



Barriers for Developing and Launching Digital Identity Wallets

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Abstract: Across the European continent, governments and GovTech companies are rushing to launch digital identity wallets for citizens. These wallets should allow citizens to obtain a higher level of control over their personal data. While there are some regulations and policy directions, actors are struggling with the design, launch, and governance of these digital wallets. Those looking for help will find little guidance in academic literature. The objective of this paper is to provide insights in barriers for launching digital identity wallets. Drawing on the case study approach, we study the available regulations and policy directions, and collect insights from workshops with policy makers and aspiring wallet providers. The main findings indicate that barriers such as the lack of boundary resources (e.g. shared data standards) and a collaborative, public-private governance impede the launch of digital identity wallets. A key question is who (public or market actors) should be in the lead when it comes to the development and governance of boundary resources.

Additional Keywords and Phrases: Digital identity wallet, personal data management, public-private collaboration

1 INTRODUCTION

The need to be able to share data between organizations and individuals is growing, but at the same time, the responsible handling of data is problematic. In the wake of several global data scandals (e.g. Cambridge Analytica) that have exposed the misuse of personal data, public and private parties are rushing to provide solutions for personal data management. Examples include SOLID and MyData, as well the ongoing development of privacy preserving and privacy enhancing technologies[1],[2] High-level policy objectives include information self-determination, equal opportunities, transparency, data protection, privacy and security on the one hand, but also increasing efficiency and reducing the administrative burden play a role [3]. The first generation of technical solutions for personal data management can be traced back 20 years ago. For example, the e-wallet standard ECML was developed, to support consumers during the purchase process in completing a digital form by using an e-wallet [4]. As to be accepted from a new technology there was confusion about what an e-wallet is and what services it performs[5]. In the past two decades, many solutions (including trust frameworks) for personal data management have been developed, such as MijnOverheid.nl in the Dutch public sector (started 2005) and Qiy in the private sector (started 2007)¹.

The first regulatory initiative in the European Union (EU) to foster responsible handling of data is the adoption of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR)². While the GDPR does provide guidelines for collecting and processing personal data, thereby promoting the level of control by the individual, it does not provide the necessary technical tools for doing so. When it comes to tooling, another EU Regulation is setting the stage for parties to develop ‘wallets’. This is the Electronic Identification and trust services for electronic transactions in the internal market (eIDAS)³ regulation and its successor that is often called eIDAS2⁴ (under development).

The term wallet is still ambivalent and is used with multiple adjectives, including ‘identity’, ‘digital’ and ‘data’ wallets. Consequently, there is no universal definition and understanding of digital wallets. To set a foundation for the remainder of this paper, we follow the working definition provided by the EU Architecture Reference Framework (Toolbox)⁵ that states: *“An EUDI Wallet Solution is the entire product and service owned by an EUDI Wallet Provider, offered to all Users of that solution. An EUDI Wallet solution can be certified as being EUDI-compliant by a CAB”(p.9)*. *The objective of the EUDI-wallet is “to guarantee access to trusted digital identities for all Europeans allowing Users to be in control of their own online interactions and presence. It can be seen as a combination of several products and Trust Services that enables Users to securely request, obtain and store their information allowing them to access online services, present data about them and electronically sign or seal documents”(p.10)*. Based on this definition and this objective we conclude that there are many functionalities to be developed and launched within a EUDI-wallet.

This definition highlights a couple of core functionalities that must be provided by a digital wallet. Getting all these functionalities in a data wallet that can be used for public and private services is a new development. There are no off the shelf solutions available that satisfy all the legal requirements (section 4 provides an overview). It is unclear if and how a single

¹ ICTU, Innovalor, “Initiatieven en Stelsels Personal Data Management, versie 1.4”, nov. 2017

² Regulation (EU) 2016/679 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 April 2016 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data, and repealing Directive 95/46/EC (General Data Protection Regulation)

³ Regulation (EU) No 910/2014 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 July 2014 on electronic identification and trust services for electronic transactions in the internal market and repealing Directive 1999/93/EC (eIDAS)

⁴ Proposal for a REGULATION OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL amending Regulation (EU) No 910/2014 as regards establishing a framework for a European Digital Identity, COM(2021) 281 final, 3.6.2021 (amendment on eIDAS).

⁵ The Common Union Toolbox for a Coordinated Approach Towards a European Digital Identity Framework, version 1.0, jan. 2023

wallet provider could or should provide all these functionalities. Therefore, we expect that there are lots of barriers and a lack of guidance for design, development and launch of digital identity wallets. A Scopus Title, Keywords and Abstract search on “Digital Identity Wallet” performed in January 2023 reveals just ten results. Most of the papers focus on technological aspects of digital identity management e.g. [6]. We lack academic insights on socio-technical barriers when designing and launching digital identity wallets. This paper contributes to understanding the barriers for digital identity wallets. In particular, we want to study the empirical barriers policy makers and aspiring wallet providers face at this stage. This requires a better understanding of the goals and requirements underlying wallets. Accordingly, the research question we focus on is twofold: (1) what are the main objectives and requirements for a digital identity wallet and (2) what barriers do actors encounter while trying to realize the objectives and requirements in practice? The European Digital Identity Wallet initiative provides a rich case for studying objectives, requirements and barriers.

This paper proceeds as follows: in section two we describe the research approach followed. Section three we derive expected barriers from literature on public service innovation for the launch of digital identity wallets. Next, section four presents the European Digital Identity Wallet case study, setting the stage for analysing objectives and barriers. Section five reveals the results of two workshops with policy makers and (aspiring) wallet providers. We conclude with a section on the main conclusions, limitations and avenues for further research.

