

Operational Framework: Institutional Controls

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1 Personal Data as a New Asset Class (Thomas)

These bullets summarize the flow of the text (to be deleted in the final edit):

- The rise of personal data in Internet.
- The personal data ecosystem – stakeholders
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(The text below is REV01 – December 16, 2013)

Today as more individuals on the planet are using electronic devices and are increasingly connected to other individuals over the Internet, each person is more than ever generating data in the very act of living with these interconnected devices. A broad definition of *personal data* is that the digital data created by people and about people. When a person post information on a social network, he or she is not only posting data about themselves but inadvertently they are also generating behavioral data about themselves. Similarly the phone calls, text messages and device GPS coordinates reveals much about a person’s daily routine and general behavior. Indeed a number of service providers are offering customized services based precisely on these data points that they have obtained regarding the individual. The potential benefits of personal data are tremendous in numerous areas of life, ranging from education, healthcare, and marketing to politics and elections.

The World Economic Forum (WEF) has dubbed personal data as the “New Oil” or resource of the 21st century [1]. The discovery of oil and the subsequent development of the oil industry over the past 100 years has spurred not only the development of the automobile industry but also the creation of the global transportation infrastructure, including the massive freeway networks that we see today in the developed nations. The “personal data sector” of the economy today is still in its infancy, its state akin to the oil industry at the late 1890s prior to the development of the Model-T Ford automobile. The productive collaboration between the Government (building

the state owned freeways), the private sector (mining and refining oil, building automobiles) and the citizen (the user-base of these services) allowed the develop nations to expand its economies by creating new markets adjacent to the automobile and oil industries.

If personal data as the new oil is to reach its global economic potential, there needs to be a productive collaboration between all the stakeholders in the *personal data ecosystem*.

2 Digital Institutions: Redefining Institutional Controls (Thomas)

These bullets summarize the flow of the text (to be deleted in the final edit):

- A New vision of “institutional controls”.
- Personal data as the driver for current digital economies and future digital institutions.
- The role of Computational Law.
- Defining Controls for Digital Institutions in terms of Trust Networks.
- The New Digital Institution Stack
- Digital Institutions that Self-Control: the Vision

(The text below is REV05 – December 16, 2013)

The Internet offers a new opportunities for individuals, communities and societies to interact based on self-organized governance. Currently there is arguably an inequitable access to resources on the Internet – including to “personal data” – where incumbent service providers and digital technology providers seek to resist open network dynamics and to maintain the old business models which in the long term benefit only a fraction of the Internet population [1–3]. Current social networking platforms typically rely upon proprietary business models that collect and sell personal information about users, inducing social distrust in these business models [4].

The World Economic Forum has identified personal data as a new asset class [1] upon which new forms of future economic activities may develop. In order for data to attain its true potential in the future global digital economy, new forms of *digital communities* must be allowed to flourish and evolve over time. Similar to communities that over time evolved into institutions that we know today (e.g. New York Stock & Exchange Board from the early 1800’s), digital communities within the virtual space on the Internet must be recognized as having a legitimate role in the global economy and be permitted to evolve unhindered into future *digital institutions* [5].

Self-governance of digital communities is an important ingredient for these communities to develop into digital institutions. In the work of [5] the notion of self-governance means the use of data access policies and data usage policies that are implemented as *computational law*, where governance is built into the computational engines that are part-and-parcel of the technological infrastructure which implements the virtual community.

If personal data is to be considered as a new assets class [1] then there is a need for a new paradigm for considering the role and importance of personal data in the world’s digital institutions and digital economy of the future. Correspondingly, for these emerging digital institutions there needs to be a new paradigm for contemplating the aspects of “institutional control” within these future institutions.

2.1 Personal Data Assets as the Foundation for Future Digital Institutions

The promise of the economic benefits from equal access to data – personal data, proprietary data, and government data – is difficult to argue against. Today an example of a revolutionary use of data as the basis for new forms of economic activities can be found in *virtual currencies* as exemplified by systems such as *BitCoin* [6] and *Ven* [7]. Like their brick-and-mortar equivalents, these virtual currency systems can flourish only if all the system participants have equal access to data, be it market data, meta-data about the system itself, provenance information regarding certain data, or data that are used as assets to back certain currencies. Just as inequitable access to market data today results in an inefficient economic system, the inequitable access to data on the Internet – including personal data that forms the basis for market data – results in inefficient digital institutions.

