

# Appendices to “The Impact of the General Data Protection Regulation on Internet Interconnection”

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## A. Bilateral Bargaining Model

In this section, we formalize the common intuition that the demand for and usage of data at the application layer alters investment incentives to interconnect at the internet layer with a simple theoretical model of bilateral bargaining between network operators. The model largely draws from Besen et al. (2001). Though this model abstracts away many issues, such as interdependence of interconnection decisions, customers’ choices of networks and the rich set of considerations different types of networks have in making interconnection decisions, it is parsimonious and delivers neat analytical solutions of the bargaining outcome and the amount of transfers.

First let there be two network operators  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ . The two networks decide whether to interconnect. Let mass  $M_1, M_2$  account for the combined value of each network’s content and users, and the value of its customers not reachable through the other network. So  $M_1$  is the value reachable through  $O_1$  or  $O_1$ ’s customers and not reachable through  $O_2$  or  $O_2$ ’s customers. Let  $I_1, I_2$  be the combined value of all content and users on the Internet not reachable through the other network or its customers.  $M_1$  is a subset of  $I_1$  and  $M_2$  is a subset of  $I_2$ . When network  $i$  is a large transit provider,  $I_i$  would be equal to all content and users on the Internet minus  $M_j$ . Examples of value are a content provider’s video content, and the ISP’s video subscribers.

For transit providers and content delivery networks, customers would be other networks depending on them to connect to other parts of the Internet. For governments, private companies and universities, their customers are just themselves. Assume that from  $O_1$ ’s perspective, forming a peer-to-peer interconnection with  $O_2$  would allow  $O_1$  to reach mass  $M_2$  more efficiently.  $O_1$  can in term generate revenue from its customers due to improved service. Assume also that  $O_2$  would reach mass  $M_1$  more efficiently under the peer-to-peer agreement. If  $O_1$  is the provider, forming a provider-to-customer link with  $O_2$  would allow  $O_1$  to reach  $M_2$  more efficiently. While from  $O_2$ ’s perspective, forming a customer-to-provider link with  $O_1$  would allow  $O_2$  to access  $I_1$ .<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Note  $M_1, M_2, I_1$  and  $I_2$  are specific to the negotiation between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ . If  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  form a p2c agreement

Let  $f(m)$  be function of revenue collected by the network operator  $O_i$  per unit mass of its customers, where  $m$  represents the mass of customers in the internet  $O_i$  is able to reach in a reliable and efficient manner for its customers. For networks whose customers are themselves, we can think of  $f$  as the benefit of connecting their networks to the Internet in monetary values. Assume  $f$  is an increasing function and is concave. Let  $C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2)$  be the cost of a p2p interconnection and  $C_{p2c}(I_1 + M_2)$  be the cost of a p2c interconnection between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ , which are increasing functions in the total masses that depend on the interconnection.  $C$  is concave, evident from decreasing per Mbps interconnection fees in this industry. Moreover  $\frac{dC_{p2p}(m)}{dm}|_{m=\tilde{m}} < \frac{dC_{p2c}(m)}{dm}|_{m=\tilde{m}}$  for all  $m$ , reflecting the fact that p2p agreements have more rapidly declining per Mbps cost than p2c agreements and significantly reduce cost of interconnection especially when  $m$  is large. Let  $\tau$  be any additional cost associated with negotiating an agreement.

Assume any disruption to data exchange between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  is only sustained during bargaining<sup>2</sup> and customers do not change their networks during bargaining or in response to the bargaining outcome. We also hold fixed the interconnection agreements between either of  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$  and all other networks. Assume these other agreements allow each network to access mass  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ .  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  can either form an agreement with one of the three agreement types: (a) a p2c agreement where  $O_1$  is a provider to  $O_2$ , (b) a p2p agreement, (c) a c2p agreement where  $O_1$  is a customer to  $O_2$ , or take the outside option (d) no agreement. In practice, as the relative masses and bargaining power of the two networks strongly influence the type of agreement formed<sup>3</sup>, we first assume networks compare one of (a), (b), (c) with the outside option (d), rather than comparing all of the four options simultaneously, and derive comparative statics. We then discuss potential substitutions between agreement types.

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where  $O_1$  is the provider, under a negotiation between  $O_1$  and another network  $O_3$ ,  $M_2$  becomes part of  $O_1$ 's combined value of content and users  $M_1'$ .