2 RESEARCH APPROACH

To achieve the research objective, this paper draws on a single case study design with embedded multiple units of analysis. An embedded case study is a case study containing more than one sub-unit of analysis [7]. Similar to a case study, an embedded case study methodology provides a means of integrating quantitative and qualitative methods into a single research study. The unit of analysis is the barriers for launching digital identity wallets (i.e. introducing operational wallets for use by citizens). The following three steps were employed for data collection.

First, we identify potential barriers that can be expected from theory. The goal is to develop a shortlist of potential barriers that can be used to guide discussions during the workshops. As mentioned before a Scopus Title Keywords and Abstract search on “Digital Identity Wallet” performed in January 2023 reveals just ten results. Most of the papers focus on the technological aspects of digital identity management e.g. [6]. Because the goal of this paper is to gain insights on the objectives and socio-technical barriers when designing and launching digital identity wallets, we chose the perspective of innovation and in particular public service innovation. PSI is the implementation of a significant change in the way a public organisation operates or in the products it provides. Innovations comprise new or significant changes to services and goods, operational processes, organisational methods, or the way your organisation communicates with users (adopted from Cinar [8, p. 143]. The reason for using public service innovation is that digital identity wallets can be conceptualized as a tool for public service innovation.

Second, we conduct a document review as part of the case study, focussing on the analysis of regulations to identify goals and requirements for digital identity wallets. Given the EUDI case study, we focus on EU regulations. While there is no enforced EU regulation on digital identity wallets yet, we focus on preceding regulations that must be followed, regardless of the follow up regulation developed by the EU (i.e. the revision of the eIDAS act, also referred to as eIDAS 2). The preceding regulations for deriving goals and requirements are ECHR⁶, ECFR⁷, eIDAS and GDPR. Section four provides an overview of the main regulations and goals.

Third, we conducted two expert workshops in the Netherlands to identify barriers for launching digital identity wallets. The workshop designs were identical, the participants were different. Each workshop was an hour long. The first workshop was conducted on premise, the second workshop was done online, allowing a larger number of experts to participate. Participants were invited based on their demonstrated expertise in the area of digital identity management or personal data management. The experts invited could choose out of two workshops of one hour each, one workshop on site using Mentimeter and one workshop online using Microsoft Teams and Mentimeter (www.menti.com). After the two workshops the results were combined. In total 21 unique respondents participated in the workshops. The first part of the each workshop consisted of voting on 20 statements (agree/disagree), after which questions were asked after each statement about motivation and respondents could discuss with each other. To make an inventory of which additional barriers were also recognized by respondents (based on their own experience and insights), the second part consisted of entering them in Mentimeter.

⁶ European Convention on Human Rights, https://www.echr.coe.int/Documents/Convention_ENG.pdf

⁷ Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, http://data.europa.eu/eli/treaty/char_2012/oj

3 EXPECTED BARRIERS FROM PUBLIC SERVICE INNOVATION LITERATURE

Our literature search for barriers centres on public service innovation. We conceptualise the design and launch of wallets in society as a public service innovation challenge, i.e. public and private actors must collaborate and agree upon the design and use of wallets. For the purposes of this research we define *innovation* as “a process through which new ideas, objects and practices are created, developed or reinvented, and which are new for the unit of adoption”[9]. To understand the potential public sector innovation barriers, it is important to understand the nature of public services and how public sector organisations innovate. Bloch [10] argues that three areas are important towards forming an understanding of how public sector organizations innovate: (a) the nature of public services themselves, (b) the context that public sector organizations operate within, and (c) the interfaces with other actors both within and beyond the public sector.

With respect to the interfaces Bloch [10] argues that a number of interfaces can be identified: (1) between the public sector and the private sector (including publicly owned enterprises); (2) between the public sector and citizens; (3) interfaces across governmental levels within the public sector, i.e. policy formulation, public administration and service production, (4) the interface between the various geographical levels of the public sector (i.e. local, regional, national) and (5) interfaces across different public domains, (e.g. health, education and defence).

Bloch [10] argues that, in managing their innovation activities, many public sector organizations need to manage interactions between several internal and external actors, potentially with limited autonomy in overall decision-making and where incentive structures may vary greatly across organizations. This is caused by the nature of public services themselves, the context that public sector organizations operate within, and the interfaces with other actors both within and beyond the public sector.

Based on a systematic review of the empirical literature on barriers within public sector innovation processes, Cinar [9] distinguishes four types of barriers: (1) organizational barriers, (2) interaction specific barriers between innovation partners within the innovation process, (3) barriers related to perceived characteristics of innovation and (4) contextual barriers. Besides types of barriers Cinar [9] distinguishes also barriers related to process stages (5) and interrelations between barriers (6). These types are explained in more detail in table 1 below:

Barrier type	Explanation	Examples
Organizational barriers	Linked to the internal context in which the innovation takes place	Administration of the innovation process activities, resistance or lack of support from specific actor(s), lack of available resources, rigid organizational structure/culture, lack of skills/knowledge/expertise
Interaction specific barriers	Related to the collaborative nature of this process and can be distinguished in the type of relation	Lack of shared understanding, lack of effective network governance, ‘turf fights’, lack of trust between organizations, lack of mutual benefits
Innovation characteristics related barriers	Innovative solution itself was perceived as a barrier by the member of the organization	Incompatibility, complexity, switching costs, lack of interoperability, platform/software problems and inflexibility
Contextual barriers	Linked to restrictions and obligations arising from laws and regulations	Restrictive tendering regulations, high costs to meet legal obligations, lack of standardization or geography
Barriers related to process stages	Barriers may vary according to the phases of the innovation process (idea generation and selection, development and design, implementation and sustainment)	Lack of available and accessible information on innovations elsewhere, unsystematic search, high levels of risk aversion, lack of resources and lack of an organizational learning culture, rigid organizational structure, top-down approach, ending of funding
Interaction specific barriers	Obstacles in the relationships and interactions between actors.	Ongoing bad relationships between local governments lead to lack of shared understanding for the innovation collaboration, inappropriate framing contributed to public opposition

Table 1: Categorization of barriers, based on Cinar [9]

The categorization of barriers in table 1 forms our theoretical lens and venture point for formulating more specific barriers that can be expected for the launch of wallets. Before formulating the more specific barriers, section 4 describes the EUDI case study that provides a context for interpreting the goals, requirements and barriers for data wallets.