The economic benefits derived from the availability of data describing attributes of individuals (i.e. private information) and data capturing the behavior of individuals is undeniable. For example, the online consumer buying behavior now drives much of the selling plans occurring at different seasons of the annual retail market. Similarly, one can argue that in the large social networks (e.g. Facebook) the individual user is seen not a customer but rather as the product

itself. Thus, artificially divorcing the role of an individual’s data (as an asset form) from its economic role (and therefore from its legal role) is short-sighted, and subsequently denies the full potential of personal data as an engine of the new global digital economy.

We also need a new paradigm for considering future digital institutions, and aspects of their roles and responsibilities to their stakeholders and to society at large. This new paradigm must enable nascent digital institutions (such as the virtual currency systems of today) to consider the more subtle notions related to personal data in the larger context of social interactions on the Internet. Thus, in defining future “institutional controls” in the digital economy, digital institutions must embrace the notions of the *provenance* of data, of *ownership* of data (beyond copyright), of *common-pool sharing* of data within and across digital institutions, of *self-governance* of digital institutions and the use of artificial intelligence and machine learning to effect computational law.

This new paradigm must accommodate the notion of personal data as common-pool resource [8] on an opt-in basis. The foundational concept of the common-pool resource was put forward by Elinor Ostrom, the Nobel Laureate in economics in 2009. Ostrom identified key principles by which self-organized groups can manage common-pool resources in fair, sustainable ways. If data were to be regarded as a common-pool resource, Ostroms research shows how it would be possible for online groups to devise their own *data commons* to manage their personal data in their own interests. This open the possibility for the data commons to be the basis of self-organizing digital institutions, where “law” would have a very different character from the kinds law we know today. The development of “digital law” or computational law in self-organizing digital institutions would enable users to devise new types of legal contracts that are computationally expressible and executable [4,5].

2.2 Trust Networks as the Legal Foundation of Digital Institutions

A promising model for self-governing digital institutions based on computational law is that of *Trust Networks*. In simple terms, a trust network for digital communities represents the

community rules and operational regulations which all members of the community are bound to from the time they opt-in into membership of the community.

In the current brick-and-mortar economy there are a number of examples of “networks of trust” that allow communities to pool resources and share risks. In the international banking community the emergence of the SWIFT network [9] (Society for Worldwide Interbank Financial Telecommunication) in the 1970s represented a major milestone for global banking. The SWIFT network established a secure and reliable electronic network that enables financial institutions worldwide to send and receive information about financial transactions. Banks and financial institutions who wish to make use of the SWIFT network must join the network by accepting a membership agreement.

Similarly, various identity federation consortium or organizations have been established in the recent past with the aim of providing a legal foundation to the creation, use and disposal of digital identities on the Internet. A recent example of such an organization is the *Open Identity Exchange* [10] whose aim is to create a *Trust Framework* for identity federation on the Internet. In digital identity systems, a trust framework is a certification program that enables a party who accepts a digital identity credential (called the relying party) to trust the identity, security, and privacy policies of the party who issues the credential (called the identity service provider) and vice versa [10].

Currently efforts on legal “trust frameworks” are focused primarily on individual identity and identity federation. However, we believe that a new legal foundation is required for the personal data ecosystem and for the various digital institutions that may utilize personal data. We believe a new view of the “Internet stack” needs to be introduced, where the stack calls-out and recognizes the importance of personal data and the crucial role of personal data stores or accounts.

