



**Shifting terrain:
“Standards, Protocols, Ecosystem”
Report on a round-table discussion**

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Shifting terrain: “Standards, Protocols, Ecosystem”

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Workshop participants

Open Future and the critical infrastructure lab co-organised a round-table discussion on “*Standards, Protocols, Ecosystem*.”. The discussion took place in Amsterdam and online on the 20th of June, 2023. This report is an attempt to share lessons learned in the spirit of “learning in the open.”

The following people contributed to the round-table discussion. We are particularly grateful to the people providing introductory remarks for the specific sessions: Ian Brown, Mallory Knodel, Amandine Le Pape, and Michael Veale.

- ◆ Alberto Cerda Silva (Ford Foundation)
- ◆ Allison Price (New America Foundation)
- ◆ Amandine Le Pape (Matrix)
- ◆ Andreas Baur (Amsterdam Institute for Social Science Research, International Centre for Ethics in the Sciences and Humanities)
- ◆ Bertrand De La Chapelle (The Datasphere Initiatives)
- ◆ Clement Perarnaud (Centre for European Policy Studies)
- ◆ Corinne Cath (critical infrastructure lab)
- ◆ Dietrich Ayala (Protocol Labs)
- ◆ Ian Brown (Fundação Getulio Vargas)
- ◆ Jan Penfrat (European Digital Rights)
- ◆ Jordan Usdan (Microsoft)
- ◆ Julian Ringhof (European Council on Foreign Relations)
- ◆ Liv Kittel (Spitfire Strategies)
- ◆ Maarit Palovirta
(European Telecommunications Network Operators’ Association)
- ◆ Mallory Knodel (Center for Democracy and Technology)
- ◆ Mathilde Sanders (University of Utrecht / PubHubs)
- ◆ Michael Brennan (Ford Foundation)
- ◆ Michael Veale (University College London)
- ◆ Niels ten Oever (critical infrastructure lab)
- ◆ Pamela Gil-Salas (Umeå University)
- ◆ Paul Keller (Open Future)
- ◆ Robin Berjon (Protocol Labs)
- ◆ Ross Creelman
(European Telecommunications Network Operators’ Association)
- ◆ Sivan Pätsch (Open Forum Europe)
- ◆ Surana Aditi (University of Edinburgh)

Introduction

**a policy program that can
serve as a long-term
reference point**

Today's world-wide web is powered by the original open web protocols, overlaid with proprietary platforms that often place private interests over public interest. This has an adverse impact on trust, competition, and democratic values. Ford Foundation, New America's Digital Impact and Governance Initiative, and Microsoft – the leading organisations in the Missing Layers collaborative – have described this condition as the case of missing layers of a digital ecosystem that is people-centric, functions as a digital commons, and is enabled by open protocols.¹

The Missing Layers collaborative aims to “develop an actionable vision for digital technology to counter present harms and chart a path towards a jointly designed and shared digital infrastructure that can enable a democratic technology ecosystem.” The group has identified four areas where this vision of open protocols combined with public interest governance could be applied: data sharing, communication, identity control, and payments.

The collaborative focuses on governance, understood as a combination of government regulation, participatory processes, and competitive innovation. One of its goals is to seek designs based on the principle of openness, which balances innovation with the protection of fundamental values.

The round-table on “Protocols, standards, ecosystems” was organised by Open Future and the critical infrastructure lab as part of a process to develop the Missing Layers framework. We were interested in contributing to the Missing Layers conversation from the perspective of European public interest advocates. Our goal was to take into account the specific European context, where regulation of digital ecosystems increasingly secures some of these public interest goals.

We strived to explore how the principles of sovereignty and interoperability can be secured through protocol governance and how the two principles interact. What kind of sovereign powers and forms of interoperability do we need? And how does the governance of protocols and standards interplay with legislative measures?

Through this conversation, we also aimed to identify areas where the vision of a democratic technology ecosystem can be brought to life. We want to identify principles and elements of a policy program that can serve as a

long-term reference point for public interest advocacy and European policymakers. ○

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- 01** See the blog post about Missing Layers on the Ford Foundation website here: <https://www.fordfoundation.org/work/learning/learning-reflections/reconceiving-the-missing-layers-of-the-internet-for-a-more-just-future/>↵

Protocols and power

infrastructural ideologies as a strategically deployed set of narratives and metaphors

Infrastructural ideologies and network paradigms

The critical infrastructure lab published a draft report to discuss at the event,⁰² introducing a framework to study protocols, standards, and governance. The framework defines three network paradigms that describe how power is exercised differently through differently engineered and governed networks. The three network paradigms are the Internet (“open internetworking”), GSM (“cellular mobility”) and 5G (“smart networks”).

