



**COUNTRY
COMPARATIVE
GUIDES 2023**

The Legal 500 Country Comparative Guides

United States TMT

Contributor

Baker & McKenzie S.A.S



Samuel G. Kramer

Partner | samuel.kramer@bakermckenzie.com

This country-specific Q&A provides an overview of tmt laws and regulations applicable in United States.

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UNITED STATES

TMT



1. Is there a single regulatory regime that governs software?

No, there is no singular regulatory regime that governs software.

2. How are proprietary rights in software and associated materials protected?

Software is protected by U.S. copyright laws and international treaties. Registration of copyright is available (and required for enforcement proceedings), but copyright protection attaches from the moment the work is fixed. The source code to software, if properly maintained in confidence, may be treated as a trade secret. Software may also be eligible for patent protection; however, the patent-eligibility of software has been narrowed significantly by the courts in recent years.

The U.S. Supreme Court recognized software implemented business processes as patentable in its 1998 *State Street Bank* decision. After a decade of overly broad software patents issued by the patent office, the Supreme Court once again ruled on the patentability of software-implemented business processes in *Bilski v. Kappos* and substantially narrowed their eligibility for patent protection. Subsequently, in *Alice Corp v. CLS Bank*, the Supreme Court emphasized that embodying otherwise common aspects of business operations in software would not be eligible for patent protection.

The Federal Circuit's 2018 decision in *Berkeimer v. HP Inc.* limited patent rejections and invalidations based upon well-understood or common activities. In January 2019, the US Patent and Trademark Office issued its Revised Patent Subject Matter Eligibility Guidance memo setting out the procedures for applying subject matter eligibility criteria. Recent Federal Circuit court rulings have also narrowed patentability exclusions, making room for greater patentability of software. However, in 2022, the U.S. Supreme Court turned away two cases

that offered the opportunity the further clarify the patentability of software inventions.

Software is also protected by contract under the terms of the licensor's license agreement. In *Pro CD v. Zeidenberg*, the court upheld the use of a shrinkwrap license agreement to extend the protection afforded by federal copyright laws' exclusive rights.

3. In the event that software is developed by a software developer, consultant or other party for a customer, who will own the resulting proprietary rights in the newly created software in the absence of any agreed contractual position?

In the absence of ownership transfer under a development agreement, the person who created the software will own the proprietary rights in the software created. Software created by employees within the scope of their employment will be owned by their employer upon creation. There are also categories of works that are owned by the commissioning party in the first instance. For example, the copyright in a work made for hire, or a contribution to a collective work, vests in the commissioning party upon creation, without the requirement of a written assignment from the creator.

4. Are there any specific laws that govern the harm / liability caused by Software / computer systems?

There are no laws that are specific to software and computer systems with respect to the harm they may cause. Traditional legal concepts, including negligence and warranty, have been used to provide recourse to persons who have suffered damages from defective software or computer systems. Note, however, that courts may decline to extend remedies for defective goods, such as product liability principles, to software. In *Quinteros v. InnoGames*, the court held "[O]nline games are not subject to Washington's product liability law. [It]

is software as a service, not an 'object,' hence Plaintiff's product liability claim must fall as a matter of law."

5. To the extent not covered by (4) above, are there any specific laws that govern the use (or misuse) of software / computer systems?

The Computer Fraud and Abuse Act, 18 U.S.C. Section 1030 ("CFAA") criminalizes various computer-related conduct, such as intentional access to protected computers without authorization and obtaining information (18 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(2)(c)); knowing access to protected computers with intent to defraud if the value of the use exceeds \$5,000 (18 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(4)); knowing transmission of programs, information, codes, or commands and thereby intentionally causing damage to protected computers (18 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(5)(A)); intentional access to protected computers without authorization and the resulting damage (18 U.S.C. § 1030(a)(5)(B-C)). The phrase "protected computer" in the CFAA refers to any computer used in interstate or foreign commerce or communication. 18 U.S.C. § 1030(e)(2)(B).

