. The concept of privacy as a fundamental right was only established after, and undoubtedly also as a result of, the Second World War.

Chapter 1 describes how the right to privacy was incorporated in treaties and later in law, and how this ultimately led to the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) which is applicable law in the EU and the Member States of the European Economic Area.

We then move on to the context in which the GDPR interacts with other European law and Member State national law. We sometimes tend to forget how much legislative power we have given the EU. Based on the *Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU),* however, the GDPR as a European regulation not only interacts with national law*,* it *supersedes* it.

The GDPR is crucial for anyone who processes personal data on European residents in any way, but the scope of the law is not unlimited. The rest of Chapter 1 is devoted to this. Questions like "can we still send season's greetings" and "what about the rowing club's list of members" are answered there.

1 History and context

Key subjects

In this chapter, we will cover:

- The history of privacy as a concept.
- Privacy and data protection from a legal viewpoint.
- Applicable European and national law regarding privacy and data protection.
- The scope of the General Data Protection Regulation.

1.1 The history of privacy and data protection

At the time our distant ancestors lived as nomads, privacy was not an issue. It was in the group's interest to stay close at all times, to hunt together, to look out for the group and help defend it, to share food, shelter, and even body heath. Knowing each other intimately was important because of the need to trust each other's skills and be aware of hostile intentions, such as the continuous struggle for leadership of the group. In those circumstances, seeking solitude would be seeking danger, and being banned from the group would almost certainly lead to death.

This lack of personal privacy did not really change in the ages thereafter. Poor people had little or no privacy, either because they were not free (slaves, serfs, servants, etc.) or because they lived closely together in settlements or neighborhoods where the same need for mutual help and support still existed. But the rich had hardly any privacy either, because the habits and the necessity of security required the continuous presence of many staff. Seclusion was seen as abnormal behavior. The view was that you would only seek it if you had something to hide, only if you wanted to do something that could not bear the light of day.

The need for privacy as we know it today came up for the first time at the end of the 19th century, when newspapers appeared with extensive society pages, taking gossip to a new level. The announcement on 22 October 1882 of the engagement of Mr. Samuel D. Warren Jr. and Miss. Mabel Bayard was a kind of starting point. Samuel Warren was a young lawyer from Boston, USA, and as such, not used to being the subject of newspaper headlines. His fiancée, however, was a daughter of Senator Bayard and what we today would call a celebrity. Over the following decade, more than sixty newspaper articles appeared, describing down to the smallest detail their social life, their marriage, their family's highlights and sad events (Gaida 2008).

The continuing intrusive press coverage ultimately led to an article in Harvard Law Review, written by Louis D. Brandeis and Samuel D. Warren Jr. (Brandeis 1890), which is widely regarded as the first publication in the United States to advocate a right to privacy.

> "The press is overstepping in every direction the obvious bounds of propriety and of decency. Gossip is no longer the resource of the idle and of the vicious, but has become a trade, which is pursued with industry as well as effrontery. To satisfy a prurient taste, the details of sexual relations are spread broadcast in the columns of the daily papers. To occupy the indolent, column upon column is filled with idle gossip, which can only be procured by intrusion upon the domestic circle. (…)"
>
> "Recent inventions and business methods call attention to the next step which must be taken for the protection of the person, and for securing to the individual what Judge Cooley calls the right 'to be let alone'."
>
> "Instantaneous photographs and newspaper enterprise have invaded the sacred precincts of private and domestic life; and numerous mechanical devices threaten to make good the prediction that what is whispered in the closet shall be proclaimed from the house-tops. (…)"
>
> Source: (Brandeis, 1890)

In the article, Warren and Brandeis advocate the necessity of a law enforcing this right to be let alone and describe its boundaries as an extension of the common law. At that time, privacy was thought of as a relational matter, only existing in the context of home and family. At first, however, this desire to control personal information and social image and the plea for a legal system to protect these rights did not get much attention.

Up to and directly after World War II, state constitutions protected only aspects of privacy. Such guarantees concerned, for example, the inviolability of the home and correspondence and the classical problem of unreasonable searches of the body. No state constitution, however, contained a general guarantee of the right to privacy. An integral guarantee protecting the more specific aspects of privacy and private life in their entirety, was unknown at the time.

