

Interpretative Guidelines
on
Electronic Commerce
and
Information Property Trading
(Tentative Translation)

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Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI)

Introduction

Any laws and regulations stipulated herein are based on the technology that is available at the time of enactment and/or amendment thereof. For this reason, any new advances in technologies can bring about a change to the background facts of disputes which the governing laws and regulations had assumed. As a result, the flexible interpretation of laws and regulations may be required in response to such advances and also the creation of new laws and regulations may be needed for any matters which cannot be adequately addressed by such interpretations.

The emergence of the internet has resulted in the creation of new models of economical activities such as electronic commerce. However, since most of the existing laws, including the Civil Code, were established before the emergence of such new technologies, the interpretation of the application of the existing laws concerning electronic commerce are not necessarily clear. There is still no legal environment for electronic commerce in which the parties can participate in complete security. Normally, when there is any vagueness in the interpretation of existing laws, reasonable rules for interpretation may be naturally found through court precedents. One cannot, however, expect court precedents to rapidly accumulate.

These interpretative guidelines are intended to explain how the relevant laws and regulations including the Civil Code are applied and interpreted with respect to various types of legal problems in the field of electronic commerce and to promote facilitation of transactions by enhancing predictability for the parties involved. It goes without saying that it is the court which issues the final decision on how the existing laws are applied in each individual and specific case; however, we hope that these interpretative guidelines serve as a guide for the specific interpretation of laws and may also assist in the formation of new rules.

METI puts forward its specific interpretations of laws and regulations in these interpretative guidelines according to the proposal made by the WG on Rule Establishment for the Business Utilizing IT, the Information Economy Subcommittee, the Commerce, Distribution and Information Committee, the Industrial Structure Council. In preparing the proposal, METI received advice on various issues concerning electronic commerce from consumer groups, trade

associations, and observers from government agencies including the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, the Ministry of Justice, the Consumer Affairs Agency and the Agency for Cultural Affairs. We hope that these guidelines will function to facilitate the interpretation of laws and regulations concerned with electronic commerce into the future.

Furthermore, these interpretative guidelines should be amended flexibly in accordance with the transaction practices relating to electronic commerce, the technological trend relating thereto, and developments in international consensus on appropriate rules. Also, we intend to present practical interpretations of specific cases as well as basic concepts. For this purpose, we have sought opinions on specific cases from a wide range of business people and consumers who are actually engaged in electronic commerce. Some specific cases are given in these interpretative guidelines, but if there are any other appropriate examples in addition to such cases, please contact the following:

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ABBREVIATION LIST

The following is the list of abbreviation used in this guidelines:

LAWS

ABBREVIATION	LAW TITLE
Premiums and Representations Act	Act against Unjustifiable Premiums and Misleading Representations
Personal Information Protection Act	Act on the Protection of Personal Information
Funds Settlement Act	Act on Settlement of Funds
General Rules Act	Act on General Rules for Application of Laws
Electronic Contract Act	Act on Special Provisions to the Civil Code Concerning Electronic Consumer Contracts and Electronic Acceptance Notice
Specified Commercial Transactions Act	Act on Specified Commercial Transactions
Specified Electronic Mail Act	Act on Regulation of Transmission of Specified Electronic Mail
Antimonopoly Act	Act on Prohibition of Private Monopolization and Maintenance of Fair Trade
Unauthorized Computer Access Act	Act on the Prohibition of Unauthorized Computer Access
Provider Liability Limitation Act	Act on the Limitation of Liability for Damages of Specified Telecommunications Service Providers and the Right to Demand Disclosure of Identification Information of the Senders
Depositors Protection Act	Act on Protection, etc. of Depositors and Postal Saving Holders from Unauthorized Automated Withdrawal, etc. Using Counterfeit Cards, etc. and Stolen Cards, etc.

LEGAL PUBLICATIONS

ABBREVIATION	TITLE / PUBLISHER
<i>Minroku</i>	<i>Daishin-in Minji Hanketsuroku / Shihôshô</i> (Ministry of Justice)
<i>Minshû</i>	<i>Saikô Saibansho Minji Hanreishû / Saikô Saibansho Hanrei Chôsakai</i> (Supreme Court Precedent Research Institute)
<i>Keishû</i>	<i>Saikô Saibansho Keiji Hanreishû / Saikô Saibansho Hanrei Chôsakai</i> (Supreme Court Precedent Research Institute)
<i>Kômin</i>	<i>Kôtô Saibansho Minji Hanreishû / Saikô Saibansho Hanrei Chôsakai</i> (Supreme Court Precedent Research Institute)
<i>Kakyûminshû</i>	<i>Kakyû Saibansho Minji Saibanreishû / Saikô Saibansho Jimusoukyoku Minjikyoku</i> (Supreme Court, General Secretariat, Civil Affairs Bureau)
<i>Mutaireishû</i>	<i>Mutai Zaisanken Kankei Minji Gyôsei Saibanreishuû / Hôsôkai</i>
<i>Shûmin</i>	<i>Saikô Saibansho Saibanshû Minji / Saikô Saibansho Jimusôkyoku</i> (Supreme Court, General Secretariat)
<i>Hanji</i>	<i>Hanrei Jihô / Hôsôkai</i>
<i>Hanta</i>	<i>Hanrei Taimuzu / Hanrei Taimuzu Sha</i> (Hanrei Times Co., Ltd).
<i>Han-ji</i>	<i>Hanrei Chihô Jichi / Gyôsei</i> (GYOSEI Corporation)
<i>Kinhan</i>	<i>Kinyû Shôji Hanrei / Keizai Hôrei Kenkyûkai</i> (Economic Legal Research Institute)
<i>Shimbun</i>	<i>Hôritsu Shimbun / Hôritsu Shimbunsha</i>

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Part I: Issues Concerning Electronic Commerce

This part discusses various problems arising from the nature of electronic commerce which is a new mode of business using computer networks including the internet.

I-1 Offer and Acceptance of Online Contracts

Last Revised: November 2012

I-1-1 Conclusion of Contracts (Arrival of Electronic Notice of Acceptance)

[Issue]

Where specifically is the point at which a notice of acceptance (Article 4 of the Electronic Contract Act) arrives and an electronic contract is executed?

I. Approach

1. E-mail

For e-mail, a notice of acceptance (“*shôdaku-tsûchi*”) arrives at the time when: (i) the e-mail has been recorded in the-mailbox of the designated mail server or in the-mailbox usually used by the intended recipient (offeror; “*môshikomi-sha*”); and (ii) the e-mail is legible.

(1) Notice of acceptance recorded in a mailbox of e-mail server of the intended recipient (offeror)

Cases where contract is concluded

- After the notice of acceptance was recorded in a mailbox, it became irretrievable due to a system failure or similar event.
-

Cases where contract is not concluded

- The notice of acceptance had not been recorded in a mailbox due to the inoperativeness of the recipient’s (offeror's) mail server.
-

(2) Legibility of e-mail recorded

Contracts not concluded

- The notice of acceptance transmitted/received cannot be read e.g. a garbled e-mail.
- When the notice of acceptance is transmitted as an attached file, the recipient (offeror) cannot decode nor read it. (For example, if the notice is written using application software that the recipient (offeror) does not have.)
-

2. Internet browser windows

When using internet browser windows, a contract is completed when a notice of acceptance is displayed on the monitor screen of the offeror.

II. Explanations

1. Conclusion of contract ; arrival of notice of acceptance

In principle, a notice of acceptance given by electronic means (including e-mails) to a contract offer can reach the opposite party in an extremely short period of time. Therefore, Paragraph 1, Article 526 and Article 527 of the Civil Code do not apply where a notice of acceptance of a contract offer is given electronically between remote parties. Instead, the contract is concluded at the time the notice of acceptance reaches the opposite party (Article 4 of the Electronic Contract Act and Paragraph 1, Article 97 of the Civil Code).

A statement may say, for example, that “this e-mail is only to confirm the receipt of the contract offer and does not constitute an approval of such contract offer. We will send you an official notice of approval if the order is accepted after we check our stock”, which specifies that approval of the contract offer will be given separately. In this case, the e-mail only confirms the receipt of the contract offer which is not considered a notice of approval¹.

2. Meaning of “arrival”

The Civil Code does not expressly define the time of arrival. In general, “arrival” (“*tôtatsu*”) has been construed to mean the time when an expression of intention (“*ishi-hyôji*”) reaches the opposite party in an objective state which the opposite party can clearly identify. Specifically, this refers to the situation where it is possible for the other party to identify an expression of intent, or the expression of intent is communicated to the recipient (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 1st Petty Bench, April 20, 1961; *Minshû*, vol. 15, no. 4, p. 774, Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, December 17, 1968; *Minshû*, vol. 22, no. 13, p. 2998).

When a notice of acceptance is given electronically, it is deemed to have arrived at the opposite party at the time the opposite party can access the electromagnetic record of the information pertaining to the notice. For example, when a notice is transmitted by e-mail, the information conveyed by the notice

¹ Judgment of Tokyo District Court, September 2, 2005; *Hanji*, No. 1922, p. 105 ruled that in a sales contract for goods in a cybermall, the e-mail of the cybermall operator to confirm its receipt of purchase offer in response to a purchase offer from the user was sent by the cybermall operator, not by the rightful seller (exhibitor) of the goods, and on this basis, the rightful person was found not to have accepted the offer. Further, it was pointed out that the purpose of the e-mail confirming the offer receipt was that the cybermall operator confirmed with the user making the order (buyer) that the offer of the user transmitted was accurate one, and that the e-mail concerned was only to guarantee the accuracy of the expression of intention made by the user with regard to the offer.

reaches the opposite party at the time it has been recorded in the mailbox of the mail server used by the intended recipient (offeror) in a readable condition. More practically, this can be summarized as follows:

- (A) In cases where the information and telecommunications equipment used by the recipient for receiving notices is designated in its mail address or the like, or in cases where there is specific information equipment instead of designated information equipment, that is reasonably believed to be regularly used by the recipient for receiving notices concerning the type of transactions in question, a notice of acceptance is deemed to have reached the opposite party at the time when it has been recorded by the information and telecommunications equipment.
- (B) Except for the cases mentioned in (A), it is understood that a notice of acceptance is deemed to have reached the recipient not at the time when it has been recorded by the information and telecommunications equipment but rather at the time when the opposite party downloaded the information. (It is not necessary for the recipient to read its contents.)

If a notice of acceptance has not been recorded because the offeror's mail server was inoperative, the notice has not reached the offeror because he cannot access the notice.

On the other hand, if a notice of acceptance is lost for any reason after it was recorded, the notice did reach the recipient at the time it was recorded.

3. Meaning of “readable condition”

Where a transmitted notice of acceptance is illegible, the notice is deemed not to have reached the recipient. Whether a notice of acceptance is illegible is determined on a case by case basis according to a variety of factors not limited to bugged texts and characters. For example, a presenter (accepter) is at not fault where a recipient fails to utilize the proper character codes to view the text received. Whether a notice of acceptance is in a legible condition should be determined on the assumption that the offeror intended to communicate the acceptance in a legible form. Where a notice of acceptance is contained in a file created using a specific application software (such as the latest version of a word processing package) which the offeror does not possess, and thus cannot decode into a legible form, it does not seem reasonable to require the offeror to obtain the particular software in order to read the information therein. Instead, the acceptor has the responsibility to transmit the information in such a way that the offeror can decode it into a legible form. Therefore, when it is impossible for the offeror to decode and read a notice of acceptance, in principle, it should be deemed that the notice has not reached the offeror.

4. Internet browser windows

In the case of internet sales, orders may be placed and acceptances be made via the internet browser window. Specifically, requisite information including the product name, number of units, and name and address of the offeror is inputted according to the organizational format of the browser window. When this information is sent, the expression of intent to order is transmitted; after the notice of order is saved on the web server of the recipient, confirmation that the contract has been concluded with the offeror is automatically displayed in the browser window.

While notice of approval is transmitted via the browser window, the arrival of such expression of intention should be considered in the same manner as an expression of intent transmitted via e-mail is considered. Specifically, the time of arrival is when the expression of intention comes to the knowledge of the recipient (offeror) or when the expression of intent has been communicated to the recipient (offeror) in a legible form. More specifically, the time when a notice of acceptance appears on the monitor screen of the offeror, after the order data having been recorded on the web server and having reached the recipient. Furthermore, it would be sufficient that the notice of acceptance appeared on the recipient's (offeror's) screen; it is unimportant whether the recipient (offeror) actually acknowledged the acceptance. On the other hand, where a notice of acceptance is not displayed on the screen of the recipient (offeror) due to a transmission error or similar situation, such notice is generally deemed not to have arrived.

Incidentally, a statement may say, for example, "thank you for your order. We will send you an official notice of approval if the order is accepted after we check our stock", which specifies that approval of the contract offer will be given separately. In this case, the statement only confirms the receipt of the contract offer which is not considered a notice of approval.

Following the display of a notice of acceptance in the browser window, e-mails are sent in some cases to confirm the conclusion of a contract. Additionally, in these cases, contracts are deemed to be executed at the time that notice of acceptance is displayed, rather than at the time when the e-mail arrives. Where a notice of acceptance is not displayed on the monitor screen, if an e-mail is sent to confirm the conclusion of a contract, the contract is deemed to be executed at the time the e-mail arrives.

I-1-2 Mistake caused by Consumer's Erroneous Operation

[Issue]

In Business-to-Consumer electronic transactions, if the company has not taken measures to reconfirm the consumer's offer, such as by reconfirmation of the details of an offer, any contract executed by the consumer's erroneous operation is invalid in principle (Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act). Conversely, if the company has taken reconfirmation measures and there exists gross negligence on the part of the consumer, the company can assert the valid formation of a contract. What specifically are these reconfirmation measures?

I. Approach

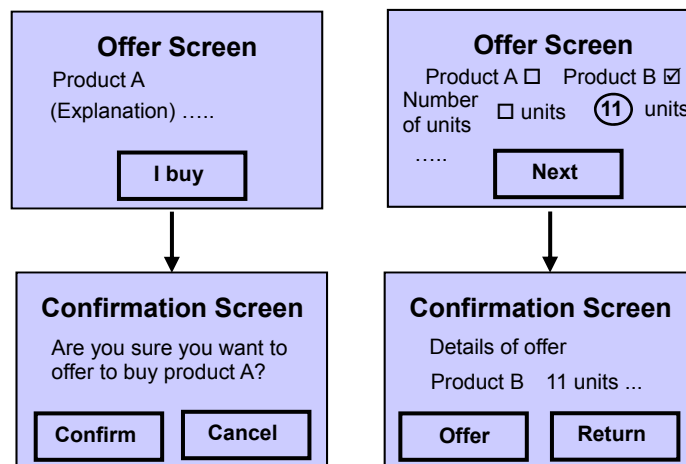
1. Remedy for consumer's erroneous operation

In Business-to-Consumer electronic transactions, an expression of intention by a consumer caused by the erroneous operation of the computer by the consumer, which corresponds to a mistake of an essential element (*“yôso-no-sakugo”*), is invalid, except where (i) the business entity has taken measures to confirm the consumer's intention, e.g. by presenting an opportunity for consumers to confirm the content of offers before the consumer makes his final offer; or (ii) the consumer has expressly abandoned any need for confirmation (Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act). In cases (i) and (ii), if there is gross negligence on the part of the consumer, the business entity can assert the formation of a contract (Proviso of Article 95 of the Civil Code) even if the consumer made a mistake (an erroneous operation).

2. Confirmation measures to be taken by the business entity

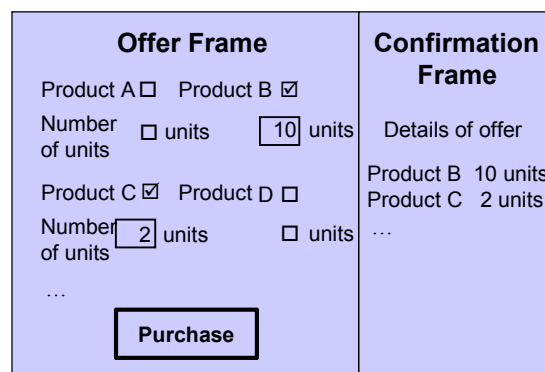
Confirmation measures must constitute a substantial query which confirms that the consumer had an actual intention to offer and that the consumer intended to offer what he inputted into the computer. For example, the business entity needs to construct a webpage on which (i) the consumer can clearly understand that he makes an offer by clicking a certain transmission button; or (ii) the concrete contents of his offer are plainly displayed to the consumer and on which the consumer is given an opportunity to revise an offer prior to making the final offer.

Examples that will be considered “confirmation measures”



Examples that will possibly fail to be considered “confirmation measures”

- Where the “Final Confirmation Screen” is not set, and the contents of the expression of intention are displayed on the same screen but at a different location from the transmission button for final offer.



3. Consumer’s waiver of an opportunity to confirm

If the consumer waives any opportunity to confirm an offer, such waiver must be explicitly expressed. Whether said waiver language is properly formulated will possibly be assessed according to strict criteria. For example, any waiver will not be admitted if the consumer were forced to provide it by the business entity or if the business entity intentionally induced the consumer to do so.

Case where the waiver is permitted

Offer Screen

If you do not need a confirmation screen, start from this screen.
(Note) If you select this screen...

Product A ☐ Product B ☐

Number of units ☐ units ☐ units

.....

Case where the waiver is not permitted

Offer Screen

Product A ☐ Product B ☐

Number of units ☐ units ☐ units

.....

Offer

If you need a confirmation screen, start from here.

II. Explanations

1. Special measures concerning invalidity due to mistake

Where a consumer can enter into a contract with a business entity by following the procedure displayed on its website, if he makes an unintentional offer (for example, where he mistakenly sends an offer although he has no actual intention to make an offer) or if he makes an offer in which the contents do not correspond to his actual intentions (for example, where he acted without revising his first offer where the first offer does not correspond with his actual intention, and where he intended to make a change), then he can assert the invalidity of the offer which was not intended or which is different from his actual intention even if he has committed gross negligence. The proviso to Article 95 of the Civil Code is not applicable except where the business entity has taken measures to give the consumer an opportunity to confirm his intention to make the offer and to confirm the contents of the offer, or where the consumer voluntarily waives such opportunity (Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act).

An example of an unintentional offer is where a consumer mistakenly presses a submit button while inputting offer to show price and consider purchasing, where a consumer mistakenly presses a button executing a contract instead of pressing the cancellation button, and etc. An example of the contents of an offer being different from what is intended is where the consumer presses the

offer button after mistakenly entering 11 units instead of 1 unit.

2. “Request for confirmation”(“*kakunin-wo-motomeru-sochi*”) in Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act

If the business entity has taken measures to ask the consumer to confirm his intention to make an offer and the contents of the offer are on the screen, then the main part of Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act does not apply. In such cases, under the proviso of Article 95 of the Civil Code, the business entity can assert effectiveness of the contract in spite of the consumer’s mistake if he has committed gross negligence in submitting an unintentional offer or in making an offer containing inaccurate contents (proviso to Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act).

The confirmation measures must include substantially asking the consumer to confirm whether he wishes to make the stated offer and whether he wishes to make the stated offer for the products/services inputted.

Examples of the confirmation measures are as follows:

- (A) A screen on which the content of an intention is clearly shown with a submit button for final offer and the consumer can clearly recognize that he is expressing his intention to make an offer by clicking on the button
- (B) That gives the consumer an opportunity to make any necessary corrections to the offer contents displayed before he presses the transmission button to finalize his intentions

Today, the common practice is to set a screen, separate from the input screen, as the “final confirmation screen” which displays the offer contents and provides an opportunity to correct the contents, in accordance with the method of (B) above. However, it is not necessary to set the “final confirmation screen” separate from the input screen as “a confirmation measure,” if the contents of the expression of the consumer’s intention are displayed in a way the consumer can confirm the contents, and further if the transmission button is set on the same screen as such contents in a way that enables the consumer to check clearly that the expression of his/her intention is for his/her offer, in accordance with the method (A). Given a growing possibility that consumers assume that clicking a button on the input screen is not the final expression of intention as the setting of the “final confirmation screen” has become a common practice, it is considered to be necessary to display all the information input by consumers so as to ensure that they can firmly check their expression of intention, and necessary to display clearly that “consumers are to express their final intention by clicking the button,” in the case where the “final confirmation screen” is not set. Further, if the contents of the expression of intention are placed at an

entirely different location from the transmission button for a final offer though both are on the same screen, (for example, despite the contents of the expression of intention displayed on the same screen as the input screen but in a different section designed for showing such contents, the transmission button is in the input screen side), it is possible that consumers click the transmission button without confirming the contents of their expression of intention. For this reason, the lack of the “final confirmation screen” potentially leads to an insufficient “measure to request a confirmation.”

3. “Explicit waiver” in Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act

When the consumer expressly waives the need for the confirmation measures mentioned above¹, the main part of Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act does not apply. For that reason, under the Proviso to Article 95 of the Civil Code, the business entity can assert that there has been gross negligence on the part of the consumer in making an unintentional offer or making an offer for mistaken contents (proviso to Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act).

An “Explicit waiver” (*“ishi-no-hyômei”*) is the act of the consumer which positively communicates to the business entity that, by his own decision he does not need to be given any confirmation measures. Whether this explicit waiver has been made will be carefully scrutinized. This explicit waiver will be invalid if the business entity forces the consumer or intentionally induces him to consent to the waiver. Other examples of this explicit waiver include cases where the business entity displays the message: “The consumer is deemed to have consented to waive confirmation measures” or in which the consumer cannot buy a product unless he clicks the button: “I expressly waive confirmation measures”. In short, an intention to abandon the need for confirmation measures must be expressed clearly and be based on the voluntary decision of the individual consumer.

Further, when the customer chooses whether to omit the confirmation screen, due to the limited space on the screen or other limitations, many of actual electronic commerce websites ask the customer to click a button with one short phrase written on it instead of clicking a button displaying a sentence meaning no confirmation screen is required, for example “Click me if you need no

¹ Even in such cases, the failure on the part of the business entity to implement a “measure to request confirmation” may lead the entity to be held liable for a breach of the provisions in Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act and thus is potentially subject to administrative dispositions. See Section I-1-3 of the present Guidelines, “Duty to Design an Easy-to-Understand Application Screen for Internet Trading.”

confirmation screen.” In the case where the consumer clicks such a button with a shortened phrase with the understanding that clicking this button means his/her expression of intention of selecting, “I expressly waive confirmation measures,” this case falls within the proviso to Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act where the consumer expresses his/her intention not to require a “measure to request a confirmation.” However, if the consumer clicks the button without the correct understanding of the meaning of the shortened description on the button as s/he has not been given an appropriate explanation about the purpose of the button, the consumer will not be understood to have expressed his/her intention not to require a “measure to request a confirmation.”

With respect to the explicit waiver, the business entity bears the burden of proof.

I-1-3 Duty to Design an Easy-to-Understand Application Screen for Internet Trading

[Issue]

In Internet trading, what specifically is an “inducement to have the customer request a contract by being contrary to the customer's wishes”, which is regulated by Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act?

I. Approach

In internet trading, a business entity is subject to administrative penalties where 1) there are no measures which enable customers to understand easily that an application will result in the formation of a fare-paying contract, or 2) there are no customer-friendly measures which enable consumers to confirm and/or to revise the content of his offer easily.

1. Display indicates an offer for a contract for value

Cases in compliance

[Screen example 1]

- Step 1: Select product

Product advertisement

Product (1)	Product (1) Made by... Price: ¥1,000	Place in shopping basket
Product (2)	Product (2) Made by... Price: ¥1,200	Place in shopping basket

Product	Unit price	Quantity	Subtotal	
Product (1)	¥1,000	1	¥1,000	Delete

Continue shopping Go to checkout

- Step 2: Enter personal information

Enter receiver's address.

Name:

Postal code: -

Prefecture: Select

Address:

Tel:

E-mail address:

Go to next screen

- Step 3: Display final confirmation screen

Order conbusiness

Finalize your order after checking its contents. (This is the last step.)

Confirm that the contents shown below are correct.

Actual order is placed after you click the “Finalize order” button.

○ Receiver's address

Keizai Taro
1-3-1, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku,
Tokyo 100-8901

○ Payment method

... card xxxx-xxx
Expiry date: 06/2002

Product	Unit price	Quantity	Subtotal
Product (1)	¥1,000	1	¥1,000
Delivery charge			¥200
Consumption tax			¥60
Total			¥1,260

○ Delivery: Home delivery service

Finalize order

Return to Top (Order is not finalized)

- Step 4: Completion

Thank you for your order.

[Screen example 2]

Order form

○ Choose the product you want

(1)

(2)

○ Receiver's address

Name:

Postal code: -

Prefecture:

Address:

Tel:

E-mail address:

Cases possibly not in compliance

[Screen example 3]

(Page 1)

Application Form

- Application procedure
- About return
- Payment method

(Page 2)

- About gift
- Application
Product A ☐ Product B ☐
(Please check)
Product 01 ☐ Product 02 ☐ Product 03 ☐
.....
.....
Product 13 ☐ Product 14 ☐ Product 15 ☐
(Please check)

(Page 3)

Applicant

E-mail:

Postal code:

Address:

Tel:

- Payment method
Bank transfer ☐ Postal transfer ☐
Cash on delivery (COD) ☐
(Please check)
- Delivery charge
When payment is made by bank transfer or postal transfer, delivery charge is ¥○○, irrespective of area. When payment is cash on delivery, delivery charge will vary according to area. (See attached table.) A ¥xx COD charge is added to the delivery charge.

2. Opportunities for confirmation and correction

Cases not in compliance

[Screen example 4]

Order Confirmation

The following e-mail will be sent:
If these contents are OK, please click on "Order with these contents". If you want to correct the contents, return to previous page by using the browser button.

- Products you order

Product	Unit price	Quantity	Subtotal
Product (1)	¥1,000	1	¥1,000
Delivery charge			¥200
Consumption tax			¥60
Total			¥1,260

- Customer
 - Name:
 - Address:
 - Tel:
 - E-mail:
- Receiver
 - Same as customer
- Payment method
 - Cash on delivery

Order with these contents

Cases possibly not in compliance

[Screen example 5]

<Screen 1>

Product name	Image	Product description	
●●●			¥ 5,340
			Next

<Screen 2>

Cash on Delivery
Enter receiver's address.

Name:

Company:

Address:

Postal code:

Tel:

E-mail:

Purchase OK

[Screen example 6]

This is the order form.
Fill out all the blanks and click on the "Apply for product"

☆Name:

☆ Name in kana:

☆Address: Postal code:

Prefecture:

Address:

☆Tel:

Order I

- Product A Type A ring ¥10,000
- Product B Type B necklace ¥15,800
- Size 7

Order II

- Product A Type A ring ¥10,000
- Product B Type B necklace ¥15,800
- Size 7

◇ Price yen

◇ Consumption tax yen

◇ Total yen

◇ Payment method

Apply for product

Cancel

Thank you for your order.

II. Explanations

1. Regulation under Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act

Where a business entity induces customers to apply for sales contracts or service contracts against the will of the customers, and where such inducement is considered likely to harm the fairness of trading and the interests of customers, the competent minister may instruct the business entity to take necessary measures (Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act).

In internet trading, an “inducement to have a customer request a contract contrary to the will of the customer specifically refers to (i) cases where there are no measures which enable the customer to understand easily that the application results in the formation of a fare-paying contract (Item 1, Paragraph 1 of the Regulations for the Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act) and (ii) cases where there are no customer-friendly measures which enable consumers to confirm and/or to revise the content of his offer easily (Item 2, Paragraph 1 of the Regulations).

2. Guidelines concerning “Inducement to Have the Customer Enter into a Contract Contrary to the Customer’s True Intent”

The Consumer Affairs Agency and METI has stipulated guidelines concerning “Inducement to Have the Customer Enter into a Contract Contrary to the Customer’s True Intent”. The guidelines include the following interpretative standards:

(1) Indication of offer (Item 1)

(i) Cases not considered subject to Item 1:

(A) Cases where a screen entitled “Order Confirmation” (final confirmation screen) is always displayed at the final stage of an offer and where the offer is made only after the button “Order with these contents” etc. is clicked on the screen.

(B) Cases where, in the absence of the final confirmation screen, the following measures are taken to remind customers overtly that this action is the final step in making an offer:

(a) The text on the final offer button reads: "I want to order (buy or apply for) the above product".

(b) A message near the final offer button reads: "Do you want to order (buy or apply for)...?" near the final offer button. In addition, the text on the final offer button reads "Yes".

(ii) The following cases are likely to fall under Item 1:

- (A) Cases where the text of the final offer button only reads "Send", instead of "Order (or "Buy" or "Apply for)"; and where no further text on the offer button is displayed.
- (B) Cases where text misleads the customer to believe the transaction is "free of charge", such as where the word "Present" is located near the final offer button.

(2) Opportunities for confirmation and correction (Item 2)

(i) Cases which meet both of the following requirements (A) and (B) are generally considered not to be subject to Item 2:

- (A) Where either of the following measures is taken at the final application stage to enable customers to easily confirm the contents of their offers:
 - (a) At the final offer stage, the offer contents are displayed on the screen.
 - (b) Where although the offer contents are not displayed, a button with the text "Confirm the contents of the order" is displayed and customers can confirm the offer contents by clicking such button; otherwise, a button with the text "For confirmation, please return to the previous page by clicking the 'back button' of the browser".
- (B) Where the customer can easily revise the offer content after the confirmation procedure described in I., such as:
 - (a) At the final application stage, buttons, such as "Change" and "Cancel", are provided which enable customers to make corrections by clicking on those buttons.
 - (b) Where a statement exists such as "For corrections, please return to the previous page by clicking on the 'back button' of the browser".

(ii) Each of the following case is subject to Item 2:

- (A) At the final offer stage, the offer contents are not displayed on the screen and where no button, such as "Confirm the contents of the order", or other means are provided to allow the consumer to confirm the order contents and where no explanation is given to the effect that the customer can return to the previous page by clicking the 'back' button of the browser.

(B) At the final offer stage, no button, such as a "Change" button, or other means are provided to make corrections and the screen presents no explanation to the effect that customers can return to the previous page by clicking the 'back' button of the browser.

(C) Where the final offer stage induces the customer to make a final offer without confirming the contents of the offer due to the confusing structure of the system (unless otherwise amended by the consumer with complete attention): e.g., the configuration of the final offer stage webpage makes it nearly impossible to determine for how many units the user is making an offer.

Reference Note:

Public guidelines exist concerning what webpage layouts pertain to the respective cases mentioned immediately above (Guidelines on “Actions to Have the Customer Request a Contract Contrary to the Wishes of the Customer” in internet trading). (<http://www.no-trouble.jp/>)

I-1-4 One-click Billing and Obligation to Perform the Contract

[Issue]

With respect to “one-click billing”, if one is charged on the basis of a contract concluded with “one-click,” does he bear any legal obligation to pay such bill?

I. Approach

1. One-click billing

One-click billing occurs where, after clicking a URL indicated in an e-mail or website (including blogs and track back links) received on a mobile phone or a personal computer, the browser indicates that the user has subscribed for a pay service and such user who clicked will be charged the bill. This is typical fraudulent billing for the purpose of swindling money under the pretext of consideration for services. We will herein discuss whether the person charged on the basis of such “one-click billing” shall bear any contractual obligation to pay the bill.

2. Where no contract has been concluded

If the one-click does not constitute an offer to enter into a contract, then no declaration of intent to make an offer exists, and thus no contract has been concluded. Accordingly, there is no legal obligation to pay the bill because there is no basis for billing.¹

Example of cases where no contract has been concluded

Cases where the one-click cannot be considered as an offer to enter into a contract:

- An e-mail indicating a certain URL which simply appears to be an advertisement (such as "Click now and access the movie as much as you like!")
- An e-mail indicating a certain URL which appears as if it were sent by an acquaintance with a view to introducing a certain website (for example, an e-mail beginning with "How have you been?," "Reference is made to the website I talked about yesterday," followed by a certain URL thereafter).
- An e-mail indicating a URL which appears to be guidance for canceling or withdrawing from membership from a pay service, where there are no pay services

¹ The Tokyo District Court Judgment of January 30, 2006 (p.52 of *Hanji* No.1939) is a case where the claim of a victim of one-click billing demanding compensation for mental suffering against the website operator was accepted.

This case ruled that, given the structure of the website at the time the plaintiff accessed it (where the user was automatically registered as a member and then billed merely by clicking an image), no contract had been concluded between the plaintiff and the defendant, and further, that the defendant's undue billing constituted a tort against the plaintiff. The court then ordered the defendant to pay 300,000 yen as compensation for the plaintiff's mental suffering.

to withdraw from (an e-mail beginning with "click here to withdraw from the membership," "click here if you do not need to be registered", followed by a certain URL)

- A website has a button which indicates "Entrance" or "See ____". If you click this button in order to move on to the next page, you will be automatically registered, even though there is no indication anywhere that clicking this button leads to an offer to execute a contract
- A question appears on the browser such as that "Do you want to accept the contract?" , followed by two buttons offering a choice of "Yes" and "No", and in spite of a single click on the button "No", this automatically leads to registration
-

Example of cases where no contract has been concluded

(Cases where the Terms and Conditions are designed to appear at a difficult-to-find location on the browser)

- In the case of a URL indicated on a mobile phone, where the URL is indicated at the top of the browser, while the Terms and Conditions are found only by scrolling all the way to the bottom thereof
- Where certain material information is indicated in a hard-to-find manner such as where the color of the text and the frame's scroll bar are the same as the background color or where such important notice is indicated in extremely small letters
-

(Cases where it is difficult to know that a single click will lead to an offer to execute a contract)

- Cases where the Terms and Conditions provide that the clicking constitutes an offer to execute a contract, while no such notice appears before clicking the button. Instead, a question such as that "Are you of an age of 18 or above?" is posed, and the button merely offers a choice of "OK" or "Cancel".
-

3. Cases where a contract will be invalidated on the ground of miscomprehension

Where the offeror has misunderstood of the elements of a contract, the offeror may reasonably argue that the contract is invalid on the ground of his/her miscomprehension, unless the offeror was grossly negligent (Article 95 of the Civil Code). However, if the business entity operating the one-click billing system deliberately anticipates that the offeror would make an error by clicking through the system, it is highly likely that the offeror will be allowed to argue that his/her declaration of intention is invalid on the grounds of miscomprehension, irrespective of whether he/she was grossly negligent.

Protecting the position of the counterparty is the purpose of barring the grossly negligent offeror from asserting the invalidity of his/her declaration of intention on the ground of miscomprehension. However, the business entity operating the one-click system has deliberately anticipated such miscomprehension and thus they need not be protected. Furthermore, in an electronic consumer contract, if the offeror erroneously clicked the purchase order button even though he/she had no intention of accepting the contract, the offeror may assert the invalidity of his/her declaration of intention on the ground of miscomprehension, irrespective of whether the offeror was grossly negligent, unless the business entity took measures to confirm the contents of the acceptance (Articles 2 and 3 of the Electronic Contract Act).²

If the contract is valid on the ground of such miscomprehension, there is no legal obligation to pay any bill, because there is no basis for billing.

Example of cases where a contract may be invalid on the ground of miscomprehension

- The offeror erroneously clicked the purchase order button although he/she had no intention of making an offer (assuming that the business entity took no measures to confirm the contents of the order)
- The price of services expected by the offeror was different from the actual price provided for in the contract.
- The contents of services expected by the offeror were different from those of the services actually provided.
-

4. Cases where a contract is invalid because some provisions therein do not comply with the Consumer Contract Act

If a contract contains provisions that do not comply with any of Articles 8 through 10 of the Consumer Contract Act, those provisions are invalid. Therefore, there is no legal obligation to pay any bill charged pursuant to those invalid provisions.

Example of provisions that are invalid because they do not comply with the Consumer Contract Act

- "If the effective rate of interest exceeds 14.6% per annum in the following cases, such provisions are invalid to the extent the effective rate of interest is in excess of 14.6%."
- "If we do not receive any payment, we will charge you an amount __ times the total

² For specific details of confirmation measures taken by business entities, see section I-1-2 of the present Guidelines, "Mistake Caused by Customer's Erroneous Operation".

amount payable"

- "In the case of a delayed payment, pursuant to the Terms and Conditions, we will charge overdue interest in the amount of ____ yen plus delay damages equivalent to ____ yen per day from the due date."
-

Example of provisions that may be invalid because they do not comply with the Consumer Contract Act

- A bill states something like "In the case of a delayed payment, we will charge ____ yen in penalties"
- A provision that unilaterally imposes restrictions on withdrawal from the membership and cancellation of the contract
-

5. Where a contract may be invalid because the content of the contract itself does not comply with the public order

A contract containing contents that do not comply with the public order is invalid (Article 90 of the Civil Code). If a contract is invalid, there is no legal obligation to pay any bill charged pursuant to those invalid provisions.

Example of cases where a contract may be invalid because it does not comply with the public order

- In light of commercial practice, the amount of consideration payable is so outrageous for the services provided that it does not comply with the public order
- The transaction in itself is illegal, such as the sale of obscene items or images infringing copyrights
-

6. Where a contract may be canceled due to fraud

If a business entity operating the one-click business entity misleads the offeror into declaring an intention to offer to execute a contract, taking advantage of his/her miscomprehension, the offeror is allowed to claim for cancellation of the contract on the grounds of fraud (Article 96 of the Civil Code).

7. Where a contract may be canceled because the offeror is a minor

If the offeror is a minor, in principle, the offeror may cancel the contract and the effectiveness of the contract may be denied (Article 5 of the Civil Code). However, there are cases where the contract may not be canceled on the ground of "fraudulent means" set forth in Article 21 of the Civil Code, depending on the way the offeror responded to the confirmation of age on the screen. If a

contract is canceled, the contract will lose effect retroactively (Article 121 of the Civil Code), and thus there is no legal obligation to pay any bill, because there is no basis for billing.

Example of cases where an offeror may cancel a contract because that the offeror is a minor

- It had not been confirmed whether the offeror was a minor or not prior to the one-click.
- When the browser merely requires a click of "Yes" or "No" to the question, "Are you of age" or "Are you 18 or older?" (See section I-4 of the present Guidelines, "Expression of Intention by a minor", [I. Approach] (Case where a minor would be permitted to rescind))
-

II. Explanations

1. Problem Identification

One-click billing is a kind of fraudulent billing whereby the business entity attempts to swindle money by billing the offeror, misleading him/her into believing that the contract has duly been concluded. In many cases, the contract has not been concluded or the contract is invalid or may be canceled. The person who clicked once, feeling that he/she is involved due to his/her own act of clicking, tends to pay such bill because he/she believes that the contract has been duly concluded.

We will herein analyze cases where there would be no legal obligation to pay the bill.

2. Where no contract has been concluded

A contract is concluded if the declarations of intention to offer and accept are identical. An offer means a declaration of intention to conclude the contract if the counterparty declares its intention to accept the offer as it is. However, in the case of one-click billing, there are cases where the one-click may not be regarded by users as an offer to conclude a contract. In this case, no declaration of intention to offer to conclude a contract exists, and thus no acceptance thereof exists. Therefore, no contract has been concluded in such a case.

Typically, there are cases where there is no indication anywhere that clicking the button will lead to an offer to execute a contract. Also, even where such indication does exist, if such indication is placed at a hard-to-find location on the browser, then a court may find that an offer to conclude a contract does not

really exist.

3. Cases where a contract will be invalidated on the ground of miscomprehension

Where the offeror has misunderstood of the elements of a contract, the offeror may reasonably argue that the contract is invalid on the ground of his/her miscomprehension, unless the offeror was grossly negligent (Article 95 of the Civil Code). However, if the business entity operating the one-click billing system deliberately anticipates that the offeror would make an error by clicking through the system, it is highly likely that the offeror will be allowed to argue that his/her declaration of intention is invalid on the grounds of miscomprehension, irrespective of whether he/she was grossly negligent. Protecting the position of the counterparty is the purpose of barring the grossly negligent offeror from asserting the invalidity of his/her declaration of intention on the ground of miscomprehension. However, the business entity operating the one-click system has deliberately anticipated such miscomprehension and does not need to be protected. Furthermore, in an electronic consumer contract, if the offeror erroneously clicked the purchase order button even though he/she had no intention of accepting the contract, the offeror may assert the invalidity of his/her declaration of intention on the ground of miscomprehension, irrespective of whether the offeror was grossly negligent, unless the business entity took measures to confirm the contents of the acceptance (Articles 2 and 3 of the Electronic Contract Act).

Separately from the issue of the effectiveness of the contract, if a vendor, a service provider or a business entity entrusted with sending e-mail advertisements for mail order sales attempts to force a customer to conclude a purchase agreement or a service contract against his/her will, the competent minister is authorized, pursuant to Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, to order that certain measures be taken, if the business method is unfair and the interests of the purchaser may be impaired.³

Therefore, the order provided for in Article 14 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act may be applicable to cases where the business entity conducting the one-click billing is a vendor, a service provider or a business entity entrusted with sending e-mail advertisements for mail order sales regulated under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, if, for example, the website browser where the one-click billing takes place does not (1) indicate that

³ See section I-1-3 of the present Guidelines, "Duty to Design an Easy-to-Understand Application Screen for Internet Trading".

clicking a button leads to an order for a payable service in a manner easily noticed by the consumers or (2) take measures to ensure that consumers can confirm the contents of their offer and correct them if necessary at the time of dispatching the order.

4. Cases where a contract is invalid because some provisions therein do not comply with the Consumer Contract Act

If a contract is classified as a consumer contract (Article 2 of the Consumer Contract Act), any contractual provisions that do not comply with any of Articles 8 through 10 of the Consumer Contract Act is invalid.

In one-click billing, there are cases where the business entity, at the time of billing, may make a claim for timely payment by threatening that a large amount of damages or fees for delay would be charged in the case of delayed payment by the customer. However, Item 2, Article 9 of the Consumer Contract Act provides that, with respect to a consumer contract, any pre-agreement or provision on penalties is invalid to the extent it exceeds 14.6%. Further, Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act provides that any provision unilaterally undermining the consumer's interests is invalid.

5. Where a contract may be invalid because the contents of the contract are incompatible with public order

If the contents of a contract are incompatible with public order, such contract is invalid (Article 90 of the Civil Code). If the service charge for viewing images is an outrageously large amount in light of commercial practice, it may be considered as an act of extortion of profit and thus not complying with public order. In addition, where the transaction contemplated in the contract is in itself illegal, such as in the case of a sale of obscene items (Article 175 of the Penal Code) or images to which copyrights have not been properly handled by licensing, such contract may be invalid on the ground of non-compliance with public order.

6. Where a contract may be canceled on the ground of fraud

If a business entity operating the one-click business entity misleads the offeror into declaring an intention to offer to execute a contract, taking advantage of his/her miscomprehension, the offeror is allowed to claim for cancellation of the contract on the grounds of fraud (Article 96 of the Civil Code).

Whether the business entity operating the one-click billing is regarded as having deceived the offeror could be judged by conducting a detailed analysis of the wording or layout of the e-mails or websites that induced the offeror into

executing the contract as well as the wording or layout used for billing.

7. Where a contract may be canceled because the offeror is a minor

If the offeror is a minor, in principle, the offeror may cancel the contract and the effectiveness of the contract may be denied (Article 5 of the Civil Code). However, there are cases where the contract may not be canceled on the ground of "fraudulent means" set forth in Article 21 of the Civil Code, depending on the way the offeror responded to the confirmation of age on the screen.⁴

⁴ See section I-4 of the present Guidelines, "Expression of Intention by a Minor".

I-2 Contents of Online Contracts

Last Revised: November 2012

I-2-1 Incorporation of Website Terms of Use into Contract and Their Effectiveness

[Issue]

Websites which provide various services and functions like internet transactions (such as internet trading, internet auction, intermediary services and/or information provision services on the internet), cloud services, CGM services and etc. generally post documents which include the terms and conditions for transactions such as “terms of use”, “terms and conditions” or “terms of service” etc. (hereinafter collectively referred to as the “Website Terms of Use”). Would such Website Terms of Use legally bind users?

I. Approach

(1) Conclusion of contracts for transactions through websites and for use of websites

In the first place, the incorporation of Website Terms of Use into a contract is premised on the fact a contract for a transaction through a website or for the use of a website is concluded. To form a contractual relationship between a user and a website operator (service provider), it is necessary that the intention of both the website operator and the user to be bound by the agreed details is objectively recognized to exist.

(2) Requirements for incorporating Website Terms of Use into contracts

When a contract for a transaction through a website or for use of a website is to be concluded and the Website Terms of Use are to be incorporated into the contract concerned (the incorporation of the Website Terms of Use is a condition of, or constitutes a part of, the contract), it is necessary that [1] the website concerned appropriately posts and discloses the Website Terms of Use so as to enable the user to check the contents of the Terms in advance without difficulty, and that [2] the user is found to consent to the execution of the contract pursuant to the disclosed Website Terms of Use.

(Where the Website Terms of Use are found to be incorporated into the contract)

- For example, when a transaction is conducted on a website, the website concerned clearly notifies¹ the user that the Website Terms of Use are part of the terms and

¹ On this point, “notify” is used to mean informing the user about the website operator’s expression of intention of executing the contract concerned with the terms and conditions of use, and “disclose” is used

conditions for the transaction concerned by setting a clear link to the Website Terms of Use close to the offer button or the buy button, and further the Website Terms of Use are disclosed as the website is designed in a way that enables the user to browse the Website Terms of Use easily at any time.

- For the use of the website concerned, the website requests the user to click the “Agree” button and consent to the Website Terms of Use, and the contents of the Website Terms of Use are disclosed to the user as the website is designed in a way that enables the user to browse the Website Terms of Use easily at any time.
-

(Cases where the Website Terms of Use is not likely to have been incorporated into a contract)

- The Website Terms of Use is only posted on the website at a place where it is hard to notice and the users are not even required to click the “Agree” button to the Website Terms of Use for the use of such website.
-

If any change is made to the content of the Website Terms of Use, the revised Website Terms of Use will only be incorporated into the transactions executed after such change and not into any transactions executed before such change.

Although the Website Terms of Use is deemed to be incorporated into a contract between the user and the operator of the website, if in breach of Article 8 and Article 9 of the Consumer Contract Act or other compulsory provisions, the validity of the Website Terms of Use shall be denied to the extent thereof. Also, even if not in breach of the regulations, any illegitimate provisions of the Website Terms of Use which are beyond the reasonable expectations of the user may be deemed invalid, in light of judicial precedents concerning regulations on regular transaction agreements or the effects of the provisions of the Consumer Contract Act which invalidate any provisions which unilaterally diminish consumer protections.

Every website has its own title for the Website Terms of Use, such as “Terms and conditions” (*riyô-joken*), “Terms of use” (*riyô-kiyaku* or *riyô-kisoku*), “Informed consent” (*go-dô-i-jôkô*), “For the users” (*go-riyô-ni-atatte*) and the like, however, such titles have no effect on the validity of the Website Terms of

to mean enabling the user to obtain information easily whenever s/he requests. In accordance with this usage, for instance, the description of “Offer upon consenting to the Website Terms of Use” on the “Agree” button on the offer screen amounts to the “notification” of the fact that the Website Terms of Use are a condition for the transaction concerned, and the setting, on the offer screen, a link to the web page which contains the Website Terms of Use amounts to the “disclosure” of the contents of the Website Terms of Use.

Use, except in special circumstances.

(3) Amendment to the Website Terms of Use

Website operators may, at their discretion, amend their Website Terms of Use, and the amended Websites Terms of Use are incorporated into those contracts which are concluded after the amendment.

However, when a continuous contract is executed between a website operator and a user, there have already been continuous contracts incorporating the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use with those users who executed their contracts prior to the amendment. For this reason, it is necessary for site operators to amend their existing, continuous contracts before applying their new Website Terms of Use to their existing users.

To change the terms and conditions of existing, continuous contracts into the amended Website Terms of Use, the consent of contracting users is necessary. As the consent to an amendment to the Website Terms of Use is the consent to an amendment to the relevant contract, it is necessary that the same requirements as those for the incorporation of the Website Terms of Use are satisfied.

With the express consent to the amendment from the user, the amended Website Terms of Use may be incorporated into the contractual relationship with the user concerned. Further, even without obtaining the express consent of the user, it is considered to be possible that the implicit consent of the user to an amendment to the Website Terms of Use may be found, if the website operator has notified the user of such amendment sufficiently, and further if the user continues to use the website concerned without an objection after having been notified of the amendment.

II. Explanations

1. Identification of problems

CGM services, such as online shopping, cloud services, SNSs, blogs, video-sharing websites, etc., and websites which provide various online trading and transaction services, such as Internet auction, Internet intermediary service and information provision service, generally post a document which includes terms and conditions for transactions such as “terms of use”, “terms and conditions” or “terms of service”, etc. (hereinafter collectively referred to as “Website Terms of Use”). Methods for disclosing the Website Terms of Use include putting a link to such terms of use on the front page of the website and, in some cases, displaying the Website Terms of Use at the time when an offer of trade is made. Further, with regard to the confirmation of whether the user has the intention of conducting a transaction in accordance with the Website Terms of Use, various

methods have been employed by websites; some websites request the user to click the “Agree” button to agree with the Website Terms of Use, while other websites notify the user on the transaction offer screen that the Website Terms of Use constitute a condition for the transaction concerned, though they do not require a click on the “Agree” button. It is unusual to execute a contract for an online consumer transaction through a website. Rather, business entities typically enter into transactions with consumers on the premise that their Website Terms of Use are used. From this, a question arises as to under what circumstances the Website Terms of Use are incorporated into a contract for a transaction with a consumer.

2. Requirements for Website Terms of Use to be accepted as a contract between user and website operator

(1) Existence of contractual relationships

In order for the Website Terms of Use to be legally binding, there must be some kind of contractual relationship between the user and the website operator.

Under the laws of Japan that apply the doctrine of consensus, based on which a contract is in principle concluded simply if there is an agreement between the contracting parties, a contract is entered into when both contracting parties agree with the agreement details with their intention of being legally bound, except special cases such as a contract-in-kind.

It is considered that there are briefly the following three characteristics of contracts for transactions through websites and for use of websites. Among the characteristics below, those contracts falling under ii) Basic Contracts and iii) Contracts for Continuous Services or Transactions are continuous contracts. Consequently, with regard to any amendment to the Website Terms of Use which are incorporated into these contracts, there is a problem in dealing with existing contracts mentioned under 3. (2) and (3) below which were executed with the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use incorporated into them.

i) Contracts for one-off transactions

This category is considered to include contracts for a one-off sale/purchase and a license for data treasure through the Internet, such as online shopping and download sale of data treasure including software and music. Such contracts are concluded when the user orders a product etc., and the website operator concerned receives and accepts the order.

ii) Basic contracts for multiple one-off transactions

As a condition of use, it has become normal that such websites as cybermall, online shopping websites and internet auction websites require users to register as a member. Although the specific purpose and contents of membership registration vary depending on the Website Terms of Use of each website, the contents normally consist of the features necessary for a basic contract for a transaction through the website, which include the rules for sale, purchase and other transactions through the website, for example, the registration of an ID and a password as a means to confirm the user's identity. In addition, such contents mainly stipulate the conditions to be applied to transactions conducted through the website, as well as prescribe accompanying matters such as the handling of personal information and the reward point service. A contract for such membership registration is concluded when the user of the website has applied for membership registration by going through the designated procedures of the website and subsequently the website operator accepts the registration of the user.

iii) Contracts for continuous transactions and services

On the Internet, various continuous services have been provided, for example, CGM services such blogs, SNSs and video-sharing websites, cloud services, and monthly-fee based video contents services. Contracts for the provision of these continuous services are concluded by the offer of the user and the acceptance of the website operator. However, due the characteristics of such services that their provision is to be continued, contracts for such services continue to be effective during the period of service provision. In this aspect, these contracts are different from those contracts for a one-off sale/purchase of things.

(2) The Website Terms of Use must be appropriately disclosed, and the user must be recognized as offering a transaction upon consenting to the Website Terms of Use

To incorporate the Website Terms of Use into a contract with the user, it is necessary that A) the Website Terms of Use are appropriately disclosed to the user in advance², and that B) the user is recognized as having offered to the

² In past cases regarding the general conditions of transportation agreements (for example, Judgment of Osaka High Court, June 29, 1965; *Kakyûminshû* Vol. 16, No. 6, p. 1154 concerning the general conditions of an air transportation agreement; Judgment of Kyoto District Court, November 25, 1955; *Kakyûminshû* Vol. 6, No. 11, p. 2457 concerning the general conditions of a motor carrier transportation agreement), the disclosure (e.g. representation) of the terms and conditions was a prerequisite for finding

website operator a transaction with the intention of conforming to the Website Terms of Use in light of the descriptions and structure of the website concerned and its system for offering transactions. Accordingly, the user is not bound by the Website Terms of Use, if A) these Terms or their contents are not properly disclosed to the user, or if B) there is no proper display that an offer of trade is premised on the agreement to conform to the Website Terms of Use and it is not possible to find objectively that the user intends to conduct a transaction in accordance with the Website Terms of Use.

In the meantime, electronic commerce with the use of the Internet has been widespread today, and it is considered that, among general consumers, to say the least, Internet users have become considerably aware of the trading system, on which the Website Terms of Use are posted and offers of trade are made on the basis of such Terms. For this reason, when an offer for a transaction is made, if the website operator clearly notifies the user that the transaction is to be conducted in accordance with the Website Terms of Use, and if the operator discloses these Terms in a way that enables the user to access them easily, for example by setting a link to the Website Terms of Use on the offer screen for the transaction (e.g. the screen displaying the “Buy” button) as well as by requiring the user to click the “Agree” button with regard to the Website Terms of Use, it is not necessarily required to have a system requiring the user to click the “Agree” button to consent to the Website Terms of Use; it is possible to find the user’s intention of conducting the transaction in accordance with the Website Terms of Use by requiring the user to click the “Buy” button for making an offer related to the transaction.

Even in a case where a contractual relationship is formed between website users, for example in the case of an Internet auction, the contract between the users will incorporate the terms and conditions set forth in the Website Terms of Use and applicable to transactions between users, if such terms and conditions are actually stipulated in the Website Terms of Use, if the Website Terms of Use are appropriately disclosed on the website, and if both the contracting users are found to agree to enter into the contract in accordance therewith.

that such terms and conditions had a binding force. In the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, February 23; 1982; *Minshû*, Vol. 36, No. 2, p. 183, the mutual aid contract concerned was found to have been formed on the basis of the adhesive terms and conditions, on the ground that an explanation on the main points of the adhesive terms and conditions was given before entering into the contract and these terms and conditions were accepted without any objection.

(3) Duty to explain about Website Terms of Use

Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Consumer Contract Act imposes a duty on business entities to make efforts to ensure that their contracts with consumers are “clear and simple”. If the contents of their transactions or conditions are complicated, their Website Terms of Use are also naturally likely to become long and complicated. A business entity is not immediately held in breach of this duty of explanation just because the contents of its Website Terms of Use are long and complicated. However, website operators are expected to make their best endeavors, in drafting their Website Terms of Use, to avoid unnecessarily complicating expressions and to use as many simple expressions as possible. Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Consumer Contract Act provides that in soliciting the execution of contracts, “Business Operators shall endeavor to provide necessary information about the rights and duties of Consumers and other matters set forth in Consumer Contracts in order to deepen Consumers’ understanding.” If an ordinary user finds it difficult to understand the contents of the given Website Terms of Use, the website operator concerned is required to make efforts to enable the user to understand the contents of the Website Terms of Use sufficiently, for example, by providing supplementary explanations regarding the terms and conditions for transactions on the website (explanations on the flow of transaction, the use of charts and explanatory illustrations, etc.). In particular, a sufficient explanation is required with regard to disadvantageous terms and conditions for users. Further, as common trade practice has been formed and standard terms and conditions have been established in the field of electronic commerce, it is possible that websites are required to provide an explanation on unique trading conditions which are different from those used by other business entities and which website users do not usually expect.

Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Consumer Contract Act prescribes the duty to make efforts. Accordingly, even if Website Terms of Use are so complicating that average users are required to make considerable efforts to understand the Terms, or even if explanations to users on contractual conditions are insufficient, this does not mean that the validity of Website Terms of Use or the incorporation of these Terms into a contract is automatically affected. However, depending on specific circumstances, business entities possibly owe a duty, on the basis of the fair and equitable principles applicable to trade, to notify the user of, or to explain to the user, the fact that is significant for the

user's decision-making³. In the case where a website operator does not sufficiently explain important matters in its Website Terms of Use and consequently the user enters into a contract on the basis of his/her misunderstanding of the trading conditions, the operator can be held liable for damages, or the validity of the Website Terms of Use will be limited.

Further, the following situations may fall under Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act, "A Business Operator represents only the advantages of an Important Matter or a matter related thereto but intentionally omits disadvantageous facts, about such Important Matter": in relation to an important matter, the business entity emphasizes advantageous terms for the user in its website while providing no explanation on disadvantageous terms related to the same matter; and in relation to an important matter, the business entity describes advantageous terms for the user with simple and clear expressions whereas it uses complicated expressions for disadvantageous terms regarding the same matter. If such a situation exists, and if the user has entered into a contract on the basis of his/her misconception that the Website Terms of Use contains no disadvantageous term, the user may rescind his/her expression of intention of entering into the relevant contract on the basis of the Paragraph.

3. Amendment to and validity of Website Terms of Use

It is common practice that Website Terms of Use are amended as required on the basis of management experience etc., with regard to the website. Accordingly, amendments to the Website Terms of Use are examined in this section.

(1) Amendment to the Website Terms of Use and new contracts

When the Website Terms of Use are amended, the amended Website Terms of Use are incorporated into new contracts to be executed after the amendment.

It is possible that those users who check the Website Terms of Use before an amendment are not aware of such amendment unless they are informed of it. As a result, if users are not notified of such amendment, for example, through information regarding the amendment posted in the "What's New" section of the relevant website, questions possibly arise as to the binding effect of the

³ For example, in the Judgment of Otsu District Court, October 3, 2003 (not published in a journal, viewable on the website of the Court), when an application for an appointment-based computer course was made, the applicant did not receive any explanation that the Educational Training Benefits System was not available for an appointment-based course. The court upheld a breach of the duty of explanation based on fair and equitable principles derived from the duties of business entities under the Consumer Contract Act, and ordered the business entity concerned to pay damages.

terms and conditions after the amendment (in particular, those terms and conditions which will be disadvantageous to users after the amendment), in relation to those users who are not aware of the amendment.

(2) Amendment to Website Terms of Use and existing continuous contracts executed on the basis of the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use

As stated in 2. (1) above, a common basic contract is formed for multiple transactions on a website, for example a cybermall, through its membership registration. Contracts for various continuous services, such as CGM services including blogs, SNSs and video-sharing websites, cloud services, and monthly-fee based video content services are continuous contracts.

Even if the Website Terms of Use are amended, this does not mean that the post-amendment Website Terms of Use are automatically incorporated into those contracts executed prior to the amendment. For this reason, in order to apply the post-amendment Website Terms of Use to those existing users who have already executed continuous contracts, it is necessary to amend the existing continuous contracts by incorporating the post-amendment Website Terms of Use into these contracts. In light of the principles of the contract law that require an agreement from both contracting parties before an amendment takes place, it is necessary to obtain consent from users before the post-amendment Website Terms of Use are incorporated into their existing continuous contracts.

In the case where the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use are incorporated into a contract with a fixed term, if the user is, at the expiration of the contract, to renew the contract term under the post-amendment Terms, the post-amendment Terms are to be incorporated into the renewed contract, as is the case for a new contract in (2) above. This will apply to the case where the website operator solicits an offer for contract renewal under the post-amendment Terms upon rejecting automatic renewal of the contract or rescinding it in accordance with the terms and conditions set forth in the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use.

(3) Implicit consent to amendment to continuous contracts executed before amendment to Website Terms of Use

As stated in (2) above, if a user has executed a continuous contract before the Website Terms of Use is amended, the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use apply to the user who has executed a continuous contract before the Website Terms of Use is amended, unless the user consents to the incorporation of the post-amendment Website Terms of Use.

However, the Website Terms of Use are usually improved as time passes on the basis of management and trouble experience, for new services or transactions on the relevant website. Further, as it is necessary to treat a large number of users uniformly, there is a high necessity of the incorporation of the latest Website Terms of Use into the existing users' continuous contracts executed under the pre-amendment Website Terms of Use. A large number of users understand this kind of situation, and accordingly they are considered to be aware of potential changes in their Website Terms of Use. In particular, in situations where the relationship between users is a matter of concern, such as on online game sites and Internet auction sites, users are considered to positively expect the incorporation of the latest, post-amendment Website Terms of Use and the application thereof to other users equally.

On this point, even without obtaining express consent of users, it is considered that their implicit consent to an amendment to the Website Terms of Use should be found, if the website operator has notified users of the amendment sufficiently, and further if users have continued to use the website concerned after this notification without raising any objection.

To find implicit consent, it is necessary to find that users are at least aware of an amendment of some sort is to be made to the Website Terms of Use, and that such amendment has been disclosed to users appropriately⁴. The duty to make efforts to give explanations to users as stated in 2. (3) above applies to a notification of any amendment to the Website Terms of Use.

Furthermore, for example, the following points may be taken into consideration in finding whether there is implicit consent to any amendment to the Website Terms of Use: A) whether or not such amendment is within the scope of reasonable foreseeability of ordinary users; B) the extent of such amendment in terms of effect on ordinary users; C) whether or not the contents are what ordinary users naturally consent to without a doubt, such as responses to amended laws and regulations, the handling of inappropriate actions of and trouble with vicious users, and the organization of the provisions and language used; and iv) whether such amendment gives merits to users, such as service improvement and the provision of new services.

⁴ However, the intended purpose does not necessarily mean that the notification for an amendment made to the Website Terms of Use and the disclosure of the amended details are separately required. For example, an e-mail describing the details of an amendment is sent to notify users of the amendment to the Website Terms of Use, this e-mail serves as both the notification of the amendment and the disclosure of the amended details.

(4) Necessity of retaining the amendment history of Website Terms of Use

In the event of a dispute with a user in relation to the details of the Website Terms of Use to be applied, it is highly likely that the website operator bears the burden of proof with regard to the contents of the Website Terms of Use at the time when the relevant transaction took place and with regard to the timing of any amendment. This is because the website operator creates the information on the website including the Website Terms of Use and manages this information with servers, and thus the operator is in a position where the operator can retain the amendment history of the Website Term of Use without difficulty. In addition, unlike normal, paper-based contracts, electronic consumer contracts generally involve a system which does not generate an electronic record for the user as proof of the contents of the Website Terms of Use. Consequently, it is desirable for the website operator to record a history as to when and what Website Terms of Use were posted on the website and when and what amendment was made, in preparation for potential disputes in the future.

4. Regulations of Consumer Contract Act etc.

Even if the Website Term of Use which is incorporated into a contract is legally binding, any provision in such Website Terms of Use that violates the compulsory provisions or that is contrary to public order and public morals would be held invalid. The following is a discussion on the Consumer Contract Act as the Act contains the most important compulsory provisions in relation to the Business-to-Consumer Electronic Commerce.

(1) Regulations on provisions limiting the liability of business entity

Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act prescribes that any provision is invalid which fully discharges a business entity from its liabilities for default, unlawful act or compensatory damages such as liability to comply with the warranty against defects.

Correspondingly, a partial limitation of liability (e.g. setting an upper limit for compensatory damages) is not deemed outright as invalid under the Consumer Contract Act. However, the discharge and/or limitation of any partial liability which was caused by the intention and/or gross negligence of the business entity (of representative or employee) is prescribed as invalid under Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act.

The validity of any limitation of liability on physical damages has been very

narrowly interpreted⁵ since the period before the Consumer Contract Act came into force. It is expected that Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act, which prescribes that any provision which unilaterally detracts from the benefits of consumers shall be deemed invalid, will operate to strengthen the court to combat any restrictions on liability for bodily injuries. Therefore, it is clear that a business entity would not be fully discharged from the liabilities associated with bodily injuries or death and consequently any provision which partially limits the liability of such business entity could be found invalid.

(2) Invalidation of excessive amount of damages against Consumers

Under Paragraph 1, Article 9 of the Consumer Contract Act, it is prescribed that if the termination charges “which exceed the average amount of damages incurred by such business entity following the termination of similar consumer contract” are levied upon the termination of a contract between consumers, the amount of such termination charges exceeding the average amount of such damages would be found invalid. Accordingly, this provision bans the business entity from gaining any benefits from imposing termination charges on customers. In relation to the termination of reservations at restaurants, Judgment of Tokyo District Court, March 25, 2002, 1152 *Kinhan* 36, held that an agreement on termination charges, which exceeded the actual amount of food and beverages consumed, is partially invalid and ruled that the amount of penalty should be limited to 30% of the actual amount of food and beverages which would have been consumed. Also, the cancellation penalty for termination of the purchase contract of the new car sold as a used⁶ or the non-refund of tuition by a private university when an enrollee declines admission before entering, the amount of such payments which exceed the average amount of damages would be found invalid under the Consumer Contract Act⁷. Therefore, even though the provision of termination charges

⁵ For example, Judgment of the Osaka District Court, May 9, 1989, 1308 *Hanji* 28, allowed a limitation of liability for air transportation itself, however, the court did not allow a similar limitation on damages relating to bodily injuries or death on the ground that the maximum amount of liability (up to 600 Million Yen) stipulated in the Domestic Conditions of Carriage (“*kokunai-ryokaku-unsô-yakkan*”) was too low. As seen in the internationally acclaimed Warsaw Convention with respect to the limitation on liability for air transportation, even though in the air transportation industry, a limitation of liability is generally accepted, yet nevertheless any limitation on bodily injuries or death to passengers is strictly limited. Therefore, in Japan any limitation on bodily injuries or death should not be permitted.

⁶ Judgment of Osaka District Court, July 19, 2002, 1162 *Kinhan* 32, held that, the car in question could be sold to others, such profits as could have been obtained from the transaction was not be considered as an average damage caused by the termination of the purchase contract of that car.

⁷ After the Consumer Contract Act came into force, the courts have ruled that special clauses on

is prescribed in the Website Terms of Use, if such termination charges exceed the average amount of damages incurred by the website operator upon occurrence of termination, the amount in excess of such average amount will be found invalid.

Also, Paragraph 2, Article 9 of said Act prescribes a ceiling of 14.6% per annum as the default interest amount applicable to consumers.

As for providing contracts of the specified continuous services mentioned in the Specified Commercial Transactions Act (the current specified services are esthetics, foreign language conversations, cram schools, tutoring, PC schools, marriage agencies), Article 49 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act provides for the cancellation right and stipulates that the damages for cancellation may not be beyond the total amount of the “normal cost necessary for contract and implementation thereof” mentioned in Article 16 of Specified Commercial Transactions Act Enforcement Order and the Schedule 4 thereof and the value of the services provided before cancellation⁵ and, if applicable, its interests based on the legal interest rate.

(3) Invalidation of other provisions which unilaterally damage the benefits of consumers

Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act prescribes, dissimilarly to the Civil Code, that the Commercial Code and other laws which are automatically incorporated into contracts (unless specifically overridden in the contract), are more consumer friendly in that they will nullify any contractual clauses which limit the rights of consumers and which create additional obligations on the part of the consumer and which unilaterally detract from the benefits enjoyed by consumers. The following lists the possible types of clauses which could be found invalid:

- i) Clauses restricting the right of a consumer to terminate a contract, as stipulated by Article 570 of the Civil Code among other articles, to terminate contracts due to defects and non-performance of the business entity, or clauses expanding the rights of business entities to terminate contracts.
- ii) Arbitration clauses under which the right to appoint arbitrators belongs

nonrefundable tuition are invalid.

⁵ Judgment of Supreme Court Third Petty Bench, April 3, 2007, 61-3 *Minshû* 967 is a judicial precedent for calculating the values of services already provided.

only to the business entities⁸

- iii) Clauses which deem a the silence of a consumer to constitute an implicit expression of intention, such as a “negative option” where a consumer is deemed to consent unless he keeps silent for a certain period; such silence should not be deemed to constitute implicit expression of intention under general trade practices.
- iv) Clauses placing an additional burden of proof on consumers or eliminating the burden of proof for business entities
- v) Clauses restricting the exercise period of legal rights of consumers

(4) Regulations on general contractual conditions

With respect to clauses of regular transaction agreements (“*yakkan*”), the judicial precedents, in which the unreasonable clauses were held as invalid for being contrary to public policy (“*kôjo-ryôzoku*”), have had an impact on to what extent the contents of clauses can be restricted. Therefore, any unreasonable clauses within the Website Terms of Use could be similarly ruled invalid. The essence of the jurisprudence on this point of law is similar to the purpose of the provision of Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act “which prescribes, dissimilarly to the Civil Code, that the Commercial Code and other laws which are automatically incorporated into contracts (unless specifically overridden in the contract), are more consumer friendly in that they will nullify any contractual clauses which limit the rights of consumers and which create additional obligations on the part of the consumer and which unilaterally detract from the benefits enjoyed by consumers.”

⁸ According to Article 3 of the Supplementary Provisions of Arbitration Act, consumers may cancel the arbitration agreement with the business entity.

I-2-2 Incorrect Price Indication and the Legal Responsibility of the Party Declaring its Intentions

[Issue]

A product, on which an incorrect price was indicated, was displayed and sold on an electronic commerce site. A potential purchaser declared his/her intention to purchase such product at such incorrect price through a system on the internet. Will the seller, who became aware of the incorrect price indicated on the product, be required to sell it at the incorrect price as indicated? Would the conclusion be different under each of the following circumstances?

- If the potential purchaser was aware that that price indicated was incorrect or if most users of the site would be aware that the indicated price was incorrect.
- If the transaction is so constituted that, as in the case of an internet auction, the act of the potential purchaser as well as of the seller would determine the final price in such electronic commerce.
- Whether or not the seller is a business entity.
- If it is expressly indicated that an expression of intent to accept the offer received from the purchaser would be sent separately by an automatic response.
- If the website regulations provide the timing for the conclusion of a contract.

I. Approach

In electronic commerce, where the seller mistakenly indicates an incorrect price for a product that is lower than the correct price, the seller would not be obligated to sell it at such incorrect price if the purchase agreement for that product has not been concluded yet, or if, although the purchase agreement has been concluded, the contract is invalid on the ground that such incorrect price is a declaration of intent due to a miscomprehension.

In the following section, we will first analyze an issue peculiar to cases involving the indication of an incorrect price. The issue is whether the purchase agreement is invalid because the seller mistakenly indicated an incorrect price and therefore declared his/her intention under a miscomprehension (*sakugo*). Secondly, we will analyze whether or not a purchase agreement has been concluded.

If the seller was grossly negligent, he/she is not entitled to argue that his declaration of intention is invalid on the basis of his miscomprehension. In many cases, the seller will be regarded as grossly negligent if he/she indicated an incorrect price. However, where the potential purchaser was aware of the

incorrectness of the indicated price or where most browsers of the website could have been aware of the incorrectness of the indicated price, the seller may, even though he/she was grossly negligent, be able to argue that the purchase agreement is invalid on the basis of his miscomprehension.

With respect to whether or not a purchase agreement has been concluded, generally, displaying a product on a website with incorrect price information merely constitutes an inducement for an offer (*moushikomi-no-yuuin*) to execute a contract, and thus no contract has been concluded at such time. In principle, the timing for the conclusion of a contract would be the time when an e-mail containing a notice of acceptance (*shodaku tsuchi*) from the seller reaches the potential purchaser who clicked the button to offer (*moushikomi*) to purchase the product after browsing the website, or when a notice of acceptance appears on the potential purchaser's browser after the data on the acceptance has reached the offeror, responding to the data on the offer recorded on the web server.

However, where the e-mail from the seller is an automatic response e-mail and it is expressly indicated that a notice of acceptance would be sent separately, such e-mail is merely an acknowledgement of the order and would not be considered to be a notice of acceptance.

Example of cases where a contract may be invalid due to miscomprehension

- If the potential purchaser was aware of the incorrectness of the indicated price for the product.
- If most browsers of the website could be aware that the indicated price is incorrect.
-

Example of cases where no purchase agreement has been concluded

- Where an automatic response mail from the seller is sent in response to the potential purchaser's order, and the e-mail expressly indicates that the seller will declare his/her intention to accept the order separately.
- Where an e-mail "confirming the order" is sent by the seller, the terms and conditions for the website expressly provide that the e-mail indicating that "the ordered product has been dispatched" constitutes a notice of acceptance.

II. Explanations

1. Where a purchase agreement has been concluded, could the seller argue that the agreement is invalid on the basis of his/her miscomprehension?

A contract is concluded when the declarations to offer and accept are identical. The issue is, where the contract has been concluded at an incorrect price,

whether the party declaring its intention can argue that the contract is invalid on the basis of his/her miscomprehension.

(1) Incorrect price indication and invalidity on the basis of a miscomprehension

Even where a contract has been concluded, the contract is valid only if certain conditions for it to take effect are met. If the contract is not valid, the seller will not bear any obligations to sell the product at the incorrectly indicated price.

A declaration of intent, as a juristic act, is invalid if there is a miscomprehension with respect to any material elements of such juristic act. However, if the party who made such declaration was grossly negligent, such party is not entitled to argue that it is invalid (Article 95 of the Civil Code). In regard to an incorrectly indicated price, it would be possible for a seller who accepted the order without gross negligence to argue that his/her declaration of such intention is invalid on the ground that it includes a "miscomprehension of a material element" (*youso-no-sakugo*).

"Miscomprehension" (*sakugo*) herein means a situation where, due to an erroneous perception or judgment of the party that expresses its intention, a divergence occurs between the intention reasonably presumable from the actually expressed intention and the party's genuine intention. "Miscomprehension of a material element" in this case means miscomprehension with respect to any material part of the declaration of intent. More specifically, a miscomprehension with respect to a material element consists of cases where, (1) the party would not have declared its intention if there had been no such miscomprehension and; (2) a reasonable man would not, in light of general commercial practice, have made such declaration without such miscomprehension (Judgment of Great Court of Cassation (equivalent to the Supreme Court), October 3, 1918, *Daishin-in Minjihanketsuroku* 24-1852, etc.).

The reason why a party who erroneously declared its intent due to its gross negligence is not entitled to argue that such declaration of intent is invalid is that there is no need to protect such grossly negligent party. "Gross negligence" herein refers to cases where a party was extremely careless in erroneously declaring its intent and any reasonable person with normal care would not have made such a mistake (Judgment of Great Court of Cassation (equivalent to the Supreme Court), November 8, 1917, *Daishin-in Minjihanketsuroku* 23-1758, et.al).

Generally, the sales price of a product would be a main part of the

declaration of intent in selling a product, and thus an incorrect indication of price is generally considered as a "miscomprehension of a material element." In electronic commerce, in order to avoid indicating an incorrect price, it would suffice to input the price information carefully into the system. Sellers are thus generally considered to be grossly negligent when indicating an incorrect price, except under very limited circumstances.

(2) Where the potential purchaser was aware that the indicated price is incorrect or if most browsers of the website would be aware of such incorrectness

As mentioned in 1. (1) above, a seller who indicated an incorrect price would generally be considered to be grossly negligent. However, there are cases where the seller, even though he/she is grossly negligent, is entitled to argue that his/her declaration of intent is invalid on the basis of his/her miscomprehension. For example, if the potential purchaser was aware that the price indicated for a product was incorrect, the seller (the party declaring its intent) may claim that its declaration of intent was invalid on the basis of his/her miscomprehension. More specifically, it is highly probable that the seller may reasonably claim that his/her declaration of intent is invalid on the basis of its miscomprehension by arguing that the purchaser was aware of that the indicated price was incorrect, where a price, one digit less than the market price, was erroneously indicated for products such as large-sized TVs, of where the rough price range in the market would be relatively familiar to general consumers, or where the purchaser obviously made an offer to buy a product after browsing an anonymous message board on a website discussing the incorrectness of the indicated price. The reason for this is that there is no need to protect the counterparty if such counterparty was aware of the incorrectness of the price indicated by the party declaring intentions, considering that the protection of the counterparty is the purpose of barring a grossly negligent party from claiming the invalidity of his/her declaration of intentions on the basis of his/her miscomprehension. However, in the case of an internet auction, the problem should be analyzed from a different perspective.

(3) In the case of transactions such as an internet auction where, in electric commerce, the act of the potential purchaser as well as of the seller determines the final sales price.

There are various forms of transactions in electronic commerce. One of them is an internet auction where the seller merely provides the opening price

and the final bid price will be determined by the bid of the successful bidder.

We need to analyze the various types of internet auctions on a case-by-case basis. Where the intention of the participants in the transaction is to follow the conditions at the closing of the bidding period (closing of the auction), we may reasonably argue that a purchase agreement has been concluded between a seller and a successful bidder who has satisfied the bidding conditions provided by the seller at the closing of the bidding period (See section I-7-3 of the present Guidelines, "Conclusion of sales contracts in internet auctions").

If a purchase agreement is considered to have been concluded at the closing of the internet auction, the issue is whether the seller, who erroneously indicated a lower opening price than he had initially intended, could claim the invalidity of his/her declaration of intent on the basis of his/her miscomprehension.

In an internet auction site accessed by a considerably large number of users, the successful bid price for the product is considered to be the market price in the group of people that consists of the users of such internet auction site. Generally, the more frequently a website is accessed by users, the closer the market price in the group of people would be to the real market price. If so, even if the seller is barred from claiming the invalidity of his/her declaration of intent, the seller's economic risk arising therefrom would only be that the seller, who wished to sell a product in any event at a list price exceeding the market price in the group of people ends up, contrary to his/her expectations, concluding a purchase agreement at the market price and consequently he/she loses potential sale proceeds in an amount equivalent to the difference between his/her list price and the market price. In light of the need for the protection of bidders in an auction, the exhibitor shall not be entitled to claim the invalidity of his/her declaration of intent on the basis of miscomprehension merely because the bidder was aware of the incorrectness of the indicated opening price, although this matter should be considered on a case-by-case basis. In such cases, there would generally be no "miscomprehension of a material element" and thus the declaration of intentions would not be held invalid on the basis of a miscomprehension.

(4) Whether or not the seller is a business entity

In discussing the invalidity of a declaration of intent due to a miscomprehension, whether or not the party making such declaration is a business entity might be a factor in determining whether such declaration was made due to gross negligence. Generally, if the seller is a business entity, it would be more difficult to deny gross negligence, as compared to the case of

an individual.

2. Whether or not and a purchase agreement has been concluded in electronic commerce

(1) The conclusion of a purchase agreement in electronic commerce

The seller is not obliged to sell the product to the potential purchaser at an incorrectly indicated price until a purchase agreement has been concluded. However, once a contract has been concluded, the parties thereto are bound to the contents thereof, unless there are special circumstances such as the agreement not meeting certain conditions necessary for it to be effective. Thus the seller is generally obligated to sell the product at the incorrectly indicated price.

Under the Civil Code, in order for a contract to be concluded, the declarations of intent to offer and to accept must be identical. The potential purchaser browsing the website would declare its intent to offer (*moushikomi*) to conclude a contract by, for example, clicking the order button in accordance with the purchase order system on the website. When a declaration of intent to order is made, the seller would declare his/her intention to accept the offer by e-mail etc. In this regard, a notice of acceptance that is delivered by electronic means such as by an e-mail would basically reach the counterparty almost instantly and thus, if a notice of acceptance is delivered electronically such as by e-mail to a counterparty not physically present, Paragraph 1, Article 526 and Article 527 of the Civil Code (*hasshin shugi*) will not be applicable. Instead, such contract shall be concluded at the time the notice of acceptance reaches the offeror, i.e., the potential purchaser (Article 4 of the Electronic Contract Act and Paragraph 1, Article 9 of the Civil Code).

It is reasonable to consider the notice of acceptance dispatched on the website in the same way as the time-reached theory applicable to the declaration of intentions, and the time-reached theory applicable to the acceptance notice in the case of e-mails. Thus, the time a contract is considered to have been concluded shall be the time the notice of acceptance appears on the offeror's browser after the data on the acceptance has reached the offeror, responding to the data on the offer recorded on the web server. The notice of acceptance has "reached" the offeror, only if the notice of acceptance appears on the display, irrespective of whether the offeror actually confirmed this notice or not (See section I-1-1 of the present Guidelines, "Conclusion of Contracts").

In regard to the indication of an incorrect price, generally, displaying a product whose price is incorrectly indicated on the website is considered an

invitation for an offer to conclude a contract. At this moment, no contract has yet been concluded, and thus the seller is not obligated to sell the product to potential purchasers at the incorrectly indicated price. Where a potential purchaser clicks the purchase order button after browsing the website, the contract is considered to have been concluded, in principle, at the time when the seller's notice of acceptance reaches the potential purchaser or when the notice of acceptance appears on the offeror's browser after the data on the offer has reached the offeror, responding to the data on the offer recorded on the web server.

The aforementioned argument is a general theory that is not based on any specific circumstances. Therefore, we should note that, each specific case should be examined on a case-by-case basis.

(2) If the automatic response e-mail to the offer made by a potential purchaser expressly indicates that a declaration of intent to accept would be given separately.

Notwithstanding 2. (1) above, where the automatic response mail includes a statement such as the following "This mail is not a notice of acceptance but an acknowledgement of receipt of your purchase order. We will check our stock and send you a formal notice of acceptance if we can accept your order," expressly stating that an acceptance of the offer of a contract would be given separately, such response e-mail aims merely to acknowledge the receipt of the offer, and thus this would not constitute a notice of acceptance (See section I-1-1 of the present Guidelines, " Conclusion of Contracts "). In this case, no contract has been concluded yet, and thus the seller is not obligated to sell any product to the potential purchaser at the incorrectly indicated price.

After the notice of acceptance appears, an e-mail to confirm the conclusion of a contract may be sent separately, but even in this case, the time such contract is concluded would be the time when the notice of acceptance appears on the offeror's browser, not when the subsequent e-mail reaches the offeror. On the other hand, where no notice of acceptance appears on the browser, if an e-mail confirming the conclusion of the contract was dispatched to the offeror, the contract has been concluded at the time such e-mail reaches the offeror (See section I-1-1 of the present Guidelines, " Conclusion of Contracts ").

(3) If the terms and conditions for the website provide the timing for the conclusion of a contract.

In many websites conducting electronic commerce, the terms and conditions

for transactions are indicated in the form of rules on, conditions for, or agreements on the transactions on the websites (hereinafter collectively referred to as the "Terms and Conditions"). The Terms and Conditions may provide the timing for and effectiveness of the conclusion of a contract.

For example, the Terms and Conditions may indicate, "If the customer orders a product, the customer's order shall constitute an offer to conclude a purchase agreement for the product on our website. The customer will receive a 'confirmation of order' e-mail from our website which acknowledges our receipt of and the contents of your order. The website's acceptance of the customer's offer for a contract shall take effect at the time when a 'notice of dispatch of the ordered product' is sent by e-mail from our website to inform the customer about the dispatch of the product." In this case, the issue is whether the parties to the transaction are bound to the Terms and Conditions.

In this regard, where the Terms and Conditions clearly appear on the browser every time for each transaction and the customer is required, as a precondition for entering into such transaction, to express his/her consent to the Terms and Conditions by clicking the Agree button, such Terms and Conditions would be included in the contents of the contract and thus they are binding the parties thereto. On the other hand, where the Terms and Conditions are posted at an inconspicuous location on the website and the customer is not required to click an Agree button to express his/her consent thereto in connection with the use of the website, such Terms and Conditions will not be binding on the parties to the transaction (See section I-2-1 of the present Guidelines, "Effectiveness of Website Terms of Use" herein).

Where, in light of the aforementioned criteria, the Terms and Conditions would be binding on the parties to the transaction, another issue would be whether the Terms and Conditions may designate the timing for the conclusion of a contract.

Generally, the Terms and Conditions would not have any binding effect on the timing for the conclusion of a contract. This should instead be reasonably determined by analyzing the declarations of intent to offer and accept that constitutes the purchase agreement. However, as a rule, if the Terms and Conditions set forth the timing for the conclusion of a contract, it will affect the user's intent in connection with such user's declaration of intent. If the parties to a transaction are considered to have given prior consent to the Terms and Conditions, such parties may be considered to have entered into the transaction after agreeing upon the timing for the conclusion of the contract designated in the Terms and Conditions.

Based on the aforementioned argument, we could conclude that, where the

Terms and Conditions are binding on the parties thereto, the timing for the conclusion of a contract is likely determined in accordance with the provisions therein. In the aforementioned example, the contract has been concluded at the time the "notice of dispatch of the ordered product" has been sent to the potential purchaser, as provided in the Terms and Conditions. Until a contract has been concluded, the seller is not obligated to sell the product at the incorrectly indicated price.

I-2-3 Validity of Agreement on Court Jurisdiction

[Issue]

If an agreement stipulating the court with jurisdiction in an online contract is not made in writing, is it valid?

I. Approach

An online agreement stipulating the court with jurisdiction is valid.

II. Explanations

An agreement stipulating the court with jurisdiction used to be considered invalid, unless it was in writing (Paragraph 2, Article 11 of the Code of Civil Procedure). Therefore, no clause stipulating the court with jurisdiction in the online contract used to be valid. However, the amendment of the Code of Civil Procedure in 2004 stipulated a new provision, Paragraph 3, Article 11, pursuant to which the agreement on the competent court by electronic method shall also be deemed to be in writing. Thanks to this explicit provision, an online agreement on the competent court shall be valid.

The term “agreement on the court with jurisdiction” here means which court in Japan has jurisdiction over the case that is cognizable by courts in Japan.

I-2-4 Validity of Arbitration Agreement

[Issue]

If an arbitration agreement in an online contract is not made in writing, is it valid?

I. Approach

An arbitration agreement in an online contract is valid.

II. Explanations

Under the Arbitration Act, an arbitration agreement must be made in writing (Paragraph 2, Article 13 of the Arbitration Act). However, it also provides that an arbitration agreement completed by electromagnetic record shall be deemed to have been completed in writing (Paragraph 4 of said Article). Therefore, an arbitration agreement completed in an online electromagnetic record (e.g. exchanging e-mails), where no written form exists, is considered a valid online transaction.

A consumer has the right to terminate the arbitration agreement incorporated into a consumer contract ("Consumer Arbitration Agreement") as defined by the Consumer Contract Act (Supplementary provision of the Arbitration Act)

I-3 Identity Fraud

Last Revised: November 2012

I-3-1 Effects of Expression of Intention by a Frauder on the Victim

[Issue]

When might the victim of “identity fraud” (internet identity theft) have to bear any responsibility?

I. Approach

1. Identification of problems

In non-face-to-face electronic commerce, it is possible that a person falsely represents him/herself as another person in conducting certain acts. A problem arises with regard to whether acts conducted by an identity thief is attributable to the victim of this identity theft. Further, in relation to payment with credit cards, the uniform terms and conditions of use and the uniform system for compensation prepared by the relevant trade association are used to meet a strong demand for consumer protection.

2. Effectiveness of acts conducted by an identity thief

(1) Was a sales contract formed between the identity theft victim and the operator?

(i) Cases where there is no prior agreement on how to identify users (one shot transaction)

When there exists no prior agreement on how to identify users, the expression of intention by a frauder does not belong to the identity theft victim. Thus, no contract has been formed between the identity theft victim and the operator.

However, where the requirements prescribed by the Civil Code for an apparent representation (“*hyoken-dairi*”) are met: (a) a plausible appearance; (b) the counterparty acted without fault and in good faith; and (c) the identity theft victim is at fault, there are cases which have held that the expression of intention by a frauder belongs to the principal as the requirements for apparent agency have been fulfilled (Articles 109, 110, and 112 of the Civil Code), and consequently a contract was formed.

Example of Cases where identity theft victim was found a party to the contract

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Example of Cases where identity theft victim is unlikely to be considered as a party to the contract

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(ii) Cases where there exists a prior agreement about how to identify users (continuing transactions)

In the case of continuing transactions, a prior agreement is usually reached about how to identify users, such as through specific IDs or passwords. In this case, if the identification method agreed upon is properly effected, in principle a contract exists between the identity theft victim and the seller.

However, in the case of a consumer, such prior agreement is void where its contents unilaterally damage the interests of the identity theft victim contrary to fair and equitable principles (Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act).

Cases where a prior agreement is recognized as void are judged in the same manner as in (i) above.

Example of Cases where a prior agreement may be considered invalid

- Where the agreement stipulates that the effects of an expression of intention by a frauder belong to the identity theft victim (consumer) even though the operator is actually at fault, so long as the operator properly verifies the personal identification information, (e.g.) ID or password.
- Cases where IDs/passwords are leaked from the operator
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Example of Cases where a prior agreement may be considered valid

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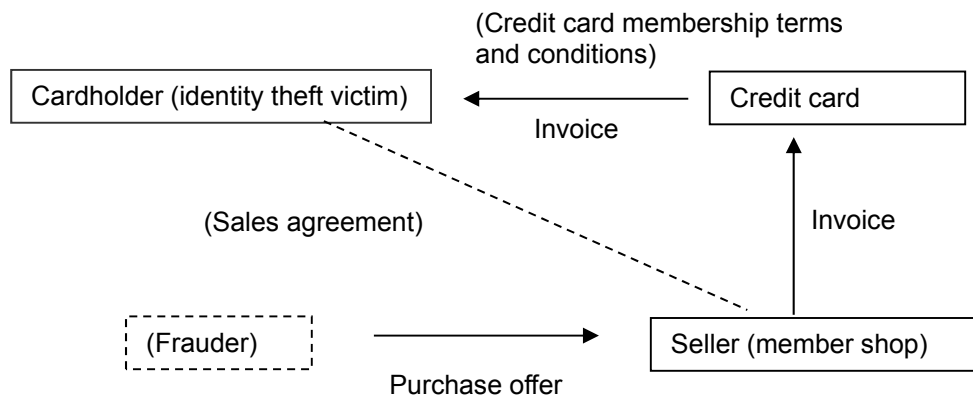
(2) Effectiveness of credit card payment by an identity thief

In many cases, credit card payment in online shopping requires the entry of a credit card's information including its card number and effective duration. If identity theft occurs in this kind of situation, is the victim of this identity theft (the credit card holder) held liable for payment?

In accordance with the current, major credit card membership terms and conditions, cardholders do not assume responsibility for such payment, unless in the case of [1] a breach of the duty to manage the credit card and credit

card information with the due care of a prudent manager, or [2] failure to take measures, such as prompt reporting, after the credit card is lost or stolen.