4 EUDI WALLET ANALYSYS

4.1 Introduction of the EUDI wallet

The Briefing on the Revision of the eIDAS Regulation Findings⁸ states that: “the eIDAS Regulation introduced the first cross-border framework for trusted digital identities and trust services, providing secure electronic interactions between citizens, business and public authorities. It sought to give EU citizens access to public services across the EU using electronic identification issued in their home country and recognized mutually by other Member States” (p.1).

It continues with: “According to the Impact Assessment, the existing regulation: (1) Did not meet increased demand by public and private services for trusted identification and exchange of digital attributes. (2) Did not meet the current user expectations for seamless and trusted solutions to identify and share attributes across borders. (3) Available digital identity solutions were not able to address sufficiently the evolving data control and security concerns. (4) For trust services, the scope of the Regulation remained too limited and the lack of a level playing field across the EU hampered development of an internal market. Areas for improvement included national discrepancies on supervision procedures, diverging processes for remote identity proofing, and differences in conformity assessments.” (p.7)

In response to these shortcomings mentioned, the European Commission proposed additional regulation of eIDAS. The (proposed) amendment eIDAS (COM(2021) 281) introduced as one of the measures the EUDI-wallet. This amendment is an extension on the existing eIDAS regulation (910/2014), therefore that is why both regulations will be combined in the further elaboration.

4.2 Stakeholders involved

Multiple functions are needed to deliver the service to citizens, business and public administration in accordance with the requirements mentioned above. These functions and roles could be provided by a single party, but it is more likely that providers will specialize and offer one or a few functions. Collaboration between different providers (both on the demand and supply side) then becomes necessary. In the Common Union Toolbox for a Coordinated Approach Towards a European Digital Identity Framework⁹ (p.12) necessary roles are recognized and is spoken of a EUDI Wallet ecosystem. Figure 1 gives an overview of stakeholders in the ecosystem at the supply side, the demand side and governance:

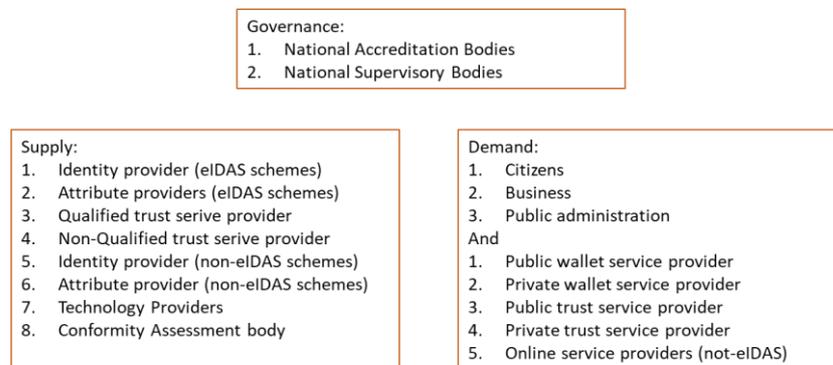


Figure 1: Stakeholder roles in a wallet ecosystem

Based on this inventory of roles and stakeholders, it can be established that multiple stakeholders are involved in providing the service to the citizen in the EUDI Wallet ecosystem.

4.3 Analysis of regulations

For the inventory of requirements for data wallets, we focus in this research on the regulations ECHR, ECFR, GDPR and eIDAS. Figure 2 provides a high-level overview of regulations, goals and functionalities.

First, article 8 (1) of the European Convention on Human Rights (ECHR) defines ‘privacy’ as an European fundamental right: ‘everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence’. The Charter of

⁸ European Parliamentary Research Service, “Revision of the eIDAS Regulation, Findings on its implementation and application”, march 2022, [https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2022/699491/EPRS_BRI\(2022\)699491_EN.pdf](https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2022/699491/EPRS_BRI(2022)699491_EN.pdf)

⁹ The Common Union Toolbox for a Coordinated Approach Towards a European Digital Identity Framework, version 1.0, jan. 2023

Fundamental Rights of the European Union (ECFR) regulates the ‘protection of personal data’ (as one of the components of guaranteeing privacy). In article 8 is stated that “everyone has the right to the protection of personal data concerning him or her” and that “such data must be processed fairly for specified purposes and on the basis of the consent of the person concerned or some other legitimate basis laid down by law. Everyone has the right of access to data which has been collected concerning him or her, and the right to have it rectified”. In addition to the fundamental rights, the principle of *proportionality* from Article 52 is also important as a requirement. This principle requires that any infringement on a fundamental right must be (1) in relation to the importance of the objective, (2) least far-reaching means (subsidiarity) and (3) suitable to achieve the goal.