1.1.1 Human rights law

1.1.1.1 Universal Declaration of Human Rights

After World War II, the UN Commission of Human Rights (UNCHR) started working on what was initially intended as an *International Bill of Rights*. It was one of the first attempts to make globally enforceable agreements. EU history literature (Diggelman, 2014) describes the tedious discussions between the members of the Committee, representatives with different legal and cultural backgrounds from all regions of the world. This was a time when the right of women to be treated as equals to men was hardly accepted anywhere, a time when governments all over the world had come to regard torture and inhuman treatment as acceptable means to an end.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) is a milestone document in the history of human rights. The UDHR was proclaimed by the United Nations General Assembly in Paris on December 10, 1948 (General Assembly resolution 217A) as a common standard of achievements for all peoples and all nations. For the first time, it sets out fundamental human rights to be universally protected. In the first line of its preamble, the UDHR states that "*recognition of the*

inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world."

The declaration explicitly defines the right to a private life and the freedoms associated with this:

> No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honor and reputation.
> Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.
> Article 12 UDHR.

However, the declaration also defines the right to freedom of opinion, information, and expression:

> Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.
> Article 19 UDHR.

These provisions seem at odds, particularly where exercising the rights defined in Article 19 might result in an invasion of privacy, violating Article 12. This potential conflict, however, is reconciled later:

> In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.
> Article 29(2) UDHR.

Balancing the right to information and the rights and freedoms of individuals, however, is a challenge. A thread through the history of privacy law to the present day.

It took another eighteen years before the United Nations agreed on the *International Bill of Human Rights* in UN Assembly Resolution 217 (III). This consisted of the *UDHR*, the *International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights* (ICCPR, 1966), and the *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights* (ICESCR, 1966). The two covenants entered into force in 1976, after a sufficient number of countries had ratified them. The covenants require countries ratifying them to include the principles described in them into their national legislation.

The provision of Article 17 ICCPR is almost identical to Article 12 UDHR, but the word *unlawful* has been added twice:

> No one shall be subjected to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to unlawful attacks upon his honor and reputation.
> Article 17 ICCPR.

The amendment changes the concept of the right to privacy in the sense that governments have the right to intrude on a person's privacy for reasons explicitly laid down by law.

1.1.1.2 European Convention on Human Rights

Figure 1.1 - logo COE.

In the aftermath of World War II, a strong need was felt for European cooperation. Many pro-European movements actively promoted the establishment of an organization that would prevent a return to totalitarian regimes and defend fundamental freedoms, peace and democracy. On 5 May 1949, the Council of Europe was founded in London. Its aim, according to Article 1 of its statute, is "*to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realizing the ideals and principles which are their common heritage and facilitating their economic and social progress.*" An important role of the Council of Europe is to promote human rights through international conventions.

One of the first was the Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, better known as the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR), which entered into force on 3 September 1953. The ECHR is important because of the scope of fundamental freedoms it protects. These include the right to life, prohibition of torture, prohibition of slavery and forced labor, the right to liberty and security, the right to a fair trial no punishment without law, the *right to respect for private and family life,* freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom of expression, freedom of assembly and association, the right to marry, the right to an effective remedy and the prohibition of discrimination.

Figure 1.2 - Council of Europe Member States.

Figure 1.2 shows that the Council of Europe has grown from the original ten members in 1949 to 46 members today, including all members of the European Union. In addition, Canada, Israel, Japan, Mexico, Vatican City, and the USA are admitted as non-voting observers. Belarus and the Russian Federation were expelled from membership in 2022, due to Russia's attack on Ukraine and Belarus' assistance in doing so.

Concerning privacy and data protection, the ECHR includes the text of the UDHR:

> 1. Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.
>
> 2. There shall be no interference by a public authority with the exercise of this right except such as is in accordance with the law and is necessary in a democratic society in the interests of national security, public safety or the economic well-being of the country, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health or morals, or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.
>
> Article 8 ECHR.

In the ECHR, just as in the ICCPR,[1] this protection of the rights of individuals is not absolute. There may be lawful reasons of public interest for governments to breach an individual's right to privacy. Just as the UDHR does, the ECHR recognizes that there is a need to balance the rights of individuals with *justifiable* interferences with these rights.