As above, the current credit card membership terms and conditions limit the responsibility of those cardholders whose information is used without authorization to a reasonable extent.



Cases where the identity theft victim is responsible

- The relative or cohabitant of the cardholder used his card.
- A person, to whom the cardholder lent his credit card, used it.
- A cardholder disclosed his credit card information, such as the card number and expiration dates, to other persons, and subsequently such information was improperly used.
- Cases where another person uses the credit card information as well as the 3D Secure password¹
-

Cases where the identity theft victim is possibly not responsible

- Although the credit card information, such as the card number and the expiry date, were fraudulently used, the identity theft victim had properly managed and stored the credit card and its information.
- The credit card information was leaked from a member shop and was improperly used.
-

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

In electronic commerce, where parties carrying out a transaction never meet

¹ The identification method for internet transactions which uses a password registered by the credit card holder in advance

face-to-face, it is easy for an unauthorized person to make a transaction by wrongly using the name of another. Developments in electronic signatures, authentication methods, and other systems which specialize in verifying personal identification methods possibly reduce the danger of fraud. However, when an act of fraud is committed, are there any cases where the identity theft victim is legally responsible for the transaction executed by the frauder?

In particular, online shipping and credit card payment are mainly discussed.

2. Effectiveness of acts conducted by an identity thief

(1) Legal relationship between the victim of the identity theft and the seller (operator)

(i) Principles (Cases where there is no prior agreement)

Except when a third party has the power to represent the principal, the effects of an expression of intention made by a third party do not belong to the principal. However, the Civil Code has provisions on apparent representation (Articles 109, 110, and 112). These provisions can attribute the effects of an expression of intention made by a third party, with no power of representation, to the principal if the following requirements are met: (X) the third party appears to legitimately have the power of representation; (Y) the counterparty acted without fault and in good faith; and (Z) the identity theft victim is at fault. Requirements (Y) and (Z) ensure a balancing of the concerns of the counterparty and the victim by considering factors affecting both sides. The principle of apparent representation applies where the counterparty to a transaction believed that an unauthorized agent had the power of representation. Consequently, apparent representation does not directly apply to cases of simple fraud. However, case law has held that Article 110 of the Civil Code should apply to cases where an agent performed an unauthorized act as a principal and the counterparty believed for a good cause that it was the act of the principal (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, December 19, 1969, 23-12; 2539 *Minshû* 2539).

In electronic commerce, it should be possible to attribute the effects of an expression of intention made by a frauder to the identity theft victim, if, on application of the clauses for apparent representation, the frauder was given certain basic powers of representation or the victim was at fault.

(ii) Cases where there is a prior agreement

Parties who have a continuing legal relationship often conclude in advance a special agreement (basic agreement), which stipulates the

method of identifying the principal and the requirements to have the effects of an expression of intention made by an unauthorized agent attributed to the principal. As long as the identity of the principal is verified according to the prearranged method, for example, the provision of a password, the effects of an expression of intention made by the unauthorized agent will belong to the principal. If such basic agreements are always considered valid, the following problems will arise.

Under the principle of “Freedom of contract” (“*keiyaku-jiyu*”), contracts between parties at arm’s length, as in a Business-to-Business transaction, should be valid as concluded.

However, in the case of a consumer, such a prior agreement is void, if a) the consumer who is the victim of the identity theft is in a more disadvantageous position than the case to which the discretionary provisions of the Civil Code apply (e.g. effect attribution is applicable provided that the requirements of i) above are met: a) the third party’s appearance, b) no knowledge or fault on the part of the counterparty, and c) the identify theft victim being at fault), and further if b), contrary to the fair and equitable principles, the contents of the prior agreement concerned unilaterally impair the interests of the identify theft victim in relation to specific matters (Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act). For example, a prior agreement is possibly void if it always seeks to attribute effects of any act to the consumer, regardless of whether or not the seller (operator) is at fault.

Cases where a prior agreement is recognized as void are judged in the same manner as in (i) above.

(2) Effectiveness of credit card payment made by an identity thief

When credit cards are used for settlements in internet trading and so on, settlements are usually made by entering credit card information such as the credit card number and the expiry date. When fraud is committed in this situation, the question arises whether the credit card holder is obliged to pay the fraudulently charged amount under the membership terms and conditions concluded between the credit card holder and the credit card company.

Under most of the existing credit card membership terms and conditions, the card holder is not obliged to pay a fraudulently charged amount except: in the case of [1] a breach of the duty to manage the credit card and credit card information with due care of a prudent manager, [2] failure to take measures, such as prompt reporting, after the credit card is lost or stolen, [3] a dishonest act by a family member or cohabiter of the cardholder, or [4] a dishonest act

arising due to an intentional act or gross negligence of the cardholder.

On the contrary, if any of [1] to [4] is applicable, the cardholder is liable under the credit card membership terms and conditions².

² However, a lower court judgment ruled that despite the credit card membership terms and conditions as in [3] above, the cardholder was not held liable for a dishonest act by his/her family member where the cardholder him/herself was not grossly negligent (Judgment of Nagasaki District Court, Sasebo Branch, April 24, 2008).

I-3-2 Use of Internet Banking by Identity Thief

[Issue]

In the case of Internet banking, if cash is withdrawn or payment is instructed by an identity thief using a bank account holder's ID and password, may the bank concerned be able to claim against the bank account holder that such withdrawal or payment instruction is valid?

I. Approach

In the case of Internet banking, if cash is withdrawn or payment is instructed (hereinafter referred to as "withdrawal etc.") by an identity theft using, without authorization, the ID and password of a bank account holder, a problem arises as to whether or not the bank concerned is able to claim against the account holder that such withdrawal etc., are valid (that is, whether the bank is able to claim that it is not liable for the amount of the withdrawal etc.).

This type of unauthorized withdrawal etc., is valid, if a) the unauthorized person (unauthorized user) has the appearance of being authorized, and further if b) the performer (bank) does not know that this person is unauthorized and it is not at fault in this regard (Article 478 of the Civil Code). To find that the bank is not aware of such lack of authorization or at fault in this regard, it is necessary to construct and manage a system to exclude withdrawals etc., of unauthorized persons to the possible extent¹.

In banking operations, a prior agreement related to the identification method is normally made in the general terms and conditions. If the agreed identification method is employed, a withdrawal by an unauthorized person is treated as valid. However, on the basis of judicial precedents, these terms and conditions are considered to be inapplicable where the bank is at fault².

¹ Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, April 8, 2003; *Minshû*, Vol. 57 No. 4, p. 337, concerning a withdrawal from an ATM by using a passbook and a password.

² Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 1st Petty Bench, June 10, 1971, concerning the duty to check seal impressions for payment of drafts on the basis of a contract for overdraft; "Case Law Principles and the Depositors Protection Act With Regard to Unauthorized Withdrawals from Savings" by Tsuneo Matsumoto, *Jurist*, No. 1308, p. 28; "Examination of the Requirements of Article 4 of the Act on Protection, etc. of Depositors and Postal Saving Holders from Unauthorized Automated Withdrawal, etc. Using Counterfeit Cards, etc. and Stolen Cards, etc. - Consideration on 'Grounds for Attributing Faults to Creditors in Performance to a Holder of Quasi-Possession of Claim'" by Tsukasa Hara, *Hanta*, No. 1320, p. 5; Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench July 19, 1993; *Hanji*, No. 1489, p. 111, concerning a withdrawal from an ATM by using a cash card and a password; Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, April 8, 2003 in the previous footnote.

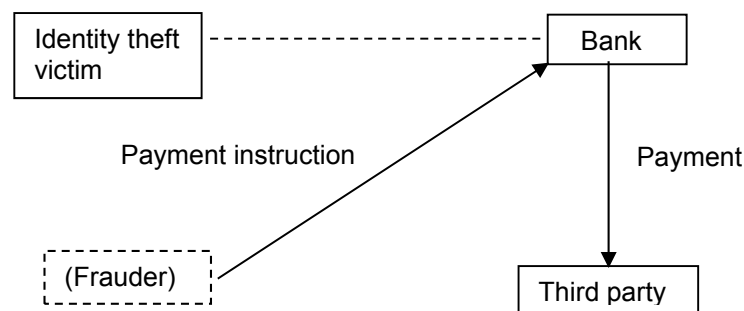
Cases where banks are exempted from any responsibility

- Cases where the ID and password of an account holder are correctly entered, and there is no special circumstance existing, such as insufficient management of IDs and passwords by the bank.
-

Cases where banks are not exempted from responsibility

- Cases where although the ID and password of an account holder are correctly entered, there is a special circumstance, such as insufficient management of IDs and passwords by the bank
-

II. Explanations



1. Unauthorized Withdrawal etc., and Article 478 of the Civil Code

With regard to performance of obligation, the Civil Code provides that performance of an obligation made vis-a-vis an unauthorized person is effective, a) if the unauthorized person (unauthorized user) appears as if s/he had a claim (or the right to receive performance), and further b) if the performer does not know the unauthorized person's lack of the necessary authority and is not at fault in this regard (Article 478 of the Civil Code).

In the case of withdrawal etc., on Internet banking with unauthorized use of an ID and a password, any performance may be effective as the same Article applies, if a) the unauthorized use of the ID and password causes the appearance of having a claim, and b) if the bank is without any knowledge and not at fault in this regard. Conventionally, the application of the Article is also considered to be possible where the passbook or cash card of an account holder is used for unauthorized withdrawal etc.

2. Unauthorized Withdrawal etc., and Disclaimer

On the other hand, an account holder uses the Internet banking service of

his/her bank after having consented to the terms and conditions of the use of the Internet banking service, and normally these terms and conditions include a disclaimer clause for the bank. The provision of this kind of disclaimer provides that the bank does not assume any responsibility to its account holders even where an unauthorized person makes a withdrawal etc., if such withdrawal etc., have successfully gone through the authorization process designated by the bank by using the correct ID/password etc. This is why the effectiveness of a disclaimer of this kind causes a problem.

Similar disclaimer clauses pose a problem in relation to withdrawals etc., with the use of a passbook or withdrawals from ATMs with the use of a cash card. In either case, judicial precedents suggest that a disclaimer is applicable only where the bank is not at fault. As a result, the scope of exemption from liability covered by a disclaimer clause overlaps with the Article 478 of the Civil Code. A judgment of a lower instance court shows the same principle for Internet banking³.

3. “Faults” of Banks

Unlike operations at the counter, personnel at banks do not observe customers demanding a withdrawal etc., or judge customers’ authority on Internet banking. Banks check whether persons making a demand possess the necessary authority just by employing a mechanical method to check if the ID and password entered coincide with the ID and password held by the bank. For this reason, Article 478 of the Civil Code does not apply where there are special circumstances such as insufficient management of IDs and passwords by the bank, as the bank will be found to be at fault in such a case.

On this point, the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, April 8, 2003 ruled, “To find that the bank is not at fault with regard to a withdrawal by an unauthorized person, the bank is not only required to prove that the passbook etc., and security code were confirmed correctly and mechanically at the time of the withdrawal etc., but also to reduce errors made by users of the automatic withdrawal system, to raise the awareness of account holders with regard to the importance of their security codes etc., and to develop and manage the system as a whole in a way it excludes as many withdrawals made from unauthorized persons as possible.”

The same principle is approved for disclaimer clauses. Judgment of the

³ Judgment of Tokyo District Court, February 13, 2006, and its court of second instance: Judgment of Tokyo High Court, July 13, 2006; and Judgment of Osaka District Court, April 12, 2007; Jurist, No. 1939, p. 108

Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, July 19, 1993, which was made on a case about cash dispenser, stated “In cases where a person other than the account holder withdrew an amount from the account of the account holder using a bank-installed ATM, so long as the genuine cash card received from the bank by the depositor was used and the correct PIN number was entered, the bank is exempted from any responsibility by the disclaimer clause except where there exist any special circumstances such as the inadequate management of the PIN number by the bank”.

Although each of the Judgments of the Supreme Court of Japan is not directly related to Internet banking, judgments of lower instance courts with regard to Internet banking have followed suit⁴.

In specific cases, in finding whether the exemption from liability is admitted under Article 478 of the Civil Code or a disclaimer, the following points are taken into consideration comprehensively to determine whether a system to exclude withdrawals of unauthorized persons to a reasonable extent is developed and managed in the organization as a whole, and a judgment is made on this basis: [1] safety management measures taken by the bank for the retention of IDs and passwords; [2] calling for attention to safety management in account holder’s retention of IDs and passwords; [3] whether or not the transmission of the ID and password by an account holder is encrypted and its safety; [4] the organization of IDs and passwords (use of multiple passwords, the adoption of one-time passwords, etc.); [5] the adoption of measures to prevent any further process in the case of a certain number of failed attempts to enter the details; and [6] the adoption of measures to promptly notify the account holder concerned if any withdrawal etc., are made^{5,6}.

⁴ Each of the judgments in Footnote 3

⁵ [1], [3], [4], [5] and [6] were considered in the Judgment of Tokyo District Court, February 13, 2006; and [1], [2], [3] and [4] were considered in the Judgment of Osaka District Court, April 12, 2007.

⁶ The Depositors Protection Act enforced since February 2006 provides that financial institutions shall, in principle, compensate for the whole amount of a loss, if any withdrawal from a holder's savings or deposit is made, or any loan is made, with the use of a counterfeit or stolen cash card on an ATM (if the cardholder is slightly at fault, 75% of the loss will be compensated. If the cardholder is grossly at fault, no compensation will be made). This Act has not been applied to Internet banking cases, however the Japanese Bankers Association has published arrangements for the management of compensation to victims of unauthorized withdrawals and money transfers made on Internet banking.

I-3-3 Responsibilities of Verification Authority against Fraud

[Issue]

If an act of fraud is attributable to the inadequate verification method employed by an electronic signature verification authority (“*Denshi-shomei-ninshô-kan*”), what responsibility does the verification authority have to persons who suffer damage as a result of relying on the certificate of verification?

(Example)

Based on a flawed personal identification method, an electronic signature verification authority issued a certificate of electronic verification to a third party who misrepresented himself as another person (principal). Although the innocent party to the transaction, who received the certificate from the frauder, believed that the frauder was indeed the principal, the transaction is not attributed to the principal causing the innocent party to suffer damage. What, if any, responsibility does the certification authority have to that innocent party?

I. Approach

1. Cases of inadequate personal identification

(1) Principle: Tort liability

Where an electronic signature verification authority issues an electronic certificate without adequately verifying the identity of the person, if a counterparty receives and relies on the certificate but ultimately suffers damage because the frauder’s transaction is not attributed to the principal (nominee of the electronic signature), the verification authority is tortiously liable to the innocent recipient of the certificate. In this case, the counterparty (recipient) must prove negligence of on the part of the verification authority (an inadequate identification method).

(Cases where identification of a nominee is sufficient)

- Where an identification of a nominee is made with ordinary due care, based on a laminated personal identification card issued by the governmental authorities bearing an official seal stamped at the border of the identifying photograph with the appropriate seal impression.
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(Cases where identification of a nominee is insufficient)

- Where an identification of a nominee is made with a personal identification card which appears obviously counterfeit.
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(2) Exception: Contractual liability

Since there is usually no contractual relationship between the verification authority and the counterparty (recipient), the verification authority, in principle, bears no contractual liability.

However, in cases where a verification authority shows the terms applicable to the recipient (hereinafter referred to as the “Recipient Terms”) or the Certification Practice Standards (CPS) where a verification authority provides a certification, and the recipient consents to the Recipient Terms/CPS, a contractual relationship might be formed between them. The requirements of a contractual relationship between a verification authority and a recipient are similar to the requirements in a contractual relationship created according to a Website Terms of Use agreement (e.g.) accessibility to the provisions of the agreement terms (See section I-2-1 of the present Guidelines, “Incorporation of Website Terms of Use into Contract and Their Effectiveness”); there are many arguments for additional requirements. If a contractual relationship is formed, the verification authority must abide by the Recipient Terms/CPS. In such case, if the identification procedure of the verification authority does not follow the procedures specified in the Recipient Terms/CPS, it will be contractually liable for any failure. In this case, the verification authority bears the burden of proving that it is not at fault.

Cases where a contractual relationship is formed

- Where, upon examining the validity of the certificate, the recipient agrees to the terms of the CPS, etc., and pays the verification fee.
-

Cases where no contractual relationship is formed

- Where the recipient is not required, upon examining the effectiveness of the certificate, to agree to the terms of the CPS etc., which are simply presented to the recipient.
-

2. Validity of a disclaimer of a verification authority

Verification authorities do attempt to limit their liability to compensate

innocent parties by inserting disclaimer clauses into Recipient Terms /CPSs. The validity of these clauses will be discussed.

(1) Where no contractual relationship exists between the recipient and the verification authority

The disclaimer clause does not bind any of the parties concerned.

(2) Where a contractual relationship exists between the recipient and the verification authority

In principle, the disclaimer clause binds the parties concerned.

However, in consumer contracts, the disclaimer clause of a verification authority is invalid if it totally exempts or partly exempts the verification authority from any liability to compensate damages to an innocent party which resulted from the non-performance of an obligation or from a tort, or where the verification authority acted illegally or breached the contract deliberately or with gross negligence (Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act). There are naturally other cases where the validity of a disclaimer clause can be called into question due to various factors.

Cases where the disclaimer is considered valid
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Cases where the disclaimers is considered invalid

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II. Explanations

1. Tort liability

Where an electronic signature verification authority issues an electronic certificate without adequately verifying the identity of the person, and another party receives and relies on the certificate but ultimately suffers damage because the frauder's transaction is not attributed to the principal (the electronic signature nominee), the certification authority is tortiously liable to the innocent certificate recipient.

Conversely, where the transaction is attributed to the principal, the certification authority is tortiously liable to the principal, who has suffered damage in principle.

In the case of tortious liability, the party suing for damages must prove negligence on the part of the certification authority.

2. Contractual liability

There is usually no contractual relationship between the certification authority and the recipient or the principal. Therefore, the certification authority bears no contractual liability in principle. However, some commentators argue that in cases where a verification authority shows the applicable terms to the recipient (hereinafter referred to as the “Recipient Terms”) or the Certification Practice Standards (CPS) when the verification authority provides the recipient with a certification, and the recipient consents to the Recipient Terms/CPS, a contractual relationship might be formed between them. If a contractual relationship is formed, the verification authority must abide by the Recipient Terms/CPS. In such case, if the identification procedure of the verification authority does not follow the procedure specified in the Recipient Terms/CPS, it will be contractually liable for any failure. In this case, the verification authority bears the burden of proving that it is not at fault.

3. Validity of the disclaimer

As damages in the electronic commerce business can be significant, some Recipient Terms/CPSs include disclaimers for the verification authorities (e.g. “The verification authority shall not compensate any recipient for damages resulting from reliance on the validity of an electronic certificate issued above the sum of ¥1,000,000”). On this point, one must first examine whether there is a contractual relationship (or a disclaimer agreement) between the recipient of an electronic certificate and the verification authority. Furthermore, even if there is such a relationship or agreement, the disclaimer of a verification authority is invalid if it totally exempts or partly exempts the verification authority from any liability to compensate damages to an innocent party which resulted from the non-performance of an obligation or from a tort, or where the authentication authority acted illegally or breached contract deliberately or with gross negligence (Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act). There are naturally other cases where the validity of a disclaimer can be called into question due to various factors.

I-4 Expression of Intention by a Minor

[Issue]

As for electronic transactions in which a party to an electronic contract is a minor (Article 4 of the Civil Code), if the other party is requested to accept a claim to rescind (Paragraph 1, Article 5 of the Civil Code), how should such claim to rescind be considered as appropriate?

I. Approach

When a party to an electronic contract is a minor, in principle, if such contract is entered into without parental consent, he can deny the validity of the contract by revoking his expression of intention (Paragraph 1, Article 5 of the Civil Code). However, in following cases, the claim to rescind is not considered as appropriate for the reason of minority.

When a minor such as a juvenile, who is in the category of the persons without legal capacity, makes an offer, the contract is void due to the minor's lack of mental capacity¹.

1. When Minor enters into a contract with parental consent (Paragraph 1, Article 5 of the Civil Code)

A minor cannot rescind a contract if he has entered into such contract with parental consent.

In electronic contracts, compared with face-to-face transactions or transactions by documents, it is not easy to confirm parental consent, but business entities may possibly need to consider the nature of their business, expected transactions with minors, and the risk-cost balance based on the sales products, prices and the system cost, and take appropriate steps to confirm ages of customers and parental consent

Also, many electronic transactions through mobile phone terminals use a charging system provided by mobile phone companies (so-called "carrier charging" in which mobile phone subscribers are charged service fees (product and/or information prices) with telephone charges), but electronic transactions are in themselves entered into between the individual service providers and the users and different from the mobile phone contract. If the user is a minor, it should be considered that, in principle, parental consent should be confirmed for

¹ Mental capacity is the capacity of understanding the outcomes of one's own conduct. Although the intellectual capacity of those aged seven to ten is generally regarded as sufficient for this mental capacity, the mental capacity of an individual minor is judged on the basis of each specific case.

each of the electronic transactions.

2. When Minor enters into a contract by fraud (Article 21 of the Civil Code)

In an electronic transaction, if a minor intentionally enters a false date of birth at a company's age confirmation screen, and if, as a consequence, a company supposes that he is of age, the minor may be deprived of the right to rescind his expression of intention by Article 21 of the Civil Code, as "manipulating fraudulent means".

Whether his entry amounts to "manipulating fraudulent means" is judged with various factors taken into consideration on the basis of each specific case².

Case where a minor might not be permitted to rescind (considered as fraudulent)³

- A company actively confirms the age of anyone entering transactions and warns that parental consent is required for minors to conclude contracts. In spite of such warning, a minor enters a false age or date of birth as if he were of age.
-

Case where a minor would be permitted to rescind (considered as not fraudulent)

- The screen simply asks, "Are you of age?" and prompts the minors to click on "Yes".
- Such expression as "Minors must obtain parental consent" can be found just in a part of the Website Terms of Use.
-

3. Other cases where Minor is not able to exercise his/her right to rescind

In addition, a minor is not permitted to rescind for reason of minority if the transaction is within the property permitted by parents for specified purposes or unspecified purposes (Paragraph 3, Article 5 of the Civil Code), or if it is a legal action just for obtaining rights or exemption of obligations (Proviso of Paragraph

² Potential factors for determining "manipulating fraudulent means" include the age of the minor, the attribution of the relevant product, the targets of the product, the composition of the age input screen set by the business entity etc.

³ This case example only shows the direction and possibility of a judgment, and it is necessary to judge whether a certain conduct amounts to "manipulating fraudulent means" by taking account of other factors in addition to the described details of the example case and in light of each specific case.

1, Article 5 of the Civil Code), or if it is an action as a part of permitted commercial trading (Article 6 of the Civil Code), or if such minor is married (Article 753 of the Civil Code).

II. Explanations

1. Principle

The Civil Code protects persons of limited capacity typologically (Article 5 and onward in the Civil Code). Minors are specially protected, as their judicial acts require the consent of a statutory agent, and any judicial act in breach of this requirement is voidable (Paragraphs 1 and 2, Article 5 of the Civil Code).

In face-to-face transactions, it is fairly easy for a counterparty to assess whether an offeror is a minor by his appearance, e.g. by physical appearance, or by asking him to present an identity card. In electronic transactions, there exists a greater risk than in other types of transactions that minors can enter into contracts irrespective of their minor status. In consideration of the sanctity of contract, some argue that laws regarding the legal capacity of minors should apply more narrowly in electronic transactions. However, this is a common problem found in all types of remote transactions. Therefore, there is no reason to treat electronic transactions as exceptions.

When a minor such as a juvenile, who is a person without mental capacity, makes an offer, the contract is void as the offer is made by a person without mental capacity who is not able to conduct the act of trading validly⁴.

2. Transactions with parental consent

(1) Confirmation of parental consent in electronic transactions

When a minor claims to rescind the contract, such claim to rescind is not allowed if such contract is entered into with parental consent⁵.

In the process of online electronic contract, it is not easy to confirm the minority of the purchaser or to confirm parental consent, compared with face-to-face transactions or transactions by documents. Accordingly, when considerable amount of purchases from minors is expected from the nature of the business or when it is considered that, judging from the trading subjects or prices, there should be substantial risks in case of cancellation, business entities may possibly need to consider the balance of such risks and cost for establishing an identification system and avoiding disputes concerning

⁴ Judgment of Great Court of Cassation (equivalent to the Supreme Court), May 11, 1905; *Minroku*, Vol. 11, p. 706

⁵ Parental ratification is also possible.

cancellation afterwards and to establish alternative means or system to confirm the age of the customers and parental consent if he is a minor, to accept transactions.

As for the way to confirm parental consent, if it is a case where the business entity must be especially careful, there is an offline step for confirmation. On the other hand, in the case where such expression as “minors need parental consent for transaction” can only be found on a screen as a transaction step or the Website Terms of Use, this is not sufficient for presumption of parental consent. In such case, therefore, it is necessary to consider other factors to determine whether there is parental consent or not⁶. Furthermore, in the cases where minors proceed transaction steps by their own, it is the minors themselves who operate on the screen. Therefore, it should be necessary to adopt an appropriate screen design (such as font sizes, colors, expressions and, if on the Website for mobile phone, more comprehensible representations considering smaller size of the screen) that takes minors capability of understanding or paying attention into consideration when the offering pages request parental consent.

Also, in the cases where the business entity designates settlement or paying by credit card, it is considered that the parental consent for the card was strictly confirmed by the credit card issuer at the time of the application for the card if the credit card was issued under the name of the minor himself⁷. Consequently, for purchase contracts that are assumed to be permitted by parents at the time of the issuance of the card, if a minor uses the credit card issued under his name for settlement at the credit card affiliate store, it might be presumed that there is a comprehensive parental consent for each of the purchase contracts within the ceiling amount of the card⁸. However, in the cases where a minor uses a credit card to pay the transaction counterparty not assumed to be expected by the parents, such as a dating website, it should be necessary to consider the transaction subject and determine if parental consent are obtained for each of the purchase contracts.

⁶ The question of binding force of the Website Terms of Use (See “Incorporation of Website Terms of Use into Contract and Effectiveness” I-2-1 of this Guideline) should be understood as a different question from the question whether there is a parental consent as a matter of fact. If a minor enters a false age or date of birth in spite of a distinctive warning, it should be determined whether it is a fraudulent act by such minor. (See later discussions).

⁷ There are companies that do not issue credit cards for minors while others issue credit cards for minors who are 18 or over after a certain examination process and confirmation of parental consent.

⁸ In such cases, settlement by the credit card might be permitted disposal of the property (Paragraph 3, Article 5 of the Civil Code). See later footnote 18.

In the cases where the name of the credit card is different from that of the contracting party, such as the case in which a minor enters the information of the credit card owned by the parents for settlement, it is not appropriate to presume that the parents has given consent because the minor has been able to obtain the card information. As under the terms of use credit card companies usually prohibits any one other than the nominee of the card from using the credit card, it is not reasonable to affirm the settlement violating the terms of use and contradicting protection of minors. In addition, even if there is a fact that the card information has been entered, it is difficult to determine how (with or without permission) the minor knows the information of the card issued under the name of a parent⁹.

(2) Parental Consent in Electronic Transactions through Mobile Phone

For electronic transactions using mobile phone terminals by way of the screen of the mobile phone, the same approach is applicable if the contracting party is a minor. In other words, if a minor is a contracting party, it is possible to rescind the contract unless there is a circumstance that may restrict the rescission, such as the case with parental consent.

Regardless of whether the parent or the minor is a contracting party of the mobile phone¹⁰, and even if the mobile phone company charges the fees as “carrier charge” discussed in the next section, it should be noted that each of the electronic transactions through mobile phones is different from the subscription contract of the mobile phone and should be judged from the point of “Who is the contracting party of the transaction?”, not from the point of “Who is a subscriber of the mobile phone?”¹¹ In other words, as discussed above, when the service provider takes a prior measure for cancellation for reason of minority, it is necessary to consider to confirm the age of the counterparty and parental consent before accepting the order.

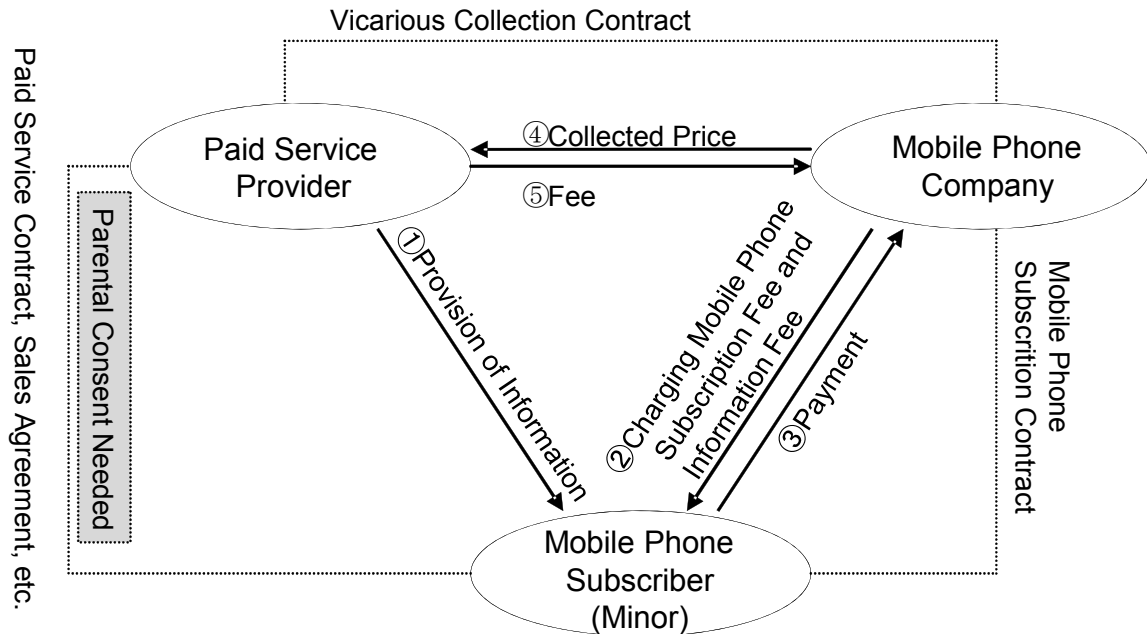
⁹ In the cases where a minor enters into a contract under the name of the parent without parental consent and enters the information of the credit card issued under the name of the parent for settlement, it is a question of spoofing. See I-3-1 of this Guideline “Effects of Expression of Intention by a Frauder on the Victim.”

¹⁰ Mobile phone companies accept minors as a subscriber if he/she is a middle school student or older and with parental consent.

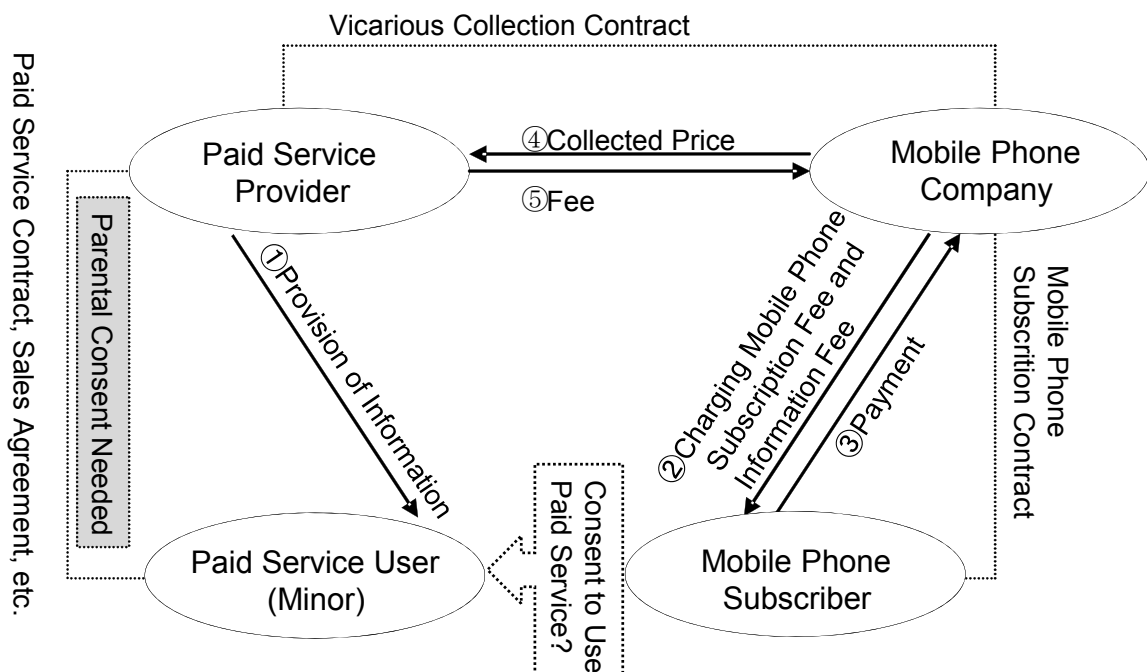
¹¹ Dial Q2 Case (Judgment of Supreme Court Third Petty Bench, March 27, 2001, 201 *Shûmin* 667) is a case where a child uses the dial Q2 services (which accrue information fees to be charged for the subscriber with the telephone charge) and the obligation of the telephone subscriber (the parent) to pay such information fees is questioned. In this case, it is determined that the contracting parties of the service contract are basically the child, who is a user of the service, and the service provider, saying, “Each time the dial Q2 services are used, the user and the service provider enter into an information service contract containing information service provision by way of the phone by the service provider and payment of the information fees by the user.”

<Example: Diagram of Contractual Relationship in Vicarious Execution of Collection¹²>

(A) Mobile Phone Subscriber (Minor) = Service User (Minor: Same Person)



(B) Mobile Phone Subscriber (Parent, etc.) ≠ Paid Service User (Minor)



¹² This is a “carrier charge” method called vicarious execution of collection, but there is another way (claim transfer) in which the service provider assigns accounts receivables to the mobile phone company, which will collect them from the subscribers.

One of the features of the electronic transactions principally through the websites registered as mobile official websites¹³ with mobile phone terminals is that they adopt a simple and convenient way of settlement in which the price is charged and collected from the mobile phone subscribers with the mobile phone charge (so-called “carrier charge”¹⁴). If the carrier charge is adopted and the product to be purchased is contents (or license) not necessary to be delivered, the mobile phone company charges all the cost and prices, and therefore in some cases formalities are simplified so that the purchaser does not need to enter his personal information for individual service contracts¹⁵. This is because the mobile phone company settles all the claims of the prices that is to be paid through the mobile phone company to the service provider so that the service provider does not need to the personal information of the users unless the product is to be physically delivered. If the carrier charge is chosen by the user, in some cases the mobile phone company verify his identity in a certain way such as to request a password set at the time of the mobile phone subscription, but it is not uniformly possible to determine that parental consent is presumable from such verification. The specific content of the verification system of the carrier, the parent’s awareness at the time of the charging or other factors should be considered for individual cases¹⁶. If the

¹³ The websites admitted to be placed on an official portal site specified for each business entity by the mobile phone company. They are placed after consideration by the mobile phone company.

¹⁴ The system of charging in which the mobile phone company, which is authorized to collect or assigned accounts receivables from the service providers, charges and collect the price of the services (sales of contents and/or products) from the mobile phone subscribers with the mobile phone charge.

This system is getting commoner among other websites than the official sites or PC online trading.

¹⁵ Whether the carrier charge is a vicarious execution of collection or claim transfer, if the payment is made by the due date, the mobile phone company does not provide the personal information of the subscriber to the service provider. If there is an account receivable not paid by the due date, the mobile phone company will provide the personal information of the subscriber to the service provider so that the service provider can directly claim to the service user.

¹⁶ It is common that the terms of use of the mobile phone provide for the subscriber’s obligations to pay in case of the carrier charge. According to this, regardless of who is the service user (for example, a child uses the service from the mobile phone of the parent), if such services are used from the contracted mobile phone terminal and (if there is a verification step) the user is verified by the verification system, such as entering the password, which the mobile phone company has prescribed, the mobile phone subscriber shall take obligations to pay. However, effectiveness of such provisions should be determined on the basis of the specific circumstances of each case.

In the abovementioned Dial Q2 Case (Judgment of Supreme Court Third Petty Bench, March 27, 2001, 201 *Shûmin* 667), it is determined that the contracting parties of the service contract are the child and the service provider, saying “the user takes obligations to pay the information fees on the basis of the time for use of the service to the service provider while the service provider obtains the right to claim the information fees from the user,” but as for the obligations to pay the information fees of the parent, the phone subscriber, it is determined “When such services are used by the person other than the phone subscriber, the phone subscriber who is not a party of the information provision contract is not obliged to pay for the information provider unless he accepts such obligations,” and as for the provisions that the subscribers shall be obliged to pay for the information if it is provided by way of the subscribed telephone line, it is determined that the provisions cannot be the ground that the subscriber shall be

service is expected to be used by a certain number of the minors, and the business entity like to lessen the risks of rescission for reason of minority before transactions, it should be necessary for each business entity to consider establishing its own identification system¹⁷.

As for the carrier charges, there are cases where the ceiling of the possible service fees is lower than that of the fees an adult could be charged or such ceiling can be set by the user, if the mobile phone subscriber is a minor or if the registered user of the phone is a minor while the subscriber is his parent. In such cases, it may be possible to presume that, if within such ceiling, there is a prior comprehensive parental consent for individual service contracts, provided that the formalities assure that the parent set such ceiling with awareness.

(3) Property Permitted to Dispose

As for the property the parent has permitted the minor to dispose for a specified purpose, the minor may be free to dispose it within such purpose. The case where disposal is permitted for a specified purpose is, for example, that the minor is permitted to dispose the property for a designated use, such as school expenses or travel expenses. Also, if a minor disposes the property the parent has permitted him to dispose for an unspecified purpose, for example, in cases a minor transacts within the pocket money given for an unspecified purpose, he does not need parental consent in the same way (Paragraph 3, Article 5 of the Civil Code¹⁸).

However, when the minor claims to rescind, in many cases, it may be difficult for the business entity to verify such circumstances. For example, if the monthly service fee is specified as comparably low as a few thousand yen by the terms of use of the online services the minor has used, it is impossible to determine that the amount is the property permitted to dispose, even if the

obliged to pay the information fees if such Q2 information is used by the person other than the subscriber by way of the subscribed telephone.”

¹⁷ As for transactions especially expected to be used by minors, it should be necessary to consider confirming the age of the user, particularly comprehensible notification (representation) of whether the service is charged or not, verification of parental consent at the time of charging. Furthermore, if the mobile phone company or the service provider prepares options to restrict transactions in case of use by the minors, the mobile phone company or the service provider should clearly present such options to the parents to obtain parental consent.

¹⁸ “Shinban Chushaku Minpo (1) revised edition by Kimiyuki Takanashi, Shunichi Toshikazu (edited by Chihei Taniguchi, Kikuo Ishida), Part 1, Chapter 1, Section 2[5[Property Permitted to Dispose] I Disposal of Property and legal Capacity” p. 314 discusses the purpose of this provision and says, “According to the commonly accepted theory, this is understood as provisions for legal capacity. Therefore, it is only read as detailing the provisions of Article 4 (Paragraphs 1 and 2, Article 5 of the Civil Code). From this point, this Article is only a reminder.”

amount is small. Whether it is the property permitted to dispose or not is depending on the individual circumstances between the parents and the minor.

(4) Fraudulent Act by Minor

According to Article 21 of the Civil Code, if a minor acts fraudulently to make the counterparty believe mistakenly that he is of age or has obtained parental consent, that minor may not rescind the expression of the intention. And such “fraudulent act” includes not only active trick to make the counterparty believe mistakenly that he is a person of restricted capacity, but also an sufficiently deceptive act of a person of restricted capacity to induce or reinforce the misunderstanding of the counterparty. (Judgment of Supreme Court First Petty Bench, February 13, 1969, 23-2 *Minshû* 291)¹⁹.

Accordingly, in the case where the business entity has taken appropriate measures to prevent minors without parental consent from entering into a transaction by requiring users to input their date of birth (or age) on the screen when they are making an electronic contract, if a minor enters a false date of birth (or age) and consequently the business entity mistakenly believes that s/he is an adult, that minor is potentially judged as having “manipulated fraudulent means.” When that minor is judged as having “manipulated fraudulent means,” the minor possibly loses the right to rescind.

However, this does not mean it is possible to judge stereotypically whether “manipulation of fraudulent means” takes place. To find whether a minor has manipulated fraudulent means is not dependent on the mere fact that the minor actually disguised himself as an adult by inputting a false date of birth (or age). Rather, it is to be judged from a substantial perspective on the basis of consideration on case-specific circumstances such as the age of the minor, the characteristics of the relevant product/service, the targets of the product/service, the composition of the age input screen set by the business entity, etc.²⁰.

¹⁹ Including this judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, many court cases on fraudulent acts were those involving quasi-incompetent persons (p. 62 of “Minpo Sousoku [Ver. 8]” by Kazuo Shinomiya and Yoshihisa Noumi); “III Requirements for Exclusion of the Right of Rescission” by Tamotsu Isomura, p. 397 of Part 1, Chapter 1, Section 2 [Fraudulent Means of Persons with Limited Capacity] in “Shinban Chushaku Minpo (1)” revised edition [edited by Chihei Taniguchi and Kikuo Ishida]).

²⁰ It has been pointed out that among persons with limited capacity, whether an act of a minor amounts to a fraudulent act is determined in a cautious manner (p. 101 of “Practical Guide on the Civil Code by Wagatsuma and Ariizumi [3rd Edition]” by Sakae Wagatsuma et al.; p. 142 of “Lectures on the Civil Code, General Rules [1]” by Akira Yonekura).

(5) Legal Relationship After Rescission

If the electronic transaction entered into by the minor is rescinded, such contractual relationship is nullified retroactively (Article 121 of the Civil Code). Under that contract, the minor is obliged to pay the price while the business entity is obliged to provide the service (or delivery of the product in case of product sales). However, obligations of both parties extinguish if the transaction is not yet performed, while each party is obliged to return the gains obtained from the other if the transaction is already performed. However, obligation of the minor to return is not beyond the existing profit.

i) When the transaction is not yet performed

Under the contract, the minor is obliged to pay the price while the business entity is obliged to provide the service (or delivery of the product in case of product sales). However, such obligations of both parties extinguish if the transaction is not yet performed.

ii) When the transaction is already performed

The business entity is obliged to return the price. However, if there is a settling entity such as a credit card company or a mobile phone company between the direct parties to the electronic transaction, the relationship with the settling entity after rescission is in principal based on the content of the contract between the credit card company and the card holder, or between the mobile phone company and the phone subscriber²¹.

If the minor has received the delivery of the product, he is obliged to return that product, but obligation of the minor to return is not beyond the existing profit (Article 121 of the Civil Code). If the minor receives the service of providing information, in accordance with the discussion in III-3-1 “Duties of the User upon Contract Expiry” of this Guidelines, the minor may not use that information property afterwards, as duty to return unjust enrichment. It is reasonable that, to ensure this, the service provider may request the minor to delete that information property²².

²¹ In the abovementioned Dial Q2 Case (Judgment of Supreme Court Third Petty Bench, March 27, 2001, 201 *Shûmin* 667), it was questioned if the parent, who was a telephone line subscriber, can claim to refund as unjust enrichment the fees of Dial Q2 service used by the child, which was already paid (through the vicarious execution of collection) to the first class telecommunications corporation. The judgment determined that the payment for the information service was under mistake with no legal reason and that, as far as there is a particular reason, it is possible to request the first class telecommunications corporation to refund the amount paid for the information service.

²² As for the cases that the minor has already used expensive game services, in many cases, it is determined that there is no existing profit and consequently, that minor is not obliged to return the

However, there is possibility that a minor is liable for damages for the reason of the wrongful conduct (Article 709 of the Civil Code), in such cases as he intends to rescind the purchase at the time of the order and actually rescinds that transaction after receiving the product, which consequently is degraded in the value, resulting in damages for the business entity. When a minor's act results in damages for the business entity, the minor himself is not liable for the wrongful conduct if he is not able to assume legal responsibility, (Article 712 of the Civil Code)²³, but his parent or other persons who have duty to supervise him may be liable for the wrongful conduct for the reason of the breach of duty (Article 714 of the Civil Code)²⁴. When the minor is able to assume legal responsibility, the supervisor may possibly be liable for damages if it is regarded that there is a considerable causal relationship between the parent's breach of duty to supervise and the business entity's damages caused by the wrongful conduct by the minor (Article 709 of the Civil Code, Judgment of Supreme Court Second Petty Bench, March 22, 1974, 28-2 *Minshû* 347).

amount of the service fees.

²³ It is considered that a minor around the age of 12 is able to assume legal responsibility as a precondition of liability for the wrongful conduct, but it should be determined on circumstances of the specific cases.

²⁴ If the supervisor is liable under Article 714 of the Civil Code, he may not be exempt from such liability unless he verifies that he did not neglect his duty or such damages could have arisen even if he did not neglect his duty to supervise the minor.

I-5 Returning Goods Purchased over the Internet

[Issue]

In what cases can the consumer return goods which was purchased over the internet?

1. Approach

As for the goods purchased over the internet, based on the legal right to return purchased goods (Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act) for “correspondence sales” mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act (Article 2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act), the consumer may return purchased goods (rescind the purchase or cancel the sales contract) under a certain conditions if the product or designated right is not sold with advertisement announcing the special contract for returning.

Such legal right to return is prescribed for returning goods without breach of contract or defects. As for cancellation for the reason of default or defects, it is possible to consider returning (cancellation) as a general effect of the contract.

2. Explanation

(1) Legal Right to Return

Selling goods over the internet falls under “correspondence sales” mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act (Paragraph 2, Article 2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act). In “correspondence sales,” which is not considered as a surprise attack, there is not a cooling-off system as prescribed for door-to-door selling (Article 9 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act, etc.). As for acceptability or conditions of returning the purchased goods, the seller may freely stipulate if they are represented so that the consumer can recognize without difficulty.

In general, as selling goods over the internet is a transaction between parties located in the distance, the information on the sales conditions is only provided through advertisement. Special contract on acceptability or conditions of returning the purchased goods is also represented by way of advertising.

Even before its amendment in 2008, Specified Commercial Transaction Act prescribed that, in correspondence sales the correspondence sales entity had duty to represent that there is (or is not) a special contract on returning purchased goods, with specific content if any, when the business entity

advertises on transaction conditions¹. However, when the representation of such special contract was insufficient or difficult to understand, it was not clear whether returning was allowed or not. That resulted in troubles in many cases. For this reason, from the amendment in 2008, the legal right to return purchased goods is prescribed in case that returning of the goods is not accepted on the special contract on advertisement under the provisions of Specified Commercial Transaction Act (Item 4, Article 11, Proviso of Paragraph 1, Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act).

(2) Positive Requirement for Legal Right to Return

For acceptance of the legal right to return the purchased goods, the following requirement must be satisfied.

- i) The counterparty of the contract must be the seller who has advertised on the sales conditions for the products or designated rights.
- ii) Within 8 days from the day on which delivery of the product or transfer of the designated right related with the sales contract in question.
- iii) There must be an expression of intention to rescind or cancel the contract.

Different from the cooling-off system, exercise of the legal right to return (expression of the intention mentioned in iii)) may be oral or in writing. It takes effect at the time of arrival.

The legal right to return mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act is admitted for "products" or "designated rights," not for "Service Contract." Because in general provision of services cannot be returned, it is not reasonable to admit the right to return services².

(3) Passive Requirement for Legal Right to Return (Representation of Special Contract on Return)

The legal right to return the purchased goods is not accepted if the special contract on return is represented on advertisement so that the consumers can easily recognize it (Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act).

However, the special contract on return must be represented on

¹ Item 4, Paragraph 1, Article 11 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act (before amendment)
"Special contract on withdrawal or returning of the goods after delivery or transfer of the right (if there is no such contract, representation of non-existence)"

² As downloading music files over the internet was regarded as designated service before the abolition of product and service designation under 2008 amendment, it is still considered a service under the existing law.

advertisement (Item 4, Article 11 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act, Item 3, Article 9 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations). In addition, for electronic consumer contract (Paragraph 1, Article 2 of Electronic Contract Act), such special contract is required to be represented on the final screen for order (Article 16-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations). Accordingly, if any one of such two representations is not shown, the legal right to return is accepted (Proviso of Paragraph 1, Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act). The purpose of admitting the force of the special contract on return is to keep the balance between the consumer benefit and the business cost in the transactions of correspondence sales in which surprise solicitation by the business entity is not usually considered if the special contract on return is clearly represented by the business entity. For this reason, the special contract on return should be clearly recognized by the consumer. As often seen in selling over the internet, if the detailed sales conditions, such as calculation of shipping cost, are shown on a screen other than advertisement of the goods which contains a link to the conditions page, the consumer may reach the final step to order without confirming such detailed conditions. For this reason, the special contract is required to be represented on so-called final screen of order. It is understood that the seller takes responsibility for claim or verification of such passive requirements.

In electronic commerce, it is required that both of the following representations on the advertisements and on the final order screen should be properly made.

i) Special Contract on Return on Advertisement

As Item 4, Article 11 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act provides for the duty of representation on advertisement and says that “matters on rescission or cancellation of the sales contract of the product or designated right (including such special contract if there is a special contract mentioned in Proviso of Paragraph 1, Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act)” must be represented, it is necessary to represent the whole matters on cancellation of the contract on the advertisement, including a special contract on return if any. More specifically, the seller must represent, on the conditions that there is no defect in the product and no breach of the contract in the part of the seller, (a) if the seller accepts return of the goods or not, (b) if return is acceptable, what are the conditions, such as time to return, (c) if return is acceptable, who must pay

the shipping cost for return. Furthermore, it is required that such representations should be clearly legible on the location the customer can find without difficulty so that the customer can recognize it without difficulty (Item 3, Article 9 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations). As for the representation on the advertisement, there are some examples of proper representations and improper representations shown in “Guidelines on Representations of Special Contracts on Return in Correspondence Sales”³(Exhibit 5 to Circular of the Deputy Secretary General of Consumer Affairs Agency and the Director-General for Commerce, Distribution and Industrial Safety Policy of Minister of Economy, Trade and Industry, “On Enforcement of Specified Commercial Transaction Act,” dated February 20, 2013). Special contract, if not properly represented as required by Specified Commercial Transaction Act, shall not have effects.

ii) Special Contract on Return on Final Screen for Order

In addition, if it is an electronic consumer contract (Paragraph 1, Article 2 of Electronic Contract Act), Specified Commercial Transaction Act requires that, on the screen displayed by the computer on which the customer operates to order the product or designated right, the representations of the special contract on return should be clearly legible on the location the customer can find without difficulty so that the customer can recognize it without difficulty (Proviso of Paragraph 1, Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act, Article 16-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations). Based on this, it is required that, in addition to representations on advertisement, such special contract should be represented on so-called final screen for order. As for the representations on the final screen for order, it should be understood that the content and the way of representation should be the same as on advertisement. Also for such representations, there are some examples of proper representations and improper representations shown in “Guidelines on Representations of Special Contracts on Return in Correspondence Sales.” Special contract, if not properly represented as required by Specified Commercial Transaction Act, shall not have effects.

(4) Effect of Legal Right to Return

Except for the withdrawal cost or returning cost mentioned in Specified

³ http://www.caa.go.jp/trade/pdf/130220legal_6.pdf

Commercial Transaction Act, effect of the legal right to return is based on the principle of the Civil Code (Articles 545, 546, 548, etc. of the Civil Code). Accordingly, when cancellation or rescission of the contract takes effect, both of the parties must restore to the original state, but if the purchaser seriously damages the subject of the contract or is unable to return by way of his intention or negligence, his right to cancel shall be extinguished (Paragraph 1, Article 548 of Civil Code). Also, different from the cooling-off system (Paragraph 3, Article 9 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act, etc.), if such cancellation or rescission of the contract damages the seller, it is not impossible to prevent the seller from claiming damages or penalty from the purchaser.

As effect mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act, any cost necessary for the product withdrawal or returning of the designated right shall be paid by the purchaser (Paragraph 2, Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act).

(5) Cases where Good can be Returned without Legal Right to Return

Apart from the legal right to return mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act, as a general effect of the contract, when there is a cancellation right under the Civil Code (Article 96 of the Civil Code) or when the contract is not valid (Article 95 of the Civil Code), the purchaser can claim cancellation or invalidity of the contract and can return the purchased goods as a part of restoration to the original state.

If there is a default by the business entity (Article 415 of the Civil Code) or an invisible defect in the subject of the contract (Article 570 of the Civil Code), the purchaser may cancel the contract and return the purchased goods. Also, in the consumer transaction, in some cases, it may be possible to exercise the cancellation right mentioned in Consumer Contract Act to return the purchased goods (Article 4 of Consumer Contract Act).

These are discussions of the general effects of the contract, but the legal right to return mentioned in Specified Commercial Transaction Act (Article 15-2 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act) provides for returning of the purchased goods in cases where there is no such problems as breach of the contract or defects in the product or the designated right.

By the way, Specified Commercial Transaction Act requires that, as a regulation of advertisement, “if there is a stipulations of the seller’s responsibility in case of invisible defects in the product, the content of such stipulation” (Item 5, Article 11 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act, Item

5, Article 8 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations) should be represented. This is a requirement in cases where there is a special contract on the seller's liability for defects in case of defects in the products. On the basis of the general principle for defects under the Civil Code or Commercial Code, there is no requirement for representation. It should be noted that, as for the matters concerning the return of the purchased goods (matters on rescission or cancellation of the sales contract of the product or designated right), such presentations are required regardless of whether there is a special contract on return or not (Item 4, Article 11 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act).

As for the representations regarding the return of the purchased goods, it is necessary to clarify whether it is a special contract on return of the purchased goods, or it is a special contract on liability for defects, or both. Like expressions such as "We do not accept return of the purchased goods" or "We can accept return of the purchased goods within XX days," if it is not clear whether the representation is of a special contract on the return of the purchased goods or on the liability for defects, such representations are understood as a special contract on return of the purchased goods with no defects, as interpreted on the basis of the purpose of the law. As for the seller's liability for defects, such representations should be understood to follow the general principles of the Civil Code and the Commercial Code⁴.

⁴ It should be noted that, in transactions between the seller as a business entity and the purchaser as a consumer, such special contract as exempting the seller from all the liabilities for defects or damages, or eliminating the right to release such liabilities shall be invalid under Item 5, Paragraph 1, Article 8 or Article 10 of Consumer Contract Act. See "Effectiveness of Special Clause "No Claim, No Return" Policy," I-7-4 of these Guidelines.

I-6 Responsibilities of Cybermall (On-line Shopping) Operator

[Issue]

Are there cases where a cybermall (on-line shopping) operator will be liable to his/her customers for any damage arising from their transactions with a cyber shop administered by the cybermall operator?

(Example)

A customer discovers that the product he/she purchased from a shop in a cybermall is defective. The shop has disappeared and the consumer cannot reach the shop. Can he/she demand compensation for damages against the cybermall operator?

I. Approach

1. Principle: cybermall operator is not responsible

In principle, the cybermall operator is not liable for damages arising from any consumer transactions with individual cyber shops.

2. Exception: cybermall operator can still be held responsible

Where (i) the appearance of the cybermall unavoidably misleads its consumer to believe that the business of the cyber shop is conducted by the cybermall operator himself/herself (presence of an appearance); (ii) the cybermall operator is somewhat responsible for the aforementioned appearance (fault); and (iii) the cybermall consumer executing the transaction had misidentified the cyber shop operator without gross negligence (no gross negligence); the cybermall operator may be liable to the customer, since Article 14 of the Commercial Code might be applied *mutatis mutandis* to the cybermall operator.

In addition, under exceptional circumstances, the cybermall operator may be liable to the customers (i.e. in tort).

Example of cases where the cybermall operator might be held responsible

- Where the customer might reasonably misidentify the cybermall operator as the seller when he/she made the purchases on the cybermall operator's website.
- Where the cybermall operator proactively gives assurances to the quality of a specific product sold by a cyber shop in a feature page with an interview excerpt about such product, and the customer believed in such advertisement and purchased the product. Subsequently, the customer incurred damages arising from the defects in the product.
- The cybermall operator, who is well aware of the frequent occurrence of serious

accidents arising from defective products sold on the cyber shop, but unreasonably neglected the issue for a long time, and consequently customers who purchased the same products incurred damages arising from similar accidents.

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Example of cases where the cybermall operator will not be held responsible through the analogical application of Article 14 of the Commercial Code:

- Where the cybermall made a disclaimer on his/her or its website which appears on the screen whenever a customer purchases a product and notify the customer that the cybermall operator is not the seller.

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Example of cases where the cybermall operator will not be held responsible for guaranteeing:

- Where the cybermall operator posts advertisements of products and/or cyber shops without stating his/her opinions on their quality.
- Where the cybermall indicates that "this product sells well" or discloses the "ranking" such as the "top 3 for the former half of this year" among products or cyber shops, based on data such as the sum of sales proceeds or popularity votes from the customers.
- Where the cybermall operator shows a customer the products relating to his/her preference and/or products which he/she has purchased based on the total purchase transactions records, etc. without stating the operator's opinions on their quality

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II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

If a customer suffers any damage from a transaction with a cyber shop operated in a cybermall, he has recourse against the shop by virtue of the existing contractual responsibilities. Does the customer have any form of recourse against the operator of the cybermall as well? Generally, the cyber shop will be liable as the seller for specific transactions between the cybermall operator and its customers. Therefore, the cybermall operator will not be liable for damages arising from the customer's transactions with individual cyber shops. However, where the customers who purchased the products from a cyber shop are likely to misidentify the cybermall operator as the seller, we need to reconsider cases where the cybermall operator may bear certain liability¹.

¹ The Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court, February 14, 2012; *Hanji*, No. 2161, p. 86 found that, as a general term, if a product exhibited by a cyber-shop owner on the website of his/her cyber-shop operating in a cybermall infringes a trademark right of a third party, the cybermall operator will be held

2. Application of Article 14 of the Commercial Code by analogy

A judicial precedent exists on point. The case involved a consumer who purchased an item from a tenant shop in a supermarket. The court ruled that since the supermarket fostered an appearance that the shop was operated by the supermarket, by concluding a tenancy agreement with the shop, the company operating the supermarket was as legally responsible as a person who permits another person to use his name, by the analogical application *mutatis mutandis* of Article 14 of the Commercial Code (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 1st Petty Bench, November 30, 1995; *Minshû* vol.49, no.9, p.2972).

The requirements of Article 14 of the Commercial Code are as follows: (i) there must exist an appearance that makes potential customers believe that the nominee operates the business; (ii) the nominee is at fault for allowing the perpetration of the aforementioned appearance by permitting another party to use his name, and (iii) the counterparty believed without gross negligence that the nominee is the operator of the business. In the above mentioned judgment, requirement (ii) was not met; however, the judgment held that any party which allows another to make the aforementioned appearance should be held responsible by virtue of applying *mutatis mutandis* Article 14 of the Commercial Code by analogical interpretation of Article 14 of the Commercial Code.

By analogy to the relationship between a supermarket and its tenant, in the relationship between a cybermall operator and a cyber shop if (i) an appearance exists which caused the customer of the cyber shop to unavoidably mistake the cybermall operator as the seller; (ii) the cybermall operator is complicit in the presentation of the aforementioned appearance; and (iii) the customer had misidentified the identity of its operator without gross negligence when the customer conducted the transaction, then the cybermall operator could be held responsible through the analogical application of Article 14 of the Commercial Code.

Contrastingly, if the cybermall website displays a message, in a form usually recognizable to customers, stating that “each individual cyber shop is operated with self-responsibility by an entity completely independent of the cybermall operator. Except as otherwise expressly stated, is not managed or operated by the cybermall operator or any of its affiliates”, then such a message would be considered a powerful ground for refusing to attribute any responsibility for a transaction to the cybermall operator.

liable for the infringement, given that prescribed requirements are satisfied (the ruling of this case denied the responsibility of the cybermall operator for the infringement).

Whether a cybermall operator is held responsible by analogy through the application of Article 14 of the Commercial Code would be judged on the appearance of the cybermall and the way the cybermall is operated and also in consideration of other factors such as the extent to which the cybermall operator was involved in the business of the cyber shop in question (for example, how sales proceeds are collected, the explicit or implicit permission to use a trade name and the like) to determine how blameworthy the cybermall operator is.

3. Other circumstances leading to the cybermall operator's responsibility

Even where Article 14 of the Commercial Code is not applied *mutadis mutandis* to the cybermall operator, the cybermall operator may be liable to its customers for their damages arising from specific transactions with the cyber shop.

Firstly, under special circumstances, the cybermall operator may be liable for tort and/or for breach of duty of care regarding customers (breach of contractual obligations which derives from the cybermall service agreement). A typical example is in the case where the cybermall operator is aware of the frequent occurrence of serious accidents arising from defective products sold by the cyber shop. Yet it unreasonably neglects the issue for a long time, and consequently a customer who purchased the same products incurs damages arising from similar accidents.

Secondly, the cybermall operator may be liable to customers as a surety in some cases. A typical example is where the cybermall operator not only introduces or provides information about a certain product but also guarantees its quality. Where the cybermall operator posts advertisements of products and/or cyber shops without stating his/her opinions on their quality, the operator will not generally bear the aforementioned liability. Similarly, any of the following acts on its own will not be sufficient to serve as a basis for the operator's liability, because the operator does not give any opinion on the quality of the products in the following cases: (i) to indicate that "this product sells well"; (ii) simply to indicate the "ranking" such as the "top 3 for the former half of this year" of products or cyber shops, based on the data, such as the sum of sales proceeds or a popularity votes from customers; or (iii) simply to show a customer the products relating to his/her preference and/or products which he/she has purchased based on the total purchase transactions records, etc. without stating the operator's opinions on their quality.

I-7 Internet Auctions

Last Revised: October 2010

I-7-1 Responsibility of Auction Operator to Users

[Issue]

Should an Auction Operator bear any liability to a user (including Exhibitors and bidders) who incurs losses in the course of internet auctions, such as non-payment or the non-delivery of goods?

In addition to the above mentioned, what liability does the Auction Operator have to the users?

I. Approach

1. Cases where the auction operator is not directly involved in the individual transactions

In principle, the Auction Operator bears no liability in any transactional problems between users, if the Auction Operator is not directly involved in transaction; where the Auction Operators simply provide the brokering sales system for individuals.

In exceptional circumstances, if the successful bidders, who have purchased the stolen items, experience claims demanding the return of such items by the original owner and this is attributable to the Auction Operator because it did not stop the bidding although such Auction Operator had been ordered to suspend the bidding by the police commissioner etc., the Auction Operator may be obligated to indemnify the successful bidders.

2. Cases where the auction operator is substantially involved in the individual transactions

If the Auction Operator is substantially involved in transactions between users beyond simple provision of the brokering system, the Auction Operator may be liable to that extent of his further involvement.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

There are various types of internet auctions and the degree of involvement by the Auction Operator in the transactions between the users differs for each type. In general terms, the more the Auction Operator is involved substantially in the transactions, the higher the possibility that the Auction Operator will be responsible for any problems arising from the transactions between the users. If so, specifically for what types of auctions could the Auction Operator be held responsible?

In addition, while the terms of use often provide that Auction Operators may not participate in sales transactions between auction participants, what effect would the limitation of liability prescribed in such rules have?

Other than the troubles arising in connection with the transactions between the users, the responsibility of Auction Operator for maintenance and/or management etc. of systems, for example, may become an issue.

2. Legal relationship between Auction Operators and users

The legal relationship between Auction Operators and users shall be subject to the relevant terms of use, in principle. In internet actions, such agreement is acknowledged by clicking the button “I Agree”, usually upon online registration as a user, after confirming the terms (See section I-2-1 of the present Guidelines, “Effectiveness of Website Terms of Use” concerning the validity of the terms of use). Also, the system often prompts the users to click an “I Agree” button as to the terms of use upon each internet auction transaction.

If such agreement is concluded, the legal relationships between the users and Auction Operators are governed by such terms of use, in principle. The terms of use usually specify under which circumstances Auction Operators may be held responsible.

However, if the user is a consumer, the Consumer Contract Act applies. If the Consumer Contract Act is applicable, the provisions are invalid which fully (Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act) or partially (Item 2 of said Paragraph; however, liabilities raised from the intentional acts or gross negligence of such Auction Operator, its agents, or employees are not discharged at any rate) discharge an Auction Operator from its liability for losses incurred by consumers based on the non-performance of such Auction Operator. For example, if the Auction Operator is substantially involved in the transactions between the users as described in (4) below, any provision which fully discharges such Auction Operator from its liability relating to the transactions may be invalid under Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act. The liability of the Auction Operators is categorized below based only on the type of transaction where the provisions of the terms of use have been eliminated.

3. Liability of Auction Operators who simply provide the sales brokering system for individuals and are not directly involved in the individual transactions

As specified above, there are various forms of internet auctions. In general terms, the Exhibitors and the successful bidders (in some cases, including the

other bidders) take full responsibility for the actual sales, in the internet auctions in which Auction Operators simply provide the sales brokering system for individuals and are not directly involved in the internet actions. As a result, Auction Operators are normally regarded as having no liability in this regard. In other words, in internet auctions, regardless of “Business-to-Consumer”, “Business-to-Business” or “Consumer-to-Consumer” types, Auction Operators serve as a broker in the transactions by providing the system, however, such Auction Operators are not regarded as a party to the actual sales. In such case, the internet Auction Operators, in general, simply provide the site enabling internet auctions (including fixed-price transactions), and are not directly involved in the formation of any individual transactions. Therefore, Auction Operators are regarded, in principle, as having no liability in regard to transaction-related problems between users (in many cases, there is a provision in the terms of use that the Auction Operator will not be involved in the sales contracts between the auction users and therefore, the Auction Operator is not responsible).

Nevertheless, since an Auction Operator actively supports the infrastructure for the brokering of sales information, in certain cases the scope of its responsibility for the brokerage can be enlarged. In other words, since an auction business provides a venue for transactions, it may be deemed to have a certain obligation to act with due care, although there is no legal consensus on this point¹. For example, where information is provided by the police commissioner etc. to the effect that goods exhibited on the internet auction site are stolen, an Auction Operator that disregards this information may, based on a violation of the duty to act in good faith and with due care, have an obligation to indemnify the successful bidder who purchases the stolen goods which must be returned to the victim².

4. Liability of Auction Operators who is substantially involved in the transactions between individuals utilizing the auction system

As described above, in the type of auctions in which Auction Operators simply

¹ For example, in a judgment from March 28, 2008, the Nagoya District Court stated that, since the use of an internet auction service is necessarily governed by the terms of a contract, the principle of good faith requires service providers to build a system and provide a service that are without defect. Moreover, the specific details of the service provider’s duty must be determined on the basis of a comprehensive review of various factors, including: prevalent social circumstances with regard to online auctions at the time when the service is provided, relevant legislation, the technological standards of the system, the fees required in order to build and maintain the system, the results of introducing the system, the convenience for users, etc... (This decision was upheld by the Nagoya High Court on November 11, 2008.)

² The above-mentioned Nagoya District Court ruling of March 28, 2008, was made in a situation where fraud occurred frequently. It was necessary to take measures in order to raise awareness so as to prevent fraud. (This decision was upheld by the Nagoya High Court on November 11, 2008.)

provide the sales brokering system for individuals and are not substantially involved in individual transactions, Auction Operators do not have any liability related to any specific transactions. However, in the actual internet auction business, Auction Operators may act beyond their capacity as system provider in some cases. The liability of internet Auction Operators in such cases needs to be reviewed separately and specifically in each case by evaluating its capacity and the extent of its involvement. The following is a discussion of some typical cases:

(1) Cases in which Auction Operators actively support the exhibition of a user and receive fees or bidding commissions

For example, if Auction Operator receive an offer by the user on the phone concerning the exhibition of brand products, which are afterwards shipped to the Auction Operator, and the Auction Operator carries out the exhibition on behalf of such user and receives fees or bidding commissions in connection with the exhibition, the Auction Operator is regarded as an Exhibitor and not simply as a provider of the auction site. If the Auction Operator acts as exhibit agent on behalf of the actual Exhibitor while the Auction Operator is in a position where it can confirm whether the exhibitions are counterfeits, the Auction Operator may be held responsible to the purchaser for the occurrence of troubles, irrespective of the provisions of the terms of use. In such cases, if the products provided for auction exhibition fall under “used goods” defined under the Antique Dealings Act, the Auction Operator may be subject to the regulations of said Act (For more information, see section I-7-8 of the present Guidelines, “Internet auctions and the Antique Dealings Act”).

(2) Cases in which an Auction Operator in some manner endorses a particular seller

If an Auction Operator endorses a particular seller or promotes the sales of a particular seller, or endorses the exhibition of particular goods, the Auction Operator may be held liable in regard to transaction-related problems between users, depending on the form of such endorsement and/or promotion. For example, if an Auction Operator not only posts an advertisement on its website after having collected a certain fee from a particular seller, and also further introduces such seller by displaying its featured pages, where the Auction Operator post interviews etc., and features the particular products of the exhibitions of such seller as a “best buy” or “price buster – recommended products”, it cannot be denied that the Auction Operator will be held responsible for some problems associated with sales.

(3) Cases in which an Auction Operator itself is a seller

In internet auctions held for special events, the name of an Auction Operator may be indicated as the seller of products provided for sale by an individual who wishes to sell his product indirectly through the Auction Operator. However, any monies received in connection with the sale of the product received by the Auction Operator must be promptly transferred to the individual who had his goods sold. In such case, the Auction Operator takes on the responsibilities of the seller, in principle.

5. Liability of Auction Operator in issues other than problems between users, such as the maintenance and/or management of the system

Most internet auction sites collect commissions. Regardless of whether such commissions are charged, it can be interpreted that a legal relationship is created between Auction Operators and users (Exhibitors and/or successful bidders etc.) concerning the utilization of the internet auction system provided by the Auction Operators. This is because in internet auctions, users cannot exhibit goods or participate in biddings unless the users utilize the systems provided by the Auction Operators. Therefore, it is interpreted that the Auction Operators are held responsible to maintain and/or manage the functions of the internet auction system which serves as the infrastructure for the exchange of information between individuals.

I-7-2 Legal Relationships between Auction Users (exhibitors and successful bidders)

[Issue]

What is the legal relationship between auction users (exhibitors and successful bidders)? If the goods delivered differ from those specified in the exhibit information of an internet auction, does the successful bidder have the right to nullify the contract or change the terms thereof?

I.Approach

1. Cases in which a sales contract has no legal effect

If there is material discrepancy in the intentions of the seller and the buyer “to sell” or “to buy”, such parties may claim for the invalidation of the contract, unless there has been gross negligence resulting in the discrepancy which is attributable to the party who wishes to invalidate the contract. Also, the contract may be rescinded (“*torikeshi*”) if the parties committed fraud or were compelled to execute the contract. Furthermore, the contract may be terminated (“*kaijō*”) in the event of default or if any latent defects are found in the products.

2. Cases in which the buyer may request the goods received be exchanged for other goods

If there are any defects in the delivered goods which are traded in the market, the buyer may demand the exchange of such goods for defect-free products.

3. Cases in which the buyer may claim from the seller monetary compensation

If the subject item of the transaction is in any way defective or if some obligations have not been performed as required by contract, the buyer may claim a reasonable amount of damages.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

When a successful bid for goods is accepted in an internet auction, a sales contract is concluded between the exhibitor and the successful bidder at the time a bid is successful. Specifically, under the sales contract, the seller (exhibitor) and the buyer (successful bidder) bear their own respective obligations (principally, the seller shall deliver the goods as specified in the exhibit terms and conditions and the buyer shall pay the bid amount subject to the bidding terms and conditions). In general, both the exhibitor and the

successful bidder have actual intentions to engage in the transaction based on the terms and conditions at the time the bid was successful. Assuming that a contract is not deemed to have been entered into at the time a bid is successful, the parties are not necessarily bound by the terms and conditions thereunder because the details of the terms and conditions of such contract are decided by the negotiations between the parties after the time of bidding.

However, the legal relationship between the parties in the transactions using the internet auction is no different from that of the existing transactions and therefore, the principles of a general sales contract are applied to such transactions. In other words, if the actual intentions of the parties are found to be different from the sales contract formed, a party may claim that such contract be nullified; that the goods be exchanged with other goods; and that the party be compensated by the other party. The following paragraphs will explain when a party may submit the aforementioned claims in line with the principles of a general sales contract.

2. Cases where a sales contract may be nullified

A sales contract arising from an internet auction bid may be nullified when a party claims that the contract was invalid, when the parties claim to rescind the contract although the contract was validly executed and when the parties claim to terminate the contract although the contract was validly executed. If such contract is deemed to never have been formed, the buyer may claim for the return of the amount already paid and the seller may claim for the return of the products delivered.

See below for detailed explanations.

(1) Cases where a sales contract may have no legal effect

In principle, a contract is deemed to have been formed when the intentions of the seller and buyer “to sell” or “to buy” are presented and accepted each of the respective parties. If the intentions presented to the other parties differ in material respects to the actual intentions of such parties (“fundamental mistake”), such parties may claim, in principle, that the contract was never actually formed (Article 95 of the Civil Code). In general, material discrepancy means that the discrepancy (mistake) concerns the expression of intention and in which case it can be clearly deduced that in accord with the judgment of a normal person the party made no such intention (to sell or to buy) by virtue of the existence of the discrepancy. What constitutes a material discrepancy differs in each case. For example, if there is discrepancy in the year when the product was made, and if it is especially

important for the buyer that the product has been made in that particular year, and where the buyer would not have participated in the bidding if it had known that the product was not made in that year, then the buyer may claim that a discrepancy exists in a material aspect. In the example, the year in which the product was made need not have any particular significance as shown above in the other cases.

However, if an intention is erroneously communicated due to the gross negligence of the communicating party, such party may not claim for the invalidation of the contract on the basis of their mistake. What constitutes gross negligence differs in each case, but in general, a party is deemed to be grossly negligent if such party operates significantly without the commonly expected due care depending on the status of such party, types of acts and/or purposes etc.

(2) Cases in which a sales contract may be rescind

As described above, a sales contract under which a seller is responsible to deliver the subject product and a buyer is responsible to pay the charged amount is formed when the intentions of the parties “to sell” or to “buy” match each other (and no discrepancy is found in material aspects). However, even if no discrepancy is found in such intentions, a contract may be rescinded if such intentions are made due to compulsion or fraudulently. In the first case, if a party is compelled to agree to a contract in order to avoid the disclosure of his personal information on the internet, and in the latter case, if a seller intentionally posts false information about the product in order to deceive a buyer. Also, if a minor is a party to a sales transaction, such transaction may be rescinded unless the minor obtains the consent of his guardian (e.g. parents). However, for example, if a minor buys stationery with the money given to him by his guardian for that purpose, the minor may use the money for the purpose the guardian intended. Also, in some cases, a minor may dispose of its assets at its own discretion (such as an allowance) without the consent of his legal representatives. In such case, a sales transaction may not be rescinded even though the minor does not have the express consent of his guardians.

(3) Cases where a sales contract may be terminated

In some cases, a seller or buyer may terminate and nullify a contract notwithstanding that the contract does not fulfill either requirements (i) nor (ii) above. For example, a buyer may terminate a contract: if a seller defaults; if a buyer does not perform its obligation; if any latent defects

(“*kashi*”) are found in used goods purchased; according to a provision prescribed in the terms and conditions of contract (e.g. exhibition terms and condition) permitting termination in certain circumstances; or, if both parties agree to the termination. If the contract is terminated, each party is responsible to return the other party to its pre-contract state; the party who received goods must return them and the who received payment for the goods must repay the paid amount.

(i) Cases where a seller defaults

If a seller and a buyer have concluded a sales agreement for certain goods, and if the goods delivered to the buyer differ from those specified in the sales agreement, the buyer may claim for the delivery of goods as specified in the sales agreement. Under the sales contract, the seller bears an obligation to deliver the goods as specified in the sales agreement. In general, if the goods delivered to a buyer differ from those specified in the description of the goods in the sales agreement, the buyer may claim for the termination of the contract due to the default of the seller to perform its obligation to deliver the goods as specified in the description. As described above, if a seller or a buyer fails to perform its obligations under a sales contract, the other party may terminate such contract.

(ii) Cases where latent defects are found in a specific good purchased

As described in (i) above, if a good offered for exhibition is an unspecified good and replacements for such good are easily available in the market, a seller is liable to deliver defect-free goods complying with the description and a buyer may claim for the delivery of defect-free goods. On the other hand, if the seller decides to handle the goods after having specified certain characteristic of such goods (namely “specific goods”), regardless of whether replacements of such goods are available in the market, the seller is deemed as having performed its obligation to deliver goods even though the seller delivers a defected good as it is. The seller bears no further obligations to procure and deliver a replacement for such good. For example, if a seller is an individual and if a buyer can easily acknowledge that the seller is vending only the item on display by exhibiting the unused good with a corresponding description such as “unopened and as-is good received as a Christmas gift”, the seller bears no obligation to procure and deliver a replacement for such good because the deal is based on the characteristic of such good, although it is physically possible to procure its replacement in the market. In such case, the buyer may claim for the termination of a contract (or for compensation) if the buyer cannot perform the purpose of

the sales contract due to a defect in the subject item, for example, where, the buyer was not aware of such defect upon conclusion of the sales contract (hereinafter referred to as “liability for defects” under Article 570 of the Civil Code. A judicial precedent has held that liability exists for defects in sales contracts for unspecific goods if any defect is found after the receipt of such goods (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, December 15, 1961; *Minshû*, vol.15, no.11, p.2852).

(iii) Cases where a provision prescribed in the terms and conditions of contract (e.g. exhibition information) exist which stipulates that a contract may be terminated under certain circumstances

Some sales contracts stipulate the terms and conditions for the termination of contract in advance; while others may stipulate that a product is “returnable if you are not completely satisfied” or returnable under other circumstances. In such case, the parties may terminate the contract as long as such party satisfies the terms for termination of contract.

(iv) Cases where the parties agree to the termination

Furthermore, if the parties agree to the termination ex post facto, the contract may be terminated.

3. Cases where the goods may be exchanged for other goods

If the deal does not concern specific goods, and if the goods can be replaced with other goods available in the market, the seller is responsible to deliver the product free of defect in accordance with the description thereof and the buyer may demand to exchange a defective product with a non-defective product as described in the exhibit information (description). If the delivered product does not match the description in the agreement, the buyer may demand that the seller exchange such product for a product which satisfies the description specified in the agreement.

4. Cases where the goods may be repaired

If the goods on exhibition are unspecific and can be replaced with other goods available in the market, the seller bears the responsibility to deliver goods free of defect in accordance with the description and the buyer may demand that the seller deliver the goods which both comply with the description and are free of defect. If the delivered product does not match the trade description, the buyer may demand that the seller exchange such goods for goods which match the trade description and may at the same time demand that the goods received

from the seller be repaired (“claim for full performance”).

5. Cases where damages may be compensated

If the goods on exhibit are special and cannot easily be easily replaced by other goods in the market, the seller is deemed to have fulfilled its delivery duty even if the seller delivers such “as-is” defective products. In such case, the buyer may claim compensation (warranty against defect goods, Article 570 of the Civil Code) although it may not terminate the contract. A judicial precedent ruled that warranty against defects exists in a sales contract for unspecific goods if any defects are found after the receipt of such goods (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, December 15, 1961).

Also, regardless of whether the goods are specific and/or unspecific, if a party suffers damages because of the nonperformance of the counterparty of its duties (delivery duty, payment duty, etc.), such suffering party may claim a significant amount of compensation.

I-7-3 Conclusion of Sales Contracts in Internet Auctions

[Issue]

When are sales contracts concluded in internet auctions?

I. Approach

The timing for the conclusion of contracts in the course of internet auctions is determined on a case by case basis because there are various types or forms of internet auctions. Such timing for the conclusion of a contract is determined based on the intention of the parties as reasonably interpreted after taking into account the nature of each transaction.

Cases where a contract is deemed to have been concluded at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid

- The exhibitor provides a good for exhibition based on the premise that such good will be sold, irrespective of the bidders, based on the terms and conditions of sales stipulated in the description, while the successful bidder is participating in the bid on the premise that it would purchase the good at the successful tender price in accordance with such exhibition terms and conditions. In other words, the exhibitor and the successful bidder are engaged in internet auction based on the premise that such exhibitor and the successful bidder will be bound by the conditions of transactions at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid.
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Cases in which a contract is not deemed to have been concluded at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid

- The exhibitor and the successful bidder acknowledge that the description of goods by the exhibitor in the internet auction site is simply an advertisement or publicity and the parties engage in the internet auction based on the premise that the parties will not be bound by the conditions of transactions (successful tender price, description of good, etc.) at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid and that the conditions of transactions may be negotiated freely by the parties after the internet auction is closed.
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II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

When a successful bid for goods is accepted in an internet auction, a sales contract is concluded between the exhibitor and the successful bidder at the time the bid is successful. The legal relationship between the auction users is

governed by the sales contract. In other words, under the sales contract, the seller (exhibitor) and the buyer (successful bidder) bear their own respective obligations (principally, the seller shall deliver the goods as specified in the exhibit terms and conditions and the buyer shall pay the amount bid subject to the bidding terms and conditions).

On the other hand, the terms of use in the auction sites are stipulated in various forms depending on each business model (e.g., “a successful bid does not constitute the conclusion of a sales contract but only entitles the successful bidder to a priority right for negotiation”, “the parties are obliged to execute a sales contract concurrently upon a successful bid” or “the parties are responsible to execute the contract in accordance with good faith principles”). In the meantime, as a preventive measure against troubles, it is desirable to clearly specify the details of contract regarding the shipping charges or other terms in the exhibition information, even though this is not often done.

Therefore, at which stage of the transaction is a contract considered to have been concluded by the parties? If a contract is deemed to have been concluded at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid, the exhibitor becomes obliged to deliver the goods as stipulated in the exhibition information and the successful bidder becomes obliged to pay the tender price. In the meantime, if the auction system only acts as an information intermediary simply posting information on sales and purchases (for example, “Buy & Sell Bulletin Board”), a contract is not formed at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid. However, a contract may be formed without being bound by the terms and conditions which are prescribed upon the successful bid depending on the negotiations between the parties after the acceptance of the successful bid. In other words, the issue related to the timing for the conclusion of a contract relates closely to what rights or obligations arise between the parties under the sales contract or to which expression of intention should the parties refer to when considered with the invalidation due to mistake. Should the parties be bound by the terms and conditions at the time of the acceptance of the successful bid?

Also, if a provision concerning the timing for conclusion of a contract is prescribed in the terms of use, should the parties be bound by such provision concerning the conclusion of a contract?

2. Timing of conclusion of contract in internet auction

A sales contract is concluded when the intentions of the buyer (to apply for a contract) and the seller (to accept such application) accord with each other. The timing of such accordance is determined by a reasonable interpretation of the

actual intentions of the parties. There are various forms of internet auctions and it would be difficult to determine whether a contract is formed. However, in general, if it is likely that the parties intended to participate in the transaction based on the premise that they would be bound by the terms and conditions prescribed at the end of the bidding time (at the end of auction), then it can reasonably follow that a sales contract has been formed with the successful bidder who satisfied the bidding terms and conditions which were presented by the exhibitor at the end of bidding time. On the other hand, if one does not consider that the will of the parties was to participate in the transaction based on the premise that they would be bound by the terms and conditions prescribed at the end of the bidding time, then it logically follows that no contract was formed¹.

In some cases, the Auction Operators particularly prescribe a provision in the terms of use which designates the time at which a sales contract comes into effect. For example, in some cases, it is stated that a sales contract will only come into effect after negotiations have been held between the exhibitor and the successful bidder following the end of the auction. In such case, the terms of use usually do not specify at what stage, after the successful bid, the contract comes into effect. In general, such description in the terms of use may not fix the timing of the conclusion of contract; rather the time the contract is executed can only be determined by identifying the offer made and its acceptance which form the basis of the sales contract. Therefore, although the terms of use may prescribe that the contract comes into effect at the time the auction ends, it does not necessarily mean that such terms of use has binding force. Notwithstanding the above, the specification of timing in the formation of a contract in the terms of use generally has an impact on the intentions of the users. Therefore, it should be taken into consideration when interpreting the intentions of the parties. As a result, if it is determined that the user had no intention to execute a contract at the time the auction ended, it would be held that the contract had not come into effect at the closing of the auction.

¹ According to the ruling of the Nagoya High Court from November 11, 2008, in cases where, after an item has been successfully bid on, the buyer and the seller communicate directly through e-mail or some other means and conduct negotiations in order to determine how to carry out the delivery of the item and the payment of the price, then there is no contract in spite of the successful bid. Because it is acceptable for either the buyer or the seller to withdraw following these negotiations and it is not compulsory to convey the item or to make the payment, one cannot say that a contract was formed between the parties simply on the basis of the bid. The appropriate view is that the contract is only formed when negotiations have led to an agreement.

I-7-4 Effectiveness of Special Clause “No Claim, No Return” Policy

[Issue]

In some cases, in internet auctions or other individual transaction, a seller stipulates a “No Claim, No Return” policy regarding the exhibition items. A buyer may bid and/or make a successful bid for the items after having agreed to that policy. In such case, could the successful bidder or the buyer complain about or return the purchased item?

I. Approach

Posting a special “No Claim, No Return” clause does not always mean that it has legal effect. The validity of the clause will be judged in light of good faith principles.

Cases where a special “No Claim, No Return” clause may be valid

- If there is a posting which says “this junk item is sold on a NO CLAIM, NO RETURN basis”, the exhibitor may be discharged from any responsibility even if such item is inoperative.
-

Cases where a special “No Claim, No Return” clause may be invalid

- If the exhibitor had known of any dent or stain affecting the product but had not mentioned such to the bidders, such special clause is not valid and the exhibitor may not be discharged from liability for defect.
- If a “No Claim, No Return” clause is posted and the bidder for whatever reason misunderstands material matters relating to the transaction because of a deficiency in the description of the goods or items, such clause may be ruled inoperative due to the material misunderstanding.
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II. Explanations

“No Claim, No Return” is language an exhibitor may use (such as “all sales final - no refunds or returns”) in the description of a product on exhibition in internet auctions. The issue is whether the bidder and/or successful bidder, after agreeing to such policy, may not request a refund or return (termination, returns etc.) the product. Especially, if the goods delivered differ from their description or if while no discrepancy existed between the description of the product and the product actually delivered, but where the buyer would not have participated in the bid had it known of circumstances which were not specified

in the description, can the buyer still claim against the seller for the invalidation or termination of the contract?

In general, if a seller posts the language “No Claim, No Return” regarding any goods on exhibition, it is interpreted that the seller has expressed its intention that only those bidders who agree that “the seller accepts no claims or returns concerning the product” should be able to participate in the bid. This is considered a special clause which discharges the seller from any warranty against defects (Article 572 of the Civil Code). The discharge from warranty against defects means that the seller (exhibitor) should have no liability for any latent defects in the tendered product. Descriptions such as “this junk item is sold on a ‘No Claim, No Return’ basis”, or “we offer this used and antiquated product on a no claim no return basis” are some typical examples we can find on websites. In some cases, “No Claim, No Return” is itself simply indicated. In principle, it is valid to prescribe such special clause.

However, a special clause between users cannot serve as a justification for any act that is against the principle of good faith and therefore, a seller shall not be discharged from liabilities if the exhibitor itself is aware that all or part of the items on exhibition belong to others or that the quantity of products are insufficient, that the item on exhibition has any defects (e.g. any dents or stains which are not stated in the description of such product), and where the seller still engages in the transaction without notifying the bidders and/or successful bidders thereof. If such a situation were to arise, even if the description said “No Claim, No Return”, the seller could not escape warranty against defects (Article 572 of the Civil Code). Based on these defects, the buyer can demand the dissolution of the contract and the payment of damages. Depending on the specific circumstances, it may also be possible to obtain an invalidation based on error (Article 95 of the Civil Code) or a nullification based on fraud (Paragraph 1, Article 96 of the Civil Code).

According to the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, in the case of a transaction between individuals where the seller can be classified as a “business”¹, the seller at the time of exhibiting the goods must display in the advertisement any provisions concerning the legal right to return goods and any special clauses regarding warranty against defects (Article 11, Sections 4-5 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act; Article 8, Section 5 of the Regulations for the Specified Commercial Transactions Act). It is necessary for the seller to make clear whether the display of information about returning

¹ See section I-7-5 of the present Guidelines, “Internet Auctions and the Specified Commercial Transactions Act”.

goods falls within the category of a special clause on the legal right to return goods, a special clause on warranty against defects, or both²³. Even if it were to be determined, however, that the display of a “No Claim, No Return” warning falls within the definition of both a special clause on the legal right to return goods and a special clause on warranty against defects, the fact is that, in cases where the buyer is a consumer, such a warning could only be effective as a special clause on returning goods. Indeed, if a “No Claim, No Return” warning were to be treated as a special clause on warranty against defects, thereby providing a complete exemption from the obligation to pay damages, as well as eliminating a consumer’s right to dissolve the contract, it would be invalidated under Item 5, Paragraph 1, Article 8 and Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act⁴.

² See section II-4-2 of the present Guidelines, “Regulations under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act”.
See also, section I-5 “Returning Goods Purchased over the Internet”.

³ If a “No Claim, No Return” agreement is understood as having the effect of blocking all claims and all returns (regardless of their purpose), it can be considered as both a special clause on warranty against defects and a special clause on returning goods.

⁴ Even if the transaction is between individuals, when the buyer can be defined as a “business” (see Article 2, Paragraph 2, Consumer Contract Act), a “No Claim, No Return” special clause exempting the seller from warranty against defects remains valid because the Consumer Contract Act does not apply.

I-7-5 Internet Auctions and the Specified Commercial Transactions Act

[Issue]

Where persons sell goods through internet auction sites, do Article 11 (Display of required items in advertisements) and Article 12 (Prohibition of misleading advertisements) of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act apply?¹

I. Approach

Business entities that sell products, etc. through mail order sales are subject to obligations to display certain items in advertisements (Article 11 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act) and to the prohibition of misleading advertisements (Article 12). In internet auction sales, these provisions apply to businesses, whether legal entities or individuals, engaged in transactions which are to be repeated and are continuous with a view to profit.