Second, the General data protection regulation (GDPR) gives substance to the fundamental right to ‘privacy’ (rooted in the ECHR) and the ‘protection of personal data’ (rooted in the ECFR). The preamble of the GDPR states that “this Regulation respects all fundamental rights and observes the freedoms and principles recognized in the Charter as enshrined in the Treaties, in particular the respect for private and family life, home and communications, the protection of personal data, freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom of expression and information, freedom to conduct a business, the right to an effective remedy and to a fair trial, and cultural, religious and linguistic diversity.” (p. 4).

Third, the proposed amendment of eIDAS explicitly refers to the GDPR and the European Digital Identity Wallet is introduced as a tool to enable the user to use and manage his or her personal data (article 6a(3). This amendment is an extension on the existing eIDAS regulation of 2014, therefore eIDAS describes goals and requirements for functionalities for:

1. an eID and the possibility to connect this eID with personal data (attributes),
2. managing and sharing this personal data (with due observance of the rules from the GDPR),
3. using trust services and
4. the European Digital Identity Wallet

The preamble of the amendment of eIDAS states that “any personal data processing under this Regulation should be carried out in full compliance with the General Data Protection Regulation. In addition, this Regulation introduces specific data protection safeguards.” (p.4). Therefore there is an explicit connection between eIDAS and GDPR, so the requirements from the General Data Protection Regulation are relevant to this subject. The preamble of eIDAS continues with: “to ensure a high level of security, the proposal is also consistent with Union policies related to cyber security. The proposal has been designed to reduce fragmentation applying the general cyber security requirements to trust service providers regulated by the eIDAS Regulation” (p. 4)

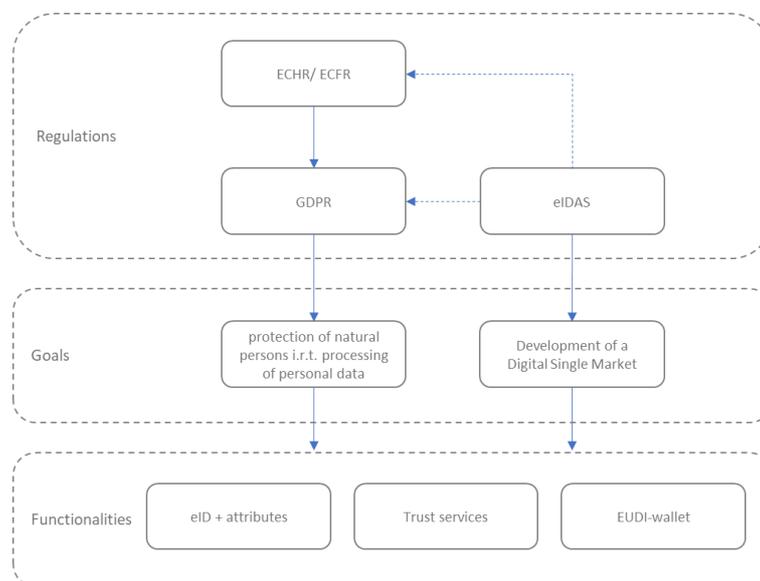


Figure 2: High-level overview of regulations, goals and functionalities

Starting at the bottom of figure 2 (functionalities derived from the goals) the analysis of the EU regulations reveals that the EUDI-wallet is an application that allows users to manage personal (eID) data (attributes) in a trusted way (called: trust services). This application combines and fulfils two objectives, namely (1) the contribution to the development of a Digital Single Market (rooted in eIDAS) and (2) the protection of natural persons in relation to the processing of personal data (rooted in GDPR). This relationship is further elaborated in the next sections.

4.4 Objectives and requirements found in GDPR

When it comes to personal data management, GDPR lays provides a set of principles and actions. Figure 3 provides an overview.



Figure 3: Objectives stated in GDPR

The GDPR starts with the statement “the protection of natural persons in relation to the processing of personal data is a fundamental right.” This statement refers to Article 8(1) of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU. Therefore, processing personal data must be lawfully, fairly and in a transparent manner. The objective of GDPR is to allow individuals to have better control of their personal data.

GDPR states in Article 5 (1a-1f) that the following principles must always apply to the processing of personal data: (1a) lawfulness, fairness and transparency, (1b) purpose limitation, (1c) data minimization, (1d) accuracy, (1e) storage limitation and (1f) integrity and confidentiality. Article 5(1b) states that personal data shall be collected for specified, explicit and legitimate purposes. These limited purposes are described in article 6 (1a-1f):

- a) the data subject has given *consent* to the processing of his or her personal data for one or more specific purposes;
- b) processing is *necessary for the performance of a contract* to which the data subject is party or in order to take steps at the request of the data subject prior to entering into a contract;
- c) processing is *necessary for compliance with a legal obligation* to which the controller is subject;
- d) processing is necessary in order to *protect the vital interests* of the data subject or of another natural person;
- e) processing is necessary for the performance of *a task carried out in the public interest* or in the exercise of official authority vested in the controller;
- f) processing is necessary for the purposes of the *legitimate interests* pursued by the controller or by a third party, except where such interests are overridden by the interests or fundamental rights and freedoms of the data subject which require protection of personal data, in particular where the data subject is a child.

To effectively implement protection of a natural persons in relation to the processing of personal data, the natural person has the following personal data management actions at his disposal (described as: ‘the right to’): (1) Information and access to personal data (art. 13/15), (2) Rectification, (3) Erasure, (4) Restriction of processing, (5) Data portability and (6) Give/withdraw consent.