Other federal statutes, such as the Securities Act of 1933, have been amended to cover computer-related conduct, and computer-related crimes such as hacking also can be prosecuted under numerous other federal statutes, including, e.g., the Copyright Act, the National Stolen Property Act, mail and wire fraud statutes, the Electronic Communications Privacy Act of 1986, the Telecommunications Act of 1996, and the Child Pornography Prevention Act of 1996.

Finally, many states have enacted anti-hacking and/or anti-wiretapping laws designed to address computer-related crimes. State consumer fraud statutes and other state tort and contract theories (e.g., trespass, invasion of privacy) also may be used to address computer crimes such as hacking.

6. Other than as identified elsewhere in this overview, are there any technology-specific laws that govern the provision of software between a software vendor and customer, including any laws that govern the use of cloud technology?

There are no technology specific laws governing the provision of software between a vendor and a customer. Export control regulations may attach to specific technologies, such as those with both commercial and military application, to restrict the export, deemed

export and transshipment of controlled technologies to specific countries and their nationals.

The Clarifying Lawful Overseas Use of Data Act ("CLOUD Act") permits US law enforcement to compel U.S. technology companies to provide data requested in lawfully issued subpoenas, even if the data is stored on servers located offshore.

Certain states have enacted technology specific laws. In California, the Bolstering Online Transparency Act (BOT Act) makes it unlawful to interact with a person online to incentivize a sale or transaction in goods or to influence a vote in an election without disclosing that the communication is with a bot. In Illinois, the AI Video Interview Act employers are required to disclose and obtain the consent of the applicant to use artificial intelligence applications in the evaluation of an applicant. Illinois' Biometric Information Privacy Act broadly requires an individual's consent to collect or disclose their biometric identifiers, with each use constituting a separate claim. Maryland enacted a statute prohibiting use of facial recognition technology to create of a facial template during pre-employment interviews without the applicant's consent.

7. Is it typical for a software vendor to cap its maximum financial liability to a customer in a software transaction? If 'yes', what would be considered a market standard level of cap?

Yes, software vendors typically cap their liability, subject to certain exceptions. In a perpetual license model, software vendors will typically cap their liability at the fees paid by the licensee for the software. Under term based licenses, and software as a service, vendors will typically limit their liability at fees paid during the 12 months immediately preceding the event giving rise to the liability.

8. Please comment on whether any of the following areas of liability would typically be excluded from any financial cap on the software vendor's liability to the customer or subject to a separate enhanced cap in a negotiated software transaction (i.e. unlimited liability): (a) confidentiality breaches; (b) data protection breaches; (c) data security breaches (including loss of data); (d) IPR infringement claims; (e)

breaches of applicable law; (f) regulatory fines; (g) wilful or deliberate breaches.

(a) Breaches of confidentiality are typically excluded from liability caps in software licenses and SaaS agreements. However, vendors frequently neglect to exempt these breaches from the liability exclusions concerning the non-recoverability of indirect damages, which are the type of damages that typically arise from breach of confidentiality (e.g., lost profits). (b) Data protection breaches typically are not unlimited, but are frequently capped by some multiple of the ordinary liability cap (e.g., 3 to 5 times the ordinary liability cap). (c) Data security breaches are not typically addressed separately in the liability exclusions of a license or SaaS agreement; rather, a data security breach that expose personally identifiable information are treated as a data protection breach, and data security breaches that expose sensitive business information are treated as a confidentiality breach. (d) IPR infringement claims are typically limited to indemnification of third party claims alleging infringement, and in those cases, the liability is uncapped. However, the uncapped indemnity for third party IPR claims typically have both substantive and procedural requirements, including granting the vendor sole control of the defense or settlement of the claim, and excluding claims arising from the licensee's failure to implement updates that would have eliminated the infringement. (e) Breaches of applicable law are not typically excluded from the liability limitations in software license and SaaS agreements. (f) Regulatory fines are not typically excluded from the liability limitations in software license and SaaS agreements. (g) Wilful or deliberate breaches are usually referred to as 'intentional misconduct' or intentional wrongdoing' and are typically excluded from the liability limitations in software license and SaaS agreements.

9. Is it normal practice for software source codes to be held in escrow for the benefit of the software licensee? If so, who are the typical escrow providers used?