<sup>2</sup> In the event of no agreement between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ , customers in  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  experience less efficient service in reaching  $I_2$  and  $I_1$ . In practice, data usually takes a longer and inefficient path through a series other networks between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ .

<sup>3</sup>For reference, if we measure  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$  and  $I_1$  purely in terms of the number of IP addresses and let  $O_2$  be the smaller network in an agreement, the average ratio of  $M_2$  to  $M_1$  is 0.81 for p2p agreements, while the average ratio of  $M_2$  to the full routed IP address space (which is close to  $I_1$ , given the relatively small size of  $M_2$ ) is 0.00016 for p2c agreements.

## A.1 Peer-to-Peer Agreements (p2p)

When the two networks have relatively similar masses and bargaining power, they consider either a p2p agreement or no agreement. The bargaining outcome according to the noncooperative bargaining theory with short times between offers is approximately the same as that of the Nash bargaining model, provided the payoff each earns during the period of disruption is treated as the Nash threat point (Binmore, Rubinstein, & Wolinsky (1986), Besen et al. (2001)). The total surplus to be divided when  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  reach an agreement is  $M_1f(G_1 + M_2) + M_2f(G_2 + M_1) - C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) - \tau$ , while the threat point is  $(M_1f(G_1), M_2f(G_2))$ . We further assume when the mass  $M_i$  of a network  $O_i$  increases, this change has a higher impact on  $O_j$ 's threat point value than on the cost of interconnection, that is  $\frac{d(M_jf(G_j+M_i))}{dM_i}|_{M_i=\tilde{M}} > \frac{dC_{p2p}(M_i+M_j)}{dM_i}|_{M_i=\tilde{M}}$  for all  $M_i, M_j$ .

$O_1$  and  $O_2$  would decide to interconnect if the gains from agreement

$$g = M_1f(G_1 + M_2) + M_2f(G_2 + M_1) - C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) - \tau - M_1f(G_1) - M_2f(G_2) \geq 0. \quad (1)$$

At a noncooperative bargaining outcome, the two networks divide equally any gains relative to the threat point, so the resulting bargaining payoff for network  $O_1$  is

$$\pi_1 = \frac{1}{2}[M_1f(G_1 + M_2) + M_2f(G_2 + M_1) - C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) - \tau + M_1f(G_1) - M_2f(G_2)]. \quad (2)$$

and for network  $O_2$  is

$$\pi_2 = \frac{1}{2}[M_1f(G_1 + M_2) + M_2f(G_2 + M_1) - C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) - \tau - M_1f(G_1) + M_2f(G_2)]. \quad (3)$$

With interconnection,  $O_1$  would be able to earn a revenue of  $M_1f(G_1 + M_2)$  from  $M_1$  and needs to share half the cost of the interconnection  $\frac{1}{2}[C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) + \tau]$ . Let  $O_1$ 's profit be  $\rho_1 = M_1f(G_1 + M_2) - \frac{1}{2}[C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) + \tau]$ , then the excess

$$\pi_1 - \rho_1 = \frac{1}{2}M_2[f(G_2 + M_1) - f(G_2)] - \frac{1}{2}M_1[f(G_1 + M_2) - f(G_1)]. \quad (4)$$

is the negotiated net payment from  $O_2$  to  $O_1$ . Define  $h(M) = \frac{[f(G+M) - f(G)]}{M}$ , then  $O_1$  receives a positive payment from  $O_2$  if and only if  $h(M_1) - h(M_2) > 0$ . In such

a case,  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  are in a paid peering agreement. When  $h(M_1) - h(M_2) = 0$ , the two networks are in a settlement-free peering agreement.

Now suppose  $O_1$  is a network serving customers in the EU while  $O_2$  is some other network outside the EU that connected with  $O_1$  before the GDPR was implemented. We can work out the comparative statics for changes in bargaining outcomes following changes in model parameters due to the GDPR. We consider two different changes in model parameters: (a) a decrease in  $M_1$ , and (b) an increase in  $\tau$ . Goldberg, Johnson & Shriver (2019) shows large and significant 10% decline in recorded page views, visits, orders and revenue of EU customers after the implementation of the GDPR. Jia, Jin, & Wagman (2018) show decline in venture capital investment in technology start-ups, particularly in the total amounts raised across funding deals, the number of deals, and the amount raised per individual deal. The effects are especially pronounced for newer and data-related ventures. Both papers provide some evidence of decline in the mass of EU customers, both in terms of the number of users and the amount of content supplied to the rest of the Internet. This change is represented by a decrease in  $M_1$  in our model. As the new legislation rolled out, it creates uncertainty in the business environment and additional burden in making sure both interconnecting parties and their customers are GDPR-compliant, increasing bargaining frictions. We represent this change by an increase in  $\tau$  in our model.