4.5 Objectives and requirements in eIDAS (2014 and 2021)

Where the objective of the GDPR is ‘the protection of natural persons in relation to the processing of personal data’, the general objective of the combination of eIDAS 2014 and 2021 is the development of a Digital Single Market through

stimulating and strengthening sustainable competition, promoting interest of consumers and ensure high level of protection and highly secure and trustworthy electronic identity solutions ¹⁰ (p.7):

	eIDAS Regulation 2014, SWD(2012) 135	Amending proposal 2021, COM(2021) 281
General objective	<i>The development of a Digital Single Market; Stimulating and strengthening sustainable competition in the Digital Single Market; To promote the interest of consumers and to ensure high level of consumer protection for all EU citizens and businesses.</i>	<i>To ensure the proper functioning of the internal market, particularly in relation to the provision and use of cross-border and cross-sector public and private services relying on the availability and use of highly secure and trustworthy electronic identity solutions.</i>
Specific objectives	<i>Increase the availability of cross-border and cross-sector eIAS services and stimulate the take up of cross-border electronic transactions in all sectors (public and private); Ensure an optimal level and scope of governance; Ensure that competitive market developments are stimulated and that technological developments are not hindered in the eIAS market; Strengthen the competitiveness of the European industry and services sector; Ensure that all consumers can benefit from the advantages of (cross-border) eIDAS services.</i>	<i>Provide access to trusted and secure digital identity solutions that can be used across borders, meeting user expectations and market demand; Ensure that public and private services can rely on trusted and secure digital identity solutions across borders. Provide citizens full control of their personal data and assure their security when using digital identity solutions. Ensure equal conditions for the provision of qualified trust services in the EU and their acceptance.</i>

Table 2: Comparing general and specific eIDAS objectives

To achieve the goals, eIDAS gives three measures:

1. eID and the ability to link attributes (attestation) to this eID
2. trust services to enable honest and secure data exchange
3. a data wallet (EUDI Wallet) to enable natural persons to manage their personal data

Figure 4 provides an overview of goals and requirements found in eIDAS (where the gray blocks refer to the amendment).

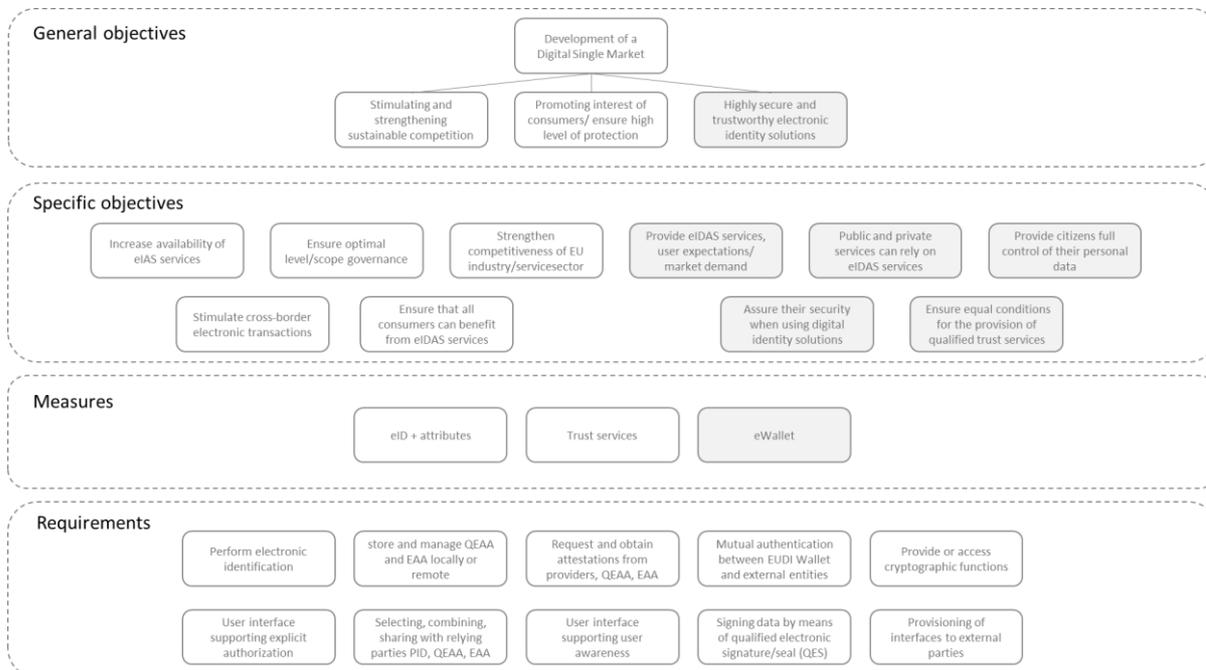


Figure 4: Overview of requirements in eIDAS

¹⁰ European Parliamentary Research Service, “Revision of the eIDAS Regulation, Findings on its implementation and application”, march 2022, [https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2022/699491/EPRS_BRI\(2022\)699491_EN.pdf](https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/BRIE/2022/699491/EPRS_BRI(2022)699491_EN.pdf)

The Outline of the ARF¹¹ (p.25) describes the functional requirements of the EUDI Wallet as:

1. “Perform electronic identification, store and manage qualified electronic attestation of attributes (QEAA) and electronic attestation of attributes (EAA) locally or remote;
2. Request and obtain from attestations from providers, qualified electronic attestation of attributes (QEAA) and electronic attestation of attributes (EAA);
3. Provide or access cryptographic functions;
4. Mutual authentication between the EUDI Wallet and external entities;
5. Selecting, combining and sharing with relying parties PID, QEAA and EAA;
6. User interface supporting user awareness and explicit authorization mechanism;
7. Signing data by means of qualified electronic signature/seal (QES);
8. Provisioning of interfaces to external parties.”