It is not typical for a software vendor to put standard software in escrow for the benefit of a non-exclusive licensee. The source code to specially developed software, or customized software, is often placed into escrow and subject to a tripartite source code escrow agreement among the vendor, the licensee and the escrow agent, identifying the release conditions.

10. Are there any export controls that

apply to software transactions?

Yes, the export of software and related technical information is subject to export controls under the Export Administration Regulations and the International Traffic in Arms regulations. Unless the software and related technical information falls under the EAR 99 "no license required" exception, the export will require a license from the Bureau of Industry and Security.

11. Other than as identified elsewhere in this questionnaire, are there any specific technology laws that govern IT outsourcing transactions?

There are no omnibus laws that regulate outsourcing at the national or state level. There are sectoral regulations that apply to outsourcing of core services. For example, the Federal Reserve and the Office of the Comptroller of Currency and the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau all require covered institutions to maintain certain risk management standards in their agreements with third party providers of core services.

Under the pandemic related Coronavirus Aid, Relief and Economic Security Act ("CARES Act"), mid-size businesses were eligible for direct loans from the federal government. Loan recipients were required to certify that they would not outsource or offshore jobs for the term of the loan plus two years.

12. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that protect individual staff in the event that the service they perform is transferred to a third party IT outsource provider, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws.

There is no law or regulation in the U.S. that protects the employment of an individual in the event their job function is transferred to a third party. At the federal level, the Worker Adjustment and Retraining Notification Act ("WARN Act") requires employers with more than 100 employees to provide at least 60 days' advanced notice of planned closings and mass layoffs. State versions of the WARN Act may impose more stringent obligations, such as longer notice periods or higher damages for non-compliance.

13. Which body(ies), if any, is/are

responsible for the regulation of telecommunications networks and/or services?

The term “telecommunications service” is defined by the Federal Communications Commission (“FCC”) to mean the offering of telecommunications – i.e., the transmission of information of the user’s choosing, without change in the form or content of the information as sent and received – for a fee directly to the public, or to such classes of users as to be effectively available directly to the public. International common carriers are required to obtain FCC authorization. In addition, most states, including California, require intrastate domestic common carriers to obtain a state authorization through public utility commissions (“PUCs”).

14. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern telecommunications networks and/or services, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws.

The Telecommunications Act of 1996 is the primary law applicable to telecommunication services, including telephony, radio, broadcast and, to a limited extent, Internet services. The Act regulates telecommunication carriers’ interconnection obligations, universal service obligations, broadcast spectrum and ownership provisions, cable services and restrictions related to obscenity and violence in programming. The Act had also applied to Internet services under the so-called “net neutrality” rules, but in 2018 the FCC overruled its prior finding that Internet services were telecommunication services regulated under the Act, and rolled back associated net-neutrality regulations. At the state level, public utility commissions (PUCs) have limited overlapping jurisdiction with the FCC, and can set rates for smaller rural telecom providers and establish franchises for cable service.

Licenses are required to provide telephony services (both landlines and wireless), as well as radio and television (broadcast and cable) services. Citizens band (“CB”) radio may be operated without a license; otherwise, use of the public radio frequency spectrum for radio, television or wireless telephony requires authorization from the FCC and allocation of spectrum.

Section 214 Authorization. All new common carriers must register with the FCC and provide certain contact information. The FCC provides blanket authority for the provision of interstate telecommunications service on a common carrier basis, and this blanket authority covers

all providers. Consequently, unlike international common carriers, which must secure Section 214 authorizations, interstate common carriers are not required to apply for prior FCC authorization. Before providing any international telecommunications service between the United States and another country, a new common carrier must apply for and obtain an international Section 214 authorization from the FCC.