II. Explanations

Online transactions of products, etc. where an offer is accepted via the internet, including auctions, fall in the “correspondence sales” (*tsushin-hambai*) category defined in the provisions of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act. Therefore, business entities who sell products, etc. through internet auctions are subject to the obligations to display certain items in advertisements and to the prohibition of misleading advertisements as stipulated in the Specified Commercial Transactions Act. Furthermore, in the event of a violation, violators are subject to administrative dispositions and penalties.

Under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, a “Dealer” (*hanbai-gyosha*) means a person performing sales as a business. ‘As a business’ here means performing transactions repeatedly and continuously with a view to profit. Whether a transaction is ‘with a view to profit’ will be determined objectively. For example, buying products for the purpose of resale is regarded as an act with a view to profit.

The judgment of whether or not such transactions are undertaken ‘with a view to profit’ or are ‘repeated and continuous’ shall be based on other factors as well, including whether the transactions occur by means other than internet auctions. For example, where a business entity exhibits the products dealt with

¹ This interpretative guideline is published as the Annex 1 “Guidelines concerning “Dealer” on internet auctions” of the Circular Notice of the Deputy Secretary General of Consumer Affairs Agency and the Director-General for Commerce and Distribution Policy of Minister's Secretariat of the Ministry of Economy Trade and Industry, February 20, 2013 “Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transaction Act.”

in the course of its business at an auction, whether on the internet or at an actual physical venue, in principle this will fall within the definition of a Dealer, regardless of the total quantity of products or the bidding price. For example, when an individual engaged in business uses internet auctions to exhibit goods one single time and the business also sells those products at an actual physical venue, these transactions are considered to be performed by a Dealer.

In addition to the aforementioned cases, those who exhibit products in an internet auction in the manner described below will, regardless of the mode of transactions outside the internet, in principle fall within the definition of Dealers.

Internet auctions provide a method that enables individuals, who in the past had only been consumers, to become Dealers; however, when an individual is deemed a “Dealer”, such individuals may be subject to the Specified Commercial Transactions Act.

1. All categories of commodities sold through internet auction sites

Although individuals entering into an internet auction² normally sell in large quantity items that are unnecessary or are collected for the purposes of a personal hobby, where such sales are performed under the following situations and assuming that no special circumstances exist, those individuals are likely to fall within the definition of a Dealer, where they engage in repeated transactions with intent to gain profit. Note that this does not mean that the numbers indicated below are the minimum requirements for such seller to be a Dealer. Different criteria may apply depending on the type of commodities, but generally speaking, those who trade numerous new items, especially the ones completely identical in maker and designation number, are likely to fall within the definition of a Dealer.

(1) Cases where the number of commodities in sale reaches 200 during the last one month or 100 at any one time

Sales of items collected for the purposes of leisure, such as trading cards, figures, used music CDs, photographs of an idol, etc, for the purpose of disposal or exchange, are excluded.

² This interpretative guideline is hereby established based on the characteristics of internet auctions, and thus shall not be applied to other types of transactions under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act.

(2) Cases where the aggregate bidding price during the last one month reaches 1,000,000 JPY

If expensive items that cost more than 1,000,000 JPY, such as automobiles, pictures, antiques and pianos, are sold, other factors such as the mode of sales, that is, the number and type of items in sale at the same time, should be taken into consideration.

(3) Cases where the aggregate bidding price during the last one year reaches 10,000,000 JPY.

2. Specified categories of commodities sold through internet auction sites.

More detailed analysis of transactions in internet auctions dealing with certain types of products enable us to make more specific and accurate analysis. The following are examples of cases where the seller is normally deemed to be a Dealer. The analysis here focuses on products that frequently result in consumers' claims.

The following table titled "Categories of products that frequently result in consumers' claims" (hereinafter, the "Table") shows a list of items classified into some categories which frequently result in consumers' claims.

Table (1) Electric household appliances

Where 5 or more of the same items are for sale at the one time. 'Same items' here means the items generally referred to by the same term, such as cameras, personal computers and TVs, but this is not limited to cases where they come from or have the same maker, function, or designation number.

Table (2) Components of a bicycle and a bike

Where 3 or more of the same items are for sale at the one time. 'Same items' here means the items generally referred to by the same term or emblem, such as wheels, bumpers, but this is not limited to cases where they come from or have the same maker, or product name. Plural items sold as a set shall be counted as a single item.

Table (3) CD, DVD, and PC software

Where 3 or more of the same items are for sale at the one time. 'Same items' here means items completely identical in maker, product name, and contents.

Table (4) Brand-name items

Where 20 or more brand-name items are for sale at the one time.

Table (5) Ink cartridges

Where 20 or more ink cartridges are for sale at the one time.

Table (6) Health food

Where 20 or more packages of health food are for sale at the one time.

Table (7) Tickets etc.

Where 20 or more tickets are for sale at the one time.

Among items sold through internet auctions, those mentioned above are not exhaustive. Rather, these are some of the examples where the seller provides items frequently subject to consumers' claims, and such seller is likely to be deemed to be a Dealer. It is important to note that whether or not the internet auction operator falls within the category of a 'Dealer' should be determined based on objective facts on a case-by-case basis, including in cases where non-listed items are sold. More specifically, even though the number of items sold at the one time does not reach the minimum specified above, such seller may, depending on certain circumstances, fall within the category of a Dealer, especially if the sales are repeated more frequently and the seller does not stock the items for resale.

In addition, note that the discussion above is based on the assumption that the business entity operating the internet auction prevents an individual seller from obtaining plural IDs, by ensuring that they properly manage the information of the seller, including his/her bank account, credit card number, e-mail address, mobile phone information etc.³.

Categories of products that frequently result in consumers' claims

(1) Electric household appliances	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Photograph appliances• Receptors for radio or TV, electric refrigerators, air conditioners, and other electric household appliances, lighting apparatus, appliances for preventing short-circuit, and voltage controllers• Telephones, interphones, facsimiles, and portable wireless
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³ The government, public authorities, and business entities are expected, in accordance with the argument here, to inform those involved in such transactions of their requirement for proper presentation whenever they may fall within the category of a Dealer.

	<p>devices for emergency, and wireless items for amateurs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Electric (including desktop) calculators and their components and accessories
(2) Components of a bicycle and a bike	<p>Among the items listed below, their components and accessories</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Automobiles and bikes with a prime mover (including a motor-bike) and their components and accessories
(3) CD, DVD, and PC software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Electromagnetic recording media, disks for a record player, or any media in which sound, image, or programming is recorded by electromagnetic or optical method
(4) Brand-name items	<p>Among the items listed below, those that are counterfeited in large quantity and include trademarks registered in the Japan Patent Office)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Watches • Clothes • Ties, scarves, portable bags, bags, umbrellas, walking sticks, sunglasses (except for the ones used for correcting eyesight) and other portable belongings, accessories such as rings, necklaces, cuff links etc, smoking tools, and makeup sets
(5) Ink cartridge	<p>Among the items listed below, the ink cartridge used for printers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Office tools such as mechanical pencils, fountain pens, ball-point pens, inkstands, rulers etc, and seals, vermilion ink pads, albums, and tools for drawing pictures.
(6) Health food	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Processed goods of animals and plants taken by human beings but normally not for daily meals (excluding ‘medicine’ defined in Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Pharmaceutical Act (Act No. 145 of 1960))
(7) Tickets etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The right to attend a facility for sport or relaxation [Schedule 1-1] • The right to enjoy a movie, a drama, music, watch sport, or photographs or to see works of art such as pictures and sculptures [Schedule 1-2]

The numbers in brackets [] refer to those of the specified rights listed in Schedule 1 in the Order for Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act.

I-7-6 Internet Auctions and the Premiums and Representations Act

[Issue]

Does Article 4 (Prohibition against misleading representations) of the Premiums and Representations Act apply to the sale of goods provided by individuals through internet auctions?

I. Approach

When business entities¹ participate in internet auctions and sell goods to consumers, Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act is applied.

II. Explanations

There are cases where business entities participate in internet auctions and sell goods to consumers. Such cases constitute a Business-to-Consumer transaction using the internet, so Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act applies, and the misleading representations described in each item of the same article are prohibited².

¹ The definition of a “business entity” (“*jigyô-sya*”) differs for each law. The meaning of “business entity” under the Premiums and Representations Act is defined in Article 2 as “person engaged in a commercial business, industrial business, financial business, or other business”. Not only legal entities but also individuals may be regarded as businesses.

² Specified Commercial Transactions Act When a business offered wristwatches for sale to general consumers on an internet auction site on at least 52 occasions between March and August 2002, the Fair Trade Commission (responsibility for the Premiums and Representations Act was transferred to the Consumer Affairs Agency in September 2009) deemed these representations to be in violation of the provisions of Item 1, Article 4 (Misrepresentation of the quality of products) under the Premiums and Representations Act and issued a warning to the business involved.

I-7-7 Internet Auctions and the Electronic Contract Act

[Issue]

Does Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act (Exception for contract invalidity due to mistake in expression of intention) apply to sales contracts concluded between exhibitors and successful bidders in internet auctions?

I. Approach

Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act is considered in principle not to apply to Consumer to Consumer auctions.

II. Explanations

When a consumer makes an offer to a business entity through a website in accordance with the procedures displayed on the website by the business entity, Proviso to Article 95 of the Civil Code will not apply to the offer and the consumer can invalidate an unintended application for contract or an expression of intent which differs from his true intent, if the customer makes an offer unintentionally or makes an offer which is different from his actual intention; except for cases where the business entity has taken steps to secure the confirmation of the consumer of his actual intention and its contents, or where the consumer himself indicates that it is not necessary to have an opportunity to confirm the intent to apply or the contents of the application (Article 3 of Electronic Contract Act).

The aforementioned law applies to Electronic Consumer Contracts which are concluded between consumer and business entities, so-called “Business to Consumer” transactions. This law addresses the gap between consumers and business entities in the context of electronic commercial transactions.

Currently, the parties to a transaction (exhibitors and bidders) are on even grounds in most of the Consumer to Consumer auctions. Therefore, the aforementioned laws would not apply to the sales contracts between the exhibitors and bidders.

I-7-8 Internet Auctions and the Antique Dealings Act

[Issue]

Must business entities engaging in internet auctions obtain licenses as used goods merchants (“*kobutsu-shô*”) or used goods market operators (“*kobutsu-shijô-shû*”) to comply with relevant laws?

I. Approach

Internet Auction Operator need not obtain a license as a used goods merchant or used goods market manager, unless they engage in internet auctions in the sale or exchange of used goods on their own or under consignment or if they manage a market for the sale or exchange of used goods between businesses.

II. Explanations

1. Whether a license is required for a used goods merchant or used goods market operator

Under the Antique Dealings Act, a license must be obtained (1) where a person is engaged in the sale or exchange of used goods, or the sale or exchange of used goods under consignment, (except those who simply sell used goods or repurchase goods sold from the buyers) (Item 1, Paragraph 2, Article 2) and (2) where a person is engaged in the business of operating markets for used goods (defined as markets for purchases and exchanges by used goods merchants; Item 2 of the same paragraph). In case (1) the license is obtained from the prefectural Public Safety Commission in charge of the business premises of the used goods merchant. In case (2) the license is obtained from the Public Safety Commission in charge of the location of the used goods market operated by the used goods market operator (Paragraph 3 and Paragraph 4, Article 2, Article 3).

Unless Auction Operators sell or exchange used goods by themselves or have consigned them to somebody else, or unless they operate a market for the sale or exchange of goods between used goods merchants, it is deemed not necessary to obtain a license as a used goods merchant or used goods market operator under the foregoing laws. In other words, Auction Operators who are not parties to internet auctions are neither “used goods merchants” nor “used goods market operators”.

However, persons who participate in internet auctions to engage in the sale of used goods must duly obtain a license as a used goods merchant.

2. Regulations on Auction Brokers for Used Goods

The Antique Dealings Act defined those who engage in auction brokerage

businesses (specifically designated as those who uses electronic information processing systems specified by relevant ordinances) of used goods as “used goods auction brokers” (excluding used goods market operators) (“*kobutsu-seri-assen-gyō*”) and applies certain regulations (Item 3, Paragraph 2, Article 2). Internet auctions are designated as used goods auction brokers (Article 3, Enforcement Ordinance of the Antique Dealings Act)¹.

The regulations could be summarized as follows:

- (1) Persons engaged in a business of used goods auction broker shall submit a written notice thereof to the public safety commission (Article 10-2, Paragraph 1).
- (2) A used goods auction broker shall promptly notify the police when suspicions arise that goods offered on the internet auction site are stolen (Article 21-3).
- (3) When a used goods auction broker attempts to obtain applications for assistance from persons attempting to sell used goods, said operators shall endeavor to take measures to confirm the honesty of the solicited persons, and when assisting persons attempting to sell used goods, shall endeavor to prepare and keep records thereof (Article 21-2, 21-4).
- (4) A used goods auction broker can obtain certification from the public safety commission attesting that the methods of conducting business conform to the standards designated by the National Public Safety Commission on the rapid discovery and prevention of the sale of stolen goods. A used goods auction broker, who has obtained certification from the public safety commission, can display such certification. Except where the certification has been duly obtained, no one shall display such certification or put forth any misleading similar display (Paragraphs 1-3, Article 21-5).
- (5) A used goods auction broker located in a foreign country (limited to cases where the persons to whom assistance is provided are located in Japan) shall be treated in the same way as operators engaged in a used goods auction broker under (4) (Article 21-6).
- (6) A used goods auction broker provides assistance to a person offering goods, which are reasonably suspected as being stolen property, the

¹ The “auction method” (“*seri-no-hôhō*”) stipulated under Item 3, Paragraph 2, Article 2 of the Antique Dealings Act is defined as the method by which an electronic information processing system consists of computer and telecommunication wires; where the computers of the exhibitor, the bidders and the auction operator are connected to each other; where the communication including goods information provided by the exhibitor and price information provided by the bidders are electronically and automatically transmitted and disclosed to common users (Article 3, Enforcement Ordinance, Antique Dealings Act).

Superintendent-General of the Tokyo Metropolitan Police Department, the chief of the Prefectural police headquarters, or the chief of a police station can order a used goods auction broker to stop the auction involving the applicable used goods (Article 21-7).

- (7) The chief of the prefectural police headquarters or the like can request necessary reports in regard to stolen goods from a used goods auction broker when deemed necessary (Paragraph 3, Article 22).

I-8 Prize Offers on the Internet

[Issue]

Are prizes offered to consumers on internet websites subject to the provisions of the Premiums and Representations Act, which regulate premiums provided in connection with transactions?

I. Approach

1. Prize offers on the internet

Prize offers made on a commercial transaction site do not constitute the provision of an economic benefit associated with a transaction, subject to the Premiums and Representations Act (therefore, they are called as “*open kenshō*”, prize offer open to public); even though the prize offer is located on the commercial websites (e.g. offeror assumes that the users found the offer on the commercial transaction websites; the prize offers were announced on the websites; offeror accepted applications from users on the website).consumers are free to move from one website to another

Nevertheless, if a person cannot apply for a prize offer unless he purchases a product or service on the commercial transaction site, or if a purchase increase the odds of winning a prize, such prize offers are deemed to be associated with a transaction and therefore it will be subject to the Premiums and Representations Act.

2. Prize offers from internet service providers and the like

Prize offers made on the websites of businesses that provide services to connect to the internet, such as internet service providers, telephone companies, and the like, are not regarded as associated with transactions, provided that the persons eligible to apply for the offer are not limited to the present users of the connectivity service provided by the same entity. Thus, such offers as *open kenshōs* are not subject to the Premiums and Representations Act.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

In connection with the rapid increase in electronic transactions made at commercial transaction sites on internet websites, prize offers are widely used to consumers on internet websites. It is often difficult to determine whether such offers are subject to the provisions of the Premiums and Representations Act which regulates premiums provided in connection with transactions. For that reason, the Fair Trade Commission, which used to be in charge of the

Premiums and Representations Act in April, 2001, has expressed their opinion on how prize offers made on the internet should be treated¹. The Consumer Affairs Agency, which has had responsibility for the Premiums and Representations Act since September, 2009, has continued to enforce the act on the basis of this opinion.

The contents are as follows:

2. Summary of regulations on prize offers

The Premiums and Representations Act regulates premiums (Article 3), defining a premiums as either (1) a means of attracting customers; (2) a prize provided in association with a transaction; or (3) an economic benefit (Paragraph 3, Article 2). Furthermore, a “contest” is defined as the system by which a beneficiary of the premiums is selected and/or the premium amount is determined (1) through use of a lottery or other random selection; or (2) through judging the superiority or correctness of certain acts (Restrictions Concerning the Provision of Premiums by means of Prize Offers; Notice of the Fair Trade Commission, No. 3, March 1, 1977).

Accordingly, premium offers, which provide an economic benefit according to the result of a lottery or otherwise, associated with a transaction as a means of soliciting customers, are subject to the provisions of the Premiums and Representations Act. As used herein, “associated with a transaction” means that a premium is provided in connection with a transaction; e.g. where only a purchaser of certain goods can obtain premiums; where a premium is provided to the answerer of a quiz posted on the label of certain goods; and where a premium is provided to those who entered the offeror’s store.

Under the Premiums and Representations Act, the maximum value of a premium provided by means of a prize offer shall not exceed twenty times the price of the transaction involving the prize offer (however, when the applicable amount exceeds ¥100,000 yen, the limit shall be ¥100,000 yen). In addition, the total value of premiums provided by means of prize offers shall not exceed two percent (2%) of the planned total value of the transactions involving such prize offers (Restrictions Concerning the Provision of Premiums by Means of Prize Offers; same notice as above).

3. “Open kenshō” on the internet

Internet websites are exceptional because they are open to all and can be used

¹ “Treatment of Prize Offers on the Internet” (April 26, 2001, the Fair Trade Commission)
http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/100121premiums_24.pdf

as a means to notify about and to handle applications for so-called “*open kenshō*.” Such websites are already extremely widespread. Moreover, consumers can freely move between pages on a website. As a result, even where a prize is offered on one webpage of a commercial transaction website or even where the webpage offering the prize cannot be viewed unless the commercial transaction site itself is visited, any and all attempts by persons to respond to the prize offers are not directly tied to the purchase of a product or service.

Accordingly, with respect to prize offers made on websites, even if the applicable website is constructed as specified above, this does not constitute the provision of an economic benefit associated with a transaction. Therefore, such prizes as *open kenshōs* are not subject to the Premiums and Representations Act. However, if a person cannot apply for a prize offer unless he purchases a product or service on a commercial transaction website, or if the purchase of a product or service facilitates or increases the likelihood of obtaining the prize (for example, where hints or correct answers to a quiz concerning a prize offer can only be obtained by purchasing a product or service), the offers are regarded as associated with a transaction and therefore subject to the provisions of the Premiums and Representations Act.

4. “*Open kenshō*” by internet service providers

As long as persons other than those contracting with the company operating a website are able to visit the appropriate website to apply for prize offers, any prize offers made on the internet by internet service providers, telephone companies, or similar companies offering connectivity services required to gain internet access are not regarded as associated with transactions, provided that the actual eligibility for such offers is not restricted to current users of the connectivity service offered by the same entity. Thus, any offer complying with the foregoing is not subject to the Premiums and Representations Act (instead they are regarded as an “*open kenshō*”).

I-9 Legal Problems with Joint Purchase Coupon

[Issue]

What kind of transaction structure is legally applicable to the service of joint purchase coupon?

I. Approach

“A joint purchase coupon” is a method with which the buyers of that coupon obtain a large discount rate if a certain number of people also purchase the coupon within a set period of time. For example, it may take such a form as, “If 30 people opt to buy a full course meal worth 8,000 yen within 24 hours, the coupon for the meal will be available to them at a 60% discounted price of 3,200 yen.” If the volume of sale does not reach the minimum volume within the set period of time, the offer will become invalid and no coupon will be available. For this reason, buyers use social networking services to generate word-of-mouth information to gather other joint buyers within a short period of time.

In the business of joint purchase coupons, typically, there are service providers which provide the infrastructure for joint purchase coupons (hereinafter referred to as “Coupon Site Operators”), stores which provide the services described on joint purchase coupons (hereinafter referred to as “Member Stores”) and buyers of joint purchase coupons (hereinafter referred to as “Coupon Buyers”). Normally, an effective term of six months or less is set for coupons in order to avoid the application of the Payment Services Act, and some cases confirm this in their terms and conditions of use.

There are various service formats available for joint purchase coupons, and it is unclear what legal effects and duties relevant parties have, without examining what legal relationships are ultimately formed among them. Hence, it is necessary to consider what kind of transaction these joint purchase coupons form in the first place. In the following part, typical example cases are proposed, analyzed and classified into Concepts 1 to 3.

Concept 1: Assignment of claims

A joint purchase coupon is a right (claim) to receive a service from the relevant Member Store with a condition precedent that the number of applications exceeds the minimum sales quantity. Coupon Site Operators sell such a right (claim). Therefore, although there is a sales contract formed between a Coupon Site Operator and a Coupon Buyer, the contract also incorporates a condition precedent that the number of applications exceeds the minimum sales quantity, and the contract is not effective unless the condition

precedent is fulfilled.

Concept 2: Provision of sales infrastructure (collection agency service)

When a Coupon Buyer purchases a coupon, a contract is formed between the buyer and the relevant member store for the delivery of the product concerned or the provision of the service concerned. However, the contract incorporates a condition precedent that the number of applications exceeds the minimum sales quantity, and the contract is not effective unless the condition precedent is fulfilled. The Coupon Site Operator provides the service of conducting operations for the conclusion of the contract, and further provides collection agency service with regard to the contract.

Concept 3: Advertisement and collection agency service

As for Concept 2, at the time when a coupon is purchased, a contract is formed between the Coupon Buyer and the relevant Member Store for the delivery of the product concerned or the provision of the service concerned. However, the contract incorporates a condition precedent that the number of applications exceeds the minimum sales quantity, and the contract is not effective unless the condition precedent is fulfilled. The fact that the Coupon Site Operator posts coupons on its website is just the act of coupon posting, and the operator charges its Member Stores an advertisement fee according to the volume of coupon sale, and provides collection agency service with regard to the product delivery contract or the service contract between the relevant Member Store and the Coupon Buyers.

II. Explanations

(1) Transaction models to be considered

Joint purchase coupon websites have their own terms and considers of use and various, different services available for coupons. Currently, legal assessments on such coupon business has not reached a single, categorical view, and technically each case is to be assessed individually. Despite this, it is meaningful to consider the direction of the legal concept of the business. Basically, the following points are common facts.

- Individual coupons are designed through consultation between a Member Store and a Coupon Site Operator.
- Regarding coupon sellers, there are two types: i) Coupon Site Operators serve as coupon sellers; and ii) Member Stores serve as coupon sellers.
- At the stage where the number of applicants for a joint purchase coupon

reaches the planned minimum sales quantity, the transaction of the coupon takes place between the Member Store or the Coupon Site Operator and each Coupon Buyer.

- After the contract for the coupon concerned between the Coupon Site Operator and each Coupon Buyer has come into effect, the Coupon Buyers make payment for the coupon to the Coupon Site Operator.
- Coupon Buyers print out the coupon displayed on the website and either show it to the Member Store or show the Store the coupon on the screen of a mobile device, or alternatively tell the Store the coupon number, to receive the service described on the coupon.
- The Member Store collects the payment for the service from the Coupon Site Operator before or after the coupon is used.
- The entitlement subject to sale as a joint purchase coupon¹ is not a discount ticket but a claim to demand the delivery of the product concerned or the performance of the service concerned from a Member Store.

In addition, in many cases, the terms and conditions stipulating the relationship between the Coupon Buyer and the Coupon Site Operator provide that it is the Member Store that provides the service described on the coupon, and that the Coupon Site Operator does not assume responsibility for any problem arising between the Member Store and the Coupon Buyer.

With regard to the point at issue here, potentially applicable legal configurations are examined below on the assumption of the aforementioned facts.

(2) Legal characters of coupons and joint purchase coupons

i) Assignment of claims: cases where the Coupon Site Operator is potentially considered to serve as the coupon seller and to assign the claim to the Coupon Buyer

As illustrated by Figure 1, these are the cases where the Coupon Site Operator acts as a seller of joint purchase coupons, sells them (executes sales contracts) and assigns to the Coupon Buyers a claim for the delivery of the

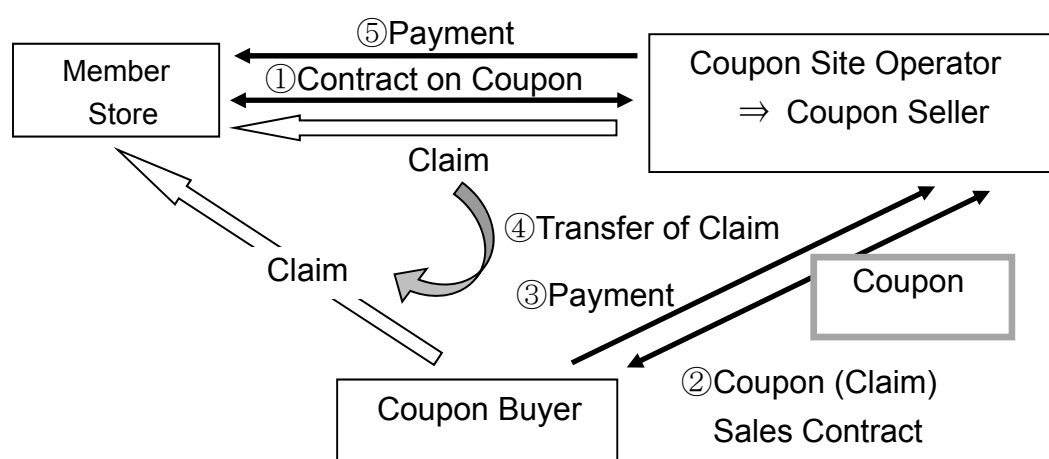
¹ Unlike ordinary cash vouchers and bookstore gift certificates exemplified as debt instruments payable to the bearer under the Civil Code, coupons have the membership registration numbers of their Buyers stated on them. In principle, the Buyer is supposed to use the service etc., of the Member Store in many cases, though the bearer of the coupon is allowed to enforce the right in a number of cases. Consequently, joint purchase coupons cannot be understood merely as a debt instrument payable to the bearer. On the other hand, some coupons are accepted by Member Stores without being printed out; some coupons can be used by showing the Store the applicable coupon on the screen of a mobile device or giving the coupon number to the Store. For that reason, coupons cannot be determined as a security-like claim.

product concerned or the performance of the service concerned. This claim is generated from the contract between the Member Store and the Coupon Site Operator².

The terms and condition of use for many joint purchase coupon sites cover the sale of claims as mentioned above, and treat the Coupon Site Operators as coupon sellers explicitly. Many cases are considered to fall under this type, provided that their actual operations such as payment for claims coincide with operations of sellers³. Regarding these cases, legal relationships based on such sales contracts for claims as those mentioned above require to be examined to clarify coupon-related legal relationships.

As there is a precondition that a sales contract between the Coupon Site Operator and the Coupon Buyer does not come into effect unless the number of applications exceeds the minimum sales quantity, the contract is considered to incorporate a condition precedent, as one of the requirements for the enforceability of the contract, that the number of applications from potential buyers exceeds the minimum sales quantity.

<Figure 1: Legal Character of Transaction i)>



² Due to the nature of joint coupon websites, there is no coupon transaction if the number of applications does not reach the minimum sales quantity, and consequently it is not necessary to put the claim into effect in the first place. Therefore, for putting the claim into effect, there is understood to be a condition precedent that the number of applications reaches the minimum sales quantity.

³ There are considered to be cases where no sales contract for a claim is recognized to be concluded between the Coupon Site Operator and the Coupon Buyer if the actual condition contradicts the fact that the terms and conditions of use expressly state in a superficial way that it is sale of claims. Unlike such debt instruments payable to the bearer as cinema tickets and gift vouchers, in principle, transactions to be handled as claims are those services which coupon buyers themselves are assumed to receive. On this point, too, each case requires a case-specific assessment as the service provided is different in each case.

ii) Provision of sales infrastructure: cases where the Coupon Site Operator can be regarded as providing to its Member Stores the infrastructure for selling coupons and collection agency service

These are the cases where there is considered to be a contract between the Member Store and the Coupon Buyer for the delivery of the product or the provision of the service described on the given coupon. This is despite the description, “sale of coupons.” In this case, if the Coupon Site Operator performs any act contributing to the conclusion of the contract, the Operator can be considered as conducting an intermediary act for the contract for the delivery of the product concerned or the performance of the service concerned⁴. In this case, the payment of the consideration from the Coupon Buyer to the Operator is made through the collection agency service conducted by the Operator. Further, the Operator pays this consideration for the product delivery or service performance to the Member Store after deducting a fee for the Member Store’s use of the joint purchase coupon site from the consideration.

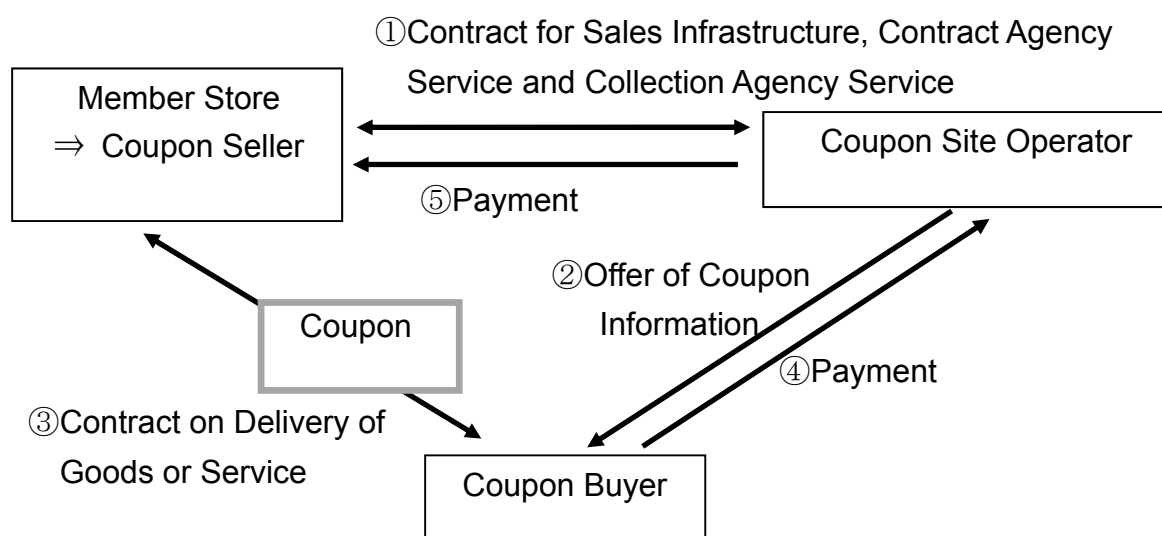
In such a case, a contract for the delivery of a product or the performance of a service comes into effect only where the number of applications reaches the minimum sales quantity.

If this is the case, the Coupon Site Operator does not assume responsibility for the delivery of the product concerned or the provision of the service concerned as one of the contracting parties, even where there is a problem with the service etc., described on the coupon thereby causing damage to the Coupon Buyer. In principle, it is a problem in the contract between the Coupon Buyer and the Member Store. At the same time, with regard to the responsibility of the Coupon Site Operator, its responsibility as one of the contracting parties in the contract for intermediary service, or the presence or absence of its responsibility under the contract between the Operator and the Coupon Buyer requires to be examined⁵.

⁴ In this situation, there are cases where the Coupon Site Operator can be considered to merely post a coupon and perform no act contributing to the conclusion of the contract for delivery of a product or performance of a service. Consequently, it is inevitable that cases required to be examined on an individual basis in order to determine whether or not the Operator conducts an intermediary act.

⁵ Although the methods used for reviewing the responsibility of auction sites may serve as a reference (I-7-1 of the present Guidelines), it is possible that the same conclusions will not necessarily be drawn, as the relationship between an auction site operator and an exhibitor is different from the relationship between a Member Store and a Coupon Site Operator.

<Figure 2: Legal Character of Transaction ii)>



iii) Advertisement and collection agency service: cases where the Coupon Site Operator can be regarded as merely posting advertisement for coupons of its Member Stores

In cases where a Coupon Site Operator merely posts on its website the information that a coupon is sold, and conducts no act contributing to the conclusion of a contract at all, the Operator cannot be recognized as acting as an intermediary for the execution of a contract for product delivery or service provision between the Member Store and the Coupon Buyer, and should be understood as merely posting advertisement. The concept behind this is that such a Coupon Site Operator charges a fee for posting advertisement for each contract formed, while the Operator also executes a contract for fee collocation agency service with its Member Stores and pays to the Stores the amount received from Coupon Buyers for contracts for services etc., after deducting an administrative fee from this amount⁶. Each contract for product delivery or service provision comes into effect only where the number of applications reaches the minimum sales quantity.

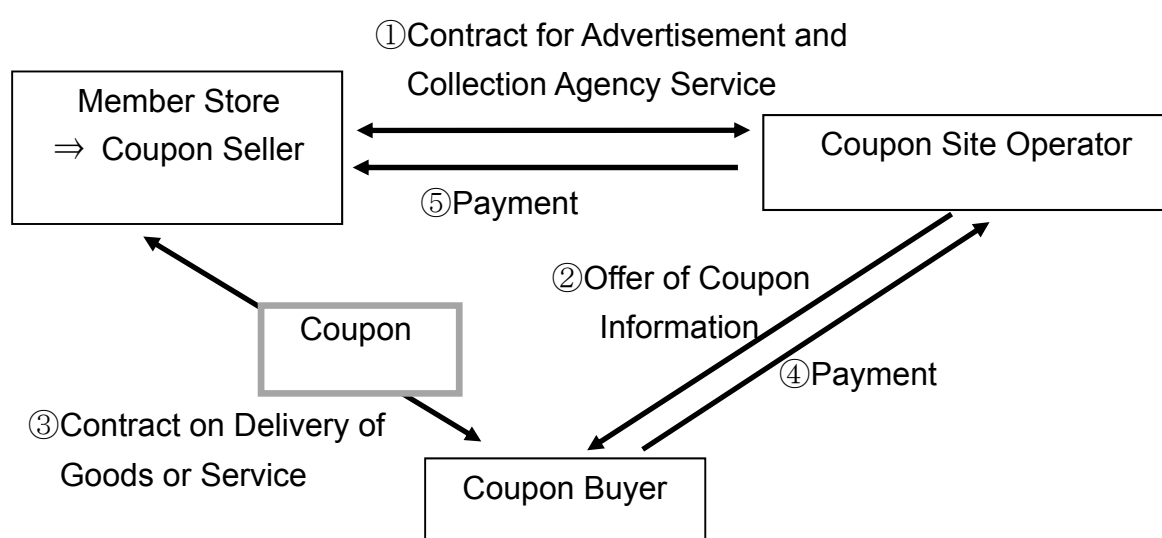
In this case, however, it is just an act of posting, and the Coupon Site Operator merely receives a fee for advertisement posting. However, there can

⁶ Under this concept, there are assumed to be cases where a Member Store does not post coupons continuously on a joint purchase coupon site. Consequently, it is difficult to assess the credit risk of each Member Store, and credit-card companies are not able to assess risks involved. For this reason, a comprehensive store membership contract may not be suitable for some Stores. Meanwhile, although a Coupon Site Operator possibly contracts with a Store as an affiliated store of a credit card company, this poses some practical problems with credit card payment; for example, the relationship between turning-down of a demand made to a Buyer by a credit card company in response to the Buyer's complaint and a chargeback made against the Coupon Site Operator.

be those cases which cannot be considered in this manner; for example, where administrative fees are high and the operating revenue from the whole business belongs to the Coupon Site Operator, or where the terms and conditions of use do not state that Member Stores are sellers of coupons.

In such a case, too, if a problematic coupon is issued, in principle, there will be a legal dispute between the Member Store and the Coupon Buyer. With regard to the responsibility of the Coupon Site Operator, the presence or absence of its responsibility as an advertisement medium or its responsibility under the contract with the Coupon Buyer requires to be examined.

<Figure 3: Legal Character of Transaction iii)>



(3) Effectiveness of a disclaimer in the general terms and conditions where the Coupon Site Operator assumes responsibility

Even if a Coupon Site Operator is found to be liable for damages in individual cases, in many cases, there is likely to be a clause like the one below in the terms and conditions of use, which aims to communicate, “With regard to the relationship with the Coupon Buyer, the Coupon Site Operator shall not guarantee the performance of the details written on the coupon in the case where such details are not implemented.”

Article • of the Terms and Conditions of Use of the Coupon Site Operator

The Coupon Site Operator shall not assume any responsibility for the provision of service by a Member Store.

However, in the case where the Coupon Site Operator is found to be liable for damages and also where the Coupon Buyer is a consumer, this provision under

the terms and conditions falls under Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act, “Nullity of Clauses which Exempt a Business Operator from Liability for Damages,” and thus is likely to be void. Accordingly, despite having a clause such as the one above, there are considered to be cases where the Coupon Site Operator is considered not to be exempted from liability for damages.

(4) Display of coupons in joint purchase coupon sites and issues related to the Premiums and Representations Act

Explanations about coupons posted in joint purchase coupon sites usually represent normal prices without coupons and discounted prices with the use of coupons together. Depending on how these prices are represented, there are cases which may amount to the representation by which the prices or trade conditions of goods or services are shown to general consumers to be much better than the actual ones or than those of other business entities in competition with the Member Store concerned, thereby tending to induce customers unjustly and to interfere with general consumers’ voluntary and rational choice-making (hereinafter referred to as “advantageous misleading representation”) (Item 2, Paragraph 1, Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act).

i) Problems with price representation

Typical problems of advantageous misleading representations include those cases where a price for a product or service with no previous sales record is newly set and represented as its usual price, and a price of the relevant coupon is set as half the above price of the product or service⁷.

There are also problems where prices are compared with those of competitors. With regard to specific details of what constitutes an advantageous misleading representation, the judgment criteria are shown in the “View on Unjust Price Representations under the Premiums and Representations Act⁸.” Further, certain judgment criteria for joint purchase coupon sites have also been indicated⁹.

⁷ Order to take measures issued by the Consumer Affairs Agency concerning the “Osechi” case of Groupon (Announcement date: February 22, 2011) http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/110222premiums_1.pdf

⁸ “View on Unjust Price Representations under the Premiums and Representations Act” (Announcement date: January 4, 2006) http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/100121premiums_35.pdf

⁹ “Problems and Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions under the Premiums and Representations Act” (Announcement date: May 9, 2012) http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/120509premiums_2.pdf

In relation to which of the Coupon Site Operator or the Member Store assumes responsibility for the representation made for a coupon on the joint purchase coupon site, as the kind of representation prohibited under Paragraph 1, Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act is the representation in connection with “transactions of goods or services which [the] entrepreneur supplies,” the Member Store assumes the responsibility on the presumption that the goods and services that the Member Store provides are the “transactions of goods or services” under the Act.

However, even in this case, the Coupon Site Operator possibly participates in the designing of the coupon to some extent, for example, by deciding its price. Therefore, it is considered to be necessary for Coupon Site Operators to pay due attention to prevent such an advantageous misleading representation¹⁰.

ii) Problems with the quality, specifications and other details of goods and services

Next, potential problems in relation to the Premiums and Representations Act are typically those cases where the quality of the materials used for the product to be exchanged with a coupon is represented, for example, as “natural” despite the fact the materials are actually “artificial” (this kind of representation is called “misrepresentation as to quality”).

On this point, as stated above, as the kind of representation prohibited under Paragraph 1, Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act is the representation in connection with “transactions of goods or services which [the] entrepreneur supplies,” and the Member Store assumes responsibility for representations on the presumption that the goods and services that the Member Store provides are the “transactions of goods or services” under the Act.

However, even in this case, the Coupon Site Operator, in some cases, involves in the contents of the goods and services to some extent. Therefore, it is considered to be necessary for Coupon Site Operators to pay due attention to prevent such misrepresentations as to quality¹¹.

¹⁰ In the case mentioned in Footnote 8 and in the material mentioned in Footnote 10, the Consumer Affairs Agency asked Coupon Site Operators to pay due attention to prevent dual pricing as this potentially causes a violation of the Premiums and Representations Act.

¹¹ In the case mentioned in Footnote 8 and in the materials mentioned in Footnote 10, Coupon Site Operators are asked to pay due attention to dual pricing. As other representations require a certain level of consideration, too, it is considered that some consideration is required for misrepresentations as to quality.

Part II: Issues Concerning Presentations/Uses of Information on the Internet

Last Revised: September 2013

II-1 Liability of Business Entities Providing CGM (Consumer Generated Media)¹ Service for Mediating Transmission of Illegal Information

[Issue]

In CGM Services such as operating blog sites, word-of-mouth sites or video-sharing sites, if certain information that may injure another person's right, such as defaming or infringing the copyright is posted, and the person alleging his/her right is injured requested the CGM service provider to delete such information, will the CGM service provider who has or has not deleted such information bear liability to the person alleging his/her right is injured or the person who has posted such information?

I. Approach

1. Liability for not deleting the information

In cases where a user posts or uploads information that injures another person's right, if a business entity providing the CGM services such as blog or video-sharing services (the "provider") fails to delete that illegal information, such business entity may be held liable for tort to the person whose right is injured by that illegal information (Articles 709 and 719 of the Civil Code), provided the transmission of such information apparently infringes that person's rights and it is easy to prevent the transmission of such information (i.e., "delete" it). However, according to Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Act on the Limitation of Liability for Damages of Specified Telecommunications Service Providers and the Right to Demand Disclosure of Identification Information of the Senders (hereinafter, the "Provider Liability Limitation Act²"), the provider does not bear any civil liability for not deleting the information except under certain circumstances, which are stated in the same paragraph.

¹ It means the Media in which consumers create the contents.

² As for the Provider Liability Limitation Act, text commentaries and guidelines for types of infringement are shown in the internet.

Text commentary of the Provider Liability Limitation Act

http://www.soumu.go.jp/joho_tsusin/top/denki_h.html

Guidelines for the Provider Liability Limitation Act

Guidelines on Defamation and Privacy Issues

Guidelines on Copyright Issues

Guidelines on Trademark Issues

<http://www.isplaw.jp/>

Example of Cases where the provider may be held liable

- A large amount of information that obviously constitutes illegal copies of another person's copyrighted works was posted on a message board, followed by the request of the copyright holder who properly proved his status as the copyright holder to delete such information, the provider nevertheless left it as it was for an unreasonably long time.
- Certain information that defames the exhibitor was posted in the evaluation column in the auction site, and the exhibitor formally requested that the provider operating the site delete it. Even after the fact of such defamation became apparent, the provider nevertheless failed to delete such information.
- A user posted in the word-of-mouth site defamatory information on a restaurant, which is apparently false even to the eye of the third party. The restaurant requested the website operator to delete it, but the operator did not delete that information for an unreasonably long time.
- A TV program was uploaded to the video-sharing site. In spite of the copyright owner's request to delete it, the website operator did not delete that program for an unreasonably long time.
- Where the provider transmitted illegal information by himself/herself.
-

Example of Cases where the provider would not be held liable

- Where the provider was not aware of the transmission of the illegal information
-

2. Liability for deleting the information

If there is a contractual relationship between the operator and the sender of the information, whether or not the operator may delete such information depends primarily on the contents of the contractual provisions. Where the transmission of certain information is prohibited by the contract, the provider shall not be held liable for deleting such information. On the other hand, where the provider bears contractual obligation to host³ the transmission of such information, the provider may be held liable for mistakenly deleting such information, if the transmission of such information was lawful. However, the

³ This service involves lease a portion of memory space in a computer (server) that transmits information to the internet. This service is also called "rental server" and telecommunication businesses provide this service by using their own facilities.

provider would not bear any civil liability for mistakenly deleting lawful information under certain circumstances as provided for in Paragraph 2, Article 3 of the Provider Liability Limitation Act.

Example of Cases where the provider may be held liable

- The provider deleted more information than necessary
-

Example of Cases where the provider would not be held liable

- In the case of an anonymous message board available for anyone, where no contractual relationship exists between the business entity operating the message board and the sender of the information, such business entity shall bear no obligation to host the transmission of any information posted by such sender.
- Where a person claimed that his/her rights were infringed and the provider then inquired for the opinion of the sender of the information, who did not express objection to deleting the information within seven (7) days of the date of receipt of inquiry, and the provider deleted such information to the extent necessary.
-

II. Explanations

1. Liabilities under the Civil Code and the Provider Liability Limitation Act

When the information uploaded to the CGM service provider's network is alleged to infringe someone's right, the CGM provider's failure to delete that information may incur liability for tort to the person whose right is infringed. On the other hand, if the CGM provider deletes that information (in case that the information is actually lawful), the deletion may incur contractual liability and/or liability for tort to the person transmitting that information. Focusing on this question, the Provider Liability Limitation Act stipulates that the CGM provider does not bear civil liabilities under certain conditions in case of deleting or failing to delete such information, clarifying the responsibility of the CGM provider.

2. Liability for not deleting the information

(1) Liability in tort

The business entity which hosted the posting of illegal information⁴ such as defamatory statement or materials infringing copyrights is considered to have fomented the dissemination of illegal information and thus it becomes an issue of whether the provider would be held liable to the victim of such illegal information in tort (Articles 709 and 719 of the Civil Code). The scope of this liability, which used to be focused on entities operating hosting services, the operators of message boards or business entities operating electronic commerce by hosting the transmission of information dispatched by others or by using message boards, will be extended to various CGM service providers, which has recently diversified.⁵

If these business entities neglect to delete information when they are under an obligation to delete illegal information, they may be held liable to the victim of such illegal information in tort. A judicial precedent as well as other numerous cases where message board operators were sued after neglecting to delete illegal postings will serve as a reference.

These judicial precedents are largely divided into (a) judgments that argue that the provider bears a broad obligation to delete illegal information immediately in the event the provider becomes or should become aware of the dissemination of such illegal information⁶ and (b) judgments that argue that

⁴ Strictly, among illegal information, it is a question of information infringing personal rights (right infringing information). Information posted by spoofing is also right infringing information. Judgment of Tokyo District Court November 24, 2004 (Han Ta No. 1205, p. 265) is a case where such spoofing is determined as infringing. Also, if knowing that the copyright is infringed, “offering to distribute” (Item 2, Paragraph 1, Article 113 of the Copyright Act) is right infringing information.

⁵ For example, the operators of auction sites (information on exhibited items that infringes trademarks, with such information appearing in the evaluation column for exhibitors and successful bidders), blog service providers, video-sharing service providers, SNS providers, word-of-mouth service providers. As discussed later, these business entities fall under specified telecommunication service providers under the Provider Liability Limitation Act.

The Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court, February 14, 2012; *Hanji*, No. 2161, p. 86 found that, as a general term, if a product exhibited by a cyber-shop owner on the website of his/her cyber-shop operating in a cybermall infringes a trademark right of a third party, the cybermall operator will be held liable for the infringement, given that prescribed requirements are satisfied (the ruling of this case denied the responsibility of the cybermall operator for the infringement).

⁶ Case of animal hospital (1st instance: Tokyo District Court Judgment of June 26, 2002, Appeal: Tokyo High Court Judgment of December 25, 2002), Case of DHC (Tokyo District Court Judgment of July 17, 2003)

the provider bears obligations to delete illegal information under limited circumstances such as that the business entity transmitted such information itself or that the infringement of rights is obvious⁷.

These two standards are very different. However, we should note that, in many judgments that argue based on standard (a), the justification for such stern judgments was generally that the operators of anonymous message boards fomented and promoted the posting of illegal information by declaring that they would never preserve the access log. By contrast, it is unlikely that the stern standard of (a) will be applicable to ordinary business entities that, in the absence of the aforementioned circumstances, take a neutral position towards the contents of the information they host⁸.

(2) Exemption from liability pursuant to the Provider Liability Limitation Act

Pursuant to Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Provider Liability Limitation Act, a business entity shall bear civil liability for neglecting to delete information only when at least one of (i), (ii) or (iii) below is met.

- (i) If (a) the deletion of information is technically possible; and (b) the business entity knew that the dissemination of information would cause certain infringement of rights
- (ii) If (a) the deletion of information is technically possible; and (b) not only is the business entity aware of the dissemination of the information, but the infringement of rights arising from such dissemination of information should have been reasonably known to such business entity
- (iii) If the business entity transmitted the information itself

⁷ Case of Tokyo Metropolitan University (Tokyo District Court Judgment of September 24, 1999), Case of *Shogakukan* 1st instance (Tokyo District Court Judgment of March 11, 2004), Case of *Shogakukan* Appeal Judgment (Tokyo High Court Judgment of March 3, 2005)

⁸ The civil liabilities can be discussed as this text, but we must still be careful to discuss criminal liabilities. In the following cases, where the provider was deeply involved in transmitting illegal information, it is said that the liability of the message board operator was largely recognized.

- (1) The message board operator, who was not specific aware of the posted image in question, was determined guilty of displaying child pornography. (First trial: Judgment of Yokohama District Court on December 15, 2003, Trial on appeal: Judgment of Tokyo High Court on June 23, 2004 (neither reported in casebook, see “Defamation and liability on the internet” edited by Society of Information Network Law, Telecom Service Association, p. 136))
- (2) Act of publicizing a part of child pornography image URL, changed into katakana, was determined to fall under displaying of child pornography. (First trial: Judgment of Osaka District Court on January 16, 2009, Trial on appeal: Judgment of Osaka High Court on October 23, 2009 (neither reported in casebook))

"Specified telecommunication," designated for the general public, is exempted from liabilities under the Provider Liability Limitation Act. Generally, hosting websites and message boards are considered to be specified telecommunication.⁹ Note that this law is applicable only to cases where the infringement of rights is caused by the act of dissemination of information in itself, and thus it does not apply to cases where a purchaser suffers economically as a result of a fraudulent auction (the dissemination of fraudulent information on the exhibited items in an auction will not in itself cause any damage, and it is not until those who misbelieved such information enter into transactions that actual damages arise). Further, this law has no penal provisions. The exemption from liabilities under this law applies only if the act of dissemination of information in itself constitutes defamation or infringement of copyrights or privacy.

The most notable aspect with respect to the scope of exemption is that, according to this law, the business entity is liable for damages only if it was aware that the information had been disseminated. Thus, a business entity would not be held liable for damages if it was actually unaware that the information had been disseminated.

2. Liability for deleting the information

(1) Contractual liability

If there is a contractual relationship between the operator and the sender of the information, whether such information may be deleted depends primarily on the provisions of the contract. Where the transmission of certain information is prohibited by the contract, the provider shall not be held liable for deleting such information.

If a business entity that is contractually obligated to provide certain hosting services to the sender of the information based on a membership agreement with him/her, for example, deletes certain lawful information at another person's request, such entity will not be considered to be performing its contractual obligations (to provide hosting services). In this case, the provider would not be entitled to receive consideration for hosting services and may further assume liability for damages for the non-performance of contractual obligations.

On the other hand, if there is no contractual relationship between the

⁹ "Specified telecommunication business" does not include cases where access to such telecommunication is limited to specified people.

business entity and the sender of the information, the business entity would not be obligated to provide any hosting services and thus it will not be held liable (in tort) for deleting information except under special circumstances. Generally, the operator of an anonymous message board will delete postings for reasons such as that it does not fit the purposes of the board. However, such deletion is reasonable and falls within the scope of the message board operator's rights and power. Therefore, in such cases, the sender who posted such information is generally not entitled to pursue any legal liability against the operator of the message board.¹⁰ For your information, there are no publicly disclosed judicial precedents where the liability of any business entity for deleting the information became an issue of dispute.¹¹

(2) Exemption from Liability under the Provider Liability Limitation Act

Paragraph 1, Article 3 of the Provider Liability Limitation Act provides for the following conditions under which a business entity shall bear civil liability for mistakenly deleting lawful information. Accordingly, the provider shall not bear any civil liability for mistakenly deleting lawful information if at least one of (i)' and (ii)' is met.

- (i)' If (a) the business entity deleted the information to the extent necessary; and (b) there is good reason for it to believe that the dissemination of such information would unduly infringe another person's rights.
- (ii)' If (a) the business entity deleted the information to the extent necessary; and (b) a person claimed that his/her rights were infringed and

¹⁰ The report on the "Study concerning the handling of illegal and harmful information on the internet" announced by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications in 2006 reviewed this issue in detail and it states the following (p.18):

Generally, the prevention measures taken by the operators of anonymous message boards against the transmission (deletion) of the postings (uploaded information) would not constitute a serious infringement of rights. In addition, as it would be reasonable and necessary for the operator to delete certain information, even if the operator exercises its power to control the message board, it does not constitute an abuse of rights except where such anonymous message board involves some public aspects, because such deletion of information does not constitute an infringement of the poster's rights or legally protected interests.

¹¹ Judgment of Tokyo District Court on August 30, 2007, Judgment of Tokyo High Court on March 13, 2008 (trial on appeal), Decision of Supreme Court on September 9, 2008 (last instance) (none in casebook) is a case where the liability of the hosting provider for deleting the image uploaded by the user was an issue of dispute. Deletion by the provider was based on the ground that the act of uploading the image, which might be obscene or against public order and morals, was a breach of the terms of use. The first and second trials approved the assertion by the provider and the last instance denied the reason for appeal.

the provider, for the purpose of determining whether or not to consent to the deletion of the information, inquired for the opinion of the sender of the information, who did not express objection to deleting the information within seven (7) days of the date of receipt of inquiry.

With respect to (i)' above, generally, a business entity will not be held responsible in cases where the business entity deleted certain information based on requests from the Human Rights Organs of the Ministry of Justice¹² based on the Guidelines on Defamation and Privacy Issues¹³ for the Provider Liability Limitation Act or from a credit survey agency referred to in the guidelines relating to copyrights and those relating to trademarks.¹⁴

With respect to (ii)' above, in practice, this generally functions as a relief for business entities. A business entity would not bear any civil liability even if it deletes certain information, so long as it has inquired for the opinion of the sender of the information, and confirmed that no response has been made within the prescribed period of time.

¹² The basis for the request for deletion derives from Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 14 of the Rules Concerning the Investigation of Cases of Human Rights Infringement. Considering that the request for deletion would be made based on a judgment rendered by those who have professional knowledge in the infringement of human rights, if the operator of a message board who believed such organization's judgment is unlikely to be held responsible on the basis of (i)' (b).

¹³ See Footnote 2.

¹⁴ An organization that has a reputation for possessing professional knowledge and experience in matters involving copyrights and trademarks confirms the identity and the rights of the person claiming himself/herself to be a victim and the existence of infringement of copyrights or trademarks. Therefore, believing in such organization's judgment, the operator of a message board is unlikely to be held responsible on the basis of (i)' (b).

II-2 Legal matters involved in setting up a link to another person's website

[Issue]

Will the act of setting up a link to another person's website without the permission of the operator of the site result in legal liability?

(Example)

1. Where the operator of an adult-only website that contain obscene images sets up a link at the top of the website for shops managed by women or of certain individuals without their permission.
2. Where an organized anti-social group sets up a link on the websites of other reputable companies without their permission and falsely represents that they are affiliated with them.
3. Where a person sets up a link to the website of a famous company without its permission with the intention to gain profits by misleading people into believing that the individual's personal website belongs to is part of that company's affiliates (for example, by using misleading words such as "Click here for information on related companies"); or where the individual set up the link on unrelated companies and misrepresenting itself as their affiliate or agent; or where the unrelated individual set up a similar link by misrepresenting itself as a person affiliated with such famous company.
4. Where a person sets up an 'Image Link' on the logo mark of an enterprise to his/her own website using the method of 'Inline Link' and thus takes advantage of the sales and services derived from the customers of the enterprise by misrepresenting that his/her website belonged to or is affiliated with the enterprise.

I. Approach

It is allowed, in principle, for any third party to use the data disclosed to the public on the internet free of charge (in other words, where access to such data is not limited to specified members), unless such use constitutes an infringement of copyright or other rights. However, such third party may bear tort liability under special circumstances such as that the use of information in the linked website aims at making illegal personal profits or at causing damage to the operator of the linked website.

II. Explanation

1. Basic structure of display on the website

First, we examine the meaning of browsing a website through WWW.

Generally, each website consists of plural files, including images (such as GIF files and JPG files). These files are shown on the browser of each terminal according to the layout defined in an HTML file. When a user accesses and browses a website page, the files that compose the website are transmitted to the user's terminal through the internet. On the other hand, the HTML file is read out in the user's terminal, and the files that compose the website are extracted one after another according to the commands in the HTML file. The contents included in each file are shown in the size and location as prescribed on the browser. Every page on the website composed of the plural files is reproduced on the browser of each terminal through this process.

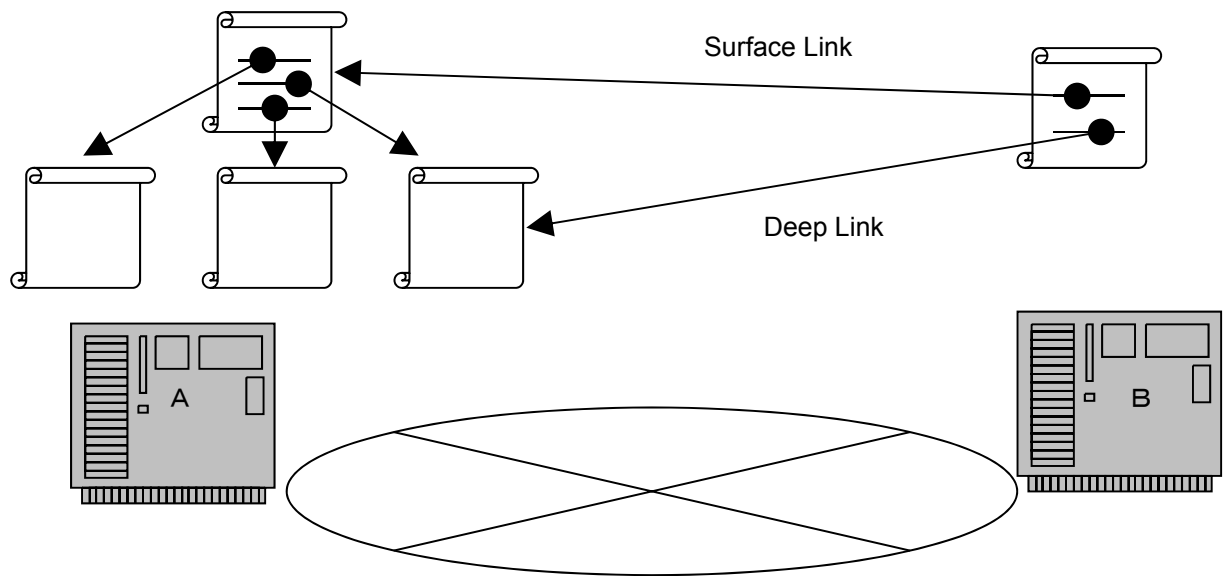
Based on the above description, we now examine the meaning of “setting up a link.” When a user surfs the web from one site to another with the aid of a link, only the URL of the linked page is described in the HTML file composing the website from which the user clicked on the link (hereinafter, ‘linking page’ or ‘linking website’); the contents of the linked page, such as images, are not transmitted or reproduced. The HTML file in which the URL of the linked page is written is transmitted from the linking page, and certain files in the linked page is transmitted to the user's terminal, so that such file is read out and reproduced on it. There are two systems for displaying the linked page; one of them requires the user to click a link button; the other enables the contents of the linked page to be automatically displayed together with those of the linking page. These two systems may have different legal significance. Therefore, to examine this issue comprehensively, it is necessary to analyze the legal significance of the concepts of ‘transmission’ and ‘reproduction’ of the contents of the linked page.

2. Methods of setting up a link

There are various methods of setting up a link. The terms used in this section will be defined as follows.

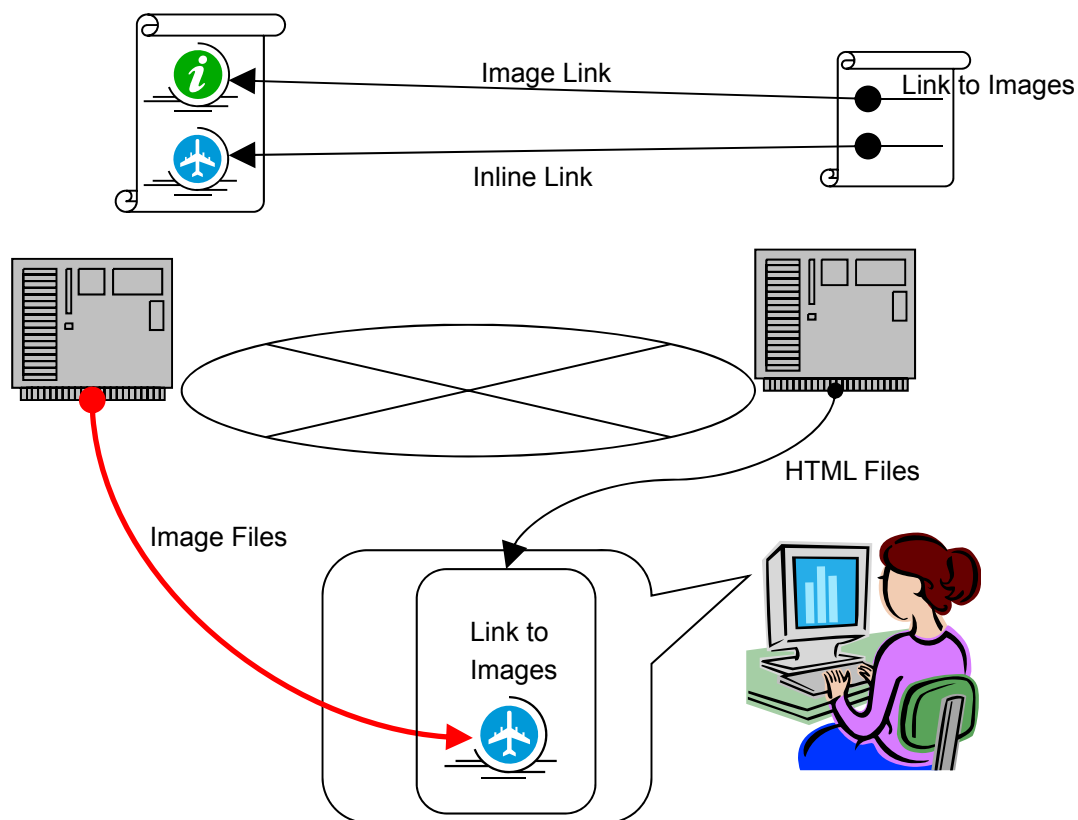
“Surface Link” means the link set up by an ordinary method to the home page of another website. For the purpose of this document, the link set up by an “ordinary method” means the type of a linked page where, by clicking the URL displayed on the linking page, the user's connection to the linking page will be cut at the moment such user is connected to the linked page.

“Deep Link” means the link set up by an ordinary method to a website that is not found on the home page of the linking page but on another page within the website.



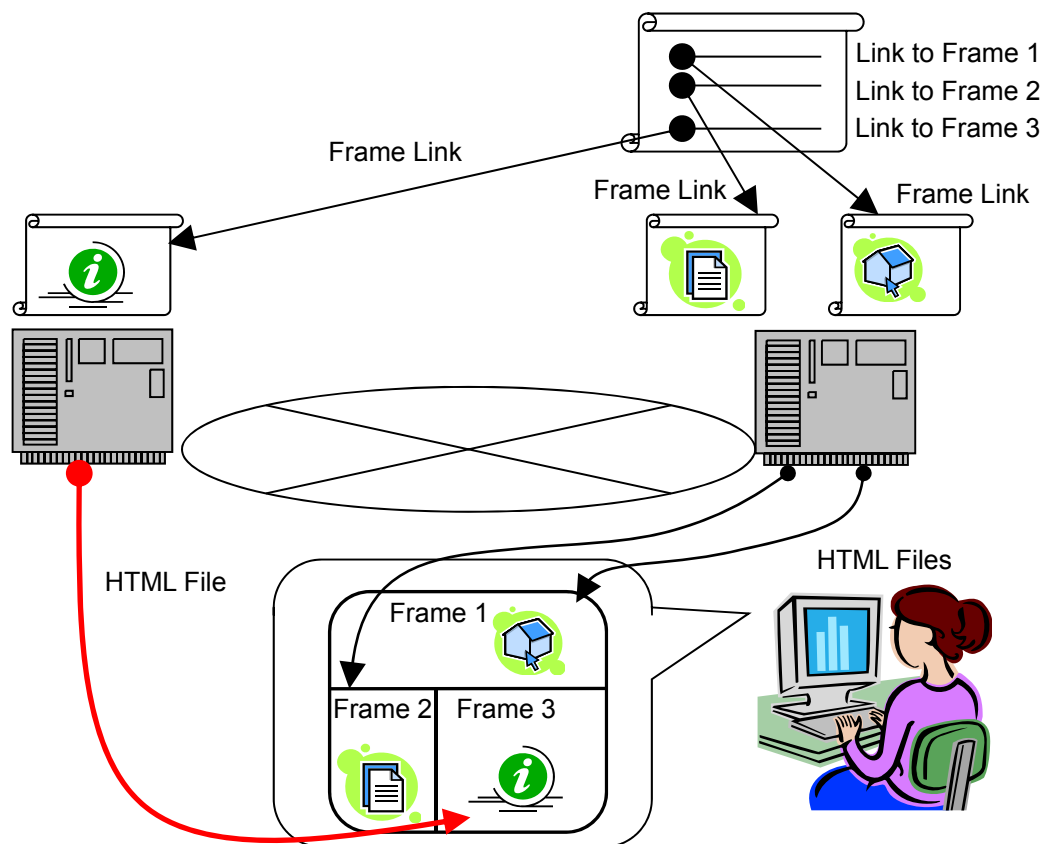
“Image Link” means the link set up only to a specific image in the linked page.

“Inline Link” means the link where, every time the linking page is opened, the descriptions or the files composing the linked page are automatically transmitted to the user’s terminal, followed by subsequent and automatic appearance of the linked page on the user’s terminal.



“Frame Link” means, where the browser of the linking page is divided into

several frames, the link set up from each frame on the browser to another website.



3. Legal liabilities arising from setting up a link to another website

(1) Tort liability

Where a link set up to another person's website causes damage to the operator of the linked page, such as to the persons honor, reputation, so-called "name rights" ("*shimei ken*" in Japanese)¹ in the case of false remarks by misrepresenting another person's name without his/her authorization etc, due

¹ In one of the precedents a person's right to have his/her name pronounced correctly was disputed in the context of "name rights". The Supreme Court ruled that "a person's name shall be viewed as forming part of his/her moral rights because it not only distinguishes an individual from other persons in our society but also symbolizes his/her identity and personality; and therefore serves as basis for being respected as an individual.". Thus "a person's interest to having his/her name called exactly shall be protected under the tort law." (Supreme Court, February 16, 1988, 3rd petty bench, NHK Japanese Name Case, p.27 of *Minshû* vol. 42-2). In another case the Supreme Court further ruled, with reference to the preceding case, that a person is entitled to seek an injunction against infringement of his/her "name rights": "A person has the right not to have his/her name used by another person against his/her will. Therefore, a person whose name was unjustifiably used by another person is entitled to seek compensation for damages and/or to claim injunctions to eliminate actual infringements and prevent potential infringements." (Supreme Court, January 20, 2006, 2nd petty bench, Tenri-kyo Case, p.137 of *Minshû* vol. 60-1)

to misidentification of the relationship between the linked page and the linking page, the person may bear tort liability under the Civil Code (in addition to criminal liability for libel or defamation under the Penal Code (Act No.45 of 1907, "*keihou*" in Japanese)). This matter itself is not peculiar to setting up a link itself. Rather, it is simply a sort of illegal act committed by means of a link on the website. Therefore, whether or not a person who sets up a link bears liability should be judged according to the general interpretation of relevant laws.

Any third party is, in principle, allowed to use the data disclosed to the public on the internet free of charge (in other words, where the access to such data is not limited to specified members), unless such use constitutes an infringement of copyright or other rights. However, such third party may bear tort liability under special circumstances such as where the use of information in the linked website aims at making illegal personal profits or at causing damage to the linked website².

(2) Unfair Competition Prevention Act

We now discuss whether setting up a link to another website may cause problems relating to unfair competition under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act³.

If an ordinary method of setting up a link such as a 'Surface Link' or 'Deep

² A person (the "Defendant") repeatedly created links to some newspaper articles containing major commercial headlines without the permission of the newspaper company. Then, he posted illegal copies of such newspaper articles and an index thereto on his website. Furthermore, the Defendant not only converted them for personal use but also distributed the newspaper articles indexed via a link to 20,000 registered users of his website so that they can access it on the website. In a suit seeking compensation for damages against the Defendant, the court admitted the claim on the ground that the Defendant illegally competed with the newspaper company in a socially unacceptable manner (*Yomiuri on-line case*, judgment of High Court (Intellectual Properties Division), October 6, 2005). The test utilized for determination of torts derived from the judgment of the first instance of this case rendered by Tokyo District Court on March 24, 2004 will serve as a good reference. However, under what specific circumstances such act is considered as a tort needs further discussion and is open to court's determination in the future.

³ It is an "unfair competition" to conduct commercial activities by using a "product identification" (i.e. using a name connected with a person's business, trade name, trademark, mark, container or package of goods, or any other indication used for specifying goods or business) well-known to customers which is identical with, or similar to, that of another person's, and thereby misleading customers to misunderstand that such commercial activities are conducted by or somewhat connected such another person's activities (Article 2 Paragraph 1 Item 1 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). In addition, where the trademark etc. of another person is famous, it constitutes an unfair competition if a person utilizes such another person's name as if it were his/her own product identification, even if the customers are not misled (Article 2 Paragraph 1 Item 2 of the same). Further, the dissemination of false information detrimental to the reputation of another person's business may also constitute an unfair competition (Article 2 Paragraph 1 Item 14 of the same).

Link' is employed, such act is very unlikely to fall within the definition of unfair competition. It should also be taken into consideration here whether such link is regarded as the use of another person's product identification (*shohin-tou-hyoji*), or as using it for representing his/her own product identification. In this regard, the information in the linked website is displayed only when the user operates the computer.

In contrast to this, where the method of 'Inline Link' or "Frame Link" is employed to set up a link, such link may fall within the definition of unfair competition, if the product identification of the operator of the linked page is configured so that users are misled into confusing the linking page with the linked page, or if a well-known product identification is used as if it were the product identification of the operator of the linking page.

In addition, the disclosure of false information via a link to an unauthorized website, which is detrimental to a competitor's business, may also constitute an unfair competition⁴.

(3) Trademark Act

In regard to the Trademark Act, the act of setting up a link by an ordinary method such as 'Surface Link' or 'Deep Link' itself is not regarded as an act of using another company's trademark for indicating the source of information, even if such trademark appears in the linked website. So, such act is in principle unlikely to be considered as an infringement of trademark right. However, even where such an ordinary method is employed, for example, if the linked company's trademark is used for the link button without permission of the trademark right holder, the fact of using the trademark, not the act of setting up the link itself, may be regarded as an infringement of the trademark right, depending on the mode of use.

By contrast, where an 'Inline Link' or 'Frame Link' is employed, setting up a

⁴ In a case where the Plaintiffs (the Company (party P1) and its director (party P2)) filed a claim for compensation of damages etc. against the defendant (a Chinese company (party D1) and its agent in Japan (party D2)) on the ground that the D1, which was P1's competitor, indicated on D1's Japanese website as if P1 were an Japanese agent of the D1 and a link was set from D1's website to P1's website. Plaintiff alleged that the aforementioned acts committed by D1 and D2 disparaged P1's reputation and therefore constitute a joint tort. Further, such acts also amounts to unfair competition against P1 as defined in Article 2 Paragraph 1 Item 14 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act (the "UCPA"). The court partially accepted the Plaintiffs' claim on the ground that D2 had at least provided data and materials for creating D1's website and D2 was also involved not only in creating such website but also in misrepresenting P1 in D1's website, thereby disseminating false information detrimental to the P1's reputation as referred to in Article 2 Paragraph 1 Item 14 of the ULPA. It was held that D1 and D2 are jointly liable to P2 for libel, defamation and infringement of name rights (Osaka District Court, July 26, 2007).

linked website may be regarded as the "use" under the Trademark Act, especially if it appears to the website users that the linking website is the origin of another person's trademark appearing in the linked website⁵. Note that, if such trademark is a trademark of the "designated products" ("*shitei shouhin*" in Japanese) or "designated services" ("*shitei ekimu*" in Japanese), setting up a link to a website indicating such trademark may constitute an infringement of trademark.

(4) Copyright Act

We will herein discuss legal issues under the Copyright Act arising from a link set up to another person's website, where the contents of such website is by nature a copyrighted product.

The user of a website gains access to the linked website by clicking the relevant URL specified in the linking website. In this regard, the data contained in the linked website will be transmitted to the user's computer, while no data will be transmitted to or accumulated in the linking website. Since the act of setting up a link does not lead to public transmission or reproduction, there will not be an infringement of reproduction rights or public transmission rights⁶. Therefore, we may reasonably conclude that the act of setting up a link in itself, whether it is in the form of 'Surface Link', 'Deep Link', 'Image Link', 'Frame Link' or 'Inline Link', does not result in the infringement of copyrights.

However, given the complexity of links to another website, the operator of a website may find certain types of link undesirable, considering its appearance to the users of the linked website. For example, where the link is so configured that a viewer of the linked website and/or copyrighted contents therein may mistake them for the linking website and/or copyrighted contents therein, such link may constitute an infringement of copyright holder's moral rights under the Copyright Act⁷. Further, if a certain link is set up from

⁵ For example, a link is set up in such manner that the trademark appearing in the linked website, which specifies the origin of another person's products and services etc., will be mistaken for the trademark of the products and services provided by the operator of the linking website. In this case, considering that the purpose of the Trademark Act is to prevent misrepresentation as to the origin of products and services, setting up such a link may reasonably fall under the scope of "use" (Items 7 and 8, Paragraph 3, Article 2 of the Trademark Act, "*shiyou*" in Japanese).

⁶ See p.216 of the "Copyright Act" ("*chosakuken hou*" in Japanese) written by Nobuhiro Nakayama

⁷ Some learned academics argue that such a web link is a matter of copyright holder's *moral rights* (p.216 of the "Copyright Act ("*Chosaku-ken-hou*" in Japanese)" written by Nobuhiro Nakayama, p.160 of "Legal Affairs Concerning the Website ("*internet no houritsu jithimu (shin-ban)*" in Japanese)" written by Hisamichi Okamura and Takeshi Kondo).

another website in a manner detrimental to the copyright holder's reputation, such link may fall under the infringement of moral rights (Paragraph 6, Article 113 of the Copyright Act)⁸.

(5) Summary

Note that the consistent and logical legal definition of 'link' itself remains to be standardized. Now that numerous disputes are arising from unauthorized use of links, careful consideration is advised whenever you set up a link to any website explicitly saying, "Unauthorized Link Strictly Forbidden".

4. Analysis of Specific Examples

As for Examples 1 & 2, the use of a link is likely to be considered as an unlawful act, because the links in these cases cause damage to the honor and reputation of the operator of the linked page. Therefore, the operator of the linked website may be entitled to claim compensation for damages based on tort liability in civil procedures. In addition, such use of link may also constitute a

In the context of an image link and frame link, some academics refer to the potential infringement of rights in preserving the integrity and of indication of author's name (see p.121- of "Legal Issues on IT (*"IT no houritsu soudan"* in Japanese)" written by TMI Law Office and p.132- of "Daily Legal Issues vol.20 (*"kurashi no houritsu soudan No.20"* in Japanese)", while some other theories argue that the problem of image link and frame link may consist in the infringement of public transmission rights. (<http://civilpro.law.kansai-u.ac.jp/kurita/copyright/article2.html#T2> written by Takashi Kurita)

In addition, in the case of a frame link where the linked website expressly bars misrepresentation by use of a frame, some theories affirm the existence of an infringement of public transmission rights (See p. 10 of October 1997 issue of "Copyright" commented by Yoshiyuki Miyashita on "Copyrights and Cyberspace (*"cyberspace ni okeru chosaku-ken mondai ni tsuite"* in Japanese))

Other theories argue public transmission rights and copyright holder's moral rights such as rights of preserving the integrity and of indication of author's name separately, depending on the method of setting up a link (see p.243- and p.250 of "Information, Order, Network, Hokkaido University Library III (*"Joho, Chitsujo, Network, Hokkaido Daigaku Library 3"* in Japanese)" by Yoshiyuki Tamura).

Where a person facilitates or assists an infringement of copyrights by setting up a link to a website infringing another person's copyrights, some publications refer to the infringement of copyrights (see p.36- of "Internet Law Version 4 (*"dai-4-ban, internet hou"* in Japanese)" by Haruyasu Uchida and Tsunemichi Yokoyama and p.243- of "Information, Order, Network, Hokkaido University Library III (*"Joho, Chitsujo, Network, Hokkaido Daigaku Library 3"* in Japanese)" by Yoshiyuki Tamura).

At present, there are various views on the infringement of public transmission rights, rights of preserving the integrity and of indication of author's name. In addition, there is no consistent explanation for those extreme cases by the Japanese legal scholars. Therefore, in-depth discussion of specific cases of infringement would remain necessary in the future (Committee on Restriction of Rights Regarding Copyright Act (*"chosaku-ken-hou no kenri seigen kitei wo meguru shomondai kenri seigen iinkai"* in Japanese) and see p.12 and p.42 of "Analysis Conducted by Copyright Research Institute (*"chosaku-ken kenkyu sho kenkyu zousho"* in Japanese)).

⁸ See p.216 of the "Copyright Act" (*"chosakuken hou"* in Japanese) written by Nobuhiro Nakayama.

criminal offense and chargeable for libel or defamation. Furthermore, if the link is set up in such a manner that the reputation of the author is damaged, such link may be held as an infringement of moral rights (Article 113 Paragraph 6 of the Copyright Act)

As for Example 3, where such misleading descriptions as "Click here for information on related companies" or "The linked enterprise is our affiliated agent" or "This person is our affiliate" and the name of the company operating the linked page will be indicated on the linking page, these descriptions may give rise to tort liability on the ground of infringement of moral rights or name rights or defamation if these misleading descriptions are highly likely to be aimed at making illegal profits or causing damage to the operator of the linked page.

Furthermore, where a link is set up to a competing company, the indication of false information harmful to the reputation of such company's business activities may constitute an unfair competition.

As for Example 4, where an 'Inline link' is set up only to a logo mark, only the product identification of the linked page is indicated on the linking page. Therefore, if the well-known logo mark is used in such a manner that website users tend to be misled into believing that the linking page belongs to an affiliate of the operator of the linked page, or if another person's well-known logo mark is used as if it belonged to his/her enterprise, such use of the logo mark may be regarded as an act of unfair competition.

In addition, where the logo mark is a registered trademark of somebody else, the use of such registered trademark on his/her personal site for identification of its specified products or services may be regarded as an infringement of trademark right, depending on the mode of such use.

II-3 Liability of Provider of P-to-P File Sharing Software

[Issue]

Does the act of unauthorized uploading of music files on the internet or downloading such music files from the internet by using Peer-to-Peer (“P to P”) file sharing software constitute an infringement of the Copyright Act? Does the act of providing P-to-P file sharing software constitute an infringement of the Copyright Act?

I. Approach

1. Act of Users of P-to-P File Sharing Software

P-to-P file sharing software involves two functions; one is to upload files¹ on the internet to make them transmittable, and the other is to download files to duplicate the files on the internet to the medium on the user’s personal computers.

The act of uploading music files and the like on the internet without permission of the person who holds rights to such files constitutes an infringement of public transmission rights (“*koshu soushin ken*” in Japanese) and right of making transmittable (“*soushin kanouka ken*” in Japanese) under the Copyright Act. In other words, this is an infringement of copyrights or rights related thereto.

On the other hand, the act of users downloading music files and the like from the internet would constitute an infringement of copyrights or related rights except in the case of reproduction for the purpose of personal use.

2. Act of Provider of P-to-P File Sharing Software

With regard to the use of P-to-P file sharing software, if a majority of the exchanged files infringes copyrights, if the provider of P-to-P file sharing software is deeply involved in the users’ act of infringement, such provider may also be regarded as infringing copyrights or related rights.

¹ In general, “uploading” means transmission to the server on the internet. On the other hand, when using the P-to-P file sharing software, such transmission is automatically made by storing files in certain memory areas within one’s PC. In this case, the definition of “uploading” is so expanded that it means act of storing files in such areas, regardless of whether they will be transmitted or not. In these Guidelines, “uploading” means act of storing files in memory areas within one’s PC (including transfer files to such areas within the PC and downloading files from the internet to store in such area), enabling transmission to servers on the internet.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

In recent years, the existence of P-to-P file sharing software such as Napster², Gnutella³, Winny⁴ and Share⁵, which enable users to exchange music files and the like on the internet has had an adverse impact on the interests of copyright and related right holders.

The following structures are the two major types of P-to-P file sharing:

- i) the software uses a central server and acts as an intermediary in the exchange of file information between users (this is the “hybrid type P-to-P file sharing”) and;
- ii) the software does not use such central server (“genuine P-to-P file sharing”).

In the hybrid type P-to-P file sharing, users wishing to exchange files first download and install P-to-P file sharing software designed for such services and then access the central server in order to obtain information on the shared files, which eventually enable them to exchange files with other users.

In a genuine P-to-P file exchange, by contrast, users obtain and install P-to-P file sharing software on their computers, and then access other users directly, which enables them to exchange their files with other users.

(1) Acts by Users of P-to-P File Sharing Software

P-to-P file sharing software has two functions; one is to upload files to the internet and make them accessible via the internet, and the second is to download and duplicate files from the internet (including the act of recording sound and images) to a user’s personal computer.

The issue here is whether or not the user of such P-to-P file sharing software will be regarded as infringing copyrights.

(2) Act of Providers of P-to-P File Sharing Software

The issue is whether or not it constitutes an infringement of copyright to provide P-to-P file sharing software by using a central server for facilitating the exchange of music files and the like between users on the internet.

² Hybrid file sharing software using P-to-P technology, which was released in January 1999.

³ Genuine file sharing software using P-to-P technology, which was released in March 2000.

⁴ Genuine file sharing software using P-to-P technology, which was released in May 2002.

⁵ Genuine file sharing software using P-to-P technology, which was released in January 2004.

2. Acts of Users

(1) The Act of Uploading

The right to reproduce copyrighted works is reserved exclusively for copyright and related right holders (Article 21, Article 91, Paragraph 1, Article 96, Article 98, Article 100-2 of the Copyright Act). However, the copyright holders' reproduction rights will be less exclusive if the copyrighted works are reproduced for the purpose of personal use (Article 30, Paragraph 1, Paragraph 1, Article 102 of the Copyright Act).

In P-to-P file sharing, in order to prepare music files for uploading, for example, such files are reproduced into an MP3 file format etc. from certain copyrighted works such as music CDs and the like, and if the initial purpose of such reproduction is to transmit the copyrighted works to the public, it is not regarded as a reproduction of copyrighted works for the purpose of personal use as defined in Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act. Additionally, even if the file is initially duplicated for the purpose of personal use, if such file is uploaded later, the purpose of such reproduction will not be regarded as private use (Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 49 and Item 1, Paragraph 9, Article 102 of the Copyright Act).

In addition, the act of making music files and the like accessible on the internet (act of uploading) falls under the definition of the "act of making accessible" (*soushin kanouka* in Japanese) under Item 9-5, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act. Also, the right to make files accessible is reserved exclusively for copyright and related right holders (Article 23, Article 92-2, Article 96-2, Article 99-2, Article 100-4 of the Copyright Act).

Therefore, those who intentionally or negligently provide music files and the like on the internet by using P-to-P file sharing software without the right holders' permission are infringing the right to reproduce (Article 21, Article 91, Paragraph 1, Article 96, Article 98, Article 100-2 of the Copyright Act), the right to transmit, or the right to make accessible (Article 23, Article 92-2, Article 96-2, Article 99-2, Article 100-4 of the Copyright Act), and so would be liable for damages (Article 709 of the Civil Code). In addition, if there is an actual or threatened infringement of rights, irrespective of whether such infringement is intentional or negligent or otherwise, the right holder may file an injunction claim against the infringing party (Article 112 of the Copyright Act).

Further, if the infringer's act is intentional and he/she is accused by the wronged party, the infringer may be sentenced to up to ten (10) years of imprisonment with forced labor or a fine in an amount not exceeding ten million (10,000,000) yen or both (Article 119 of the Copyright Act).

(2) The Act of Downloading

The act of duplicating music files and the like after receiving them from other users without the right holder's permission on the internet by using P-to-P file sharing software (downloading) would be regarded as an infringement of the copyright or related rights unless the purpose of such downloading is to use them personally.

Also, even for personal use, the act of downloading sound and/or video recordings such as music or movies with though knowing that they are automatically transmitted to the public without permission of the copyright and the related right holders⁶ is considered as infringement of the copyright and the related right if it comes under the reproduction permitted under other provisions of restricted rights (Article 21, Article 30, Paragraph 1, Article 91, Paragraph 1, Article 96, Article 98, Article 100-2, Paragraph 1, Article 102 of the Copyright Act). Further, it is possible that criminal liability may arise (Paragraph 3, Article 119 of the same Act)⁷.

In addition, even if the act of downloading does not in itself constitute an

⁶ According to Item 3, Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act, even for personal use, if a person downloads "automatic public transmissions that infringe the copyright (including foreign transmissions that would infringe the copyright if they were conducted in Japan) for digital sound and/or video recording and that he/she knows such infringement," such act constitutes the infringement of the copyright and the related right. In this expression, "sound recording" means "fixing sound on a material or reproducing such materials" (Item 13, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act) and "video recording" means "fixing consecutive images on a material or reproducing such materials" (Item 14, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act). Act of receiving recordings automatically transmitted to the public over the internet and reproducing them (act of downloading) is "sound recording" and "video recording" under the Copyright Act. On the other hand, generally, downloading of computer program is not "sound recording" or "video recording," but there is a judgment that determines game software is a "film work" (Judgment of Tokyo District Court on September 28, 1984; *Hanji* No.1129 p.120; *Hanta* No.534 p.246 and Judgment of 1st Petty Bench of Supreme Court on April 25, 2002; *Minshû* Vol.56 No.4 p.808). Downloading of such game software may possibly be "video recording."

⁷ Following the amendment to the Copyright Act in 2012, "an infringement on a copyright or a neighboring right by digitally recording sound and/or video through downloading automatic public transmissions that infringe any copyright or neighboring right of paid-for works etc.,(including foreign transmissions that would infringe the copyright if they were conducted in Japan) with the knowledge of such infringement by automatic public transmissions," is now subject to criminal punishment, even where it is for personal use.

Paid-for works etc., are those which satisfy the following stipulated requirements: [1] such works etc., are sound or video recording of works, performance, etc.; [2] such recording is provided or presented to the public for profit; and [3] this provision or presentation does not infringe any copyright or neighboring right.

infringement of a copyright or any related rights, if the downloaded reproduction is used for purposes other than personal use, this will also constitute an infringement (Article 21, Article 91, Paragraph 1, Article 96, Article 98, Article 100-2 of the Copyright Act) of the reproduction right (Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 49 and Item 1, Paragraph 4, Article 102 of the Copyright Act), and the user may be held liable for damages (Article 709 of the Civil Code), subject to injunction claims from the right holders (Article 112 of the Copyright Act), and subject to criminal prosecution (Article 119 of the Copyright Act).

For example, if a user downloading a file immediately records it in a public transmission area so that the file can be transmitted on the internet (the acts of downloading and uploading simultaneously take place), such act of downloading will be regarded as an infringement of reproduction rights, because the purpose of such reproduction is not for personal use.

(3) Act of a service provider using P-to-P file sharing software

With respect to the acts of the provider of a hybrid P-to-P file sharing service equipped with a central server, there is a precedent case where a certain business entity in charge of the management of a copyright and the holder of the related rights filed an action demanding the suspension of such service. The Tokyo High Court judgment of March 31, 2005 upheld the original decision ruling that the service provider had infringed the right to make the copyrighted work transmittable and that there is a concrete and realistic risk that that automatic public transmission services will, by nature, trigger certain types of copyright infringements by its users, which would be foreseeable for the service provider operating such service, who consequently induces such infringements. Moreover, where the service provider may procure certain economic benefits from operating such service, the service provider will be held responsible for the infringement, because such provider has caused damages from actions which are under his/her own control. In this case, it is natural that such service provider should be held liable for such infringement, in other words he/she would himself/herself be regarded as the infringer.

Concerning the act of providing genuine P-to-P file sharing software, the developer and presenter of Winny was charged with the offense of accessoryship on the basis that by publishing and providing the software on the Internet, the developer aided and abetted a user of the software (the principal) in infringing the right of public transmission (Paragraph 1, Article 23 of the Copyright Act) of copyright holders. The developer was acquitted by

the Osaka High Court (Judgment of Osaka High Court, October 8, 2009), and this judgment was affirmed as the final appeal was dismissed (Ruling of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, December 19, 2011).

The Supreme Court indicated that the elements to establish accessoryship are, “To establish accessoryship on the basis of the provision of the software concerned requires a specific infringing use beyond a general possibility of an infringement, and also requires the software provider to have been aware of and acknowledging such use. That is to say, the publication or provision of the software amounts to accessoryship with regard to copyright infringement, only if the provider of the software published or provided the software when s/he was aware and acknowledged that a specific copyright infringement would be committed by using the software and was actually committed, or only if, with reference to the characteristics and objective usage of the software and the methods employed for the provision of the software, there was found to be a high probability that a not-exceptional number of users of the software among those who obtained the software would use the software to infringe copyright, further if the provider published or provided the software knowing and acknowledging such potential infringement, and if such infringement actually took place (act of the principal).”⁸

In genuine P-to-P file sharing software, which has no central server, the nature and level of control the service provider may exercise over the users’ infringements of copyright after such software is provided to the users should be considered differently from the case of providers of hybrid P-to-P file sharing software⁹.

⁸ Unlike the case of the provider of the hybrid P-to-P file sharing service in the foregoing paragraph, this was a judgment in a criminal case which was about whether or not the offense of accessoryship was established from aiding a copyright infringement. It is not to indicate how the provision of genuine P-to-P file sharing software will be assessed in a civil case.