The importance of this text as a part of the European Convention is that it is now part of a treaty to uphold human rights throughout the Member States of the Council of Europe. New members of the Council are expected to ratify the ECHR and other Council of Europe treaties at their earliest opportunity. The ECHR is also a significant and powerful legal instrument because the European Court of Human Rights enforces it. The rulings of the Court are binding on the Member States concerned.

1.1.1.3 OECD Guidelines and the Treaty of Strasbourg

In the 1970s, the progress in data processing and the increased possibilities in the use of telecommunications led to concerns that Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights was no longer sufficient to protect "*the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.*" Large mainframes were introduced, allowing big companies and public administrations to improve the collection, processing and sharing of the personal data of millions of people, using large databases. As a result, a need was felt for new standards that would allow individuals to exercise more control over their personal information. At the same time, international trade required the free international flow of information. The challenge was once again to find a balance between these aims.

Figure 1.3 - Logo OECD.

A new effort to reconcile the protection of privacy and the need for free international flow of personal data came from the Organization for

1] International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. See section 1.1.1.1.

Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). This organization, founded on 30 September 1961, aims to promote policies designed to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment, and a rising standard of living in member and non-member countries, while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy.

In 1980, the OECD developed the *"Guidelines on the Protection of Privacy and Trans-border flows of Personal Data,"* providing basic rules concerning the protection of personal data and privacy and on cross-border data flow. The aim was to help harmonize the data protection laws between countries. The Guidelines were not legally binding, but intended as a basic framework for national data protection law worldwide, introducing the set of data protection principles that we find today in Article 5 GDPR. These principles will be discussed in detail in Part II of this book.

1.1.1.4 Council of Europe (CoE) Convention 108

The OECD guidelines were formalized in 1981 in Council of Europe Convention 108, the *Convention for the Protection of Individuals with regard to Automatic Processing of Personal Data*, which made it the first legally binding international instrument to set standards for the protection of personal data, whilst at the same time again aiming for a balance with the need for a free flow of personal data for international trade purposes. Convention 108 is also known as "the Treaty of Strasbourg," but due to the place of Strasbourg in European history, there are many treaties by that name. Convention 108 came into force on 10 October 1985, after the required five Member States had ratified it.

A weakness in Convention 108 proved to be that it did not provide for transfers of personal data to countries that had not signed Convention 108. This was addressed in 2001 with the *Additional Protocol to the Convention for the Protection of Individuals with regard to Automatic Processing of Personal Data regarding supervisory authorities and transborder data flows.* (CETS 181). This additional protocol introduced independent supervisory authorities in each country that signed it and included the concept of an 'adequate' (in contrast to equivalent) level of protection for cross-border personal data transfers to non-EU countries.

It should be noted that CoE Convention 108 is still binding on states that have ratified it. Over the years, the European Court of Human Rights (ECtHR) has ruled that personal data protection is an important part of the right to respect for private life (EHCR Article 8), and has been guided by the principles of Convention 108 in determining whether there has been an interference with this fundamental right.

In 2012, Convention 108 was modernized after public consultations, including reinforcements to privacy protection in the digital arena. The modernization process was completed by adopting a protocol amending Convention 108 (Protocol CETS No. 223). In 2018, the treaty was modernized again and aligned with new developments, including the GDPR. Ratification was also opened up to non-members of the Council of Europe. To date, 55 countries have ratified the treaty, including eight non-members of the Council of Europe.[2] The latter is important because

2] Argentina, Cape Verde, Morocco, Mauritius, Mexico, Senegal, Tunisia, Uruguay. The Russian Federation also ratified the treaty, but that country was expelled from the Council of Europe in 2022, because of the aggression against neighboring Ukraine.

these countries also declare that they will bring their data protection legislation into line with the level of protection offered by the GDPR.[3]

1.1.1.5 Schengen Agreement and Single European Act

The Schengen Agreement, abolishing internal borders between most EEC Member States and the political changes in Europe in the 1980s, led to the *Single European Act* (SEA),[4] which came into force on 1 July 1987. An important aim of this Act was to establish a single European market by 31 December 1992. It was the first significant revision of the 1957 Treaty of Rome.[5] The SEA reformed the legislative processes of the European Community, particularly concerning the decision-making procedure within the Council, the powers of the European Commission and the powers of the European Parliament, changing it into a formal legislative body. The SEA was intended to remove barriers and to increase harmonization and competitiveness among European countries.