Although foreign entities may hold international Section 214 authorizations, the application process for a foreign entity to obtain a Section 214 authorization can take more than a year. Team Telecom, an ad hoc working group representing the U.S. Executive Branch, reviews Section 214 applications that involve foreign ownership to determine whether they raise national security, law enforcement, foreign policy, or trade policy issues, and there is no deadline by which Team Telecom must complete this review. In April 2020, the Committee for the Assessment of Foreign Participation in the United States Telecommunications Services Sector (the “Committee”) was established by executive order, formalized Team Telecom and set out time limits for the review process. The Committee has the power to review existing licenses and new applications involving foreign ownership. The Committee can recommend the denial or revocation of licenses to the FCC, or recommend mitigation measures. On the basis of Committee recommendations, the FCC denied or revoked several Chinese owned telecommunication companies’ Section 214 authorization applications over national security and law enforcement concerns.

Intrastate telecommunications services are regulated by state PUCs. Although each state’s rules and procedures differ, many states require intrastate common carriers to register or obtain a state license prior to providing telecommunications services. Certain states, including California, mandate an application and approval process. In California, this approval process can take six to nine months. Other states merely require prior notice.

15. Which body(ies), if any, is/are responsible for data protection regulation?

The Federal Trade Commission (“FTC”), under its general Section 5 authority to prevent unfair and deceptive practices, also enforces protections for personal data by requiring companies to observe the promises made by a company in its privacy policy. The FTC also enforces sectoral privacy regulations. At the state level, it is typically the state’s attorney general enforces the privacy laws and regulations enacted in their states.

16. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern data protection, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws.

The U.S. does not have omnibus protection for personal data; rather, it has taken a sectoral approach. Health related information is protected under the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act ("HIPAA"). HIPAA's Privacy Rule (and the privacy requirements under the Health Information Technology for Economic and Clinical Health Act ("HITECH Act")) regulate the use and disclosure of protected health information by "covered entities", such as health plans, insurers and medical service providers, as well as "business associates", such as contractors and other service providers to covered entities. Individuals have a right to know the protected health information held by a covered entity and to require the correction of inaccurate information. HIPAA's Security Rule requires covered entities and business associates to maintain administrative, physical and technical measures to protect health information.

Consumer financial data is protected under the Financial Privacy Rule pursuant to the Gramm-Leach-Bliley Act ("GLBA"). The Privacy Rule requires financial institutions to provide privacy notices to consumers that permit them to opt out of sharing financial data with unaffiliated third parties. GLBA's Security Rule requires written security procedures to be in place for the safeguarding of consumer financial information. The Fair Credit Reporting Act ("FCRA") and the Fair and Accurate Credit Transactions Act ("FACTA") regulate the use of consumer credit information, entitle consumers to a free copy of their credit report from each credit reporting agency and provide for disputing inaccurate information.

The FTC, under its general Section 5 authority to prevent unfair and deceptive practices, also enforces protections for personal data by requiring companies to observe the promises made by a company in its privacy policy.

All 50 states have enacted legislation requiring notice to customers when a security breach has or is reasonably believed to have exposed a consumer's personal information. Personal information under data breach is typically defined as a first name or initial, a last name, plus a social security number, driver's license or state ID number or an account number with a password or PIN. Recently, states have expanded this definition to include login credentials plus password. Recently, some states have begun to include biometric information as personal data for purposes of breach notification laws. The threshold for notice, timing requirements and liability

vary by state.

The California Consumer Privacy Act of 2018 ("CCPA") came into effect in 2020, and requires all businesses dealing with California residents to observe restrictions on data monetization, accommodate individuals' rights to access, deletion, and transfer of personal data of California residents and households. The California Privacy Rights Act ("CPRA") was adopted by ballot initiative in 2020 and comes into effect January 1, 2023. The CPRA creates a right to opt-out of sharing of personal information and certain uses of sensitive personal information, a right to correct inaccurate personal information and new rights with respect to business's personal data practices and use of automated decision-making technologies. The CPRA creates a new state agency, the California Privacy Protection Agency, that assumes all rulemaking and enforcement authority previously vested in the California attorney general.

Other states have adopted data privacy protections for consumers in their states, including the Virginia Consumer Data Protection Act (effective January 1, 2023) ("VCDPA"), the Colorado Privacy Act (effective July 1, 2023) ("CPA"), the Utah Consumer Privacy Act ("UCPA") (effective December 31, 2023), and the Connecticut Data Privacy Act ("CDPA") (effective July 1, 2023).