⁹ However, in light of precedent cases in foreign countries, those providers of genuine P-to-P file sharing software are not necessarily excluded from any liability for such infringement. There are cases where P-to-P file sharing software service providers are held liable to a certain extent on the grounds that the service provider, while intentionally inducing and prompting the users’ act of infringement, is procuring certain economic benefits such as advertising revenue without taking any measures against such infringement by filtering technology. (US Supreme Court Judgment, June 27, 2005 (Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer Studios, Inc. v. Grokster, Ltd., 545 U. S. 913 (2005)), Federal Court Judgment (Australia), September 5, 2005 (Universal Music Australia Pty Ltd. v. Sharman License Holdings Ltd., (2005) FCA 1242).

II-4 Regularization on Representations in Web Advertising

Last Revised: November 2012

II-4-1 Regulation under the Premiums and Representations Act

[Issue]

Which Web advertisements are prohibited as misleading representations defined by Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act?

I. Approach

The representations of the contents of products or of services and the transaction conditions displayed by business entities on their websites are regulated by the Premiums and Representations Act.

Examples of misrepresentations

- Representing that computer anti-virus software has a “100% detection rate and can detect any virus,” despite the fact that it cannot possibly detect all viruses.
- When the date, on which the information is updated, is not disclosed, such as when a product is deceptively presented to consumers as a “new product”, despite the fact that it is no longer a new product.
- Websites which state that “a free 30 minutes” is available without making it clear that the free 30 minutes can only be used once site is used for 60 minutes or more misrepresenting to consumers that the site can be used unconditionally free of charge.
- Misrepresenting that Company Y internet service provider is “always less expensive than Company Z,” even though the speed of Company Y’s service is slower than that of the service offered by Company Z, misleading consumers to believe that Company Y more cheaply offers the same service as Company A.
-

II. Explanations

1. Misleading representations defined by Article 4 of the Premiums and Representations Act

“Representations”, defined by Paragraph 4, Article 2 of the Act against the Premiums and Representations Act, and regulated by the law include advertisements of equipment used for information processing, including the internet. That is, representations displayed by business entities at their websites of the contents of products or services and their transaction conditions are also regulated by the Premiums and Representations Act.

(1) Representations for product and service transactions conducted directly through the internet

(i) Representations concerning products and services in the internet transaction

(A) Problems under the Premiums and Representations Act

Business-to-Consumer e-commerce can by its nature lead consumers to a mistaken understanding when making product or service choices or when placing orders. Therefore, potential exists that consumers can suffer much harm in e-commerce transactions. Accordingly, there is a greater need for businesses to appropriately disclose information to consumers concerning product or service content or the terms of sale, than in transactions that taking place in person.

(B) Cases where the Premiums and Representation Act applies

Using expressions such as “Lose 5-6kg comfortably! Fast dieters can normally lose up to 3 or 4 kilograms in one week. Eat as much as you like! Original preparation formulated by our specialists based on medical studies uses natural ingredients that are good for dieting,” to emphasize efficacy and results without any adequate scientific basis and presenting the information in a manner that makes it appear academically authorized.

Where strict conditions for product returns exist and where in fact almost no products can be returned, a business: does not clearly display the relevant conditions for product returns; states that “customers may return the product at any time even if it is not defective”; represents that users can unconditionally return the product.

(C) Points of concern

Business entity should not make disclosures concerning product efficacy without adequate bases when advocating the virtues of a product or service which may cause general consumers to form a mistaken understanding.

Business entity should accurately and clearly disclose the specific details of their terms of sale such as the selling price, shipping charges, and the product returns policy, etc.

(ii) Disclosure manner

(A) Problems under the Premiums and Representations Act

When information that concerns a product or service contents or terms of sale is available through a link, for example, when by clicking on text, you can receive more information about the product (collectively referred to below as “hyperlink text”), yet is not clearly disclosed, consumers may overlook the hyperlink text. The result is that the consumer may not be exposed to information which may be material to his product decision. In addition, because a company can easily change the disclosure contents on its webpage, if the date is not disclosed on which the information was last updated, it will be difficult for consumers to know when the company first made the disclosed information available.

(B) Cases where the Premiums and Representation Act applies

When a business claims “no shipping charges” apply, whereas information disclosed in a link about the product delivery conditions state that “products will only be shipped free of charge to delivery locations within the Tokyo metropolitan area” – for example, when the hyperlink text is shown in unusually small text – consumers may overlook the relevant hyperlink text. By not clicking on the relevant hyperlink text, they will be exposed to the information concerning the relevant delivery conditions. As a result, consumers will come to the erroneous conclusion that products will be delivered unconditionally and free of charge.

When the date, on which the information was updated, is not disclosed, for example, when a website asserts that a product is “new” with expressions such as “New Product” or “Latest Model,” consumers will wrongly believe that the product or service is the latest version.

(C) Points of concern

Character Strings of hyperlinks

In order to ensure that consumers know to which information a link leads, businesses should describe the link contents with expressions which clearly communicate the relevant subject matter.

To prevent consumers from overlooking links, businesses should consider functions such as text size and color to appropriately highlight them.

The relevant text and links should be placed near related information in a way that ensures consumers will not overlook them.

Time/Date when the information is updated

On each occasion a business entity changes information disclosed on a respective webpage, it should accurately and clearly disclose the date of the most recent change.

(2) Disclosures for internet information service transactions

(i) Problems under the Premiums and Representations Act

Because internet information provider services complete their transactions using the internet, such businesses must appropriately provide consumers with information such as whether they provide their information free of charge, the transaction terms and conditions such as a payment for long-term contracts, and information related to the download procedures used to purchase their products.

(ii) Cases where the Premiums and Representation Act applies

Information provider sites which merely display “30 Minutes No Charge” without clearly disclosing that the free 30 minutes are conditional upon the consumer using the site for an hour or longer.

Graphic image provider sites where an advertisement leads the consumer to believe that he is entering a one-month contract, e.g. “First step is the first month”, even though the consumer is entering an ongoing contract which includes the charging of a monthly fee in the month after the first free one.

On websites selling downloadable website creation software, presenting statements such as “Easy to download,” without clearly showing that a specified version type of OS is required, despite the fact that the program will not function on a computer without the appropriate OS version installed.

(iii) Points of concern

When an internet information provider service charges service fees, the business should accurately and clearly disclose that a fee will be charged.

In situations involving long-term agreements such as those that charge monthly user fees, businesses should accurately and clearly disclose that, and how, the fee will be charged.

Businesses should accurately and clearly disclose information concerning the type of OS, type of CPU, memory requirements, necessary hard disk capacity, and other operating environment conditions essential to utilizing their software.

(3) Internet connection service transactions

(i) Problems under the Premiums and Representations

For internet connection services such as DSL and TS1 which enable consumers to utilize broadband telecommunications, the most important factors in selecting a service include transmission speed, the start date for the provision of services and the service charges, etc., thus businesses must properly provide this type of information to consumers.

(ii) Controversial Cases

- Where Internet service providers (ISPs) that enable consumers to use broadband telecommunications represent services by simply stating “8Mbps maximum transmission speed” without disclosing that the maximum transmission speed is not guaranteed and without clear indication that transmission speeds will be slower depending on transmission facility conditions or interference from other circuits. Such misrepresentation may lead consumers to believe that they will always receive broadband service at the maximum transmission speed.
- Where the ISPs represent that “You will be able to start using the internet from home in less than 10 days” despite the fact that the provision of services almost never begins within 10 days from the application for service because of delays in line connections, etc.
- Where the ISPs represent that a company’s service is “Always less expensive than Company A” without indicating that their applicable service transmission speed is slower than that provided by Company A. Consumers could be misled to believe that the company is providing a similar service to Company A but at a lower price.

(iii) Points of concern

- Businesses should accurately and clearly disclose the fact that their broadband telecommunications speeds may be affected by the quality of the telecommunication facilities or by the interference of other circuits.
- When companies may be unable to begin providing services by the date indicated because of delays for whatever reason, they should accurately and clearly disclose this fact.
- When disclosing service charge comparisons, businesses should make their comparisons against services which are legitimately equivalent in transmission quality according to commonly comparative factors and which are available at the same time.

2. Announcement of problems and points of concern regarding the Premiums and Representations Act

(1) Points of concern regarding representations in electronic commerce

In an effort to promote the sound development of Business-to-Consumer e-commerce and consumer transactions, the Fair Trade Commission, which used to be in charge of the Premiums and Representations Act in June, 2002, summarized the relevant issues under the Premiums and Representations Act with respect to representations in Business-to-Consumer e-Commerce, issuing a document entitled “Problems and Points of Concern under the Premiums and Representations Act Concerning Representations in Business-to-Consumer E-Commerce ¹,” (hereinafter “Points of Concern Regarding Representations in Electronic Commerce [amended in 2003]”) setting forth points of concern regarding representations by businesses. The Consumer Affairs Agency, which has had responsibility for the Premiums and Representations Act since September, 2009, has also been enforcing the act on the basis of this document. The details described in 1. above are extracted from the Points of Concern Regarding Representations in Electronic Commerce (amended in 2003).

(2) Points of concern regarding advertisement representations for online consumer transactions

Online consumer transactions have expanded as the usability of the Internet has been enhanced with various types of service made available to consumers. At the same time, the number of troubles and victimized consumers is increasing. Against these backdrops, the Consumer Affairs Agency announced in October 2011, the “Problems and Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions under the Premiums and Representations Act” (hereinafter referred to as “the Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions [2011]”) ². The Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions [2011] lists

¹ Partially revised on August 29, 2003

http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/100121premiums_38.pdf

² http://www.caa.go.jp/representation/pdf/111028premiums_1_1.pdf

The “Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions [2011]” was announced in response to newly emerging services for online consumer transactions, as approximately seven years had passed since the announcement of the “Points of Concern Regarding Representations in Electronic Commerce (amended in 2003).” The principles of the “Points of Concern Regarding Representations in Electronic Commerce (amended in 2003)” remain relevant as basic guidelines.

“freemium”³, “buzz sites”⁴, “flash-marketing”⁵, “affiliate program”⁶ and “drop-shipping”⁷ as new business models on the Internet, and indicates problems and points of concern regarding each of the business models in light of the Premiums and Representations Act. In addition, it lists specific, problematic examples.

The Points of Concern Regarding Advertisement Representations for Online Consumer Transactions [2011] does not indicate new concepts related to the Premiums and Representations Act; it rather applies the existing, basic concepts and the points of view shown in the Points of Concern Regarding Representations in Electronic Commerce (amended in 2003) to the five new business models.

³ A business model to earn profits from inducing the customer base, which is obtained through providing to customers free basic services, to purchase additional pay services

⁴ A website (including blogs and websites, such as travel and gourmet websites, where people can post buzz information) publishing so-called “buzz” information (reputations and rumors regarding people, corporations, products, service, etc.)

⁵ A business model which is to sell a certain quantity of coupons with benefits such as a discount on the price of a product /service for a limited period of time; basically, setting a “double pricing representation” consisting of a “usual price” and a “discounted price” (there are exceptions)

⁶ One of the advertisement methods using the Internet; an operator (affiliate) of a blog or another form of website (affiliate site) posts, on the website, banners of goods/services provided by an advertiser. When the goods/services of the advertiser are purchased through the banners, the advertiser will pay a commission to the affiliate.

⁷ One form of the business model where consumers purchase goods through an electronic commerce website (drop-shipping shop) opened on the Internet. The operator of the electronic commerce website (drop-shipper) does not hold the stock of the goods s/he sells or deliver the goods. The main feature of this form of business is that the manufacturer and distributor of the goods hold the stock and deliver the goods instead.

II-4-2 Regulations under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act

[Issue]

How do Articles 11, 12, 12-3, 12-4 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act apply to web advertisements?

I. Approach

In accordance with the advertising regulations of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, a business entity which sells products specified by the law over the internet must 1) present certain matters (Article 11); and 2) is prohibited from using misleading advertisement (Article 12); and 3) is prohibited from transmitting unsolicited e-mail advertisement (Article 12-3).

It should be noted that, if the business entity delegate to any other entity its e-mail advertising as a whole, that delegated entity is also prohibited from transmitting unsolicited e-mail advertisement (Article 12-4).

1. Duty of representation

(Matters that must be represented)

- Sales price, delivery charge, etc. of the product, service, etc.
- Time and method of payment of the price of the product, service, etc.
- Time of delivery of the product, service, etc.
- Matters related with rescission and cancellation of the sales contract of the products and/or designated rights (including a special contract, if any).
- Name, address, and telephone number of the vendor (and the name of the representative or business manager if the vendor is a corporation).
- Date of expiry of the effective period of an offer, if any.
- Description and the amount of any money that the purchaser has to pay in addition to the price of the product, service, etc.
- Contents of the clauses, if any, of the vendor's responsibility for any latent defect in the product.
- Necessary conditions for provision and/or use of the products and/or services, such as specification, performance of the computer.
- Contents of special sales conditions, if any, of the product, service, etc., such as a limited sales quantity.
- Shipping cost to be paid by a person requesting documents of the information omitted on the advertisement, if any.
- E-mail address, if advertising is by e-mail.

2. Prohibition of misleading advertisements

(Matters prohibiting exaggerated advertisement)

- Performance, quality, and efficacy of a product; contents and effectiveness of a service; contents of rights, effectiveness of the service pertaining to rights.
- Matters related with rescission and cancellation of the sales contract of the products and/or designated rights (including a special contract, if any).
- Involvement of the national government, local governments, and other public entities in products, rights, services; in vendors and service providers; in the business conducted by vendors and service providers (Examples: Endorsements such as “Certified by XX Ministry” or “Recommended by XX Prefecture” for products, business entities, and others).
- Country of origin, place of production, and manufacturer
- Matters shown in 1. above

3. Prohibition of E-mail Advertising

(Cases unsolicited e-mail advertising is permitted)

- When it is requested by the counterparty,
- When it is accompanied by notification of important matters on the contract, implementation of the contract to the counterparty of the sales contract or service contract,
- In addition to abovementioned matters, when it is considered not to do any harm to the person who receive the e-mail advertising.

II. Explanations

1. Regulations on advertisement under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act

Transactions concluded through online applications over the internet fall under the category of correspondence sales as defined in the Specified Commercial Transactions Act. Therefore, business entities that sell “specified products, rights, or services” defined in the law (Paragraph 4, Article 2 of the law and Schedules 1 to 3 of the Ordinance for Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act) must advertise in compliance with the advertising regulations under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act (Articles 11, 12, 12-3, 12-4). If they violate the regulations, they will be subject to administrative or other penalties.

2. Duty of representation

When vendors advertise, they must present the following matters (Article 11 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act and Article 8 of the Regulations for Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act):

- Sales price, delivery charge, etc. of the product, service, etc.
- Time and method of payment of the product price or service, etc.
- Time of delivery of the product, service, etc.
- Matters related with rescission and cancellation of the sales contract of the products and/or designated rights (including a special contract, if any).
- Name, address, and telephone number of the vendor (and the name of the representative or business manager if the vendor is a corporation).
- Date of expiry of the effective period of an offer, if any.
- Description and the amount of any money that the purchaser has to pay in addition to the price of the product, service, etc.
- Contents of the clauses, if any, of the vendor's responsibility for any latent defect in the product.
- Necessary conditions for provision and/or use of the products and/or services, such as specification, performance of the computer.
- Contents of special sales conditions, if any, of the product, service, etc., such as a limited sales quantity.
- Shipping cost to be paid by a person requesting documents of the information omitted on the advertisement, if any.
- E-mail address, if advertising is made by e-mail.

In advertising on personal computer screens, etc., such as at home pages on the web, it is desirable that all of the above matters be displayed for confirmation without necessitating any screen scrolling or switching to other screens. In particular, the vendor's name, address, and telephone number (and the name of the representative or business manager if the vendor is a corporation) should be displayed in such a way that consumers can easily be recognized when an advertisement is initially displayed on the screen. If vendors cannot be displayed in this manner for unavoidable reasons, measures should be taken in advance to enable the consumers to effortlessly move from the beginning of the advertisement to the part where these matters are explicitly shown or require the consumer to go through the screen, which shows these matters, in order to reach the screen on which one can enter a purchase contract.

Also, as for matters related with rescission and cancellation of the sales contract of the products and/or designated rights (including a special contract, if any) is required to be clearly legible on the location the customer can find without difficulty so that the customer can recognize it without difficulty (Article 9 of Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations)¹.

3. Prohibition of misleading advertisements

When advertising, vendors must not present the following matters in a manner which is substantially different from what they are in actuality or in a manner which will cause a consumer to believe that the subject of the advertisement is better or more advantageous than it really is (Article 12 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act and Article 11 of the Regulations for Enforcement of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act):

- Performance, quality, and efficacy of a product; contents and effectiveness of a service; contents of rights, and effectiveness of the service pertaining to rights.
- Matters related with rescission and cancellation of the sales contract of the products and/or designated rights (including a special contract, if any).
- Involvement of the national government, local governments, and other public entities in products, rights, services; in Vendors and service providers; in the business conducted by Vendors and service providers. For example, endorsements such as “Certified by XX Ministry” or “Recommended by XX Prefecture” for products, business entities, and others.
- Country of origin, place of production, and manufacturer
- Matters shown in 2. above

4. Prohibition of E-mail Advertising²

Except the following cases, the seller or the like must not send e-mail

¹ See these Guidelines I-5 “Returning Goods Purchased over the Internet.”

² E-mail advertising is regulated by the Specified Electronic Mail Act, in addition to the Specified Commercial Transactions Act. In the Specified Electronic Mail Act, if the e-mail (“specified e-mail”) is for advertising or commercial purpose of the e-mail sender (limited to commercial entities or individuals doing business) or any other person, the e-mail sender must not send such e-mails unless the receiving party has notified of the consent to such transmission. Also, the sender must represent its name, address, telephone number for complaint, its e-mail address or URL, the e-mail address or URL for receiving rejection notice. When receiving rejection, the sender must not send specified e-mail again against the intention to reject. In addition, the document verifying the receiver’s intention or consent to receive the specified e-mail must be kept for a certain period (Article 3 of the Specified Electronic Mail Act).

advertisements on the sales conditions of the products or services without approval of the counterparty of such advertisement.

- When it is requested by the counterparty,
- When it is accompanied by notification of important matters on the contract, implementation of the contract to the counterparty of the sales contract or service contract,
- In addition to abovementioned matters, when it is considered not to do any harm to the person who receive the e-mail advertising.

Also, when the seller or the like advertises by e-mail, it must represent within the main text of the advertisement the e-mail address or URL necessary to receive the counterparty's expressed intention to reject such e-mail advertisement in an easily recognizable way³. When receiving counterparty's expressed intention to reject such e-mail advertisement, the seller or the like must not send specified e-mail again. In addition, the document verifying the receiver's intention or consent to receive the specified e-mail must be kept for three (3) years (Article 12-3 of the Specified Commercial Transaction Act, Articles 11-3 to 11-6 of the Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations).

It should be noted that, if the business entity delegate to any other entity its e-mail advertising as a whole, that delegated entity is also prohibited from transmitting unsolicited e-mail advertisement (Article 12-4 of the Specified Commercial Transaction Act, Article 11-7 of the Specified Commercial Transaction Act Enforcement Regulations).

³ There are guidelines showing examples of “representation not in an easily recognizable way” (“Guidelines on “representation not in an easily recognizable way” in relation to request or consent to e-mail advertising.”)
(<http://www.no-trouble.jp/>)

II-4-3 Regulations under the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act and the Health Promotion Act

[Issue]

How will the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act and the Health Promotion Act apply to the advertisements of health foods, pet-related products, cosmetics, etc. posted on a website?

I. Approach

1. Regulations on Indication of Medical Efficacy

Pursuant to Article 68 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act (Act No. 145 of 1960), it is prohibited to advertise drugs unless authorized by the Minister of Health, Labour and Welfare. If the advertisements of food indicate any medical function or efficacy such as prevention and curing of diseases), such food may be deemed an unauthorized drug, in which case such advertisings will constitute a violation of Article 68 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act. (Of course, Article 68 does not apply to foods like vegetables, fruits, sweets and prepared foods, etc., which are undoubtedly recognized as food by their appearance or form, etc., or to food for special dietary use containing indications of the specified usage, as authorized under of Article 26 of the Health Promotion Act (Act No. 103 of 2002).) Since the scope of restrictions under the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act extends to drugs designed for animals as well as for human beings, the advertisings of pet foods indicating their effects on animal health is also prohibited by the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, if these pet foods are deemed as drugs designed for animals due to such indication of medical efficacy.

Further, with regard to the advertisements of food, Article 32-2 of the Health Promotion Act prohibits significantly incorrect or misleading indications such as “effective for maintenance and promotion of health” or “effective for making a human body more beautiful and charming, for changing physical appearance and for maintaining healthy skin or hair”.

2. Electronic Message Boards

Where an electronic message board is set up for discussion of human or pet health foods, messages posted thereon are likely to contain information concerning the medical efficacy thereof. If a business entity that sells health foods sets up an electronic message board on its website expecting the postings of messages concerning medical efficacy of its product, and proactively utilizes the posted messages concerning medicinal efficacy in a manner prohibited under

the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, such electronic message board may be held as an advertisement of medical efficacy and thus be in violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act.

Example of cases where setting up an electronic message board is likely to constitute a violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act

- A business entity that conducts corresponding sales of health food might set up an electronic message board for its consumers to post comments on the product, with proactive intent to utilize, for advertising purposes, these messages containing word-of-mouth comments on the product's medical efficacy. If such business entity manipulates the message board so that only positive comments affirming the product's medical efficacy, such as its ability to cure diseases, are left on the message board, while other comments which are negative or useless for promotion of sales are deleted, and the consequence will be that only positive comments are listed on the message board. The business entity thereby utilizes the electronic message board for advertising medicinal efficacy of its products in violation of the Act.
-

Example of cases where setting up an electronic message board is unlikely to constitute a violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act

- If a business entity that sells health food sets up an electronic message board in order to support customers by providing a place for interactive communication, but on the condition that no message referring to the medical efficacy of its products will be permitted, and the message board operator actually deletes comments on such matters, if any, then the business entity does not violate the Act.
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3. Establishment of a New Website Regarding the Efficacy of Components of Health Foods

If a manufacturer or distributor of health food, etc. sets up a link to another website explaining its medical efficacy or its components, or otherwise arranges for another website with references to such matters to link the company's own website, such act may constitute a violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act and the Health Promotion Act, since such act is substantially equivalent to

indicating the medical efficacy on its own website¹.

Furthermore, where a manufacturer or distributor of health food, etc. establishes a new website under the name of such third party as the company's business manager or one of its employees, with reference to the medical efficacy of major components contained in such health food, etc., the manufacturer or distributor violates the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act and/or the Health Promotion Act. Where a new website indicates its product name or the contact details of the distributor of its product, etc., even if such new website is not linked to the original website designed for sales of such health food, the act of establishing the new website may constitute a violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act and/or the Health Promotion Act on the ground that it may be held as an advertisement of the medical efficacy of such health food, etc.

4. Cosmetics and Soaps, etc. Manufactured or Imported by a Business Entity not Authorized under the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act

Pursuant to Paragraph 1, Article 12 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, the manufacturing and importation of cosmetics (including bath products such as soaps and shampoos) are, as it is the case with drugs, reserved for business entities authorized by the Minister of Health, Labour and Welfare. Although the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act does not set forth any penal provision directly applicable to the act of advertising cosmetics manufactured by unauthorized manufacturers, such advertisement of products manufactured or imported without authorization may be regarded as aiding and abetting a violation of Paragraph 1, Article 12 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, for which penalty is set forth in Item 2, Paragraph 1, Article 84 of the same.

II. Explanations

If the advertisements of food indicate any medical efficacy such as diagnosis, prevention or curing of human or animal diseases, or effects on the structure and function of human beings or animals, such food may be deemed as an

¹ In connection with the Health Promotion Act, the following refer to the illegality of such links:
“The Indications in Internet Advertisements which Cause Legal Issues Under the Health Promotion Act (Example)” (*“kenkou zoushin hou jo mondai to naru internet koukoku hyouji (rei)”* in Japanese, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, January 2004)
<http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/bukyoku/iyaku/syoku-anzen/hokenkinou/dl/7f.pdf>,
“Guideline for Inspection and Guidance, etc. for Prohibiting False and Exaggerated Advertisements, etc. and Ensuring Appropriate Advertisements Regarding Effects on Maintenance and Promotion of Health, etc. of Products to be Distributed as Foods (Guideline)” (*“shokuhin to shite hanbai ni kyousuru mono ni kanshite okonau kenkou iji zoushin kouka nado ni kansuru kyogi kodai koukoku nado no kinshi oyobi koukoku nado tekiseika no tame no kanshi shidou nado ni kansuru shishin (Guideline)”* in Japanese, Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare Yaku-Shoku-Hatsu No. 0829007, August 29, 2003)
<http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/bukyoku/iyaku/syoku-anzen/hokenkinou/7.html>.

unauthorized drug, in which case such advertisement will constitute a violation of Article 68 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, which provides for imprisonment of up to two (2) years or a fine of up to two million (2,000,000) yen. (As stated, Article 68 does not apply to foods like vegetables, fruits, sweets and prepared foods, etc., which are undoubtedly recognized as food by their appearance or form, etc., or to food for special dietary use containing indications of the specified usage, as authorized under of Article 26 of the Health Promotion Act.)

Pursuant to the letter “Guidance and Regulations on Unapproved or Unauthorized Drugs” (*Yaku-hatsu* No. 476 as of June 1, 1971) by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare², a food (except for products like vegetables, fruits, sweets and prepared foods, etc., which are undoubtedly recognized as food by its appearance or form, etc., and the food for special dietary use indicating the specified usage authorized under Article 26 of the Health Promotion Act) shall be in principle held as an unapproved drug if it falls under one of the following categories:

- (A) Foods containing substances “exclusively used as drugs” (i.e. hormones, antibiotics, analgesic antipyretics and components of a drug requiring a doctor's prescription) as their major components. For example, when the side effects arising from a diet food made in China caused serious injuries, this health food was held as an unapproved drug in violation of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act, on the ground that it contained medicinal components such as thyroid hormone; and
- (B) Foods which do not contain any substances “exclusively used as drugs” but fall under any of the following categories:
 - The advertisement or package of the food, etc. indicates medicinal efficacy;
 - The food is placed in a container typically used for drugs, such as an ampule-shaped container; or
 - Dosage or administration are indicated in a wording typically used for drugs, such as “after each meal”.

Since the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act also restricts the advertisement of drugs designed for animals as well as for human beings, the advertisement of pet foods indicating their effects on animal health is also prohibited by the same Act, if

² “Guidance and Regulations on Unapproved or Unauthorized Drugs” (“*mushounin mukyoka iyaku hin no sidou torishimari ni tsuite*” in Japanese, *Yaku-hatsu* No. 476, June 1, 1971) is available at the following website: <http://www.mhlw.go.jp/topics/bukyoku/iyaku/syokuten/dl/13.pdf>.

these pet foods are held as drugs designed for animals according to the above-mentioned criteria.

Further, with regard to the advertisements of food, Article 32-2 of the Health Promotion Act prohibits significantly incorrect or misleading indications such as “effective for maintenance and promotion of health” or “effective for making a human body more beautiful and charming, for changing physical appearance and for maintaining healthy skin or hair”. Moreover, if a food contains certain components exclusively used as drugs, or if its advertisement indicates medicinal efficacy, and it is thus held as a drug according to the aforementioned “Guidance and Regulations on Drugs without Approval or Authorization” (*Yaku-hatsu* No. 476, June 1, 1971), such food will be subject to, in addition to the restrictions under the Health Promotion Act, Article 68 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act prohibiting the advertisement of unapproved drugs, etc. and Article 66 of the same, which prohibits false or exaggerated advertisements. In addition, an advertisement of cosmetics is subject to Article 66 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act prohibiting false or exaggerated advertisements.

In connection with the advertisement of health foods, pet foods and cosmetics, etc., the posting of the personal experience and opinions of consumers regarding their medical efficacy is a particularly sensitive issue. Even where such posting is a correct report of facts, if its contents have reference to medicinal efficacy (i.e. curing of allergy, recovery from diseases, removal of wrinkles, etc.) it will constitute a violation of Article 68 of the Pharmaceutical Affairs Act prohibiting the advertisement of unapproved drugs, etc., and thus such posting will be illegal. Moreover, even where such advertisement is technically in the form of a collection of “personal experiences” of consumers, etc., if, for example, such “personal experiences,” etc. presented by the advertiser are fictitious or a collection of remarks favorable for advertising purposes, and the food or cosmetic seller has exclusively selected favorable comments on the maintenance or promotion of health, while eliminating negative comments, such postings of personal experiences may be held as false and exaggerated advertisements, which is prohibited under Article 32-2 of the Health Promotion Act.

The products with false or exaggerated advertisements are generally expensive and therefore will impose considerable economic burden on consumers if continuously used for a long time. In addition, consumers of such products may suffer damages to health due to their side effects as well as loss of opportunities for appropriate medical care, especially if they trusted the false or exaggerated advertisement. Therefore, such illegal advertisings may lead to civil liability for compensation of damages to consumers who have believed in such advertisement as well as to the penal and administrative sanctions.

II-4-4 Regulations under the Money Lending Business Act and Other Relevant Laws

[Issue]

What regulations do the Money Lending Business Act and other relevant laws impose on money lenders' website advertisements and financial instruments transactions, such as currency forward contracts or commodity futures?

I. Approach

Article 15 of the Money Lending Business Act (Act No. 32 of 1983, "*kashikin gyō hō*" in Japanese) requires money lenders to indicate their trade name, interest rate of loans, etc. when they advertise the conditions of loans, irrespective of whether or not they advertise on a website. Furthermore, Article 16 of the same prohibits money lenders' advertisements their business from indicating the conditions of loans in a materially incorrect manner, or misleading others to believe that such conditions are significantly more favorable than the actual conditions.

In connection with the advertisement of financial instruments such as a currency forward contract, all the items stipulated in Article 37 of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act, Article 16 of the Cabinet Order for Enforcement of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act, and Articles 73 through 76 of the Cabinet Office Ordinance Regarding Financial Instruments Businesses, and other relevant laws, must be specified in writing, including the risk of loss exceeding the amount of consignment guarantee money, the ratio of the transaction amount to the amount of consignment guarantee money (to the extent the amount of consignment guarantee money is leveraged), etc. Similarly, in regard to the commodity futures, the items stipulated in Article 213-2 of the Commodity Derivative Act¹, Article 29 of the Cabinet Order for Enforcement of the Commodity Derivative Act, and Articles 100-5 and 100-6 of the Commodity Derivative Act Enforcement Regulations must be indicated in

¹ In the ordinary session of Diet in 2009, "Law amending a part of the Commodity Exchange Act and the Law concerning the Regulations on Commodity Investment Business" was passed, changing "Commodity Exchange Act" into "Commodity Derivative Act." Among the amended provisions, those related with introduction of the "regulations based on the difference between professionals and non-professionals" was enforced on January 1, 2011. Accordingly, the regulations on advertisement is not applicable for transactions with professionals (Article 220-4 of the Commodity Derivative Act).

(See: <http://www.meti.go.jp/policy/commerce/a00/2009/1026.html>)

writing. In addition, in the commodity market, it is prohibited to make an exaggerated advertisement with respect to the expected profits, etc. procured through transactions, etc.

II. Explanations

1. Regulations under the Money Lending Business Act

Paragraph 1, Article 15 of the Money Lending Business Act and Article 12 of the Ordinance for Enforcement of the Money Lending Business Act require the following items to be indicated in the advertisement:

- (1) Trade name, and registration number of money lending business of the money lender;
- (2) Interest rate of loan;
- (3) Method and term of repayment and number of payments to be made;
- (4) If the amount of damages (including penalty charges) is set, ratio of such amount of damages to the principal amount; and
- (5) Matters relating to collateral (if collateral is required).

In addition, Paragraph 2, Article 15 of the Money Lending Business Act prohibits money lenders from indicating in their advertisements any contact details other than “the contact address specified in the register of the money lending business.”

Furthermore, Article 16 of the same prohibits money lenders from displaying the following advertisements:

- (1) Indications or explanations of the interest rate or conditions of loans that are materially incorrect or that mislead others to believe that such conditions are significantly more favorable than the actual conditions;
- (2) Indications or explanations which mislead others to believe that a certain product designed for soliciting persons in need of financial resources is the main product of such money lenders;
- (3) Indications or explanations attempting to loan money to persons who owe money to other money lenders or to persons lacking the financial capacity for repayment;
- (4) Indications or explanations which induce persons in need of financial resources to take out loans by overemphasizing the easiness to do so;
- (5) Indications or explanations attempting to induce beneficiaries of public pension or allocation, etc. to take out loans; and
- (6) Indications or explanations which lead others to misidentify the loan’s

actual interest rate.

2. Regulations under the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act

Where a financial instruments firm, such as a securities company, investment fund, investment advisory and brokerage company, or investment management company, advertises the contents of its transactions², such firm must indicate all of the following items, as required by Article 37 of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act, Article 16 of the Cabinet Order for Enforcement of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act and Articles 73 through 76 of the Cabinet Office Ordinance Regarding Financial Instruments Businesses, and other relevant laws:

- (1) Trade name of the firm;
- (2) The fact that the firm is a financial instruments firm³ and its registration number;
- (3) The breakdown and total of the commission, charge, expenses and other consideration (except the consideration for securities or rights relating to derivatives, etc.) payable by customers for the relevant transactions, the maximum amount thereof, or its calculation method;
- (4) In the case of transactions that require the deposit of consignment guarantee money, the amount thereof and its calculation method;
- (5) If there is a risk of loss exceeding the amount of consignment guarantee money in a derivatives transaction, etc., that fact and the ratio of the transaction amount of such derivative transaction, etc. to the amount of consignment guarantee money (if calculation of such ratio is impossible, that fact and the reasons thereof);
- (6) If there is a risk of loss arising directly from such indicators as the interest rate, exchange rates or stock index, such indicators and the fact that fluctuation thereof may result in loss, and the reasons thereof;
- (7) If there is a risk of loss as referred to in (6) that exceeds the amount of consignment guarantee money, the indicator(s) which may directly lead to such loss, the fact that there is a risk of such loss, and the reasons thereof;

² If a securities company advertises names of certain fund products, such advertisement will fall under the advertising of contents; however, the image advertising of a company will not in itself fall thereunder.

³ This means a financial instruments business operator or a financial institution such as a bank which is registered to conduct the operations, such as documentation agency service for financial instruments, which are designated to be conducted only by banks etc., under Article 33-2 of the Financial Instruments and Exchange Act.

- (8) In regard to over-the-counter derivative transactions such as foreign exchange margin trading, where there is a difference between the selling price and buying price indicated by a financial instruments firm, etc., that fact;
- (9) Disadvantageous facts for customers in relation to other important matters; and
- (10) If the firm is a member of the Financial Instruments Firms Association, that fact and the name of the specific association.

3. Regulations under the Commodity Derivative Act

In cases where a futures commission merchant advertises the contents of his, her, or its business of accepting consignment of commodity transactions, with some exceptions (Article 220-4 of the Commodity Derivative Act), all the following items must be indicated, as required by Article 213-2 of the Commodity Derivative Act, Article 29 of the Cabinet Order for Enforcement of the Commodity Derivative Act and Articles 100-5 and 100-6 of the Commodity Derivative Act Enforcement Regulations:

- (1) Trade name of the futures commission merchant;
- (2) The fact that the merchant is a futures commission merchant;
- (3) The breakdown and total amount of consideration payable by customers under whatever titles including but not limited to commission, remuneration and expenses in connection with the consignment contract (except delivery values, transaction price specified in Item 4, Paragraph 3 and Items 4 and 5, Paragraph 14, Article 2 of the Commodity Derivative Act and the values of clearing margin, etc.) or, alternatively, the maximum amounts thereof, or the outline of their calculation method (including the proportions to the transaction values based on the commodity derivatives contract (transaction values mentioned in Item 3, Article 29 of the Cabinet Order for Enforcement of the Commodity Derivative Act)) (if it is impossible to indicate them, that fact and the reasons thereof);
- (4) In the case of transactions which require the customers to deposit a clearing margin, etc. (clearing margin, etc. mentioned in Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 217 of the Commodity Derivative Act), the amount thereof and its calculation method;
- (5) If the transaction (if it is a transaction mentioned in Item 4, Paragraph 3, Article 2 of the Commodity Derivative Act, it means the transaction mentioned in I to ho of the same item, made by exercising the right

mentioned in the same item; if it is a transaction mentioned in Item 4, Paragraph 14 of the same article, it means the transaction mentioned in I to ni of the same item, made by exercising the right mentioned in the same item; if it is a transaction mentioned in Item 5 of the same paragraph, it means the transaction in which the money mentioned in the same item is transferred, made by exercising the right mentioned in the same item) amount (value obtained by multiplying the transaction price or engagement price or engagement value by the number or volume of the transaction) under the consignment contract may possibly be larger than that of the clearing margin, etc. to be deposited by customers for the transaction, the following matters,

- (a) the fact that the transaction amount may be larger than that of the clearing margin, etc.,
- (b) the ratio of such transaction amount to such clearing margin, etc. (if such calculation is impossible, that fact and the reasons thereof);
- (6) If transactions under the consignment contract may involve a risk of loss incurred by customers due to the fluctuations of the commodity prices or the commodity index in the commodity market (“commodity market prices”) and, furthermore, that the amount of such loss may exceed that of the clearing margin, etc., that fact and the reasons thereof;
- (7) If transactions under the consignment contract may involve a risk of loss incurred by customers in due to the fluctuations in the commodity market prices (except the amount of such loss may exceed that of the clearing margin, etc.), that fact and the reasons thereof;
- (8) If there is any difference between the sell price and the buy price (including those mentioned in the following (a) to (c) if in the transactions mentioned in (a) to (c)) represented by the futures commission merchant in the OTC derivatives transactions, that fact
 - (a) If in the transactions mentioned in Item 2 or 3, Paragraph 14, Article 2 of the Commodity Derivative Act, the engagement price of the transaction in which the party is to pay, the engagement price of the transaction in which the party is to be paid, or the like, in case the real price (the real price mentioned in Item 2, Paragraph 3 of the same article) or the real value (the real value mentioned in Item 3, Paragraph 3 of the same article) is higher than the engagement price
 - (b) If in the transactions mentioned in Item 4, Paragraph 14, Article 2 of the Commodity Derivative Act, the price of the right in the transaction in which the party is to give the right mentioned in Item 4 or 5 of the same paragraph and the price of the right in the transaction in which

the party is to obtain the right

- (c) If in the transactions mentioned in Item 6, Paragraph 14, Article 2 of the Commodity Derivative Act, the commodity price or index at the beginning of the engagement period in the transaction in which the party is to pay in case the commodity price or index increases, and the commodity price or index at the beginning of the engagement period in the transaction in which the party is to be paid in case the commodity price or index increases, or the like
- (9) If there is a fact that causes disadvantages to the customer in material matters concerning the consignment contract, the content of that disadvantageous fact, and
- (10) If the futures commission merchant is a member of the Commodity Futures Association of Japan, that fact and the name of the specific association.

II-5 Illegal Acquisition of Domain Names

[Issue]

The illegal acquisition of a domain name is defined as “unfair competition” in Item 12, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act. What are the specific acts that fall under the term “unfair competition”?

I. Approach

1. Definition and objects of unfair competition under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act

Item 12, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act defines “unfair competition (*fusei-kyôso*)” as an act of (i) acquiring or holding the right to use a domain name or using a domain name; (ii) that is the identical with or similar to another party's specific trademark, service mark or the like; (iii) for the purpose of obtaining an illegal profit (profit-making purpose)(*tori-mokuteki*) or causing damage to a party (damage-causing purpose)(*kagai-mokuteki*).

The Unfair Competition Prevention Act covers not only JP Domain Names, those that end with the suffix “.jp”, but also generic domain names that do not end with a country code (such as those ending with “.com” and “.org”).

2. Cases falling under the category of unfair competition

Shown below in (i) are some of the cases which ruled that the acquisition or use of a domain name was made in bad faith and in (ii) are cases decided by courts and by alternative dispute resolution panels which held that the domain names at issue were identical with, or similar to, other parties' trademarks, service marks, etc.. All of these cases are highly likely to violate the Unfair Competition Prevention Act.

(1) Cases where it was ruled that the acquisition or use of a domain name was made for illegal purposes, etc.

- Where the domain name acquired was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and where products were sold taking advantage of the reputation and the brand recognition of the well-known business entity.
- Where the domain name acquired was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and using the domain to harm the reputation of the business entity by displaying a message defaming or

disparaging the business entity on the website.

- Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and opening a pornographic website.
- Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity for the purpose of assigning the user to another website.
- Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, in order to make it difficult for such business entity to set up a website.
- Where the domain name registered is identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and demanding the payment of unreasonable price for the domain name (ruled that the domain name was purchased for the purpose of reselling).
-

(2) Where domain names were ruled identical or similar to another party's trademarks, service marks, etc.

- “jaccs.co.jp” and JACCS
- “j-phone.co.jp” and J-PHONE
- “sunkist.co.jp” and SUNKIST or Sunkist
- “sonybank.co.jp” and SONY
- “itoyokado.co.jp” and Ito Yokado
- “goo.co.jp” and goo
-

3. Effects of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act

Those who experience lost profits or reputation damage due to unfair competition may demand (i) injunction of the use of the domain name (Article 3 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act); (ii) damages (Articles 4 and 5 of the law); and (iii) an action to restore the business entity's reputation (Article 7 of the law).

4. Dispute settlement guidelines

The settlement of disputes can be sought not only by the Unfair Competition Prevention Act but also in accordance with dispute resolution policies formulated by private organizations.

(1) JP Domain Names

When a dispute concerns a JP Domain Name, it is possible to seek a settlement through a dispute settlement institution authorized by the Japan Network Information Center (JPNIC) in accordance with the JP Domain Name Disputes Resolution Policy established by JPNIC. The applicant can demand the deletion of the registered domain name or its assignment to the applicant. The award given by the agency is not final, since the party dissatisfied with the award can file a subsequent suit through an appropriate court.

(2) Other domain names

When a dispute concerns other domain names, it is possible to seek a settlement from a dispute settlement agency certified by the Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers (ICANN) in accordance with the Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy established by ICANN. The applicant can demand the cancellation of the registered domain name or its assignment to the applicant. The decision given by the agency is not final, since the party dissatisfied with the award can file a subsequent suit through the appropriate court.

II. Explanations

1.Regulation of illegal acquisitions of domain names under the unfair Competition Prevention Act

The rapidly growing use of the internet in recent years has been making it increasingly important for business entities to conduct sales, advertising, and other business activities via the internet. The value of domain names has been rising as a result. Anyone can have domain names registered on a first-come, first-served basis. As a result, there have been many cases worldwide in which a person has registered domain names composed of a string of characters, numerals, etc. that were identical or similar to the name of a well-known company, trademark, or service mark and the like. The registered holder then offered to sell the domain name to the company at an exorbitantly high price or instead attempted to disparage the reputation of the company through the website.

Paragraph 7, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act defines a domain name as “the characters, numerals, signs, or the combination of any of them corresponding to the characters, numerals, signs, or the combination of any of them assigned to each electronic computer on the Internet.” Item 12,

Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the law defines “unfair competition” as an act of (i) acquiring or holding the right to use a domain name or using a domain name; (ii) that is the identical with or similar to another party's specific trademark, service mark or the like; (iii) for the purpose of obtaining an illegal profit (profit-making purpose) or causing damage to a party (damage-causing purpose).

As is clear from the above definition of a domain name, the Unfair Competition Prevention Act covers not only domain names with the country code of Japan, which end with “.jp” (hereinafter referred to as “JP Domain Names”) but also to domain names that end with the country codes of other countries such as those ending with “.uk”, “.ca”, “.de” or do not end with a country code at all (such as those ending with “.com”, “.net”, “.org”, or “.info”) (hereinafter referred to as “Generic Domain Names”).

2. What Acts constitute “Unfair Competition”?

(1) For the purpose of obtaining an illegal profit or causing damage to a party (profit-making or damage-causing)

As subjective requirements, the Unfair Competition Prevention Act defines two types of purpose: profit-making and damage-causing. The former means in order to make a profit for oneself or for a third party in a manner contrary to public policy or to the principle of good face and trust. The latter means in order to cause tangible or intangible damage to a third party such as financial loss or reputation damage.

Shown below are some of the cases where it was ruled that the registration or use of a domain name was in bad faith. These examples are drawn from judicial precedents and actual civil disputes adjudicated by the Japan Intellectual Property Arbitration Center (hereinafter referred to as “JIPAC”). These cases are helpful when interpreting the profit-making and damage-causing purposes defined in the law.

Where the domain name acquired was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and where products were sold taking advantage of the reputation and the brand recognition of the well-known business entity.

Where the domain name acquired was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and using the domain to harm the reputation of the business entity by displaying a message defaming or disparaging the business entity on the website.

Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and opening a pornographic website.

Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity for the purpose of assigning the user to another website.

Where a domain name was used which was identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, in order to make it difficult for the business entity to set up a website.

Where the domain name registered is identical or similar to a trademark, for example, of a well-known business entity, and demanding the payment of unreasonable price for the domain name (ruled that the domain name was purchased for the purpose of reselling).

(2) Domain names identical or similar to another party's trademarks, service marks and the like

“Trademarks, Service marks and the like” means the name of a party, trademark, service mark or symbol related to a party's business or a mark indicating a specific product or service. In order to come within this category, a mark has to perform both a distinguishing function vis-a-vis other marks as well as an identification function. Therefore, for example, when an ordinary name, which does not have either or both of these functions, is used as a domain name, it does not come within this category.

With respect to “similarity”, the criteria presented by judicial precedents, etc. under Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 2 and other clauses of the law will apply. For example, a Toyama District Court Judgment dated December 6, 2000 ruled that “When compared, apart for the capitalization, ‘JACCS’ and ‘jaccs’ are identical. In addition, taking into account the fact that most domain names consist of lowercase letters, the capitalization of the letters is immaterial.” (This judgment was upheld by the High Court and was later affirmed [Nagoya High Court, Kanazawa Branch judgment, Sept. 10, 2001. An appeal to this judgment was rejected by the Second Petty Bench, Supreme Court, February 8, 2002].) A Tokyo District Court judgment dated April 24, 2001 concluded that “The defendant’s website contains the names “J-PHONE” in English, “JPHONE” in Japanese, “J-PHONE“ in combination of English (“J”) and “PHONE“ in Japanese, all written horizontally. These are substantively identical or similar to the aforesaid English name “J-PHONE” on the website.” This judgment was upheld by the High Court (Tokyo High Court judgment, Oct. 25, 2001).

Shown below are some of the rulings delivered by the Japan Intellectual Property Arbitration Center (formerly, the Industrial Property Arbitration Center) in court and alternative dispute resolution panel where “similarity”

was found to exist.

“jaccs.co.jp” and JACCS (Judgment of Kanazawa Branch of Nagoya High Court, September 10, 2001).

“j-phone.co.jp” and J-PHONE (Judgment of Tokyo High Court, October 25, 2001).

“sunkist.co.jp” and SUNKIST or Sunkist (Award of JIPAC, June 1, 2001).

“sonybank.co.jp” and SONY (Award of Industrial Property Arbitration Center [presently JIPAC], March 16, 2001).

“itoyokado.co.jp” and Ito Yokado (Award of Industrial Property Arbitration Center [currently JIPAC], March 14, 2001).

“goo.co.jp” and goo (Judgment of Tokyo High Court, October 17, 2002)

(3) Acquiring/Keeping of the right to use a domain name or act of using a domain name

Acquiring the right to use a domain name includes cases where (i) an applicant acquires the right to use a domain name by applying to a domain name registration agency for its registration; (ii) an entity acquires the right to use a domain name through its assignment from a third party in whose name the domain name was originally registered with a registration agency; and (iii) an entity receives a license for the domain name from the third party in whose name the domain name is registered with a registration agency.

Keeping the rights to use a domain name is equivalent to having the right to use a domain name continuously. Using a domain name means using a domain name for purposes such as setting up a website.

3. Effects of falling into the category of “Unfair Competition”

Business entity who suffer loss of revenue or reputation damage through acts of unfair competition may demand that the use of a domain name be stopped (Article 3 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act), damages (Articles 4 and 5 of the law), and measures be taken to restore reputation (Article 7 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). Business entity who suffer loss of revenue because a party has illegally acquired a domain name identical or similar to their trademarks, service marks or the like, may demand damages equivalent to the price of a license fee which they could have received had they granted a license for the use of the domain name in advance (Item 4, Paragraph 2, Article 5 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act).

4. Domain name dispute resolution policies

The Unfair Competition Prevention Act does not contain any explicit

provisions with respect to the assignment of domain names. Even if a claim for the assignment of a domain name is made based on the right to order an injunction against the use of the domain name in a litigation proceeding, it would be difficult to obtain a judgment for the assignment of such domain name. However, private organizations, such as JPNIC and ICANN, have formulated dispute resolution policies for both JP and generic domain names. In accordance with these policies, disputes are settled as described below.

(1) JP Domain Names

With respect to JP Domain Names, JPNIC's Regulations Concerning the Registration, etc. of Attribute Type (Organization Class Type) and Regional Type Domain Names (Article 40) and Regulations Concerning the Registration, etc. of General Purpose JP Domain Names (Article 37) (hereinafter collectively referred to as the "Registration Regulations") provide that whenever there is a dispute between a registrant and a third party over a JP Domain Name registered in the name of the registrant, the registrant shall consent to the dispute settlement agency's authority to resolve the dispute in accordance with the JP Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy (hereinafter referred to as the "JP-DRP"). The JP-DRP provides that a third party applicant may seek, as a remedy, the cancellation of the registrant's domain name registration or the assignment of the domain name registration to the applicant (Part i, Article 4 of the JP-DRP). The regulations provide that when an award is issued by a dispute settlement agency (presently, JIPAC is the only one) certified by JPNIC, the Japan Registry Service Corporation (hereinafter referred to as the "JPRS") shall take steps for the assignor cancellation of the domain name registration (Article 3 and Part k, Article 4 of the JP-DRP). However, any party dissatisfied with an award issued by the dispute settlement agency may file a suit with the appropriate court. It is provided that jurisdiction by agreement shall belong to the Tokyo District Court or the court having jurisdiction over the residency area of the registrant. If a suit is filed within 10 days of the notification of an award, the JPRS can withhold the assignor cancellation of the registration, which it may have ordered in the award. Where a court becomes involved, the JPRS will ultimately carry out the instructions of the court as regards the domain name (Part k, Article 4 of the JP-DRP).

As the details of any rights to a domain name are prescribed in the contract between the registrant and JPRS, a cancellation or assignment executed by JPRS, in accordance with the Registration Regulations, does not constitute a tort. A judicial precedent also states, "The registration of a domain name is

granted by private contract (the contents of which are the Registration Regulations) between an internet user and JPNIC (which handled the registration of domain names in the past), a domain name registration agency. The registrant of a domain name uses the domain name by virtue of the contract with JPNIC, and any right the registrant has to the domain name is a contractual one to be asserted against the JPNIC”(Judgment of Tokyo District Court, November. 29, 2001).

(2) Generic Domain Names

With respect to Generic Domain Names, arbitration is performed by certified dispute settlement agencies (such as the Arbitration Center of the World Intellectual Property Organization) in accordance with the Uniform Domain Name Dispute Resolution Policy (hereinafter called the “UDRP”) adopted by ICANN.

Therefore, if a dispute occurs about a Generic Domain Name, a party may seek to cancel or assign its registration by filing an application with a dispute settlement agency certified by ICANN. However, any party dissatisfied with an award, issued in accordance with the UDRP, may file a suit with the appropriate court. It is provided that jurisdiction by agreement shall belong to either the court having jurisdiction over the address of the head office of a registrar certified by ICANN or the address of the registrant. If a suit is filed within 10 days of the notification of an award, the enforcement of the judgment, such as an assignor cancellation, will be withheld (Part k, Article 4 of the UDRP).

II-6 Presentation of Product Information on the Internet and Trademark Infringement

[Issue]

Does the presentation of brand-name goods in internet auctions or offers to sell brand-name goods on internet message boards infringe upon trademark rights?

I. Approach

1) Where these acts are conducted “as a business” (*gyô-to-shite*); and 2) the goods sold “are not genuine products“, liability for trademark infringement potentially exists.

1. Whether these acts are conducted “as a business”

Where these acts are not conducted “as a business” as defined by the Trademark Act, there is no infringement of trademarks. If an individual or entity, for example, conducts transactions on a repeated and ongoing basis, or when the same goods are sold at one time in large quantities, such individual or entity will be operating “as a business.”

2. Whether these are “genuine products”

If the goods being resold are the genuine products, the resale of such goods does not infringe any trademark right.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

The growth of the internet has led to the sale of brand-name goods (meaning, in this section, goods that are subject to registered trademark rights) in internet auctions and on internet message boards. In addition to the sale of goods owned by persons, businesses are selling products which they acquired in large quantities. Replica goods are also being sold in combination with genuine products.

Are people infringing the rights of trademark owners, who exhibit brand-name goods in internet auctions or who offer to sell brand-name goods on internet message boards (hereinafter referred to as “Exhibitors”)¹?

¹ The Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court, February 14, 2012; *Hanji*, No. 2161, p. 86 found that, as a general term, if a product exhibited by a cyber-shop owner on the website of his/her cyber-shop operating in a cybermall infringes a trademark right of a third party, the cybermall operator will be held liable for the

2. Liability of Exhibitors

“Trademarks” as used herein refers to “characters, figures, symbols or three-dimensional forms, or combinations thereof, or combinations of the foregoing with colors, which are used by parties who attach such marks to products that such parties produce, demonstrate, or assignment as a business” (Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of Trademark Act). The owner of a trademark right has the exclusive right to use the trademark for the purpose of attaching to products or product packaging (Article 25 of the Trademark Act).

Furthermore, advertisements on the internet constitute the use of trademarks (Item 8, Paragraph 3, Article 2 of the Trademark Act), and acts including the exhibition of goods in internet auctions and offers to sell on the internet are deemed subject to the same provision.

(1) “As a business” Requirement

As specified above, the definition of trademark use requires that the trademarks be used in the course of acting “as a business.” Thus, the exhibition of brand-name goods in internet auctions and offers to sell brand-name goods on internet message boards, when there is no assignment of such goods “as a business,” do not constitute use of trademarks and are deemed not to infringe trademark rights.

By way of example, a person would be regarded as acting “as a business” in the following two cases (A) and (B). Moreover, this would apply to acts whether conducted by a person or an entity².

(A) Cases involving repeated and ongoing transactions

In practice, when transactions are conducted on a repeated and ongoing basis, such conduct is deemed acting “as a business.” Moreover, when an Exhibitor intends to conduct transactions on a repeated and ongoing basis, that is also deemed to acting “as a business.”

A person does not act “as a business” where he uses a single internet auction website to exhibit the same brand-name goods multiple times using the same ID. Rather, a person is deemed to be acting “as a business”, if on

infringement, given that prescribed requirements are satisfied (the ruling of this case denied the responsibility of the cybermall operator for the infringement).

² Please keep in mind that the definition of “business” differs from law to law.

For example, the meaning of “business” in Paragraph 2, Article 2 of the Electronic Contract Act covers instances where the same action is conducted on a repeated and ongoing basis without the need for a profit objective, whereas a “business” under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act applies to sales conducted on a repeated and ongoing basis with a view to profit.

multiple websites he exhibits the same brand-name goods and offers to sell such goods overall on a repeated and ongoing basis.

Where no bids are made for the exhibited items, even where the same goods may be exhibited several times on internet auction websites or internet message boards, such instances will not constitute repeated and ongoing transactions.

(B) Conducting single transactions involving large quantities of the same goods

It is now possible and common to exhibit and offer for sale the same goods at the same time on internet auction websites and internet message boards. A person will be deemed to be acting “as a business” where he conducts single transactions involving large quantities of the same goods.

(2) “Genuine Products” Requirement

The term “Genuine products” as used herein refers to goods put into distribution by the owner of the trademark. With respect to goods that are in lawful distribution, such as those procured through normal channels, any subsequent resale of such goods does not constitute an infringement of trademark rights³. Specifically, such goods are similar to the ones which a retailer acquires from a wholesaler, where the retailer independently determines the retail price without ever requiring a license from the trademark owner. Offering goods for sale on an internet auction website or an internet message board is regarded as the equivalent of an advertisement flyer of a retailer under the Trademark Act.

Nevertheless, when goods are produced at a legal factory but are not put into distribution by decision of the trademark owner, if, for example, the goods are stolen, such goods will not be treated as genuine products.

(3) Conclusion

In light of the above, when a person is acting “as a business” and the goods “are not genuine products,” the act of exhibiting such goods on an internet auction site or offering the goods for sale on an internet message board constitutes an infringement of trademark rights; any person engaging in such action is deemed liable to indemnify the damaged parties (Article 709 of Civil Code). Moreover, there are cases in which such person may be subject to a claim for an injunction from the owner of the rights (Article 36 of Trademark

³ The sale of goods acquired from a foreign country, which are the genuine products, does not infringe any trademark right in principle. See the footnote 1 of the section IV-5 of the present Guidelines, "Cross-Border Exercise of Trademark Right".

Act) or to criminal sanction (Article 78 of Trademark law).

In addition, where a person who exhibits, or offers for sale, replica goods, which are not genuine products, and even where the person has clearly specified the replica goods as replications, such act will constitute an infringement of trademark rights because the person is selling goods to which a trademark is attached without having received a license from the owner of the trademark right (Article 25 of Trademark law).

Where a Vendor sells replica goods in a manner which presents the replications as genuine products, and where the Vendor is aware that they are replications, such Vendor may be subject to a criminal sanction under the Penal Code for the commission of fraud (Article 246 of Penal Code).

II-7 Providing IDs and Passwords on the Internet

[Issue]

Which regulations would apply with respect to exhibiting IDs and passwords in internet auctions, and the disclosure of this information on internet message boards, for the purpose of gaining access to and copying (installing) digital content and programs?

I. Approach

1. Contractual regulations

Where a contract has been concluded between a provider and a user that prohibits communication of IDs and passwords to third parties, users who sell or disclose IDs or passwords on the internet bear contractual liability (liability for the non-performance of contractual obligations).

2. Regulations based on the Unauthorized Computer Access Act

Where IDs and passwords are provided for the purpose of using computers via the internet, it is prohibited by the Unauthorized Computer Access Act to leak IDs or passwords to a person other than the authorized user¹ of such IDs and passwords and the issuer of such IDs and passwords, unless there are justifiable reason such as operations.

3. Regulations based on the intellectual property laws

The sale or disclosure of IDs and passwords on the internet is deemed not to constitute unfair competition with respect to technical sanctions, but may be regarded as an act to facilitate the infringement of reproduction right, on the ground that such act foments the infringement of such rights.

4. General Tortious Acts

A person or company who has disclosed or provided IDs, passwords, serial numbers etc. on the internet may be liable for compensation of damages pursuant to the provision on tortious acts (Article 709 of the Civil Code).

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Businesses impose technical sanctions (known as “access controls”) on the

¹ “Authorized user” as used herein refers to a user who has obtained permission to use other computers from the person who is authorized to grant applicable IDs and passwords for use of said computers.

viewing, listening, and usage of digital contents and programs (hereinafter referred to as “Content”), as well as technical sanctions on copying (e.g., installation; known as “copy controls”), and by providing content only to users who pay a fee and who are given access based on user IDs, passwords, product IDs, serial numbers, and the like (hereinafter referred to as “IDs/Passwords”) by which technical sanctions can be removed (in some cases, the users establish specific IDs/Passwords). Users can then use their IDs/Passwords to view, listen, use, or copy (hereinafter referred to as “Accessing and Copying”) the Content.

With the growth of the internet, IDs/Passwords are being sold and disclosed by means of internet auctions and internet message boards which allow access to and the copying of Content. Moreover, methods to avoid technical sanctions for the purpose of Accessing and Copying Content (know-how), in the form of documented information such as manuals (hereinafter referred to as “Circumvention Manuals”) are also being sold and disclosed. As a result, businesses, which provide access to and the copying of Content for the payment of a fee, are experiencing revenue losses.

What types of legal regulations exist with respect to the sale and disclosure on the internet of IDs/Passwords and Circumvention Manuals?

This section discusses IDs/Passwords for Accessing and Copying Content, which is being provided in the market for commercial purposes, but does not concern security numbers for banking cash cards, passwords for the control of corporate trade secrets, or the like.

2. Contractual regulations

In some cases, contracts may be concluded between providers and users specifying that IDs/Passwords may not be provided to third parties upon provision of the IDs/Passwords. In such cases, users who sell or disclose such IDs/Passwords on the internet bear contractual liability (liability for the non-performance of the main obligations; Article 415 of Civil Code).

3. Regulations under the Unauthorized Computer Access Act

Where a person can connect via a network such as the internet to a computer that can be used by entering distinct codes such as IDs/Passwords, and where such use is made possible by entering the distinct codes of another person without authorization, such acts are prohibited as acts of unauthorized access and punishable by law (Articles 3 and 11 of the Unauthorized Computer Access Act). Specifically, the act of entering the distinct code of another person without authorization and any action which can be classified as an “attack on a security loophole” constitute such an action. As used herein, in order to be a

distinct codes two requirements must be satisfied. A distinct code must allow access to: (1) information which allows specified usage that differs for each individual user; and (2) information that cannot be used by anyone other than such other person. As used herein, “specified usage” means use via an electronic telecommunications line such as the internet, whereby no limits exists on usage and where Accessing and Copying Content can be performed.

The acts of providing the IDs/Passwords to a person other than the authorized user of the IDs/Passwords and the issuer of the IDs/Passwords without any justifiable reason such as operations are prohibited as acts that promote unauthorized access (Articles 4 and 9 of the Unauthorized Computer Access Act). Moreover, the provisions of this information is prohibited by any and every means both online and offline. It does not matter whether such acts result in financial gain.

The act of obtaining someone else’s identification code for the purpose of using it for unauthorized access, and the act of retaining the ID/password obtained wrongfully for the aforementioned purpose are prohibited as the wrongful obtaining of someone else’s identification code and the wrongful retention of someone else’s identification code, leading to criminal punishment (Article 4, Article 6 and Item 1, Article 12 of the Unauthorized Computer Access Act).

Accordingly, for IDs/Passwords whose purpose is to provide access to other computers by means such as the internet, the Unauthorized Computer Access Act bars the sale or disclosure of such IDs/Passwords via the internet to a person other than the authorized user of the IDs/Passwords and the issuer of the IDs/Passwords without any justifiable reason such as operations.

4. Regulations under the intellectual property laws

(1) Unfair Competition Prevention Act

(i) Unfair competition against technical protections

Under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act (Act No. 47 of 1994, "*fusei kyousou boushi hou*" in Japanese), where measures are taken for business reasons to restrict access to and the copying of Content by electronic means (technical protections (Paragraph 7, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act)), the act of assigning (including, in the case of programs, providing via electronic telecommunications lines) devices or programs with a function (in the case where such devices or programs have other functions than the function concerned here, this applies only to the function which is used to enable viewing of image etc., by interfering the effect of the restricting technology concerned) to enable unauthorized access or copying by means of circumventing the effects of such technical protections,

constitutes unfair competition (Items 10 and 11, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). Those who performed such an act are subject to civil liability (Articles 3 and 4 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act) and criminal liability (Item 4, Paragraph 2, Article 21 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act).

Nevertheless, properly inputting such IDs/passwords into a computer in order to obtain a certain result conceived in advance does not constitute improper use of the computer. Therefore, as a rule, proper use of IDs/Passwords does not constitute an act circumventing the effects of technical protections.

Items that are the focus of unfair competition include only devices and programs. As used herein, “programs” mean combination of structured orders, by which one can obtain certain results (Paragraph 8, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). IDs/Passwords are simply strings of letters, numbers, or symbols, and constitute neither programs nor devices.

Similarly, Circumvention Manuals constitute neither programs nor devices.

Therefore, the act of assigning IDs/Passwords or Circumvention Manuals is not deemed to constitute unfair competition with respect to technical protections.

(ii) Unfair competition related to trade secrets

Under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act, trade secrets: (1) are managed as secrets (confidentiality); (2) constitute valuable technical or business information for business activities (value); and (3) are not in the public domain (non-public) (Paragraph 6, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act).

If the information is regarded as a trade secret, whether the acquiring of the secrets will be held as an act of unfair competition will depend on how the trade secrets were acquired. If the information was acquired by means of theft, fraud, coercion, or other improper means (hereinafter referred to as an “act of unfair acquisition”), or if a person acquired certain information from third parties and was aware of or very negligently unaware of the fact that such third parties had acquired the information by an act of unfair competition, his/her act of acquisition, use or disclosure of such information constitutes an act of unfair competition (Items 4 and 5, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). If a person acquired certain information from third parties and it was only after acquiring this information that he/she became aware of the fact that the third parties had

acquired it by an act of unfair acquisition (or if he/she remained unaware of such fact due to gross negligence), the act of using or disclosing the information would constitute an unfair competition (Item 6, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act). However, the acquiring of information by reverse engineering is not regarded as an act involving improper means.

If any actual or threatened financial loss is incurred as a result of unfair acts relating to trade secrets, the victim of the loss may claim an injunction or compensation of damages against the party committing such unfair acts (Articles 3 and 4 of the Unfair Competition Prevention Act).

(A) IDs/Passwords

Trade secrets are determined by whether the item of information satisfies the relevant legal requirements. For example, where a business, who employs IDs/Passwords as a technical protection to the access of Content, grants the same IDs/Passwords to multiple users without imposing any condition that such IDs/Passwords shall not be provided to third parties, users are unlikely to be aware of (1) any confidentiality requirement and (2) the non-public nature of the information, rendering it difficult to regard such IDs/Passwords as trade secrets.

If such persons grant different IDs/Passwords to each person on the condition that such IDs/Passwords shall not be provided to third parties, the requirements of (1) confidentiality and (3) non-public nature may be satisfied. In addition, as the IDs/Passwords have value as regards their role in the business, the IDs/Passwords would consequently be regarded as trade secrets.

(B) Circumvention Manuals

Methods of circumventing technical protections, in order to access or copy Content that satisfies the criteria of (1) confidentiality, (2) value, and (3) non-public nature, may be regarded as trade secrets.

(2) Copyright Act

(i) Circumvention of Technical Protections

Under the Copyright Act, any person is prohibited from transferring to the public the ownership of, or renting to the public, manufacturing, importing or possessing for transfer of ownership or rental to the public, or offering for use by the public, a device or a reproduction of a computer program whose the sole function is to circumvent technical protection

measures, or prohibited from transmitting to the public, or making transmittable, the aforementioned computer program (in the case where such a device or a program has other functions than the function concerned here, this applies only to the function which is used to enable infringements of copyright by circumventing technical protections applied). Person engaging in these acts may be subject to criminal penalties of up to three years imprisonment with forced labor and/or fines of up to three million yen (Item 1, Article 120-2 of the Copyright Act).

As used herein, “technical protections” refers to measures based on electronic methods for blocking or obstructing acts which violate copyright (Item 20, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act), and which in any case are a means of blocking or obstructing the use of copyrighted works in a manner that infringes copyright (reproduction, public transmission, or enabling transmission). Protection technologies that just offer access control functions such as restrictions on the use of programs or control of the viewing of and listening to digital Content, fall beyond the scope of this definition². Moreover, the “circumvention of technical protections” means, by removal or modification of the signals provided in Item 20, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act, or by restoring the sound or video contents of copyrighted works, performances, phonograms, broadcasts or wire-broadcasts set forth in the same item of the Act which are converted into a format requiring a further conversion into the designated format (except where such acts are performed on the basis of the intention of the holder of the relevant copyright etc.), facilitating acts and/or removing any obstacles to acts which the technical protections were designed to prevent (Item 2, Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act).

However, properly inputting such IDs/Passwords into a computer in order to obtain a certain result that was built into the system does not constitute improper use of the computer. Therefore, as a rule, accessing digital contents with IDs/Passwords does not constitute an act of eliminating or altering the code for the purpose of circumventing the effects of technical

² The amendment to the Copyright Act in 2012 newly covered, as a technical protection, the encryption method that converts copyrighted works in a way that requires devices to convert such works again before these works can be used, and records on a recording medium or transmits these works. The encryption methods which newly came under protection included technologies to control reproduction and viewing on devices by encryption of contents such as cinematographic works by content providers (specifically, CSS and AACS for recording media, DTCP and HDCP for inter-device transmissions, and B-CAS Method etc., for broadcasting). These technologies have both copy-control functions and access control functions. On the other hand, technologies which only contain access control are not covered by the amendment as technical protections.

protections.

The focus herein is devices and programs, specifically special purpose items. “Programs” refer to “expression of combinations of instructions, by which one can operate a computer to obtain certain results” (Item 10-2, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act). IDs/Passwords are simply strings of letters, numbers, or symbols, and constitute neither programs nor devices.

Moreover, Circumvention Manuals constitute neither programs nor devices.

Therefore, the act of assigning IDs/Passwords or Circumvention Manuals to the public is not deemed to violate Article 120-2 of the Copyright Act.

(ii) Facilitating the Infringement of Reproduction Rights

If the software is downloaded or installed, a copy of the software will be newly created.

An act of fomenting the infringement of copyright may lead to liability for joint tortious liability pursuant to Article 719 of the Civil Code as an act of facilitating the infringement of copyright³.

Will the act of providing IDs/Passwords on the internet which are required for downloading or installing certain software, constitute an act of facilitating the infringement of reproduction right?

In order to discuss this issue, we will consider the following:

- whether the act of downloading or installing a certain software by entering IDs/Passwords that were acquired by improper means constitute an infringement of reproduction right under the Copyright Act;

³ Osaka High Court Judgment, February 27, 1997, p.131 of *Hanji* vol. 1624

“The Respondent Company does not operate the Device by itself, but repeatedly conducts a certain lease business which provides commercially used karaoke devices to users which are highly likely to infringe the representation and performance rights of musical works managed by the Appellant [omitted]. If the user uses this Device for providing karaoke music to their customers without being licensed by the Appellant, the user was aware that it violates the representation and performance rights of musical works managed by the Appellant. Alternatively, if he/she was not aware of it, they should have been, as it would be easy for such user to become aware of it.

In this particular case, the Respondent Company was aware of the fact that it continued to provide customers with karaoke services by using the Device without holding any license to do so. The Respondent Company continued and renewed the Lease Agreement and provided the Device, silently accepting the results of such infringement of copyrights. Therefore, the Respondent acted jointly with Appellants Noriko and Takashi in the aforementioned infringement of copyrights.”

“The Respondent Company failed this duty of care and continued to infringe the copyrights without taking any appropriate measures to prevent such infringement (omitted) and continued and renewed the Lease Agreement with [omitted] and provided the Device. This was negligence on the part of the Respondent Company, and therefore Respondent Company shall be liable for joint tort pursuant to Paragraph 2, Article 719 of the Civil Code on the ground that the Respondent Company facilitated such infringement of copyrights.”

- and;
- assuming that the answer to the preceding question is affirmative, whether the act of providing IDs/Passwords on the internet to the person who downloads or installs it constitute a facilitation of reproduction right.

(A) Downloading and installing a software by entering IDs/Passwords that were acquired by improper means

Firstly, we will consider the following based on cases where the entry of IDs/Passwords is required for downloading and installing certain software.

(p) The target software on the server is provided so that it can be installed directly onto the computer on the internet, however, the entry of IDs/Passwords is required in order to directly install the software.

(q) The target software on the server is not provided so that it can be installed directly to the computer, but an installer⁴ on the server is in a downloadable format for anybody⁵, and the user is expected to install the software by activating the installer after downloading such installer to the hard disk or any other media in the computer.

(q1) The entry of IDs/Passwords is indispensable for downloading the installer.

(q2) The entry of IDs/Passwords is indispensable for installing the target software by activating the installer which has been downloaded to the hard disk.

(r) The entry of IDs/Passwords is indispensable for installing the target software onto the computer from a CD-ROM or any other media in which the target software is stored.

In each of the cases listed above, the act of downloading or installing the target software constitutes an act of reproduction.

In the acts of installment described in (p),(q2),(r), the target software is

⁴ In this document, “installer” means a program which includes all the programs necessary to enable the computer to work with the target application program.

⁵ Typically, a software producer operating a publicly accessible website sets up a link to a free access installer.

reproduced in the hard disk drive of the computer, while in the case of (q1), downloading the installer results in a reproduction of the installer. Therefore, all of these acts constitute an act of reproduction.

Secondly, we will consider whether or not it constitutes an infringement of the reproduction right under the Copyright Act to download or install certain software by entering IDs/Passwords that were acquired by improper means.

X) In the cases of (p) and (q1)

As a rule, the act of installing the software by using IDs/Passwords which were acquired by improper means is considered to be an infringement of the reproduction right under the Copyright Act.

This is because, where the entry of IDs/Passwords are indispensable for installing a certain software, the copyright holder of such software is generally considered to have allowed those who enter the IDs/Passwords after properly acquiring them to install it. Therefore, the act of installing a software by using IDs/Passwords which were acquired by improper means is considered to constitute an infringement of the reproduction right, unless it is exceptionally permitted as in the case of reproduction for the purpose of personal use under the Copyright Act).

Y) In the cases of (q2) and (r)

Firstly, the copyright holder should be regarded as permitting the downloading of the installer as it may be installed freely without any restrictions. Therefore, it is difficult to argue that such act of downloading the installer constitutes an infringement of reproduction right under the Copyright Act.

On the other hand, in the case of an act of installment of software, the owner of the installer, which is a reproduction of the copyrighted program, fabricates the target software by the act of installment. Therefore, whether Paragraph 1, Article 47-2 of the Copyright Act is applicable becomes an issue.

However, as the installer contains the whole of the program to be installed, and works as a medium for reproducing the program to be installed, it would be difficult to argue that the owner of the installer is

not the “owner of the reproduced program” to be installed⁶.

For the reason explained above, in the case of (q2), the act of installing a software by using IDs/Passwords which were acquired by improper means is not considered to constitute an infringement of the reproduction right. The same logic will be applicable to (r).

In addition, such act of installing is not considered to constitute an infringement of the rights of adaptation because the fundamental function of the program itself is not modified at all.

Z) Conclusion

Where the entry of IDs/Passwords is required for installing a software directly through the internet or downloading an installer through the internet, the act of installing or downloading such software by using IDs/Passwords which are acquired by improper means constitute an infringement of the reproduction right. These acts will only be permitted as in the case of reproduction for the purpose of personal use under the Copyright Act (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act).

In addition, where a person installs software which he/she obtained by way of downloading an installer or in the form of a CD-ROM after entering an ID or password he/she accessed by an unfair method, he/she may be liable for tort in general, even if such installing in itself does not constitute an infringement of copyrights.

(B) Providing IDs/Passwords through the Internet

Some may argue that in cases of infringement of the reproduction rights such as (p) and (q1), that the act of providing IDs/Passwords which are indispensable for reproduction to the general public through the internet may be considered as equivalent to causing such website audience to reproduce such software, in other words to use them as a tool for committing an unauthorized reproduction of the software, and thus such act in itself constitutes an infringement of reproduction rights.

However, whether or not such software is illegally reproduced by using the IDs/Passwords provided on the internet entirely depends on the voluntary will of that internet audience, and the party providing such IDs/Passwords may not be considered as controlling or managing the

⁶ p.494 of “Copyright Act Commentary (First Volume)” (*chosaiken hou konmenta-ru (joukan)*) in Japanese) by Koji Fujita; p.377 of “Detailed Explanation of the Copyright Act, (Third Edition)” (*shoukai chosaiken hou dai 3 han*) in Japanese) by Fumio Sakka

internet audience, and therefore the party providing such IDs/Passwords would not be regarded as infringing the reproduction rights⁷.

On the other hand, as IDs/Passwords are indispensable for such reproduction, the act of providing such IDs/Passwords should be regarded as illegal on the ground that the act facilitates the infringement of reproduction rights, unless personal use would normally be the sole purpose for the reproduction such as in the case of a simply structured game for individual amusement.

Therefore, in the case of (p) and (q1), we cannot deny the possibility that the assignment of IDs/Passwords and Circumvention Manual to the general public may be regarded as an act of facilitating the infringement of reproduction rights because that assignment tends to foment the infringement, except in cases personal use would normally be the sole purpose for such reproduction.

5. General Tortious Acts

(1) General Tortious Acts

A person who, by intention or by negligence, has infringed the rights or legally protected benefits of others shall be liable for compensating the damages incurred by such infringement (Article 709 of the Civil Code).

It may be argued that if a person commits an act which is not in breach of any specific statutes such as the Copyright Act or the Unfair Competition Prevention Act each of which specifically set forth various rights, such act is, as a rule, not regulated by law, and thus it does not generally constitute a tort, unless the purpose of such act is his/her own unjust enrichment or to cause

⁷ Judgment of Tokyo District Court, May 16, 2000, *Hanji*, no.1751, p.128

“As a general matter, even where a person does not commit a certain act by himself/herself, if such person has so strong control over such act that he/she can be regarded as “causing another person to act as his/her tools”, the person, who does not commit the act by himself/herself, can be legally regarded as substantially committing the act by himself and further as liable for such action. The Plaintiff’s allegation in the former paragraph in (1) above can be approved on the ground that the aforementioned general theory should be applied to the act of “reproduction” under the Copyright Act.

As with the relationship between the Defendant, sending the sound source in the Program and the receiver of such sound source who records it on MD, the only agreement that exists by and between these parties is that the Defendant shall license the receiver to receive such Program and the receiver shall pay certain amount of consideration for receipt of such Program. There is no agreement on the receiver’s recording of the sound source. Whether or not to record the sound source depends on the receiver’s voluntary will, and the receiver will record it at its discretion by preparing the equipments for recording. Considering that the Defendant has no way to exercise any control over the receiver’s decision making, therefore, it is evident that the relationship between the Defendant and the receiver shall not be so constituted that the Defendant has control over the receiver’s act of recording to the extent that the Defendant is regarded as causing the receiver to record the sound source on MD as if the receiver were the Defendant’s tool.

damages to others⁸.

However, the scope of tortious liability for should not be limited to cases where certain statutorily prescribed rights, which, in a narrow sense have been infringed, but shall be extended to cases where any interests worthy of legal protection have been infringed⁹.

(2) Analysis of the Example

Question: Where a person sells or discloses an ID and/or password etc. necessary for the installation and running of the software, will he/or she be liable in tort?

The vendor (i.e. license holder/copyright holder) of software often requires its users to enter an ID and/or password for the installation and running of the software. Such measure is in place so that only the authorised users who have duly paid for the use of the software can access it.

If the ID and/or password are disclosed or provided on an internet message board against the vendor's consent, anybody who has viewed the message board and thus possess the ID and/or password will be able to utilize the without paying any compensation to the vendor.

This will cause the vendor to lose revenues from the sales of the software. Consequently, the vendor will not be able to recover the financial and capital investments he/she has made for the development and the sale of the software and a considerable financial loss will result. The vendor's entitlement to the profit derived from the value of the software should be legally protected.

The distribution of an ID and/or password to the public will cause significant damages to the vendor. Therefore, such distribution of the ID

⁸ Separately from the examples referred to in this document, the judgment of Tokyo District Court dated March 24, 2004; *Hanji*, no.1857, p.108; *Hanta*, no.1175, p.281, where the information released on the internet by the Plaintiff (index) were ruled as not being a copyrighted work, refers to the liability for tort as follows:

“The “YOL index” is the information which the Plaintiff released on the internet free of charge. Considering the fact that, as explained in the foregoing, the Copyright Act etc. does not grant any exclusive right to the Plaintiff, such information can be used freely by third parties. The use of information released on the internet will not be held illegal, except in special cases such as that the purpose of such use is to obtain unjust profits, or to cause damage to the Plaintiff.”

⁹ The judgment of Intellectual Property High Court dated October 6, 2005; 2005(*ne*)10049 (unreported caselaw, can be consulted on the court's website) (appeal trial judgment of the Tokyo District Court judgment dated March 24, 2004), referred to above ruled that “The scope of the Act of tort (Article 709) shall not be limited to the infringement of rights specifically prescribed in the statute such as the Copyright Act, but shall include any illegal infringement of interests which are worthy of legal protection.”

There are also other judicial precedents which affirmed the liability for tort while denying that the target work was copyrighted (Judgment of Tokyo High Court dated December 17, 1991; *Hanji*, no.1418, p.120).

and/or password is a socially-unacceptable and illegal conduct, even after taken into account the rights to freedom of speech and free competitions of the person who engages in the distribution.

Therefore, the distribution of the ID and/or password may be held illegal and constitute a tort under Japanese laws, because it causes financial damage to the vendor in his business activities. On this basis, such an act may be held illegal and may constitute a tort. This is, however, subject to exceptions in special circumstances such as where the disclosure of ID and/or password will not be sufficient to access the software.

Therefore, where a person sells or discloses an ID and/or password etc. necessary for installation and running of software, he/she may be held liable for torts on the ground that he/she has the intent to cause financial damage to the vendor.

II-8 Acquisition of Personal Information via the Internet

[Issue]

What legal problem will arise when the business entity acquires personal information from the users via the internet?

I. Approach

Where the internet is used for business, the entity performing the business (“business entity,” or *jigyo-sha* in Japanese) commonly directly acquires certain personal information from the users via the internet and uses it in the form of a database.

Where the business entity acquires personal information by which individuals can specifically be identified directly from users via the internet through, e.g., membership registration, such business entity is under an obligation to specify and clarify to the maximum extent possible the ultimate purpose for which such personal information is used. It might be considered illegal to acquire personal information from users without disclosing such fact, e.g., where a business entity checks, by using cookies, certain available information such as website browsing history against personally-identifying information registered when they subscribed for a membership etc. without their knowledge. This is because such conduct does not comply with Articles 17 and 18 of the Personal Information Protection Act or may constitute a tort or other cause of action under the Civil Code on the grounds of invasion of privacy. Additionally, it might also be illegal to acquire personal information from children using a website, taking advantage of their lack of judgment or comprehension and of their parents’ ignorance of such fact. This is because such conduct does not comply with Article 17 of the Personal Information Protection Act, or may constitute a tort under the Civil Code on the grounds of invasion of privacy.

In addition, the acquisition of sensitive information, including but not limited to physical and mental disorder, or criminal records which would lead to social discrimination in a form where particular individuals may be identified might be illegal on the grounds of invasion of privacy unless such individuals specifically give consent thereto and such acquisition is reasonably needed.

Furthermore, the use of spyware programs installed against the will of the user by which his/her personal information is acquired and transmitted to third parties might be considered illegal because such conduct constitutes the acquisition of personal information by improper means.

Example of cases where the acquisition of personal information might be illegal

- A business entity utilizes personal information obtained when users subscribed for a membership or conducted internet trading, etc., or users' website usage history including browsing or searching history that is tracked by, e.g., a cookie, but such tracking was not disclosed to the users in such a manner that they could become aware of it.
- A business entity collects information (e.g. amount of allowance, private school and after-school lessons and the name of the commuting school) by using a website designated for elementary school pupils with the intent of assessing their family's economic conditions under the pretext of a questionnaire for application for a prize offer, and then uses such information for marketing without disclosing such purpose in such a manner that the targeted elementary school pupils can become aware of it.
- A business entity acquires a user's personal information such as its ID or password by using a spyware program installed without the user's permission whereby the user's personal information can be obtained by the operator and transmitted to third parties.
-

Example of cases where collecting information about individuals may be considered lawful

- With respect to e-learning services designated for elementary school pupils for which contracts are executed with the consent of their parents, a business entity operating such services acquires pupils' personal information that is reasonably related to the test results or otherwise to the purpose of e-learning.
- A business entity providing assistance in computer use instructs its customers to install, pursuant to the executed agreement, software for remote support and arrange so that the information related to operating procedures or files on the computer will automatically be transmitted to such entity for the purpose of instructing how to use the computer and detecting errors.
- Example of cases which will not fall under the acquisition of personal information
- In regard to advertisements for which fees will be paid in accordance with performance, an advertisement agency tracks the website usage history of users who clicked on banner advertisements by using a cookie in order to confirm whether or not they purchased products from the advertiser's

website, but the agency has no information that could identify particular individuals.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

In internet businesses such as internet trading, information retrieval sites, reference material request services, questionnaire and market surveys and mail magazines, business entities often obtain personal information directly from users via the internet, and further utilize such information by compiling a database.

In the real world, as a rule, personal information is acquired in such a way that individuals can themselves understand and control any personal information obtained by others (e.g., by filling in documents themselves). However, on the internet, personal information including users' website usage history is often obtained in such a manner that they cannot easily recognize the fact that their personal information was obtained.

In addition, since it is difficult for parents to constantly monitor their children's use of the internet, parents' personal information may be obtained without their knowledge from their children who lack proper judgment.

Further, users' personal information may be obtained through software called spyware that has been installed without their permission, and eventually such information will be used for purposes such as marketing.

As described above, there are many problems peculiar to the acquisition of personal information via the internet that will not arise in the real world. Therefore, this section discusses the legality of the acquisition of personal information via the internet.

2. Applicable laws

Article 15 of the Personal Information Protection Act provides that "A business entity handling personal information shall specify the purpose for which such personal information is used to the maximum extent possible in handling personal information." Article 18 of the same Act imposes on such business entity an obligation to expressly specify the purpose for which the personal information will be used when it is obtained directly from the object person in writing, including electronically, and, where such personal information has been obtained in some other way, to disclose or notify such person of the purpose.

Under the Personal Information Protection Act, even where certain personal

information is acquired via the internet, if such personal information is collected in a form where particular individuals cannot be identified (e.g. collecting information such as website browsing history by using a cookie), the business entity is not obligated to disclose or notify the purpose for which the personal information will be used. However, even where a business entity collects information by which particular individuals cannot be identified, if it cross-checks, by cookie, such information against personally-identifying information registered when they subscribed for a membership etc. for purposes such as marketing without notifying them of such fact in a manner comprehensible to ordinary people, the conduct of such business entity might be held illegal on the ground of non-compliance with Article 18 of the Personal Information Protection Act.

In addition, Article 17 of the Personal Information Protection Act provides that “Any business entity handling personal information shall not obtain personal information by deception or an otherwise unjust method.” The definition of “unjust method” would be determined on a case-by-case basis in light of common practice as well as the purpose of the Personal Information Protection Act. The following methods may fall under the definition of “unjust method.”

(1) Acquisition of personal information by falsifying the intention or purpose of such acquisition

This is an acquisition of personal information by “deception”. Therefore, it will clearly be considered illegal.

In regard to websites designated for children, their faculty of judgment should be taken into consideration in order to determine whether or not the business entity “falsifies the fact or purpose of acquiring personal information”. Therefore, even conduct which would be considered harmless for ordinary websites designated for adults might pose problems in those designated for children. For example, if the business entity proactively publicizes the purpose of acquiring personal information highly seductive to children such as an invitation to a prize-competition, while nominally indicating the essential purpose of such acquisition in a manner understandable only to adults, the children will likely enter their personal information without understanding the purpose for which it will be utilized. Accordingly, the aforementioned act of acquiring personal information, taking advantage of children's lack of judgment, might fall under the acquisition of personal information by “deception.” Where certain personal information that is irrelevant to the purpose of the website, such as their parents’

occupation or income or their family's hobbies is derived from children, the legality of the method of acquisition of personal information may be questioned. This is because it is inappropriate to collect information through the website from children, rather than from their parents, without any reasonable needs for it, and moreover it is difficult for children to understand the purpose or seriousness of having their personal information acquired.

(2) Acquisition of personal information from the object person while concealing the fact of such acquisition

The act of acquiring certain personal information directly from users in a secret manner is highly likely to be considered illegal on the grounds of “unjust methods,” as prohibited in Article 17 of the Personal Information Protection Act in light of common practice as well as of non-compliance with Article 18 of the same, provided that it would be reasonably possible to acquire it after disclosing the fact of such acquisition of personal information. For example, where a product is sold and delivered to the consumer with an IC tag which can perceive information from remote places, personal information of the purchaser may be obtained without his/her knowledge¹.

Whether or not a certain method is categorized as an “unjust method” depends on the degree of significance of confidentiality in connection with the personal information obtained. For example, where a business entity acquires sensitive personal information including physical and mental disorders, or criminal records and any other information which will lead to social discrimination in a form where particular individuals could be identified, such acquisition of personal information might be held illegal, unless the object person gives express consent thereto and the acquisition of such information is reasonably needed.

Further, leaking such personal information or disclosing it to third parties without the consent of the object person might constitute a tort under the Civil Code on the grounds of invasion of the right to privacy². Even where

¹ “Guidelines for Privacy Protection with Regard to RFID Tags (IC Tag)” Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry and Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (June 8, 2004)

² The following is the major judicial precedents which affirmed the liability for tort for leaking personal information or providing it to third parties;

(i) NTT Telephone Directory Case (Tokyo District Court Judgment dated January 21, 1998, p.102 of *Hanji* Vol. 1646)

NTT had published names, telephone numbers and addresses of the Plaintiffs in the telephone dictionaries issued and distributed by NTT although they had requested NTT not to do so. With respect to this matter, the Plaintiffs claimed that they suffered mental damages due to the invasion of their privacy and filed an action against NTT with the Tokyo District Court, demanding, in addition to the compensation of damages for mental suffering, that NTT distribute advertisements to the recipients of such telephone directories by NTT,

the personal information is not leaked to any third parties, if the moral rights of the object person were infringed due to the acquisition of his/her personal information by an act which does not comply with the Personal Information Protection Act, the acquisition of personal information in itself might constitute a tort. Whether or not such acquisition of personal information constitutes a tort under the Civil Code on the grounds of invasion of the right to privacy rights depends on the degree of significance of confidentiality in connection with the acquired personal information. For example, where a business entity acquires sensitive personal information including but not limited to physical or mental disorder, criminal records which will lead to social discrimination in a form where particular individuals could be identified, such acquisition of personal information might be held illegal on the grounds of invasion of the right to privacy.

(3) Acquisition of personal information via the information retrieval site.

In connection with information retrieval sites, retrieved information would include such items as search words entered from a user's computer or his/her website usage history or IP address as well as cookie information which could identify the accessed browser. While the history of search words and

asking them to dispose of them on the ground of the moral rights. The Tokyo District Court ruled that NTT was liable for tort on the ground of invasion of privacy rights and ordered NTT to pay 100,000 yen as compensation for mental suffering.