The Outline of the ARF (p.25) describes the non-functional requirements of the EUDI Wallet as:

1. “The EUDI Wallet shall meet the requirements set out in Article 8 of the eIDAS Regulation with regards to assurance level high
2. As provided by the legislative proposal, EUDI Wallets shall be interoperable across the European Union and have externally oriented interfaces specified by common, technical standards.
3. The EUDI Wallet shall ensure full control of the user over their data held within their individual EUDI Wallet by integrating security and privacy by design.
4. The EUDI wallet shall have an easy to use interface and user experience and shall address accessibility, usability and inclusion.
5. The EUDI Wallet shall enable awareness of the user, and in particular allow the user to know when and how their EUDI Wallet is being or has been used, to be informed of the nature of all the operations carried on with their EUDI Wallet, and to present these elements in form of a history. In this context, the user shall also be notified of breaches of control, or be reasonably able to detect breaches of control.
6. The EUDI Wallet shall enable the user to share only the information they intend to share. The Wallet shall ensure an appropriate level of privacy, implementing policies about non-traceability and unlinkability of user’s activities for third parties.
7. In order to bring trust to EUDI Wallet users and relying parties, conformity of the critical components of the implementations of the EUDI Wallet (including both the EUDI Wallet core functionalities and the implementation of interface protocols) shall be ensured by the EUDI Wallet issuer and confirmed by a recognized certification of the EUDI Wallet.
8. The security of critical components integrated within the EUDI Wallet or used by the EUDI Wallet, which protect against misuse or alteration of identification data, authentication mechanism or consent mechanism shall be certified in accordance with the legal proposal.
9. In addition, the mechanism for relying parties to verify whether a EUDI Wallet used is genuine and certified, shall not enable the relying party to distinguish between two certified EUDI Wallets, in order to preserve the privacy of the user when performing pseudonymous authentication. Trust service providers shall not receive any information about the use of provided attestations.
10. The issuer of the EUDI Wallet shall not collect information about the use of the EUDI Wallet, which are not necessary for the provision of the EUDI Wallet services. In addition, the Wallet issuer shall not combine PID and any other personal data stored or relating to the use of the EUDI Wallet with personal data from any other services offered by this issuer or from third-party services, which are not necessary for the provision of the EUDI Wallet services, unless the user has expressly requested it. Personal data relating to the provision of European Digital Identity Wallets shall be kept physically and logically separate from any other data held.”

¹¹ European Digital Identity Architecture and Reference Framework-Outline, feb. 2022,
<https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/library/european-digital-identity-architecture-and-reference-framework-outline>

4.6 Shortlist of expected barriers

In section 3 we identified the barrier types to be expected from public service innovation literature. We found that barriers can be distinguished into four types of barriers: (1) organizational barriers, (2) interaction specific barriers between innovation partners within the innovation process, (3) barriers related to perceived characteristics of innovation and (4) contextual barriers. Besides types of barriers there is also a relation between barriers related and process stages (5) and interrelations between barriers (6). In the sections 4.1 to 4.5 we analysed the regulations regarding the EUDI wallet to identify stakeholders, goals and requirements. Based on this analysis, we formulated a shortlist of expected barriers when developing and launching the EUDI wallet (see table 3). We have formulated several statements for each barrier type based on our own interpretation.

5 WORKSHOP RESULTS

5.1 Responses to the expected barriers

The first part of the workshops consisted of voting on 20 statements (agree/disagree), after which questions were asked after each statement about motivation and respondents could discuss with each other. To identify which barriers were also recognized by respondents (based on their own experience and insights), the second part consisted of entering them in Mentimeter. Table 3 provides an overview of statements and the aggregated responses from the workshop participants. Note that the number of responses in the second half of the statements is lower, because in one of the groups not all statements were treated due to time constraints.

	Barriers	Respondents	Totally agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Totally disagree
1	There is no clear picture of what we mean by a data wallet.	21	10	8	1	1	1
2	Even with a data wallet, it is not always clear to citizens which data is shared for what and with whom	21	8	9	3	2	0
3	Citizens have no trust in private providers of data wallets	21	3	4	4	7	3
4	All personal data in one data wallet creates a security risk for the citizen	21	4	3	5	7	2
5	A strong growth in different (sectoral) data wallets causes confusion among end users	21	4	4	2	7	4
6	Little functionality (e.g. only storage of personal data) in the data wallet stands in the way of broad adoption	21	2	2	4	7	6
7	Vertical integration of data wallets will lead to monopolization	21	6	10	3	2	0
8	A data wallet costs more than it yields	21	0	3	8	3	7
9	Those who experience the benefits of data wallets often do not bear the burden	21	10	4	2	1	4
10	There is a lack of trust between stakeholders within the ecosystem	20	4	10	2	2	2
11	Difficult to start because a stable basis (rules, standardization etc.) is lacking	10	1	6	2	1	0
12	A data wallet from the government disrupts the market	10	3	3	1	3	0
13	Source holders (including software suppliers) develop their own data wallets outside the scheme	9	1	8	0	0	0
14	Legislation alone is not enough: data wallets also require other regulation.	10	7	2	0	1	0
15	Legislative alignment takes far too long, causing the development and adoption of data wallets to stagnate	10	3	5	1	1	0
16	There is a lack of standardization for exchanging data between data wallets.	8	0	2	1	3	2
17	Now regulating data wallets leads to stagnation of development	9	0	2	1	3	3
18	The roles of the government (of standard setter, source holder, verifier, market master) are too intertwined.	10	3	5	1	1	0
19	Due to a lack of shared vision within the government, there is a lack of coherent policies and measures	9	5	2	0	0	2
20	I do not have all the necessary knowledge to effectively fulfill my role in the development (or regulation) of data wallets.	9	1	2	3	1	2

Table 3: Overview of workshop data analysis

Next, we briefly reflect on the level of agreement amongst participants. Most of the participants agreed with the first barrier, there is no clear picture of what a data wallet actually is. There was a discussion about the scope of 'data wallet': what exactly is meant by a data wallet?