Taking the derivative of the gains from agreement with respect to  $M_1$ , we have

$$\frac{dg}{dM_1} = f(G_1 + M_2) - \frac{dC_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2)}{dM_1} - f(G_1) + M_2 \frac{df(G_2 + M_1)}{dM_1} > 0. \quad (5)$$

It is also easy to show  $\frac{d[h(M_1) - h(M_2)]}{dM_1} > 0$ . Together, these derivatives imply two changes when  $M_1$  decreases: (1) Gains from agreement fall. If the gains fall below zero, the agreement between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  breaks. (2)  $O_1$  receives a reduced amount of transfer from  $O_2$ , though we do not observe transfers in our data. Using similar derivations, an increase in  $\tau$  would also imply higher chance of termination of the interconnection agreement, though it does not have an effect on the transfers.

## A.2 Provider-to-Customer Agreements (p2c)

When  $O_1$  has substantially more mass and bargaining power than  $O_2$ , the networks consider either a p2c agreement where  $O_1$  is the provider or no agreement. Using the same set of assumptions as above for the p2p agreements,  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  would

decide to interconnect if the gains from agreement

$$g = M_1 f(G_1 + M_2) + M_2 f(G_2 + I_1) - C_{p2c}(I_1 + M_2) - \tau - M_1 f(G_1) - M_2 f(G_2) \geq 0. \quad (6)$$

The negotiated net payment from  $O_2$  to  $O_1$  is

$$\pi_1 - \rho_1 = \frac{1}{2} M_2 [f(G_2 + I_1) - f(G_2)] - \frac{1}{2} M_1 [f(G_1 + M_2) - f(G_1)] > 0. \quad (7)$$

Suppose  $O_1$  is a transit provider in EU and a significant portion of  $I_1$  are EU users and content. The GDPR might result in a decrease in  $I_1$ . Taking the derivatives of Equations 6 and 7 with respect to  $I_1$ , we derive two changes when  $I_1$  decreases: (1) Gains from agreement fall. If the gains fall below zero, the agreement between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  breaks. (2)  $O_1$  receives a reduced amount of transfer from  $O_2$ , though we do not observe transfers in our data.

If we instead suppose  $O_2$  is a EU network seeking access to  $I_1$  and the GDPR decreases  $M_2$ , we take the derivatives of Equations 6 and 7 with respect to  $M_2$  and derive two changes: (1) Gains from agreement fall. If the gains fall below zero, the agreement between  $O_1$  and  $O_2$  breaks. (2)  $O_1$  receives an increased amount of transfer from  $O_2$ , though we do not observe transfers in our data.

### A.3 Substitution between Agreement Types

When  $O_1$  has a larger mass than  $O_2$ , it is possible the two networks decide between a p2c agreement where  $O_1$  is the provider and a paid p2p agreement. The two networks would enter a paid p2p agreement if Equation 1 holds and the gains from a p2p agreement are greater than the gains from a p2c agreement

$$g_\Delta = M_2 [f(G_2 + M_1) - f(G_2 + I_1)] + C_{p2c}(I_1 + M_2) - C_{p2p}(M_1 + M_2) \geq 0 \quad (8)$$

Suppose  $O_1$  is a EU network and the GDPR negatively impacts both  $M_1$  and  $I_1$ .  $\frac{dg_\Delta}{dM_1} > 0$ , implying that a decrease in  $M_1$ , holding all else fixed, would make it more likely for the two networks to enter a p2c agreement. However,  $\frac{dg_\Delta}{dI_1} < 0$ , implying that a decrease in  $I_1$ , holding all else fixed, would make it more likely for the two networks to enter a p2p agreement. The overall effect is unclear and depends on the relative changes to the masses  $M_1$  and  $I_1$  offered, their prices and  $O_2$ 's revenue function.<sup>4</sup> Suppose instead  $O_2$  is a EU network and the GDPR negatively impacts

<sup>4</sup>An intuitive way to understand this situation is to use the second-degree price discrimination framework. One can view the p2c agreement as the product with a larger quantity and a higher price and the p2p agreement as the product with a smaller quantity and a lower price. The choice between the two products depends on the consumer's preferences as well as the structure of non-linear pricing.