(ii) Case of Leakage of Basic Resident Register Data of Uji City (Kyoto District Court Judgment dated February 23, 2001, p.17 of *Hanrei Chihojichi* Vol. 265, Osaka High Court Judgment dated December 25, 2001, p.11 of *Hanrei Chihojichi* Vol. 265, Final Appeal Rejected by the Supreme Court (*Jokoku-Fujyuri-Kettei*) dated July 11, 2002, p.10 of *Hanrei Chihojichi* Vol. 265)

Uji-shi planned to develop a medical examination system for babies by utilizing data in the basic resident register of which Uji-City was in charge. For this purpose, the development business was consigned by Uji-City to a private company, which further consigned the same to another company all the way down. Then, a part-time employee of the consignee (three-step consignments between Uji-City) made unauthorized copies of the data in the basic resident register and sold them to name-list distributors, who further resold them to other distributors. With respect to this matter, three inhabitants in Uji-City claimed that they had suffered mental damage due to the aforementioned leakage of data and filed an action against Uji-City with the Kyoto District Court, demanding compensation of damages for mental sufferings and attorney's fee. The Court finally ruled that Uji-City is liable for invasion of privacy rights and ordered Uji-City to pay 15,000 yen (10,000 yen as compensation for mental sufferings and 5,000 yen as attorney's fee) for each person.

(iii) Case of Lecture of President Jiang Zemin at Waseda University (Tokyo High Court Judgment on March 23, 2004, p.104 of *Hanji* Vol. 1855)

When President Jiang Zemin gave a lecture at Waseda University, Waseda University submitted a list of attendants of the lecture which described their student ID numbers, names, addresses and telephone numbers to the police for the convenience of security. With respect to this matter, the Supreme Court ruled by its judgment that submission of such list constitutes an invasion of the attendants' privacy rights (Supreme Court Judgment dated September 12, 2003, p.973 of *Minshu* 57-8) on September 12, 2003. The case was reversed down to the High Court from the Supreme Court rendered the final judgment that ordered Waseda University to pay 5,000 yen for each person as compensation for mental sufferings in consideration of the reasonableness of the purpose of disclosure and relatively low significance in terms of privacy of the targeted personal information.

browsing history imply the user's personal interests and thus they are highly private matters, cookie information or IP addresses alone generally are not enough to identify particular individuals. Therefore the acquisition of such information is in itself unlikely to pose serious problems in connection with the privacy or protection of personal information.

However, where customers ask a specific company to send them certain information or materials concerning real estate or secondhand cars by entering their personal information based on their search results, or where customers purchase products by entering their personal information after searching for them on a website, or where customers utilize the information retrieval site after logging into it by entering their IDs and passwords, which have links to the acquired personal information when they were registered as members, it is technically possible to check out the user's personal information against their history of search conditions or search words or contents browsing history.

If the operator of the information retrieval site acquires individual users' log information such as a history of search conditions or search words or contents browsing history in a form where particular individuals can be identified without disclosing the fact of such acquisition to them, such acquisition of personal information might constitute not only a tort on the grounds of invasion of users' rights to privacy, but also might not comply with the obligation to notify users of the purpose of use etc. and to properly acquire the personal information under Articles 18 and 17 of the Personal Information Protection Act, respectively. The reason for this is as follows:

- (i) It is difficult for general users to expect that information such as their search conditions or search words or browsing history will be acquired as personal information;
- (ii) It is likely that general users do not wish to have their search words or browsing history known by someone else; or
- (iii) For the purpose of search services, it is not necessary to preserve the log of search words or contents browsing history in a form where particular individuals can be identified.

(4) Acquisition of personal information via online shopping sites

As a rule, no problem will arise if a business entity operating an online shopping site acquires information pertaining to the clients who purchased products such as their addresses, names or credit card information or their buying history within the scope of the purposes specified and disclosed to the

users. Further, it would generally be reasonable for a retailer to analyze such personal information and use it for the purpose of individual marketing (e.g. sending e-mails to or publishing advertisements to individual clients based on each client's buying trends).

However, as mentioned in (3) above, users do not necessarily expect that their browsing or searching history in connection with the products, in addition to their purchase records, will be obtained as personal information. Therefore, if the business entity wishes to obtain such information by using cookies, etc., it must disclose the fact of the acquisition of such personal information by notifying the users to that effect, specifically indicating the purpose for which such information will be used.

(5) Acquisition of personal information via spyware programs

The user's personal information and the like may be acquired through certain programs installed without the user's permission. Such programs are sometimes called spyware. By its nature, unlike other application software installed intentionally by users, it is generally difficult for users to detect the operation of or delete spyware.

As mentioned above, it is not desirable, in light of the "Prohibition on acquisition of personal information by unjust methods" as referred to in Article 17 of the Personal Information Protection Act, to obtain any personal information without the knowledge of the object person. In this context, it is highly likely that obtaining personal information in secret by using a program the operation of which is hard to detect and which cannot be deleted easily by users would be considered illegal.

In particular, it is clearly illegal to steal personal information including IDs and passwords through a program installed without a user's permission, such as keylogger software (i.e. spyware that records and transmits key input information). Keylogger software is notorious for being abused in internet banking and in order to steal IDs and passwords.

In connection therewith, although it would generally be lawful to acquire users' personal information by using certain programs installed upon their consent, if they are not substantially considered as having given such consent, such acquisition of personal information is highly likely to be held illegal.

For example, some programs designed to acquire certain personal information are incorporated into other piece of software such as freeware (free software). Such freeware and incorporated information acquisition software is installed upon the consent of the user once the user has clicked the Agree button on his/her browser, and has consented to the acquisition of

his/her personal information referred to in the license agreement for the freeware. There is a question of whether such information acquisition would be considered illegal or lawful.

In this case, some may argue that such acquisition is not illegal because the object person has given consent to it. However, we should consider the following points, (i) the agreement on the acquisition of personal information is by nature completely different from that of license agreement, and thus the user generally cannot expect that such provisions on the consent to the acquisition of personal information is referred to in the license agreement; (ii) most users would not give consent thereto if they were aware of the provision on the consent to acquisition of personal information by spyware; and (iii) it would be, considered on the whole, somewhat fraudulent and unexpected by the users for such provision referring to consent to the acquisition of personal information to be inconspicuously placed in the license agreement.

In this case, the business entity should contrive ways of drawing the attention of users to the existence of the provision on the acquisition of personal information by, for example, indicating “Agreement on the License and Consent to the Provision of the Acquisition of Personal Information” instead of “License agreement.” If the business entity fails to do so, it would be generally difficult to consider the user’s clicking on the Agree button as his/her consent to the acquisition of personal information.

II-9 Portrait Rights and Publicity Rights on the Internet

[Issue]

Is the act of disclosing a photograph or image in which a person appears lawful? Is there any difference between appearance of general public and celebrities?

(Example)

1. A photograph or image of a concert hall with closeup of spectators (general public and celebrities) is disclosed on a website for the purpose of advertising a concert.
2. An image privately videotaped at a famous tourist spot in which unintended general public and celebrities appear is uploaded onto a website.

I. Approach

1. Case of general public

Even where images (facial appearance or figure) of a person appear in a photograph, if the graphic mode is reduced to the extent that the identity of the persons in the image cannot be identified, the portrait right will not become an issue. However, if each person is identifiable, as a rule, this would constitute an infringement of portrait rights, unless the infringement is within the extent which should be reasonably tolerated by the holder of portrait rights.

In Example 1, it would be necessary to utilize the image of spectators for advertisement purposes in order to convey the atmosphere of the concert. However, it is not possible to obtain agreement from all the spectators to appear in the photograph or image in advance. Moreover, the image is not utilized for the purpose of media report. Therefore, it would often be unable to argue that the infringement of the audience's portrait rights is outside the scope in which they should reasonably tolerate.

In Example 2, where, having regard to the purpose of the videotaped image and other relevant images, the person included in an insignificant portion of images, generally, the persons unintentionally included in the image would reasonably tolerate the infringement of portrait rights.

Further, if the utilization of another person's image unavoidably leads to the disclosure of his/her daily life and activities, he/she may be entitled to claim for injunction or compensation of damages on the ground of invasion of his/her privacy rights.

2. Case of celebrities

Although celebrities possess the rights of portrait and privacy as ordinary people do, it is possible that their tolerable limit of such rights is considered to be wider than the limit for ordinary people.

As can be seen from Example 1, however, celebrities' publicity rights would be infringed where their name or image is utilized for the sole purpose of attracting customers and amounts to taking advantage of their name recognition.

Therefore, it is highly likely that the act of utilizing the image of a celebrity for an advertisement on the website without his/her consent would be held as an infringement of their publicity rights.

II. Explanations

Taking photographs of the appearance and figure of a person, and publishing such photographs pose potential infringements of the so-called rights of portrait (the moral interest that one's appearance and figure are not to be photographed without one's consent), privacy and publicity. It is possible that whether the rights of portrait, privacy and publicity are protected and, if they are protected, the extent of the protection of such rights can differ depending on whether it is a celebrity or an ordinary person whose appearance or figure is photographed and published.

1. Portrait Rights

(1) Problem identification

(i) Protection of Portrait Rights

The Portrait right is not a right expressly defined by a statute. However, the judgment of Supreme Court of Japan, Full Bench, December 24, 1969; *Keishû*, vol.23, no.12, p.1625, ruled that "every person has, as part of his/her freedom in his/her personal life, the right not to have his/her face or other part of exterior (the "appearances") photographed without his/her consent. Aside from whether such right should be named "portrait right", the policemen are not permitted, in light of the purport of Article 13 of the Constitution, to photograph the appearances of individuals without due cause." This judgment substantially approved the portrait right as a human right protected under the Constitution.

The aforementioned judgment was followed by similar court precedents which substantially approved the protection of portrait rights. In this sense, it has been said that judicial precedents generally tend to approve the portrait right as a right. Finally, the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 1st Petty Bench, November 10, 2005; *Minsyu*, Vol. 59, No. 9, p. 2428 ruled that

although the court reserved a determination as to the naming of “portrait right”, it clarified that appearance etc., are the interests which are rights under private law and subject to legal protection, as it stated, “A person possesses the moral interests that his/her appearance is not photographed without his/her consent, which deserves legal protection,” and “It is proper to recognize that a person has the moral interest not to have photographs of his/her appearance etc., publicized without his/her consent.”

(ii) Scope of Protection of Portrait Rights

While approving the need for protection of the portrait right, the aforementioned Supreme Court judgment of 1969 states that “the right of individuals should not, however, be limitlessly protected against the exercise of state power. It is evident from Article 13 of the Constitution that such right should be limited in light of balancing with the need for maintenance of public welfare. Crime investigation is one of the state powers delegated to the police for the purpose of maintenance of public welfare, and the police bears the responsibility to exercise such power (see Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Police Act (*keisatsu ho*)). Therefore, even if the photographs taken by the policemen for the necessity of crime investigation happen to include the appearances of individuals in addition to the image of the suspects, it might be permissible depending on the case.” This judgment held that the protection of portrait rights may be limited to a certain extent. The aforementioned Supreme Court judgment of 1969 was rendered in a criminal case where; whether the police may lawfully photograph the participants of a demonstration march was in question. Subsequently, the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan in 2005 in a civil case recognized that there were some restrictions on the protection of the portrait rights.

The Judgment of the Supreme Court in 2005 was about the case where the appearance of a suspect in a criminal case was photographed while in a court session for disclosure of the grounds for detention, and the photographs were published on a magazine. The judgment ruled, “As photographing a person’s appearance is allowed as a legitimate journalistic work in some cases, to determine whether photographing a person’s appearance without his/her consent constitutes a tortious act requires comprehensive consideration of the social position and activities of the person photographed, the place where the photographing takes place and the purpose, form and necessity thereof. On basis of this consideration, a judgment should be made as to whether an infringement of the foregoing

moral interest of the photographed person exceeds the socially tolerable limit.” Further, “If photographing a person’s appearance is judged as illegal, the publicizing of photographs of the appearance should be a form of illegality, as such conduct infringes the moral interest of the person photographed.” Accordingly, the Judgment of the Supreme Court in 2005 took the stance that the illegality of photographing a portrait requires to take account of the weight of the moral interest in portrait and the act of photographing in order to determine whether a tortious act is committed through an infringement of the moral interest in portrait. The court found that the illegality is to be determined by indicating elements to be considered in such weighing and by judging if such an infringement of the moral interest of the person photographed exceeds the socially tolerable limit. These criteria suggest that it is an infringement of portrait rights to photograph (or videotape) another person’s image or figure without his/her consent or to utilize the photograph or image (regardless of whether or not it is a static or moving image. The same shall apply hereafter). However, they also provide that such acts may be permitted if the infringement on the person appearing therein is within the scope he/she should reasonably tolerate. Whether these acts are permitted shall be determined after comprehensive consideration of the circumstances such as the social position and activities of the person photographed, the place where the photographing takes place, the purpose and form of such photographing, the necessity of such photographing and so forth.

(2) Detailed Analysis

(i) Where the general public appears in a photograph or image, but each person cannot be identified

This is specifically, the case where the photograph or image has been reduced in graphic mode or processed by means of softening or mosaic. In this case, there would not be a problem regarding the infringement of portrait rights because the infringed party in itself cannot be identified.

Even if we were to assume that there is an infringement, the infringement of the rights of persons appearing therein is so trivial that it would not legally constitute an infringement of portrait rights except under special circumstances, irrespective of the necessity or method of utilizing such photograph or image.

(ii) Where general public appears in a photograph or image, and each person can be identified

Unlike the case of (i) above, a photograph or image in which each member

of the general public can be identified infringes the portrait rights of the general public unless there are specific circumstances that may show that such infringement is within the extent they should reasonably tolerate.

It is true that it would be necessary to utilize the facial expressions of the spectators for the purpose of advertisement in order to communicate the atmosphere of the concert hall and their satisfaction etc. to customers.

However, it would still be arguable whether it is necessary to utilize the images of the spectators in an identifiable manner.

It may be argued that the spectators who come to a concert hall can fully expect that they may be photographed or videotaped, and thus the infringement of their portrait rights incurred as a result of the utilization of photographs or videotape should be considered so trivial that they should reasonably tolerate it. However, it is not possible to say that all spectators who visited a concert venue have given consent to the photographing or videotaping in advance. Moreover, the purpose of such photographing or videotaping is not media report. Therefore, for the time being, if a photograph or image is utilized in a manner in which individuals can be identified, it might be held as an infringement of portrait rights.

However, the infringement of portrait rights can be assessed as being within the extent of reasonable tolerance in the case where the images have been personally videotaped at places such as tourist locations and happen to include unintended persons such as other tourists. The same can be applied in the case where the images taken, in light of the purpose of the videotaping (and other relevant images), do not include a significant portion of the image.

(iii) Where a celebrity appears in a photograph or video but cannot be identified

As it is not possible to identify who is the infringed party, there will be no issue relating to an infringement of portrait rights as is the case for the general public in (i).

(iv) Where a celebrity appears in a photograph or video and can be identified

As is the case for the general public, the moral interests of celebrities should be protected, and their portrait rights are recognized. An infringement of the portrait rights is possibly found in the case where a celebrity is photographed when s/he visits a concert venue as audience, as it cannot be said properly that s/he is consenting to such photographing.

However, for celebrities, the scope of tolerable limit may be found to be wider than that of an ordinary person; provided that, in the above situation, the celebrity is in a public place such as a concert venue or a tourist place rather than in a genuinely private space, the presence and acts of celebrities gather social attention, the use of their portraits can contribute to their visibility and level of attention they get to some extent, and celebrities are presumed to allow their photographs to be used to the extent that does not infringe their rights of publicity. Further, depending on specific circumstances surrounding photographing, celebrities can be found to give presumed consent to such photographing.

2. Privacy Rights

(1) Problem identification

In the case of the examples, if the utilization of another person's image unavoidably leads to the disclosure of his/her daily life and activities, the infringement of his/her privacy rights will also be an issue.

Although privacy is recognized to be under legal protection as a moral interest, the definition of its concept has not been properly established. In the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan concerning the case of "fish swimming in a stone" (Judgment of the Supreme Court, 3rd Petty Bench, September 24, 2002; *Shûmin*, No. 207, p. 243; *Hanji*, No. 1802, p. 60; *Hanta*, No. 1106, p. 72) the Judgment of the Supreme Court, 2nd Petty Bench, March 14, 2003; *Minshû*, Vol. 57, No. 3, p. 229; *Hanji*, No. 1825 p. 63; *Hanta*, No. 1126, p. 97, and the case concerning Waseda University's name list (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, September 12, 2003; *Minshû*, Vol. 57, No. 8, p. 973; *Hanji*, No. 1837, p. 3; *Hanta*, Vol. 1134, p. 98), privacy was examined and infringements were found, although the definition and requirements of the privacy rights were not clarified.

In light of these judgments of the Supreme Court, in any case, privacy infringement can be a problem in relation to the publication of portraits on the Internet. It is widely held that privacy rights should be analyzed separately from portrait rights¹. Privacy rights can be analyzed that way, however, the elements discussed in the aforementioned limitations of the portrait rights should be analogically considered for determining under what circumstances the infringement of privacy rights would be tolerated. We will not further refer to the infringement of privacy rights in this chapter².

¹ See e.g. p.163 of "privacy shingai to minji sekinin [revised and enlarged version]" by Minoru Takeda.

² Where an unidentifiable image of a person is disclosed together with his/her name or where the person appearing in such image is identifiable from the surrounding scenery, not his/her portrait rights, but privacy rights are infringed.

3. Publicity Rights

(1) Problem identification

(i) What is “Publicity Right”?

A “publicity right” is construed as the right of a celebrity etc. to exercise exclusive control of the economic interests and value (so-called publicity value) involved in the his/her personal identifying information, where such information such as his/her image or name attracts customers and thus promotes purchase of the products that are associated with him/her. This concept of publicity rights derives from the United States, however, they were substantially approved in Japan in Mark Lester case (the judgment of Tokyo District Court, June 29, 1976; *Hanji*, no.817, p.23; *Hanta*, no.339, p.136).

The judgment for the Mark Lester case states that “A person who selected to engage in an occupation such as an actor may be considered as having given comprehensive consent to the disclosure of his/her name and image to public. Therefore, so far as such person is concerned, there would be much less need for protection of the aforementioned personal moral rights. Further, considering that gaining popularity is the essence of such an occupation, a person like an actor normally wishes to have his/her name and images widely disclosed to public and thus he/she will not, unlike ordinary people, generally suffer mental damages due to the disclosure of his/her name and images. Therefore, the actor etc. is entitled to claim for compensation of damages on the ground of his/her mental suffering due to the unauthorized utilization of his/her name or images only where the method, manner or purpose of utilization is detrimental to his/her occupational reputation, fame, and public image or where any other special circumstances exist (for example, where the actor sticks to the belief that his name or images should never utilized for product advertisements).” This case held that the portrait rights and privacy rights of celebrities are limited to a considerable extent.

The judgment further states, however, that “although there is less need for protection of certain moral rights of an actor etc, he/she has certain interests that deserve protection in connection with his/her name and image, which are alien to ordinary citizen. More specifically, the name and image of an actor may, if they are utilized for the purpose of product advertisements, serve in favor of the advertisement and promotion of sales of products by virtue of his/her reputation in the society, fame, public image etc. From the viewpoint of the actor etc, he/she should reasonably hold the

interest, by virtue of the reputation he/she gained by himself/herself, to grant a third party on an exclusively basis the right to utilize his/her name or images in exchange for certain amount of consideration. Therefore, his/her name and image takes on, separately from the moral rights referred to in (1) above, a sort of economic interests (which should of course be protected by the tort law). Consequently, even where the actor etc. does not suffer mental damages due to the unauthorized utilization of his/her name or image, he/she is likely to be entitled to certain legal remedies on the ground of infringement of aforementioned economic interests.” In conclusion, the judgment further held that the celebrities should have exclusive economic interests to grant the right to utilize his/her name and image to third parties.

Judgments that have been delivered subsequent to the Mark Lester Case have consistently approved the basic approach taken in the Mark Lester Case in connection with the publicity rights of celebrities, although no statutory provision expressly mentions such rights. (Such court precedents include “Onyanko case”(Judgment of Tokyo High Court, September 26, 1991; *Hanji*, no.1400, p.3; *Hanta*, no.772, p.246), “King Crimson case” (Judgment of Tokyo District Court, January 21, 1998; *Hanji*, no.1644, p.141; *Hanta*, no.997, p.245, Judgment of Tokyo High Court, February 24, 1999; 1998(*ne*)673(unreported caselaw)), “Hidetoshi Nakata case” (Judgment of Tokyo District Court, February 29, 2000; *Hanji*, no.1715, p.76; *Hanta*, no.1028, p.232, Judgment of Tokyo High Court, December 25, 2000; *Hanji*, no.1753, p.130), and “Bubka Idol case” (Judgment of Tokyo District Court, August 31, 2005; *Hanta*, no.1208, p.247, Judgment of Tokyo High Court, April 26, 2006; *Hanji*, no.1954, p.47; *Hanta*, no.1214, p.91)). In the “Pink Lady case” (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 1st Petty Bench, February 2, 2012; *Minshû*, Vol. 66, No. 2, p. 89; *Hanji*, No. 2143, p. 72; *Hanta*, No. 1367, p. 97), the Supreme Court paid attention to a commercial value of the portraits concerned and recognized the existence of a publicity right as “the right to use customer attraction power exclusively” and as constituting part of the rights stemming from personal rights³.

³ No publicity right has been recognized for racehorses or “things” such as brand products, although the power of customer attraction is found in these just as is the case for the names and portraits of celebrities (the so-called “Gallop Racer case”, Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, February 13, 2004; *Minshû*, Vol. 58, No. 2, p. 311; *Hanji*, No. 1863, p. 25; *Hanta*, No. 1156, p. 101)

(ii) Relations with Freedom of Expression

In case of an expression using the name or image of a celebrity, in light of the significance of freedom of expression (Article 21 of the Constitution), there have been many court precedents that approve the publicity right of celebrities in connection with his/her name and image within a limited extent. The Tokyo High Court judgment dated February 24, 1999, a major judicial precedent (“King Crimson Case”) states that, where a name or image of a celebrity is utilized in speech or publication, “the introduction etc. of a celebrity unavoidably brings with it his/her power to attract customers. Since it is impossible to introduce him/her free of influence of his/her power to attract customers’ attention. Therefore, a person is regarded as utilizing a celebrity’s power to attract customer only if the sole purpose and effect of such utilization is solely focused on the procurement of the economic benefit or value derived from his/her power to attract customers. If such person simply introduces a celebrity or does something similar thereto, aware of his/her power to attract customers, such person shall not be considered as having utilized such power.” This judgment held that such person shall not be regarded as having infringed the publicity rights except in cases such person “solely” utilized the celebrity’s power to attract customers. The judgments subsequent to the King Crimson Case have generally maintained this stance (for example, Tokyo District Court judgment dated February 19, 2000, Tokyo District Court Judgment dated June 14, 2005)⁴.

The Supreme Court Judgment in the “Pink Lady case” ruled, “The portrait etc., of a person which have customer attraction power are, from time to time, used in news reports, articles, creations, etc., as such portraits etc., gather public attention. For this reason, there are cases where the use of such portraits etc., should be tolerated as a proper expression,” and

⁴ Tokyo District Court judgment dated June 14, 2005 (p.135 of *Hanji* No. 1917) states that, “However, the actual method of use of self-identifying information varies, for analysis of whether or not it should constitute an infringement of rights and remedies thereto, the interests of both parties must be specifically balanced in view of the conflicting interests such as the freedom of expression and commercial activities, and so emphasis should not be placed too much on the predominance of moral rights. More specifically, the contents and nature, the purpose and method of use of self-identifying information, and the significance of damages incurred by the individuals therefrom should be comprehensively examined.” This case argues that, for determining whether or not the publicity rights have been infringed, such publicity rights should be specifically balanced with a broader range of rights, not limited to the freedom of expression, while the King Crimson Case focused solely on the “freedom of expression” as the only conflicting interest.

“When the use of such portraits etc., exclusively aim to use their consumer attraction power, this amounts to an infringement of the publicity right and is illegal under the tort law,” and thus employed the “Exclusivity” standard.

The above judgment of the Supreme Court shows the following three typical case types where an infringement of rights is formed in accordance with the “Exclusivity” standard:

- (A) Where portraits etc., themselves are used independently as goods for viewing etc.;
- (B) Where portraits etc., are used on goods for the purpose of distinguishing such goods from other goods; and
- (C) Where portraits etc., are used as advertisement for goods etc.

Among the above three case types, the first and second types are the cases where portraits etc., are “commoditized”, whereas the third case is where portraits etc., are used for advertisement. For the purpose of preventing discouraging effects on expressive and creative activities as much as possible, the three types are an outcome of narrowing down and clarifying cases amounting to infringements of the publicity right⁵.

A judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan ruled that both rights of portrait and publicity stem from personal rights in the same manner, and that the publicity right is based on the “commercial values” of portraits etc. On this basis, the proprietary aspect of personality, “commercial value”, is distinguished from the “mental value” of personality, refined and extracted as a right, and a limited protection is offered to this right⁶.

(2) Detailed Analysis

In the case where a portrait of a celebrity is used for advertisement etc., in a website as in Example 1, this is considered to fall within the third type under the Supreme Court Judgment in the “Pink Lady case” (where portraits etc., are used as advertisement for goods etc.), and it is highly likely that this use is treated as an infringement of the publicity right of the celebrity unless consent of the celebrity has been obtained.

As the three types under the Supreme Court Judgment state “etc.”, not all cases are limited to these types. Even in the case where a portrait of a celebrity is not used

⁵ The supporting opinion of Judge Kanetsuki in the judgment of the same case explained, “The remedy for infringements of the publicity right is financial one, whereas different remedies are available where the use of names, portraits, etc., constitutes defamation or an infringement of privacy.

⁶ The supporting opinion of Judge Kanetsuki was, “It is not appropriate to determine general commercial use of portraits etc., as an infringement of the publicity right, and it is necessary to clearly narrow down the scope of what constitutes an infringement.”

directly for advertisement, there can be an infringement if such a case is considered to be substantially equivalent to the three case types in terms of illegality. Even on the presumption that expressions used as website contents are subject to the protection under “Expression” (Article 21 of the Constitution of Japan), if the extent of appearance of an celebrity in picture/video contents on a website is judged as substantially equivalent to the extent of such contents used for advertisement, such a case is likely to be recognized as “exclusively” using the customer attraction power of the celebrity’s portrait.

As Example 2 is not a case of using a portrait to utilize its customer attraction power, this does not pose a problem with the publicity right.

II-10 Copyrights on the Internet

Last Revised: September 2013

II-10-1 The Use of Copyrighted Work on the internet

[Issue]

Is it permitted to print, transmit by e-mail, or make secondhand use of the information on the internet?

(Examples)

1. Is it permitted to print the information on the internet provided by another person, or distribute the printed materials by duplicating them for members inside a company? What if they are distributed as data by internal e-mail instead of printed materials?
2. Is it permitted to use the copyrighted works on the internet by collecting or analyzing them without permission from the copyright holder?
3. Is the operator of an internet bulletin board authorized to make secondhand use of the information included on the bulletin board?

I. Approach

1. Cases where the information on the internet is printed or transmitted to another by e-mail

Most of the information on the internet, such as news articles, theses, company advertisements, photographs and images, and other types of information as well as the messages written on an internet bulletin board are copyrighted works. Thus, for using such information by means of duplication etc, the copyright holder's permission is necessary in principle, except where such duplication is for personal use by an individual (Article 30 of the Copyright Act), etc. Although many copyright holders implicitly permit the use of the copyrighted works in a manner normally acceptable for them, the users of such information should be careful not to infringe their copyrights, with discrete consideration of the type and nature of copyrighted works and the purpose and mode of use. In particular, if the information on the internet is posted without permission from the copyright owner (holder of copyright and/or related right), it is impossible that such act is implicitly permitted, as such information itself is infringement of copyright. Therefore, such act naturally infringe the copyright.

2. Cases where the copyrighted work on the internet is collected or analyzed

In case of providing the retrieval service or analyzing the information, the act of collecting the copyrighted works on the internet is considered to be possible

without permission from the copyright holder, on the ground that the disadvantage to the copyright holder is low and it is not for purpose of enjoying the expression of the work.

3. Cases where the operator of the internet bulletin board makes secondhand use of the information included on the board

It is difficult to consider that the writer of a message on an internet bulletin board will be deemed to have agreed, whether explicitly or implicitly, to all types of secondhand use by others simply because he/she wrote the message on the internet.

On the other hand, it is generally highly probable that the writer of a message will be deemed to have agreed to the secondhand use of information written on a board where ‘Terms of Use’ concerning the secondhand use is stipulated by the business entity providing the internet bulletin service in a manner easily recognizable for message writers (especially where some measure is taken to confirm that the message writers are aware of the ‘Terms of Use’)¹.

II. Explanation

1. Printing the information on the internet

(1) Is the information on the internet a copyrighted work, in other words, within the scope of legal protection by the Copyright Act?

In principle, where a work “expresses certain thoughts or human emotion in a creative manner”, as defined in Item 1, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act), even news articles, theses, advertisements, photographs and images fall within the definition of copyrighted works. ‘Creative’ here simply requires the revelation of personal character. Even if such information is not new, it can be deemed as creative. Therefore, except for the cases of right restriction provisions, such as duplicating for personal use (Article 30 of Copyright Act)² or citation (Article 32), as most of the information on the internet satisfies this requirement and will be regarded as copyrighted works, the use of such information by means of duplication or transmission to the public requires, in principle, the permission of the Copyright holder to use the information in such a way.

Printing information from the internet, regardless of the number of copies, even if a single copy is made for a circulating notice, shall fall into the

¹ The copyright holder’s moral rights and the tort liability under the Civil Code should also be taken into consideration ultimately.

² Even for personal use, it is considered illegal to download music and/or images in spite of knowing that they are illegally uploaded (Item 3, Paragraph 1, Article 30 of Copyright Act)

definition of ‘duplication’, because the act of printing is deemed as “reproduction in a tangible manner” (Item 15, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act).

The act of transmitting the information by e-mail to the members of a company by connecting the offices in Tokyo and those in Osaka with a special line or by establishing a VPN through the internet, or of displaying it on the INTRANET subject to common use both at the principal and branch offices, may fall within the definition of ‘public transmission’ (the Copyright Act Article 2, Paragraph 1, Item 7-2) or displaying to the public (Article 2, Paragraph 1, Item 17), as it may normally be received and perceived by a large number of people.

We should pay special attention to these modes of use, because they can be regarded as acts of duplication, public transmission or displaying to the public under the Copyright Act.

Note that the use of very short articles and messages (commonly called ‘*tanshin*’) in a news report simply stating facts such as personnel changes and obituaries, that would be expressed in the same way whoever writes them, does not infringe any copyright, since they are not regarded as copyrighted works (Paragraph 2, Article 10 of the Copyright Act). Further, the use of administrative agencies’ notifications, instructions and circular notes, and courts’ judgments, although they are copyrighted works, does not infringe any copyright either, as they are excluded from the protected categories under the Copyright Act (Article 13 of the Copyright Act).

(2) The mode of use, and implicit permission to use

The act of using copyrighted works such as of duplication, public transmission or displaying to the public will not infringe copyright, as long as such use is permitted by the copyright holder. The copyright holder may be, depending on the contents and the mode of use of their copyrighted works, deemed as implicitly permitting such use of copyrighted works.

It should be determined on a case-by-case basis under what circumstances the copyright holder is deemed as implicitly permitting such use, taking comprehensively into consideration the type and nature of the work, the purpose and manner of the provision of the information on the internet on the copyright holder’s side, and of the act of transmission and duplication on the user’s side, and what mode of use would be expected by the copyright holder, and the like.

Where the copyright holder displays information on a website accessed by anyone free of charge, he/she logically permits all that have access to the site

to view the information. So, the copyright holder will be normally deemed as having implicitly permitted the act of duplication by printing such information on the website in order to read it on paper, not on the screen, unless this is exceptionally prohibited by the copyright holder.

In addition, the act of using a printed advertisement on the internet etc, for a circulating notice, or of making several copies of the advertisement for distribution to members of relevant company sections for consideration of the purchase of certain equipment used in the company, will also be deemed as falling within the scope of the copyright holder's implicit permission, as such mode of use is normally expected and predictable. For the same reason, the act of transmitting the contents of such advertisement on the internet by e-mail to relevant company sections for the same purpose will be generally permitted as well.

The copyright holder of news articles and theses, displayed on websites accessed by anyone free of charge, will be normally deemed as having permitted any users to print them in order to read them on paper, so the act of duplication by printing them for reading on paper, instead of on the screen, will be normally considered implicitly permitted by the copyright holder, unless exceptionally prohibited by them.

On the other hand, it will be outside the scope of the copyright holder's expectation and thus not implicitly permitted to sell the printed news articles or thesis after duplication to a third party, or to distribute them outside the company as materials for reference for business purposes, even where they are accessed free of charge on the internet.

The distribution of multiple printed copies of information on a website that charges users to view it, or is accessible only for membership holders, to colleagues on paper or by e-mail after duplicating such information, is, generally speaking, contractually prohibited by the 'Terms of Use'. Such provision of such information free of charge is normally outside the scope of the copyright holder's expectations, and thus not considered as implicitly permitted, even where such duplication is not expressly prohibited by contractual clauses.

(3) Other Problems

As mentioned in (2), where technical measures are taken to limit or prohibit printing of a certain website, the copyright holder is deemed as expressly presenting his/her will to prohibit any duplication of the information on the website by a third party, even if the copyright holder seems to permit such a way of duplication implicitly judging from the manner the information is

provided and the manner that the user makes use of it. Thus, in these cases, printing such information is basically not permitted.

Printing is not permitted also in cases where the website clearly indicates that any duplication of the information on this site is prohibited, since the copyright holder's will is quite clear.

It should be noted that, if the information on the internet is posted without permission from the copyright owner (holder of copyright and/or related right), it is impossible that such act is implicitly permitted, as such information itself is infringement of copyright. Therefore, such act naturally infringe the copyright³.

2. Other cases where the copyrighted works on the internet can be used without permission

(1) Amendment of Copyright Act in 2009

In order to facilitate utilization of the copyrighted works, the Copyright Act was amended in 2009. The amended law, enforced on January 1, 2010, provides for the restricted right provisions that a certain use of the copyrighted works is not infringement of the copyright without permission of the copyright holder.

The following are main content of the restricted right provisions created the amended law:

- Public transmission conducted by the information retrieve service provider, in the process of providing that service, in order to provide the result of the collection, arrangement and retrieve of the information in the internet, accompanied by recording on the media, adaptation and URL provision (Article 47-6 of the Copyright Act, Article 7-5 of the Copyright Act Enforcement Order, Article 4-4 of the Copyright Act Enforcement Regulation).

As the information retrieve service has a certain significance as an infrastructure for promoting circulation of the copyrighted works and, if the information retrieve service is conducted on the basis of proper formalities, the use of the copyrighted works in that process may not be disadvantage to the copyright holders. For this reason, this is

³ According to the amended law enforced on January 1, 2010, even for personal use, digital recording of automatic public transmission in spite of knowing such transmission infringes the copyright is determined as infringement of copyright (Item 3, Paragraph 1, Article 30 of Copyright Act)

determined as a subject of the restricted right provisions.

- Extract for analyzing the information, recording and adaptation for statistic purpose (Article 47-7 of the Copyright Act).

In light of the social significance of the information analysis technology in the advanced information society, and as such act is not for enjoying the expression of the copyrighted works, but for the purpose of collection, statistic processing of the information, such act as temporarily duplicating the information of the copyrighted works on the recording media by using the computer for analysis of the information is determined possible without permission.

In addition, restricted right provisions, which are established in the amended Copyright Act, include creation of thumbnail to upload on the internet in case of transfer art works⁴ (Article 47-2 of the Copyright Act), temporary data storage in the cache servers or the like for prevention of transmission error (Article 47-5), necessary data duplication on the recording media in the technical process of data processing by computer in order to facilitate the efficient processing (Article 47-8).

(2) Amendment of Copyright Act in 2012

The Copyright Act was amended in 2012 with regard to the use of certain copyrighted works in service development/provision which inevitably involves reproductions on the Internet. The amendment introduced the provisions for right limitations, stipulating that the use of copyrighted works without authorization to exploit such works does not result in a copyright infringement in certain cases. The amendment has come into force since January 1, 2013. This amendment allows the unification of file formats of contents posted by users of bulletin boards, video-sharing websites and social networking services, and the reproduction of contents necessary for organizing data, without authorization (Article 47-9 of the Copyright Act).

3. Secondhand use of messages written on an internet bulletin board

(1) Are the messages on an internet bulletin board copyrighted works? (Whether or not they are protected by Copyright Act)

Whether certain information is copyrighted work, including a message on an internet bulletin board, shall be determined in the same way as ordinary

⁴ See “Thumbnail Images and Copyright” (II-10-2 of these Guidelines)

copyrighted works. Some argue that for a message on an internet bulletin board to be considered 'creative', it must be more highly original compared with other ordinary types of messages. However, such a narrow interpretation seems too restrictive. Rather, a simple revelation of the writer's personal character is enough. Note as well that it is not sufficient to argue that the messages on an internet bulletin board are outside the scope of copyright because they are commonly transmitted on a no-name basis⁵.

Therefore, the act of quoting such messages from an internet bulletin board in a newspaper, magazine or other publication, or of selling and distributing such information after recording them on electromagnetic media such as a CD or DVD, or of creating a movie based on such messages (hereinafter, collectively referred to as "the act of using copyrighted works") basically infringes copyrights.

Nevertheless, the writers of messages on an internet message board accessed by the public are by their nature deemed as implicitly permitting the operator of such board to transmit the contents to the public through the internet. As discussed in the aforementioned in 1, in many cases, implicit permission is given to the act of printing out the information on the internet.

On the other hand, in regards to other ways of using messages on internet bulletin boards, it is difficult to argue that the writers of such messages are deemed to have agreed to any secondhand use whether explicitly or implicitly, or waived his/her copyrights simply because he/she wrote such messages on an internet bulletin board.

Note as well that where the messages are not regarded as a copyrighted work, "the act of using copyrighted works" will never infringe any copyright of the users of the board.

(2) Where the internet bulletin board indicates the terms concerning the secondhand use of messages

What if the operator etc, of the bulletin board provides the terms concerning the secondhand use of messages (hereinafter, "Terms of Secondhand Use") on the website?

The same principle as aforementioned in I-2-1 "Effectiveness of the Terms of Use" of these Guidelines seems to apply, but some special consideration is necessary.

With regards to auctioning or brokering, or information services on the internet, normal users at least understand consciously that they enter into a

⁵ See 'Hotel Jankeys Case' (Judgment of the Tokyo High Court dated 29 October, 2002)

transaction whereby they must pay some consideration to obtain certain commodities or items of information.

In case of use of the internet bulletin board, different from the terms of use of auction site or service provision contract which are inevitably long and complex, the “Terms of Secondhand Use” alone require a much smaller amount of necessary information, and thus can be displayed in a conspicuous way. Therefore, in contrast to the Website Terms of Use prepared for general transactions, the “Terms of Secondhand Use” as terms and conditions on the use of the bulletin board, will be requested to be displayed on a location the user can recognize more easily.

(3) Analysis in detail

Just as we should be careful not to infringe another’s copyright whenever we simply use copyrighted works, special attention should also be paid to the infringement of moral rights, when the copyrighted work is to be used after modification. This means it is important to obtain permission of the copyright holder to modify copyrighted works, as well as to use them. The clauses concerning permission to use them in the “Terms of Secondhand Use” should be stipulated so that each mode of use such as the publication of or the creation of a movie from the copyrighted works is expressly defined to the maximum extent possible⁶.

Therefore, the user and the operator are deemed to have agreed to the mode of use where the browser is so configured so that the user must, prior to writing his/her messages on the board, present his/her will to agree to the terms of use by clicking on a confirmation screen saying “The operator of this bulletin board holds the right to publish the messages on this board without notification after their modification whenever needed (whether or not to disclose the names of the writers as well as the text of the message is subject to the judgment of the operator). The writers on this board shall entitle the operator to use the messages for publication and discharge the operator from any liability for infringement of copyright and moral rights.”

It is still contentious whether a special agreement for the copyright holder not to exercise any moral rights is effective or not. Even where the user is deemed as having agreed to such Terms of Secondhand Use, the use of

⁶ In the case of the assignment of copyright, simply ‘assigning the entire copyright’ allegedly means that the rights stipulated in Article 27 (the right for translation, adaptation) and Article 28 (The original copyright holder’s right for the use of secondhand copyrighted works) of the Copyright Act remain retained by the assigner. Therefore, in order to assign the entire copyright including them, the terms must provide as such expressly.

messages in a manner normally not permitted by users, in such in a manner that is detrimental to the copyright holder's reputation and honor, would be outside the scope of the agreement between the operator and the user.

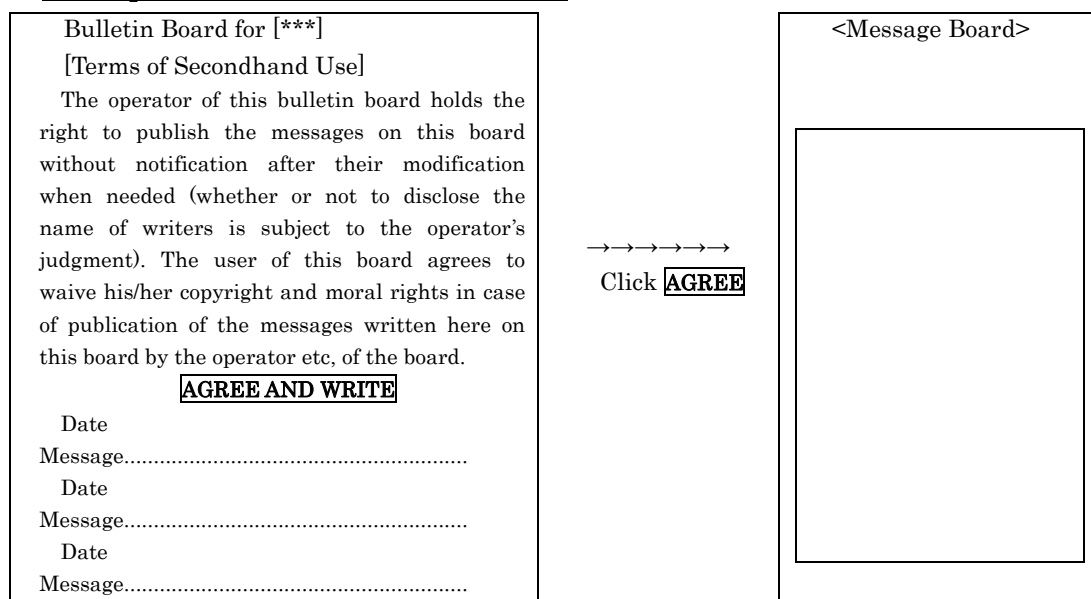
In addition to this, the information necessary for users to determine whether they agree to the Terms of Secondhand Use or not should be, as mentioned in 2 (1) above, indicated at a location easily recognizable for them⁷.

In contrast to this, where the internet bulletin board has a Terms of Secondhand Use not easily recognizable for users, no agreement is deemed to have been executed in the absence of an intention of the user to be bound by such terms.

More specifically,

- (i) The contents of the Terms of Secondhand Use are quite clear and measures are taken to confirm it.**

Example of Confirmation Measures



In this case (see the Example above), generally an agreement is considered to be valid. The purpose for which the messages on the bulletin board are used must be expressly stated in the Terms of Secondhand Use to enable potential users to determine whether they agree to Terms of Secondhand Use or not.

- (ii) Where the contents of the Terms of Secondhand Use are quite clear**

⁷ It is normally difficult to argue that the copyright holder has agreed also to 'the acts infringing moral rights of the copyright holder' as defined in Paragraph 6, Article 113 of the Copyright Act.

and easily recognizable

[Example 1]

Bulletin Board for [***]

[Terms of Secondhand Use]

The operator of this bulletin board holds the right to publish the messages on this board without notification after their modification when needed (whether or not to disclose the name of writers is subject to the operator's judgment). The user of this board agrees to waive his/her copyright and moral rights in case of publication of the messages written here on this board by the operator etc, of the board.

Date

Date

Date

<Message>

[Example 2]

Bulletin Board for [***]

Date

Date

Date

WRITE

→→→→→

[Terms of Secondhand Use]

The operator of this bulletin board holds the right to publish the messages on this board without notification after their modification when needed (whether or not to disclose the name of writers is subject to the operator's judgment). The user of this board agrees to waive his/her copyright and moral rights in case of publication of the messages written here on this board by the operator etc, of the board.

<Message>

If the Terms of Secondhand Use are indicated at a location easily identifiable on the browser, and include sufficient information necessary for potential users to determine whether they agree or not, such as providing the purpose for which the messages will be used (see the two examples above), the act of writing messages on the board by such users shall be considered acceptance of the offer to use the bulletin board in the manner specified in the Terms of Secondhand Use. In this situation, the agreement

is normally deemed as valid.

For such agreement to be most likely to be valid, the information to be disclosed should not be too large in quantity, and the screen should be configured so that the Terms of Secondhand Use appear on the website page itself (rather than only being accessible by clicking on a link to another page), and those terms should never fail to appear whenever the webpage is accessed.

(iii)Where the contents of Terms of Secondhand Use are not clear

The agreement shall not be considered valid.

(iv)Where the contents of Terms of Secondhand Use are quite clear, but not easily identifiable.

It is likely that the agreement shall be considered invalid.

Cases where the Terms of Secondhand Use are not easily identifiable for the users

The users reach the Terms of Secondhand Use only after moving from one website to another repeatedly with the aid of a 'link'

The location of the Terms of Secondhand Use is at the edge of the browser.

Where the user agreed to the Terms of Secondhand Use by mistake without gross negligence (for example due to miscomprehension of the Terms of Secondhand Use), even if an agreement has been concluded, such a writer of messages on the bulletin board is entitled to claim that such agreement is void.

II-10-2 Thumbnail Image and Copyrights

[Issue]

If a person displays copyrighted images in thumbnails, will he/she be liable for infringement of copyrights in some cases?

I. Approach

Where a person displays thumbnail images where the graphic mode and the size of an image is reduced to such an extent that the characteristic features of the original image can no longer be directly perceived, he/she may not be liable for any infringement of copyrights. However, in the case that the characteristic features of the original image can be perceived when viewing its thumbnail image, except of the cases when transfer or/and lease of a work of art is to be performed by a person, who creates and displays thumbnail and when legal quotation is allowed, he/she may be liable for infringement of copyrights.

II. Explanations

1. Problem Identification

The literal meaning of the word *thumbnail* means "the nail of the thumb." The term was originally used to describe a reduced-size sample of a page to convey the overall image of a completed printed material. The term thumbnail has since been used in computer terminology to describe an image of which size and graphic mode is reduced so that a number of images appear like a list on the browser, enabling the user to confirm the contents of a file before opening it in a computer. In particular, since the increase in popularity in internet use, a thumbnail image of reduced size and graphic quality often appear first, and the image of the original file size appears when they are clicked, as opening an image with heavy data is time-consuming.

The thumbnailed images of other websites (as distinguished from banners or text) are used as link buttons, which, when clicked provides a link to the website. This type of thumbnail image is called a thumbnail link¹.

While the thumbnail image is widely used on the internet such as where the thumbnail images are shown for image retrieving (where the thumbnail image is in itself preserved in the cache of the search engine), or where the image data

¹ Particularly, in the case of a thumbnail link when a thumbnail image is used as a link source, it is typical that 1 the thumbnail has reduced graphic mode and size, 2. by pasting link from the thumbnail image to the original image file, in many cases it is used for facilitating access to the original image in the file.

of the website which utilizes a domain is shown in a form of a thumbnail image in whois database² for domain names, disputes involving the use of thumbnail images do in fact arise.³

2. Detailed analysis

We will analyze cases where a copyrighted work whose copyright is owned by a different person is used in the form of a thumbnail.

When analyzing an act of creating and using the thumbnail, the method of creating a thumbnail image consists of the following: Firstly, (i) the copyrighted work that is intended to be thumbnailed is downloaded in one's own computer, (ii) a reduced image data (thumbnail image) of this copyrighted work is created, (iii) the thumbnail image is uploaded onto the server to which the link originates⁴.

In this section, we will discuss the acts of (i) through (iii) comprising of the issues concerning the thumbnail image itself.

(1) The act of photographing a copyrighted work such as a work of art etc. or downloading the copyrighted material intended to be thumbnailed onto ones own computer

The act of photographing and downloading a copyrighted work such as a work of art etc. or a copyrighted work from the internet onto a privately-owned computer falls under the duplication (Item 15, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act). Moreover, as for the detailed concerning the latter, we may reasonably consider this as referred to as "The Use of Copyrighted Work

² Database by which one can search who registererd a specific domain name. In general, when one searches a specific domain name, the registration information such as address, contact is represented.

³ Though these are U.S. precedents, but *Kelly v. Arriba Soft Corp.*, 336 F. 3d 811 (9th Cir. 2003), and *Perfect 10, Inc. v. Amazon.com, Inc., et al.*, 508 F. 3d 1146 (9th Cir. 2007).

Also, in German Federal Supreme Court on April 19, 2010, there was a judgment that thumbnail in search engines is not infringement of copyright.

In Japan, under the amended Copyright Act enforced on January 1, 2010, the provision of information in the internet by the search engine services is the subject of the restricted right to a certain extent (Article 47-6 of Copyright Act, Article 7-5 of Copyright Act Enforcement Order, Article 4-4 of Copyright Act Enforcement Regulations)

⁴ There are cases where by means of an application available on the server, the thumbnailed image is created after the original image is uploaded. We will not specifically discuss these cases as a similar approach would be used.

on the internet" in the II-10-1 of these Guidelines⁵.

(2) The act of creating a thumbnail image by reducing and displaying another person's copyrighted work

i) Duplication rights

When a thumbnail image is created, the graphic mode and the size of the original image data are reduced and a new image is created. We shall discuss whether this act falls under the "duplication" under the Copyright Act⁶.

Meanwhile, a copyrighted work is considered to have been duplicated only when the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work can be directly perceived from the duplicated work⁷.

In this regard, as stated above, a thumbnail image is an image created by reducing the graphic mode and size of the original image. As a result, the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work may not be directly perceived from the thumbnailed image⁸. For example, where the delicate color tone is an essential part of an image, if the reduction of graphic code

⁵ However, according to the interlocutory judgment of the File Rogue Case (Judgment of January 29, 2003 of the Tokyo District Court), where the initial purpose of duplication through was the public transmission of a copyrighted work, this duplication will constitute an infringement of the duplication rights (the judgment of appeal, Judgment of March 31, 2005 of Tokyo High Court, still supports this view).

⁶ Thumbnails may be compared to an "adaptation," where creativity is considered as an essential element because it is an act of creating a secondary copyrighted work. Alternatively, the act of creating a thumbnail image which simply involves mechanically reduced graphic mode and size are not likely regarded as involving such creativity. However, some argue that "It is meaningless, in discussing the elements that constitute the infringement of copyrights, to make a distinction between a duplication and a secondary copyrighted work" ("Overview on Copyright Act 2nd Edition" by Yoshiyuki Tamura, p.47). In fact, many court precedents discuss comprehensively "whether the right of duplication or of adaptation is infringed" without analyzing whether a secondary copyrighted work is creative or not. There would be little necessity to discuss whether the infringement constitutes a duplication or to an adaptation. Therefore, here our analysis shall be made on the assumption that the infringement constitutes the duplication.

⁷ The Supreme Court Judgment of September 7, 1978 for the Case of One Rainy Night in Tokyo states, "The duplication of a copyrighted material means the act of reproducing a work based on its original, from which the contents and styles of the original work can be perceived."

⁸ In this regard, there is a court precedent where, the court ruled that a small image of a calligraphy work appearing in a photo shall not constitute an infringement of duplication rights, or adaptation rights or the right of integrity (Tokyo High Court Judgment of February 18, 2002 for the Case of Setsugetsuka). For details, see the section "Disclosure of Photo or Image in which General Public Appears" herein.

impairs and simplifies the color tone, then such thumbnail image would not be considered as a duplicated work⁹.

On the other hand, if it is still possible to directly perceive the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work from the duplicated work despite the reduction of its graphic mode and size, then the creation of its thumbnail image will constitute an infringement of duplication rights. It is not an example case from the internet, but regarding the act of creating downsized image of a work of art, there are some court precedents¹⁰ saying that if the contents of the form of the work of art can be perceived, it is an act that can be considered as duplication¹¹.

ii) Right of Integrity

With regard to the right of integrity, whether a copyrighted work was altered "against the will" of the right holder is important (Article 20 of the Copyright Act).

As discussed in i) above, if the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work cannot be directly perceived from the thumbnail image,

⁹ See p.209 of "Annotation to the Copyright Act 5th Edition" by Moriyuki Kado.

¹⁰ Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court dated October 13, 2010, 2092 *Hanji* p. 136.

However, in this case, as the images were reduced into a quarter size of the original work (the length of each side was a half), it is Judgment of the Supreme Court for Intellectual Property dated 13 Oct. 2010, No.2092, p.136

But, the size of the downsized picture in this judgment is 1/4 of the original work (1/2 of the size, horizontally and vertically), so it can be said that in comparison with the so-called thumbnail image, the specific part of the copyrighted work could be easily perceived.

As said in the second part of this judgment, the quotation was not admitted as an infringement of the copyright, but against the statement of the suspect party, the court says that "The copy in this case is not a duplicate of the creativity of the beauty and impression that should be subject to the protection by the Copyright Act and it is just a symbol for prevention of illegal circulation of fake works, the copy in this case lacks the artistic beauty required for the "duplicate" as stated by the same law. The court says that "A picture is made of drawing an object, scheme, using colors and stroke touch and in general it comprises some creative elements, but since it is the artistic beauty that the appellant emphasizes, when making a duplicate of the contents and form that could be perceived from this picture, it means it includes also the artistic beauty of this picture and when making a judgment if it is an act of duplication, it is necessary to decide, if apart from copying the contents and form of the picture, also the artistic beauty is being copied" and the court did not recognize it.

¹¹ Judgment of Tokyo District Court dated November 26, 2018 (wa) No. 31480 determines the I nfringement of copyright in the case of the smaller images of art works published in the catalogue for auctions. In this case, the defendant did not assert the images were not duplications, but "citation" or "duplication for exhibition." The court did not approve it. However, this case was before enforcement of the amended Copyright Act on January 1, 2010.

the creation of the thumbnail image will not be considered as an act of utilizing, therefore, there will not be any infringement of the right of integrity¹².

On the other hand, where the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work could be directly perceived from the thumbnail image, if the graphic mode and size of the original image are reduced against the will of the copyright holder, then the creation of such thumbnail image will constitute an infringement of the right of integrity.

iii) The act of uploading the thumbnail image on the server

As discussed in ii) above, if the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work cannot be perceived directly from the thumbnail image, then the act of creating the thumbnail image is not an act of utilizing the original copyrighted work. On this basis the act of uploading the thumbnail image onto the server would pose no problems under the Copyright Act.

On the other hand, where the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work can be directly perceived from the thumbnail image, then the act of recording the thumbnail image in the server that is connected to the internet would fall under an act of "making transmittable" (Item 9-5, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the same law)¹³. Furthermore, the act of sending the thumbnail image automatically to the users who accessed the server falls under an act of "automatic transmission to the public" (see the same paragraph, Item 9-4).

3. Cases when copyright or copyright owner's personality are not violated

As mentioned above, the act of creating a thumbnail image of another person's copyrighted work and utilizing this on the internet would pose no problems under the Copyright Act, if the characteristic features of the original work cannot be perceived. By contrast, if the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work can be perceived directly from it, this would pose certain problems under the Copyright Act.

On this basis, we will discuss whether there are cases where the creation of thumbnail images from which the characteristic features of the original copyrighted work can be perceived will not be regarded as an infringement of

¹² "The Copyright Act" by Nobuhiro Nakayama, p.387

¹³ The act of accumulating thumbnail images on the server will generally be considered as a duplication.

copyrights or their moral rights (infringement of the right of integrity).

(1) The case when copyright of a copyrighted work such as a work of art is to be transferred

A person, who is an owner of copyright of a work of art, an original or a duplicate of a photograph, or a person, who owns a right for transferring or leasing copyright of these works, in case he/she wants to transfer or lease copyright of these works, in order to apply for this, he creates a thumbnail within the limits defined below and can upload it on the internet (the same law article 47, 2, executing order of the same law, article 7, 2, executing order of the same law, article 4, 2)¹⁴.

- (i) When duplication is done as a scheme, its size must be 50 square centimeters or less.
- (ii) When it is in a digital form, it must have 32400 pixels or less.
- (iii) Apart from the above written, the size of the or the form of transaction related to the works of art that are subject of the transfer etc.

In light of the other circumstances, it is the minimum limits needed for these application for the transfer or lease of these works and must be in accordance with the official customs.

Moreover, in case of uploading them on the internet, in case of providing a means for technical protection, the works of 90000 pixels or less are allowed.

(2) The case of using the work as a quotation

A publicized copyrighted work can be used as a quotation. But, “the quotation” must be in accordance with the fair practice and it is necessary to do it within the proper limits such as a quotation for the purpose of news, criticism, research etc. (the same law, article 32, paragraph 1).¹⁵ In the case of this kind of “quotation”, duplication of the copyrighted work and uploading it

¹⁴ Application of Article 47-2 (restricted rights provisions) will not immediately means no infringement of the moral right. However, in many cases, if application of those restricted rights provisions is approved, it may be considered that it is unavoidable adaptation and does not infringe moral rights.

¹⁵ In the same way as the above footnote, if approved as lawful as a citation under Article 32 of Copyright Act, it does not mean the moral right is not infringed, but in many cases, it may be considered as an “unavoidable adaptation.”

on the internet without consent of the owner of the copyright is allowed. Moreover, in general, it must be clearly distinguished if a quotation is to be done of a copyrighted work or copyrighted work is being quoted (clear categorization), it is important that the copyrighted work that a quotation is to be done of must be the main one, while the copyrighted work to be quoted must be subordinate (sub ordinance) to it¹⁶, and originally, a judgment if a quotation is done or not has been very strict.¹⁷ But, however, when judging if it is in accordance with “the fair practice”¹⁸ in the wording of article and “within the proper limits”, there are some precedents¹⁹ from court judgments that recognized the act is considered legal quotation under the Copyright Act, article 32. If the thumbnail images are to be recognized as a legal quotation, they can be used.

(3) The case when a thumbnail of an image on the internet is shown as a search result of the search service

The business subject offering information search services in the process of providing these services, in order to provide the search result of an image publicized on the internet, can make public transmission together with providing the URL (the same law, article 47, 6).²⁰

¹⁶ See Judgment Supreme Court Third Petty Bench dated March 28, 34-3 *Minshû* p. 244.

¹⁷ Also Judgment of Tokyo District Court dated November 26, 2018 disapproved the assertion of citation, saying that about the catalog in question, “its main content is evidently the images of artworks as the text represents just facts related to the works for reference.”

¹⁸ According to the “fair practice” means it is substantially an act of citation of the work in light of the nature, type of the work, purpose of citation, manners, and in addition, approved reasonable by common sense. It is necessary that the necessity of citation is socially approved (“Practice of the Copyright and related laws” by Copyright Act Group). Assertion of a common practice is not considered sufficient.

¹⁹ Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court dated October 13 is the case that the small image of art work attached to the certificate was sued as an infringement of copyright. The court says, “Attachment of the copies is to identify the picture and prevent the certificates from forging. To use a duplicate for certifying the work is included to the purpose of citation under the Copyright Act,” and “Each of the copies are put on the back side with a hologram sticker and processed by pouch laminate. It is hard to think that the copies will be separately used and distributed separated from the pictures. The use and the manner is within reasonable scope,” and in addition, “it is also hard to think the author loses opportunities for economic benefits with use of the right to duplicate the work. In the way and the manners such use is in accordance with the fair practice for certifying and the purpose of the citation is within the scope of justice.”

²⁰ See II-10-1 “The Use of Copyrighted Work on the internet” of these Guidelines.

(4) The case when a revealed consent is allowed

An image that is publicized on the internet is provided by the holder of the right in order to be accessed freely by anybody as a information on the site and it is thought that any person that makes an access to that site is allowed to freely read it and it is accordance with the idea written in “the use of the copyrighted work on the internet”.

However, as for the act of creating a thumbnail image from the image and using it, it is thought that there are cases when the owner of the copyright gives a revealed consent , but it is thought that it is different depending on the way of usage, when thinking if it is more than a mere reading and how far it should be permitted.

(5) Usage of a commercial photograph by a affiliate

In tha case when thumbnail image of a commercial photograph of an affiliate is used as a link button and a link is pasted to the on-line shop, it is understood that the on-line shop publicizes the commercial photograph an the net to be used by the affiliate and it is evaluated as being consented.

In the case when such commercial photograph is being shown as a thumbnail image and there are some critical comments, the problem can be if there is a consent or not. But, in the case when the usage has been allowed and it is publicized on the net, it is naturally within the limits of foreseeing that there will be some critical comments and it is thought that they are within the limits of the consent.

Moreover, even in the case when a person, who does not have an affiliate contract makes continually critical comments while showing the thumbnail of the commercial photograph, there are cases, as stated above, when the usage of thumbnail is recognized as a quotation under the commercial code (Copyright Act, article 32, page 1).

II-10-3 Disclosure of Photo or Image in which Copyrighted Work Appears

[Issue]

Where a copyrighted work appears in a photograph or movie, will it pose any legal problems?

(Examples)

1. Where a copyrighted poster appears in its background of another photograph or movie.
2. The photograph referred to in example 1 above is uploaded onto a personal website and disclosed to the public.

I. Approach

1. Example 1

Under the Copyright Act, “reproduction” means to “reproduce in a tangible form by means such as printing, photographing, copying, sound recording or videotaping” (Item 15, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Copyright Act). Where a copyrighted work appears in a photograph or movie, it may constitute an infringement of copyrights unless the copyright holder has given consent.

2. Example 2

The act of uploading a photograph or movie in which a copyrighted work happens to appear onto a personal website may constitute an infringement of reproduction rights (Article 21 of the Copyright Act) and public transmission rights (Article 23 of the Copyright Act).

II. Explanations

1. Example 1

(1) Problem identification

Where the whole of a poster displayed on a street is photographed as the only photographic subject, the act of such photographing would constitute an infringement of copyright, unless it falls under the definition of reproduction, etc. for personal use.

On the other hand, it would be outside the realm of common sense in the eyes of the public seeking justice to conclude that any photograph which happens to contain a copyrighted work appearing in its background constitutes an infringement of copyrights.

(2) Detailed Analysis

(i) The “manner in which the copyrighted work appears”

For example, where the copyrighted work appearing in a photograph or movie is too indistinct to identify or distinguish what it is, especially if the copyrighted work appearing in the photograph or video is intentionally processed to lower its graphic mode of or modified by means of mosaic or softening, it would be clear that such photograph or movie does not constitute an infringement of copyrights and thus no issue would arise in connection thereto.

On the other hand, if the copyrighted work appearing in the background of a photograph or movie is identifiable to a certain extent, the chance that this possibly amounts to a copyright infringement cannot be denied¹.

In the *Setsugetsuka* Case (Tokyo High Court judgment, February 18, 2002, p.136 of *Hanji* Vol. 1786), the Tokyo High Court ruled that, a copyrighted work appearing in the background of a photograph only constituted a “reproduction” if the copyrighted work has been recurred to the extent that the creative essence of the reproduced work can be, in light of the normal attention of general public, directly perceived. The Tokyo High Court further held that this criterion is irrelevant to whether a certain work is identifiable as a specific copyrighted work.

According to this approach, the identifiability of a copyrighted work that merely appears in a photograph or movie would not constitute an infringement of copyright. Rather, only where the creative essence of the work can directly be perceived, will there be an infringement of copyright².

¹ According to p.288-289 of Moriyuki Kado’s “Annotations to the Copyright Act (*chosakuken hou chikujo kaisetsu*)” (5th edition)” it is stated that “where a painting or similar artwork appears in the background of the main subject matter (of a photograph), it does not substantially constitute the use of a copyrighted work and thus such a situation does not involve any matters pertaining to copyrights (omitted). However, this principle will not apply if the focus is intentionally placed on the background painting.” According to the US judicial precedent of *Sandoval v. New Line Cinema corp.* 147 F. 3d 215 (2d Cir, 1998) Article 107 of the US Copyright Act, the criteria for determining whether the use of a copyrighted work falls under the “fair use” is the following; (1) the purpose or nature of use, (2) the nature of the utilized copyrighted work, (3) the amount and substantial value of the utilized copyrighted work in proportion to the whole of such copyrighted work, and (4) the effect on the potential market value caused by the use of the copyrighted work. Article 57 of the German Copyright Act approves the use of copyrighted works in case such copyrighted work is sporadically used in an insignificant portion of another work.

² Tokyo High Court judgment dated February 18, 2002 (p.136 of *Hanji* Vol. 1786) states as follows: “In calligraphy, as a rule, (omitted) it is difficult to regard the character type or font in itself as a copyrighted work. Therefore, the characteristic nature of calligraphy, in other words, the

Further, even if this is the case, there is considered to be no copyright infringement, provided that any of the following ii) to vi) applies.

(ii) Reproduction for personal use

Where a copyrighted work appears in the background of a photograph or movie taken or shot by an individual, it is likely that the photograph or movie would be considered to be a reproduction for personal use (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act), and, therefore, would not constitute an infringement of reproduction rights.

It should, however, be noted that Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act is not applicable to public transmission rights. Therefore, if, for example a person discloses on his/her personal website a photograph in which a copyrighted work appears, this may be considered as an infringement of public transmission rights, as more fully discussed below in this document.

(iii) Use of accompanying copyrighted works (Article 30-2 of Copyright Act)

The amendment to the Copyright Act in 2012 (Act No. 43 of 2012) added Article 30-2 of Copyright Act as the provision covering “unintended appearance”³. The provision is considered to clarify that, in creating a work

creative essence of the chirographer’s thoughts and emotions expressed in his/her work should consist in the aforementioned aesthetic elements appended to the character type or font in the calligraphy work. (omitted) In order for an act to be regarded as “reproduction” of a calligraphy, which is a kind of copyrighted artistic work, the photograph of such calligraphy should be, in light of the normal attention of general viewers thereof, well reproducing the original to the extent the characteristic essence of the work comprising not only of its character type and font, but also of the originality of the shapes of the letters, the beauty and the delicacy of the lines, the architectural beauty of space and the sequence of letters, speed and inflection of the brush stroke, clearness and diversities of the ink color, and momentum of the brush etc. can be directly perceived from the photograph. (omitted) Whether or not the work and its chirographer can be identified at a glance of the photograph is irrelevant to whether the characteristic essence of copyrighted work as a copyrighted artistic work can be directly perceived from the photograph. Therefore, the aforementioned judgment shall remain unchanged.

However, this decision is a judicial precedent on “calligraphy” which is a special type of copyrighted work, and thus different decisions would be rendered for other types of copyrighted artistic works such as movies, photographs in accordance with the characteristic of each genre of art.

For the cases of art works, see footnote 10 in these Guidelines II-10-2 “Thumbnail Image and Copyright.”

³ Article 30-2 of the Copyright Act:

In creating a work by photographing or sound- or video-recording (hereinafter referred to as “photographing etc.” in this paragraph), if it is difficult to separate the object of the photographing etc., for the work being created (hereinafter referred to as “photographic work etc.” in this paragraph) from another copyrighted work of the thing or sound that accompanies the

by photographing etc., it is not an infringement to reproduce or adapt, in connection with the creation of the work concerned (works such as photographs), another copyrighted work of the thing (accompanying copyrighted work) that accompanies the object of the photographing with regard to the work concerned, as it is difficult to separate the thing from the photography object⁴.

In Example 1, where a small poster appears in the background of the intended object for photographing, basically it is likely that this would not constitute a copyright infringement pursuant to the aforementioned provision.

(iv) Copyrighted artistic works disclosed to public

Where the original copyrighted artistic works (such as sculptures and monuments) are permanently installed outdoors, a photograph or movie including the images of such artistic work will not constitute an infringement of reproduction rights (main sentence of Article 46 of Copyright Act)⁵.

object of the photographing (limited to external copyrighted works constituting a minor part of the photographic work etc.; hereinafter referred to as “accompanying copyrighted work” in this Article), reproductions or adaptations of this accompanying copyrighted work shall be permitted in connection with the creation of the photographic work etc., concerned; provided, however, that the foregoing shall not apply where such reproduction or adaptation poses unjust damage to the interests of the relevant copyright holder, depending on the type and usage of the accompanying copyrighted work concerned or depending on the form of such representation or adaptation.

2 The accompanying copyrighted work reproduced or adapted pursuant to the provision in the foregoing paragraph may be used along with the use of the photographic work etc., prescribed therein; provided, however, that the foregoing shall not apply where such reproduction or adaptation poses unjust damage to the interests of the relevant copyright holder, depending on the type and usage of the accompanying copyrighted work concerned or depending on the form of such use.

⁴ “Development of Provisions for So-called Unintended Appearance in Photographs etc. (Explanatory Material) (in relation to Article 30-2, Article 30-3, Article 30-4 and Article 47-9)” by the Agency for Cultural Affairs (<http://www.bunka.go.jp/chosakuken/utsurikomi.html>)

⁵ Though this is not a case of accidentally photographed work, Judgment of Tokyo District Court dated July 25, 2001, 1758 *Hanji* p.137, 1007 *Hanta* p.297 concerning the act of using the city bus on which a picture is painted for a children’s book named “Working Cars” made a substantial interpretation of the meaning of “outside place” and “permanently placed” (Article 46 of the Copyright Act) and said, “The outside place should be understood as an open place that an unspecified number of the public can freely see if they want,” and then said, “permanently placed means being placed in the place accessible to an unspecified number of the public for a certain long time.” Then it concluded, “As the bus on which the work by the plaintiff is painted is

However, where a photograph or movie is taken or shot for the purpose of marketing or where such photograph or movie is actually sold to third parties, it would be an infringement of copyrights (Item 4, Article 46 of the Copyright Act)⁶.

In addition, the main sentence of Article 46 will not be applicable to the reproductions of the original artistic work. For example, where a poster of a famous sculpture appears in a photograph or movie, the Article will not be applicable and therefore any photograph or movie would constitute an infringement of reproduction rights.

(v) Implicit consent of the copyright holder

Where a copyrighted work appears clearly in the background of a photograph or movie, it is difficult to argue that it does not constitute a reproduction. However, the copyright holder may be, depending on the

not running for the specific event, but running daily as any other city bus, when the plaintiff painted the work on the body of the bus running on the public road regularly, it should be said that he permanently placed the art work.” Therefore, according to this precedent, when the original work of the advertisement is temporarily displayed, it is not “permanently displayed,” but if it is used for a certain long time, possibly the application of the restricted right provisions (Article 46 of the Copyright Act) will be approved. Also, there is a discussion that Paragraph 1, Article 32 of the Copyright Act should be approved in cases like this (“On Possibilities of Limited Copyright in Changing Technological Environment” by Yoshiyuki Tamura, Jurist, No. 1255, p. 124). However, considering the normal usage of the word, “citation,” it may be difficult to analogically apply the provisions of that article to the work accidentally photographed.

⁶ In the *City Bus* case the Tokyo District Court July 25, 2001 ruled that “whether or not Item 4, Article 46 is applicable should depend on whether the copyrighted artistic work is reproduced “exclusively” for marketing or the reproduced work is actually sold to third parties. In order to determine this, circumstances such as the formalities, the contents, the manner and method of use of the publication should be objectively examined.” In light of these criteria, the judgment further held that “the Defendant’s book is a publication edited for the purpose of explaining to children various types of vehicles running on the street by using their photographs. It provides an explanation on the exterior and role of each of the 24 types of vehicles in total. This book is edited from the viewpoint of pre-school education in that children are expected to develop their observation skills as well as curiosity, which will in the future become a basis for learning. The method of inserting the picture in the cover page and page 14 is not unnatural in light of the purpose of this publication. Considering that the viewers of this book will have the impression that the photograph of the bus is placed on various pages as an the example of the diverse vehicles referred to in the body text of the book, the act of selling a book which includes a photograph of the bus with the plaintiff’s work shall not fall under the relevant criteria as previously described; the copyrighted artistic work is reproduced “exclusively” for marketing or such reproduced work is actually sold to third parties. Therefore, such act does not fulfill the conditions required under Item 4, Article 46 of the Copyright Act.

manner in which such copyrighted work is displayed, regarded as having given their implicit consent.

For example, if the copyrighted works (such as characters) are displayed at locations where many people are expected to come and take pictures such as theme parks and tourist spots, the copyright holder may be considered as having given implicit consent to displaying them.

(vi) Abuse of rights

Even where the copyright holder is not considered as having given express consent to the display of such artistic work, it would be held as an abuse of rights (Paragraph 3, Article 1 of the Civil Code) for the copyright holder to file an injunction claim on the ground that his/her copyrighted work appearing in the photograph or movie constitutes an infringement of copyrights⁷.

2. Example 2

(1) Specific Analysis

(i) Where no problem arises in connection with the public transmission

So long as a copyrighted work appearing in a photograph or movie personally taken or shot is not clearly reproduced to the extent that the creative essence of such work can be, in light of the normal attention of general public, directly perceived, the act of uploading such a photograph onto a website does not pose any problems involving public transmission.

(ii) Reproduction for Personal Use

The provision on the limitation of copyright in the case of reproductions for personal use is not applicable to public transmission rights. Therefore, the act of an individual uploading a photograph or movie on his/her personal website does not pose any problems involving reproduction for personal use but it may be considered an infringement of public transmission rights.

(iii) Use of accompanying copyrighted works (Article 30-2 of Copyright Act)

Where a reproduction or adaptation is permitted under Article 30-2 of the Copyright Act, the use the relevant copyrighted work, including public

⁷ Judgment of Tokyo District Court dated February 23, 1996; *Hanji*, no.1561, p.123; *Hanta*, no.905, p.222, ruled that the exercise of the author's moral rights constitutes an abuse of right.

transmission, is also permitted under Paragraph 2 of the same Article. Therefore, basically, uploading pictures or video contents onto a website is allowed.

(iv) Copyrighted artistic works disclosed to public

The explanation provided in 1. (2) (iv) above also applies. More specifically, the act of photographing an original copyrighted artistic work that is permanently installed outdoor and disclosing it on a personal website does not constitute an infringement of copyright, except where the sole purpose for such photographing is marketing (Article 46 of the Copyright Act).

(v) Implicit consent of the copyright holder

Where a photograph or movie is uploaded onto a website, the copyright holder may be, as with the case of reproductions, considered as having given an implicit consent.

However, it would be under limited circumstances where the copyright holder should be considered as having given consent not only to the shooting as part of a photograph or movie but also to the public transmission of the copyrighted work.

(vi) Abuse of rights

As with the case of 1. (2) (vi) above the doctrine of abuse of rights will be applicable.

Those who intend to transmit a photograph or movie to the public have the opportunity to delete or make unidentifiable the copyrighted work appearing therein by processing the photograph or image when they upload such photograph or movie onto a website. Therefore, compared to the case referred to in 1. (2) (v) above, the injunction claim referred to therein is less likely to be held as an abuse of rights.

(2) Right to determine the indication of author's name

The act of uploading the image of a photograph or movie in which a copyrighted work appears onto a website may be an infringement of right to determine the indication of author's name (for the purpose of this paragraph, the "name indication rights", Article 19 of the Copyright Act). It is permissible to omit the name of the author where there is no risk of damage to the interests of the author in his claim to authorship in light of the purpose and the manner of the utilization of the work in so far as such omission is compatible with fair practice (Paragraph 3, Article 19 of the Copyright Act).

In regard to the cases referred to in 2. (1) (i) through (iv) above, where the purpose and method of use of copyrighted works would comply with fair practice, the interests of the author would generally not be impaired. Therefore, the infringement of the author's name indication rights would unlikely become an issue⁸.

In regard to 2. (1) (v), the purpose and method of use could be considered within the scope to which the author has given approval (in other words, permission to use the copyrighted material without indicating the author's name).

⁸ Judgment of Tokyo District Court dated July 25, 2001 also disapproved the plaintiff's claim based on its right to determine the indication of author's name.

II-10-4 Use of Other Persons' Copyright Works in E-Learning

[Issue]

What legal responsibilities do the schools or service Vendors have in regard to copyrights when providing school lessons and/or staff trainings through remote education by using network or when the remote education service Vendors provide lessons and/or trainings to schools or companies for value?

I. Approach

When using the copyrighted work of a third party in e-learning, permission from the copyright owner must be obtained in principle.

However, the use of any copyrighted work in the course of lessons by schools or other nonprofit-oriented educational institutions which satisfy certain requirement, such copyrighted work may be transmitted to the students located in remote districts for studying purpose by using the Internet or other network, without permission from the copyright owner. In order for such public transmission without permission to be approved, the transmitter needs to confirm that the copyrighted work is already made public, that the image of the actual lessons (main site) is aired live at the same time at a place other than that where such lessons are given (secondary site) for students who take lessons and that the transmission is limited to those taking classes at such educational institutions.

By satisfying certain requirements, the copyrighted work of exam questions for examination using the network may be transmitted publicly without permission from the copyright owner. In order for such public transmission without permission to be approved, the transmitter needs to confirm that the copyrighted work is already made public and that it is disclosed to an extent necessary for the exam, and may become liable to compensate the copyright owner if it is used for profit-oriented purpose.

As described above, the permission of the copyright owner must be obtained, in principle, in order to use the copyrighted work of such third party relating to e-learning, however, such permission is not required under certain circumstances permitted by law. In such case, however, the above requirements prescribed by law need to be satisfied (public transmission of simultaneous reporting of lessons and exam questions are considered mainly for e-learning. Note, however, that it is under limited conditions that the exceptional provisions concerning the public transmissions of educational materials used in the simultaneous reporting of classes and of exam questions

are applicable to those who conduct the e-learning business for profit. In other words, any public transmission of educational materials used in the simultaneous reporting of lessons is not permitted if it is used for profit purpose and requires the permission of the copyright owner as it is in the first place. Also the public transmission of exam questions is legal, however the transmitter is still liable to pay compensation to the copyright owner¹.

Where a public transmission of educational materials without obtaining the permission is legal

- Materials (copyrighted work of a third party) are distributed in the school class room (main site) and are transmitted to provide such materials to the students who are taking such class through the simultaneous reporting of such class at secondary site located at remote place.
-

Where a public transmission of educational materials is illegal regardless of whether permission has been obtained

- In a company, the materials (copyrighted work of a third party) which are distributed at staff training sessions are uploaded to the web server for access by the employees of the company who are attending such session through the simultaneous reporting of such session at a remote location (which will be deemed illegal regardless of whether permission for copy and/or distribution of the materials is obtained).
- Materials (copyrighted work of a third party) distributed in a school class room are transmitted to the students who were absent from the class so that they can review them later (which will be deemed illegal regardless of whether permission to copy and/or distribute the materials is obtained).
-

Where a public transmission of exam questions without obtaining the permission is legal

- E-learning Vendor posts the copyrighted work of exam questions already made

¹ We should pay attention to the liabilities related to personal information as well as copyrights in implementing the E-learning. If a school or an E-learning Vendor managing personal information such as students' work performance leaks such information in a form where each individual may be identified (not in the form of statistics), such school or the E-learning Vendor may be liable for a contractual breach (Article 415 of the Civil Code) or for an unlawful act (Article 709 of the Civil Code). In addition, the provisions on the obligations under the Act on Protection of Personal Information are applicable to the school or E-learning Vendor holding certain amount of personal information in the form of a database (For details regarding the handling of personal information, see the "guideline concerning the Act on Protection of Personal Information relating to economy and industry" (http://www.meti.go.jp/policy/it_policy/privacy/kojin_gadelane.htm) and other guidelines published by other ministries.

public on its website and transmits to the test-taker who enters its ID and/or password.

Where a public transmission of exam questions without obtaining the permission is illegal

- E-learning Vendor posts the copyrighted work of exam questions already made public on its website and transmits to the test-taker who enters its ID and/or password.

II. Explanations

1. Utilization of internet in education

The copyrighted works of third parties have been used as materials in many educational scenes. The text of novels and/or newspaper articles or images of pictures and/or paintings have traditionally been used as materials. In remote education utilizing networks (i.e. e-learning), the range for use of copyrighted works of a third party has further extended by the addition of programmer, narration and even music media, as a result of digitalization of the materials and/or the multimedia content of such materials.

It is a fundamental rule to obtain the license or permission of the copyright owner for the use of copyrighted work of a third party. However, there are several exceptions under the Copyright Act in light of the significance of the use of copyrighted work of a third party in education. A 2003 amendment to the Copyright Act focused on the increase in usage of the internet in education and has expanded the range of exceptions.

2. Public transmission of materials during simultaneous teaching of a class

The public transmission (including making transmittable in the case of interactive transmission; the same shall apply hereinafter) during the simultaneous teaching of a class without permission is permitted under Paragraph (2), Article 35 of the Copyright Act, which was newly created by the 2003 amendment, subject to the following conditions:

- that the transmitter is nonprofit-oriented educational institution;
- that the transmission is made only to those attending the classes at such educational institution;
- that the transmission is made to the individuals at secondary site who are simultaneously participating in the ongoing classes at the main site;

- that the transmission is made for the delivery of materials which are distributed at the main site;
- that it is a transmission of copyrighted work which has already been made public; and
- that the transmission does not unreasonably prejudice the interests of the copyright owner in light of the nature and the purpose of the work as well as the form of the transmission.

In the first place, only the nonprofit-oriented educational institutions, such as schools or community centers are the subject entities, while the private profit-oriented e-learning Vendors are not. E-learning Vendors need to obtain permission for public transmissions in class instructions from the copyright owner. The permission for the distribution of materials in the actual classroom does not apply to the public transmission thereof.

Also, exceptions are applicable only to simultaneous teaching. In addition, the permission of the copyright owner is required if such lecture is to be kept on the web server for later access.

3. Public transmission of exam questions

The public transmission of exam questions without permission is permitted under Article 36 of the Copyright Act following the 2003 amendment, subject to the following conditions:

to pay compensation to the copyright owner if it is used for profit purposes;

to ensure that the use is within the extent necessary for the purpose of exam;

to ensure that the copyrighted work is already made public; and

that the transmission does not unreasonably prejudice the interests of the copyright owner in light of the nature and the purpose of work as well as the form of the transmission.

The private e-learning Vendors having profit-oriented purposes may use public transmissions without permission if they are used to communicate exam questions. As a result, however, such Vendors will be responsible to pay compensation. Also, a trial exam which collects an examination fee is a typical example of profit-making for which the Vendor will be responsible to pay compensation.

Part III: Issues Concerning Information Property Trading

In these interpretative guidelines, information property refers to sound, images (pictures), and other information that can be recorded in a form available for use on a computer (i.e., in a digital form). Specifically, information property includes programs and other instructions to the computer as well as data that can be the object of information processing by the computer¹.

Conventionally, software has been the center of discussion as a form of information property. Today, various types of digital contents are traded, which include information and data contained in music, video, games and databases. This involves problems which cannot be solved from the perspective of copyright protection by understanding information property merely as copyrighted works.

Meanwhile, this kind of form of information property trade includes transfer of information property through magnetic and optical media, downloading from servers owned by information property vendors (hereinafter, “Vendors”), and online use of information property in servers of Vendors. In the case where a claim exists only between a user and a vendor and there is no use of copyrighted work (the forms of use stipulated in Article 21 onward of the Copyright Act), there are some problems for which the conventional line of discussion regarding information property transactions is not suitable.

These changes in the trading environment for information property trading require multidirectional consideration regarding rights of parties involved and transaction protection. Inevitably, not every relevant scene can be discussed in this Interpretative Guidelines, however, problems are discussed not only in this section but also in “II-3 Liability of Provider of P-to-P File Sharing Software” and “II-10-1 The Use of Information on the Internet” as individual points at issue. “I-2-1 Effectiveness of Website Terms of Use” is deeply related to the terms and conditions of online use of information property. Regarding these points, please refer to the respective sections.

This section examines legal issues related to license agreements (also often called end user license agreements) executed between users and Vendors for use of information property, and legal problems with digital contents whose market appears to be expanding recently².

A license agreement is an agreement executed when the licensor (Vendor) promises to allow the licensee (user) to use and earn profits from information

¹ In the case of custom-made information property, the particular license agreement between the parties will determine its contents, conditions, and other details. Therefore, this part only discusses information property distributed in the market as general-purpose products.

² See “III-12 Digital Contents” for the definition of digital contents.

property under certain conditions and the licensee agrees to this. These interpretative guidelines only cover contracts for value which are commonly used in licensing.

III-1 Return of the Product by the User After the Conclusion of the License Agreement

Last Revised: November 2012

III-1-1 Cases where information property is provided via media

[Issue]

When consumers buy media-type package software from a store, they usually read the license agreements only after purchase. Therefore, the question is whether they can return the product and demand a refund if they do not agree to the contents of the license agreements. Normally, license agreements are supposed to be concluded either as (i) a shrink-wrap contract; or (ii) as a click-on contract. Under what circumstances can the consumer return the product and demand a refund?

I. Approach

1. Where contracts between stores and users are deemed to be a Primary Agreement

(1) Principle

When contracts between stores and users are deemed to be a agreement for the delivery of tangible materials such as media or manuals (“Primary Agreement”(“*teikyô-keiyaku*”)); and an agreement for setting an option to conclude a license agreement with the user, it is reasonable to consider that a user who does not consent to the contents of the license agreement can return the product and demand a refund. The basis of this consumer right is that there exists a tacit agreement in the contract between the store and the user that if the user does not consent to the contents of the license agreement, he can return the product and demand a refund¹.

In practice, two types of contracts are usually employed: a shrink-wrap contract and a click-on contract. These two types of contracts will be discussed below.

(i) Shrink-wrap contract

If the user is aware of the contents of a license agreement before breaking the seal of the media (such as the film wrap or seal) and he proceeds to break the seal with intent to conclude a license agreement, the license agreement is

¹ Here, as the information property is supplied by the store on the understanding that it is recorded in tangible media, “return” means the return of the status of being entitled to execute the license agreement together with the information property recorded in the media by handing back the media and manuals. If the contract with the store can be construed as a sale of a reproduction of the information property concerned, “return” means only the return of the reproduction recorded in the media by returning the media.

formed (“shrink-wrap contract”) (Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Civil Code). In such case, the user cannot return the product on the ground that he did not consent to the agreement.

Therefore, where the film wrap, seal, etc., is broken, the store need not accept the return of the product, so long as the store verifies the adequacy of the information on the film wrap, seal, etc. and confirms that the information is plainly recognizable.

Where a product is considered non-returnable after the seal is broken (i.e. where the license agreement is considered to be concluded)

- Where the license agreement can be viewed through the film wrap, seal, etc. in a manner plainly recognizable before the user breaks it, that user is requested to check the license agreement form. If he breaks said film wrap, seal, etc. through which the license agreement can be viewed, then the license agreement is formed.
-

A product is considered returnable even after the user has broken the seal, where he does not consent to the license agreement (the license agreement is not formed)

- No mention is made of the license agreement on the film wrap, seal, etc. of the media.
- No mention is made on the film wrap, seal, etc. of the media about where to find the contents of the license agreement and it is not easy to find that information.

(ii) Click-on contract

If the user is aware of the contents of the license agreement before clicking the button “I Agree (to the license agreement)”, where he clicks the button with intent to conclude a license agreement, the license agreement is formed (“click-on contract”) (Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Civil Code). Therefore, he cannot return the product on the ground that he did not consent to the agreement.

Although it is usually difficult for the store, etc. to judge whether the button was actually clicked, where the store can determine by some means that the license agreement has been concluded, the store need not accept the return of the product.

Where the product is considered non-returnable after the Agreement Button has been pressed (i.e. where the license agreement is considered concluded)

- The user pressed the Agreement Button after scrolling through the entire license agreement form.
-

Where a product is considered returnable even after the user presses the Agreement Button, so long as he did not consent to the license agreement (the license agreement not formed)

- The screen configuration seeking consent to the license agreement or the Agreement Button is not sufficiently dissimilar from other screen configurations or other buttons. Furthermore, no screen is provided for the user to confirm his consent to the license agreement.
-

Where a Vendor can confirm the valid formation of a license agreement

- A user registration card bearing the user's signature in the column "I agree to the license agreement" has reached the Vendor.
- A license agreement concluded online or by telephone is registered with the Vendor.
-

(2) Exceptions

(i) Where the contents of a license agreement are only clearly shown when the purchase of the product at the store

Where the user was aware of the contents of a license agreement and paid consideration, he cannot at a later time return the product and demand a refund.

Where the user cannot return the product and demand a refund on the ground that he has already agreed to the license agreement

- The contents of the agreement are printed on the outside of the product package in a type size large enough for the user to recognize.
- The store ensured that the user agreed to the license agreement at the time of purchase.
-

(ii) Where it is clearly stated that the product is non-returnable even if the user does not agree to the license agreement

Even in cases where it is clearly indicated that the product is non-returnable notwithstanding the user's consent to the agreement, a user who does not agree to the license agreement may be able to return the product to the store, except where he offered the payment (and such payment is accepted) after having specifically agreed to the non-returnable clause.

Where a user cannot return products even if he has not agreed to the license agreement

- When the user purchased the product at the store, the store told the user that he could not return the product even if he did not agree to the license agreement and the user agreed thereto.
-

Where a user can return the product, if he does not agree to the license agreement

- Where there was no indication at the time of payment that the product is non-returnable, which fact could only have become known after opening the package.
-

2. Where the agreement between the store and the user is considered a sales agreement for a reproduction of information property

Where an agreement between a store and a user is a sales agreement for a reproduction of information property, no license agreement exists between them. The user can freely use the information property, so long as he does not violate the Copyright Act. Even if a license agreement is presented after the product is purchased, the user is not bound by it. Therefore, no issue exists concerning the return of goods after the conclusion of the license agreement because no license agreement is necessary.