A next step in developing an "*ever-closer union among the peoples of Europe*" was the Maastricht Treaty, which entered into force on 1 November 1993. The Treaty merged the European Economic Community (EEC), the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) into a single institutional structure, the European Union (EU). The EU consists of the Council, the European Parliament, the European Commission, the Court of Justice and the Court of Auditors, which exercise their powers in accordance with the Treaties.

1.1.1.6 Data Protection Directive 95/46/EC

Though the objective of Convention 108 was to introduce a harmonized approach, even among the few countries that adopted national laws based on the principles described in it the implementation was quite diverse. Growing concerns about this fragmented approach led to a proposal for a Council directive on the protection of individuals with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data, generally known as *Data Protection Directive* 95/46/EC. As the title indicates, the directive aims to reconcile the free flow of data between Member States and the protection of the fundamental rights of individuals, at the same time complying with articles 8 and 10 of the ECHR. It is based on the same protection principles as the CoE Convention 108, but now as an EU directive binding to the Member States, forcing them to create national law in line with the framework.

1.1.1.7 Charter of Fundamental Rights

The rights of every individual in the EU were established at different times, in different ways, and in different forms. At the beginning of the new millennium, the EU decided to include all these fundamental rights in a single document. The *Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European*

3] https://www.coe.int/en/web/data-protection/convention108/modernized. (Visited 22-11-2024)
4] SEA. https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/treaty/sea/sign.
5] Formally the Treaty on the Establishment of the European Economic Community.

Union (the "Charter", proclaimed in December 2002) included the general principles set out in the ECHR. The Charter also covers all the rights found in the case law of the Court of Justice of the EU and other rights and principles resulting from the common constitutional traditions of EU countries.

The Charter explicitly refers to both the protection of privacy and the protection of personal data as a fundamental right:

Article 7 – Respect for private and family life

Everyone has the right to respect for his or her private and family life, home and communications.

Article 8 – Protection of personal data

1. Everyone has the right to the protection of personal data concerning him or her.
2. Such data must be processed fairly for specified purposes and on the basis of the consent of the person concerned or some other legitimate basis laid down by law. Everyone has the right of access to data which has been collected concerning him or her, and the right to have it rectified.
3. Compliance with these rules shall be subject to control by an independent authority

Source: Charter of the Fundamental Rights of the European Union (2000/C 364/01).

After 2000, the European Union grew even more rapidly in terms of the number of countries and political power. From 1 January 2002 the Euro became the currency in twelve EU countries.

In May 2004, ten countries joined the EU, in 2007 followed by Bulgaria and Romania, bringing the number of Member States to 27 and effectively expanding the territory over 1,000 km eastwards. The only addition since 2007 has been Croatia, which joined the Union in July 2013.

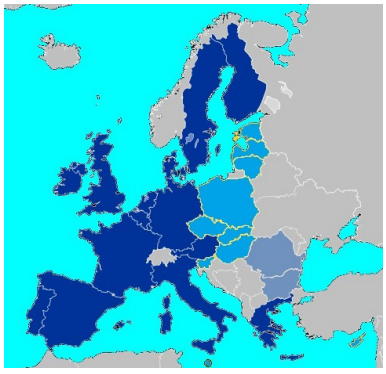

Figure 1.4 - Between 2004 and 2007, ten countries joined the European Union.

1.1.1.8 Treaty of Lisbon

On 1 December 2009, the Treaty of Lisbon became effective. Its main aim was to strengthen the structures of the enlarged European Union. The Lisbon Treaty amended the "*Treaty establishing the European Community*" again, renaming it the *Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union* (TFEU).

The Lisbon Treaty for the first time clarifies the powers of the Union. It distinguishes three types of competences: exclusive competence, where the Union alone can legislate, and Member States only implement; shared competence, where the Member States can legislate and adopt legally binding measures if the Union has not done so; and supporting competence, where the EU adopts measures to support or complement Member States' policies. Union competences can now be handed back to the Member States in the course of a treaty revision.