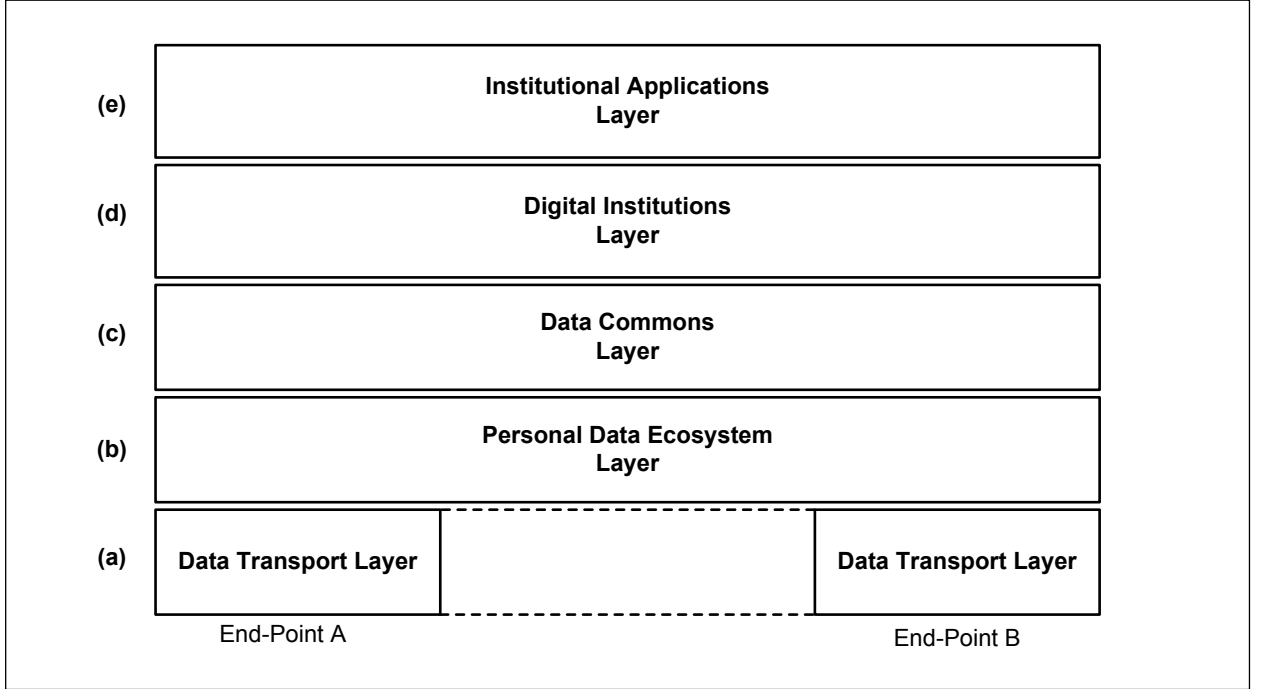


Figure 1. A New Stack for Digital Institutions (after [4])

2.3 Digital Institutions: A New Stack for the Internet

In order for society to obtain the benefits of personal data as a the new asset class, a new personal data ecosystem must evolve where every stakeholder has equitable access to data and other resources within the ecosystem. Such equitable access must be available not only to individuals real-world communities, but also to emerging digital communities and institutions.

We believe that a new vision is needed for seeing the Internet, personal data and digital institutions in a consistent manner, something akin to the Internet TCP/IP stack or the 7-layer ISO stack¹. Such a stack – termed the *digital institution stack* in [4] – would be useful for viewing the evolving personal data ecosystem and its role in the digital institution. Such a logical set

¹The network engineering view of the Internet sees in in a 4-layer view, whereas the International standards perceives the Internet consisting of 7 layers. In reality these view converge on the core functions of necessary for the Internet to function today.

of layers or “stack” allows the stakeholders in the ecosystem to understand better their roles in the ecosystem and to define with more clarity the services or functions that they offer, and the services of other stakeholders upon which they rely. Figure 1 attempts to illustrate one such new stack for the personal data ecosystem.

The proposed stack paves the way for legal trust frameworks to be defined and developed for the personal data ecosystem, for the “pools of data” as a common resource [8] derived from personal data in the ecosystem, and for the digital institutions that may evolve from the communities that use these pools of data. Finally, such a stack allows a new *digital institutional controls* to be defined for these emerging institutions.