Where information property is considered freely usable regardless of the lack of a license agreement

- The user did not recognize nor intend to conclude a license agreement, no mention was made on the product package of a license agreement, and the store did not tell the user that there should be a license agreement.
-

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

When information property, such as CD-ROMs or other media, is sold through stores, it is a trade practice that the licensor unilaterally determines the licensing conditions. No explicit agreement has been made about the licensing conditions at the time of the delivery of the media. Rather, the license agreement is reached at a later time, such as at the time when the user breaks the film wrap, seal, etc. or at the time when the user runs the program for the first time and agrees to the license agreement displayed on the screen. In these cases, it is not necessarily clear at which stage the licensing agreement is formed and whether a user who has not agreed to the licensing agreement can

return the product and demand a refund.

Therefore, this section discusses the agreement between parties to a medium-based transaction.

2. Nature of the agreement between the store and the user

(1) Types of agreement contents

When the user takes possession of information property by paying consideration to the store, the intention of the parties is reasonably interpreted to conclude either (i) a sales agreement for a reproduction of the information property; or (ii) an agreement by which the store assigns to the user the opportunity to consenting to the license agreement and by which the store delivers tangible objects such as the medium and manuals to the user (“Primary Agreement”). How the parties actually intended to conclude the agreement, either by method (i) or (ii), will be determined according to various factors including general knowledge on transactions in information property (for example, was the buyer aware that the packaged software he purchased could not legally be used absent his consent to the license agreement?). However, the intention of the parties will likely be interpreted as concluding the Primary Agreement (ii), if the necessity to conclude a license agreement is clearly stated on the outside of the medium package in a form easily identifiable to the user or if the store has verbally explained the need to conclude the license agreement.

(2) Where it can be construed as a sales agreement of a reproduction of information property

Firstly, in the case of (i), i.e. when their intent is interpreted as concluding a sales agreement for a reproduction of information property, the user should not be bound by an agreement of which he is not aware. Therefore, the user can use the information property freely, so long as he does not violate the Copyright Act. More specifically, the user can reproduce the information property solely for personal use, except where he must circumvent any technical protective barriers in order to make reproductions (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of the Copyright Act), and he can also reproduce and adapt information property to the extent necessary if it is a program (Paragraph 1, Article 47-2 of the Copyright Act). In addition, since no license agreement has been concluded, difficulties should not occur regarding the return of the product on the ground that the user does not consent to the license agreement.

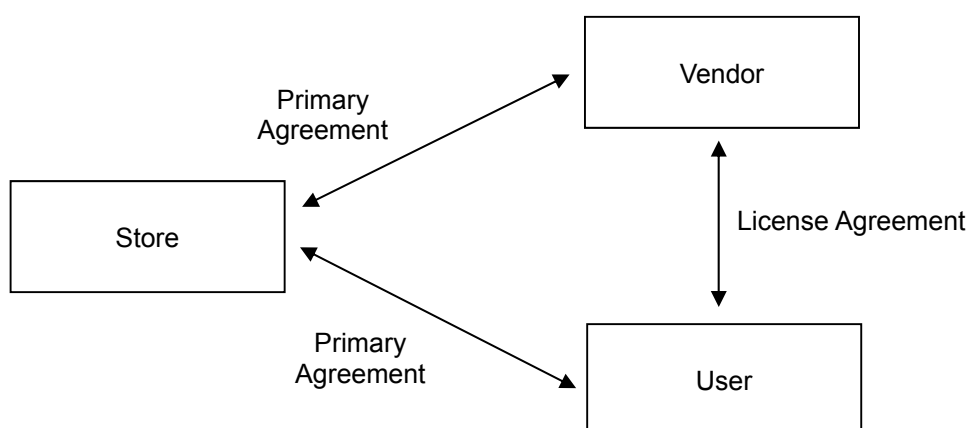
Where no agreement is reached on any necessity to conclude a license agreement, if a license agreement is clearly presented after the purchase of a

product (where the license agreement is enclosed in the outer case of the product package), such license agreement will usually have no legal effect.

(3) Where it can be construed as a Primary Agreement

Next, under Primary Agreement (ii), the store assigns to the user the right to use the information property after he consents to the license agreement. In other words, the store assigns to the user an option to conclude a license agreement and delivers the tangible objects such as the medium and manuals to the user. The Primary Agreement provides for both the assignment of the right and the delivery of the objects.

In this case, the user has concluded two different agreements. First, the user agrees to the Primary Agreement with the store. Second, the user consents to the license agreement with the Vendor for the use of the information property. Consenting to the license agreement allows the user to employ the information property (see figure below).



3. Requirements and timing of the conclusion of license agreement

(1) Presentation and conclusion of license agreement in relation to Primary Agreement

As described in 2. (ii), where the agreement between the store and the user is a Primary Agreement, the contents of a license agreement may be clearly presented (A) before the conclusion of the Primary Agreement (e.g. before payment is offered and accepted); or (B) after the conclusion of the Primary Agreement (i.e. after payment is offered and accepted). When exactly is the license agreement formed in each of these cases?

When information property is provided in media form, the license agreement between the Vendor and the user is a contract between remote parties. This means principally that it is necessary for a user to express his

intention to accept an offer in order for the license agreement to be formed. However, if the offeror indicates or it is the common trade practice that an acceptance notice is not needed, then the agreement is formed when the conduct of the user explicitly communicates his expresses (*“ishi-jitsugen-kô”*) (Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Civil Code). This is theoretically because the offeror’s prior expression or common trade practice functions to allow the conduct of the user itself to constitute an intention to execute the contract rather than requiring an actual expression of intention; based on such theoretical principle, license agreements should be considered as well.

(2) Where license agreement is presented before the conclusion of Primary Agreement

In the case of (A), where a user purchases a product under the Primary Agreement with knowledge of the license agreement’s content , the intention of the user to conclude the contract has been displayed by his conduct. Therefore, the license agreement is formed at the time the Primary Agreement is concluded. An example is where the contents of the agreement are printed on the outside of the product package in a type size large enough for the user to easily notice and where the store made sure that the user agreed to the license agreement at the time of the product purchase.

(3) Where license agreement is presented after the conclusion of Primary Agreement

In the case of (B), since the contents of the license agreement are not clearly presented at the time the Primary Agreement is concluded, the license agreement is formed at a later time. In the case of the shrink-wrap and click-on contracts, which are now widely used in the industry, the formation of a license agreement depends on whether the conduct of the user constituted an intention to conclude the contract.

In the case of a shrink-wrap contract, the question is whether the act of breaking the film wrap, seal, etc. could be considered as conduct of the user which reflects his intention to conclude the contract. A license agreement is formed where the user breaks the film wrap, seal, etc. with knowledge of the contents of the license agreement and if he intends to conclude the license agreement before breaking it. For example, a statement which requires consent to a license agreement and which asserts that the effect of breaking the film wrap, seal, etc. equates to giving consent to the license agreement, and where the license agreement is printed on the film wrap, seal, etc. in a form that the user can easily identify before breaking the covering, it will

often be interpreted that the act of breaking the covering is deemed to be conduct of a user which indicates his intention to conclude the license agreement and that by virtue of his conduct the license agreement has been completed. On the other hand, if the license agreement is not mentioned on the film wrap, seal, etc. of the media or if there is no mention on the film wrap, seal, etc. of the media concerning the location of the license agreement contents and it is also not easy to find them, then the license agreement is not formed, even if the user has broken the film wrap, seal, etc.

Second, in the case of click-on contracts, the question is whether the act of clicking the “I Agree (to the license agreement)” button (hereinafter called the “Agree Button”) displayed on the screen is deemed analogous to conduct displaying the intention of the user to execute the contract. If the user knows the contents of the license agreement before clicking the Agree Button on the screen and clicks the button with intent to conclude a license agreement, the license agreement is formed. For example, if the screen is configured in such a way that the user can easily identify the contents of the license agreement before clicking the Agree Button (in other words the screen configuration is such that the user cannot click the Agree Button unless he has scrolled through the entire contents of the license agreement), then it will often be considered that the license agreement has been formed. However, if the screen configuration seeking consent to the license agreement or the Agree Button are not externally different from other screen configurations or other buttons, and if no screen is provided for the user to confirm his consent to the license agreement, then it is considered that the license agreement could not have been concluded.

4. Termination of the Primary Agreement where there is no consent to the license agreement

(1) Grounds for termination of Primary Agreement

In 3.(B) above, where the contents of a license agreement are presented at a time later than the conclusion of the Primary Agreement (e.g., after payment is offered and accepted), the question is whether a user, who does not agree to the licensing agreement, can return the product and demand a refund for the purchase price.

The license agreement and the Primary Agreement are essentially mutually independent contracts. However, since the primary objective of the Primary Agreement is to enable the user to employ information property, the agreement is very closely linked to the license agreement. Furthermore, the value of agreeing to the Primary Agreement is considered to be the right to

use the information property. Therefore, a user who does not agree to the license agreement can return the product and demand a refund of the purchase price. Under existing law, a user has the right to return products by way of tacit agreement, where the user does not agree to the license agreement.

Unless otherwise agreed (for example, by clearly indicating on the outside of the product package a reasonable period during which goods may be returned), the right to return goods can either be exercised for a period of 10 years (Paragraph 1, Article 167 of the Civil Code) or for five years (Article 522 of the Commercial Code).

Unless otherwise explicitly agreed upon, parties to the Primary Agreement tacitly agreed on the right of termination. Such agreement by the parties of the right to terminate should still exist, even if it is stated on the outside of the product package that the product is non-returnable after opening.

If a license agreement has been concluded previously, a user cannot return the product on the ground that he does not agree to the license agreement.

(2) Methods for judging the presence or absence of the formation of license agreement

The question is how the store determines whether a license agreement has been formed.

First, in the case of shrink-wrap contracts, the film wrap, seal, etc. may be (i) broken; or (ii) unbroken. In the latter case, the license agreement is not formed and the store cannot refuse a return on the basis of consent given to the license agreement. In the former case, the question is whether the statements on the film wrap, seal, etc. were sufficient. If the license agreement is present on the film wrap, seal, etc., in a manner the user can easily identify, then that license agreement is duly concluded and the store need not accept the item's return.

Second, in the case of click-on contracts, it is usually difficult for the store to ascertain whether the button was actually clicked. However, in some cases the store can verify the formation of a license agreement by contacting the Vendor (for example, where a user registration card has reached the Vendor or where a license agreement has been concluded online or by telephone which is registered with the Vendor). In these cases, if the store can confirm the formation of a license agreement, it need not accept the return of the product.

(3) Whether it is possible for the store to return products to the vendor after they have been returned from the user

Furthermore, there is another problem regarding whether the store can return the product to the wholesaler or the Vendor, when the store has accepted a product returned by a user who had not agreed to the license agreement. Where it is clearly indicated that a prerequisite to use of a product is consent to the license agreement and where there is no indication that the product is non-returnable, the purchaser of the product may terminate the provisional license agreement, if he does not wish to consent to the license agreement, and return the product to the retailer, where such retailer can further terminate its Primary Agreement with the Vendor and return said product to the Vendor(see section 5 below). Therefore, a Vendor and wholesale agent should accept the store's return of products which were returned by users. This conclusion is supported theoretically by explicit or implicit agreement between the parties which assume returns of the products from store to wholesale agent; and from wholesale agent to Vendor.

Vendors and wholesale agents have to accept the return of products when the user does not agree to the license agreement and requests the store to return the product; however, because Vendors and wholesales agent are not in direct contact with the user, they will not be able to discover whether in actuality the store is returning the product as a result of the user not agreeing to the license agreement. In order to resolve common problems promptly and amicably, it may be wise to request the user at the time of formation of the Primary Agreement that if the user should terminate the Primary Agreement, he should submit a document stating the reason therefore (Paragraph 3, Article 30-4 of the Installment Sales Act expressly provides for this.)

5. Where there is explicit indication that the product is non-returnable

The Primary Agreement grants the user a tacit right to terminate it, if he does not agree to the license agreement. Can the user return the product even where it is clearly stated at the time the Primary Agreement is concluded (that is, at the time the product is purchased at the store) that he cannot return the product even if he does not agree to the license agreement?

It is not reasonable that the product cannot be returned simply because the package states that the product is non-returnable. Instead, the user cannot return a product only when he specifically agreed to the non-returnable clause; e.g., he purchased the product after agreeing to the non-returnable clause which the store explained to him verbally and explicitly or indicated such clause which

was plainly visible outside of the product package².

A user, who has individually agreed not to return a product, has no other option but to conclude the license agreement whose contents are to be displayed after the purchase of the products. As always, the validity of contractual clauses falling under category shown in section III-3 of the present Guidelines, “Unreasonable Contractual Clauses” may be negated. In such cases, the user will not be bound by such clauses.

² In the case of mail order sale, the legal right to return (Article 15-2 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act. See points discussed in “I-5 Returning Goods Purchased over the Internet”) applies so that this right is approved to be effective, unless there is an appropriate representation sufficient to exclude the legal right to return even where the store provides special provisions regarding the right (On the basis of the understanding of this text, the required representation is the one that can be recognized as indicating that there is an individual agreement to the effect that return is not permitted even in the absence of consent to a license agreement).

III-1-2 Where information property is provided online

[Issue]

A consumer has downloaded chargeable information property from a Vendor's server through an online contract screen. Are there cases where he can return the information property and demand a refund on the ground that the user does not consent to the license agreement?

I. Approach

1. Where the contents of a license agreement are presented at the time of an online contract

If the consumer clicked the Purchase (Contract) button after agreeing to the contents of the license agreement, he cannot return¹ the information property and demand a refund.

Cases where the consumer agreed to the license agreement and cannot demand a refund

- Where the contents of a license agreement are clearly presented on the screen, where the Agreement Button and the Purchase Button are conspicuous and are arranged differently from other buttons used for downloading, and where the consumer clicked the Purchase Button after clicking the Agreement Button.
- Where the screen is configured in such a way that the contractual text is too long to be displayed on a single screen, the Agreement Button cannot be clicked unless the consumer scrolls through the entire text, and the consumer has clicked the Purchase Button after clicking the Agreement Button.
-

Cases where the consumer did not agree to the license agreement and can demand a refund

- Where the online screen is configured in such a way that consumers move from an online contract screen to a license agreement screen using a link, where the link is hard to find, and where the agreement of the consumer to the license agreement is not required in order to click the Purchase Button.
-

¹ In the case where the user downloads information property and stores a reproduction of it on the media the user manages, it is factually difficult to presume that the user returns the information property reproduced in the user's media. Actually, in most of cases, return (restoration) is understood to take place when the reproduction of the downloaded information property (and all the reproduced materials from the reproduction) in the recording media of the user is erased so as to render the user impossible to use any of it later. For more detail on the duty of restoration, see the explanation on the details of the duty of restoration in "III-4-1 Duties of the User upon Contract Expiry" of this Interpretative Guidelines.

In Business-to-Consumer contracts any expression of intention mistakenly made by the consumer shall render the contract invalid, except where business entities have taken measures to confirm the consumer's intention to form a contract and where the consumer has voluntarily waived such confirmation measure (Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act and Article 95 of the Civil Code).

2. Where the necessity to conclude a license agreement is not clearly shown at the time of online contract

Since no license agreement had been concluded, problems should not occur regarding the return of the information property and the refund on the ground that the user would not consent to the license agreement. Therefore, the user can use the information property freely, so long as he does not violate the Copyright Act. Even if a license agreement is presented after he has clicked the Purchase Button (and has paid consideration), the consumer is not bound by it.

Cases where the consumer is not bound to the license agreement

- The presence of a license agreement is not indicated on the online contract screen. Instead, a readme.txt file, which extracts when a downloaded file is decompressed, contains the contents of the license agreement.
-

There can be cases where the contents of the license agreement can only be seen after downloading and at no time before the Purchase Button is clicked, although the necessity to conclude a license agreement is shown on the online contract screen. As it is quite easy for a business entity to display the contents of a license agreement on the screen, this type of trade system seems unusual. In any event, the user can legitimately return the information property demand a refund if he does not agree to the license agreement.

II. Explanations

1. Problem Identification

In online delivery of information property, intangible information property is downloaded instead of the media, on which a reproduction of the information property resides, being physically delivered. For example, information property is directly downloaded from a Vendor's server to a user's hard disk, etc. When information property is provided intangibly, the contract between the Vendor and the consumer is also usually concluded online. At present, transactions are often made directly between the user and the Vendor or its agent.

This section discusses the nature of contracts regulating online transactions in information property on the presumption that such transactions are direct ones².

2. Where the necessity to conclude a license agreement is not shown in advance

Where the necessity to conclude a license agreement is not clearly shown on an online contract screen, the user in principle does conclude a contract to save a copy of information property on his own medium by downloading it. This is exactly the same case as the sale of media information property described in III-1-1 “Cases where information property is provided via media”. In this case, the user can use the information property freely so long as he does not violate the Copyright Act. Problems should not occur regarding the return of the copy of the information property on the ground that the user does not consent to the license agreement. Even if a license agreement is presented after the consumer has clicked the button to purchase the information property (hereinafter called the “Purchase Button”), i.e. after the purchase of the product, the consumer is not bound to it.

3. Where the necessity to conclude a license agreement is shown in advance

Where the necessity to conclude a license agreement is clearly shown on an online contract screen, the user in principle has concluded a contract which enables the user to employ, and benefit from, within a certain scope, the information property provided (transmitted) to the user; in other words, a license agreement combined with a contract for the provision (transmission) of information property.

In this case, the contents of a license agreement (A) may be clearly presented before the product is purchased; or (B) may not be clearly presented before the product is purchased. When is the license agreement formed in each of these cases?

First, in case (A), if the contents of a license agreement are clearly presented on the contract screen before the conclusion of the transaction, and if the consumer clicks the Purchase Button after agreeing to the contents of the license agreement, the whole contract, including the license agreement, is formed at the time at which the information, to which the consumer has given

² Although online transactions fall under the category of mail order sale under the Specified Commercial Transaction Act, the sale of information property through download is considered to fall under the category of service under the same Act (Note 1 of Issue in “I-5 Returning Goods Purchased over the Internet” of this Interpretative Guidelines).

his assent by clicking the Purchase Button, is recorded on the counterparty's server (Article 4 of the Electronic Contract Act). In Business-to-Consumer contracts any expression of intention mistakenly made by the consumer is invalid, except where business entities have taken measures to confirm the consumer's intention to form a contract and where the consumer voluntarily waived such confirmation measure (Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act and Article 95 of the Civil Code).

For example, where the contents of a license agreement are clearly presented on the online screen, (e.g.) the Agreement Button and the Purchase Button are plainly visible and are arranged distinctively from other buttons used for downloading; the screen is configured in such a way that if the contractual text is too long to be displayed on a single screen, the Agreement Button cannot be clicked unless consumers scroll through the entire text. Under such circumstances, if the consumer clicks the Purchase Button after clicking the Agreement Button, the license agreement is formed, and the consumer can demand no refund.

On the other hand, if the display screen is configured, e.g., in a manner where consumers have to move from the online contract screen to the license agreement screen using a difficult to locate link; the assent of the consumer to the license agreement is not required for clicking the Purchase Button. Under such circumstances, the license agreement is not formed even if the consumer clicks the Purchase Button. Therefore, the consumer may demand a refund in this instance.

Next, in case (B), the whole contract, including the license agreement, is formed at the time at which the user clicks the Agreement Button having knowledge of the contents of the license agreement and with the intention to conclude the contract. For example, where a readme.txt file is extracted following the decompression of a downloaded file and where it contains the contents of a license agreement, then if the user does not agree to the contents of the license agreement, the agreement is not formed and the user may demand a refund.

However, it should be quite easy for a Vendor to display the contents of a license agreement on the online contract screen. Unlike transactions made through media, there are usually no physical restrictions on clearly presenting the full text of a license agreement. Therefore, in some cases, if the contents of the license agreement were not clearly presented in advance, when the user concludes the contract for saving the copy of the information property on his own medium by downloading it, no license agreement will restrict the use of the information property similarly to the description in 2 above.

III-1-3 Effects of Not Representing Important Matters

[Issue]

When the user purchases the information property, what information must the Vendor or the store provide? What happens if they do not provide such information?

(Example)

At a store, a consumer purchased a packaged software. However, since the store did not provide the consumer with any information about the operating system required to run the software, the consumer was unable to use it due to incompatibility of operating environment. In this case, can the consumer return the product and demand a refund?

I. Approach

1. Where important matters are not provided

There are cases where the Vendor or the store is obliged to provide the user with the information necessary for the use of the information property (i.e. important matters). If such important matters are not provided and if, as a result, the user cannot use the information property, the user can return the product and demand a refund (Paragraph 2, Article 1 of the Civil Code).

2. Specific contents of important matters

At present, the following could fall under the category of important matters:

Matters that could fall under the category of important matters

- Types and versions of the operating system and platform software. Listing the type and version of either the operating system or the platform software is satisfactory, where such information is sufficient.
- Type of CPU and its operating speed
- Main memory capacity
- Hard disk capacity
-

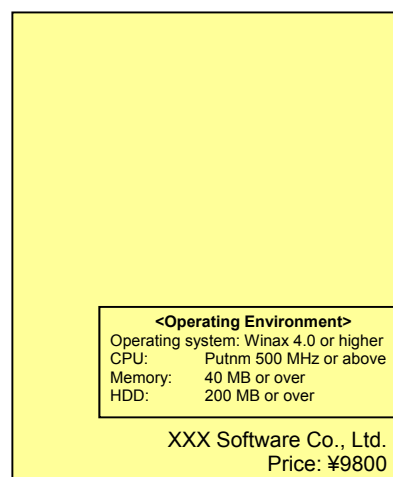
3. Actual methods of providing information

Since only the Vendor has the applicable information, such as that mentioned above, the important matters will usually be written on the outside of the product package, in the case of a medium-type transaction, and be displayed on the contract screen, in the case of an online transaction.

Where important matters have been sufficiently provided

- Important matters are clearly shown, in an enclosure entitled “Operating Environment” etc., at an easily recognizable position for the user, such as near the price on the outside of the product package (see example at right).

-



II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Information property is more highly dependent on an operating environment than other types of property. If employed in the wrong environment, information property may not function at all. It is possible that a user may purchase packaged software from a store but cannot actually use it because he was not been provided with information about the required operating environment. The question in this case is whether the user can terminate the Primary Agreement and return the packaged software to the store.

Based on the principle of good faith and mutual trust prescribed in Paragraph 2, Article 1 of the Civil Code, there are cases where one of the parties to a contract is obliged to provide the other party with certain information and where such other party may terminate the contract if the obligation is not performed.

The problem is how this principle actually applies to trading in information property.

2. Duty to provide information at the conclusion of a contract

Where there is a wide gap between the parties to a contract in terms of information or expertise, the superior party is obliged by the principle of good faith and mutual trust (Paragraph 2, Article 1 of the Civil Code) to provide the other party with information on the important matters material to the conclusion of the contract (“*jūyō-jōkō*”)(hereinafter called “Important Matters”) during the process of conclusion.

In the case of information property, the user cannot use the product purchased

unless the operating environment requirements, such as those concerning the operating system and the platform software, are met. Therefore, the explanation of the operating environment for the information property, which constitutes a supplementary duty at the time of providing the information property, can sometimes be material information (Important Matters) for determining whether the information property can actually be used. Based on the principle of good faith and mutual trust, the minimum operating environment required to employ the information property must be communicated at the time the Primary Agreement is being concluded.

3. Effects of violation of the duty to provide information

In the case where the store is in breach of the duty to provide information, the user is potentially able to return the relevant package software and demand a refund of the paid fee by making the following claim¹.

i) Mistake and fraud (Articles 95 and 96 of the Civil Code)

The user may claim that the s/he would not have purchased software that was not suitable for his/her use environment if accurate information on Important Matters such the operation environment had been provided. On this basis, s/he may claim that the sales contract is void on the basis of mistake (Article 95 of the Civil Code), return the software and demand a refund. Further, in the case where the store owes to the user the duty to provide information under fair and equitable principles, if the store is to sell software to the user without telling him/her about Important Matters and with intention of deceiving him/her and consequently the user purchases it with some misunderstanding of Important Matters regarding the software, the user may potentially rescind the sales contract on the ground of fraud (Paragraph 1, Article 96 of the Civil Code), return the software and demand a refund.

¹ The Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, April 22, 2011; *Minshû* Vol. 65, No. 3, p. 1405 made a determination that in relation to liability for default where one of the contracting parties failed to, in breach of the duty to explain under fair and equitable principles prior to the execution of the relevant contract, provide the other party the information which should have influenced the execution of the contract. In this case, the party in breach was not liable for damages arising from default, though the party was held liable under the law of tort for damages for the loss caused to the other party due to the execution of the contract. In accordance with this judgment, even if the Vendor or the store is in breach of the duty to provide the information on Important Matters to the user prior to the sale of a package software, this breach does not render the Vendor or the store in default of the sales contract, and the user is, as stated in this document, to claim that the contract is void, or to rescind it, on the ground of mistake, return the software and demand a refund, or to pursue the Vendor's or the store's liability for damages under the law of tort.

ii) Rescission pursuant to Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act

If the Vendor or the Store deliberately fails to inform the user of Important Matters and as a result the user purchases package software with the misunderstanding that the software is free from any disadvantageous factor for his/her use, for example any factor related to the user's operation environment, the user may potentially claim to rescind the sales contract, return the software and demand a refund pursuant to Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act.

iii) Rescission under Article 9-3, Article 24-2, Article 40-3, Article 49-2 and Article 58-2 of the Specified Commercial Transactions Act

In the case of a purchase by a consumer which falls within the type of door-to-door sale under the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, if the Vendor or the store deliberately fails to inform the user of Important Matters and as a result the user purchases package software with the misunderstanding that the software is free from any disadvantageous factor for his/her use, for example any factor related to the user's operation environment, and further if the Specified Commercial Transactions Act is applicable to this purchase, the user may potentially claim to rescind the sales contract, return the software and demand a refund in accordance with the Act. If the requirements of rescission under both the Specified Commercial Transactions Act and the Consumer Contract Act are fulfilled, the application of the former Act is prioritized (Paragraph 2, Article 11 of the Consumer Contract Act).

4. Contents of the duty to provide information

Summarizing the actual cases, the following would constitute essential matters that need to be clearly shown as regards the operating environment:

- Types and versions of the operating system and the platform software.
Type and version of either the operating system or the platform software is satisfactory, where such information is sufficient.
- Type of CPU and its operating speed
- Main memory capacity
- Hard disk capacity

Further, in the case where Vendors are to sell package software by employing the method of mail order sale stipulated in the Specified Commercial Transactions Act, they are obliged, under Paragraph 5, Article 11 of the same Act, to represent in their mail order advertisement "the specifications,

performance capability and any other condition of electronic computer required for the use of the relevant product, when they sell any things on which a program is recorded magnetically or optically” and when these things are those prescribed in Item 6, Article 8 of the Ordinance of the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry.

5. Actual methods of providing information

Since only the Vendor has the relevant information, as mentioned above, it will usually be written on the outside of the product package in the case of medium-type transactions and be displayed on the contract screen in the case of online-delivery transactions. For example, if important matters are clearly shown, in an enclosure entitled “Operation Environment” (“*dôsa-kankyô*”)etc., at a position the user can easily perceive, such as a position near the price on the outside of the product package, then the information has been duly provided. Alternatively, the store can always receive information from the Vendor and provide that information to the user at the time the user offers to purchase the right to use the information property.

III-2 Formation of License Agreement without any Act to Execute It on the Part of Contracting Party

[Issue]

In cases where a system firm sells hardware with software installed on it to a user firm, if the user firm has not, on its own initiative, executed the end user license agreement for the software, does the license for the software cover the user firm?

I. Approach

In cases where a system firm sells hardware with software installed on it to a user firm, if the user firm has not, on its own initiative, executed the end user license agreement for the software, it is possible that the license for the software from the software firm does not cover the user firm¹.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

When a software firm sells software, it executes an end user license agreement with a user firm², by which the conditions of software use and a disclaimer clause for the software firm are stipulated between the software firm and the user firm.

However, when a system firm sells hardware with software installed on it to a user firm, it can appear as though the user firm using the software is different from the party executing the relevant contract³. In this case, as the user firm does not appear to engage in executing the end user license on the surface, there can be a dispute over whether the user firm is bound by the end user license agreement. For this reason, this section discusses whether the user firm is bound by the end user license agreement of the software firm in this context and in what case they are bound by the agreement⁴.

¹ In this section, a software firm is assumed to be a business entity which develops and provides software to users and other third parties, and a system firm is assumed to be a business entity which provides computers to users.

² In addition to a written form of agreement, there are online forms of agreement in the case of shrink-wrap contracts and click-on contracts.

³ In this section, although the model case used is the one where software is installed by a system firm, it is possible that the same kind of issue arises where software is installed by an installation service provider or a computer store at the time of purchase.

⁴ This section considers B-to-B system transactions. This kind of issue may arise in relation to other transactions in which the party concerned does not appear to execute a contract on its own. However, transactions with different objects or involving different trading custom require separate consideration.

2. Preconditions (potential contract forms)

When a software firm sells hardware with software installed on it to a user firm, there are considered to be the following contract types.

i) Where a direct end user license agreement is executed (direct license type)

For normal package software, the software firm and the user firm execute an end user license agreement by using a written form, a shrink-wrap contract form or a click-on form. Particularly in the case of the introduction of a large-scale system, the user firm tends to obtain a volume licensing from the software firm. Therefore, this type of situation does not arise often.

When the software firm is to actually provide software to the user firm, such a clause as the following is often set forth in a contract (α Contract) between the parties.

[α -1]

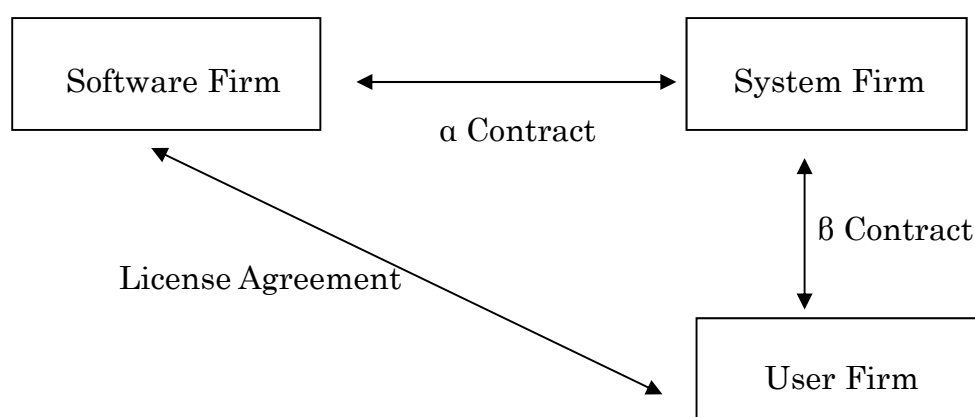
The System Firm shall have the User agree to the End User License Agreement set forth by the Company (the software firm).

In response to this type of clause, the contract executed between the system firm and the user firm (β Contract) contains such a clause as the following.

[β -1]

With regard to the software that is incorporated into the system of the Company and for which the Company has obtained a license from an external party, the User Firm shall execute the End User License Agreement set forth by this external party.

Ordinarily, an end user license agreement is executed between the software firm and the user firm on the basis of these clauses.



ii) Where the end user license agreement is concluded indirectly (sub-license type)

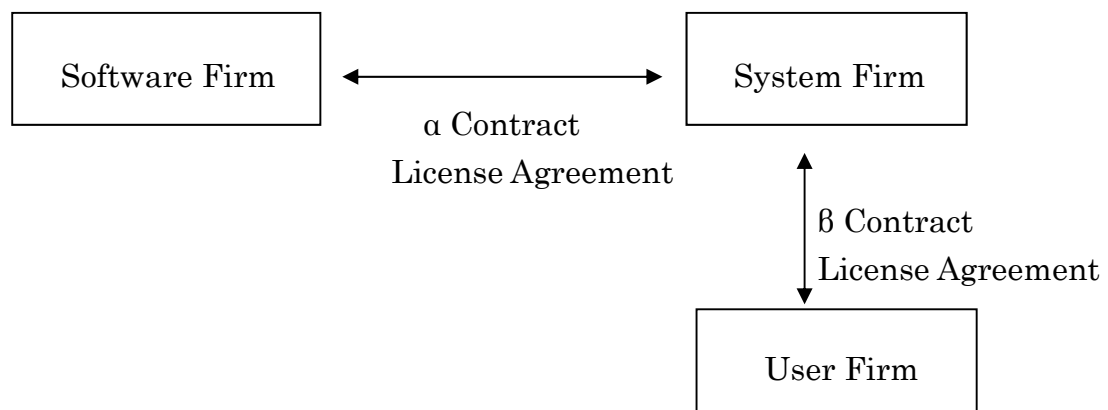
Furthermore, there are cases where the software firm grants a license to the user firm indirectly through the system firm.

In such a case, such a clause as the following is stipulated in α Contract in many cases.

[α -2]

The System Firm may grant a license for use of the software to the User Firm only if an end user license agreement based on the End User License Agreement set forth by the Company (the software firm) is used.

In this case, the user firm is to be bound by β Contract between the system firm and the user firm.



3. Problematic cases

Although an end user license agreement of a software firm is usually executed either under Framework i) or Framework ii) in 2. above, transactions with order forms still exist in the case of the introduction of a system. In many cases, such transactions lead to insufficient explanations by the system firm or insufficient awareness of the end user license agreement on the part of the user firm⁵. For this reason, there can be such problems as those mentioned below.

- Even where there are such a clause as the one in 2. i) above and a framework to directly bind both the software firm and the user firm, if the

⁵ In general, there are user firms with insufficient management of contracts which do not examine detailed end user license agreements sufficiently, and pay attention solely to the functions and prices of their systems when making transactions.

end user license agreement for software takes the form of shrink-wrap contract or the form of click-on contract, it is the system firm that conducts the actual installation operation. Consequently, the user firm has not formally “agreed” to the agreement clauses in this situation.

- The same situation may occur if such a framework as the one in i) or ii) of 2. above has not been organized, or if the clauses of a Contract are not complied with in the operation of the system⁶.

4. Principles

i) In the case of 2. i) above, the user firm has at least executed an agreement, such as a sales contract, with the system firm for a set of a system. The installation of the software on the system is considered to be conducted by the system firm working as the user firm’s beck and call instead of the user firm conducting it on its own. Consequently, opening the package of the software during installation, or clicking the “Agree” button at the time of installation can be recognized as the expression of the user firm’s intention in many cases⁷.

Further, even where it is difficult to find that the system firm acts as a communicating agent of the expression of intention on the part of the user firm, there are at least some cases in which implicit vesting of the power of agency in the system firm can be recognized in relation to the execution of the end user license agreement, when hardware with an external software firm’s software installed on it is purchased. In this case, the execution of the end user license agreement by the software firm is considered to be an act of agency by the same firm and thus to bind the user firm effectively (Article 99 and Article 100 of the Civil Code).

The same principle is considered to apply to many cases falling within 2. ii) above.

ii) Although many cases can be considered in the manner mentioned above, it is possible that the user firm claims that those clauses of the end user license agreement contradicting the understanding of a reasonable user firm in general are not immediately enforceable against the user firm; for example in the case of a clause setting a duration of use of the software which has conventionally been available without such a duration, and in the case of a clause exempting the software firm from liability for any defect in the software irrespective of grounds.

⁶ In the case where a Contract is not complied with despite a contractual framework being organized, the system firm is possibly held liable to the software firm for default.

⁷ This is considered as an act of messenger who communicates the completed expression of intention.

Further, it is not a totally unthinkable case where it is difficult to consider there being a valid execution of the end user license agreement through a messenger or agent in relation to software, the presence of which the user firm is not able to be aware of. For example, if there is software incorporated into the system and unmentioned in the order forms or the specification sheet of the system firm and the user firm, the user firm was potentially unaware of such software at the time of execution of the relevant contract with the system firm. It can be assumed that the user firm potentially claims that the binding effect of the end user license agreement cannot be extended to cover such software and binds the user firm⁸.

Therefore, the following points should be kept in mind in order to prevent future disputes as much as possible.

○ **Software firm**

- To create a framework like the one in i) or ii) of (2) above, prepare clauses for a Contract.
- In the case of 2. i) above, prepare an environment to enable the user firm to confirm the end user license agreement set forth by the software firm⁹.

○ **System firm**

- Regarding the software to be incorporated into the system to be provided to the user firm, check the end user license agreement in advance.
- Prepare clauses for B Contract while bearing in mind the software for which the execution of an end user license agreement is considered to be required, in order to tie the software firm and the user firm together.
- Make best endeavors to promote the end user license agreement for software by, for example, providing to the user firm such agreement of the software firm¹⁰.

⁸ The software that the user firm has difficulty recognizing the existence of may not be specified in transaction documents exchanged between the user firm and the system firm, such as estimates and order forms. Even in such a case, it can be difficult for the binding effect of relevant contract clauses to extend to the user firm through an act of the messenger or agent, though this depends on individual cases. In such a case, it is possible that the license (the license agreement) is deemed not to have been concluded from the first (see III-1-2 2.).

⁹ If, for instance, the user firm did not receive the end user license agreement prior to executing a contract with the system firm until later but does not make any particular complaint, ratification is potentially deemed to have taken place retrospectively (Article 116 of the Civil Code).

¹⁰ A user firm which fails to confirm the end user license agreement (conditions) for software despite the fact the agreement has been provided by the system firm should find it difficult to claim that it is not bound on by it on the ground that the firm is not aware of the contents of the agreement, though it depends on individual cases.

- **User firm**

- Confirm, in advance, each of the clauses of the end user license agreement for the software included in the system that the user firm introduces.

III-3 Unreasonable Clauses of the License Agreement

[Issue]

What clauses of a license agreement may be interpreted as being unreasonable and therefore invalid?

I. Approach

The contractual clauses shown below could be interpreted as invalid. Users are not bound by invalid clauses.

1. Contractual clauses contrary to public policy

Contractual clauses contrary to public policy prescribed in Article 90 of the Civil Code could be interpreted as invalid.

Examples of clauses that could be unreasonable

- Clauses setting extremely advantageous conditions on which the Vendor can terminate the contract.
- Clauses by which the Vendor can only be required to pay a minuscule amount in damages
-

2. Contractual clauses violating the Consumer Contract Act

In consumer contracts, the following clauses could be found invalid under Articles 8 to 10 of the Consumer Contract Act:

Clauses shielding the Vendor from any liability.

Clauses protecting the Vendor from liability for intentional acts or acts of gross negligence.

Clauses making the purchaser liable for damage or penalty amounts at levels unreasonably higher than the amount demanded of the Vendor in similar situations.

Clauses unfairly restricting the rights or expanding the duties of consumers.

Examples of clauses that could be unreasonable:

- Excluding the Vendor from any liability for bugs
- Charging a customer for any repair of bugs
- Setting an extremely short warranty period
-

3. Contractual clauses restricting competition

Contractual clauses that are illegal under the Antimonopoly Act could also be interpreted as invalid under private law since they violate the public policy principle prescribed in Article 90 of the Civil Code.

Examples of clauses that could be unreasonable if they were to impede fair competition in the market:

- Restricting research or experimentation
- Prohibiting the use of specific products or competing products
- Prohibiting reverse engineering
-

4. Contractual clauses restricting the user from making such use of information as permitted by the Copyright Act

Articles 30 to 49 of the Copyright Act partly restrict copyright, that is, permit users to make free use of the information property in a specified way. A view exists that since these clauses are basically discretionary clauses, the rights of users can be contractually restricted. On the other hand, another view exists that clauses of license agreements are invalid which too narrowly restrict how users make use of the information property.

Examples of clauses which could be unreasonable according to the view that contractual clauses are invalid if they more narrowly restrict the user making use of the parts of the information property for which rights are restricted by the Copyright Act:

- Clauses completely forbidding copying for personal use and the making of backup copies
-

II. Explanations

The following clauses of a license agreement could be invalid:

1. Contractual clauses contrary to the public policy prescribed in Article 90 of the Civil Code

Article 90 of the Civil Code provides that a juristic act, the purpose of which is contrary to public policy, shall be invalid. This is based on the view that a contract should be interpreted as invalid if its effects are deemed to be excessively unreasonable from a social point of view. For example, there exists judicial precedent in which a clause was judged invalid as contrary to public policy because it limited the amount of damages awarded for aviation accidents

to 1 million yen (Judgment of Osaka District Court, June 12, 1967, 18-5 to 6 *Kakyûminshû* 641). The same principle could apply to the unreasonable contents of license agreements.

For example, clauses could be judged invalid in accordance with the above principle, which set extremely advantageous conditions by which the Vendor can terminate the contract and by which the Vendor can only be required to pay a minuscule amount in damages.

2. Contractual clauses that violate the consumer contract act

In consumer contracts, the following clauses could be interpreted as invalid under Articles 8 to 10 of the Consumer Contract Act:

Clauses shielding the Vendor from any liability. Clauses protecting the Vendor from liability for intentional acts or acts of gross negligence.

Clauses making the purchaser liable for damage or penalty amounts at levels unreasonably higher than the amount demanded of the Vendor in similar situations.

Clauses unfairly restricting the rights or expanding the duties of consumers.

For example, in accordance with the above, clauses excluding the Vendor from all liability for bugs or clauses which set an extremely short warranty period could be interpreted as invalid.

3. Contractual clauses restricting competition

Contractual clauses that are illegal under the Antimonopoly Act could also be interpreted as invalid under private law because they violate the public policy principle prescribed in Article 90 of the Civil Code.

For example, in accordance with the above, clauses which restrict research or experimentation, which prohibit the use of specific products or competing products, and which prohibit reverse engineering, could be interpreted as invalid if they impede fair competition in the market.

In regard to provisions prohibiting reverse-engineering, the Fair Trade Commission issued a document entitled “Views on Software Licensing Agreements, etc. under the Antimonopoly Act – An Interim Report of the Study Group on Software and the Competition Policy.” Specifically, provisions prohibiting reverse-engineering are considered invalid due to their deleterious effect on competition in the market under the following circumstances: (1) where it is necessary to obtain interface information concerning the applicable software in order to develop hardware or software which is compatible with the platform software such as operating systems; (2) the licensor has not provided the interface information; and (3) the performance of reverse-engineering by the

licensee is an essential and unavoidable measure in order to develop software and hardware for the applicable software.

(http://www.meti.go.jp/policy/economy/keiei_innovation/shijyoukyousou/pdf/020320.pdf)

4. Contractual clauses restricting the user from making use of information property whose rights are restricted by the Copyright Act

When information property is protected by the Copyright Act, the scope of the copyright can be partly restricted by the law (Articles 30 to 49 of the Copyright Act). The Copyright Act allows users to make free use of particular parts of the information property. A view exists that since these clauses are basically discretionary clauses, the user's right can be contractually restricted. On the other hand, another view exists that clauses of license agreements are invalid which too narrowly restrict how users make use of the information property. According to this view, clauses which completely forbid copying for personal use and the making of backup copies could be interpreted as invalid.

III-4 End of the License Agreement

Formulated: March 2002

III-4-1 Duties of the User upon Contract Expiry

[Issue]

When a license agreement is terminated or otherwise ends, what specific duties does the user owe?

(Example)

After terminating the license agreement, can the user legally retain the information property?

I. Approach

1. Duty of user on termination of the license agreement (restoration; “*genjō-kaifuku*”)

After the license agreement is terminated, the user has a duty to stop using the information property. To ensure that this duty is performed, the Vendor may demand that the user erase the information property.

2. Duty of user where no license agreement was formed (duty to avoid unjust enrichment; “*futō-ritoku-henkan-gimu*”)

Because the user has a duty to avoid becoming unjustly enriched, where no license agreement is formed, the user may not use the information property. To ensure that this duty is performed, the Vendor may demand that the user erase the information property.

3. Duty of User upon the expiry of the term of the license agreement

When the license agreement expires, the user must fulfill his duty as specified in the license agreement. Therefore, even though the user cannot continue to use the information property after the expiry of the license agreement, he is only obliged to erase it where the license agreement requires.

II. Explanations

This problem will be confronted in three scenarios: (1) early termination of the license agreement; (2) non-formation of the license agreement; and (3) expiry of the term of the agreement.

1. Duty of the user after termination of the license agreement

(1) Problem identification

When a contract is terminated, each party has a duty to restore the

counterparty to their respective state which existed before the contract was formed (hereinafter called the “Restoration Duty”) under Article 545 of the Civil Code. The Restoration Duty is essentially a duty to avoid any one party becoming unjustly enriched at the expense of the counterparty. However, the scope of the Restoration Duty is larger than that of unjust enrichment. In principle, Restoration Duty specifically means the return of any tangible object already delivered by a Vendor who has terminated the contract. If what has already been delivered cannot be returned in its original form due to its nature, then the objective monetary value of the object must be presented in its place.

Therefore, when a license agreement for information property is terminated, the user not only has to stop using the information property but also has to return any copy of the information property made. However, since information property as an intangible object is impossible to return (to transfer the possession of), a question arises about what the Restoration Duty in Article 545 of the Civil Code means for information property.

(2) Contents of the Restoration Duty

If a license agreement is terminated, the user has to stop using the information property because he no longer has the right to use it. However, if the user retains the information property after the license agreement is terminated, there exists the possibility that he might continue to use it even though he has no right to do so.

From the perspective of the Vendor, he wishes to take the information property out of the control of the user, so that the user cannot further employ or otherwise benefit from the information property.

Therefore, according to the Restoration Duty prescribed in Article 545 of the Civil Code, a user has to stop using the information property at the time the license agreement is terminated. In order to ensure the performance of this duty, the Vendor may demand that the user completely erase (delete) the information property.

In the Copyright Act, Paragraph 2, Article 47-3 provides that the owner of a copy of a program shall not retain other copies of the program after ceasing to possess ownership rights to the copy. The reason that this provision does not allow the owner to retain copies of the program is that if, after transferring any of the copies, the owner is permitted to use the remaining copies, he can easily use the program any number of times, thus unduly harming the interests of the copyright holder. Therefore, requiring the erasure of a copy of information property is consistent with the spirit of the Copyright Act.

2. Duty of user where no license agreement formed

(1) Problem identification

Where certain information property has been provided (transmitted) to a user in conclusion of a contract, if no license agreement is formed or has become invalid, the user has to both stop using the information property and to return any copy of the information property. These acts are necessitated by Article 703 of the Civil Code which places a duty on the user to avoid becoming unjustly enriched and under which the retention of any copies of information property constitutes a benefit.

However, since it is impossible to return (to transfer possession of) information property, by nature an intangible object, a question arises about what the duty to return unjust enrichment as prescribed in Article 703 of the Civil Code actually means.

(2) Duty to return unjust enrichment

When a user makes a copy of information property, the Vendor suffers no loss because the cost of the copy is borne by the user.

However, if the user retains a copy of the information property, he might continue to use it despite possessing no right to do so, even if no contract was formed. Such act is highly likely to cause damage to the Vendor. In addition, it is difficult to quantitatively estimate the extent of the damage.

From the perspective of the Vendor, he wishes to take the information property out of the control of the user, so that the user cannot further employ or otherwise benefit from the information property.

Therefore, according to the duty to return unjust enrichment under Article 703 of the Civil Code (or at least through the analogical application of Article 703 of the Civil Code where its clauses do not directly apply), the user may not employ the information property if a license agreement has not been formed and, in order to ensure that the user will not employ it, the Vendor may demand that the user completely erase (delete) the information property.

3. Duty of user at the expiry of the term of the license agreement

The duty of the user at the expiry of the term of the license agreement can be expressly defined as “contractual obligations”. The duty of the user for contractual obligations is exclusively confined to such stipulated obligations. Therefore, although the user cannot continue to use the information property after the expiry of the license agreement, he is only obliged to erase it where the license agreement requires.

III-4-2 Validity of Security Measures in Preparation for Contract Termination

[Issue]

Will the Vendor have to assume any responsibility where he takes technical protections to forcibly prevent the user from illegally using the information property after the end of the license agreement?

(Example)

A program suddenly stops functioning as a result of technical protections taken in advance by its Vendor to prepare for the expiry of the effective term of the license agreement. In this case, will the Vendor have to assume any responsibility?

I. Approach

1. Principle

A technical protections which restricts the use of information property could be interpreted as a means of compulsory execution other than by a court and thus constitute a tort (i.e. a violation of the principle prohibiting self-enforcement).

2. Exception

However, it is likely that if at least the following three requirements are met that such technical protections will not be interpreted as illegal self-enforcement:

(1) The user has agreed, in advance, that the Vendor may take such technical means.

Examples which meet the requirement

- The taking of such technical protections is clearly described in the license agreement, and the user has agreed to the agreement.
-

(2) Such technical protections are limited to preventing the continued use of the information property.

Examples which meet the requirement

- Sanctions that stop the operation of the information property after warning.
-

Examples which do not meet the requirement

- Sanctions that destroy the files created using the information property.
- Sanctions that interfere with the operation of the computer system.
-

(3) Such technical protections have been taken in advance.

Examples which do not meeting this requirement

- Methods are installed during a later maintenance operation.
- Methods are installed by transmitting information to the relevant information property via network like internet.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

After the expiry of a license agreement for information property, a user could continue to use the information property without paying any consideration therefore. To prevent such occurrence, the Vendor may apply a technical means to the information property which functions to forcibly terminate its use, such as making access to the information property impossible or deleting the information property.

Paragraph 1, Article 414 of the Civil Code provides that if a debtor does not voluntarily perform his obligation, the creditor may apply for compulsory enforcement to the court. Conversely, this means that the creditor is not allowed to directly enforce the debtor to perform his obligation (“the prohibition on self-enforcement”; “*jiriki-kyûsai-kinshi-gensoku*”). In principle, the creditor is prohibited from enforcing his right (claim) to any person (by private enforcement). Although it is not expressly stipulated in the Civil Code, most of the academic theories and judicial precedents agree that the enforcement contrary to this principle constitutes a tort.

Therefore, when a Vendor uses a technical means to forcibly obstruct the use of information property at the end of the license agreement, a question arises about whether this act violates the principle prohibiting self-enforcement.

2. Standards for judgment

(1) Presence of a prior agreement

When the Vendor has obtained the prior consent of the user that the information property will be unavailable for use at the expiry of the license agreement, the principle prohibiting self-enforcement will not apply.

However, generally, in a case of title retention (“*shoyûken-ryuhô*”), contract clauses usually include such clause as the debtor shall bear a self-enforcement by the creditor, by virtue of recovery clause (“*torimodosi-yakkan*”). However, common theories did not justify such self-enforcement only based on the prior agreement as mentioned above. A judicial precedent (Judgment of Fukushima District Court, February 24, 1972; *Hanta*, no.278, p.201) concerns a case in which an act of repossession was performed by virtue of a recovery clause. The judgment says that, in consideration of the principle prohibiting self-enforcement, the clause could be interpreted as invalid under Article 90 of the Civil Code.

Therefore, the validity of a prior agreement, which allows the presence of a technical means to restrict use to information property, could raise questions in light of the principle prohibiting self-enforcement.

(2) Technical sanctions limited to the prevention of continued use (ensuring the termination of contract)

In a license agreement, it could be agreed in advance that a technical means could employ measures which go beyond merely preventing the future use of information property. However, if the Vendor pressures the user to perform his obligations including payment of the license fee, by way of threatening the use of the software other than the information property which was licensed to the user: such as erasing other information on the hard disks such as files, etc. created and stored using the information property on the hard disk; or interfering with the operations of the computer system. These sanctions would be invalid due to its excessive restriction to the users, considering the difference of the bargaining power of the parties when they entered into such agreement.

(3) Technical sanctions taken in advance

A prior agreement may permit the application of technical protections after the agreement is in force, not in advance, for example, through the modification of the computer system of a user during a maintenance operation which allows the Vendor to prevent the user from employing the information property. This modification could be performed after a certain period or by sending specific signals which prevent the information property from functioning on a network such as the Internet. Such practice may often be arbitrarily used by the Vendor. Therefore, despite the existence of a prior agreement, this practice could be found as an abuse of rights.

3. Summary

In summary, it is highly likely that a technical sanction will be found legal, and not a means of self-enforcement, if (i) the user has agreed in advance that the Vendor may implement the extraordinary technical means; (ii) the technical means is limited to the prevention of the continued use of the information property (ensuring the end of the contract); and (iii) the technical means has been taken in advance.

III-5 Liability of Vendors on Programs

[Issue]

If a program malfunctions because of a “bug”, what responsibility does the Vendor have to the user?

(Example)

There are cases where a program warranty period (such as within XX days of delivery) is set in the license agreement. If the user has discovered a bug which constitutes a product defect after the expiry of that period, can he question the responsibility of the Vendor?

I. Approach

1. For which bugs (which is considered to be defects) is the Vendor responsible?

(1) Where a program does not have normally expected function nor quality (judged by the reasonable standard based on the trade practice); and (2) where any malfunction occurs when the program is used under the usually predictable circumstances or along with the usually predictable way of use, then the bug in the program is deemed to be a defect, and the user can hold the Vendor responsible therefor.

(1) Where a program does not have the normally expected functions or quality judged by the reasonable standard of trade practice

Examples that do not have the usual functions or quality

- A program does not operate at all.
-

Examples that have the usual functions or quality

- Although the user tried to combine ruled lines, shading, rotation, and double sized font using the word-processing software, the intended result was not obtained.
-

(2) Where a malfunction occurs when a program is used under the normally predictable circumstances or along with the usually predictable way of use

Examples not falling into this category

- A malfunction occurred when a program was used in an operating environment

which did not satisfy the operating environment requirements shown on the outside of the product package.

- A malfunction occurred as a result of a modification the user made to the program code.
- A malfunction occurred only in certain user environments
-

2. When a bug is deemed to be a product defect, what responsibility does the Vendor have to the user?

A user may demand for damages, for repair or replacement of product against the Vendor, or terminate the contract. However, when considering the nature of software programs, the user may not claim for damages declining the Vendor's offer to repair the software by virtue of principles of good faith, when the Vendor promptly offered to repair or replacement of the software and such repair or replacement is easy to be conducted when the user accept it.

3. How long can the Vendor would be responsible for bugs deemed to be product defects?

Where a license agreement contains a special clause which stipulates a shorter warranty period for bugs deemed to be product defects, a question arises about whether the license is valid.

(1) Where the user is a consumer

Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act declares that any clause extremely disadvantageous to the consumer is invalid. For example, clauses which provide an extremely short warranty period for bugs deemed to be product defects could be considered invalid. Further, special clauses can be construed as invalid if such clauses are found to be offensive to public order and morals.

Cases where a clause could be judged invalid due to violating the Consumer Contract Act

- Clauses which set an extremely short warranty period for a program
-

The Civil Code and other laws apply where clauses are judged invalid or where there is no special clause. Therefore, the user can demand for damages either of the following period; (A) for one year from the discovery of the defects in case of purchases and for one year from the delivery in case of contracts for work by virtue of warranty obligation; and (B) for five years from

the timing to request for the performance of the original obligation by virtue of non-performance of the obligation. With respect to defect warranty liability (“*kashi-tampo-sekinin*”) (Article 570[Sales Contract; “*baibai*”] and 634[Work Contract; “*ukeoi*”] of the Civil Code), obligation period is stipulated as (i) one year from the discovery of the defects (Sales Contract, Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code) and (ii) one year from the delivery (Work Contract, Paragraph 1, Article 637 of the Civil Code). With respect to non-performance of the main obligation (“*saimu-furikō*”) (Article 415 of the Civil Code), ten years from the timing to request for the performance of the original obligation (Paragraph 1, Article 166 and Paragraph 1, Article 167 of the Civil Code); rather, five years from the timing to request for the performance of the original obligation because the Commercial Code will apply to Vendors which are usually marchants (Article 522 of the Commercial Code). The period of the liability for impossibility of performance of restoration based on cancellation is ten years (in principle) or five years (in the case of commercial obligations) from the time when a demand for restoration on the basis of cancellation becomes available to be made.

(2) Where the user is not a consumer

The Consumer Contract Act does not apply where the user is not a consumer. If there is a particular clause in the agreement, it applies. However, special clauses can be construed as invalid if such clauses are found to be offensive to public order and morals.

If there is no particular clause, under the Civil Code and other laws, the user can demand for damages against the Vendor for either of the following obligation period; (A) by virtue of warranty obligation, obligation period shall be one year from the delivery in case of purchases and one year from the delivery in case of contracts for work; (B) by virtue of non-performance of main obligation when demanding for damages against delay in performance, five years from the timing of non-performance of the original obligation. More specifically, with respect to the warranty obligation, basically one year from the discovery of the defects (Sales Contract, Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code) or one year from the delivery (Work Contract, Article 637 of the Civil Code).

The provisions of the Commercial Code apply to sale and purchase between merchants. The buyer is required to inspect the subject matter of sale upon receiving it without delay (Paragraph 1, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). In the case where the buyer finds any defect in the subject matter of sale as a

result of the inspection, s/he may not hold the seller accountable for defect liability, unless the buyer immediately notifies the seller of such defect (the first half of Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). In the case where the subject matter of sale contains a defect that is not immediately obvious in an inspection and where the buyer finds such defect within six months after its delivery, s/he may not hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability, unless the buyer immediately notified the seller to this effect (the latter half of Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). In pursuing the liability of the seller after notifying the seller of any defect, Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code applies and the time limit designated in the same provision applies. On the other hand, for any defect found more than six months after the delivery of the subject matter of sale, the buyer is not allowed to hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability at all (the latter half of Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Commercial Code).

In relation to transactions between merchants, Article 526 of the Commercial Code applies to cases of holding the seller accountable for the liability for non-performance due to a bug in the relevant program, and the time limit designated in the same Article applies.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Programs are kind of information property which can have unintentional consequences, for example, where a programming error (hereinafter referred to as a “Bug”) interferes with the normal operation of the computer. Bugs will prevent the user from using the program thoroughly.

Either of the following clauses could apply to this problem¹:

- (1) Defect warranty liability: should be filed to the court within 1 year from the discovery of a defect under Article 570 of the Civil Code (Sales Contract) or within 1 year of delivery under Article 634 of the Civil Code (Work Contract)
- (2) Non-performance of the main obligation: Article 415 (Damages due to Default, Demand for Full Performance), Article 541 (Right to Cancel for Delayed Performance) and Article 543 (Right to Cancel for Impossibility of

¹ The liability under the Product Liability Act covers that of “products (*“seizô-butsu”*)”, namely “the movable and tangible properties which have been produced or processed”, and does not cover programs, in principle. However, in case of the purchase of product (movable and tangible property) such as personal computer, if a defect is found in a program recorded in the CD-ROMs and it constitutes a defect of a whole product, the manufacturer of such product (movable and tangible property) may be responsible for the product liability.

Performance) of the Civil Code)... The right to claim damages due to delayed performance and the right to claim damages in lieu of performance due to impossibility of performance are permitted to be made for a period of ten years in principle from the time when a claim for the performance of the main obligation becomes available to be made (in the case of the right to claim damages due to impossibility of performance of restoration on the basis of cancellation, this period of ten years starts from the time when a claim for restoration due to cancellation becomes available to be made). However, as normally Vendors are merchants, the period is five years after a claim for the performance of the main obligation becomes available to be made under Article 522 of the Commercial Code.

In order to apply these clauses, the following questions need to be answered: i) a) In what cases can the Vendor be held responsible for program Bugs? b) How long can the Vendor be held responsible? ii) Where a license agreement contains particular clause exempting the Vendor from certain responsibilities, is such special clause valid?

The Act to Amend Part of the Penal Code etc., to Deal with the Advancement of Information Processing (Act No.74 of 2011, enacted on June 17, 2011, promulgated on June 24, 2011, and enforced since July 14, 2011 except part of the Penal Code) newly established the offense related to electromagnetic records of unjust commends (Chapter XIX-II of Part II of the Penal Code, Crimes Related to So-called Computer Viruses). However, the so-called offense of virus creation etc., (Article 168-2 of the same Code etc.) is a crime of intent (Paragraph 1, Article 38 of the same Code). Accordingly, for instance, this offense is not proved if a bug is generated mistakenly in the course of the development of a program and the developer of the program provide the program to users without realizing the bug. It is unlikely that normal development and provision of a program amounts to the offense².

2. Defects on programs

(1) How to determine whether a program is defective

Where a program, as object of a contract, does not have the usually expected

² According to the person in charge of drafting, the offense should be proved in the following situation: “in the case where the result caused by a defect in the program is far from what general users can tolerate and expect from the characteristics of the software and the provided explanations, if a person who has been informed of such a problem in the program and sufficiently aware of the defect uses this opportunity to deceive another person having no knowledge of the defect into downloading the program with the intention of causing damage to this person by using this program as a virus.” However, the person in charge of drafting stated, “there will be only a few cases falling under this offense.” (“Offense Related to So-called Computer Viruses” by the Ministry of Justice <<http://www.moj.go.jp/content/000076666.pdf>> [last visited on September 30, 2011])

functions or quality judged by the standard based on trade practice, it will be considered that the program has a defect.

In particular, the following are the examples of cases in which the program may not be considered a defect.

First of all, how a program function depends on the environment in which it is used. It is usually clearly indicated which operating environment a program requires. Where a program is used outside of the stipulated operating environment and any difficulties arise in the proper functioning of the program, such malfunctioning shall not constitute defects.

Secondly, the user should reasonably be able to understand how a program can be properly be used by referring to its manual, company website, etc. Therefore, a Vendor is not responsible for any problem arising through the unusual way of use of the program, which was not normally predicted by the Vendor (for example, where a problem occurs after the user modified the program code).

Furthermore, a Bug in a program would be necessarily considered as a defect; minor Bugs which do not interfere with the normal use by the user shall not constitute defect. In addition, despite the Bug's presence, if the program can be repaired and used smoothly with the user's "patch", such Bugs might not be deemed to constitute defects. Among the court's precedent (e.g., Judgment of Tokyo District Court, February 18, 1997; *Hanta*, no.964, p.172) states that because every program is likely to have some Bugs, a program should not be considered as having defect because of the Bug if the Vendor repair the Bugs promptly after becoming aware thereof or if they quickly take reasonable, alternative steps after consulting with users.

(2) The responsibility of the Vendor (Application of the Civil Code)

If a defective program is delivered to a user in exchange for payment, the Vendor is responsible for the defect. Under the Civil Code, the Vendor will be either claimed for (A) defect warranty liability (Article 570[Sales Contract] or Article 634[Work Contract] of the Civil Code); or (B) non-performance of the main obligation (Article 415 of the Civil Code).

i) Defect warranty liability

The user could either (A) terminate the contract, (B) demand for damages or (C) demand for repair of defect.

However, the termination option under (A) above is only available in "cases where the purpose of the transaction cannot be achieved" (Article 566

[Sales Contract] and Article 635 [Work Contract], both of which refer to Article 570 of the Civil Code). Should the Vendor fix the program so that it performs its intended functions, the purpose of the transaction will have been achieved. Therefore, if as demanded by the user, the program is fixed or a functioning replacement is provided, the user cannot terminate the contract as such scenario constitutes a “case where the purpose of the transaction is achieved”.

As for (B), considering the nature of the program that can easily be repaired, the user should not demand damages after rejecting the offer of the Vendor to promptly repair the program or the provision of a replacement under the principle of good face and trust, as is usually preferable to the Vendor.

ii) Non-performance of the main obligation

A Vendor commits a contractual default where he supplies a defective product which cannot perform its stated functions. In response, the user can either (A) terminate the contract; (B) demand damages; or (C) demand fulfillment of obligation.

(A) Termination of the contract

Article 541 and 543 of the Civil Code stipulate that, where a party to a contract may terminate a contract if the party has already demanded the obligor to perform its obligation within a specified reasonable period of time, and yet the obligor did not perform its obligation, or where it is impossible for the obligor to perform its obligation. Specifically, if a user demands the Vendor fulfill its obligations within a specified (reasonable) time period, which is reasonable, and if the Vendor fixes the program's defect or provides a functioning replacement within the specified period, then the user may not terminate the contract.

(B) Damages

Under the Article 415 of the Civil Code, if a Vendor cannot perform in accordance with a substance of the obligation, then the user may demand damages. According to the article, the user may also demand damages if the user suffers any damage from a delay in the Vendor fulfilling his obligations. However, considering the nature of the program which may be easily repaired, the user may not demand for damages under and in accordance with the principle of good face, as mentioned above, without accepting the Vendor's offer to fix or replacement, which is easily realized

and is less onerous for the Vendor.

(C) Fulfillment of obligation (“*kanzen-rikō*”)

It is possible for a consumer, who purchased a defective product, to demand its repair or replacement under Article 415 of the Civil Code.

3. Period of the Vendor’s liability

Unless there is any particular agreement in the license agreement, the period of the obligation shall be as follows:

The period of the defect warranty liability is limited to the following periods: one (1) year after the user becomes aware of the defect (Articles 570 and Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code [Sales Contract]) or one (1) year after delivery (Paragraph 1, Article 637 of the Civil Code [Work Contract]). However, in the case of sale, the user may not hold the Vendor accountable for defect warranty liability after ten years (Paragraph 1, Article 167 of the Civil Code; or five years in the case where it is a commercial activity for the Vendor or the user pursuant to Article 522 of the Commercial Code) have passed after delivery, even within one year after the user becomes aware of the relevant defect. The provision of Article 526 of the Commercial Code applies to sale and purchase when both the Vendor and the user are merchants, and the buyer is required to inspect the subject matter of sale upon receiving it without delay (Paragraph 1, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). In the case where the buyer finds any defect in the subject matter of sale as a result of the inspection, s/he may not hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability, unless the buyer immediately notifies the seller of such defect (the first half of Paragraph 2 of the same Article). In the case where the subject matter of sale contains a defect that is not immediately obvious in an inspection and where the buyer finds such defect within six months after its delivery, s/he may not hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability, unless the buyer immediately notifies the seller of such defect (the latter half of the same Paragraph). In holding the seller accountable for liability after the seller is notified about the relevant defect, Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code applies, and the time limit in the same provision applies. On the other hand, for any defect found six months after the delivery of the subject matter of sale, the buyer is not allowed to hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability at all (the latter half of Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). However, in the case of sale and purchase, the user may not hold the Vendor accountable for defect warranty liability after ten years (Paragraph 1, Article 167 of the Civil Code; or

five years in the case where it is a commercial activity for the Vendor or the user pursuant to Article 522 of the Commercial Code) have passed after delivery, even within one year after the user becomes aware of the relevant defect. The provision of Article 526 of the Commercial Code applies to sale and purchase when both the Vendor and the user are merchants, and the buyer is required to inspect the subject matter of sale upon receiving it without delay (Paragraph 1, Article 526 of the Commercial Code). In the case where the buyer finds any defect in the subject matter of sale as a result of the inspection, s/he may not hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability, unless the buyer immediately notifies the seller of such defect (the first half of Paragraph 2 of the same Article). In the case where the subject matter of sale contains a defect that is not immediately obvious in an inspection and where the buyer finds such defect within six months after delivery, s/he may not claim to hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability, unless the buyer immediately notifies the seller of such defect (the latter half of the same paragraph). In holding the seller accountable for liability after the seller is notified of the relevant defect, Paragraph 3, Article 566 of the Civil Code applies, and the time limit in the same provision applies. On the other hand, for any defect found six months after the delivery of the subject matter of sale, the buyer is not allowed to hold the seller accountable for defect warranty liability at all (the latter half of Paragraph 2, Article 526 of the Commercial Code).

Further, with regard to liability for non-performance, the right to claim damages due to delayed performance and the right to claim damages in lieu of performance due to impossibility of performance will be extinguished after ten years from the time when a claim for the performance of the original obligation becomes available to be made for the reason of prescription (Paragraph 1, Article 167 of the Civic Code). However, as Vendors are normally merchants, the right will be extinguished after a period of five years has passed under Article 522 of the Commercial Code. The right to claim damages due to impossibility of performance of restoration on the basis of cancellation will be extinguished ten years (in principle) or five years (in the case of commercial obligations) after the time when a demand for restoration, which is the original obligation here, becomes available to be made; that is to say, normally after the time of cancellation. In the case where default causes damage to the other properties or health of the creditor (in the case of extended damage), a claim for damages will be extinguish ten years after the time of the default for the reason of prescription.

In the case of transactions between the Vendor and the user both as a merchant, Article 526 of the Commercial Code applies to cases of holding the

Vendor accountable for the liability for non-performance due to a bug in the relevant program, and the time limit designated in the same Article applies.

4. Disclaimer clause of defect warranty liability or non-performance of the main obligation

(1) Where the user is a consumer

Some license agreements have disclaimer clauses concerning defect warranty liability or main obligation of the contract. However, in consumer contracts, the following special clauses are likely to be declared invalid as violations of Items 1, 2, or 5, Paragraph 1, Article 8 or Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act:

Clauses which shield the Vendor from any and all liability to indemnify the consumer for damages resulting from the Vendor's non-performance of obligation

Clauses which partially shield the Vendor from liability to indemnify the consumer for damages resulting from the intentional, or grossly negligent, non-performance of main obligation.

Clauses which shield the Vendor from any and all liability to indemnify the consumer for damages caused by a product defect; provided, however, that these clauses would be valid if it is stipulated in such contract that the Vendor should be responsible, when a latent defect is found in the subject item under such contract, to provide replacement or repair such defect (Item 1, Paragraph 2, Article 8 of said Act) or if a Vendor's affiliate bearing a certain relation to such Vendor is held responsible (Item 2, Paragraph 2, Article 8 of said Act).

Clauses which restrict the rights of consumers or excessively disadvantageous to consumers

For example, clauses which shield the Vendor from any liability related to the Bugs; clauses which stipulate that Bugs will only be repaired on a chargeable basis. These clauses could be ruled invalid under Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act. In a similar context, where the nature of a program necessitate a certain warranty period, and where a clause sets an unreasonably short, the clause could be judged invalid under Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act.

(2) Where the user is not a consumer

When the user is not a consumer, the Consumer Contract Act naturally does not apply. For that reason, any special clause will be applicable in principle.

III-6 SLA (Service Level Agreement) for SaaS / ASP

[Issue]

Where transactions of software involve a "Software as a Service" ("SaaS"), it is widely considered important that parties to the transaction pre-agree on the service level in order to avoid later disputes. Regarding this issue, this memorandum will herein discuss the legal implications of such prior agreements in the above-mentioned transactions. Furthermore, this memorandum will also discuss the kinds of matters that should be pre-agreed upon.

I. Approach

Where a Service Level Agreement ("SLA") is executed with the user of a SaaS¹, if the parties stipulate to the SLA as a legal obligation, a party who fails to achieve the pre-agreed service level shall bear liability for non-performance of obligations (Article 415 of the Civil Code). By contrast, where the SLA is stipulated, but merely as a nonbinding target, even if the service provider fails to fulfill the service level prescribed therein, he/she/it will not necessarily bear liability for non-performance of obligations; provided, however, that when the provider's service is designed for general consumers, some contractual clauses discharging the service provider from all or part of liabilities may be nullified pursuant to the Consumer Contract Act (Act No.61 of 2000, "*shouhi sha hogo hou*" in Japanese) in certain cases.

II. Explanations

1. SaaS

"SaaS" is defined as "software, which part of the functions are, upon delivery thereof by its developer, etc., exclusively selected by customers according to their specific needs"², meaning that the service provider allows users of the SaaS to gain access, via a network, only to the functions which they wish to utilize and in consideration for which payment is made³.

¹ The definition of an "SLA" is sometimes ambiguous. For the purpose of this Guideline, an "SLA" is defined as a "specific commitment in writing by and between the IT service provider and outsourcer on the level of quality of service required in light of its scope and contents and other underlying circumstances, as well as the management rules on adequate implementation of the matters prescribed upon the execution of the IT service agreement". ("Guidelines for Introduction of an SLA to Government Procurement Relating to Information Systems", Information-Technology Promotion Agency, Japan ("*dokuritsu gyousei houjin joho shori suishin kikou*" in Japanese), March 2004)

² Dictionary of IT Information Management Terminology ("*IT joho management yougo jiten*" in Japanese) (<http://www.atmarkit.co.jp/im/terminology/>).

³ In certain cases, this term is understood as a synonym for the so-called "application service provider" ("ASP").

Examples of a SaaS include Customer Relationship Management (CRM), Sales Force Automation (SFA), personal affairs management and payroll calculation service, accounting and corporate service, electronic mail service, collaboration tool related service, security measures service, PC help desk service, ID management and authentication service, etc.

The SaaS is literally a “service”, and therefore the term means the offering of service via the internet, etc. In this regard, its users' major concern will be focused on what service they can receive. On the other hand, unlike a simple purchase and sale of products, the legal implications of a SaaS remain somewhat ambiguous due to the nature of the term "service." Furthermore, considering the nature of a SaaS, which offers its services via a network on a computer system, we cannot reasonably expect that such service will be perfectly rendered by the service provider at all times.

Therefore, to avoid disputes with customers, it is recommended that the service provider offering a SaaS objectively set forth the service level in the SLA, thereby making it clear in advance what service will be offered to the customers.

For details regarding the example SLA with reference to how the service level should be established, see the “SLA Guidelines for SaaS (*"SaaS muke SLA guideline"* in Japanese)” published by the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry⁴.

2. Legal Effect of SLA

The legal implications of an SLA will be entirely different depending on whether its provisions are stipulated as legal obligations or merely as a nonbinding target.

If the SLA is stipulated as a legal obligation and the party owing such obligation fails to achieve the prescribed service level, such party shall bear liability for non-performance of obligations (Article 415 of the Civil Code). By contrast, where the SLA is stipulated merely as a nonbinding target, even if the service provider fails to fulfill the service level prescribed therein, he/she/it will not necessarily bear liability for non-performance of obligations⁵.

Therefore, a service provider must decide whether each provision within the SLA should be stipulated as a legal obligation or as a nonbinding target on a case-by-case basis, considering the contents of services, infrastructure, working

⁴ *"SaaS muke SLA guideline"* in Japanese (January 21, 2008, Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry)
<http://www.meti.go.jp/committee/materials/downloadfiles/g80207c05j.pdf>

⁵ A service provider should nonetheless responsibly make constant efforts to achieve and maintain the expected level of service.

applications, the amount of usage fee collected from users, etc.⁶.

Furthermore, service providers will also need to stipulate a disclaimer or limitation of the amount of damages in relation to predictable risk factors⁷.

In this regard, however, it should be noted that, if such service is designed for general consumers, the Consumer Contract Act (Act No. 61 of 2000, "*shouhisya keiyaku hou*" in Japanese) may, without prejudice to the contractual disclaimer or limitation of damages in the SLA, restrict or bar the service provider from receiving legal effects thereof.

On the contrary, those who wish to utilize a SaaS are expected to review and decide whether the service provider is discharging his/her/its expected duties in light of the amount of consideration payable to the provider, whether the provision imposing obligations on the service provider is so constituted as to ensure the fulfillment of services provided to users, and whether the provider bears responsibility for non-fulfillment of such obligations⁸.

3. Recommended Items to be Included in SLA

(1) Conditions Precedent

It is indispensable to stipulate conditions precedent, such as the communication environment surrounding users as well as hardware specifications.

(2) Availability

It is particularly important for users to be informed of the availability of the service they receive. In this regard, it is recommended to stipulate the time zone and availability ratio etc. of the service.

⁶ Note that, even where the provision of the SLA is a nonbinding target, if the indication in the SLA misleads general consumers due to significant differences between the services actually offered by the service provider and the services declared to be available to customers, some legal issues may arise, such as failure to complete the service agreement, miscomprehension ("*sakugo*" in Japanese, Article 95 of the Civil Code), and misleading representation as restricted under the Act against Unjustifiable Premiums and Misleading Representations, etc. (Act No.134 of 1962, "*futou keihin oyobi futou hyouji boushi hou*" in Japanese).

⁷ In certain cases, parties to the SLA may agree upon the penalty, such as a partial refund of usage fee depending on the seriousness of non-fulfillment of the pre-agreed service level. The service provider will be discharged from liabilities exceeding a certain limit if such agreement on penalty is set forth as a limitation of damages, while such agreement will facilitate customers' claim of penalty against the service provider; therefore, it may be profitable for both parties to set forth a reasonable provision on such penalty in the SLA.

⁸ In the case that the SLA provides as a binding clause that the service provider reserves the right to amend the service level at his/her/its own discretion, the binding effect of such provision would significantly be reduced. Such unilateral amendment of the SLA will not pose any serious problems if the SaaS is provided to customers on the occasion of the *beta* test (test to detect a bug) or free of charge by virtue of revenues derived from advertisements; on the other hand, however, such provision may give rise to disputes between customers and a service provider when the customers pay substantial consideration for the service. To avoid such a situation, it is recommended to set forth a clause granting customers the right to terminate the service agreement in the event of any material amendment etc. to the SLA.

For example, if period suspension of service is expected due to maintenance or management, the SLA should expressly mention that fact in advance. Moreover, considering the nature of the SaaS, one can hardly expect the availability ratio of the SaaS to be 100%, and therefore it is recommended to expressly mention the estimated availability ratio.

Although it would be acceptable to provide the time zone and availability ratio, etc. of the service as a nonbinding target, if service is for payment, non-fulfillment of such target may lead to a reduction of the usage fee. Furthermore, when the actual service significantly falls short of the target, it may be a cause for termination of the service agreement.

(3) Reliability

It is sometimes unavoidable for the service offered in the form of a SaaS to become unavailable due to system error or communication failure. Therefore, it is advisable to provide the estimated time for solution of such problems and measures to be taken in such cases.

However, if the estimated time for solution is set forth as a clause imposing an obligation on the service provider, he/she/it will bear the risk of failure to repair the service within the prescribed time period due to technical reasons, etc. Therefore, the service provider is cautioned to reconsider whether or not to set forth this legal obligation in the SLA.

(4) Performance

In the SLA, it is advisable to indicate response time in order to clarify the quality of service in advance.

However, such response time may vary significantly, depending on the condition of the infrastructure of each user. Therefore, if such response time is set forth as a legal obligation, the service provider should be careful not to mislead users in deciding the wording in the SLA of the condition precedents and other specifications.

(5) Support System

It is advisable to expressly mention how and when the customer service, if any, is provided to users⁹.

⁹ If customer service is provided by telephone, the waiting time for a response shall be explicitly stated. If customer service is provided by electronic mail or facsimile, the waiting time for the first response, etc. shall be explicitly stated.

(6) Data Management

If a service provider receives a considerable bulk of data from customers utilizing the SaaS, it is advisable to provide in the SLA whether or not such data are backed up. However, if such backup of data is mentioned in the SLA as a clause imposing an obligation on the service provider, he/she/it may bear significant risk of loss of such data. Therefore, the service provider is cautioned to reconsider whether or not to set forth such legal obligation in the SLA.

(7) Security

If the service provider receives confidential and/or personal information from users of the SaaS, it is advisable to expressly mention in advance the method of handling and managing such information. Furthermore, service providers may also wish to expressly mention such matters as the existence of a Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) or Virtual Private Network (VPN), firewall or anti-virus measures in advance, which will caution or, as the case may be, assure customers who utilize such services.

However, even if such information is referred to in the SLA, it needs to be separately considered whether the service provider will be discharged from liabilities for actual leakage of information, etc. Therefore, service providers should in any event be careful in operating the SaaS.

III-7 Human Scope of software license

[Issue]

With regard to a software license agreement, where the right to use of software is provided solely to a specified user¹ (hereinafter, “licensee”), the question is, how the human scope of such license should be defined, in other words, the range of persons authorized to use the software and the authorized mode of use by these persons?

More specifically, where the following persons who have a certain connection with the licensee in the course of business make use of the software for the purpose of the company’s business, will these persons fall within the human scope of the software license ?

(Examples)

1. The licensee company’s employees² constantly stationed at a third-party company after concluding a ‘software development agreement’ between the licensee and such third-party, pursuant to which such third party is entrusted with the development of such software by the licensee.
2. Temporary workers stationed at and working for the licensee company.
3. A software vendor’s employees constantly stationed at the licensee company that has been entrusted with software development by a third-party and has entrusted such development to the software vendor.
4. Employees of a company with which the licensee company has business relations.

I. Approach

Where software is actually used by a person other than the licensee, the human scope of such license shall be extended to the person, if the software is considered to be substantially used by the licensee itself, judging comprehensively from the purpose of such use, the human relations between such licensee and the person actually using it, and other factors as well.

¹ The following cases shall be excluded from the target of the argument here. i) The scope of license is determined by the computer or the CPU, in which a software license agreement expressly provides that the user is entitled to make only one copy of the software by installing it into a sole computer. ii) The range of persons entitled to use the software is explicitly defined, for example as “Reserved for those who have a membership of [a legal entity name] ”. iii) The sale of the software f is based on the assumption that it is for personal use.

² ‘Employees’ here mean all the persons that have executed a service agreement with the licensee company, which include full-time and part-time workers and contracted employees, but do not include temporary workers.

1. Analysis of Example 1

The use of such software by the licensee's employees working outside the company will still be considered use by the licensee itself, because such use is with a view to performing the licensee's business, and thus it is a part of the licensee's business activity.

Therefore, the human scope of the software license extends to such employees.

2. Analysis of Example 2.

Temporary workers are virtually no different from other employees of the licensee company in regards to the contents of tasks performed, now that what is called 'human outsourcing' is quite common. Thus, such temporary workers' use of the software will be regarded as use by the licensee itself.

Therefore, the human scope of the software license extends to such temporary workers.

3. Analysis of Example 3.

The entrustee again entrusts the **software vendor** with software development (in this section, the **software vendor** may be referred to as the 'sub-entrustee' / '*sai-jutakusha*'). The employees of the sub-entrustee are constantly stationed at the licensee company (= user) and engaged in such software development.

In this case, whether or not such employees fall within the human scope of the software license shall be judged from the characteristics of the software, the purpose and the specific methods of its use. Then, if the use of software by such employees can be regarded as that by the licensee itself, they may fall within the human scope of such license.

For instance, where a licensee fully capable of developing software enters into a contract regarding the outsourcing of software redevelopment with a software vendor, in order to make up for the shortage of staff, the use of the software by the software vendor's employees may be, depending on the workplace environment where such software is actually being developed, considered as use in the course of the licensee's (= user's) business, which logically leads to the conclusion that the software vendor falls within the human scope of such software license.

However, when the employees of the software vendor, working inside the licensee's company, are expected to work separately from the other employees of the licensee's company in regards to their location and mode of business, it is unlikely that such software vendor will fall within the human scope of such software license.

4. Analysis of Example 4.

Where the employees of a customer company use the software for the purposes of their own personal business, it is impossible to argue that they fall within the human scope of such software license.

Therefore, the human scope of such software license does not extend to such use.

II. Explanation

1. Identification of Problems

Until recently, only directors, corporate auditors, and other employees used to engage in business for an enterprise.

For this reason, the ‘software license agreement’, which authorizes the use of software, was based on the assumption that such software would be used solely by the employees (= users).

In recent years, however, with the increasing diversification of employment in mode and structure, it is not only the employees that work for an enterprise.

This situation has given rise to a problem: whether or not the human scope of a software license extends to people not employed by but working for the licensee company.

The human scope of a license agreement (in other words, those who are authorized to use the software) is subject to the contents of each agreement between the licensor and the licensee, because this is not a matter governed by any mandatory statute.

Thus, where the software license agreement expressly stipulates a contractual clause in regard to the human scope of the software license, that is, the range of persons authorized to use such software, the parties must act in compliance with the contractual clause.

In Japan, many software license agreements have no contractual clause expressly stipulating its human scope, in which case the scope shall be determined by interpreting both parties’ reasonably alleged intentions underlying the clauses agreed upon and stipulated in the agreement.

2. Basic approach to the human scope of a software license agreement

The essence of a software license agreement is that the licensor permits the licensee to use the software. Thus, where the licensee is a natural person (=an individual), use of the software by the natural person will quite logically fall within the scope of such license. On the other hand, where the licensee is a legal entity, a new problem arises in connection with the human scope of the software license.

The problem is, since a legal entity is an organization consisting of officers and other employees etc, it is not the legal entity itself that actually uses the software. Instead, the act of use by certain natural persons such as employees must be deemed as that by the licensee (=a legal entity) itself. It is not unclear and in question whose and what mode of use shall be considered as use by the licensee (=user) itself. Where the software is used by the directors or corporate auditors for the purposes of the licensee company's business, such use is of course considered as the use by the user itself.

On the other hand, with regard to the employees and other relevant persons, further consideration will be required, due to their diverse mode of employment.

Use of the software by the employees of the licensee (=user) will, in principle, fall within the scope of the software license, because they engage in such licensee's (=user's) business under its supervision.

However, if such software is used by persons who are not regarded as employees of the licensee (=user), then it is those who have no special connection with the licensee that use the software. Thus, their use cannot be reasonably deemed as the licensee's (=user's).

Based on the aforementioned argument, in principle, the use of software by the employees of the licensee (=user) will fall within the scope of such license, while use by non-employees will not.

However, it may be unreasonable and too inflexible to argue, due to today's diversified mode of employment, that the non-employees of the licensee (=user) engaged in the licensee company's business in the same manner as the other employees are always outside the scope of such software license simply because they have not entered into any service agreement with the licensee.

Another question may arise in connection with the non-employees of the licensee who are engaged in business closely related to but not directly the licensee's (=user's) business. In this case, may such employees' use be, in certain cases, considered to be the licensee's (=user's) use?

As discussed above, the human scope of a software license should be judged from the perspective of whether the software will be deemed to be used by the licensee (=user) itself, taking into consideration the relationship between the person actually using such software and the licensee (=user), and the purpose of its use, etc.³.

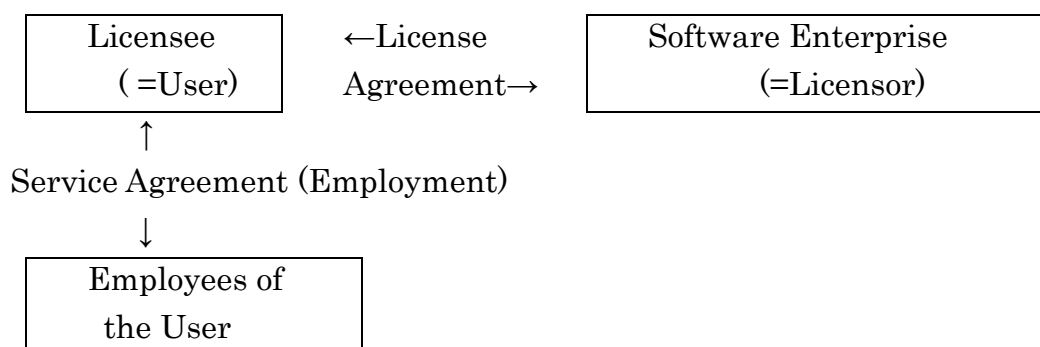
³ The licensee (=user) must establish a system where the user is responsible for managing the licensed software so that it is used only within the scope of its license.

3. Further Consideration

The actual users of software will be classified into 4 categories here, in accordance with the closeness of the actual user's relation to the licensee (=user) and the purpose of the use.

The analysis is based also on consideration of the location where the software is actually being used; inside or outside the licensee company.

(1) The use of software by a person directly employed by the licensee (=user).



(i) The use of software inside the licensee company

In this case, the software is used by the employees of the licensee inside the licensee company, and thus such use is regarded as use by the licensee (=user) itself. Basically, the employees fall within the human scope of such software license without posing particular problems.

(ii) The use of software outside the licensee company

In this case, the software is, even though used outside the licensee company, used by the persons who are directly employed by it, and thus such use is deemed to be a part of its business activities. Therefore, basically, such a mode of use, deemed as use by the licensee (=user) itself, will reasonably fall within the human scope of the software license.

[Examples]

- Cases where the employees use the software at home for the purpose of the licensee company's business.
- Cases where the employees perform a presentation at a customer company's office.

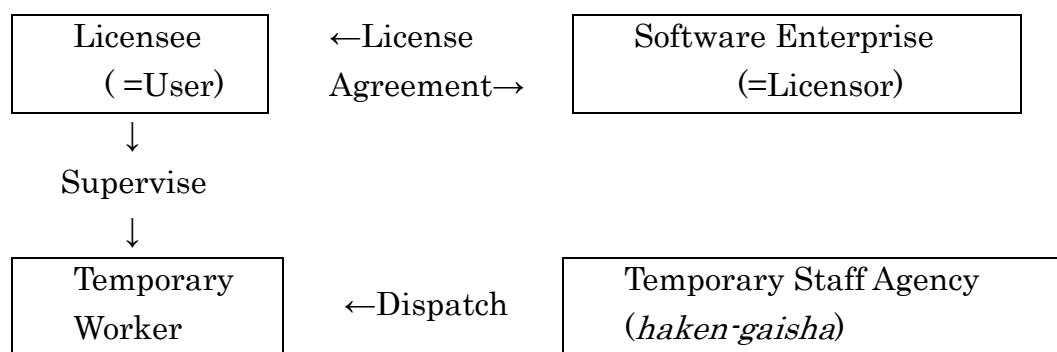
However, where the use of such software outside the company cannot be,

due to certain exceptional circumstances, considered as use by the licensee (=user) itself, such a mode of use will not fall within the scope of such software license.

[Example]

- Cases where the employees use the software at home for the purpose of drafting an advertisement of their own private business.

(2) The use of software by a person not directly employed by the licensee (=user) but using the software under its supervision.



A typical example of this is the temporary workers working under the supervision of the licensee (=user) at all times inside the licensee company, just as the other employees.

Temporary workers are virtually no different from the other employees of the licensee company in the contents of tasks performed, now that what is called 'human outsourcing' is quite common. Thus, such temporary workers' use of the software shall be regarded as the use by the licensee (=user) itself.

(i) The use of software inside the licensee company

Temporary workers are no different from the other employees, so in principle, the use of such software inside the company will reasonably fall within the scope of such software license.