Potential users of these networks need to be enrolled as *actual* users of the networks. The framework defines infrastructural ideologies as a strategically deployed set of narratives and metaphors,⁰³ engineering principles and material constraints,⁰⁴ as well as governance structures⁰⁵ and political-economic incentives. All these very different constituents of infrastructural ideologies are deployed to legitimise the network as a rational solution and justify users’ reliance on it. In order to do so, infrastructural ideologies highlight some aspects of the network functions in order to leave other aspects out of the limelight. The infrastructural ideology gives users good reason to be users, that is to say, to subject themselves to the regime of power encoded in the infrastructure by occupying the subject positions that it defines. A successful infrastructural ideology leads to wide adoption and popularity with users while at the same time serving the vested interests of its instigators.

02 <https://www.criticalinfralab.net/uploads/2023/07/missingreport.pdf>↵

03 More precisely referred to as “sociotechnical imaginaries” in Science and Technology Studies.↵

04 The so-called “infrastructural effects”.↵

05 For example, the standards bodies and their standardisation processes.↵

Sovereignty and interoperability

Sovereignty is traditionally defined as the ultimate authority over a territory circumscribed by borders and the subjects that are attached to that territory.

⁶ On the one hand, there is a long-standing link between the concept of sovereignty and the military control of land. On the other hand, sovereignty is exercised over subjects to the sovereign power. All in all, sovereignty today usually refers to the relationship between the modern state, its territory, and its citizenship.

Modern political and legal theory uses the concept of sovereignty to explain why states can define laws and to be in some sense above the law themselves. While sovereignty is the manifestation of human freedom on Earth, it is also what allows states to control their citizens. Sovereignty is the basis of international relations where nation states face each other nominally as equal (ultimate) powers:

Sovereignty is a hypothetical trade in which two potentially (or really) conflicting sides, respecting de facto realities of power, exchange such recognitions as their least costly strategy. (Wallerstein 1991, 44)

Standards and protocols organise space and time to produce subject positions. Users of the protocol occupy these subject positions, either intentionally or unintentionally. When they do so, they fall under the regime of power defined by the operation of a protocol stack. Protocols for authentication have the infrastructural effect of transforming the user into a subject of a sovereign entity. From this vantage point, interoperability becomes a question of power.

**interoperability is the
capacity of technologies to
work together**

Interoperability is the property of technologies that allows them to work together so that we can plug any electric appliance into an electric wall socket, and the plug would fit. The question of interoperability is even more crucial for communication protocols that connect systems. In such a case, any one system is as useful as it is capable of being interoperable with another system. Standards are responsible for ensuring interoperability in technologies, and protocols are specific to communication.

Interoperability is thus a way to extend the reach and scope of a protocol stack throughout the infrastructure, enrolling users into its regime of power. It also creates means for negotiating the entanglements of power between different sovereignties. Even though interoperability allows interconnection in communication protocols, the real question is on whose terms interconnection happens. At various points in history, the United States and European nation-states were in a position to define the terms of interconnection as they introduced the network paradigm of open internetworking and cellular mobility. At this historical moment, the

burning question of the day is whether China's bid to do the same with the 5G protocols stack could work and with what consequences. ○

06 Following German political theorist Carl Schmitt, a prominent member of the Nazi party.↵

Identity

Case studies of identity protocols

Two case studies were presented at the round table, applying the proposed framework to contrast two authentication protocols: OpenID and Aadhaar. These protocols represent very different approaches to digital identity, from their problem definitions to their threat models. What we learn from comparing them is that a digital identity protocol is as useful and powerful as the sovereignty that is backing it up.

OpenID: is a weak identity protocol by design, targeting a global market of digital services. It allows a user to log in to a web service using credentials registered with another web service. Thus, users can choose their identity providers based on trust and convenience. They can use that identity to access interoperable services without registering with them separately.

The key OpenID players in terms of the standardisation process and the adoption of the protocols are drawn from the ranks of US Silicon Valley capital, including the famous digital platform monopolies (GAFAM – Google, Amazon, Facebook, Microsoft). Philosopher of technology Benjamin Bratton (2015) claims that these companies acquired some aspects of sovereignty that are comparable to nation-states. Bratton's provocative idea was that corporations, not just nation-states, can be sovereign. The idea gained traction in the last few years, when governments subjected these companies to increased scrutiny and regulation in the EU, the US, and elsewhere.⁷

a digital identity protocol is as useful and powerful as the sovereignty that is backing it up

Rather than any perceived issue with content moderation, democratic oversight, procedural transparency, market competition, user data, surveillance practices, and privacy policies, the possibility of regulation was opened by a different change. Nation states recognised these companies as one of their own: as fledgling sovereign entities operating within their territory. According to this interpretation, states started regulating platforms because they saw them as challengers to their exclusive powers, e.g. their sovereignty.

The ideological catch of OpenID is similar to the promise of the open web. While any capable actor can participate in the market of identity provision, only big players are in the position to take advantage of being identity providers. Small players can choose whether to join as interoperable parties that accept OpenID logins, which effectively enrolls them and their users in the regime of identity established by US capital. As a result, OpenID

adoption steadily fell, reverting to an ecosystem where APIs provided by the same monopolies have taken over its place.

Aadhaar: is a strong identity protocol by design, targeting people in India. It is backed up by the state and only used within its territory so that the sovereignty in question here is the traditional sovereignty of a nation state. This is in obvious contrast with OpenID, which targets a global market of web services with platform providers as the sole actors.