17. What is the maximum sanction that can be imposed by a regulator in the event of a breach of any applicable data protection laws?

Typically, violations of data protection laws permit recovery of actual or statutory damages and attorneys' fees. Privacy violations under the FTC Act have a maximum fine of \$16,000 per violation. Civil violations of HIPAA have a maximum fine of \$1.5M. The maximum civil fine for GLBA violations is \$1M. Under the CCPA, the California attorney general can impose fines of \$2,500 for non-willful violations and up to \$7,500 fines for willful violations, with a private right of action for individuals whose information is accessed or disclosed as a result of a breach of a business' duty to maintain reasonable security. The CPRA adds fines of up to \$7,500 for violations (even if unintentional) of the consumer privacy rights of minors.

The VCDPA and UCPA provides for fines of up to \$7,500 and the CDPA provides for fines of up to \$5,000, in each case for willful violations of the law. While not having a specific statutory fine for non-compliance, the Colorado Privacy Act, by reference to CPA violations constituting a breach of the Colorado Consumer Protection Act,

includes fines of up to \$20,000 per violation.

18. Do technology contracts in your country typically refer to external data protection regimes, e.g. EU GDPR or CCPA, even where the contract has no clear international element?

Technology contracts frequently involve the cross border collection and processing of personal data, and in such cases, they will refer to GDPR. Where contracts have the potential to involve the collection of personal data on California residents or households, the contract will refer to CCPA and CCPR. Occasionally, contracts without a clear international element may refer to GDPR for principles of how personal data is collected and processed, even in cases where no data of individuals in the EU is implicated.

19. Which body(ies), if any, is/are responsible for the regulation of artificial intelligence?

There is no body that is specifically charged with regulating artificial intelligence ("AI") in the U.S. Federal agencies are issuing guidance in connection with the use of AI. The FTC issued guidance to businesses on unlawful discrimination due to bias in AI algorithms as well as a warning to marketers about exaggerating the results that AI powered products can deliver. The Food and Drug Administration ("FDA") has issued guidance that some AI tools should be regulated as medical devices under the FDA's oversight of clinical decision support software.

20. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern the deployment and use of artificial intelligence, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws.

The National Artificial Intelligence Initiative Act of 2020 ("NAIIA") directs the President of the United States to support AI research and development, education and worker training, coordinate interagency AI activities and work with strategic allies on development of trustworthy AI systems.

In 2022, the White House released a policy paper entitled "Blueprint for an AI Bill of Rights", setting out policy principles for regulation of artificial intelligence.

The following is a list of some of the proposed AI legislation:

- Algorithmic Justice and Online Platform Transparency Act. Bills H.R.3611, S.1896. Seeks to prevent discrimination by algorithmic processes and increase algorithmic transparency.
- Algorithmic Accountability Act (Apr 2019). Bills S 1108, HR 2231 (Apr. 2019) intended to require "companies to regularly evaluate their tools for accuracy, fairness, bias, and discrimination."
- Facial Recognition and Biometric Technology Moratorium Act of 2021. Bill S.2052. Requires Federal agencies or officials to receive legislative approval to use biometric surveillance systems or information derived therefrom.
- Mind Your Own Business Act of 2021. Bill S.1444. Seeks to prevent algorithmic bias in high-risk information systems and automated-decision systems, and enables consumers to opt out of tracking by covered entities.
- Filter Bubble Transparency Act. Bill S.2024. Requires online platform operators that use algorithms to customize what users see to allow users to opt out of the use of those algorithms.

21. Are there any specific legal provisions (present or impending) in respect of the deployment and use of Large Language Models and/or generative AI?

There is no enacted or pending federal legislation aimed specifically at generative AI or Large Language Models, rather than AI more broadly.

22. Which body(ies), if any, is/are responsible for the regulation of blockchain and / or digital assets generally?

There is no single regulatory body charged with the regulation of blockchain and digital assets. Digital assets, such as cryptocurrencies may be subject to overlapping jurisdiction of a number of regulators, including the Federal Reserve, the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency, the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority, the Federal Financial Institutions Examination Council, the Commodities Futures Trading Commission, the Securities and Exchange Commission, the Financial Crimes Enforcement Network and the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau.