The layers within this proposed new stack are as follows (from bottom to top layers). Note that the boundaries of the layers are not strict in the sense that many functions may in fact be implemented and operate across layers.

(a) Data Transport & Infrastructure layer:

This layer is essentially the Internet of today (e.g. Domain Name System, routing, autonomous systems, HTTP protocol, RESTful Web APIs, etc), including all the “big data” related infrastructure that exist today (e.g. virtualization, VM farms, etc) or are being developed and brought to market (e.g. homomorphic and functional encryption [11], differential privacy, etc).

We also include the current “social network” stack and other semantic web [12] technologies. The key aspect of this layer is that it is unaware of (and hence agnostic to) the semantics of personal data within PDS stores at the layer above, and agnostic the relationships between entities to whom the data pertains.

(b) Personal Data Ecosystem layer:

This layer pertains to the PDS end-points within the personal data ecosystem, the various services in the ecosystem and the various transactions that occur among the end-points. Today this layer is developing in an organic manner and following the dictates of the

market.

The following challenges should be logically considered as part of this new layer:

- Source and provenance of data-items or data-pools.
- Identity of stakeholders, and federation across stakeholders.
- De-personalization and de-identification of personal data.
- Relationships among data-items or data-pools.
- Log, audit and accountability systems that underlie the PDS stores.
- Protection and integrity of data and the PDS within which they reside.
- Computational policies and engines that regulate access to data-pools.
- Others

(c) Data Commons layer:

The data commons layer consists of all the “pools of data” – built from personal data, proprietary data and government data – that are accessible to digital institutions and other organizations that accept the legal obligations expressed in the trust framework governing a given pool of data.

Examples of pools of data may include data from the health sciences area [13], data from individuals that may have been donated to certain *open data commons* initiatives, historical data that are public (e.g. past stock market data), and others.

The following are but a few of the challenges to be addressed in this layer for pools of data:

- A legal trust framework for a pool of data (as a shared resource) developed from trust frameworks covering individual data sources.
- A globally interconnected consent-management infrastructure to allow individuals and organizations anywhere in the world to contribute their data to a data pool as a common resource.

- Provenance and accountability infrastructures corresponding to the consent-management infrastructure.
- Others

Part of the trust framework may specifically request the contributors to consent to allowing the organization to make this pool of data available to the public through a standardized interface under legal terms that are also defined in the trust framework. In other words, this pool of data is now globally accessible to any entity that accepts the legal terms of use specified in the trust framework.

(d) Digital Institutions layer:

When a set of entities seek to collaborate in the digital space they may establish an online digital community, which over time may evolve into a digital institution which has obligations to the members of the community and to the owners (sources) of the data-pools that the community deploys.

The work of [4] on the *Open Mustard Seed* (OMS) project points to the potential development of a globally interconnected virtual space built atop of heterogeneous instances of virtual machines (VM) operated by cloud providers and other virtualization service providers. Thus, in effect an individual person can possess not only personal data stores but also a digital space implemented by the set of VMs that he or she legally owns. These VMs are stitched together to provide a unified view of the digital space (or “virtual room”) within which the individual “lives” and performs tasks. Note that notion of a “virtual room” for individuals has been around for at least a decade now. However, the OMS project points to the possibility of a group of individuals to jointly and remotely participating in a *common virtual space* which runs one or more function-specific application.

One use-case of the OMS system pertains to a group of local parents who wish to establish a community-based car-pooling service for their children living on the same street. Each household is assumed to have an OMS instance, which includes a personal data store

(PDS) that collects and stores personal data about the household, including the location data (i.e. GPS data) from devices belonging to members of the household.

In order to establish this community-based car-pooling service, for example, a mother “spins-up” an OMS system instance representing this community. Each household participating in the service would then provide consent-based access to the specific data items in their PDS store within their OMS instance. Using these sets of location data, these parents can now self-organize a weekly schedule of shared car-pool service for their children, with the confidence that their personal data is shared only among the members of this community.

This same pattern of community-based social interaction can be established for numerous purposes, and can be scaled-up as needed. Larger communities that are longer-term in their existence may organically grow to resemble an institution where more complex rules and trust frameworks may be created to govern the institution.