$M_2$ . Taking the derivative,  $\frac{dg_\Delta}{dM_2}$  can either be positive or negative, depending on the cost functions,  $O_2$ 's revenue function, and the relative masses  $M_1$  and  $I_1$ .

In summary, this simple model formalizes the intuition that negative impacts of the GDPR on the application layer negatively impact European networks' bargaining positions. European networks would have fewer agreements of all three types and receive a reduced amount of transfers. The effect of the GDPR on the potential substitutions between agreement types is unclear.

## B. Data Appendix

In this section, we provide additional information about our data sources and data collection techniques. Our data comes from various data sources collected and compiled by the Center of Applied Internet Data Analysis (CAIDA) at the University of California, San Diego. Since 1998, CAIDA has been studying interconnectivity of the Internet by actively probing the Internet using its monitors placed at various vantage points around the world. Its current flagship active measurement infrastructure, Archipelago, collects interconnectivity data on the IP-address-level from more than 200 monitors located on 6 continents in over 60 countries. A list of current Archipelago monitor locations can be found at <https://www.caida.org/projects/ark/locations/>.

CAIDA also collaborates with many organizations and compiles data collected from their monitors. Most notably, it collaborates with the Route Views Project at the University of Oregon and the Réseaux IP Européens Network Coordination Centre (RIPE NCC) in Europe to collect routing tables for network-level paths. A list of Route Views monitors can be found at <http://www.routeviews.org/routeviews/index.php/collectors/>. A list of RIPENCC monitors can be found at <https://www.ripe.net/analyse/internet-measurements/routing-information-service-ris/ris-raw-data>.

Moreover, CAIDA gathers records of network registration information from the world's five regional Internet registries (RIRs), allowing us to identify countries (or territories) of organizations that own individual networks. The dataset is available through the link:

<https://www.caida.org/data/as-organizations/>. The five RIRs are:

- The African Network Information Center (AFRINIC)

- The American Registry for Internet Numbers (ARIN)
- The Asia-Pacific Network Information Center (APNIC)
- The Latin America and Caribbean Network Information Center (LACNIC)
- The Réseaux IP Européens Network Coordination Centre (RIPE NCC)

Our main data on the network-level interconnection agreements comes from the routing tables, while our IP-address-level interconnection points for each agreement come from the active probes. The data extraction process is explained in the Data section in the main text.

A number of key variables in this study come from a dataset called *AS Relationships*, as in the computer science field, an independently operated network connected to the Internet is referred to as an Autonomous System (AS). This dataset is available through the link <http://www.caida.org/data/as-relationships/>.

To construct the AS Relationships dataset, CAIDA collects BGP tables from its partner monitors placed at various vantage points across the Internet and peered directly with networks' BGP routers, typically major ones with large numbers of routes stored, at Internet exchange points. Network-to-network connection agreements are then extracted from routing paths announced in these BGP tables. Then the agreements are annotated with inferred agreement types. The inference algorithm draws from Gao (2001), Subramanian et al. (2002), Di Battista et al. (2003), Erlebach et al. (2002), Xia and Gao (2004), Dimitropoulos et al. (2007a) and Dimitropoulos et al. (2007b).

Our IP-address-level interconnection points within each agreement come from the dataset *IPv4 Prefix-Probing*. This dataset is available through the link [https://www.caida.org/data/active/ipv4\\_prefix\\_probing\\_dataset.xml](https://www.caida.org/data/active/ipv4_prefix_probing_dataset.xml).

To keep visibility consistent throughout our sample periods, we extract agreements only from a set of monitors that operated throughout our sample periods, January 2015–June 2019 for AS Relationships and December 2015–June 2019 for IPv4 Prefix-Probing. Moreover, we dropped all of the affected interconnections due to configuration changes in three RIPENCC monitors in October 2018. To make these sample restrictions, we use nonpublic versions of the datasets which include monitor identifiers for each observation of interconnection.