23. What are the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern (i) blockchain specifically (if any) and (ii) digital assets, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws?

1. The U.S. does not regulate blockchain technology per se at the federal level. Various states have enacted legislation to promote or otherwise permit the use of blockchain technology. Arizona's Electronics Transactions Act specifically recognizes electronic signatures secured on a blockchain, records and contracts secured on a blockchain and smart contracts as valid and enforceable. Delaware's General Corporation Law was amended to allow Delaware corporations to put stock ledgers on a blockchain. Vermont enacted a law which enabled blockchain records to be deemed self-authenticating under Vermont's Rules of Evidence. Wyoming amended its version of the Uniform Commercial Code to specifically define and classify blockchain secured digital assets, and to set forth the specific requirements for the perfection of a security interest in digital assets through control.
2. Securities: Offering securities, including certain tokens arising out of initial coin offerings ("ICOs"), triggers a requirement to register the securities with the Securities and Exchange Commission ("SEC"). With respect to ICOs, the SEC has found that certain tokens arising out of ICOs constitute securities offerings, but the SEC has also determined that bitcoin and ether are not or are no longer securities for purposes of federal securities law. Under Section 2(a)(1) of the Securities Act and Section 3(a)(10) of the Exchange Act, the definition of security does not specify a token or coin, but does specify an "investment contract." The term "investment contract" is the residual category in the definition that captures securities that do not fall within other categories. In *SEC v. W.J. Howey Co.*, the U.S. Supreme Court articulated a test for determining whether something is an "investment contract." The test—which has become known as the "Howey test"—provides that an "investment contract" is an investment of money in a common enterprise with a reasonable expectation of profits to be derived from the entrepreneurial or managerial efforts of others. According to the SEC, this definition embodies a "flexible rather

than a static principle, one that is capable of adaptation to meet the countless and variable schemes devised by those who seek the use of the money of others on the promise of profits." In considering whether something is a security, "the emphasis should be on economic realities underlying a transaction, and not on the name appended thereto." The prongs of an investment contract, as articulated in *Howey*, are thus fourfold: (i) an investment of money (ii) in a common enterprise (iii) with a reasonable expectation of profits (iv) to be derived from the entrepreneurial or managerial efforts of others. Prior to July, 2017, the SEC had not applied the *Howey* test to an ICO. However, on July 25, 2017, the SEC provided important initial guidance on its application of the *Howey* test to ICOs when it released a Section 21(a) Report of Investigation on its findings regarding the token sale by The DAO. The DAO functions as a decentralized autonomous organization, which essentially means a virtual organization embodied in computer code and executed on a distributed ledger or blockchain.

In its analysis of whether The DAO had improperly offered and sold securities via an ICO, the SEC noted that new technologies do not remove conduct from the purview of U.S. federal securities laws. Based on the facts and circumstances regarding The DAO's offering of tokens, the SEC found that (i) DAO tokens are securities under federal securities law, (ii) The DAO was required to register the offer and sale of DAO tokens under the Securities Act absent a valid exemption, and (iii) any exchange on which DAO tokens were traded was required to register under the Securities Act as a national securities exchange or operate pursuant to an exemption. In its report, the SEC did not say that all tokens would be securities. Rather, the SEC noted that the determination depends on the particular facts and circumstances and economic realities of the transaction.

On April 3, 2019, the SEC staff released its "Framework for 'Investment Contract' Analysis of Digital Assets" ("Framework") to provide guidance with respect to the SEC's jurisdiction over digital assets that qualify as investment contracts under the *Howey* analysis. In the Framework, the SEC did not set out specific guidelines for when ICOs are

(or are not) securities, the Staff did provide a long list of considerations. Many of the considerations set out in the Framework for when an ICO would tend to be viewed as a security are, as a practical matter, present in many ICOs. This means that many ICO offerings will need to register as securities or demonstrate their exemption from registration.

On July 13, 2023, the Federal District Court for the Southern District of New York ruled that sales by Ripple of the XRP cryptocurrency to institutional investors constituted the sale of unregistered securities, but that programmatic aftermarket sales of XRP to retail investors were not sales of a security.