(e) Institutional Applications layer:

This layer may be subsumed by the layer below it, but it is useful to logically consider it as a separate layer because of the interesting cross-institutional use-cases that may occur.

A good example of an “application” at this layer that of the *virtual currency* proposition, as exemplified by systems such as Ven [7] and BitCoin [6]. A virtual currency exchange being backed and operated by a group of brick-mortar institutions may in fact be best described itself as a digital institution.

Figure 2 attempts to illustrate the use-case of small craft vineyards around the world that co-operate and trade among themselves in their digital institution. Here, it is the wine-related trading that is the institutional “application” in this layer. This application may not be the sole application being used by the craft winery community. Another application could be a shared world-wide weather database specific to the craft winery community.

The point here is that each digital institution has the freedom to define and self-enforce

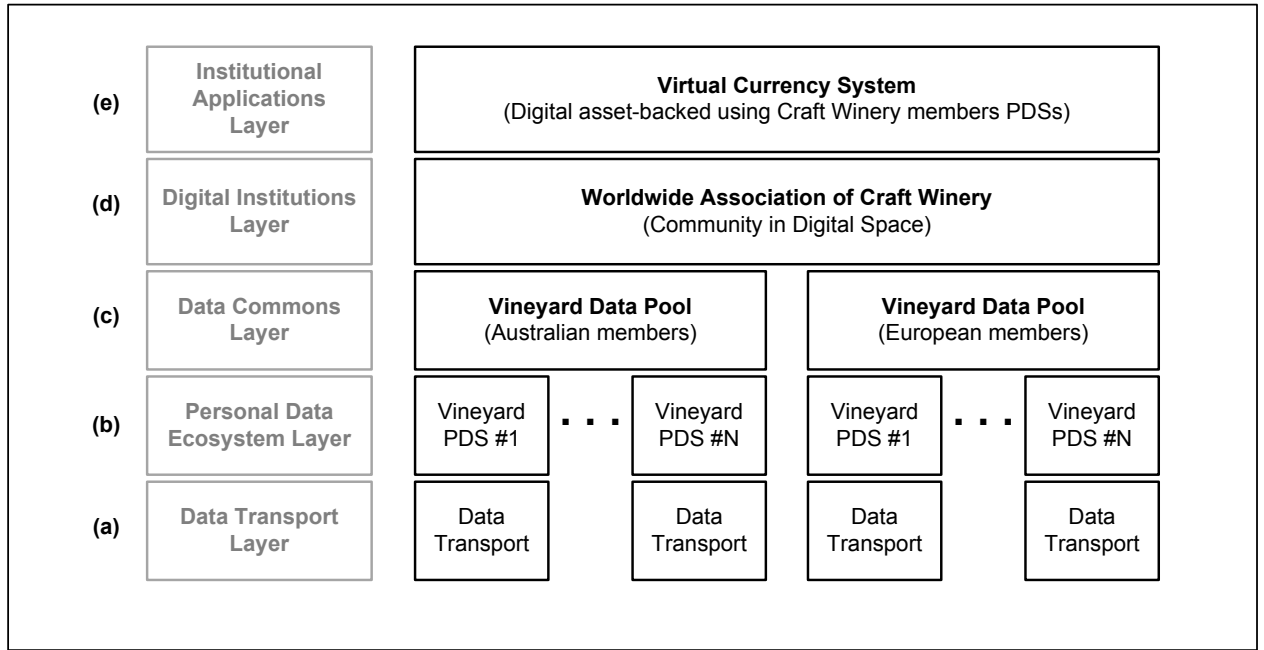


Figure 2. Example of a Digital Institution and Application

their legal trust framework by way of computational law technologies. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 2, the participation of distinct data-pools (as independent sets of data) allows each local digital community to establish, manage and govern the usage of their respective data pools. It also allows heterogeneous data – and therefore more rich data – to be shared within a global digital community. Note that Figure 2 also attempts to illustrate the use of pools of data (created from personal data stores) as the basis for creating an asset-backed virtual currency system.

2.4 A new Paradigm for Digital Institutional Control

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