We drop networks owned by a number of small island countries, Andorra, Central African Republic, Eritrea, North Korea and Vatican City from our sample due

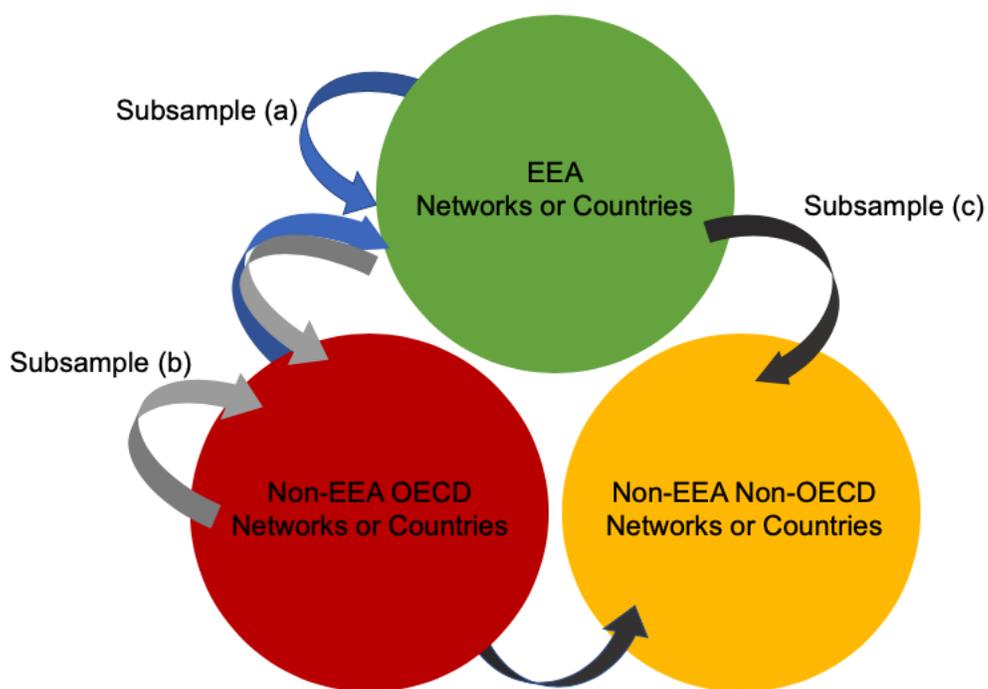
to these countries' very small overall number of connections with the rest of the Internet. Our EEA subsample includes networks owned by organizations headquartered in the 31 EEA member countries as well as networks owned by EU-wide organizations. For networks owned by EU-wide organizations, their countries of origin are shown as "EU" in network registration records. We include these networks in the EEA subsample for the purpose of our empirical analysis. The resulting total number of countries and territories in our sample is 200. A complete list of countries and territories in our sample is presented in Table B1.