3. **Commodities:** Brokering transactions in futures contracts, options on futures contracts, swaps, or retail off-exchange forex contracts (collectively, "Commodity Interests") triggers a requirement to register as an introducing broker or futures commission merchant with the Commodity Futures Trading Commission ("CFTC"). Advising persons with respect to Commodity Interest transactions triggers a requirement to register as a commodity trading advisor ("CTA") with the CFTC. A CTA is an individual or organization that, for compensation or profit, advises others, directly or indirectly, as to the value of or the advisability of trading futures in commodity interests. The CFTC has treated bitcoin as a commodity since its September 17, 2015 order against Coinflip, Inc. (doing business as Derivabit). The CFTC said it regulates bitcoin and other virtual currency derivatives just as it regulates other commodity derivatives. Coinflip, Inc. was the operator of the Derivabit platform, which marketed bitcoin put and call options. The CFTC's order did not impose any specific standards or restrictions on cryptocurrencies themselves but on derivatives that have values that are based on or reference the values of cryptocurrency. The order also triggers reporting and recordkeeping implications, minimum margin requirements and the requirement to register as a swap execution facility ("SEF") for companies that fall under that category. In May 2018, the CFTC staff issued guidance that reiterated its position that "bitcoin and other virtual currencies are properly defined as commodities." In *CFTC v. McDonnell*, the

Federal District Court for the Eastern District of New York said that "virtual currency may be regulated by the CFTC as a commodity." The CFTC's "broad statutory authority... and regulatory authority... extend to fraud or manipulation in the virtual currency derivatives market and its underlying spot market."

4. **Money Transmission:** At the federal level, companies that engage in money transmission are considered money services businesses ("MSBs"), which are regulated entities for anti-money laundering ("AML") purposes under the Bank Secrecy Act of 1970 (the "BSA"). MSBs are required to register with the Financial Crime Enforcement Network ("FinCEN") and meet other regulatory requirements, such as implementing an AML compliance program. Under the BSA, money transmission is defined as the acceptance of currency, funds, or other value that substitutes for currency from one person and the transmission of currency, funds, or other value that substitutes for currency to another location or person by any means. At the state level, money transmitters are required to have licenses for each state in which they operate. Many states have expanded the definition of money transmitter to include the transmission of cryptocurrency, while others exclude cryptocurrencies from money transmitter licensing requirements. It is a federal crime to operate as a money transmitter without a relevant state license.

24. Are blockchain based assets such as cryptocurrency or NFTs considered "property" capable of recovery (and other remedies) if misappropriated?

In the U.S., property rights are determined at the level of state law. The State of Wyoming enacted a law that expressly recognizes digital assets, including cryptocurrencies, as intangible personal property. Illinois, Colorado, Tennessee and Utah have all amended their abandoned property laws to include cryptocurrency. In most other states, it remains to be argued that cryptocurrencies meet the criteria established by the courts for the recognition of a property interest.

In connection with a dispute over property rights in FAA issued Supplemental Type Certificates, the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals in *G.S. Rasmussen & Associates, Inc. v. Kalitta Flying Service, Inc.* articulated the three criteria

under California law: (i) an interest capable of precise definition; (ii) capable of exclusive possession or control; and (iii) where the claimant has established a legitimate claim to exclusivity. It has been argued that cryptocurrencies meet these criteria for establishing personal property rights: once secured to the blockchain, a cryptocurrency (or more precisely, the ledger entry reflecting the transfer of the cryptocurrency previously received) is associated with a particular address cannot be further transferred or reassigned without the private key for that address.

Other statutes and regulations that have been applied to cryptocurrencies presuppose that they constitute property. In one 2013 case involving online money exchangers who failed to register with the FinCEN, the Maryland District Court in *United States of America v. 50.44 Bitcoins held bitcoins* to be subject to civil forfeiture under 18 U.S.C. §1960, a statute that applies to forfeiture of real or personal property. In the bankruptcy context, the court in *In re Hashfast Technologies, LLC* was presented with a claim by the bankruptcy trustee to avoid a prepetition transfer of bitcoin as a preference or fraudulent transfer. While the Hashfast court did not reach the interesting issue of whether the cryptocurrency was a currency or a commodity (and therefore whether the dollar value at the time of the transfer or the substantially increased value of the bitcoin at the time of the decision could be recovered), the court did find that the bitcoin at issue could be subject to Section 550(a) of the U.S. Bankruptcy Code that by its terms applies to transfers of property.