The participants largely agreed with the second barrier. It is argued that this insight is necessary to give citizens confidence in the data wallet and its use. Legislation, quality marks, information, an independent supervisor, and even a digital forensic trace could be possible instruments.

Looking at the third barrier, the opinions of the participants are divided. It is argued that the situation is more nuanced: the Netherlands is a high trust society, in which, for example, there is more trust in the medical doctor than in the government. Participants state that confidence in a public provider is high. It is also pointed out that citizens may not really trust private providers, but still use the service because they have no other choice.

When considering barrier #4, the opinions of the participants are divided. Central to the discussion is the question of whether risk relates to *storage* or *access to data*. That is an architectural issue. Storage can be both central and decentralized, but the degree of *access to that data* is considered to be decisive for the risk and not the place where it is stored.

Barrier #5 also shows divergence. A few participants argue that this is already the case: depending on the service and service provider (e.g. 'buying a house' or 'visiting the doctor'), different data wallets are available and citizens understand this difference and use different data wallets. Other participants argue that we are only at the beginning and that there are many more to come, so confusion is indeed lurking.

Most participants disagree on barrier #6. Some argued that the more functionality you put into a data wallet, the more complexity and therefore less adoption. Others argued that it is actually useful for a citizen to have for each life event a different data wallet.

The participants largely agreed with barrier #7. There was a discussion about the fact that, in addition to disadvantages such as higher (social) costs for end users, a monopoly can also have advantages such as lower coordination and transaction costs (for example, Dutch Railways and Itsme in Belgium), provided it is properly regulated.

The participants largely disagreed with barrier #8. There was some discussion about scope: what costs and benefits are included in the assessment?

Barrier #9 pulled together more agreement. The participants did point out that a misaligned business case is currently the case, but that this can be adjusted by correct pricing.

The participants largely agreed about barrier #10. Some participants pointed out that lack of trust depends also on the number and type of stakeholders involved within the ecosystem. If there are only a few parties who know each other, trust quickly builds. This is more difficult if many parties are involved who also do not know each other very well.

The participants largely agreed with that there is a lack of standardization (barrier #11). Some participants did indicate that this also offers opportunities to start something new. Others also pointed to the investment uncertainty because it is not clear whether and how the government will regulate.

When considering barrier #12, the participants largely agreed with this statement that a wallet provided by the government would disrupt market development for wallets. Several participants did state that the government should adhere to the same rules, so that a level playing field is created. Another pointed out that there are groups of citizens from whom there is less money to earn, so it is good that the government makes a data wallet available for free.

Barrier #13 was generally agreed upon. Participants expect a wide variety of wallets offered. Whether the wallets will comply with the establish regulations is a huge concern.

Looking at barrier #14, most of the participants agreed that more is needed than (European) legislation for a healthy wallet ecosystem. Other forms of regulation that provide a mix of incentives is needed.

Most participants agreed on barrier #15. Participants indicated that it is not a problem to wait for careful legislation, but parties are waiting due to the lack of clarity. It was also noted that a system of agreements does not require separate legislation, so that parties can already regulate their cooperation.

There was general disagreement on barrier #16. There was a discussion about semantics: there are many standards available for exchanging data, but adoption (standardization) is lagging. Moreover, the discussion here zoomed in on the lack of boundary resources in the wallet ecosystem. Here, boundary resources refer to a wide area of standards, tools, methods, procedures and decision-making structures that actors can collaborate with. A key question is who (public or market actors) should be in the lead when it comes to the development and governance of boundary resources.

When it comes to the timing for regulating data wallets (barrier #17), there is no consensus. In the discussion, a distinction was made between the phase of market development and the phase of market regulation. Some participants stated that the market development phase has been completed and we have now entered the market regulation phase. Regulation is therefore desirable. Others stated that we are still in the market development phase and that regulation is not yet desirable. It was also noted that there is too little knowledge to regulate effectively.

Most participants agreed that the roles of public agencies are currently too intertwined (barrier #18). Currently, governments play multiple roles, including policymaking, data provider, service provider, potential wallet provider and regulator.

The participants largely agreed with the lack of a collective vision within the Dutch government (barrier #19). Currently, multiple government agencies have different policy directions regarding wallets and personal data management. This hampers market investments.

Finally, the participants were much divided on the barrier #20, which zooms in on the knowledge required. Some stated that data wallets are complex where a lot of different knowledge is needed, especially when it comes to social impact (behaviour, psychology). Others argued that there was sufficient technical knowledge.

5.2 Additional barriers mentioned in the workshops

In the second part of the workshops, participants were asked what additional other barriers they see for the launch of digital wallets. Table 4 provides an overview of the additional barriers mentioned by the participants. The type of barrier and ordering is added later by the researchers, in line with the types explained in section 3.