Table B1: List of Countries and Territories

EEA	Non-EEA OECD	Non-EEA Non-OECD	
Austria	Australia	Afghanistan	India
Belgium	Canada	Albania	Indonesia
Bulgaria	Chile	Algeria	Iran
Croatia	Israel	Angola	Iraq
Cyprus	Japan	Argentina	Isle of Man
Czech Rep.	Korea (Rep.)	Armenia	Jamaica
Denmark	Mexico	Aruba	Jersey
Estonia	New Zealand	Azerbaijan	Jordan
Finland	Switzerland	Bahamas	Kazakhstan
France	Turkey	Bahrain	Kenya
Germany	USA	Bangladesh	Kuwait
Greece		Barbados	Kyrgyzstan
Hungary		Belarus	Laos
Iceland		Belize	Lebanon
Ireland		Benin	Lesotho
Italy		Bermuda	Liberia
Latvia		Bhutan	Libya
Liechtenstein		Bolivia	Macao
Lithuania		BiH	Macedonia
Luxembourg		Botswana	Madagascar
Malta		Brazil	Malawi
Netherlands		Brunei	Malaysia
Norway		Burkina Faso	Maldives
Poland		Burundi	Mali
Portugal		Côte d'Ivoire	Marshall Is.
Romania		Cabo Verde	Mauritius
Slovakia		Cambodia	Micronesia
Slovenia		Cameroon	Moldova
Spain		Cayman Is.	Monaco
Sweden		Chad	Mongolia
UK		China	Montenegro
EU		Colombia	Morocco
		Congo	Mozambique
		Congo (DR)	Myanmar
		Costa Rica	Namibia
		Cuba	Nepal
		Djibouti	New Caledonia
		Dominica	Nicaragua
		Dominican Rep.	Niger
		Ecuador	Nigeria
		Egypt	Oman
		El Salvador	Pakistan
		Eq. Guinea	Palestine, State of
		Ethiopia	Panama
		Faroe Is.	Papua New Guinea
		Fiji	Paraguay
		Fr. Guiana	Peru
		Fr. Polynesia	Philippines
		Gabon	Puerto Rico
		Gambia	Qatar
		Georgia	Reunion
		Ghana	Russia
		Gibraltar	Rwanda
		Greenland	St. Kitts and Nevis
		Grenada	St. Lucia
		Guadeloupe	St. Vincent
		Guam	San Marino
		Guatemala	Saudi Arabia
		Guernsey	Senegal
		Guinea	Serbia
		Guyana	Seychelles
		Haiti	Sierra Leone
		Honduras	Singapore
		Hong Kong	Solomon Is.
		India	Somalia
		Indonesia	South Africa
		Iran	Sri Lanka
		Iraq	Sudan
		Isle of Man	Suriname
		Jamaica	Swaziland
		Jersey	Syria
		Jordan	Taiwan
		Kazakhstan	Tajikistan
		Kenya	Tanzania
		Kuwait	Thailand
		Kyrgyzstan	Timor-Leste
		Laos	Togo
		Lebanon	Tonga
		Lesotho	Trinidad and Tobago
		Liberia	Tunisia
		Libya	Turkmenistan
		Macao	Uganda
		Macedonia	Ukraine
		Madagascar	UAE
		Malawi	Uruguay
		Malaysia	Uzbekistan
		Maldives	Vanuatu
		Mali	Venezuela
		Marshall Is.	Viet Nam
		Mauritius	Virgin Is.
		Micronesia	Yemen
		Moldova	Zambia
		Monaco	Zimbabwe
		Mongolia	
		Montenegro	
		Morocco	

Note: The list of EEA countries and territories includes the 31 EEA member countries and the EU, as some networks are owned by EU-wide organizations. The list of non-EEA OECD countries and territories includes 11 countries. The list of non-EEA non-OECD countries and territories includes 157 countries and territories. There were no changes to EEA or OECD membership status during our study period.

Figure B1: Three subsamples for the analysis on the network pair or country pair level



Notes: Subsample (a) fixes EEA networks or countries as interconnection counterparties. Subsample (b) fixes non-EEA OECD networks or countries as interconnection counterparties. Subsample (c) fixes non-EEA non-OECD networks or countries as interconnection counterparties. Interconnections between EEA countries and non-EEA OECD countries contribute to both subsample (a) and subsample (b).

## C. Robustness Checks

### C.1 Results on Levels

Table C1: The GDPR's impact on the number of agreements by EEA and non-EEA OECD countries, by counterparty

	Non-EEA OECD (1)	Non-EEA Non-OECD (2)	EEA (3)
$POST_e \times EEA$	-24.00 (15.12)	-0.48 (0.30)	-1.22 (1.84)
$POST_a \times EEA$	-33.79 (27.52)	-0.79 (0.01)	0.93 (0.02)
Group dummies	country pairs	country pairs	country pairs
Time dummies	months	months	months
Clusters	418	6,751	880
$R^2$	0.999	0.903	0.990
Observations	22,572	364,554	47,520

Notes: The dependent variable is  $numAg_{ijt}$ . The variable  $numAg_{ijt}$  is rectangularized as described in Table 2 and we add one when we take the log to account for zero values.  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR was approved. Column (1) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Column (2) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Column (3) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by an EEA country. All regressions include month dummies and country pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.