The Internal Revenue Service ruled in 2014 that for federal tax purposes, cryptocurrencies are treated as property.

25. Which body(ies), if any, is/are responsible for the regulation of search engines and marketplaces?

There is no specific regulation of search engines and online marketplaces in the U.S. The FCC has oversight over the use of telecommunications networks, and the FTC has the authority to regulate online marketplace practices.

26. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern search engines and marketplaces, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws.

In 2015, the FCC adopted net neutrality principles that would require Internet Service Providers to treat all data traffic the same and not prioritize, block, slow down or charge money for specific content. In 2018, these net neutrality principles were rolled back.

The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals in *Gonzalez v. Google*, in a case alleging Google violated the Anti-Terrorism Act by “recommending” ISIS videos to users found that the claims fell within the immunity provisions of Section 230 of the Telecommunications Act. The Court held that a search engine’s use of content-neutral algorithms does not create liability for serving content posted by a third party. In *Twitter v. Taamneh*, the Supreme Court held that surviving family members’ claims against Twitter were not allowed under the Ant-Terrorism Act and did not address the immunity provisions of Section 230 of the Telecommunications Act. The Supreme Court remanded the *Google v. Gonzalez* case to the lower court for reconsideration in light of the Twitter ruling.

The FTC’s .Com Disclosures guidelines sets out the requirements for online disclosures in advertising. Disclosures must be clear and conspicuous and should be placed as close as possible to the text triggering the claim. Where there are space limitations, disclosures may be made on a page linked to the ad. Such links must be obvious and appropriately labelled to indicate the nature and importance of the linked information; disclosures should not be relegated to linked terms of use. Advertisers must monitor click-through rates to gauge the effectiveness of the link.

27. Which body(ies), if any, is/are responsible for the regulation of social media?

There is no single regulator responsible for the regulation of social media. The FCC has oversight over the use of telecommunications networks, and the FTC has the authority to regulate online marketplace practices.

28. Please summarise the principal laws (present or impending), if any, that govern social media, including a brief explanation of the general purpose of those laws?

Section 230 of the Telecommunications Act provides that “No provider or user of an interactive computer service shall be treated as the publisher or speaker of any information provided by another information content provider.” This immunity provision means that websites, including social media sites that host content from third

parties, are not responsible for screening the content posted by their users.

The FTC Endorsement Guidelines were updated to require social media influencers to disclose their relationship to company whose products or services are being endorsed, including whether the company provided them with free products, services, payments or other benefits. The updated Endorsement Guidelines expand the definition of endorsement to include verbal statements, tags in social media posts, demonstrations, depictions of the name, signature, likeness or other identifying personal characteristics of an individual, and the name or seal of an organization. The FTC also proposed a new Rule on the Use of Consumer Reviews and Testimonials that prohibits fake consumer reviews, materially misrepresenting a reviewer's experience with a product, service or business, including the repurposing of a review for a different product, or compensation to a reviewer conditioned on the expression of a particular sentiment (either positive or negative) regarding a product, service or business.

29. What are your top 3 predictions for

significant developments in technology law in the next 3 years?

- Congress will limit the breadth of immunity under Section 230 of the Telecommunications Act, requiring social media companies to implement measures to reduce misinformation on their platforms in order to be eligible for Section 230 safe harbors.
- States will adopt a uniform data privacy law to standardize protections on the fair collection and processing of personal data.
- Federal law will require the use of only explainable AI models in all consumer related transactions.

30. Do technology contracts in your country commonly include provisions to address sustainability / net-zero obligations or similar environmental commitments?

Technology contracts do not typically address sustainability or other environmental commitments.

Contributors

Samuel G. Kramer
Partner

samuel.kramer@bakermckenzie.com