Additional barrier mentioned by workshop participants	Type
The low level of cooperation and distance/misalignment between and with EU legislation and Dutch policies.	Contextual barriers
Geopolitical interests and influences could become more decisive in this domain as well (e.g. the launch of an Apple Data Wallet in the EU).	Contextual barriers
Differences in the regulation of wallets, issuers, controllers, and other parties across EU member states impedes the formation of a level playing field.	Contextual barriers
Digital readiness of citizens, some groups will have difficulties to wield wallets. This raises concerns regarding digital inclusion and representation.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Many public and private data sources are not yet accessible for (private sector) data wallets. There is still little data from the entire ecosystem, now all kinds of tricks (e.g. screen scrapping) are used to fill the wallet.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
The lack of boundary resources that promote interoperability in the wallet ecosystem (databases, API, data specifications, hardware, software etc.). Without these, we cannot fill the wallets with useful and high quality data and functionalities.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Limited adoption of suitable smartphones. Many older smartphones with older versions of iOS and Android do not satisfy some of the ETSI hardware security requirements.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Digital identity matching is a major challenge for commercial service providers, since they are not permitted to use the unique public citizen identifier. We lack a unique and persistent (EU) citizen identifier that can be used by public and private parties.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Dependence on mobile devices as platform and gateway for wallets.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Overview for citizens when/which data has been shared with actors and for what purpose. There must be one mandatory place for that, mandated by the government.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
Too much focus on regulating wallet suppliers instead of building standards and boundary resources (e.g. APIs and shared data models).	Innovation characteristics related barriers
The Dutch government focusses too much on open source requirements for wallets, it is not clear which components of wallets should be open source.	Innovation characteristics related barriers
There is no national wallet rollout strategy for the Netherlands.	Interaction-specific barriers
Slow decision making regarding 'acceptable' cost and revenue models for wallet services and data exchange.	Interaction-specific barriers
Public opinion and distrust, no free choice for individual, image of a mandatory use of wallets, similar to COVID 19 QR codes.	Interaction-specific barriers
The difference between attribute issuers and wallet providers is not well enough understood.	Interaction-specific barriers
Lack of mutual understanding about the desired results when using a data wallet.	Interaction-specific barriers
The regulating parties lacks the knowledge and competences to understand specific risks related to wallets is and is therefore unable to weigh up regulatory actions.	Interaction-specific barriers
Distrust from the Second Chamber of the Dutch Parliament is also about (lack of) knowledge.	Interaction-specific barriers
The First Chamber/Senate is delaying relevant national regulation.	Interaction-specific barriers
Lack of the nationwide adoption and implementation of a 'qualified high-level of assurance' digital identity as a mandatory component of wallets.	Interaction-specific barriers
Fragmented innovation landscape: there are far too many loose-coupled and overlapping initiatives (let all the flowers bloom).	Interaction-specific barriers
No administrative level urgency and priority to make data available to data wallets.	Interaction-specific barriers
Fuzziness surrounding 'wallet ethics'. For instance regarding privacy, transparency and freedom of choice for wallet users in every context (guarantee public values, even without a wallet).	Interaction-specific barriers

Political bias towards personal data management and wallets (not choosing the most rational solution, but choosing the politically feasible one).	Interaction-specific barriers
Multiplicity of actors -> traceability when things go wrong somewhere in the data chain.	Interaction-specific barriers
The number of agreements that must be in place is overwhelming.	Interaction-specific barriers
The need for online/mobile on boarding of users scares off certain service providers.	Process stages and barriers
The usefulness for the citizen/end user is not very clear, making it difficult to develop business models with a long term viability.	Process stages and barriers
Lack of good use cases for launching digital identity wallets. There is no killer use case. What can you do more than, for example, show your ID?	Process stages and barriers

Table 4: Additional barriers identified during the workshops

Looking at the additional barriers listed in Table 4, we observe that:

1. No additional organizational barriers were mentioned by workshop participants. Most of the additional barriers mentioned are related to interaction-specific and innovation characteristics related barriers.
2. The contextual barriers mainly refer to legal issues.
3. Innovation-related barriers mainly relate to the lack of knowledge on the part of the user, the lack of access to data and problems arising from the combination of hardware and software. One could argue that these types of barriers are mostly related to the process stage development and design.
4. Interaction-specific barriers mainly relate to the lack of effective network governance: timely discussions, lack of mutual understanding and lack of trust.
5. The lack of benefits and use cases for citizens is a type of barrier that relates mainly to the process stages implementation.

6 CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of this paper is to contribute to understanding of the goals, requirements and barriers behind digital identity wallets. The research question is twofold: (1) what are the main objectives and requirements for a digital identity wallet and (2) what barriers do actors encounter while trying to realize the objectives and requirements in practice?

In section 4 we answered question 1 as follows: the main objectives of the EUDI wallet is the contribution to the development of a Digital Single Market through stimulating and strengthening sustainable competition, promoting interest of consumers and ensure high level of protection and highly secure and trustworthy electronic identity solutions.

The main requirements of the EUDI Wallet include performing electronic identification, store and manage qualified electronic attestation of attributes (QEAA) and electronic attestation of attributes (EAA) locally or remote, providing access to cryptographic functions, enable mutual authentication between the EUDI Wallet and external entities and providing interfaces to external parties.

The barriers actors encounter while trying to realize the objectives and requirements in practice are numerous and multi-faceted. The shortlist of barriers inspired by literature on public service innovation proved to be a good starting point for discussions with experts. However, not all experts agreed on the relevance of the expected barriers. The workshops revealed an additional set of barriers that were not expected from a public service innovation perspective. We encourage further research on these barriers, as well as potential solutions.

There are three main limitations to this paper. First, the research is limited to the Dutch context of launching data wallets. The institutional, political, and cultural context in other countries may lead to a different set of relevant barriers. Second, the shortlist of barriers were formulated from the lens of public service innovation. Other lenses, such as open innovation and the diffusion of innovation may have yielded other/additional barriers. Since the shortlist was decisive in the type of discussions during the workshops, we encourage the formulation of barriers based on other theoretical frameworks. Finally, we did not focus on the interrelations and interdependency between barriers, whilst they are expected to be important. Further research could provide a rich understanding of the various relationships and perhaps causalities between barriers.

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