Table C2: The GDPR's impact on the number of agreements by EEA and non-EEA OECD countries, by counterparty and agreement type

	Counterparty is non-EEA OECD			Counterparty is non-EEA non-OECD			Counterparty is EEA		
	Provider (1)	Peer (2)	Customer (3)	Provider (4)	Peer (5)	Customer (6)	Provider (7)	Peer (8)	Customer (9)
$POST_e \times EEA$	-12.06 (7.84)	-2.76 (2.19)	-11.99 (7.83)	-0.03 (0.10)	-0.32 (0.20)	-0.10*** (0.04)	0.77 (0.59)	-0.53 (0.97)	0.84 (0.64)
$POST_a \times EEA$	-19.2 (14.51)	-1.68 (2.59)	-18.94 (14.51)	-0.19** (0.08)	-0.57 (0.49)	-0.114*** (0.04)	0.29 (0.75)	-0.31 (1.50)	0.587 (0.67)
Group dummies	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months	ctry pairs months
Clusters	473	418	473	6,751	6,751	6,751	1,376	880	1,376
$R^2$	0.999	0.987	0.999	0.878	0.840	0.954	0.993	0.971	0.993
Observations	25,542	22,572	25,542	364,554	364,554	364,554	74,304	47,520	74,304

Notes: The dependent variable is  $numProvAg_{ijt}$  for columns (1), (4), (7),  $numPeerAg_{ijt}$  for columns (2), (5), (8), and  $numCustAg_{ijt}$  for columns (3), (6), (9). The dependent variables are rectangularized as described in Table 2 and we add one when we take the log to account for zero values.  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR was approved. Columns (1), (2), (3) include observations when the treatment/control party is a network owned by an EEA/non-EEA OECD country and is the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Columns (4), (5), (6) include observations when the treatment/control party is a network owned by an EEA/non-EEA OECD country. Columns (7), (8), (9) include observations when the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Columns (7), (8), (9) include observations when the treatment/control party is a network owned by an EEA/non-EEA OECD country and is the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by an EEA country. All regressions include month dummies and country pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.

Table C3: The GDPR’s impact on the number of IP-address-level interconnection points per agreement by EEA and non-EEA OECD countries, by counterparty

	Non-EEA OECD (1)	Non-EEA Non-OECD (2)	EEA (3)
$POST_e \times EEA$	2.281 (2.326)	9.393 (8.956)	-1.734 (2.650)
Group dummies	network pairs	network pairs	network pairs
Time dummies	weeks	weeks	weeks
Clusters	128	522	307
$R^2$	0.640	0.701	0.742
Observations	2,593,805	494,374	1,886,031

Notes: The dependent variable is  $numAgIP_{ijt}$ .  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if the observation is made after the GDPR was approved. Column (1) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Column (2) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Column (3) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA or non-EEA OECD country and the counterparty is a network owned by an EEA country. Only agreements present for at least 150 weeks are used. The GDPR approval date Apr 2016 is close to the sample starting date Dec 2015, so  $POST_a \times EEA$  is not included in the regressions. All regressions include week dummies and network pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.

Table C4: The GDPR's impact on additional outcomes

	$numAgNtwrk_{kt}$	$numNtwrk_{it}$	$NtwrkCustCone_{kt}$
	(1)	(2)	(3)
$POST_e \times EEA$	0.039 (0.183)	-94.84 (91.45)	0.017 (0.754)
$POST_a \times EEA$	0.167 (0.264)	-111.70 (105.1)	1.479 (0.995)
Group dummies	networks	countries	networks
Time dummies	months	quarters	months
Clusters	43	43	43
$R^2$	0.963	0.998	0.978
Observations	1,275,236	1,275,236	1,275,236

Notes: The dependent variables are noted in column headers. Only observations from networks or countries in the EEA or OECD and present throughout Jan 2015 – June 2019 are used for regressions. All regressions include time dummies and group dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country of ownership of network. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.

## C.2 First Differences

Table C5: The GDPR's impact on the number of agreements by EEA countries, by counterparty

	Non-EEA OECD (1)	Non-EEA Non-OECD (2)	EEA (3)
$POST_e$	-0.001 (0.002)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.002 (0.001)
$POST_a$	-0.002* (0.001)	-0.000* (0.000)	-0.003** (0.001)
Group dummies	country pairs	country pairs	country pairs
Clusters	418	6,751	880
$R^2$	0.007	0.008	0.006
Observations	18,656	266,272	27,984

Notes: The dependent variable is  $\log(\text{numAg}_{ijt} + 1) - \log(\text{numAg}_{ij,t-1} + 1)$ . The variable  $\text{numAg}_{ijt}$  is rectangularized as described in Table 2 and we add one when we take the log to account for zero values.  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  is after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  is after the GDPR was approved. Column (1) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Column (2) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Column (3) includes observations when one party is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by an EEA country. All regressions include country pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \* 10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\* 1% level.