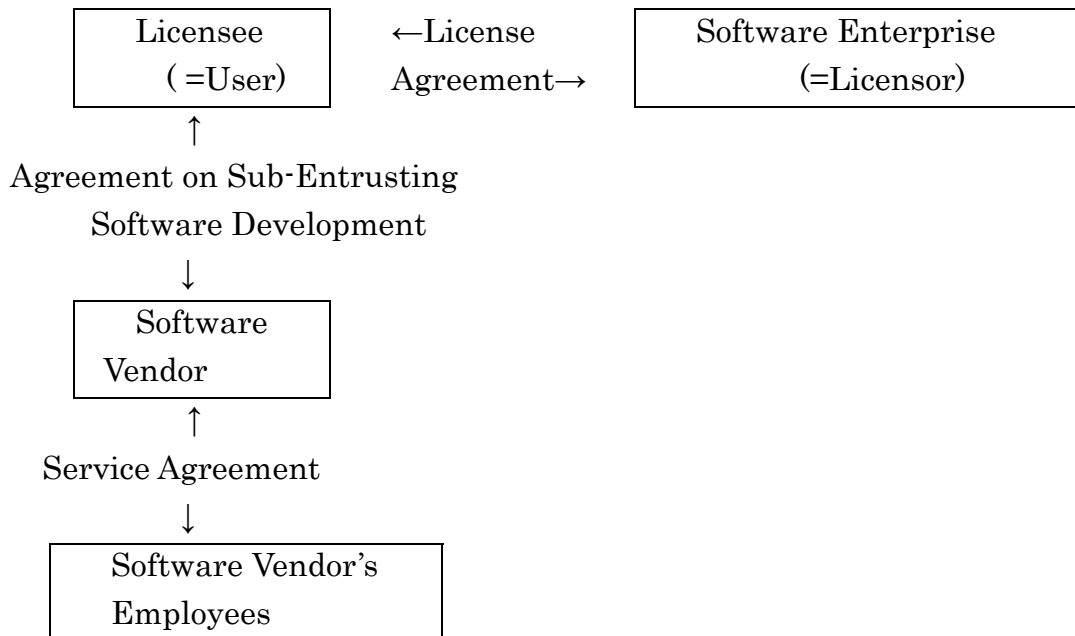
(ii) The use of software outside the licensee company

As aforementioned in (1) (B) above, the use of such software by temporary workers in the course of the licensee's (=user's) business, even at a location outside the licensee company, will be considered substantially as part of the licensee company's business.

Therefore, such a mode of use is basically considered as the use by the

licensee (=user) itself, and will reasonably fall within the scope of such software license. However, as mentioned above, the software license will not extend to the persons using the software outside the company for any purposes unrelated to the licensee company's business.

(3) The use of software by a person not directly employed by the licensee (=user) but engaged in the licensee's (=user's) business.



In this case, it is difficult to regard the use of software by the persons not directly employed by the licensee (=user) as that by the licensee (=user) itself. Rather, it is reasonable and logical to regard such persons as a third-party who has no direct connection with the licensee. Thus, such persons will not reasonably fall within the human scope of the software license.

However, in this case as well, such persons *may* fall within the human scope of the software license, provided that the use of such software can be reasonably deemed as that by the licensee (=user) itself, judging from the characteristics of the software, the purpose of its use, and other specific circumstances.

(i) The use of software inside the licensee company

Where the licensee (=user) is entrusted with software development by a third party and the licensee (=user) subsequently entrusts a software vendor constantly stationed at the licensee company's office with the said business, if the software vendor uses the software for performing the

business, the software vendor may, depending on the facts, fall within the human scope of such software license. The assignment of such software development business is closely linked with the licensee's (=user's) business, and thus the software may be deemed as being used by the user itself, because the business performed by such software vendor can be regarded as part of the business of the licensee.

On the other hand, even where the software vendor (sub-entrustee) constantly stationed at the licensee company's office uses the software for the purpose of software development business as entrusted by the licensee (=user), if such software vendor is expected to work separately from other employees of the licensee's company in regard to their workplace and mode of business, it is difficult to consider that the software is used by the licensee (=user) itself, and thus the software vendor will not fall within its human scope.

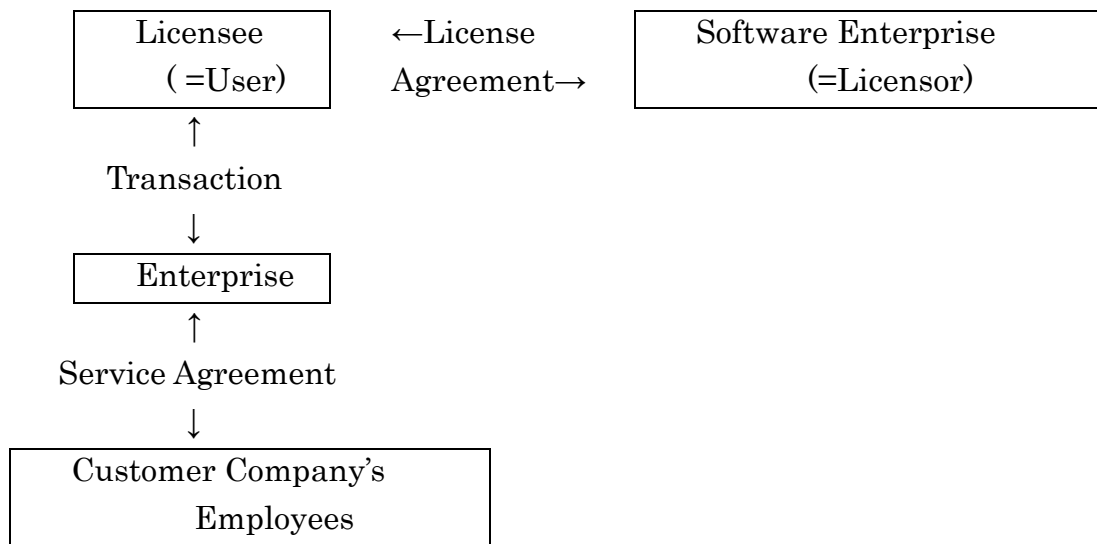
(ii) The use of a software outside the licensee company

Generally speaking, as mentioned above, even where the software is used outside the licensee's (=user's) company, such a mode of use may, depending on the facts, reasonably fall within the scope of the software license, if deemed as being used by the licensee (=user) itself, judging from the characteristics of the software, the purpose of its use, and other specific circumstances.

Nevertheless, where those who are neither directly employed by the licensee (=user) nor engaged in the licensee's (=user's) business use the software outside the licensee's company, such use is less unlikely to fall within the scope of such software license, compared with use inside the licensee's company.

In other words, where the employees of the software vendor (sub-entrustee) are engaged in the entrusted software development business at a location outside of the employee's (=user's) company (for instance at their own office), they are deemed to be performing their own entrusted business. Therefore, in this case, the software vendor will not fall within the human scope of such software license, as the software is deemed to be used by the vendor itself.

(4) Cases where the persons not directly employed by the licensee (=user) use the software for performing the business of the enterprise by which they are employed



In this case, where the employees of a customer company use the software for performing the customer company's business, it is very difficult to deem such a mode of use as that by the licensee (=user) itself, even if it is used inside the licensee company. Therefore, basically, such use of the software will not fall within the scope of such software license.

III-8 Relationship between User and Assignee of Intellectual Property

[Issue]

A user (licensee) is only allowed to employ information property through a contract entered into with the Vendor (licensor). If the intellectual property rights (copyrights and patent rights) to the information property are assigned to a third party, can the user effectively assert their right to continue to employ the information property against the assignee?

(Examples)

1. If intellectual property rights (copyrights and patent rights) to certain information property are assigned to a third party, can a user (licensee) of the information property under a license agreement continue to employ the information property?
2. If a Vendor (licensor) goes bankrupt, can the user (licensee) of the information property under a license agreement continue to employ the information property?

I. Approach

1. Where intellectual property rights of information property are assigned to a third party.

(1) Where the position of licensor (Vendor) of information property is transferred

A present licensor may assign its position as a licensor to a third party by entering into an agreement. In such case, the user (licensee) may continue to employ the information property.

(2) Where only the intellectual property rights are assigned

(i) Copyright

After a copyright has been assigned, the user may not continue to exploit the information property within the scope of the copyright because such exploitation constitutes a violation of the copyright of the assignee. However, where the way of using is outside of the copyright, such as exploitation like simply watching or listening and cases considered as private reproduction (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of Copyright Act), the user (licensee) may continue to exploit and use the information property.

(ii) Patent

The user (licensee) may continue to use the relevant information property,

as the user is able to assert his/her own non-exclusive license against the assignee of the relevant patent right or utility model right arising after the user's accrual of the non-exclusive license (Article 99 of the Patent Act).

2. Where the Vendor (licensor) has gone bankrupt

(i) Copyright

The trustee may terminate the license agreement. In that case, the user (licensee) may not continue to use the information property.

However, the trustee does not usually find it beneficial to terminate license agreements for information property in cases of generic packaged software, where the users had already paid total amount of the license fee and do not have to pay license fees continuously.

(ii) Patent

The license agreement concerned will not be canceled, and the user (licensee) may continue to use the relevant information property.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

A licensee (user) is only allowed to use information property by virtue of a contract with the licensor (Vendor). Therefore, it is questionable whether a user will be able to effectively assert a right to use the information property against a third party to whom the Vendor (licensor) has assigned the intellectual property rights of the information property. If the Vendor should (licensor) go bankrupt, the trustee in bankruptcy may have the power in certain circumstances to unilaterally terminate the bankrupt's contracts (Paragraph 1, Article 59 of the Bankruptcy Act; similar clauses can be found in Paragraph 1, Article 103 of the Corporate Rehabilitation Act and Paragraph 1, Article 49 of the Civil Rehabilitation Act). If the trustee terminates a license agreement, there is a risk that the user (licensee) may be immediately unable to use the information property.

2. Where intellectual property is assigned to a third party.

Where the Vendor (licensor) assigns intellectual property rights of information property, the Vendor either (1) assigns the position as licensor of the information property; or (2) assigns only the intellectual property rights.

(1) Where the whole position as licensor of information property has been assigned

Replacing a party to a contract is composed of the assignment of claims and the acceptance of obligations. Therefore, the replacement requires not only an agreement between the assignor and the assignee but also the consent of the counterparty to the contract.

However, where the ownership of land is assigned, and where the new owner assumes the role of lessor of the land under a pre-existing lease agreement, it is held that, except where special circumstances prevail, the new owner may assume the rights and duties of the former owner by way of agreement between the former owner and the new owner, without obtaining the consent of the lessee. This is possible in part due to the assumption of the lessor's duty by the new lessor, since the manner in which the duty is fulfilled would not be substantially different, and partly because it is advantageous for the lessee to allow the new owner of the land to assume the lessor's duties (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, April 23, 1971; 25-3 *Minshû* 388).

This judgment could be interpreted to mean that the whole position of the licensor may be assigned under an agreement between the assignor and the assignee of the intellectual property rights. This is partly due to the manner in which the obligation of the Vendor (licensor), which is to allow the user (licensee) to use the information property, would not in some cases differ regardless of who the licensor is. It is also partly because it would be advantageous for the user (licensee) to allow the assignee of the intellectual property to take over the obligations attached thereto. In such a case, the user (licensee) may effectively assert the right to continue to employ the information property.

Where a license fee is payable annually, the new licensor may receive license fees for the next year on if either (i) an assignment agreement is concluded between the three parties; (2) the former licensor notifies the user (licensee) that the right to receive license fees has been assigned to the new licensor; or (iii) the user (licensee) notifies the former licensor or the new licensor that he consents to the assignment of the right to receive license fees (Paragraph 1, Article 467 of the Civil Code).

(2) Where only intellectual property rights are assigned

In this case, the assignee of intellectual property rights to information property could stop the user (licensee) from employing the information property by asserting a violation of the intellectual property rights. This

issue will be studied in two different cases: where the intellectual property right is a copyright and where it is a patent right.

(i) Copyright

Simply watching or listening to information property protected by a copyright does not constitute an infringement of a copyrighted work protected by the Copyright Act. Therefore, the user (licensee) may continue to use the information property, so long as he does not otherwise violate the assignee's copyright.

On the other hand, some acts other than simple watching or listening, such as the copying or modifying (alteration or adaptation) of information property, which do not fall with the provisions on right limitation of the Copyright Act are highly likely to constitute violations of the copyright of the assignee.

However, in the case where the relevant information property is a program and the user (licensee) holds the ownership of a reproduction of the program, for example possessing a CD-ROM etc., on which the program is recorded, or having installed the program on his/her own computer, the user (licensee) may reproduce or adapt the program to the extent deemed necessary for use of the program on his/her computer (Paragraph 1, Article 47-3 of the Copyright Act).

Other than the case above, the user (licensee) is entitled to create a temporally reproduction for maintenance, repairs, etc., (Article 47-4 of the Copyright Act) to create a reproduction for preventing any interference with transmission etc., (Article 47-5) to create a reproduction etc., for searching for the identification code of the source of transmittable information (Article 47-6), to create a reproduction etc., for information analysis (Article 47-7), and to create a reproduction for using copyrighted works on a computer (Article 47-8).

Except some exceptions mentioned above, the user (licensee) cannot continue to use the information property after it is assigned to a third party. Even in this case, the user (licensee) who is no longer able to continue his/her use of the information property, may claim damages from the Vendor (licensor).

A licensee cannot assert any perfected right to copyrighted works against a third party because the Copyright Act has no system by which a licensee can perfect a right.

(ii) Patent right

Although the use of information property under the protection of patent rights amounts to an exploitation of patent rights (Item 1, Paragraph 3, Article 2 of the Patent Act)¹, the user (licensee) to whom a non-exclusive license is granted by the patent holder may continue to use the relevant information property, as the user may assert his/her own non-exclusive license against an assignee of the relevant patent right arising after the user's accrual of the non-exclusive license (Article 99 of the Patent Act).

However, a dispute potentially arises over the terms and conditions of use of the patent concerned, as it is not clear, under the Patent Act, whether the contractual contents between the relevant assigner and the user (licensee) are transferred righteously to the assignee and the user (licensee).

Accordingly, when the licensor holds the patent right of the information property concerned, the licensor should consider whether to incorporate clauses on securing the patent right and on the prohibition of succession into a license agreement, before the user receives a license for the information property.

3. Where the Vendor (licensor) has gone bankrupt

Where both parties to a bilateral contract have not yet fulfilled their obligations, bankruptcy laws allow the trustee to choose between terminating the contract and demanding its specific performance (Paragraph 1, Article 59 of the Bankruptcy Act, Paragraph 1, Article 103 of the Corporate Rehabilitation Act, and Paragraph 1, Article 49 of the Civil Rehabilitation Act). However, this does not apply where the counterparty of the bankrupt under a contract for the establishment of a leasehold or any other right of use or making profit has a registration or meets any other requirement for duly asserting such right against any third party (Paragraph 1, Article 56 of the Bankruptcy Act, Article 63 of the Corporate Rehabilitation Act, and Article 51 of the Civil Rehabilitation Act).

(1) Copyright

If the Vendor (licensor) goes bankrupt, the trustee could terminate the license agreement². If the trustee chooses to terminate the contract, the user

¹ If this use cannot be construed as "for business" (for example, for personal use or home use), the user may continue to use the information property as it does not amount to a patent infringement from the beginning (Article 68 of the same Act).

² There is a judgment that a bankruptcy trustee's right to cancel a contract can be restricted even in the case of a bilateral contract under which both parties have not performed their obligations, if its cancellation

(licensee) may not continue to use the information property, unless the user (licensee) concludes a new license agreement with the trustee or with the third party (assignee) to whom the trustee has assigned the right.

The trustee only can terminate those bilateral contracts under which both parties have yet to fulfill their respective obligations. Therefore, license agreements for information property (for example, generic packaged software), which require no further payment aside from the initial purchase, do not fall under this category.

(2) Patent right

As stated above, the user (licensee) may continue to use the relevant patent right without its license agreement terminated in accordance with Paragraph 1, Article 56 of the Bankruptcy Act etc., as the user may assert his/her own non-exclusive license against an assignee of the relevant patent right or utility model right arising after the user's accrual of the non-exclusive license (Article 99 of the Patent Act).

causes a remarkably unfair situation to the counterparty (Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, February 29, 2000, *Minshû*, Vol. 54, No. 2, p. 553).

III-9 Exercise of Patent Rights on Software and Abuse of Rights

[Issue]

Is Paragraph 3, Article 1 (Abuse of Rights) of the Civil Code applicable to the exercise of patent rights¹ (injunction claims, claim of compensation for damages, etc.) on software?

I. Approach

An exercise of patent rights on software may be considered to be an abuse of such rights if one or more of α through γ apply². The infringer of a patent right may claim an abuse of rights as a defense against a suit by a patent holder, or grounds for a claim in legal proceedings requesting a declaratory judgment for the non-applicability of a patent right, such as an injunction claim.

- α Where the person exercising the right subjectively has malicious intent, such as to cause damage to others.
- β Where such person has malicious intent to cause unreasonable damage to another party by exercising such right³.
- γ The exercise of such right causes far more significant damage to the other party or to society compared with the benefits gained by the party exercising such right.

II. Explanations

Under the Patent Act, a patent holder (including any exclusive licensee (if any), hereinafter the same) has the right to use its proprietary invention as a part of its business. Exclusive licensees, only have such rights to the extent that they are prescribed by their license. Such rights may be exercised to obtain civil relief such as an injunction against any acts that infringe upon such rights, e.g., the use of a proprietary invention which is not authorized by the patent holder. The basis for the exercise of patent rights on software, such as an injunction claim, derives, in principle, from this purpose of the Patent Act.

¹ This means a patent which is granted to an invention which requires software for its implementation.

² In the past, there are some judicial precedents which affirmed the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle based on either one of α through γ . Recently, however, as described in 2. below, a Supreme Court judgment overturned the decision of the lower courts which had affirmed the application of “abuse of right” principle solely on the basis of γ .

³ To deviate from a justifiable exercise of right

However, software has a multilayer structure⁴ as well as a communication structure⁵ and its users thus tend to become committed to a particular software program⁶. Therefore, the exercise of software patent rights such as an injunction claim may deviate from the purpose of the Patent Act because the exercise of such rights may result in discouraging innovation. In such cases, Paragraph 3, Article 1 of the Civil Code, which provides for “abuse of rights” may be applicable to such exercise of rights⁷.

To clarify our approach to the applicability of the provision regarding the abuse of rights to the exercise of software patent rights such as by an injunction claim, we would like to explain the method and factors on the basis of which the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle should generally be determined (1. below), and which factors need to be considered when such principle is applied to the exercise of software patent rights (2. below).

1. Method and factors on the basis of which the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle is to be considered

To determine the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle, we need to comprehensively consider on a case-by-case basis the following factors, reflecting the circumstances surrounding the plaintiff and the defendant as well as the social environment⁸.

(1) Assessment and analysis of the legitimacy and maliciousness of the

⁴ Software products such as operating systems, interface software and application software have a multilayer structure in terms of their features, where software on the upper level is dependent on software on the lower level and functions only with the lower level software (Study Group concerning legal protection and promotion of innovation in software “Interim Summary of Issues (“*chukan ronten seiri*”)”)

⁵ Software components function only when they communicate with other relevant components (“Interim Summary of Issues (“*chukan ronten seiri*”)”)

⁶ With respect to IT systems, where the required data is accumulated, the utilized applications come to be organized, and numerous systems are linked with one another through the network, a certain principle of behavior going beyond products features or price competition begins to control the market when the vendors providing software for such systems come to be more and more monopolized. In other words, where a software provider holding a high market share has exclusive rights in connection with the technology related to interoperability/interface (even more significantly if such technology has been standardized), this tends to maintain the monopolized market conditions and undermines the incentive for innovation due to its adverse competitive effect, because the principle of economy of scale comes into effect and a higher cost will be incurred by users for transferring to another platform. (“Interim Summary of Issues (“*chukan ronten seiri*”)”)

⁷ In the actual litigation, the existence of defects in the patent right may be argued prior to the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle set forth in Paragraph 3, Article 1 of the Civil Code. In other words, the infringer may attempt to argue that “the patent right shall be held invalid by a trial for invalidation of patent” under Paragraph 1, Article 104-3 of the Patent Act.

⁸ The “abuse of right” principle developed in the judicial precedents had, under the influence of German law, barred solely exercises of rights with the intent to or for the purpose of causing damage to the other party as an “abuse of right”. However, the principle eventually expanded to include the adjustment of rights between private individuals or entities, and the applicability of such principle came to be determined in terms of objective factors (comparison of the interests of both parties) as well as of subjective factors (intention to cause damages). (p.17 of “*Minpo Sousoku Vers. 7*” by Kazuo Shinomiya, Yoshihisa Noumi)

- claimed rights (α and β above); and
- (2) Weighing (objectively) the advantages and disadvantages in permitting or preventing the exercise of rights (γ above).

(1) Assessment and analysis of the legitimacy and maliciousness of the claimed rights

The claim made by the rights holder will be assessed and analyzed in consideration of the following circumstances:

- (i) Whether the subjective intent of the person exercising such patent rights is malicious (ex. “*Schikane*”⁹)
- (ii) Whether objectively the exercise of such patent rights is malicious

The subjective and objective aspects of the infringement of the patent rights should also be considered in order to comprehensively determine whether the “abuse of right” principle should apply.

(2) Weighing the advantages and disadvantages in permitting or preventing the exercise of rights

The advantages and disadvantages to the rights holder, the rights infringer, and society as a whole that would result from permitting or preventing such exercise of rights shall be weighed.

If permitting the exercise of rights would lead to disadvantages to the rights-infringer and society as a whole that are significantly greater than advantages conferred on the right holder and the whole of the society, and preventing such exercise of right would result in significantly greater social or economic benefits than permitting it, the “abuse of rights” principle may be applicable¹⁰.

⁹ “Exercise of Rights for the Sole Purpose of Causing Damages to the Other Party” (Masaaki Yasunaga, p.127 of “*Shinban Chushaku Minpo* (1) (compiled by Tomohei Taniguchi, Kikuo Ishida) Volume 1, Preface [1(Basic Principle) III Prohibition of abuse of right”)

“Exercise of Right for the Sole Purpose of Causing Damage to the Other Party” (p.17 of “*Minpo Sosoku Vers. 7*” by Kazuo Shinomiya, Yoshihisa Nomi)

¹⁰ Judgment of Supreme Court, 3rd Petty Bench, November 26, 1968; *Hanji*, no.544, p.32; *Hanta*, no.229, p.150
“The original judgment ruled that plaintiff X’s claim in the principal action shall not be approved because it is an abuse of rights, although the water pipes, etc., owned by defendant Y are on forest lands A & B, which are both owned by X. In other words, whereas the benefits which X would gain from the removal of the water pipes, etc. would be minimal, such water pipes and other facilities were constructed by digging, spending a huge amount of time and financial resources for the use of the 70,000 habitants of the southern district of Y city. Moreover, they form an essential part of the general waterworks on a broad scale linked to such pipes, and so their removal and the restoration of the status quo would be necessary, followed by the construction of the same type of facility at a new location. Therefore, their removal would not only require a considerably huge

Some judicial precedents in the past have applied the “abuse of right” principle based on either (1) or (2). However, a judgment was rendered by the Supreme Court recently which revoked the original decision that affirmed the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle based solely on (2)¹¹, and the theories advocated by many scholars¹² argue that (1) and (2) should be comprehensively considered in order to determine the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle.

2. Factors to be considered in determining the applicability of the provision on the abuse of rights to the exercise of patent rights on software

In the exercise of software patent rights, the factors which may affect the applicability of the provision on the abuse of rights will be explained separately in “Assessment and analysis of legitimacy and maliciousness of the claimed rights” and “Weighing the advantages and disadvantages in permitting or preventing the exercise of rights by the Patent Holder”.

amount of time and financial resources but also suspend the supply of water, which could not be recovered over a short amount of time, and consequently this will cause unexpected and material damage to the daily life of the habitants. Therefore, the claim made by X in the principal action shall be ruled as an abuse of right. The accreditation and judgment of the original judgment shall be acceptable in light of the pieces of evidence listed in the original judgment.”

¹¹ Judgment of Supreme Court, 3rd Petty Bench, October 19, 1982; *Hanji*, no.1086, p.22; *Hanta*, no.504, p.94

“The original judgment which does not specify any other reason for rejecting the claims of compensation for damages made by X in the principal action solely by comparing the disadvantages suffered by X and Y as mentioned above (omitted) mistakenly interpreted and applied Paragraph 3, Article 1 of the Civil Code.”

¹² The following theories argue that both (1) and (2) should be comprehensively taken into consideration in order to determine the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle.

“There is a critical view that excessive emphasis on the balancing from an objective perspective of the interests of the parties involved would not be appropriate, because the benefits of the majority (public) or the party in a stronger position will always prevail. (omitted) Considering the subjective factors such as the non-existence of the purpose of causing damages on the part of the party exercising rights should be taken into consideration in determination of the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle. (p.17 of “*Minpo Sosoku Vers. 7*” by Kazuo Shinomiya, Yoshihisa Nomi)

“If emphasis is exclusively placed on objective factors, the interests of a party in a stronger position such as leading companies or the government which have procured a *fait accompli* would unilaterally take precedence regardless of the reasonableness of the claim made by the right holder, and such an approach would be inevitably criticized as unfair. In recent years, many leading theories argue that the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle should be determined in comprehensive consideration of subjective as well as objective factors.....” (p.88 of “Abuse of right doctrine – Study of Civil Code (“*minpo no kenkyu*”) V” by Koki Sugano)

“In order for the “abuse of right” principle to be applicable to this type of case (unauthorized occupancy of land owned by others), as a rule, the existence of the intention to cause damages, or to advance personal interests unfairly or any other subjective maliciousness is required. In the absence of such subjective factors, the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle should be, if any, very exceptional and limited to the cases where the following circumstances exist, but the approach should not be based on the comparison of interests from an objective perspective. Such circumstances would be that the infringing party is qualified to claim for protection from an ethical perspective (by applying the “abuse of rights” principle to his case), and that there are special circumstances under which the right holder should tolerate such infringement” (p.131 of “*Shinban Chushaku Minpo* (1) (compiled by Tomohei Taniguchi, Kikuo Ishida,), Vol. 1, Preface §1 (Basic Principal) “III Prohibition of Abuse of Right” by Masaaki Yasunaga)

Note, however, that even if one of the factors listed below applies, a claim of abuse of rights may still not be admitted. As explained below, the applicability of such provision shall be determined by a comprehensive assessment and analysis of the legitimacy and maliciousness of the claimed rights as well as by balancing the advantages and disadvantages resulting from permitting or preventing such exercise of rights.

(1) Assessment and analysis of legitimacy and maliciousness of the claimed rights

As explained in 1. (1) above, in order to conduct an assessment and analysis of the legitimacy and maliciousness of claims by patent holders such as an injunction claim, both (i) subjective; and (ii) objective aspects of the patent holder's claim should be considered, as well as whether and to what extent such claim is legitimate or malicious.

At the same time, the subjective and objective aspects of the rights infringement should also be considered to comprehensively determine whether the “abuse of right” principle should be applied. For example, if the infringement was committed intentionally, the maliciousness of infringement will be counted as a negative factor in the determination of the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle.

(i) Subjective Aspect

- (A) If the patent holder exercises his rights (such as an injunction claim) solely for the purpose of causing damage to the other party, as a rule, such exercise of right will not be considered as legitimate¹³.
- (B) If the patent holder exercises his rights solely for the purpose of gaining unfair profits, it is likely that such exercise of rights will be considered illegitimate¹⁴.

¹³ Major examples of “exercises his rights ... solely for the purpose of causing damages to the other party (which is considered as an abuse of right)” are as follows:

Anotsu District Court, August 10, 1926; *Shimbun* No.2648 p.11

“If a right holder willfully or negligently exercises his rights beyond the appropriate scope and in an inappropriate manner, and infringes the rights of another person, such exercise of rights shall be considered as an abuse of right, and such right holder will be liable in tort, . . . even though the defendant built the premises on his own land . . . the exercise of rights comes from the intention to hinder the defendant's exercise of ownership rights and operation of the hospital (Building No.5), and so it is evidently an abuse of ownership rights.”

¹⁴ The following is a judicial precedent which affirmed the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle in comprehensive consideration of the exercise of right for the sole purpose of gaining unfair profits as well as of other factors:

October 5, 1935, Former Supreme Court Judgment (Unazuki Hot Spring Case); *Minshû*, vol.14, p.1965

“The exercise of ownership for the sole purpose of earning unjustifiable profit does not comply with the

(ii) Objective Aspect

- (A) If the patent holder commits one or more of the actions listed below in the course of exercising his patent rights, such action may be a negative factor in the determination of the legitimacy of such exercise of rights.
- a) The patent holder commits an act which is not compliant with the principle of faith and trust¹⁵ such as making inconsistent allegations without any reasonable cause¹⁶.
 - b) The patent holder unilaterally forces the other party to suffer disadvantages, deviating from the purpose of the Patent Act, which is “encouragement of inventions and development of industry”, by making an injunction claim against the other party after the patent holder tried to force such other party to accept a license agreement unacceptable to normal business operators¹⁷ and it was eventually

purpose of ownership rights under the commonly accepted norms of the society, and thus such an exercise of rights deviates from the permitted scope of its function. Therefore, this is an abuse of rights ...”

¹⁵ “An act which does not comply with the principle of faith and trust” includes a case where a participant in a standardization activity of a standardization organization with a patent policy under the obligation to submit a patent statement fails to raise any assertion of patent rights in the course of developing standards, although some patents are mandatory for such participant, and reveals only after the completion of such standard that he is the holder of such patent and further demands a huge amount of royalties from the other participants in the standardization activity, or otherwise intentionally harm the obligations or commitments formed between business operators through agreements or business activities. Where the person holding the mandatory patent (patent holder) in the course of developing standards represents that he will license the patent on a “Reasonable And Non-Discriminatory” (hereinafter “RAND”) basis, if the licensee fights for the specific conditions of RAND against the patent holder after the completion of the standards by arguing, for example, that the amount of royalties alleged by the patent holder to be RAND is so large that it is not a RAND, it would be discussed and determined whether the licensor’s allegation is compliant with the principle of faith and trust on the basis of a comprehensive analysis of subjective aspect of the licensor as well as the existence and extent (if any) etc. of the fiduciary relation on the part of the licensee.

¹⁶ Judgment of Supreme Court, 1st Petty Bench, June 15, 1972; *Minshû*, vol. 5, p.1015, *Hanji*, no. 674, p. 69; *Hanta*, no.279, p.194)

“Unless other special circumstances exist, X’s claim against Y that the agreement on the lease of the premises has been terminated on the basis of the unauthorized sublease and thus the occupied premises shall be vacated on the basis of X’s ownership of the premises shall not be accepted, as such claim is not compliant with the principle of faith and trust or else it is an abuse of rights.”

¹⁷ “A license agreement unacceptable for normal business operators” assumes the following two cases listed in (1) and (2) below. However, note that not all agreements which fall under the following two cases are necessarily regarded as “a license agreement unacceptable for normal business operators.” Rather, it will be determined in consideration of specific conditions such as the contractual conditions which supplement the agreement, the status of transaction between the parties, the market conditions.

- (1) An agreement which requires payment of royalties in an amount apparently exceeding the objective value of such technology
- (2) An agreement which requires the following conditions, instead of direct payment of a huge amount of royalties:
 - an agreement which requires the other party to be licensed on the implementation of another patent or to purchase products or services which are not subject to the patent (contractual tying (“*dakiawase*” in Japanese))
 - an agreement which requires an exclusive license or a transfer of relevant patent rights acquired after

refused by such other party¹⁸.

- c) Despite the efforts of the rights infringer to restore any damage suffered by the patent holder as a result of his infringement by compensating the patent holder or paying an appropriate amount of royalties, the patent holder refuses to negotiate with the other party without any reasonable cause and proceeds to exercise its rights¹⁹.
- d) The patent holder proceeds to exercise his rights after he acquires and holds them through a dishonest manner and process²⁰.

(B) If the rights are claimed in a manner listed as examples below, such manner may be a negative factor in determining whether such rights

the grant of implementation thereof (assign-back or exclusive grant-back clause)

- an agreement which prohibits the licensee from filing a legal proceeding against any infringement of the relevant patent against the licensor or other licensees (non-assertion obligation)
- an agreement which prohibits the licensee from filing a trial for invalidation etc. of the patent or arguing the validity of the patent right (non-claim obligation)

In relation to (2) above, practically speaking, most licensees would enter into such agreement in the recognition of the unfairness of such provision. In such a case, if there is a special provision that stipulates that the agreement may be terminated based on non-compliance with such provision, with respect to such special provision and the exercise of termination right based thereon, the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle may be argued in light of the power relationship between the licensor and the licensee and the maliciousness of the provision.

In Japan, apart from the “abuse of right” issue, if such clause is proved to be disturbing fair competition in the context of antimonopoly law, such clause would be illegitimate on the grounds that it falls under the definition of “unfair business practice (*fukousei na torihiki houhou*)”, which is subject to relief in the form of an abatement by order of Japan FTC’s or by private action.

In addition, although not equal to the “abuse of rights” due to the differences in the legal system of Japan, such clause will be held as “patent misuse” in the USA, and the subject patent right may not be exercised in litigation until such situation is resolved.

¹⁸ This does not mean that the failure to enter into a license agreement by refusing the grant of license, etc. is generally a test of the applicability of the principle of “abuse of right”.

¹⁹ This does not mean that a refusal to negotiate the license always renders the claim of rights illegitimate. The following is a judicial precedent which mentions that it is one of the factors in the determination of the applicability of the “abuse of right” principle that the patent holder persistently refused to negotiate the recovery of the right holder’s damages incurred by the right holder caused by the infringement despite the efforts of the party subject to such exercise of right to do so.

Tokyo District Court Judgment, May 26, 1977; *Hanji*, no. 875, p. 67)

“Judging from the fact that the use of the land constitutes an indispensable basis of the daily life of Y and his family . . . the bid is reasonably sufficient, even considering that the land has Y’s leasehold rights. In this context, X demanded Y to vacate the land immediately after X won the bid without negotiating with Y at all . . . it is assumed that, in this auction case, despite the fact that X had announced that the land is accompanied by the leasehold in accordance with which the lessee is supposed to own a building thereon, which could be perfected against the winning bidder, X was trying to obtain a huge amount of profits by winning the bid at an extremely low price, taking advantage of the lack of registry required for perfection of such leasehold. Considering the circumstances with respect to Y as recognized in the foregoing, X’s demand of the removal of and vacation of the building on the land shall not be accepted on the ground that it is an abuse of right.”

²⁰ Judgment of Supreme Court, 1st Petty Bench, March 31, 1977; *Shûmin*, vol. 120, p. 355)

“If the buyer of land purchased the land with leasehold rights with intent to gain his own profits by, for example, demanding the lessee to vacate the land, taking advantage of the lack of perfection of such leaseholds, such buyer’s demand of vacation of the land against the lessee shall not be accepted on the basis of the “abuse of right” principle.

claim is legitimate.

- a) The rights claim deviates from the reason for and purpose of the patent right granted on the software, aiming at obtaining unfair profits or is significantly detrimental to the interests of the users of the products where the patent technology in question is employed.
- b) The rights claim leads, from an objective perspective, only to the damages of the other party, but does not confer any benefit on the software patent holder.

(2) Weighing the Advantages and Disadvantages of Permitting or Preventing the Exercise of Rights by the Patent Holder

In the case of an actual infringement of software patent rights, assuming the exercise of rights is approved, there would be a large range of difference in the level of advantages conferred on the patent holder and on the whole of society and the disadvantages incurred by the rights infringer and by the whole of society. This difference would depend on such factors as:

- i) the method of exercising rights (injunction claims, compensatory damages claims, restitution of unjust enrichment claims, claims for the recovery of confidence, etc.)
- ii) the target object of the exercise of rights (usage, status of use, nature of the software where the proprietary technology subject to such exercise of right is employed)
- iii) the status of use and feasibility of the patent (the existence or extent of the patent holder's profit)

The advantages and disadvantages resulting from permitting or preventing such exercise of rights will be weighed upon consideration of these factors.

As explained in 1.(2), if the disadvantages suffered by the rights infringer and by the whole of society resulting from permitting the patent holder's exercise of rights are significantly greater than the advantages gained by the rights holder and by the whole of society, and therefore the prevention of such exercise of rights leads to higher levels of social and economic welfare than in a case where such exercise of rights is approved, the exercise of rights may be regarded as an abuse of rights.

(i) Method of Exercising Rights

The rights that a right holder may claim against a rights infringer

include injunction claims, compensatory damages claims, restitution of unjust enrichment claims, confidence recovery claims among others. Injunction claims will, depending on the usage or status of use of the software which constitutes the infringement, not only prevent the infringing party from using the software but also have enormous impact on the services being provided to society through the software, which may cause disadvantages to the whole of the society.

With respect to injunction claims, the identity of the counterparty to the claim the extent of the disadvantages caused to the rights infringer and society will differ depending on which act of “implementation”, (“production”, “use” and “transfer”) prescribed in each item of Paragraph 3, Article 2 of the Patent Act is to be suspended.

In addition, the contents and the level of disadvantages caused to the other party subject to such exercise of right and society will further depend on whether or not a “claim for disposal of products which constitute an infringement (*“shingai soseibutsu haiki seikyu”*)” or a “claim for removal of facilities used for the infringement (*“shingai kyoyou setsubi jokyaku seikyu”*)” is made in addition to the injunction claims.

(ii) Target Object of Exercise of Right

Depending on the usage and status of use of the software²¹, the rights infringer and society may suffer from significant disadvantages.

²¹ Examples of “Usage and status of use” and the possible effects

- (1) Software used for information systems that supports critical infrastructure (finance, electricity, railway and others) which lead directly to the safety and comfort of our society.
→ if the system itself is disabled, it will cause significant damages not only to the developer of the information system which infringed the patent on the software and the enterprises which are operating such critical infrastructure by using the software, but also to the life of the people.
- (2) Universal software that is widely used in our society (OS software for PCs, OS software for servers and office software)
→ if the system itself is disabled, it will cause damage not only to the developer of the information system software which infringed the patent on the software but also to its users (corporations and individuals).
- (3) Information systems supporting services in which particular individuals participate (ASP, net auctions, etc.)
→ if the system itself is disabled, it will cause significant damage not only to the developer of the information system that infringed the patent on the software as well as the business operators providing such service, but also to those who receive such services.
- (4) Software used for an operating system in an enterprise
→ if the software is disabled, the developer of the information system that infringed the patent on the software as well as the enterprise which utilizes such software will incur damages.
- (5) Software embedded in devices such as home appliance.
→ if the software is disabled, the product will be unable to function, and the recall of the products may be necessary, and thus significant damages may be incurred depending on the level of its diffusion in the market.

Even if the patent holder exercises his rights in connection with the features protected by such patent, the influence of such exercise of rights may ripple out in the following cases, depending on the characteristics of the software.

- (A) If the features²² protected by the relevant patent is a feature required for securing interoperability²³, if two programs fail to work on each side, being unable to communicate with each other by transmitting data mutually, some of the features that require such information may not work, in which case the party subject to the exercise of rights may consequently suffer significant damages.
- (B) If the feature protected by the patent is a feature of OS software, middleware, etc., the absence of such feature interrupts the operability not only of such software but also of other software as well as hardware which uses the features of such software, which may cause material damages to the party subject to such exercise of rights.

(iii) Status of Use and Availability of Patent

The existence or extent of the direct profits which the right holder will gain by utilizing the patent on the software, or of the profit restituted by such exercise of rights will depend on the following factors; whether or not the right holder, taking advantage of the technology subject to the software patent, sells (or is planning to sell) the software in his company; whether or not he conducts (or is planning to conduct) business by granting a license to others; whether he utilizes (or is planning to use) such patent for his company's service or its own use, whether he has some history of usage in the past (or plans) of use; and to what extent he gains (or will gain) profits, if any, from his business.

²² This applies especially when the interface of the software product has already become standard.

²³ The capacity of all of the features which require certain information exchanged by mutual transmission between and utilized by programs.

III-10 Liability for Providing a Method for Destroying Access Control of Software with Limited Functions, Usable Period, etc. (i.e. "Try-and-Buy Software")

[Issue]

What restrictions are imposed on the act of providing, on a website, devices for destroying the access control on a try-and-buy version of application software or shareware?

(Examples of restricted acts)

1. Providing serial data necessary for destroying the access control
2. Providing a key generator capable of calculating serial data necessary for destroying the access control
3. Providing a pseudo-information generation program transmitting false information regarding time and date to try-and-buy software
4. Providing information for modifying data in the registry, etc., that are recorded in a limited version
5. Providing pseudo-software that is free from access control by modifying the try-and-buy software's processing routine to provide the access control
6. Providing a crack patch to modify the try-and-buy software's processing routine to provide the access control
7. Providing binary changing information necessary for modifying the try-and-buy software's processing routine to provide the access control

I. Approach

We will herein discuss legal liabilities arising from the above-listed examples. (For other legal restrictions applicable to the above-listed examples, see section II-7 of the present Guidelines, "Providing IDs and Passwords on the Internet.")

- (1) Where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no serial data therein shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.
- (2) Where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no key generator therein shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.
- (3) Where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no program generating pseudo information shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.

- (4) Where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no modified data such as registry shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.
- (5) The act of offering pirated copies of regular software on the website will constitute an infringement of reproduction rights and public transmission rights, etc. under the Copyright Act and thus lead to penal and civil liabilities. In addition, separately from this, the modification of trial software to pirated copies of regular software will also constitute an infringement of the author's moral rights, and thus lead to penal and civil liability.

Furthermore, where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no pirated copies of regular software shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.

- (6) The act of offering a crack patch on a website will constitute an infringement of reproduction rights, and thus may lead to penal and civil liabilities.

Furthermore, where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no crack patch shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.

- (7) The act of providing binary changing information on a website will constitute an infringement of reproduction rights, and thus may lead to penal and civil liabilities.

Furthermore, where a person receiving trial software, on the condition that no binary changing information shall be provided to any third party, offers the same on a website, he/she will be held liable for non-performance of obligations.

In addition, all the acts referred to in (1) through (7) above may be held as torts, and therefore each will lead to liability for compensation of damages.

II. Explanations

1. Problem Identification

In a business handling application software or shareware, generally, its operator initially distributes software to which access is more restricted than its regular version, such as software for which functions are in part made unavailable, or a try-and-buy version usable free of charge for a limited period of time. Then, the operator provides customers wishing to utilize its regular version with a priced device for destroying such restricted access to the software

by, for example, offering a serial number necessary for that purpose, or a patch for unlocking the access control so that the software fully functions.

In connection with the aforementioned business, there are a number of websites offering, without permission of the right holder, devices for removing the access control. For this reason, it is held that offering of such devices unjustifiably injures the right holder's interests in collecting consideration for the software.

Therefore, we need to discuss herein whether the act of offering, without permission of the right holder, a device for removing access control is subject to legal restrictions.

Since there are a wide variety of devices for removing access control, we will first list some typical models for removing access control and then discuss legal the implications applicable to each.

2. Methods of Removing Access Control

The following are currently known devices for removing access control:

(1) Model Providing Serial Data

This model consists of an act of offering serial data on a website, where the entry of such serial data is required for unlocking the access control over the software. Consequently, the user of trial software receiving the serial data will, by entering such serial data upon setting up his/her own trial version, gain access to all functions of the software.

The serial data will become available to users if, for example, they pay the right holder for disclosure of such information, if they discover such data through analysis of its try-and-buy version, or if they obtain the serial data from another person's website offering such data to users.

(2) Model Providing Key Generator

This model consists of an act of offering a program generating serial data (a so-called "key generator") on a website, where such serial data are in sequence generated from such information as the user name. Consequently, the user of trial software receiving the serial data generated by running the key generator will, by entering such serial data upon setting up his/her own trial version, gain full access to all functions of the software.

The serial data will become available to users if, for example, they fabricate them through analysis of its try-and-buy version or if they obtain the serial data from another person's website offering such key generator to users.

(3) Model Providing Pseudo-Information Generation Program

This model consists of an act of offering on a website a pseudo-information generation program which is capable of transmitting false data on time and date as if they were accurate. Consequently, a user of software with limited usable time will, by executing such program, be able to lift such limitation on usable time and then access it even after the period of time.

The pseudo-information generation program will become available to users if, for example, they fabricate them or if they obtain such program from another person's website offering such program to users.

The pseudo-information generation program is, unlike other models, commonly provided in a highly versatile program universally workable with any software. For this reason, in this model, generally, those wishing to obtain such information need not analyze specific software.

(4) Model Changing Setting Data

This model consists of an act of offering on a website registry changing information, etc. on the website to transform trial software into the regular version thereof. Such information becomes available through analysis of information in the registry containing the setting data for application software. Consequently, a user of trial software will, by way of modification of the registry information etc. in the trial software installed in his/her own personal computer, be able to utilize it as if it were a regular version.

The registry changing information will become available to users if, for example, they discover such information, etc. through analysis of its try-and-buy version or if they obtain it from another person's website offering such registry information to users.

In this model, it is only the setting information, not the software in itself that will be modified. Therefore, this model is reserved for users with certain expertise since they need to manually modify the registry changing information, etc. within the program provided to them.

(5) Model Providing Pseudo Regular Software

This model consists of an act of offering on a website pirated regular software on the website fabricated by way of modification of the trial version thereof into pseudo-software functioning as well as its regular version. Such fabrication is accomplished by destroying the processing routine that provides access control. Software functioning as well as its regular version will thereby become available to users merely by installing such pirated regular software.

The pirated regular software will become available to users if, for example, they pirate such software through analysis of its try-and-buy version or if they obtain it from another person's website offering such pirated software to users.

This model tends to target users without special expertise, since they will gain full access to the software once they obtain pirated regular software

(6) Model Providing a Crack Patch

This model consists of an act of offering on a website a program called crack patch, which automatically transforms trial software into a regular version based on the information derived from the processing routine that provides access control. Consequently, a user of trial software, by inserting a crack patch into a program (that is, executing the program), will convert the trial software into pseudo regular software and utilize the latter as if it were a regular version.

The crack patch will become available to users if, for example, they fabricate it through analysis of its try-and-buy version or if they obtain it from another person's website offering such crack patch to users.

In this model, unlike the "model providing pseudo regular software" referred to in (5), it will be the users themselves that will fabricate the pseudo regular software. Nevertheless, this model also targets users without special expertise, since all they need to do is to run the crack patch.

(7) Information for Changing Binary Providing Model

This model consists of an act of offering on a website certain binary¹ information (including information necessary for conversion of trial software into pseudo-regular software) that controls the processing routine that provides access control. Consequently, a user of trial software, by converting, with reference to the binary information, the trial software into pseudo-software (which functions as well as the regular version), will utilize the latter as if it were a regular version.

The binary changing information will become available to users if, for example, they discover it through analysis of its try-and-buy version or if they obtain it from another person's website offering such information to users.

In this model, only the analysis information will be provided to users, meaning that, unlike the "model providing a crack patch" referred to in (6) above, no conversion of software will occur automatically. For this reason,

¹ This term describes the data format in general except for the text format; however, for the purpose of this document, it describes an executable format of computer program.

this model will be reserved for users with certain expertise since they need to manually modify the program.

3. Consideration of Legal Issues

The distribution of the aforementioned devices for removing access control constitutes an unauthorized use of the regular software, which is one of the right holder's copyrighted works.

Thus, this memorandum will first discuss whether the act of offering the aforementioned devices for removing access control constitutes an infringement of another person's legal interests, and then further discuss whether any restrictions under other laws or ordinances will be apply. (For details regarding issues other than the infringement of rights under the Copyright Act, see section II-7 of the present Guidelines, "Providing IDs and Passwords on the Internet.")

(1) Whether the aforementioned devices fall under the infringement of rights under the Copyright Act

The devices designed for removing access control can be classified into two main categories: models where the trial software will ultimately be transformed into different software ((5) through (7) above) and models where no transformation of software occurs ((1) through (4) above).

The former model, where the trial software will be somewhat transformed, is highly likely to fall under an infringement of rights under the Copyright Act.

Therefore, this memorandum will herein discuss each of the above two categories herein separately from the perspective of the Copyright Act.

Note, however, in the following cases, that the processing routine that provides access control will not fall under the "work" protected by the Copyright Act: when: (1) such processing routine is completely segregated from the program, which is the main portion of the software (for example, if the processing routine is structured as a completely separate file); or (2) when such processing routine in itself lacks creativity (for example, if a well-known program referred to in publications, etc. is copied and utilized for this purpose).

Therefore, we will herein limit the scope of discussion to cases where the processing routine that provides access control is not segregated from the program(i.e., the main portion of the software) or where, assuming that such processing routine is segregated, such processing routine in itself takes on creativity.

(i) Models designed to modify software ultimately

(A) Infringement of the moral rights of authors

Firstly, in the "model providing pseudo regular software", where the person providing such model converts a trial version into a regular version by his or herself, such conversion is clearly against the will of the author. Therefore, in such cases, one needs to consider an infringement of the right of the author to preserve the integrity ("*douitsu-sei hoji ken*" in Japanese) of his or her work, which is one of the moral rights of authors (Paragraph 1, Article 20 of the Copyright Act).

In this regard, pursuant to Item 3, Paragraph 2, Article 20 of the Copyright Act, Paragraph 1, Article 20 of the Copyright Act will not apply to "modification which is necessary to make more effective the use of a program work on a computer". In light of the above-mentioned provision, we need to consider whether such modification nonetheless constitutes an infringement of the author's right to preserve the integrity of his or her work.

The purpose of converting a trial version into a pseudo regular version will undoubtedly be to utilize the software more effectively, especially for users for whom only the trial version is available.

However, some theories argue that Paragraph 2, Article 20 of the Copyright Act should be construed and enforced under extremely limited circumstances². Such theories argue that Item 3 of the same paragraph is applicable to a modification for adding value to the program by, for example, eliminating a bug causing malfunctions of the computer program, or by upgrading its version equipped with some more useful functions)³. On that basis, considering the fact that a person converting a trial version into a pseudo-regular version simply destroys the limits on access to certain functions as created by the author, but neither eliminates bugs nor upgrades the version, Item 3, Paragraph 2, Article 20 of the Copyright Act will not apply, and therefore such act will constitute an infringement of the right to preserve integrity.

Therefore, the act referred to in the above-mentioned case may be construed as an infringement of the author's right to preserve integrity.

Secondly, this memorandum will discuss an infringement of the moral rights of the author in the "model providing a crack patch" and the "model

² See p. 173 of "Commentary of Copyright Act, 5th New Edition" ("*chosaku ken hou chikujyo kougi gotei shinban*" in Japanese) written by Moriyuki Kato [Copyright Research and Information Center, 2006].

³ See p.175 of the above.

for providing binary changing information."

In these cases, a person who offers such crack patch or information will not modify the trial version by himself.

Nevertheless, considering that, as mentioned above, the act of users exploiting the crackpatch or converting a trial version into pseudo regular software based on the binary changing information constitutes an infringement of the author's right to preserve integrity, it is evident that the crack patch and binary changing information facilitate acts that infringe the author's right to preserve integrity.

Therefore, offering a crack patch or binary changing information will be viewed as an act of inducing or facilitating the users' modification of software, and it therefore may be considered an infringement of the author's right to preserve integrity⁴.

On that basis, a person who fabricated pseudo-regular software by his or herself will be charged with an infringement of the right to preserve integrity and will be subject to: (1) a penal servitude of up to five (5) years and/or a fine not exceeding five (5) million yen (Item 1, Paragraph 2, Article 119 of the Copyright Act), (2) the right holder's claim for suspension of such act (Article 112 of the same), and (3) compensation for damages in civil procedures (Article 709 of the Civil Code). Further, a person who offers a crack patch or binary changing information may bear penal and civil liabilities for an infringement of the right to preserve integrity.

(B) Infringement of Copyrights

One consideration regarding the "model providing pseudo regular software" is, where a person offering such program modifies a trial version into a pseudo regular version by oneself, whether this act will constitute an infringement of the rights of adaptation ("*hon-an ken*" in Japanese) (Article 27 of the Copyright Act).

On this issue, it may appear reasonable to argue that such act is not an infringement of the rights of adaptation because the fundamental function of the software is, aside from the processing routine discriminating the trial version, not modified at all, and therefore the modification to software takes on no creativity. On the other hand, however, one can also reasonably argue that such model infringes the rights of adaptation, considering the changes made to the creative portion

⁴ Judgment of Tokyo High Court as of March 31, 2004 (the Case of "Dead or Alive 2"); *Hanj,i* vol.1864, p. 158.

of the work when the trial version is compared with the regular version⁵.

In addition, the act of newly reproducing a pseudo regular version will constitute an infringement of copyrights, aside from the aforementioned issue of whether the modification of software thereto constitutes an infringement of rights of adaptation⁶.

Aside from the aforementioned issue of whether the modification of software constitutes an infringement of the rights of adaptation, the act of uploading a pseudo regular version onto a server will constitute an infringement of the right of reproduction ("*fukusei ken*" in Japanese) (Article 21 of the Copyright Act) and/or the right of original author ("*gen chosaku sha no kenri*" in Japanese) (Article 28 of the same). In addition, the act of causing a third party to download the pseudo regular version on a server will further constitute an infringement of the rights of public transmission ("*koushu soushin ken*" in Japanese) (Paragraph 1, Article 23 of the same) and/or the right of original author (Article 28 of the same).

Therefore, when a person commits the aforementioned acts, if any of the acts are held to be an infringement of the right of reproduction etc., the person will be subject to: (1) a penal servitude of up to ten years and/or a fine not exceeding ten million yen (Paragraph 1, Article 119 of the Copyright Act), (2) the right holder's claim for suspension of such act (Article 112 of the same), and (3) compensation for damages in civil procedures (Article 709 of the Civil Code).

Secondly, this memorandum will discuss whether the "model providing a crack patch" or the "model providing binary changing information" constitutes an infringement of the right of reproduction, etc.

In this regard, because the offering of a crack patch or binary changing information may induce or facilitate website users to infringe another person's rights of reproduction or adaptation, such offering may be considered an infringement of the right of reproduction and the right of adaptation, except in cases where the reproduction or adaptation for personal use is almost impossible.

⁵ The judgment rendered by Tokyo District Court as of March 16, 2007 affirms the applicability of infringement of the "right of adaptation" to a similar case (p.93 of *Lexis Hanrei Sokuhou* vol. 19).

⁶ Assuming that the act of pirating pseudo-regular software does not take on creativity, and therefore does not constitute an infringement of the right of adaptation, the act of reproducing a pseudo regular version without approval of the copyright holder is substantially equivalent to the act of reproducing the trial version, and it therefore infringes the right of reproduction of such trial version. Assuming, on the contrary, that the act of pirating pseudo-regular software does take on creativity and therefore constitutes an infringement of the right of adaptation, the trial version is the original work ("*gen chosaku butsu*" in Japanese) of the pseudo regular software, and therefore an act of modifying it to a pseudo regular version without approval of the copyright holder infringes the rights of the original author (Article 28 of the Copyright Act).

(ii) Models designed not to modify software ultimately

In each of these models, the software in itself is neither modified nor reproduced, and therefore no problem arises in connection with the Copyright Act.

In this regard, the pseudo-information generation program will not be considered a “reproduction of a program having a principal function for the circumvention of technological protection measures” (Item 1, Article 120-2 of the Copyright Act), because such program simply transmits false time and date information to the software, but contains no signal specifically reacting to the software.

Further, the modification of certain setting information such as registry information will not give rise to problems under the Copyright Act, because the registry information is nothing more than data, and therefore does not fall under “work,” as that term is used in the Act.

Therefore, in each of these models, the infringement of rights under the Copyright Act will be unlikely.

(2) Restrictions under the Unauthorized Access Prohibition Act

In any model discussed herein, the act of utilizing the software by exploiting the illegally acquired serial data, etc. will not constitute an “act of unauthorized access” under Paragraph 2, Article 3 of the Unauthorized Access Prohibition Act (Act. No. 128 of 1999, “*fusei access koui no kinshi nado ni kansuru houritsu*” in Japanese), unless the serial data are input “through an electric telecommunication line”.

(3) Restrictions under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act

(i) Unfair Competition against Technological Protection Measures

Under the Unfair Competition Prevention Act, an act of assigning, etc. devices or programs having the sole function of enabling the running of program by obstructing the effect of a method for restricting the running of the program (i.e., technological protection measures) (Paragraph 7, Article 2 of the same), if such technological protection measures are designed for business purposes by recording signals which react in a specific manner to the programs on a data storage media or otherwise recording such signals to require specific conversion through electromagnetic means (if such devices or programs have a combination of functions other than such function, this is limited to an act done in order to provide such a device or program for the purpose of making it possible to view images, etc. by

interfering with the effectiveness of such technological restriction measures) is defined as "unfair competition" (Items 10 and 11, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the same).

However, the method of access control employed in the trial version will not constitute a technological protection measure, because, generally, no signal reacting in a specific manner to the programs is recorded, and the program itself does not necessitate such specific conversion.

Therefore, none of the models discussed herein will constitute unfair competition against technological protection measures.

(ii) Unfair competition relating to trade secrets

In the "model providing serial data" and the "model providing key generator", it appears that certain trade secrets are illegally offered.

However, the offering of serial data is not in itself viewed as illegally leaking the trade secrets, because such serial data are offered to a large number of users.

In addition, where the key generator is offered, no leakage of trade secrets arises, because no serial data are offered.

Therefore, serial data are unlikely held as trade secrets unless they are given to a person on condition that he/she shall not disclose them to any third parties.

(4) Contractual restrictions

If the contractual provisions executed between the right holder and the person offering the programs, etc. referred to in the models discussed herein expressly prohibit the acts of offering programs, etc. specifically referred to in each model, such person offering them shall bear liability for non-performance of contractual obligations and be subject to paying compensation for damages (Article 415 of the Civil Code).

Further, in each model, in order to discover the serial data, the analysis of a trial version by way of reverse engineering unavoidably becomes necessary. In some cases, additionally, it is a prerequisite to execute an agreement containing provisions on the prohibition of reverse engineering upon receipt of the trial version from the right holder, on the assumption that such prohibition of reverse engineering is legally valid. (For details regarding the interpretation of reverse engineering in the context of the Antimonopoly Act see section III-2 of the present Guidelines, "Unreasonable Clauses", 3. "Contractual clause restricting competition.") If a party to such agreement discovers the serial data by reverse engineering, such party will bear

contractual liabilities.

(5) General Torts

In all the models discussed herein, the acts referred to in each model may be held illegal and constitute a tort, because such acts cause damages to the right holder's business activities.

III-11 Treatment of Data and Information Extracted from Databases

[Issue]

Do legal restrictions apply to the extraction of information and data from databases provided online via the internet or from packaged CD-ROMs, and to the provision of such information and data to third parties?

I. Approach

1. Where each element of data extracted from a database is a copyrighted work

Copyrights extend to such data. The use of such data without permission from the owner of the right violates copyright.

2. Where each element of data extracted from a database is not a copyrighted work

Generally, this data can be freely used. However, in cases i) and ii) below, where large amounts of relatively organized data are extracted, legal restrictions may apply.

(1) Where the creativity of an original database is reproduced through the use of a body of data, which had been extracted from the original database with creativity.

The use of the data without permission of the owner of the right violates copyright.

(2) Where data extracted from a database interfere with business related to the original database, although the database is not deemed to have creativity.

Acts such as the sale of such body of data, interfering with business related to the original database, constitute illegal acts giving rise to liability for indemnification.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Databases refer to collections of data in which (1) data is or can be saved as part of a systematic scheme embodying a structure involving hierarchies or links; (2) it is possible to identify and extract only specifically required items from the whole of the database; (3) enables searches for such required items from an information terminal device possessing the appropriate functions. Such databases are provided online via the internet, packaged on CD-ROMs and

the like, and are characterized by a system of information and data that enables the information and data to be easily searched from the appropriate terminal.

Along with the development of digital means of data capture, storage, and transmission, there has also been a dramatic increase in the flow of information, making it increasingly important to efficiently and accurately extract the requisite information from vast amounts of information. As a result, there is an increased need for databases which enable searches by computer.

Moreover, the spread of the internet and personal computers has been accompanied by an increase in the transmission of information from individual users. In certain cases, information and data extracted from databases is provided as is or with further processing to third parties (such as the distribution of printed materials uploaded to the internet). Do legal restrictions apply to the use of information and data extracted from databases such as the provision of such information and data to third parties?

2. Where each item of data extracted from a database is a copyrighted work

Where information and data extracted from a database are deemed subject to copyright, each item of information or data is protected as a copyrighted work. For example, where information or data extracted from a database is a newspaper or magazine article, a map, an image, or the like, such items often constitute copyrighted works.

In this case, the act of using (reproduction (Article 21 of Copyright Act), assigning (Article 26-2), publicly transmitting, or enabling transmission (such as by uploading to the internet) (Articles 23, 92-2, 96-2, 99-2, 100-4 of Copyright Act) of each item of data without permission of the owner of the rights infringes upon such copyrights and may give rise to liability for indemnification (Article 709 of Civil Code), a claim for injunction (Article 112 of Copyright Act), or criminal liability (Article 119 of the Copyright Act).

However, where the purpose of reproduction is personal use, these acts do not infringe upon copyrights (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of Copyright Act).

3. Where each item of data extracted from a database is not a copyrighted work

Where each item of information and data extracted from a database is simply a fact, such as a train schedule, the names and elevations of mountains, or stock information, such items are generally deemed not to constitute copyrighted works. Therefore, such information is generally in the public domain.

However, where large amounts of relatively organized data are extracted, legal restrictions may apply where (1) a body of data extracted from a database with creativity reproduces the creativity of the original database, and (2) a body

of data extracted from a database infringes upon business activities related to the original database, despite the fact that the original database is not deemed to have creativity.

(1) Where the creativity of an original database is reproduced through the use of a body of data, which had been extracted from the original database with creativity.

Under Copyright Act, where databases are comprised of bodies of information such as text, figures, or diagrams which are systematically organized to enable searches by an electronic computer and which constitute original works because of the selected data and systematic structure, such databases shall be protected as copyrighted works (Item 10-3, Paragraph 1, Article 2 and Article 12-2).

Specifically, databases deemed to be protected as copyrighted works are those that exhibit creativity such as a unique method of data selection or a specialized format for each item of information, search systems, setting of keywords, and hierarchy of the database which enables information to be found efficiently because of its systematic structure. By way of example, in one judicial precedent where a database was protected as a copyrighted work, the court acknowledged the creativity of the NTT Town-Page database with respect to the classification of telephone numbers by the employment field of the respective owners (Judgment of Tokyo District Court, March 17, 2000; *Hanji*, no.1714, p.128).

When a body of relatively organized information and data (hereinafter referred to as a “Body of Data”) is extracted from a database having creativity, and the selection or systematic structure of such information is deemed to have creativity that did not arise as a result of additional processing by the person who extracted the information (when information and data extracted from a database with creativity are reproduced in a form which is relatively organized and does not detract from their value as a copyrighted work), the copyrights to the original database are deemed to extend to that Body of Data. Therefore, the act of using (such as reproduction (Article 21 of the Copyright Act), assigning (Article 26-2 of the Copyright Act), publicly transmitting or enabling the public transmission of (such by uploading to the internet) [Article 23 of the Copyright Act]), the Body of Data without the permission of the owner of the rights infringes upon copyrights and may give rise to liability for indemnification (Article 709 of Civil Code), a claim for injunction (Article 112 of Copyright Act), or criminal liability (Article 119 of the Copyright Act).

However, when reproductions are for personal use, such acts do not infringe

upon copyrights (Paragraph 1, Article 30 of Copyright Act).

(2) Where extracting a Body of Data from a database infringes upon business activities related to the original database despite the fact that the original database is not deemed to be an original work

Databases not deemed to be original works are not protected by copyright. In a judicial precedent concerning a database comprised of certain information on existing four-wheel automobiles in Japan for purposes of automobile servicing, the selection criteria were common, and this feature was not regarded as having creativity. Moreover, information was simply placed in order from the oldest to the newest, and was not further classified. Since other businesses independently adopted the same structure, the systematical structure of the database was also not regarded as original (Interim Decision of Tokyo District Court, May 25, 2001; *Hanji*, no.1744, p.132).

This decision held that (1) the database was created by a person who expended labor and money to collect and organize the information; and (2) such person engaged in business activities to compile and sell the database; and (3) the acts of reproducing the data of the database and compiling a new database to sell in a geographic area that competes with the sales geography of such person were deemed to constitute illegal acts using conspicuously unfair means that infringed upon the business interests of another person in the trading society subject to legal protection under the principle of fairness and free competition.

Accordingly, regarding the creation of a Body of Data from a database that is not original, where (i) the original database has economic value such as being created through a considerable investment of capital; and (ii) it is used for business activities; and (iii) an act such as the sale of such Body of Data infringes upon the business activities related to the original database, such act may be deemed to be illegal, giving rise to liability for indemnification (Article 709 of Civil Code).

However, this case held that an injunction was not approved which would have barred acts such as the reproduction of a Body of Data (Judgment of Tokyo District Court, March 28, 2002; *Hanta*, no.1104).

4. Where, with respect to the provision of a database, a contract is concluded between the provider and the users regarding the conditions for information and data use

With respect to the provision of a database, a contract may be concluded between the provider and the users regarding the conditions for use of

information and data in the database.

When a contract is concluded, users must generally use the database itself and the information and data included in such database in accordance with the applicable conditions of use, and the provider of the database is deemed able to assert contractual liability (liability for non-performance of the main obligation, Article 415 of Civil Code) with respect to acts of use by the user outside the contract.

However, some opinions have highlighted the need to further scrutinize the validity of such contracts especially the contractual provisions which restrict the acts of users.

III-12 Digital Contents

In general, digital contents are considered to mean the contents provided in digitalized formats¹.

One of the features of digital contents is that a large volume of contents such as electronic publications, music, and moving image is distributed and traded through digital platforms. Further, terminals have been diversified, which include computers, smartphones, tablets and specialized terminals for digital contents. In addition, there are various methods by which digital content services are provided; in some services, contents are provided only once through downloading, whereas other services provide contents continuously while users have a connection to the Internet².

As shown above, it is difficult to target all digital contents for consideration, since there are various types of contents and terminals and a broad range of service delivery methods and business styles. For this reason, in this section, “digital contents” refer to contents not fixed on carrier media such as CDs and DVDs but those provided through the Internet, such as the provision of online games³ and electronic publications and the distribution of music and motion pictures⁴.

This section mainly discusses general legal issues in relation to those “digital contents” defined above and legal problems specifically related to electronic publications and online games whose markets are expected to grow further in the future.

¹ In Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Act on Promotion of Creation, Protection and Exploitation of Contents, “contents” are defined as “cinematographic works, music, theatrical performance, creating writing, photograph, manga, animations, computer games, other characters, drawings, colors, voice, motion and video, combinations of these, and programs to provide information on these through computers.....which are, among things created through humans' creative activities, those falling within the scope of education or entertainment.”

² As is the case for electronic publications considered in this section, there are many services which require users to regularly go through such processes as account authentication, though services are still provided though download.

³ In this section, online games refer to game services provided to media such as computers, home-use game consoles and cellular phones (including smartphones) through the Internet. These include package games, web-browser games and applications for cellular phones, for general-purpose devices such as home-use game consoles and computers.

⁴ In the broad sense, digital contents are considered to include contents fixed on carrier media such as CDs and DVDs (for example, p. 4 of “Digital Content White Paper 2013” published by the Digital Content Association). However, this section mainly discusses contents provided without being fixed on carrier media.

III-12-1 Legal Issues Concerning Provision of Digital Contents on the Internet

[Issue]

What legal issues are involved in uploading digital contents such as music, movies and games on the Internet and in providing such contents to the public?

Further, what are differences between the case where digital contents uploaded on or provided to the Internet are pirated copies and the case where such contents are obtained through legitimate purchase etc.?

Additionally, what are differences between the case where digital contents are provided for profit and the case where they are provided for free?

I. Approach

Making others' copyrighted works transmittable upon request of the public (uploading such works to music/video sharing sites, so-called "uploaders"), or providing such works, without consent of the copyright or neighboring right holders is an infringement of the rights of public transmission and of making copyrighted works transmittable, unless the provisions of the Copyright Act on restrictions of rights are applicable. Further, there is possibly an infringement of the right to reproduce on the premise of uploading copyrighted works to the Internet or providing such works to the public.

Additionally, irrespective of whether contents uploaded or provided to the Internet are pirated copies (reproduced copies without permission etc.) or legitimately obtained ones, uploading such contents or providing them to the public through the Internet amounts to an infringement of the relevant copyrights and neighboring rights, unless the holders of these rights consent specifically to such uploading or providing.

Downloading music or video uploaded to music/video sharing websites amounts to an infringement of the right to reproduce if the person downloading knows the contents have been uploaded without permission.

As the existence of any consideration does not affect whether an infringement of copyrights and neighboring rights can be established or not, an infringement still stands where contents are provided without any payment made.

II. Explanations

1. Uploading digital contents to the Internet etc.

Copyright holders have the exclusive right to effect a public transmission of his/her copyrighted works (Paragraph 1, Article 23 of the Copyright Act). Accordingly, effecting a public transmission of a copyrighted work without

consent of the copyright holder amounts to an infringement of the right of public transmission unless the provisions for right restrictions apply.

Public transmission herein is defined as transmissions, by wireless communications or wire-telecommunications, intended for direct reception by the public¹ (Item 7-2, Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the same Act). Among different forms of public transmission, automatic public transmissions mean the form of public transmission which occurs automatically in response to a request from the public, for example from the Internet (Item 9-4 of the same Paragraph). “To make transmittable” means making an automatic public transmission of digital contents possible any time by uploading digital contents to websites such as homepages (Item 9-5 (a) of the same Paragraph), and copyright holders or the holders of neighboring rights have the exclusive right “to make transmittable” (Paragraph 1, Article 23, Paragraph 1, Article 92-2, Article 96-2, Article 99-2, and Article 100-4 of the same Act).

Accordingly, to make digital contents transmittable by uploading such contents in response to a request from the public without consent of the relevant copyright holders is an infringement of the right “to make transmittable”, unless the provisions for right restrictions apply. Further, if the general public receives uploaded digital contents, the person who uploaded such contents will be held to infringe the right of public transmission.

Additionally, provision of digital contents to the public on the Internet infringes the right of public transmission unless the provisions for right restrictions apply.

For more detail on the uploading of copyrighted works to the Internet, see “II-3 Liability of Provider of P-to-P File Sharing Software.”

As a precondition of uploading copyrighted works to the Internet or providing such works to the public, there is possibly an infringement of the right to reproduce if a person reproduces a copyright work without consent of the copyright holder.

2. Acquisition of digital contents

(1) Legitimate acquisition

Digital contents can be acquired in a variety of ways. Today, a frequently employed method for obtaining reproductions is to download them from websites through the Internet and to store them locally.

In the case of paid-for contents, there is no infringement of the right of

¹ “The public” includes a large number of specified persons as well as unspecified persons (Paragraph 5, Article 2 of the Copyright Act).

reproduction if downloading such contents accords with the relevant license conditions set forth by the copyright holder, such as paying the designated consideration.

(2) Acquisition of pirated copies

On the Internet, there are many illegal reproductions, so-called “pirated copies,” available. “Pirated copies” herein mean those copies which are reproduced or publicly transmitted (including making them transmittable) without consent of the right holders. Pirated copies pose a major threat to right holders due to the characteristics of digital contents; for example, no degradation of contents is caused through multiple reproductions, a large volume of reproduction is possible at once, and transfers of contents can be made instantly through the Internet. When a reproduction acquired upon obtaining consent from its copyright holder is uploaded to a website or the like without consent of the holder in this respect, this uploaded reproduction infringes the right of public transmission or “make transmittable,” and is treated as a “pirated copy,” unless the provisions for right restrictions apply.

Downloading digital contents by an Internet user is to replicate the contents in the storage medium (a HDD etc.) of his/her terminal, and therefore it amounts to a reproduction (Articles 21 of the same Act). However, under the Copyright Act, such reproduction is permitted without consent of the copyright holder, if it is intended for private or home use or for other uses within the scope equivalent to private or home use (hereinafter referred to as “for private use”), as the rights of the copyright holder are limited when contents are for private use (Paragraph 1, Article 30 and Paragraph 1, Article 102 of the same Act).

Nonetheless, the right limitation for private use does not apply to digital sound/video recording by receiving an automatic public transmission of such music/video without consent of the right holder, when the user receives such automatic public transmission, knowing that no consent of the relevant right holder has been given to the transmission (Item 3, Paragraph 1, Article 30 and Paragraph 1, Article 102 of the Copyright Act). Such recording amounts to an infringement of the right to reproduce, subject to criminal punishment (Paragraph 3, Article 119 of the same Act).

3. Payment involved in infringements

The Copyright Act is to protect copyrights and neighboring rights, and basically infringements thereof are nothing to do with whether or not any

payment is required. Even where no fee is incurred, it does not mean what normally constitutes an infringement does not constitute it².

Accordingly, provision of digital contents on the Internet for the public without consent of the relevant copyright holders, irrespective of whether it is for profit or not, infringes the right of public transmission unless the provisions for right restrictions apply.

4. Summary

From the above, uploading or provision of digital contents to the Internet, irrespective of whether such contents are pirated copies or legitimate copies, amounts to an infringement of the rights of public transmission and “to make transmittable,” unless the relevant copyright holders consent to such uploading or provision.

Although downloading of digital contents by Internet users amounts to a reproduction, such reproduction for private use does not affect the right to reproduce. However, unless the provisions for right restrictions apply, recording of sound/video in a digital form from automatic public transmissions of such music/video amounts to an infringement, when the user receives such automatic public transmissions to make such recording, knowing that no consent of the relevant copyright holders has been obtained to the transmissions.

These acts are subject to an injunction (Article 112 of the Copyright Act), a claim for damages (Article 709 of the Civil Code) and also criminal punishment (Paragraph 1, Article 119 of the Copyright Act).

Further, the presence or absence of payment is irrelevant to copyright infringements or neighboring right infringements. Therefore, provision of contents without a fee does not relieve it from being an infringement.

² Although any consideration for a purchase constituting an infringement is relevant in the calculation of damages when a claim for damages is made on the basis on this infringement, such consideration is not relevant to the infringement itself.

III-12-2 Use of Digital Contents after Termination of a Digital Contents User Agreement

[Issue]

Does the user have to return or erase digital contents after the expiration of the digital content user agreement? In what case can the use of digital contents be continued?

I. Approach

1. Where the business entity terminates the contract on the ground of default on the part of the user

As the user loses the right to use the digital contents, s/he has to terminate the use. The digital content provider (hereinafter referred to as “Provider”) is understood to be entitled to request the user to return or erase the digital contents.

2. Where the Provider is to terminate the contract upon the discontinuance of its digital content provider service

(1) The form of service discontinuance and the termination of the digital content user agreement

If the digital content user agreement stipulates the service provision term from the beginning of the service, the agreement will end at the expiration of the service provision term.

Where the digital content user agreement does not stipulate a service provision term but a provision that the Provider may discontinue its service any time, the Provider may terminate the agreement as long as the provision is effective. Where the digital content user agreement does not stipulate any provision in this regard, if the Provider may terminate the agreement after having notified the user of service discontinuance in advance and having set a sufficient familiarization period¹. The agreement is deemed to end after the end of the familiarization period.

If the Provider is successful in terminating the digital content user agreement in accordance with the grounds for termination set forth in the agreement, non-provision of the service by the Provider after the termination of the agreement does not lead to any liability for default. However, if the Provider has discontinued its service unilaterally while the agreement has not

¹ What amounts to “a sufficient familiarization period” is determined according to each case.

been terminated yet, the Provider is considered to assume liability for default.

(2) Effects of the discontinuance of the digital content user agreement

If the digital content user agreement stipulates specific provisions for the process after the agreement is terminated, the rights after the termination of the agreement will be handled in accordance with such provisions, unless the grounds rendering the agreement invalid are applicable. If the agreement provides that the user is entitled to continue his/her use of the digital contents after the discontinuance of the service provision, s/he may do so; if the agreement provides that the use cannot continue, the user may not. In considering specific provisions for the process after the discontinuance of digital content provision service, the Provider is expected not to include those details which make a surprise attack on the user in order to prevent trouble.

Where there is no provision for the post-discontinuance process, the Provider's duty to provide services related to its digital content provision service will be extinguished, and the Provider is understood not to be in default even where it does not provide its digital content service. In the case of download-based digital content provision services, although the user cannot request the Provider to provide the digital contents again, the user is considered not to owe the duty to return or erase the contents in hand.

3. Where there are grounds for the digital content user agreement to be invalid or rescinded

Where there are grounds for the digital content user agreement to be invalid or rescinded, and the agreement is invalidated or rescinded accordingly, each of the contracting parties owes a duty to return any unjust enrichment. Therefore, the Provider owes a duty to return the paid fee to the user, and the user owes a duty to return or erase the digital contents.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

When the user uses digital contents, s/he enters into an agreement for use of digital contents with the Provider of such contents (hereinafter referred to as a "digital content user agreement"), and receives the digital content provision service. This type of agreement for digital contents is often shown in a form such as general terms and conditions of use.

There are various forms of digital content user agreement according to different types of digital content usage. Specific legal characteristics of digital

content user agreements are considered to differ depending on the type of digital contents, provision methods, service details, the presence or absence of and the amount of consideration, payment methods, the duration of use, etc. Here, we discuss digital content user agreements on the premise that a typical, continuous, paid-for digital content service today is provided.

There is a wide range of digital content provision methods: in a broad classification, the form in which a reproduction of electronic data constituting digital contents has been transferred from the Provider to the user and therefore the reproduction of the data is held by the user even when the communication line between the terminal of the user and the server of the Provider is disconnected (hereinafter referred to as “download type” in this section); and the form in which the user can use digital contents while s/he maintains a connection with the server through a communication line by using an Internet browser or special software, and such digital contents are not available when the communication line is disconnected (no reproduction of electronic data remains in the terminal of the user) (hereinafter referred to as “streaming type” in this section). Depending on these different provision methods, the availability of contents after the end of the digital content user agreement differs. Regarding the streaming type, as no reproduction of electronic data remains in the possession of the user, the digital contents cannot be used after the termination of the digital content user agreement. On the contrary, regarding the download type, as a reproduction of the electronic data remains in the possession of the user, the user may continue to use the digital contents in hand even after the termination of the digital content user agreement, in some cases. Therefore, problems arise in relation to whether continuous use is permitted under the download type.

2. Where the Provider terminates the agreement on the ground of default on the part of the user

The user receives digital contents from the Provider upon agreeing to observe various obligations, such as payment for use and the prohibition of reproduction of digital contents without permission, in the digital content user agreement executed between the user and the Provider. In the case where the user does not fulfill the aforementioned obligations and becomes in default, the Provider is considered to terminate, in whole or part, the digital content user agreement executed between the Provider and the user.

In this case, whether to terminate the user agreement in whole or part depends on the contents of the agreement and the grounds for default. If the

digital content user agreement is interpreted to be a contract for continuous service provision, the effects of the termination are considered to take place in a prospective manner.

As the user loses the right to use the digital contents in a prospective manner in the case where the digital content user agreement is terminated. Consequently, s/he has to stop his/her use of the digital contents.

In the case of the download type, the user is considered to be obliged not only to terminate the use of the digital contents but also to return any reproduction of the digital contents in hand to the Provider, or erase such reproduction in lieu of returning.

In this regard, it is possible to consider that returning, which is a transfer of possession, cannot be materialized since digital contents are intangible. However, on the basis of the likelihood that the user continues to use the digital contents without a legitimate right even after the termination of the agreement while the contents remain in the possession of the user, rationally the Provider is considered to be able to remove the control of the user over the contents by demanding return or erasure of the contents from the user in order to secure the termination of use of the contents by the user.

3. Where the Provider is to terminate the agreement following its discontinuance of digital content provider service

(1) The form of service discontinuance and the termination of the digital content user agreement

(i) Where the expiration of the service provision term is as scheduled at the beginning of the service

Both contracting parties may agree to set a term for the digital content provider service in their digital content user agreement. Accordingly, in the case where the service completion date is provided in the digital content user agreement, the agreement will be terminated after the expiration of the service provision term. In such a case, and the duty to provide the relevant digital contents on the part of the Provider is understood to be extinguished. Therefore, the Provider is not held liable for default even where it discontinues the service.

(ii) Where the discontinuance of service is based on the Provider's decision

The digital content user agreement may have a provision that the Provider may discontinue its service any time. In this case, the Provider may terminate the digital content user agreement and discontinue its

content provision service (the Provider does not assume any liability to the user for default even if it discontinues its service), unless there are applicable grounds rendering the above provision invalid.

On this basis, where the digital content user agreement does not stipulate a provision that the Provider may discontinue its service any time during the service term, may the Provider terminate the agreement and thereby its service? The digital content user agreement can be regarded as a continuous agreement which is effective without a fixed term. Even where the digital content user agreement does not stipulate a term of effectiveness therein, if the Provider discontinues its service after having notified the user of its discontinuance of the service in advance and having set a sufficient period of familiarization² before actually discontinuing the service, the digital content user agreement will be terminated after the familiarization period, and the Provider will not potentially be held in default after the discontinuance of its service. This is in accordance with the general legal principles of the civil law that permit the termination of a contract after a reasonable period of time has passed since a request of termination was made³. On the other hand, if the Provider discontinues its service without setting a sufficient period of familiarization, the digital content user agreement is potentially considered not to have been terminated and consequently the Provider is potentially held liable for default.

(2) Effects of the termination of the digital content user agreement

(i) Where there are provisions for post-termination processes

It is common to set forth, in the digital content user agreement, provisions for the processes applicable after the termination of the agreement (for example, whether the user is entitled to continue to use the digital contents). Where specific provisions for such processes are stipulated in the digital content user agreement, such provisions are considered to legally bind the Provider and the user, unless there are applicable grounds rendering the agreement invalid. Accordingly, the rights of the parties after the termination of the digital content user agreement are handled in light of such provisions. For instance, if the digital content user agreement provides that the user is entitled to continue to use the digital contents after the

² What amounts to “a sufficient familiarization period” is determined according to each case.

³ In accordance with Paragraph 1, Article 617 of the Civil Code [Lease Contracts] and Paragraph 1, Article 627 of the same Code [Employment Contracts], a contract which can stand without a period of duration may be terminated after a reasonable period of time has passed since a request for termination was made.

termination of the agreement, the users may continue his/her use of the contents. On the contrary, the agreement provides that the user is not entitled to continue to use the digital contents after the termination of the agreement, the users may not continue his/her use of the contents.

In considering specific provisions for the processes applicable after the termination of the digital content user agreement, it is desirable that the Provider should not include those details which make a surprise attack on the user in order to prevent trouble⁴.

In the case of the download type, the user is considered, in many cases, to understand that s/he “has obtained the right to use the reproduction concerned.” For this reason, if the use of any reproduction of the electronic data in possession of the user is to be prohibited, the agreement should specify to that effect from the beginning and make such prohibition a part of the agreement.

On the other hand, in the case of streaming type, even where there is a provision prohibiting the user from using the relevant digital contents after the termination of the digital content user agreement, such provision is unlikely to give an unexpected surprise to the user as it is within the user’s expectation.

(ii) Where there is no provision for post-termination processes

Where the digital content user agreement does not set forth any provision for the processes applicable after the termination of the agreement, what processes are required as the post-termination processes?

In the case of the streaming type, the user may not continue to use the relevant digital contents upon the Provider’s discontinuance of its service. When the digital content user agreement is considered to be terminated, the Provider’s duty to provide its service is also extinguished. Consequently, the Provider is understood not to be in default even where it does not provide its digital content provision service.

Also in the case of the download type, when the digital content user agreement is considered to be terminated following the Provider’s discontinuance of its digital content provision service, the user is understood not to be entitled to request the Provider to provide its service, and consequently the Provider’s duty to provide the service is extinguished. With regard to the download type, issues arise as to whether the user may

⁴ Keep in mind that clauses which seek to excessively limit the rights of the user are potentially void pursuant to Article 10 of the Consumer Contract Act.

continue to use the digital contents in his/her possession or is required to erase the contents. As the Provider could have set specific provisions for the processes applicable after the termination of the agreement but chose not to do so, the Provider should come to terms with disadvantages caused by the termination of the agreement, and the user should not owe a duty to return the digital contents s/he holds or to erase such contents⁵.

(4) Where there are grounds for the digital content user agreement to be void or rescinded

The digital content user agreement is rendered void and may be rescinded in the case of such grounds for nullity and rescission as the following: nullity due to a mistake where the user mistakenly clicks the order button to order digital contents (the main text of Article 95 of the Civil Code)⁶; rescission of acts conducted by the user who is a person with limited capacity, such as a minor and an adult ward (Paragraph 2, Article 5, the main text of Article 9, Paragraph 4, Article 13, and Paragraph 4, Article 17 of the same Act); and rescission where the user, as a consumer, offers a contract, in relation to important matters, through those acts falling within the provision of each Item in Paragraph 1, Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act (Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act).

In this case, the contracting parties in the digital content user agreement owe the duty to return unjust enrichment (Article 703 and Article 704 of the Civil Code). Accordingly, the Provider owes the duty to return to the user the fee paid in accordance with the agreement concerned, and the user owes the duty to return the digital contents, or erase them in lieu of returning, in the case of download type. However, in the case of rescission of a digital content user agreement entered into by a person with limited capacity, the scope of the duty to return on the part of the person with limited capacity is limited to “the extent that s/he is actually enriched,” for the sake of protection of persons with limited capacity (Proviso of Article 121 of the aforementioned Act)⁷.

⁵ However, even in this case, the digital content user agreement has been terminated, and the Provider is not considered to owe a duty to continuously provide services such as an update of digital contents.

⁶ For more details on Article 3 of the Electronic Contract Act, see Section I-1-2 of the present Guidelines, “Mistake Caused by Consumer's Erroneous Operation.”

⁷ With regard to the specific scope of so-called “actual enrichment” and the application of Article 21 of the Civil Code that restricts rescission of minors in the case of fraudulent means committed by minors, see Section I-4 of the present Guidelines, “Expression of Intention by a Minor.”

III-12-3 Obligation to Redistribute Electronic Publications

[Issue]

Is the electronic publication distributor obliged to redistribute electronic publications if the user who purchased such publications requests to do so?

Further, when the OS of the user's device is upgraded, is the distributor obliged to upgrade the browsing application?

In addition, where the distributor discontinues its distribution or loses its right to distribute, is the distributor held in default if the distributor discontinues its redistribution for the user?

I. Approach

If the terms and conditions of use include provisions regarding the presence or absence of a duty to redistribute and its scope, and if these provisions form part of the contract between the distributor and the user, these provisions shall be followed.

If the terms and conditions of use do not include such provisions, it is necessary to rationally interpret the intention of the terms and conditions of use with reference to the surrounding circumstances, and to judge the presence and details of the tacit agreement between the user and the distributor. If the distributor is judged to have promised a redistribution of the relevant electronic publication to the user, the distributor owes the duty to redistribute it to the extent the distributor has promised to the user.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Electronic publications are publications provided to the user in a digital form.

In many cases, electronic publications are provided by electronic publication distributor (hereinafter referred to as "Distributor") to the user through downloading such publications to a special device or general-purpose devices from the platform managed by the Distributor¹. In providing digitalized publications to users, the Distributor obtains a license to distribute from copyright holders and publishers². It is difficult for the user to reproduce

¹ In the business today, electronic publications are provided through streaming in some cases. This section is on the premise that electronic publications are downloaded to devices of users.

² There are two cases of obtaining a license to distribute electronic publications: the case where the Distributor obtains such a license directly from publishers, and the case where the Distributor obtains a

electronic publications for a technical reason, and frequently s/he can access such publications only on the platform of the Distributor.

There are situations where the user requires a redistribution of his/her electronic publications provided by the Distributors, as the user's terminal is broken down, s/he purchases a new terminal, or s/he has to erase some publications on his/her terminal due to the limited storage of the terminal.

In such a situation, is the Distributors obliged to redistribute electronic publications upon request of the user? Further, in relation to this, when the OS of the user's terminal, such as a smartphone and a tablet, is updated, is the Distributor obliged to provide a browsing application usable on the updated OS?

In addition, is the Distributor obliged to redistribute its electronic publications after it has discontinued its distribution service? Problems arise where the Distributor is not able to receive a license to distribute from copyright holders.

2. The duty to redistribute on the part of the Distributor

(1) Where the terms and conditions of use include a provision that redistribution is to take place, and this provision is part of the contract between the Distributor and the user

In receiving the distribution of electronic publications, in many cases, the user agrees to the terms and conditions of use provided by the Distributor.

Where the terms and conditions of use include a provision that redistribution is to take place, and this provision is part of the contract between the Distributor and the user, the Distributor owes a contractual duty to redistribute the relevant publication to the user.

Accordingly, the Distributor is required to redistribute its publications to the user in accordance with the provision in the terms and conditions of use.

In this case, if the terms and condition of use provide a term of redistribution and a limit in the number of redistribution³, the Distributor owes the duty to redistribute the relevant publications during the term and within the limit of the number. In contrast, if the terms and condition of use do not provide a term of redistribution or a limit in the number of redistribution, the Distributor owes the duty to redistribute the relevant

license through brokers of such publications. Further, publishers have obtained a license to distribute from copyright holders for the purpose of distributing electronic publications.

³ Even where the terms and conditions of use include such provisions, there are some cases where the contract is judged as not concluded, with respect to the limitation of redistribution, in accordance with the terms and conditions of use. For more details on cases where the terms and conditions of use form part of contracts, see Section I-2-1 of the present Guidelines, "Incorporation of Website Terms of Use into Contract and Their Effectiveness."

publications to the user only to the extent that the provisions of the terms and conditions are applicable to the user⁴.

(2) Where the terms and conditions of use include a provision that no redistribution is available, and the provision is part of the contract between the Distributor and the user

Where the terms and conditions of use include a provision that no redistribution is available, and this provision is part of the contract between the Distributor and the user, the Distributor is not obliged to redistribute the relevant publication to the user.

(3) Where there is no provision regarding redistribution in the terms and conditions of use

Where there is no provision regarding redistribution in the terms and conditions of use, it is necessary to interpret the rational intention of the terms and conditions of use and the tacit agreement between the user and the Distributor in order to examine whether the Distributor owes a contractual duty to redistribute publications and, if it does, the term and number of redistribution.

In this examination, the surrounding circumstances to be considered include the following: whether the situation indicates that the Distributor has promised redistribution of electronic publications to the user; supposing redistribution is to take place, whether there are a term of redistribution and a limit in the number thereof; the contents of the electronic publication distribution service of the Distributor; explanations of the Distributor regarding its distribution service; the sale prices of electronic publications distributed; and the awareness of general users about electronic publications.

As a result, if the situation recognizes that the Distributor has promised redistribution of electronic publications to the user, the Distributor owes the user a contractual duty to redistribute. If there are found to be a term of redistribution and a limit in the number of redistribution, the Distributor owes the duty to the extent of such term and limit.

⁴ If explanations of the Distributor on non-redistribution of electronic publications, the presence of a limitation of redistribution, the possibility of cancellation of redistribution, etc., are insufficient, it is possible that nullity on the basis of mistake (Article 95 of the Civil Code), rescission on the basis of fraud (Article 96 of the same Code) and rescission on the basis of the lack of notification of important matters (Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Consumer Contract Act) are applicable, depending on the awareness of the user.

3. Where the OS etc., of terminals are upgraded

Where the Distributor owes the duty to redistribute electronic publications, if the OS of general-purpose terminals is upgraded, is the Distributor obliged to ensure that its electronic publications are accessible on the upgraded OS (in the case of an update of the browsing application or in the case where an electronic publication is itself an application, whether the Distributor is obliged to update such application)?

Whether the Distributor is obliged to ensure that electronic publications are accessible on the upgraded OS is stipulated in the terms and conditions of use. If this provision constitutes part of the contract between the user and the Distributor, this matter follows the details of the contract.

Where there is no provision of this matter in the terms and conditions, whether the Distributor owes a contractual duty to ensure its publications are accessible on the upgraded OS, on the basis of rational interpretation of the intention of the terms and conditions of use and the tacit agreement between the user and the Distributor, requires an examination of such surrounding circumstances as the following: the contents of the electronic publication distribution service of the Distributor; explanations of the Distributor regarding its distribution service; the sale prices of electronic publications distributed; and the awareness of general users about the use of electronic publications on the upgraded OS.

4. Duty to redistribute electronic publications after the discontinuance of distribution service

Does the Distributor owe the duty to redistribute electronic publications after its discontinuance of distribution service? Is the Distributor held in default if it fails to redistribute?

On this point, if the terms and conditions of use provide that the Distributor will not redistribute publications after its discontinuance of the service, and if this provision constitutes part of the contract between the Distributor and the user, the Distributor does not owe the duty to redistribute after its discontinuance of distribution service, and does not assume liability to the user for default.

In contrast to this, if the terms and conditions of use do not provide whether the Distributor will or will not redistribute publications after its discontinuance of the service, it is necessary to examine whether the Distributor is held in default due to its failure to redistribute by taking into consideration such

surrounding circumstances as the cause of the discontinuance of distribution service, the circumstances leading to the discontinuance, the rational interpretation of the intention of the user and the Distributor, and the tacit agreement between them.

5. Where the Distributor loses the right to distribute

It is possible that the Distributor loses its right to distribute electronic publications due to contracts between authors and publishers or contracts between publishers and the Distributor. If the Distributor loses the right to distribute electronic publications, the Distributor is not permitted to redistribute such publications.

In such a case, where the terms and conditions of use provide that the Distributor will not redistribute publications, and if this provision constitutes part of the contract between the Distributor and the user, the Distributor does not assume liability to the user for default even if it does not redistribute publications.

In contrast to this, where the terms and conditions of use do not provide whether the Distributor will or will not redistribute publications when it loses its right to distribute, it is necessary to examine whether the Distributor is held in default due to its cancellation of redistribution by taking into consideration such factors as the cause of the loss of the right to distribute on the part of the Distributor, contractual relationships between authors and publishers and between publishers and the Distributor, the rational interpretation of the terms and conditions, and the presence or absence of any tacit agreement between the user and the Distributor⁵.

⁵ If the liability for default is found, this leads to the impossibility of performance on the part of the Distributor, who will be held liable for damages to the user.

III-12-4 Rights for Items in Online Games

[Issue]

How are rights for items in online games (hereinafter referred to as “items”) considered?

(Examples)

- 1 Is an ownership of an item legally recognized?
- 2 Does the user possess any right of an item against the business operator?
- 3 When the gaming service is discontinued immediately after the user has obtained a paid-for item, is the user entitled to claim damages from the business operator?
- 4 When the item that the user paid to obtain is lost due to a defect in the system of the business operator, is the user entitled to claim damages from the operator?

I. Approach

No ownership of items within online games¹ (hereinafter referred to as “items”) is legally recognized.

Depending on interpretations of the contract between the user and the business operator in relation to the use of items, it is possible that the user may claim certain rights or interests which deserve legal protection against the operator.

In the case where the gaming service is terminated immediately after the user has obtained a paid-for item, the user’s claim for damages on the basis of default may be allowed, depending on prior notification from the operator to the user, the status of the item concerned within the game, etc.

Further, even if the item which the user paid to obtain has disappeared due to a defect in the system of the operator, such an occurrence of defect does not automatically mean that the operator is required to take responsibility for the disappearance of the paid-for item, as the occurrence of defects in the system is inevitable in providing an online game service. However, if such a defect is caused intentionally by the operator or by gross negligence of the operator, the operator is considered to be liable for damages for the disappearance of the paid-for item even if there is a disclaimer of damages.

¹ Items within an online game concerned herein are services that the game provider provides in association with the specific online game, and that are expressed as virtual goods or service to be used within the game (here, items which are described as virtual goods [for instance, as weapons and protective gears] are taken into consideration in particular). Such items are provided both for a consideration and without consideration. These items do not include the points etc., that users purchase to play a game.

II. Explanations

1. Problem identification

Online games refer to game services provided to media such as computers, home-use game consoles and cellular phones (including smartphones) through the Internet. This includes package games, web-browser games and applications for cellular phones, for general-purpose devices such as home-use game consoles and computers.

With regard to billing methods for online games, the contents are sold off in some games, while there are those games based on the so-called freemium model in playing with basic features is for free. In online games, for example, users can make progress to their advantage by paying for and using items.

Although such items are information within games, they are understood by users as if users were permitted to “own” them. For this reason, the rights with regard to such items are required to be organized.

2. Rights in relation to items in online games

What rights are recognized in relation to items in online games?

(1) Items in online games and ownership

Firstly, problems arise as to whether the user is allowed to hold the ownership of his/her items in an online game?

“Ownership”, in legal terminology, means a right to a thing, which is recognized only for a tangible object (movables and real properties) (Article 206 and Article 85 of the Civil Code). Accordingly, as items in online games are merely in the form of information, not tangible objects, the ownership of such items on the part of the user is not recognized.

(2) Rights regarding the use of items in online games

Depending on interpretations of the contract between the user and the business operator in relation to the use of items in online games, it is possible that the user may claim certain rights or interests which deserve legal protection against the operator on the basis of the contract. The interpretation of the contract between the user and the operator is to comprehensively take account of the provisions of the terms and conditions of use, the statuses of items in the online game concerned, whether the online game is provided for free or at a charge, whether items are available for free or at a charge, how the purchase screen is displayed, the relevant prices, etc.

Among such factors, the potential, important factors are whether the online

game is provided for free or at a charge and whether items are available for free or at a charge. Where the online game and items are provided for free, it is considered to be difficult to establish that the business operator owes some kind of duty regarding the use of items by the user. On the other hand, where these are paid-for, from the perspective of equity, it is natural that the business operator should assume some obligations or responsibilities with regard to the use of items according to the consideration paid for them. In particular, most of today's online games are based on the business model that play with basic features is provided for free and profits are earned from selling chargeable items. Regarding the prices of such items, although the unit prices of individual items are mostly around several hundred yen, it is not unusual for the total price for a user can be high as a consideration for the game when the user plays the game for a long period of time. In this situation, the business operator is considered to assume obligations or responsibilities regarding the use of items in such cases as the following [3] and [4].

However, the presence or absence of any obligation or responsibility on the part of the business operator and the details of such obligation or responsibility depend on a specific case, and the duty to refund is not considered to be recognized in a stereotypical manner.

In some cases, the terms and conditions of use include a disclaimer clause which seeks to entirely or partially exempt the online game business operator from obligation or responsibility. Among disclaimer clauses, in light of Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act, some are considered to be effective as a partial disclaimer in the case of slight negligence, although they are not considered to be effective where the business operator fails to meet its obligations and responsibilities intentionally or by gross negligence.

(3) Rights regarding paid-for items that the user has obtained just before the gaming service is discontinued

When purchasing paid-for items, the user is considered to quite frequently expect that they have opportunities to use such items continuously in the online game. Such expectation of the user potentially deserves legal protection in some cases, depending on prior notification of the business operator and the statuses of such items in the game. In such a case, it is possible that the business operator is subject to the liability for damages for default.

For instance, where, immediately after the user has purchased an item which is to be used continuously in the relevant game, the business operator terminates its online game service without giving prior notification to the user or an opportunity for the user to use the item, the business operator unjustly

extinguishes the user's opportunity to use the paid item in the game, and possibly assumes liability to the user for damages for the whole or part of the item price on the basis that the operator has failed to perform the duty to provide service in relation to the paid item. In this case, even where the terms and conditions of use negate the duty to refund the item price and include the operator's disclaimer of damages, if the operator was aware of, or could have been aware of, the existence of any user who would purchase a paid-for item just before the end of its service provision, it is possible that the operator is found to have caused the loss intentionally or by gross negligence, the disclaimer is nullified pursuant to Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act, and consequently the operator is held liable for damages. On the other hand, where the operator set a period of extension sufficient for the user to use the paid item and notified the user of its discontinuance of the service, the operator is considered not to owe the duty to refund the user or to be held liable for damages, as the user had an opportunity to use the item in the game.

(4) Rights regarding paid-for items that the user purchased and have been extinguished due to a defect in the system of the business operator

In the provision of online game services using computer systems, defects in such systems are almost inevitable. For this reason, even where a defect occurs in the system for an online game, this does not automatically render the business operator responsible or liable for the resultant extinction of a paid-for item, unless the occurrence of such defect and the resultant item extinction were predictable and the result of such extinction could have been avoided. Further, even where any liability of some sort arises, if it is based on slight negligence, the business operator is considered not to assume responsibility because of the disclaimer in the terms and conditions of use. However, in the case where such a defect in the system for the online game is caused intentionally or in gross negligence by the operator, the operator is potentially liable for damages for the extinction of the paid-for item concerned, even if a disclaimer of damages is stipulated, as such disclaimer is void under Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Consumer Contract Act.

Part IV: Issues Concerning Cross-Border Transactions

Last Revised: November 2012

IV-1 Adjudicative Jurisdiction over Transactions between Business Entities and Applicable Law

[Issue]

If disputes occur between Japanese business entities and foreign business entities during transactions via the internet, which country's law will apply as to the basic business rules such as the time and the requirement for formation of the contractual relationship, or performance of the contract and how are the disputes resolved?

I. Approach

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

If there is an arbitration agreement, that arbitration agreement prevails. Even if a party sues the other at Japanese Court, the case will be rejected¹. If there is an agreement over the jurisdiction of Japanese Court, the Adjudicative Jurisdiction² of Japanese Court will be approved in principle. However, when there is an agreement over the exclusive jurisdiction of a foreign court, the case will be rejected if a party sues the other at Japanese Court, in principle.

Example of a clause which determines the jurisdiction

- “As for all the disputes pertaining to this Agreement, Tokyo District Court shall have the exclusive jurisdiction for the first trial.”
-

If there is no agreement over Adjudicative Jurisdiction, it may be possible that the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved if a Japanese business entity was sued as a defendant. However, if a Japanese business entity sues a foreign business entity at Japanese Court, the Japanese Court may consider specific circumstances to determine approval of the Adjudicative Jurisdiction.

2. Applicable Law

For international sales of movable properties, Japan joins the United Nations

¹ Rejection means the refusal of suit before substantial determination.

² Adjudicative Jurisdiction means the jurisdiction exercisable by the court of the country over the international case. If the court cannot exercise the jurisdiction, the court must reject the case without any substantial determination.

Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods (“Vienna Convention”), which has taken effect since August 1, 2009. Therefore, if the transaction in question is a transaction of movable properties and the counterparty’s office is located in the member country of the Vienna Convention, or if the governing law specified by the agreement or the like is the law of the member country of the Vienna Convention, the Vienna Convention shall apply. However, if in the contract there is an agreement that the Vienna convention shall not apply, the Vienna Convention will not apply.

Example of a clause which eliminating the application of the Vienna Convention

- “The United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods shall not apply to this contract.”
-

Also, if the Vienna Convention does not apply or the subject matter is not stipulated in the Vienna Convention³, Japanese Court will determine under the Act on the Application of Laws which country’s law shall apply (the law of which jurisdiction shall govern).

Pursuant to Article 7 of the Act on the Application of Laws, transactions that are conducted between business entities across borders via the internet shall be governed by the law specified by the parties.

Example of a clause which determines the governing law applicable to a contract

- “All the matters pertaining to this Agreement shall be governed by the laws of France.”
-

On the other hand, where the parties did not specify the governing law, Paragraph 1, Article 8 of the Act on the Application of Laws provides that the transaction shall be governed by “the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction.”

On this note we must determine what “the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction” is. Paragraphs 2 and 3, Article 8 of the Act on the Application of Laws provides that, where one party to a contract is to grant “the characteristic benefit” in a transaction, the law which governs the place of the party’s permanent residence shall be presumed to be the law which

³ For instance, there is no provision regarding delinquency charges in the Vienna Convention.

governs the place most closely related with the transaction, except in cases where the subject matter of the transaction is an immovable estate, and these transactions will not generally be completed merely on the internet.

In general, as the characteristic benefit is considered to be delivery of movable goods or provision of services, Japanese law will govern in principle if the seller or service provider is a Japanese business entity.

3. Formation of Contractual Relationship in the Vienna Convention or Japanese Law

As the applicable law is determined as mentioned above, for example, is it possible for the Japanese business entity to assert the formation of the contractual relationship in the case where the foreign business entity, the purchaser, canceled the order after a Japanese business entity, selling goods for overseas, had received the order from a foreign business entity and had sent an acceptance notice to that foreign business entity? Under the Vienna Convention, if the acceptance notice sent by the Japanese business entity has reached to the foreign business entity, the purchaser, the contractual relationship between them has already formed. It is impossible to rescind the contract by one-sided expression of the intention after the formation of the contractual relationship. Also under the Japanese law, if the acceptance notice sent by the Japanese business entity has reached to the foreign business entity, the contract is formed at the time of the arrival of the notice. Therefore, in spite of the cancellation notice arriving afterwards, the Japanese business entity can assert the formation of the contractual relationship

II. Explanations

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction over Transactions between Business Entities and Applicable Law

The spread of the internet has encouraged business entities to conduct cross-border transactions with one another. These transactions have resulted in an increasing number of cross-border disputes. The contracts, of which interpretation becomes an issue for settlement of such disputes, are not necessarily interpreted in accordance with the Civil Code or the Commercial Code of Japan. Such disputes cannot necessarily be brought into Japanese Court, either. That is, transactions with a foreign business entity may be governed by of a foreign country in which such business entity is located or by the civil and/or commercial code of another country. The Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court may not be approved.

With relation to such transactions, how is the court determined to approve the

Adjudicative Jurisdiction, application of the civil or commercial code of a country? In this regard, to amend the Code of Civil Procedure, the “Act to Partially Amend the Code of Civil Procedure and the Civil Preservation Act” that incorporates provisions of international jurisdiction was established on April 28, 2011, and promulgated on May 2, 2011. As this Act is to come into effect from April 1, 2012, the following descriptions are based on the provisions of the revised Code of Civil Procedure.

The law serving as criteria for determining the civil and/or commercial code applicable to cross-border issues is generally called the “international private law.” The Act on the Application of Laws serves as the international private law of Japan, setting forth which civil and/or commercial code shall be applicable to such cross-border transactions, if the Vienna Convention applies.

We should note, however, that this is a consideration from Japanese standpoint when cross-border disputes are brought into Japanese courts. More specifically, where such disputes are brought into a court in a foreign country, the approval of the Adjudicative Jurisdiction (and which country’s civil and/or commercial code will apply) shall be determined pursuant to the international private law of that country. Therefore, the conclusion may be different from that in Japanese court.

Based on the aforementioned principle, the following section will discuss, the assumption that any disputes are brought into a Japanese court, and additionally examine approval of the Adjudicative Jurisdiction (and which country’s civil and/or commercial code will apply) pursuant to the international private law of Japan.

2. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

(1) Where there is an arbitration agreement

If there is an arbitration agreement, that arbitration agreement prevails. In such case, if a party sues the other at Japanese Court, the case will be rejected, irrespective of whether the place of arbitration is Japan or not (Paragraph 1, Article 14 of Arbitration Act).

Though the arbitration agreement must be in writing (Paragraph 2, Article 13 of Arbitration Act), as agreements in the electronic record is regarded as in writing (Paragraph 4, Article 13 of Arbitration Act), agreements by the online contract are substantially valid (See these Guidelines I-2-4 “Validity of Arbitration Agreement”).

(2) Where there is an arbitration agreement

The revised Code of Civil Procedure lists cases where Japanese Court is

approved to exercise international jurisdiction. Specifically, Article 3-2 corresponds to Article 4 of the Code of Civil Procedure concerning the domestic territorial jurisdiction and stipulates those cases where Japanese Court is approved to exercise international jurisdiction when the defendant's domicile is within Japan. Article 3-3 closely corresponds to the jurisdiction over actions on property rights related to the domestic territorial jurisdiction (Article 5 of the Code of Civil Procedure) and stipulates those cases where Japanese Court is approved to exercise international jurisdiction over actions on contractual obligations. Although Item 1, Article 5 of the Code of Civil Procedure provides that the special venue for an action on a property right is the place of performance of obligation, Item 1, Article 3-3 of the revised Code of Civil Procedure approves the international jurisdiction of Japanese Court in relation to a claim for performance of a contractual obligation only if "the place of performance of the obligation determined in the contract concerned is located in Japan, or is supposed to be located in Japan in accordance with the law chosen under the contract." Further, even where the international jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved, Article 3-9 of the same Code provides, "An action may be dismissed in whole or part, if its trial or proceedings by Japanese Court damages the equity between the parties concerned, or prevents an appropriate and prompt trial," upon consideration of "the nature of the case, the extent of burden on the defendant in response to the action brought against him/her, the location of evidence and other circumstances."⁴

(i) Where a Japanese business entity is the defendant

Where the principal business establishment or office of the defendant is in Japan, Japan Court has the jurisdiction (Paragraph 3, Article 3-2 of the same Code).

(ii) Where a Japanese entity is the plaintiff

Depending the type of action, Japanese Court may be approved to have the jurisdiction. Examples of such types are as follows: in the case of an action to demand the performance of a contractual obligation, it is when the place of performance of the obligation concerned is located in Japan (Item 1, Article 3-3 of the same Code); in the case of an action on a property rights, it is when the subject matter of the action is in Japan, or in the case of an

⁴ However, the revised Code of Civil Procedure provides that the provisions under Article 3-2 to Article 3-4 and Article 3-6 to Article 3-8 shall not apply where an action involves an Act with a provision of the exclusive jurisdiction of Japanese Court (Article 3-10 of the same Code).

action to demand a payment, it is when the properties of the defendant which may be attached are in Japan (excluding those cases where the values of such properties are remarkably low) (Item 3 of the same Article). In such actions, Japanese Court may be approved to have jurisdiction.

Further, Japanese Court may be approved to have jurisdiction in cases where the defendant of an action has a business establishment or office and in Japan and the action is related to the business conducted in such establishment (Item 4, Article 3-3 of the same Code), and in cases where the defendant conducts his/her business in Japan and the action concerned is related to the business (Item 5 of the same Article).

In addition, we need to note that, even when the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved and the Japanese plaintiff wins the suit, that judgment must be requested to be executed on the basis of that final decision of the Japanese Court in the country where the property is located if the defendant has no property in Japan.

Even before the incorporation of the provisions of international jurisdiction, if there was an exclusive agreement over the Adjudicative Jurisdiction between the parties, that agreement would prevail in principle. Also, an exclusive agreement on the jurisdiction of the foreign court would be valid in principle, if (i) the case was not exclusively under the Japanese jurisdiction, (ii) the specified foreign court had the jurisdiction over the case under the law of that country, and (iii) the agreement was neither extremely irrational nor offensive to public order and etc. (Judgment of Supreme Court Third Petty Bench dated November 28, 1975, 29-10 *Minshû* p. 1554).

These details remain relevant even after the amendment to the Code of Civil Procedure. Regarding international jurisdiction, the same Code provides under Article 3-7 that the parties in a case may determine by an agreement, the country in which the action is to be tried (Paragraph 1 of the same Article). Further, the Code provides that the agreement on the exclusive jurisdiction of a foreign court shall not be invoked when the foreign court does not have jurisdiction over the case concerned (Paragraph 4 of the same Article), and this Article does not apply where Japanese Court has the exclusive jurisdiction under laws and regulations (any provision that the parties may determine by agreement the international jurisdiction of a foreign court does not apply) (Article 3-10). In addition, the Code expressly provides the requirements for the above (1) and (2).

Although any agreement on international jurisdiction is required to be in writing, an online agreement will be judged as effective since electromagnetic

records are considered to be in writing (Paragraph 2 and Paragraph 3, Article 3-7 of the same Code).

3. Applicable Law

(1) The Vienna Convention

For international sales of movable properties, Japan joins the Vienna Convention, which has taken effect since August 1, 2009.

The Vienna Convention applies to contracts of sale of goods between parties whose places of business are in different States when (i) the States are Contracting States; or when (ii) when the rules of private international law lead to the application of the law of a Contracting State⁵ (Article 1 of the Vienna Convention).

Therefore, if the transaction in question is a transaction of movable properties and the counterparty's office⁶ is located in the member country of the Vienna Convention, or if the governing law specified by the agreement or the like is the law of the member country⁷ of the Vienna Convention, the Vienna Convention shall apply. However, the Vienna Convention will not apply in the following cases.

(i) Exceptions (Article 2)

- (a) goods bought for personal, family or household use, unless the seller, at any time before or at the conclusion of the contract, neither knew nor ought to have known that the goods were bought for any such use
- (b) auction
- (c) on execution or otherwise by authority of law
- (d) ships, vessels, hovercraft or aircraft

(ii) In case there is an agreement that the Vienna Convention will not apply (Article 6)

The parties may agree to exclude the application of the United Nations Convention on Contracts for the International Sale of Goods ("Vienna Convention"), derogate from or vary the effect of any of its provisions.

⁵ The contracting states include the United States of America, many European States excluding U.K., and such Asian countries as Singapore, Korea, China and Mongolia.

⁶ See Article 10 of the Vienna Convention.

⁷ However, such countries as the United States of America China, Czech Republic, Slovak Republic and Singapore declares that it will not be bound by subpaarticle 1(1)(b) of the Vienna Convention (Article 95).

(2) Where the Vienna Convention will not Apply⁸

(i) Where the governing law has been specified by the parties

Firstly, where the parties have specified a governing law at the time of the transaction, Article 7 of the Act on the Application of Laws provides that such law governs the contract.

Therefore, irrespective of whether the subject matter of the transaction is a tangible or an intangible object such as software available if it is downloaded it from the server on the internet, the transaction shall be governed by the civil and/or commercial code that governs the place specified by the parties in a contractual provision on the governing law.

In addition, even where no governing law was specifically agreed upon, the court commonly held that, pursuant to Paragraph 1, Article 7 of the Law Application Principles Act⁹, the governing law was, all things considered, implicitly specified by the parties to a contract (p.616 of Judgment of the Supreme Court, April 20, 1978, *Minshû* Vol. 32-3). Now, the Act on the Application of Laws is flexibly applicable to cases where no governing law was specified by the parties, as is more fully described in the following sections. We should note, however, the parties need not necessarily specify the governing law expressly. In other words, the parties may be regarded as having implicitly specified the governing law, considering such circumstances such as whether the foreign website has a Japanese version or whether the price is indicated in Japanese yen or such website refers more or less to consumer protection laws of Japan.

(ii) Where no applicable law is specified by the parties

Which law will govern the transaction if no governing law is specified by the parties?

Article 8 of the Act on the Application of Laws, while providing that, where no governing law is specified, the “law which governs the place most closely related with the contract” (Paragraph 1), set forth provisions to presume the “law which governs the place most closely related with the contract” (Paragraphs 2 and 3). More specifically, except in the cases where the object matter of the transaction is an immovable, “the law which governs the place of permanent residence of the party” who is to grant “the

⁸ This includes matters not set forth in the Vienna Convention.

⁹ <Law Application Principles Act>

Article 7

With respect to the formation and effect of a juristic act, the governing law shall be determined based on the will of the parties thereto.

characteristic benefit” shall be presumed to be the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction. Further, where the party granting the characteristic benefit has a business location for the transaction, the “law which governs the place of such business location” shall be presumed to be the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction. If the business locations extend across two or more countries, the “law which governs the place of principal business location” shall be presumed to be the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction¹⁰.

The “characteristic benefit” herein means the benefit which distinguishes a certain type of contract from others. In the case of purchase and sale of products, whether tangible or intangible, the seller of products is the “party” who is to grant the “characteristic benefit.” More specifically, in the case of purchase and sale of software available if it is downloaded from server on the internet, the seller of such software is the “party” who is to grant the “characteristic benefit.”

Therefore, where a Japanese business entity sells products, whether they are tangible objects or software, to a foreign business entity via its own website, the Japanese law shall be presumed to be the law which governs the place most closely related with the transaction.

In case of the software sales, in many cases the copyright license contract is entered into with the licensor of the software in question in addition to the sales contract with the entity supplying the software. In such cases, the seller is the party granting characteristic benefit related to the sales contract while the licensor is the party granting characteristic benefit related to the copyright license contract

It is, above all, the “law which governs the place most closely related” that shall be applicable pursuant to Article 8 of the Act on the Application of Laws. The basis for application of the law which governs the place of permanent residence or business location of the “party” who is to grant the “characteristic benefit” derives from the idea that such law governs the place most closely related with the transaction. Therefore, if any law other than above is considered as the law which governs the “law that governs the place most closely related” with the transaction, the governing law shall not be determined in accordance with the presumed assumption.

¹⁰ The location of the server may not be closely related, except for the case the provision of the service is closely related to the server. If the website is only in Japanese, it may possibly be a factor for which Japan is the most closely related, at present there is no precedent clearly discussing the matter.

(iii) Formalities of Contract

The requirements for conclusion of a contract consist of substantive and stylistic requirements (e.g. whether or not the contract must be in writing or sealed, etc.). The aforementioned explanation is true to the substantive requirements for conclusion of a contract.

In regard to the stylistic requirements (so-called formalities), where a cross-border transaction is substantively governed by a foreign law which is unfamiliar to the parties, the parties may, pursuant to the foreign law, carelessly conclude a contract which does not meet the necessary stylistic requirements. In order to prevent the parties from suffering from unexpected damages in such cases, Article 10 of the Act on the Application of Laws, though saying the stylistic requirements should be based on the requirements of the applicable foreign laws in Paragraph 1, provides that a contract shall be held valid if the requirements of the applicable law governing the place of the act (Paragraph 2), or if the contract is between the parties in different jurisdictions, the place where the order or the acceptance is sent are met (Paragraph 4). The business entities conducting cross-border transactions on the internet should pay attention to this point.

(iv) Legal capacity of the party, etc.

In the case of transactions on the internet, attention should also be paid to the law that governs the legal capacity and the corporate entity of the parties.

Where the business entity conducting transactions on and via the internet across borders is a natural person, the provision on their legal capacity must be discussed. Article 4 of the Act on the Application of Law provides that the legal capacity of a person shall be determined by the law which governs his or her home country except in cases where all the parties involved are located in the same jurisdiction. In an exceptional case, even if the legal capacity of the person who has performed a juristic act is restricted under the law which governs his or her home country, but not restricted under the law which governs the place of the act, he/she shall be regarded as having full legal capacity.

Therefore, if business entities enter into a transaction in the territory of Japan, where all the parties are located in the same jurisdiction, then the legal capacity of the transacting business entities shall be determined by the laws of Japan, as Japan is the place of the juristic act. By contrast, if

the parties to a transaction entered into via a server placed in Japan but are located in a number of jurisdictions, then the legal capacity of the consumer shall be, pursuant to the basic principle, determined by the law which governs the business entity's home country, as all the parties are located in different jurisdictions.

Alternatively, despite the fact that the Act on the Application of laws is silent on this matter, it has been consistently held that where the business entity conducting transactions on the internet across borders is a legal entity, the matters pertaining to internal rules in the legal entity shall in principle be governed by the law of the place where it was established. However, from the standpoint of protection of the transaction safety, there is an opinion that the application of the law of the place where the legal entity was established should be restricted by the law of the place of act, analogically applying the provisions for the natural person under Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Act on Application of Laws¹¹. For example, the question whether the contract was entered into by an authorized person or not will be considered on the basis of the law of the place where the legal entity was established, but from the standpoint of protection of the transaction safety, it may be restricted by the law of the place of act.

(3) Formation of the Contractual Relationship under the Vienna Convention

As the applicable law is considered above, what are the provisions for formation of the contractual relationship under that law?

For example, a Japanese business entity selling order-made embroideries such as company names over the internet received an order from the foreign business entity, and started manufacturing the products after confirmation that the counterparty received the acceptance-of-order notice. In the case that the foreign business entity sent a cancellation notice after a few days, is it possible for the Japanese business entity to assert the formation of the contractual relationship? We will discuss this question on the basis of the Vienna Convention or Japanese Law?

¹¹ "International Private Law (Third Edition)" by Ryoichi Yamada (Yuhikaku, 2004), p. 235, "Lecture on International Private Law (Third Edition)" by Yoshio Tameike (Yuhikaku, 2005), p. 299.

(i) Where the Vienna Convention Applies¹²

The order from the purchaser is considered as an offer to contract¹³. If the cancellation of the order is valid as a revocation of the offer, there is no formation of contract. On the other hand, if the contract is already formed at the time of cancellation, it is impossible to rescind the contract by one-sided expression of the intention after the formation of the contractual relationship.

According to the Vienna Convention, a revocation of the offer is permitted¹⁴ before the contract is concluded, which means the case where the notice of revocation arrives at the counterparty before the counterparty dispatches the acceptance notice¹⁵. Therefore, in the case the Japanese business entity dispatches the acceptance notice of this order before the cancellation notice of the foreign business entity, the purchaser, arrives at the Japanese business entity, it is not allowed to revoke the order thereafter.

This is a case that the contract is formed by arrival of the acceptance at the offeror¹⁶. As the acceptance notice of the Japanese business entity has already arrived at the foreign business entity, the purchaser, the contract is formed at the time of arrival of that acceptance notice. After the formation of the contract, as stated before, it is not allowed to rescind the contract one-sidedly.

(ii) Where Japanese Law Applies

Also under the Japanese law, the contract is formed at the time of

¹² The Vienna Convention does not apply to contracts in which the preponderant part of the obligations of the party who furnishes the goods consists in the supply of labor or other services (Article 3 (2)). In this case, as the provision of embroidery service is not a main part of the seller's obligation, the Vienna Convention applies.

¹³ Article 14 (2) of the Vienna Convention prescribes, "A proposal other than one addressed to one or more specific persons is to be considered merely as an invitation to make offers, unless the contrary is clearly indicated by the person making the proposal." Displaying of the goods and/or the services is not for a specific person, it is understood as an invitation to make offers, unless it does not say, "We will sent anyone who offers." However, in this case, as the offer is considered for a specific person, it is considered as an offer to contract.

¹⁴ If a revocation is permitted (See Article 16 (2) of the Vienna Convention).

¹⁵ See Article 16 (1) of the Vienna Convention.

¹⁶ In case Article 18 (3) of the Vienna Convention applies, if a certain act is conducted, the contract is formed and the offer cannot be revoked even if the offeror does not know such act is conducted. This case assumes the Article 18 (3) of the Vienna Convention does not apply. If it applies and such act is conducted before the acceptance notice is dispatched, the contract is formed at that time and afterwards the offer cannot be revoked.

acceptance of the offer. As for the revocation of offer under Japanese law, the offer representing an acceptance time cannot be revoked (Article 524 of the Civil Code) while the offer without an acceptance time, if to the person in a remote location, cannot be revoked until a reasonable time lapses for the offeror receives the notice of acceptance (Article 524 of the Civil Code). However, revocation of the offer is possible after such time.

The expression of intention takes effect at the time of arrival (Article 97 of the Civil Code), but if it is for acceptance of the contract between the parties in remote locations, it takes effect at the time of dispatch (Paragraph 1, Article 526 of the Civil Code). However, the electronic notice of acceptance between the parties in remote locations (Paragraph 4, Article 2 of Electronic Contract Act) takes effect at the time of arrival in accordance with the principle (See these Guidelines I-1-1 “Conclusion of Contracts (Arrival of Electronic Notice of Acceptance)”). Therefore, if there is no specified time of acceptance, revocation of the offer will not be valid if the expression of the intention does not arrive at the counterparty (i) in general, by the time of dispatch of the acceptance notice, or (ii) if the electronic notice of acceptance, by the time of arrival of the acceptance notice.

In this case, the Japanese business entity dispatched the acceptance notice of the offer¹⁷ from the foreign business entity, and that notice arrived at the counterparty. At that time the contract is formed. Therefore, in spite of the cancellation notice that arrived after that time, it is possible to assert the formation of the contract¹⁸.

¹⁷ There is a possibility that the act of representing the products at the website may come under the “offer,” but if the contract is formed immediately when the purchaser orders in relation to the products represented at the website (that is, the seller is immediately bound by the order, irrespective of the volume of the order), the seller will be liable for default when there is an order of the volume that the seller cannot deal with. Therefore, the representation of the products at the website is usually an “invitation of offer.”

¹⁸ As the subject of sales in this case is the order-made products (embroidery of the company name, etc.), the order-made part of the products may be considered to contain a nature of a service contract for completion of work. As for the service contract, the Civil Code stipulates, “By compensating the damages, the ordering party can terminate the service contract any time before the completion of work (Article 641 of the Civil Code).” In this case, it may be possible to consider that the cancellation by the counterparty is a termination of this sense. If so, it may be possible that such termination will be allowed.” When the termination is allowed, the Japanese business entity will be able to claim damages under the same provisions.

IV-2 Adjudicative Jurisdiction over Transactions between Consumers and Business Entities and Applicable Law (Especially Consumer Protection Laws)

[Issue]

If a dispute between a consumer in Japan and a foreign business entity during a transaction via the internet, which country's consumer protection law will apply and how is the dispute resolved? On the contrary, how about a dispute between a consumer in a foreign country and a Japanese business entity during a transaction via the internet?

I. Approach

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

If there is an arbitration agreement, that arbitration agreement prevails. Even if a party sues the other at Japanese Court, the case will be rejected. However, according to Article 3 of the Additional Rules to the Arbitration Act, the consumer can terminate the arbitration agreement.

If there is no arbitration agreement or the arbitration agreement is terminated, the question is whether Japanese Court has Adjudicative Jurisdiction or not. It was unclear how this point affected the fact that one of the contracting parties was a consumer, before the introduction of the provisions of international jurisdiction. Under the revised Code of Civil Procedure, Japanese Court is normally approved to have international jurisdiction when the domicile of that consumer is in Japan.

2. Applicable Law

If the purchaser is a consumer, in principle, the Vienna Convention does not apply.

In cases where the legal proceedings are taken in Japan, according to Paragraph 1, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws, if there is a transaction between a consumer in Japan and a foreign business entity, or between a foreign consumer and a Japanese business entity, via the internet, the consumer in Japan or in the foreign country may be protected, not only by the consumer protection provisions of the governing law chosen by the both parties, but also by the forcible provisions of the consumer protection law of the jurisdiction of the location of the consumer's permanent residence if that consumer asserts special effects based on such forcible provisions.

In addition, Paragraph 2, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws

provides that, notwithstanding the provision of Article 8 of the same Act, where the parties to an agreement have not specified a governing law, the law that governs the place of the consumer's permanent residence shall be the governing law for the agreement. Therefore, where a consumer whose permanent residence is in Japan enters into a transaction with a foreign business entity via the internet without specifying the governing law, the transaction shall be governed by the laws of Japan and thus the consumer will be protected under the consumer protection laws and regulations of Japan.

For the reasons above, in cases a consumer in Japan purchases goods from a foreign business entity, or in cases where a foreign consumer purchases goods from a Japanese business entity, the consumer can in principle be protected by the consumer protection law of the jurisdiction of the location of his/her permanent residence.

However, if the law of the other jurisdiction than that of the location of his/her permanent residence, the consumer must assert application of the forcible provisions of the consumer protection law of the jurisdiction of the location of the his/her permanent residence.

II. Explanations

1. Cross-border consumer transactions on the internet, Adjudicative Jurisdiction and Applicable Law

The wide use of the internet has encouraged consumers to enter into cross-border transactions, which in the past would have been unimaginable. As a result of these cross boarder transactions, consumers are beginning to be involved in radically new type of cross-border disputes. Where consumers in Japan enter into transactions with a foreign business entity, a question arises as to whether Japanese consumers will be offered the same protection as they would have in the case of intra-country transactions, under consumer protection laws and regulations of Japan.

The revised Code of Civil Procedure sets forth special provisions regarding the international jurisdiction over actions based on consumer contracts¹, as shown in I. 1. above. Also, as for international application of laws on the consumer transactions, Article 11 of the Act on Application of Laws stipulates special rules on the consumer contracts. Note, however, that, this special rule is applicable

¹ Under Paragraph 1, Article 3-4 of the revised Code of Civil Procedure, “a consumer contract” is defined as a contract (excluding an employment contract) executed between a consumer (an individual [except where this individual is a party to the contract as a business or a party to the contract for a business]) and a business entity (a legal person, an association, a foundation or an individual who is a party to the contract as a business or a party to the contract for a business).

exclusively to contracts executed between a business entity and a consumer, where the difference between the parties in bargaining power is significant, not to contracts executed between consumers.

Moreover, we should note that this is a consideration from Japanese standpoint when cross-border disputes are brought into Japanese courts. More specifically, where such disputes are brought into a court in a foreign country, the applicable law shall be determined pursuant to the Adjudicative Jurisdiction and the international private law of the country. Therefore, the applicable law may be different from the law applicable in Japanese court.

Therefore, for example, if a Japanese business entity performs transaction with a consumer in a foreign country via the internet, and a dispute arising from this transaction is brought into a court in the consumer's home country, the law applicable to the dispute in the country shall be determined pursuant to the international private law of the country. In such a case, the explanation below is not necessarily true.

Based on the aforementioned qualifications, the following is the explanation in terms of the international private law of Japan, on the assumption that the disputes are brought into the courts in Japan.

2. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

(1) Where there is an arbitration agreement

In the same way as transactions between business entities mentioned in These Guidelines IV-1 “Adjudicative Jurisdiction over Transactions between Business Entities and Applicable Law,” if there is an arbitration agreement, that arbitration agreement prevails. However, as special rules for consumers are stipulated in Article 3 of the Additional Rules to the Arbitration Act, the consumer can terminate the arbitration agreement. The case the arbitration agreement is terminated by the consumer is discussed in (ii).

(2) Where there is no arbitration agreement

In this case, the problem is whether Japanese Court has international jurisdiction or not. On this point, the revised Code of Civil Procedure sets forth the following special provisions regarding the international jurisdiction over actions on consumer contracts.

(i) Action of a consumer against a business entity

Japanese Court has jurisdiction where the consumer was domiciling in Japan when s/he entered into the relevant contract, or when the consumer

brought the action (Paragraph 1, Article 3-4 of the same Code).

(ii) Action of a business entity against a consumer

In principle, Japanese Court in the domicile of the consumer has jurisdiction (Paragraph 3, Article 3-4 of the same Code; the same Paragraph provides that the provision of Article 3-3 does not apply).

(iii) Special provisions concerning the agreement on international jurisdiction

A prior agreement on international jurisdiction over a dispute with regard to a consumer contract is, in principle, void (Paragraph 5, Article 3-7 of the same Code). However, such an agreement between a business entity and a consumer is effective in the following cases: where both parties agree on the details on international jurisdiction that an action may be brought to the court of law in the country of the consumer's domicile at the time of the execution of the consumer contract; where the consumer brings an action to a court of the country agreed on the basis of the parties' agreement on international jurisdiction; or where the consumer invokes the parties' agreement on international jurisdiction when the business entity brings an action². Therefore, for transactions between a consumer and a business entity, an agreement that the international jurisdiction lies in a court of the country of the business entity's location is not enforceable, unless the consumer actively takes actions to effect such agreement.

3. Applicable Law

(1) Vienna Convention

If the purchaser is a consumer, the Vienna Convention shall not apply in principle, as such sales is considered as "sales of goods bought for personal, family or household use"³.

(2) Where the parties had chosen the governing law

Firstly, where the parties chose the governing law applicable to the transaction, Paragraph 1, Article 11 of the Act on Application of Laws as well as Paragraph 1, Article 7 of Law Application Principles Act provides that the

² In the case of there being an arbitration agreement, an exclusive agreement on international jurisdiction is deemed to be the agreement to the effect that it does not prevent an action from being brought to a court of any other country (Paragraph 5, Article 3-7 of the Code of Civil Procedure).

³ It should be noted that the text of the Vienna Convention adds, "unless the seller, at any time before or at the conclusion of the contract, neither knew nor ought to have known that the goods were bought for any such use (Proviso of Article 2 (a))." In such case, the Vienna Convention shall apply.

consumer contract shall be governed by such law. However, there is a great difference in bargaining power between a business entity and a consumer in the determination process of the governing law. Therefore, if the pre-agreement on the governing law is unconditionally approved in transactions with foreign business entities, consumers tend to be forced to accept a governing law which is less protective to consumers than the law of Japan. As a result, consumers in Japan were exposed to the risk of unexpected damages.

As a solution to the problem of exposure to the risk unexpected damages, Paragraph 1, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws expressly provides that “where the consumer expressly declared to the business entity that certain mandatory clauses set forth in a statute of the jurisdiction that governs his/her permanent residence shall apply, these mandatory clauses shall also apply to the matters stipulated by such clauses in regard to the completion and effectiveness of the consumer contract.”

By virtue of this provision, a consumer who has his/her permanent residence in Japan is entitled to claim protection on the basis that certain mandatory clauses stipulated in the consumer protection laws of Japan. These Japanese consumer protection laws apply as Japan is the place of his/her permanent residence, and protection is afforded even if the parties had pre-agreed that a foreign law governs the contract. On the contrary, a consumer who has his/her permanent residence in a foreign country is entitled to claim protection on the basis that certain mandatory clauses stipulated in the consumer protection laws of the foreign jurisdiction of his/her permanent residence. These foreign consumer protection laws apply, and protection is afforded even if the parties had pre-agreed that Japanese law governs the contract.

(3) When the governing law is not specified by the parties

Paragraph 2, Article 11 of the Application of Laws Act stipulates that where no governing law was specified for a consumer contract by the parties in the consumer contract, the formation and effect of the consumer contract shall be governed by “the law of the consumer's permanent residence.” Therefore, as for the consumer whose permanent residence is in Japan, provisions on consumer protection under the laws of Japan, that is, “the law of permanent residence” shall be fully applied.

(4) Formalities of consumer contract

The parties might carelessly enter into the contract, unaware of the

mandatory formats required by a foreign law with which they are unfamiliar. In order to prevent parties from suffering unexpected damages in such cases, Article 10 of the Act on the Application of Laws provide that, a contract shall be valid if it meets either one of the formats required under the applicable foreign law or those required under the law which governs the place of the act of the law.

However, some consumer contracts, impose certain requirements on format such as a prescribed template or minimum font to serve as protection to consumers, and thus it would not necessarily be appropriate to apply the provisions of Article 10 of the Act on the Application of Laws that allow each party to apply whichever law is convenient for it in order to validate the contract to the maximum extent possible in terms of public interest. In these cases, Paragraph 3, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws provide that, as for the format of the consumer contract, if the consumer expresses to the business entity the intention that specific forcible provisions of the law of the jurisdiction of his/her permanent residence should apply, the forcible provisions shall exclusively apply even if the law of the other jurisdiction is chosen as the law substantially governing the contract. Paragraph 4, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws provide that, when the law of the jurisdiction of the consumer's permanent residence is chosen as the law substantially governing the contract, if the consumer expresses to the business entity the intention that the law of the jurisdiction of his/her permanent residence should apply to the format of the contract, only the law of the jurisdiction of his/her permanent residence should apply. Further, Article 5 of the same Act provides that, where no governing law has been specified by the parties, the law which governs the consumer's permanent residence shall exclusively govern the consumer contract. Therefore, in consumer contracts, we should pay special attention to the law applicable to the formats.

(5) Exceptions

Paragraph 6, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws provides an exception to the aforementioned principle, under which no special rules on consumer contracts apply and thus basic rules on contracts apply.

The first case is where (i) a consumer travels to a place outside the territory of Japan where he/she concludes a contract (Item 1, Paragraph 6, Article 11 of the Act on the Application of Laws). If the special rules for consumer contracts were applicable to such “active consumers”, even a business entity operating exclusively in Japan would need to take the location of the

consumer's permanent residence into consideration, which might disturb the business entity's operation of business. Note, however, that this item is applicable only to cases where the consumer physically travels to a place outside the territory of Japan. Therefore, where the consumer does not physically travel abroad, for example if he/she accesses a foreign business entity's website on the internet, this item shall not apply.

The second case is where (ii) the foreign business entity has performed all its obligations under a consumer contract in its home country for the consumer (Item 2 of the same Paragraph). Where the product is finally delivered to Japan after the consumer purchased on the internet, the place where the business entity's obligation is performed is in Japan and thus this Item is not applicable to this case. On the other hand, where a consumer in Japan purchased music data by downloading them from a foreign website, it is possible to consider that the business entity's obligation had completely been performed at the moment music data became ready to be downloaded on the server located in a foreign country. In such a case, the issue is whether the place where the business entity's obligation has been performed is, outside the territory of Japan by reference to the location of the server, or alternatively in Japan by reference to the location of the consumers." The purpose of this Item is to exclude "active consumers" who can physically travel to the place where the business entity is located from the consumers under the protection of special rules for consumer contracts. Then, considering that the consumer has little trouble accessing the website, for downloading the music data, operated by a foreign business entity on the internet, the place where the obligation has been performed should be considered to be the place where the consumer is physically located. Therefore, so long as the consumer receives certain data through a terminal placed in Japan, this Item will not be applicable.

The third case is where (iii) the business entity was justifiably unaware of the location of the consumer's permanent residence (Item 3 of the same Paragraph). The fourth case is where (iv) the business entity was justifiably unaware of the fact that the counterparty to the contract was a consumer (Item 4 of the same Paragraph). It seems that transactions on the internet conducted without any face-to-face communication with the counterparty are, compared to other transactions, more likely to fall under the aforementioned categories. In such a case, the business entity may, for various reasons, target consumers whose permanent residence is located in a certain limited area or offer different prices depending on the location of their permanent residence. Some consumers may, taking advantage of the absence of face-to-

face communication with the counterparty, seek to purchase a product at a lower price by falsely stating the location of their permanent residence or by representing themselves as non-consumers. The exception referred to in this Item is unlikely to be applicable to such consumers.

(6) Legal capacity of the party

In the case of transactions on the internet, we should also pay attention to the provisions on the legal capacity.

Article 4 of the Act on the Application of Law provides that the legal capacity of a person shall be determined by the law which governs his or her home country except in cases where all the parties involved are located in the same jurisdiction. In such an exceptional case, even if the legal capacity of the person who has performed a juristic act is restricted under the law which governs his or her home country, but not restricted under the law which governs the place of the act, he/she shall be regarded as having full legal capacity.

Therefore, if a business entity in Japan enters into a transaction in the territory of Japan with a consumer in a foreign country, where all the parties are located in the same jurisdiction, then the legal capacity of the parties shall be determined by the laws of Japan. This is because Japan is the place in which the transaction was entered into. By contrast, if a business entity in Japan enters into a transaction with a consumer in a foreign country via the server placed in Japan, where all the parties are not located in the same jurisdiction, then the legal capacity of the consumer shall be, pursuant to the basic principle, determined by the law which governs the his/her home country.

IV-3 Product Liability, Adjudicative Jurisdiction and Applicable Law

【Issue】

A foreign consumer, who bought a product from the business entity in Japan, claim for damages from another business entity in Japan which is a manufacturer of that product, for the reason of personal injury and damages to property. Is this case governed by the law of Japan or of the country of that consumer?

I. Approach

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

If the foreign consumer sues the Japanese business entity at Japanese court, Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court can be approved.

2. Applicable Law

In case of legal proceedings in Japanese Court, decision of the governing law of Product Liability is stipulated in Article 18 of the Act on the Application of Laws (“Tsusoku Hou” in Japanese). If the defects of the sold product cause damages, formation and effectiveness of the right to claim to the producer shall be based on the law of the jurisdiction where the victim receives the delivery of the product in question. However, if such delivery of the product in that jurisdiction is not normally expected, the law of the jurisdiction of the main office of the producer (if the producer does not have an office, the law of the jurisdiction of his /her permanent residence) shall govern.

II. Explanation

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

As there is no special provision concerning the jurisdiction over actions on product liability under the revised Code of Civil Procedure, in principle, Japanese Court is approved to have the jurisdiction where the domicile of the defendant is located in Japan (Article 3-2 of the Code)¹.

If the foreign consumer sues the Japanese business entity at Japanese court,

¹ Actions on product liability on the basis of the Product Liability Act are considered to include “actions based on tort.” However, the revised Code of Civil Procedure provides that Japanese Court has jurisdiction over actions based on tort where the relevant tortious acts took place in Japan (Item 8, Article 3-3). The place of a tortious act is considered to include not only the location where the tortious act took place but also the location where the resultant loss and/or damage occurred. In relation to the issue concerned here, too, pursuant to the provision of the same Item, Japanese Court has jurisdiction where the place of the relevant tortious act is found to be in Japan.

Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court can be approved, as the jurisdiction of the Japanese court competent in the address of the defendant is approved and, in light of the consumer's file to Japanese Court, it is difficult to recognize any special circumstances to deny the competence of the Japanese Court.

On the other hand, in reality, in many cases, foreign consumers may sue the Japanese business entity at the court of their country. In such cases, appropriateness of Adjudicative Jurisdiction of that court should be determined by that court on the basis of the law of its jurisdiction.

2. Applicable Law

i) Law Applicable to Tort

For proceedings in Japanese Court, Article 17 The Act on the Application of Laws explicitly provides that, in general, they shall be “on the basis of the law of the jurisdictions where the tort results in damages.” However, if it is not normally expected that the tort results in damages in such jurisdiction, the law of the jurisdiction where the tort is conducted shall govern.

As for tort, it should be noted that Article 18 of The Act on the Application of Laws provides for special provisions for Product Liability (See ii)), Article of 19 of the same law provides for special provisions for defamation and damages to creditworthiness (See these Guidelines IV-4 “Defamation on the Internet, Adjudicative Jurisdiction and Applicable Law”). As for torts to which such provisions apply, the provisions of Articles 18 and 19 shall prevail².

ii) Law Applicable to Product Liability

As special provisions for tort, Article 18 of The Act on the Application of Laws provides as follows. In spite of the provisions in Article 17, formation and effectiveness of the right to claim resulted from the tort damaging another person's life, body or property by the defects of the delivered product (things produced or manufactured. The word has the same meaning in the article)³ to the producer (a person producing, manufacturing, importing, exporting, distributing or selling the product for business. The word has the same meaning in the article) or the person represented as the producer on the

² ”Text Commentary: The Act on the Application of Laws” authored and edited by Kunio Koide, (2009, Shoji Homu) p. 195.

³ In Article 18 of The Act on the Application of Laws, “product” means not only the “product” mentioned in the Japanese Product Liability Act (movable property that is manufactured or processed) (Paragraph 1, Article 2 of the Product Liability Act), but also unprocessed agricultural, aquatic product and immovable property (buildings, etc.). For example, as processed food comes under the “product” mentioned in Article 18 of The Act on the Application of Laws, if there is an alien substance in that food, it is considered lack of the normal nature of food and defective.

product (hereinafter in the article, collectively referred to as “producer”) shall be based on the law of the jurisdiction where the victim receives the delivery of the product in question. However, if such delivery of the product in that jurisdiction is not normally expected, the law of the jurisdiction of the main office of the producer (if the producer does not have a n office, the law of the jurisdiction of his /her permanent residence) shall govern.

The “jurisdiction where the victim receives the delivery” mentioned in the same article means the place the legal possession of the product is obtained. As in this case, if the product is purchased by way of correspondence sales over the internet, it is normally understood the “jurisdiction where the victim receives the delivery” is the place where the consumer’s permanent residence is located, designated to be shipped to. Therefore, in principle, it is considered that the foreign law of the jurisdiction of the consumer’s permanent residence will govern. However, “if such delivery of the product in that jurisdiction is not normally expected,” the law of the jurisdiction of the main office of the producer (if the producer does not have a n office, the law of the jurisdiction of his /her permanent residence), that is, Japanese law shall govern. In this expression, “if such delivery of the product in that jurisdiction is not normally expected” is supposed to be such cases as the product is resold to other places than the product is allowed by the producer to be distributed, even with representation in a plural of languages, “This product is only permitted to use within the country XX.”

iii) Exceptions

As for any torts including Product Liability, The Act on the Application of Laws provides for exceptions applicable to cases where there is any other jurisdiction evidently more closely related than the jurisdiction where the tort results in the damage (Article 20 of Act on General Rules for Application of Law). Therefore, even in case of Product Liability, it is not impossible that a different law is applicable if there is any other jurisdiction evidently more closely related, considering circumstances.

iv) Change of Governing Law by Parties

After the tort, as it is stipulated that the parties to the tort may change the law governing the formation and effectiveness of the right to claim resulted from the tort (Article 21 of The Act on the Application of Laws), the law of

any other jurisdiction may govern the case if the parties agree⁴.

v) Cumulative Application of Japanese Law

Concerning the law governing the tort, Article 22 of The Act on the Application of Laws stipulates that the Japanese law shall apply cumulatively on both aspects of the requirements and effects. It means that, in case the act does not constitute a tort under the Japanese law, it shall be impossible to claim damages or any other relief even if the act would be a tort under the foreign law. Also, even if the act constitutes a tort under Japanese and foreign laws, it shall only be possible to claim damages or any other relief approved by Japanese law.

In cases the punitive damages would be approved if the foreign law applied, it may be difficult for such punitive damages or the like to be approved at Japanese Court on the ground of the provisions of Article 22 of The Act on the Application of Laws⁵.

⁴ However, if that change damages the right of a third party, that change cannot be asserted to the third party (Proviso of Article 21 of The Act on the Application of Laws).

⁵ With relation to Article 22 of The Act on the Application of Laws, there was a statement at Diet, saying “As for damages, for the purpose of this law, though there are different understanding of “approval,” application of these provisions is not eliminated in the manners and calculation of damages.” (Minute of the Judicial Affairs Committee of the House of Representatives No. 31, dated June 14, 2006).

Also, as for effectiveness of the judgment of the foreign court, in the case that execution of the punitive damages ordered by California State was requested in Japan, Supreme Court did not approve the execution of the order as the part of punitive damages was “against public order of Japan.” (Judgment of Supreme Court Second Petty Bench dated July 11, 1997, 51-6 *Minshû* p. 2573. See Item 3, Article 118 of Civil Proceedings Act.)

IV-4 Defamation on the Internet, Adjudicative Jurisdiction and Applicable Law

[Issue]

Where defamatory messages are posted on electronic message boards, which is operated by the resident of Japan, resulting in damages being incurred in various countries, and a resident of a foreign country demands injunction or damages, which jurisdiction shall apply and how will the dispute resolved?

I. Approach

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

If a foreign resident sues a Japanese message boards operator at Japanese Court, it may be very possible that the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved.

2. Applicable Law

Article 19 of the Act on General Rules of the Application of Laws (“*hou no tekiyou ni kansuru junsokuhou*” in Japanese, hereinafter, the “Act on the Application of Laws”) applies to the posting of defamatory messages on electronic message boards that are accessible from anywhere in the world. It provides that damages can be incurred across a number of countries in which the posted defamatory messages have been read. These damages may be obtained regardless of whether the victim of the defamation has sought an injunction or compensatory damages. The defamation shall be determined by the law which governs the place of the victim’s permanent residence (that is, where the victim is a legal entity (*hojin*) or other corporate association (*shadan*) or financial foundation (*zaidan*), the law which governs its principal business location).

However, it should be noted that, according to Article 22 of the Act on the Application of Laws; where foreign law governs a claim for injunction or compensation of damages, if the act of posting governed by a foreign law does not constitute a tort under the Japanese law, the victim is not entitled to claim for damages or any other remedies in Japan. Further, even where the act of posting constitutes a tort under both of the applicable foreign law and Japanese law, the victim is only entitled to claim for damages or any other remedies within the extent approved under the Japanese law.

II. Explanations

1. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

The spread of the internet has made available a new mode of business using electronic message boards accessible from anywhere in the world. As a result of this world wide accessibility, a defamatory message that is posted on an electronic message board may be read by a broad range of people in many countries throughout the world. Consequently, the damages caused as a result of a defamatory message being posted may extend across many countries.

Therefore, the questions in issue are; Is the Adjudicative Jurisdiction approved by the court of the country? Which country's law shall be applicable as the governing law?

As for the Adjudicative Jurisdiction, under the revised Code of Civil Procedure, if a foreign resident sues a Japanese message boards operator at Japanese Court, the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved as the defendant's location¹.

In this issue, we assume the case where a foreign resident takes an action at Japanese Court, but in reality there will be many cases where a foreign resident takes an action at the court of their country. In such cases, the court of that country will determine under the law of that country whether the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of the court is approved or not.

2. Applicable Law

As for the complicated assessment of cross-jurisdictional damages, Article 19 of the Act on the Application of Laws provides for "Special Rules for Defamation." Specifically in the case that defamatory messages are posted on the electronic message boards accessible from anywhere in the world and result in damages that extend across many countries. The ability of the victim to claim for injunction or compensation of damages as a result of the defamatory postings shall be exceptionally governed by the law which governs the victim's permanent residence (i.e., where the victim is a legal entity (*hojin*) or other corporate association (*shadan*) or financial foundation (*zaidan*), the law which governs its principal business location).

By the way, with respect to the law applicable to liability for tort, pursuant to

¹ The revised Code of Civil Procedure provides that Japanese Court has jurisdiction over actions based on tort where the relevant tortious acts took place in Japan (Item 8, Article 3-3). The place of a tortious act is considered to include not only the location where the tortious act took place but also the location where the resultant loss and/or damage occurred. In relation to the issue concerned here, too, pursuant to the same Item, the international jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved where the place of the relevant tortious act is found to be in Japan.

Article 20 of the Act on Application of Laws provides for exceptions and Article 20 provides for changes by the parties (See these Guidelines IV-3 “Product Liability, Adjudicative Jurisdiction and Applicable Law”). Also Article 22 of the same law provides that the Japanese law shall be cumulatively applicable to both of the requirements for and the effects of an act of tort. Therefore, in order for the victim to seek remedies for defamation on the electronic message board, the requirements and effects provided for under both of the Japanese law and the law which governs the place of the victim’s permanent residence shall be applicable.

IV-5 Cross-Border Exercise of Trademark Right

[Issue]

Concerning the representation on the website accessible from Japan by way of the server in the foreign country, is it possible to assert infringement of the trademark right based on the trademark registered in Japan?

(Example)

If a mark the same as or similar to a Japanese registered trademark is represented in the following website as an advertisement of the same type of the product as its specified product, can the trademark holder sue such representation of the trademark at Japanese Court to claim the infringement of the trademark right? In any case, the operator of the website is a foreign corporation that is unrelated to trademark owner in Japan and has no office in Japan.

1. In the Japanese page of the website selling the illegally copied software in country A, there is an advertisement with the same mark as the registered mark of the original software.
2. In the website selling high-end bags in country B in which shipping cost to Japan is shown, there is an advertisement of the genuine product from the original maker with the same mark as the registered mark of the product.
3. Though a Japanese bicycle manufacturer has registered a trademark for the name of the bicycle, in the website selling bicycles in country C with currency exchange rate calculation into JPY, there is an advertisement of the bicycle made by a manufacturer of country D and not sold in Japan with representation of the same name as that of the Japanese product which is registered as a trademark.
4. Though a Japanese delivery pizza chain has registered a trademark for the name of the pizza product in Japan, in the website of the delivery pizza chain receiving the delivery order in city F in country E, there is an advertisement of the specific pizza with representation of the same name as that of the Japanese product which is registered as a trademark.
5. Though a Japanese automobile manufacturer has registered a trademark for the name of the car in Japan, in the website of the automobile manufacturer in country G in Europe, there is an advertisement of the small popularly-priced cars with representation of the same name as that of the Japanese car which is registered as a trademark. Such small popularly-priced cars are imported from country G to Japan, but they are selling under a different

name.

I. Approach

Even if the representation is on the website shown on demand by the users in Japan by way of the foreign server, claims on the basis of the infringement of the Japanese trademarks is possibly approved by Japanese Court if it is a representation as a use of trademark to the prospects in Japan.

The following are consequences of the examples mentioned above.

1. Case 1

As there is a Japanese page that seemingly is for prospects in Japan, this comes under the use of the trademark for prospects in Japan. In addition, as the product with which the trademark is represented is illegal software, this is not the case lacking in illegal nature as infringement of the trademark right.

Therefore, it may be very possible that claims on the basis of the infringement of the trademark right will be approved by Japanese Court.

2. Case 2

Because of the difference between the domestic and foreign prices of the same product, it is commonly seen that the Japanese consumers buy high-end bags from foreign website (especially of the country the maker is located). In addition, as shipping cost to Japan is shown, this is the use of the trademark for prospects in Japan.

However, Judgment of Supreme Court of Fred Perry Case (Judgment of Supreme Court First Petty Bench dated February 27, 2003, 57-2 *Minshû* p. 125, 1817 *Hanji* p. 33) determines that in the parallel import of the product, if certain requirements are met, there is no substantial illegal nature as infringement of the trademark right as it does not do harm to the trademark function of representing the origin or of guaranteeing the quality, not damaging the business creditworthiness or the customers' benefits¹.

¹ Judgment of Supreme Court of Fred Perry Case (Judgment of Supreme Court First Petty Bench dated February 27, 2003, 57-2 *Minshû* p. 125, 1817 *Hanji* p. 33) says "(1) The trademark is given by the foreign trademark holder or the person licensed by that trademark holder in a lawful manner, (2) As that foreign trademark holder and the trademark holder in Japan have a relationship in which they are the same person or can be regarded as the same person legally or economically, that trademark represents the same origin as the registered trademark in Japan, (3) The trademark holder in Japan has a position it can directly or indirectly control the quality of that product. Therefore, if that product and the product given the trademark by the trademark holder in Japan are evaluated not different in quality that the trademark guarantees, it is a parallel import of the genuine product having no substantial illegal nature as infringement of trademark right." It determines in principle a parallel import of the genuine product has

For this reason, if a parallel import of the genuine product has no substantial illegal nature as infringement of trademark right, the representation of the trademark of the product in advertising or selling does not do harm to the trademark function of representing the origin or of guaranteeing the quality, and therefore has no substantial illegal nature as infringement of trademark right.

Consequently, if the import of the high-end bag has no substantial illegal nature as infringement of trademark right, it is impossible for claims to the website advertisement on the basis of the infringement of the trademark right to be approved by Japanese Court.

3. Case 3

The bicycles, which are standardized and have no testing registration system, can be purchased from all over the world. Because of the large differences between the domestic and foreign prices, or because of rare products not imported to Japan by authorized distributors, it is commonly seen that the Japanese consumers buy bicycle parts from foreign websites selling bicycles. In addition, as the site has function of currency exchange calculation into JPY, it is considered to expect to sell to Japanese consumers.

Therefore, this is the use of the trademark for prospects in Japan. It may be very possible that claims on the basis of the infringement of the trademark right will be approved by Japanese Court.

4. Case 4

As the delivery area is limited to the specific city and, as a nature of the delivery pizza product, it is unthinkable that they will be exported to Japan. This is not the use of the trademark for prospects in Japan.

Therefore, it is impossible for claims on the basis of the infringement of the trademark right to be approved by Japanese Court. And very possibly, the case will be rejected as there is no approved adjudicative jurisdiction.

5. Case 5

For reason of registration and maintenance, automobiles are most unlikely to be sold over the internet. In addition, territory of the dealers is generally limited to their own location. Therefore, it is considered the territory of the dealer in Europe is limited to Europe at most. If there is possibility of the parallel import

no substantial illegal nature as infringement of trademark right.

from the differences between the domestic and foreign prices, it is not realistic because of the importation cost such as shipping, especially in case of the popularly priced car. For this reason, this is not the use of the trademark for prospects in Japan.

Therefore, it is impossible for claims on the basis of the infringement of the trademark right to be approved by Japanese Court. And very possibly, the case will be rejected as there is no approved adjudicative jurisdiction.

II. Explanation

1. Problem Identification

Generally, intellectual property rights such as trademark right have effect only in the jurisdiction where such right is formed (Principle of Territoriality). On the other hand, on the internet it is possible to sell products or provide services to Japanese consumers with another person's trademark.

Then, the questions are "Is Japanese law applicable if the server is not located in Japan?" (Governing Law) and "Is there infringement of Japanese trademark right?" (Interpretation of the Trademark Act).

Also, for the practical matter of legal proceedings, for example, when the infringer is a foreign corporation, it should be questioned if it is possible or not to sue it at Japanese Court (Adjudicative Jurisdiction).

2. Adjudicative Jurisdiction

Under the revised Code of Civil Procedure, even if the server is not located in Japan, in case where the infringer is a natural person having domicile in Japan or a Japanese corporation, the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved (Paragraph 1 and 3, Article 3-2 of the same Act).

Also, in case where the infringer is a foreign corporation etc., if they have a principal office or place of business in Japan, the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved (Paragraph 3 of the same Article).

Even if the case does not fall under any of the above, as the claim of the infringement of the trademark right is included in the claims on the tort² and as the location of tort includes the location of damages, the Adjudicative Jurisdiction of Japanese Court is approved if the act of using the trademark by the website is regarded to be use in Japan³ (Item 8, Article 3-3 of the same Act).

² Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court dated September 15, 2010 (ne) No. 10001 to 10003 (not in casebook, can be inspected in the court website) discusses the case of injunction and damages to the foreign corporation based on Japanese patent and says that both injunction and damages are included in "actions on the tort" mentioned in Item 9, Article 5 of the Civil Proceedings Act.

³ The abovementioned Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court discussed that the location of tort

3. Governing Law

Claims on infringe of Japanese trademark right may include claims of damages and injunction. Here we discuss them as two different types.

As for the claim of damages on infringe of the trademark right which is considered to be based on the tort, Article 17 of The Act on the Application of Laws stipulates that, in principle, the governing law for the claim on the tort is the law of “the jurisdiction where the injury results in damage.” Consequently, the jurisdiction (location) of result basically means the jurisdiction where the right directly infringed by the injury was located at the time of occurrence of the infringement, and accordingly, in cases the intangible property right such as the trademark right is infringed, it is necessary to determine the location of result by interpretation in light of the type and the nature of the legal interests⁴⁵.

For the aforementioned cases, if the use of the trademark in the Website is considered as use in Japan, the Japanese law should govern as it results in the infringement in Japan.

Secondly, for injunction based on the infringement of the trademark right, there are no immediate provisions on the laws such as The Act on the Application of Laws. However, if the patent infringement precedents⁶ such as Judgment of the Card Reader Case (Judgment of Supreme Court First Petty Bench dated September 26, 2002, 56-7 *Minshû* p. 1551) applies to the infringement of the trademark right, the Japanese law will govern the case as

includes both the locations of injury and resulted damages and that, as for the act of offering transfer, considering whether the act of transmission of offer or acceptance as a result was conducted in Japan or not, as a matter of objective fact,” it is possible to understand that the foreign corporation’s opening of the website is in itself an act of offering transfer.

⁴ ”Text Commentary: The Act on the Application of Laws” authored and edited by Kunio Koide, (2009, Shoji Homu) p. 193.

⁵ Though this is a case of injunction, destruction and damages under the US patent right and is not an immediate precedent of the infringement of the Japanese trademark right, Judgment of Supreme Court First Petty Bench dated September 26, 2002, 56-7 *Minshû* p. 1551 (Card Reader Case) discussed that, as the governing law for claims of damages should be as specified in Paragraph 1, Article 11 of The Law Application Principles Act (the equivalent of Article 17 of The Act on the Application of Laws), the United States law shall apply since the United States of America is the “location the cause occurred” as mentioned in Article 11 of The Law Application Principles Act because it is the location where the infringement was conducted directly and resulted in the damage of the right (However, Japanese law applies cumulatively).

⁶ Judgment of the Card Reader Case (Note 7 above) determined that the governing law for injunction or damages is the law of jurisdiction of that registered patent.

Also, Judgment of Intellectual Property High Court dated December 27, 2005 (ra) No. 10006 (not in casebook, can be inspected in the court website) discusses that, as this is the case of injunction for ensure fair competition, Article 11 of The Law Application Principles Act (Article 17 of The Act on the Application of Laws) does not apply, but on the basis of the reason, the law of the jurisdiction most closely related will govern.

Japan is the country that trademark is registered and is the jurisdiction most closely related with the trademark right.

4. Trademark Infringement

As generally approved, on the Principle of Territoriality, the effect of the intellectual property rights such as trademark right is approved only in the territory of the country where such right is formed⁷

Therefore, in order that the infringement of the Japanese trademark right is constituted, it is necessary that there should be the use of that trademark in Japan.

Then, when there is a representation of information likely to infringe the Japanese trademark right on the website displayed by way of the access to the foreign server from Japan, what are the factors for which we can determine there is the use of the trademark in Japan? For this point, as the Trademark Act intends to maintain the business creditworthiness of the trademark users operating for the consumers in Japan, it should be necessary that it is the case where the transfer of products or provision of services offered in the website is for consumers in Japan⁸.

For example, if there is a representation of a mark the same as or similar to the trademark registered in Japan in the website of the pizza delivery service (in English) for a foreign city, offering no such service in Japan, it is not considered to be the use of that trademark.

On the other hand, as most of the daily users of the Japanese language is located in Japan, it can be considered that the websites in Japanese are evidently for the consumers in Japan unless there is a special circumstance such as it is obviously for Japanese in overseas. Therefore, it is possible to say that in such websites there is the use of the trademark in question⁹. In the same way,

⁷ For the patent right, see Judgment of Supreme Court third Petty Bench dated July 1, 1997, 51-6 *Minshû* p. 2299 (BBS Parallel Import Case).

⁸ “Joint Recommendation Concerning Provisions on the Protection of Marks, and Other Industrial Property Rights in Signs, on the Internet” adopted by the Assembly of Paris Union for the Protection of Industrial Property and the General Assembly of the WIPO in 2001 (<http://www.jpo.go.jp/torikumi/kokusai/kokusai2/1401-037.htm>) says that the use of the signs on the internet shall constitutes the use in the member country only if it has commercial effect in that country (Article 2).

This recommendation is adopted for the purpose of preparing the international guidelines to resolve the issues of trademark conflict in various country resulted from Territoriality of trademarks and global nature of the internet. This recommendation has no legal force as a treaty, but can be considered as guidelines by member countries.

⁹ “Trademark Law (Second Edition)” by Yoshiyuki Tamura (Kobundo, 2000), p. 437. The book concludes that, if in Japanese, unless there is a special circumstance, the Japanese trademark law will apply, saying, “If most of the assumed receivers are obviously located in a specific country, it should be appropriate

unless there is a special circumstance, the websites having currency exchange calculation into JPY are considered operating for consumers in Japan and so using that trademark.

Also, it may be possible to say that there is the use of the trademark (infringement of the trademark) in the websites in English that has no specific areas for offering products or services as they are also for Japanese consumers. In such cases, however, there is a discussion that an act infringing the trademark in a number of countries may result in the dominance of the standard of the country most strictly protecting the right over the expressions on the internet¹⁰.

that the law of that country applies.”

¹⁰ Note 11 above. It should be noted that the WIPO Joint Recommendation mentioned in note 10 requests to avoid injunctions of the use of the marks as much as possible (Article 15).

IV-6 Approval and Execution of Foreign Judgments and Foreign Arbitral Awards

[Issue]

When an action was brought to a foreign court against an online business entity or an Internet trade user in Japan and it lost the case, may the judgment be compulsorily executed in Japan? Further, if compulsory execution is available for a foreign judgment, what procedures are required to be undergone for the execution? What about an arbitral award made in an arbitration held in a foreign country?

I. Approach

1. Approval and execution of foreign judgments

A final and binding judgment made by a foreign court may be effective only if the following requires are met.

- (1) The jurisdiction of the foreign court which made the judgment is recognized under laws or regulations, or conventions or treaties.
- (2) The defeated defendant received a service of a summons or an order necessary for the commencement of the suit, or appeared without receiving such service.
- (3) The contents of the judgment and the court proceedings are not contrary to public policies in Japan.
- (4) The country to which the judging foreign court belongs approves judgments made by Japanese Court.

In the case where a judgment made by a foreign court is to be executed in Japan, the winning party is required to bring “an action seeking an execution order” to Japanese Court. Japanese Court shall give an execution order for “compulsory execution of the foreign judgment,” where the foreign judgment is a final and binding judgment and the above four requirements are fulfilled. In so doing, Japanese Court does not deliberate the contents of the foreign judgment.

When the execution order is determined, a compulsory execution may be carried out for the foreign judgment serving as the title obligation, for which the execution order has been made (Item 6, Article 22 of the Civil Execution Act).

2. Approval and execution of foreign arbitral awards

Japan may consider, approve and enforce arbitral awards made at foreign places of arbitration where Japan is approved to do so under the Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards “hereinafter referred to as the “New York Convention”) or other conventions or treaties (Geneva Protocol, Geneva Conventions, the Convention on the Settlement of Investment Disputes [ICSID], etc.), or under the Arbitration Act of Japan.

The requirements for approval and enforcement under the New York Convention are basically the same as those of the Arbitration Act of Japan, which are (1) Validity of Arbitration Agreement, (2) Securing Opportunities to Defend in the Processes, (3) Determination within the Scope of the Arbitration Agreement, (4) Composition of the Arbitral Organization and the Appropriateness of Arbitration Procedures, (5) Determination of Arbitral Awards, (6) Arbitration Suitability of Disputed Matters and (7) No violation of any Public Order and Morality.

In the case where a foreign arbitral award is to be executed in Japan, the party who have obtained an award in his/her own favor is required to bring an “action seeking an execution order” to Japanese Court. The court assesses the requirements stipulated in relevant treaties or laws and makes an “execution order allowing compulsory execution on the basis of the arbitral award,” if the court finds that all the requirements have been fulfilled. In so doing, Japanese Court does not deliberate the contents of the foreign arbitral award.

When the execution order is determined, compulsory execution may be carried out for the foreign arbitral award serving as the title obligation, for which the execution order has been made (Item 6-2, Article 22 of the Civil Execution Act).

II. Explanation

1. Problem Identification

When a foreign user brought an action as the plaintiff against an Internet business entity in Japan as the defendant to a foreign court, and the defendant Internet business entity refuses to make payment voluntarily despite the fact this business entity lost the case, the foreign user, the plaintiff, is naturally inclined to carry out compulsory execution on the properties of the defendant Internet business entity. If the defendant has assets of some kind, such as a real property and bank deposits, in the country to which the judging court belongs, it is possible that compulsory execution is carried out on such assets. However, if the defendant has no asset in that country, the plaintiff is likely to be inclined to carry out compulsory execution on the assets that the defendant Internet

business entity has in Japan. Similar problems arise where an Internet business entity abroad brings an action to a foreign court against its user in Japan and wins the case.

However, the effectiveness of judgments delivered by foreign courts is not enforceable automatically in Japan, or compulsory execution is not automatically available in Japan on the basis of such judgments. Here, there are certain requirements to be fulfilled. This is what is called the problem of the approval and execution of foreign judgments.

Further, similar disputes may possibly be deliberated in arbitration procedures abroad, on the basis of which arbitral awards are made. In this situation, too, there are certain requirements to be fulfilled before compulsory execution is allowed for such arbitral awards in Japan.

2. Approval of foreign judgments

Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure stipulates the following:

(Effect of Final and Binding Judgment Rendered by Foreign Court)

Article 118 A final and binding judgment rendered by a foreign court shall be effective only where it meets all of the following requirements:

- (i) The jurisdiction of the foreign court is recognized under laws or regulations or conventions or treaties.
- (ii) The defeated defendant has received a service (excluding a service by publication or any other service similar thereto) of a summons or order necessary for the commencement of the suit, or has appeared without receiving such service.
- (iii) The content of the judgment and the court proceedings are not contrary to public policy in Japan.
- (iv) A mutual guarantee exists.

Therefore, the enforceability of a final and binding judgment of a foreign court is approved in Japan when these requirements are fulfilled. The Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 3rd Petty Bench, April 28, 1998; *Minshû*, Vol. 52, No. 3, p. 853 is a precedent indicating the basic ways of thinking of the Supreme Court of Japan with regard to these requirements.

“A final and binding judgment” refers to the state that all the normal appeals available for the relevant judgment have been exhausted in the judging country. Accordingly, for instance, when the court of second instance pertaining to a

judgment of the court of first instance in a country is still pending, it is not a “final and binding judgment.”

“The jurisdiction of the foreign court is recognized under laws or regulations or conventions or treaties” under Item 1, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure means that the foreign court has jurisdiction over the given case (the so-called requirement of indirect jurisdiction). In general, the fulfillment of this requirement is understood to be judged on the basis of whether Japan recognizes the international jurisdiction of the foreign court over the case concerned when applying the provisions concerning international jurisdiction of Japan as the approving country. In determining whether the requirement of indirect jurisdiction is satisfied or not, the rules of international jurisdiction stipulated in the Code of Civil Procedure (direct jurisdiction) in light of the “Act to Partially Amend the Code of Civil Procedure and the Civil Preservation Act” (Act No. 36 of 2011, enforced since April 1, 2012) are considered to be consulted¹.

The requirement of service in Item 2, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure is to guarantee the defeated defendant opportunities to take part in the proceedings of the defeated suit to protect his/her own interests from the commencement of such proceedings. From this viewpoint, service by publication (serving a constructive notice of the commencement of a suit by displaying the complaint, a writ of summons, etc., at a public place) is excluded as the defendant outside Japan is highly unlikely to know the commencement of the suit.

In the case of a bilateral judicial arrangement or a bilateral convention, the service of documents for a suit from a foreign country is carried out on the basis of the “Convention on Civil Procedure” (Civil Procedure Convention) or the “Convention on the Service Abroad of Judicial and Extrajudicial Documents in Civil or Commercial Matters” (Service Convention), both of which are multilateral conventions. Alternatively, such service is carried out upon receipt of a request made through foreign diplomacy. A service based on these methods satisfies the requirement of Item 2, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure.

If a service is carried out by employing any other method, there will be a problem as to whether the effectiveness of the subsequent foreign judgment is approved in Japan or not. In particular, in common law countries (such as the

¹ Pertaining to the scope of indirect jurisdiction, the aforementioned Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan in 1998 indicated that such scope shall be determined logically and basically in conformity with the provisions concerning territorial jurisdiction in the Code of Civil Procedure of Japan, and in light of specific circumstances of each case.

United Kingdom, the United States of America and Hong Kong), the plaintiff directly serves the complaint to the defendant by mail, not through the court. Accordingly, a complaint is often sent directly to the defendant in Japan from such a country by international mail. There was a case in which the effectiveness of a foreign judgment was denied as this method of serving a complaint did not fall within the “service” under Item 2, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure². However, as Japan has not declared its refusal of Article 10 (a) of the Civil Procedure Convention, some academic theories consider that such service should be accepted. From this, a careful response is required when a complaint is delivered directly by international mail.

The latter part of Item 3, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure requires that court proceedings are not contrary to public policies in Japan. This requirement is to oversee that not only service but also other minimum, appropriate procedures are assured.

The first part of Item 3, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure requires that the contents of judgments are not contrary to public policies in Japan. However, Japanese Court is not entitled to re-examine whether foreign judgments are right or wrong (Paragraph 2, Article 24 of the Civil Execution Act), and therefore examinations under this provision is very limited. An actual case example is the Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, 2nd Petty Bench, July 11, 1997; *Minshû*, Vol. 51, No. 6, p. 2573; despite a judgment of a state court in California, the United States of America, ordering payment of punitive damages in addition to compensatory damages on the ground of deception in a lease contract, the Court in Japan granted compulsory execution only for the compensatory damages, not the punitive damages on the ground of contravention of the public order and morality.

Item 4, Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure requires “mutual guarantee”. Mutual guarantee means that the approval and execution of judgments made by Japanese Court are accepted in the country whose courts deliver judgments that Japanese Court may approve in turn. In past cases in a number of countries, the presence or absence of mutual guarantee was judged³. As it is possible that the

² Aforementioned Judgment of the Supreme Court of Japan, April 28, 1998

³ Judgments of the following countries have been approved so far: the States of New York, California, Nevada and Hawaii and the District of Columbia in the United States of America, the United Kingdom, the Federal Republic of Germany, Zurich of the Swiss Confederation, Hong Kong, Queensland of the

handling of judgments of Japanese Court may be changed, it is necessary to pay attention to updates in this regard.

3. Execution of foreign judgments

According to Article 22 of the Civil Execution Act, compulsory execution requires a specific “title of obligation.” Examples of a title of obligation include a final and binding judgment by Japanese Court (Item 1 of the same Article), a judgment by Japanese Court with a declaration of provisional execution despite not being a final and binding judgment (Item 2 of the same Article), and a notarial deed containing a statement to the effect that the obligor will immediately accept execution (execution deed, Item 5 of the same Article). “A judgment of a foreign court for which an execution order has become final and binding” is also a title of obligation (Item 6 of the same Article).

The procedure for obtaining an execution order for a judgment of a foreign court is set forth in Article 24 of the Civil Execution Act.

(Execution order for a Judgment of a Foreign Court)

Article 24

- (1) An action seeking an execution order for a judgment of a foreign court shall be under the jurisdiction of the district court having jurisdiction over the location of the general venue of the obligor, and when there is no such general venue, it shall be under the jurisdiction of the district court having jurisdiction over the location of the subject matter of the claim or the seizable property of the obligor.
- (2) An execution order shall be made without investigating whether or not the judicial decision is appropriate.
- (3) The action set forth in paragraph (1) shall be dismissed without prejudice when it is not proved that the judgment of a foreign court has become final and binding or when such judgment fails to satisfy the requirements listed in the items of Article 118 of the Code of Civil Procedure.
- (4) An execution order shall declare that compulsory execution based on the judgment by a foreign court shall be permitted.

Therefore, a person wishing to execute a foreign judgment in Japan is required to bring an “action for an execution order” to Japanese Court. Upon

Commonwealth of Australia, the Republic of Singapore and the Republic of Korea. On the other hand, mutual guarantee was denied in judgments of the following countries: the Kingdom of Belgium and the People's Republic of China.

receiving the action, the court examines the requirements for approval of the foreign judgment as explained in the preceding section. If each of the requirements is judged as fulfilled, the court will give an execution order which declares the permission of compulsory execution.

Upon being granted the final and binding execution order and a certificate of execution, this party may, for example, file a petition to the court for an execution against real property (auction) or for attachment of claims, or file a petition to a court execution officer for execution against movables, on the basis of the judgment of the foreign court, for which the execution order has been made, as the title of obligation.

4. Approval and execution of foreign arbitral awards

With regard to foreign arbitral awards, in some cases, individual bilateral conventions etc., provide the requirements of the approval and execution of arbitral awards which involve, as parties concerned, nationals or legal persons of the convention contracting country. For example, Paragraph 2, Article 4 of the Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation between Japan and the United States of America stipulates the following:

Awards duly rendered pursuant to any such contracts (contracts entered into between nationals and companies of either Party and nationals and companies of the other Party, that provide for the settlement by arbitration of controversies), which are final and enforceable under the laws of the place where rendered, shall be deemed conclusive in enforcement proceedings brought before the courts of competent jurisdiction of either Party, and shall be entitled to be declared enforceable by such courts, except where found contrary to public policy. When so declared, such awards shall be entitled to privileges and measures of enforcement appertaining to awards rendered locally.

Therefore, as long as the requirements under this provision are fulfilled, compulsory execution may be carried out in Japan on the basis of arbitral awards involving nationals or companies of the United States of America and nationals or companies of Japan as parties in interest (irrespective of the place of arbitration).

Further, compulsory execution is available in Japan for arbitral awards made in any of the contracting countries of the Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards (New York Convention) (currently over

130 countries) as long as certain requirements are satisfied⁴. The requirements are stipulated in Article V of the New York Convention as follows:

Article V of the New York Convention

1. Recognition and enforcement of the award may be refused, at the request of the party against whom it is invoked, only if that party furnishes to the competent authority where the recognition and enforcement is sought, proof that:
 - (a) The parties to the agreement referred to in article II were, under the law applicable to them, under some incapacity, or the said agreement is not valid under the law to which the parties have subjected it or, failing any indication thereon, under the law of the country where the award was made; or
 - (b) The party against whom the award is invoked was not given proper notice of the appointment of the arbitrator or of the arbitration proceedings or was otherwise unable to present his case; or
 - (c) The award deals with a difference not contemplated by or not falling within the terms of the submission to arbitration, or it contains decisions on matters beyond the scope of the submission to arbitration, provided that, if the decisions on matters submitted to arbitration can be separated from those not so submitted, that part of the award which contains decisions on matters submitted to arbitration may be recognized and enforced; or
 - (d) The composition of the arbitral authority or the arbitral procedure was not in accordance with the agreement of the parties, or, failing such agreement, was not in accordance with the law of the country where the arbitration took place; or
 - (e) The award has not yet become binding on the parties, or has been set aside or suspended by a competent authority of the country in which, or under the law of which, that award was made.
2. Recognition and enforcement of an arbitral award may also be refused if the competent authority in the country where recognition and enforcement is sought finds that:
 - (a) The subject matter of the difference is not capable of settlement by arbitration under the law of that country; or

⁴ As Japan has made a reservation with the application of reciprocity under the New York Convention (Paragraph 3, Article 1), the Convention applies only to arbitrations held in the contracting countries of the Convention.

- (b) The recognition or enforcement of the award would be contrary to the public policy of that country.

Further, compulsory execution may be carried out in Japan on the basis of arbitral awards made in those countries or territories with which Japan has not entered into an individual treaty stipulating the approval and execution of arbitral awards, and which are not a contracting state of the New York Convention (for example Taiwan)⁵, as long as the requirements set forth in the Arbitration Act of Japan are satisfied. The requirements for recognition and enforcement are stipulated in Article 45 of the Arbitration Act as follows:

(Recognition of Arbitral Award)

Article 45

- (1) An arbitral award (irrespective of whether or not the place of arbitration is in Japan; hereinafter the same shall apply in this Chapter) shall have the same effect as a final and binding judgment; provided, however, that a civil execution based on such arbitral award requires an execution order under the provisions of the following Article.
- (2) The provision of the preceding paragraph shall not apply in cases where any of the following grounds exist (for the grounds set forth in items (i) through (vii), limited to the case where any of the parties has proved the existence of such grounds):
 - (i) the arbitration award is not valid due to the limited capacity of a party;
 - (ii) the arbitration award is not valid on grounds other than the limited capacity of a party pursuant to the laws and regulations designated by the agreement of the parties as those which should be applied to the arbitration agreement (if such designation has not been made, the laws and regulations of the country to which the place of arbitration belongs);
 - (iii) the party did not receive the notice required under the laws and regulations of the country to which the place of arbitration belongs (if the parties have reached an agreement on the matters concerning the provisions unrelated to public order in such laws and regulations, such agreement) in the procedure of appointing arbitrators or in the arbitration procedure;

⁵ Keep in mind that which of individual conventions or the New York Convention applies in priority (or whether or not both apply) depends on the contents of individual conventions.

- (iv) the party was unable to present a defense in the arbitration procedure;
 - (v) the arbitral award contains a decision on matters beyond the scope of the arbitration agreement or of the application presented in the arbitration procedure;
 - (vi) the composition of the arbitral tribunal or the arbitration procedure is in violation of the laws and regulations of the country to which the place of arbitration belongs (if the parties have reached an agreement on the matters concerning the provisions unrelated to public order in such laws and regulations, such agreement);
 - (vii) the arbitral award is not final and binding or the arbitral award has been set aside or its effect has been suspended by a judicial body of the country to which the place of arbitration belongs (in cases where the laws and regulations applied to the arbitration procedure are laws and regulations of a country other than the country to which the place of arbitration belongs, such other country) pursuant to the laws and regulations of that country;
 - (viii) the applications presented in the arbitration procedure are related to a dispute which cannot be the subject-matter of an arbitration agreement pursuant to the provisions of Japanese laws and regulations; or
 - (ix) the content of the arbitral award is against public policy in Japan.
- (Paragraph 3 is omitted)

The requirements set forth in the New York Convention are basically the same as those in the Arbitration Act of Japan despite some differences in expression, which are (1) Validity of Arbitration Agreement, (2) Securing Opportunities to Defend in the Processes, (3) Determination within the Scope of the Arbitration Agreement, (4) Composition of the Arbitral Organization and the Appropriateness of Arbitration Procedures, (5) Determination of Arbitral Awards, (6) Arbitration Suitability of Disputed Matters and (7) No Violation of Any Public Order and Morality. As above, examinations by Japanese Court mainly mean to be a procedural requirement. There is no examination on whether foreign arbitral awards are right or wrong, as is the case for the approval and execution of foreign judgments mentioned above.

The procedure for compulsory execution of foreign arbitral awards in Japan requires to obtain an “execution order” from Japanese Court, and make this

order final and binding (Item 6-2, Article 22 of the Civil Execution Act). The procedure for obtaining an execution order is set forth in Article 46 of the Arbitration Act. Accordingly, a person who is to effect compulsory execution on the basis of a foreign arbitral award may file a petition for an execution order to a court of law against the obligor, who is the other party subject to compulsory execution, as the respondent (Paragraph 1 of the same Article). The petitioner shall submit a copy of the written arbitral award, a document proving that the contents of such copy are the same as those of the written arbitral award, and a Japanese translation of the written arbitral award (Paragraph 2 of the same Article). The court examines whether the requirements designated by law are satisfied and, if the fulfillment of such requirements is observed, shall make an execution order permitting a civil execution based on the arbitral award (even in the case of compulsory execution of foreign arbitral awards not based on Article 45 of the Arbitration Act but based on an individual convention or the New York Convention, the procedure is to carry out compulsory execution after an execution order is obtained).