Table C6: The GDPR's impact on the number of agreements by EEA countries, by counterparty and agreement type

	Counterparty is non-EEA OECD			Counterparty is non-EEA non-OECD			Counterparty is EEA		
	Provider (1)	Peer (2)	Customer (3)	Provider (4)	Peer (5)	Customer (6)	Provider (7)	Peer (8)	Customer (9)
$POST_e$	-0.002 (0.001)	0.001 (0.002)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.001)	-0.003** (0.001)	-0.000 (0.001)
$POST_a$	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)	-0.000* (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.000 (0.000)	-0.001* (0.001)	-0.006*** (0.001)	-0.001 (0.001)
Group dummies	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs	ctry pairs
Clusters	473	418	473	6,751	6,751	6,751	1,376	880	1,376
$R^2$	0.007	0.007	0.009	0.006	0.007	0.005	0.007	0.004	0.007
Observations	18,656	18,656	18,656	266,272	266,272	266,272	54,272	27,984	54,272

Notes: The dependent variable is  $\log(\text{numProvAg}_{ij,t} + 1) - \log(\text{numProvAg}_{ij,t-1} + 1)$  for columns (1), (4), (7),  $\log(\text{numPeerAg}_{ij,t} + 1) - \log(\text{numPeerAg}_{ij,t-1} + 1)$  for columns (2), (5), (8), and  $\log(\text{numCustAg}_{ij,t} + 1) - \log(\text{numCustAg}_{ij,t-1} + 1)$  for columns (3), (6), (9). The dependent variables are rectangularized as described in Table 2 and we add one when we take the log to account for zero values.  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  is after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  after the GDPR was approved. Columns (1), (2), (3) include observations when the treatment party is a network owned by an EEA and is the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Columns (4), (5), (6) include observations when the treatment party is a network owned by an EEA and is the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Columns (7), (8), (9) include observations when the treatment party is a network owned by an EEA and is the provider, peer, or customer to the counterparty network owned by an EEA country. All regressions include country pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \* 10% level, \*\* 5% level, \*\*\* 1% level.

Table C7: The GDPR’s impact on the number of IP-address-level interconnection points per agreement by EEA countries, by counterparty

	Non-EEA OECD (1)	Non-EEA Non-OECD (2)	EEA (3)
$POST_e$	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.004** (0.002)	-0.002*** (0.000)
Group dummies	network pairs	network pairs	network pairs
Clusters	128	522	307
$R^2$	0.012	0.017	0.010
Observations	2,205,760	1,344,324	3,487,571

Notes: The dependent variable is  $\log(\text{numAgIP}_{ijt} + 1) - \log(\text{numAgIP}_{ij,t-1} + 1)$ .  $POST_e$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  is after the GDPR became effective.  $POST_a$  is an indicator variable equal to 1 if time  $t$  after the GDPR was approved. Column (1) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA OECD country. Column (2) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by a non-EEA non-OECD country. Column (3) includes observations when one party of the agreement is a network owned by an EEA and the counterparty is a network owned by an EEA country. Only agreements present for at least 150 weeks are used. The GDPR approval date Apr 2016 is close to the sample starting date Dec 2015, so  $POST_a$  is not included in the regressions. All regressions include network pair dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country pair. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.

Table C8: The GDPR's impact on additional outcomes

	<i>numAgNtwrk<sub>kt</sub></i>	<i>numNtwrk<sub>it</sub></i>	<i>NtwrkCustCone<sub>kt</sub></i>
	(1)	(2)	(3)
<i>POST<sub>e</sub></i>	−0.001*** (0.000)	−0.001 (0.002)	−0.001*** (0.000)
<i>POST<sub>a</sub></i>	−0.003*** (0.000)	−0.005** (0.002)	−0.001*** (0.000)
Group dummies	networks	countries	networks
Clusters	43	43	43
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	0.007	0.218	0.008
Observations	451,316	510	451,316

Notes: The dependent variables are the first differences in the logged outcomes noted in column headers. Only observations from networks or countries in the EEA and present throughout Jan 2015 – June 2019 are used for regressions. All regressions include group dummies. All regressions cluster standard error by country of ownership of network. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significantly different from 0 in a two-tailed test at the \*10% level, \*\*5% level, \*\*\*1% level.