Aadhaar is tied to materiality and the land in various ways. As a proof of residence, it established its subject as dwelling in the geographical territory of India and subject to its laws. Citizens' biometric data, such as retina scans and fingerprints, tie this technical and legal identity to the properties of their physical bodies. The identity is issued as a physical card in addition to database entries and API access. SIM cards can be connected to the Aadhaar identity as additional networked physical tokens identifying the user.

Aadhaar, as a strong identity protocol, can be used for a variety of purposes beyond authenticating with web services. As critiques have pointed out, the identity protocol acts as a gatekeeper for access to state subsidies, health care, bank loans, and everyday purchases, ultimately allowing or constraining the exercise of civil and consumer rights. The power of the protocol to establish interoperability between public and private service provision has itself been the target of controversies.

These examples warrant observations about the interaction of sovereignty and identity. Such reflections are especially pertinent in light of the initiative to establish a European digital identity (eIDAS). In particular, the European idea is to separate a “trusted and secure e-ID”⁰⁸ from a future “digital euro” as a “complement to cash.”⁰⁹ The approach is designed to avoid both the weak identity of OpenID that only works with web services and the over-powerful identity of Aadhaar that crosses the line between commercial markets and public services.

⁰⁷ Notably, they have been tightly regulated in China since they entered that market, which has been precisely the reason for their exit from that market, creating the opportunity for national champions to take their place.↵

⁰⁸ <https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/library/trusted-and-secure-european-e-id-regulation>↵

⁰⁹ https://finance.ec.europa.eu/digital-finance/digital-euro_en↵

civil society actors should follow the process of eIDAS and the Digital Euro

Still, interoperability will be a key concern given the limited administrative integration and extensive sovereign powers of European nation-states. As with other recent innovative European digital policies such as Gaia-X and the AI Act, certification for compliance and interoperability will play a major role. Digital rights advocates and civil society actors should follow the process of eIDAS and the digital euro closely and take clues from the experience of previous identity protocols in interventions to safeguard the public interest.

Structure and agency in standards bodies

The framework shows a neat picture of sovereign actors projecting their power through the development, implementation and deployment of standards and protocols, even whole network paradigms, which are adopted by users who subject themselves to the power of these sovereigns because they are convinced by their infrastructural ideologies.

The real process is much more complex, laden with historical contingencies, path dependencies, and the haphazard agency of engineers as deeply situated actors with quite some distance from the sovereign powers these standards and protocols are supposed to serve. It would be too simple to assume that participants in standards bodies are fully conscious of the larger interests they serve or even that they can fully predict the consequences of their technical choices. These twists and turns have been extensively documented by historians of technology (Abbate 1999; Hillebrand 2001; Russell 2014).

The power of ideology is to define common sense

On the Internet side, participants of the process saw protocol design mainly as a struggle against material agency, e.g. getting things to work. The mandate and funding for the initiative has been provided by government funding through the Defence Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), soon renamed simply to Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA), reflecting a US doctrine of demilitarising innovation at the end of the Cold War. Such an atmosphere provided much intellectual freedom to participants, who disposed rather freely of their ample funding and made liberal use of the strong research environment. A case in point is that many Requests for Comments (RFC) that defined the actual protocols have been written and/or implemented by graduate students. It is entirely plausible that they were largely unaware of or unconcerned about the geopolitical power struggles in which establishing a new network paradigm would strengthen US hegemony and secure access to a global market.

Attributing an infrastructural ideology to the network paradigm of the Internet may sound like its designers carried out a pre-formulated plan to dupe the world. However, ideology does not work through individual consciousness, intentionality, or agency. Most engineers who worked on the development, implementation, and deployment of early Internet protocols were as much under the influence of its infrastructural ideology as their users in the subsequent decades. The power of ideology is to define common sense, rationality, and the public interest in a way that the ensuing consequences serve partial interests.¹⁰ That the individual historical actors

in standards bodies are experiencing their contributions and their difficulties as spontaneous, contingent, and practical is nothing else but the very proof of the successful performance of an ideology.

The idea of the market is a case in point. The market plays an important role in US common sense about the public interest, such as in providing consumers a free choice for exercising their purchasing powers and innovators a medium to offer products and services to those consumers. In such a capacity, the market is a key component in the ideology of the American Dream, a trope familiar to citizens and would-be citizens of the country.¹¹ While this is not a very original argument, it may account for the reason why US engineers working on the early Internet may find it common sense to design protocols that distribute power in the manner of markets.

10 Corinne Cath, a participant in the round-table and fellow of the critical infrastructure laboratory, diagnoses the same point about the ideology of patriarchy at work in standards bodies (2023). In her case study of the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) — the epitome of an open process — it is clear that it is not attendees' evil intentions, or preconceived plans, that prevent women's participation in standardisation on equal grounds to men. On the contrary, it is exactly that participants spontaneously follow what they take as a common sense approach to valuation and behaviour in the IETF, whose consequences are nonetheless detrimental to women's contributions.↵

11 And due to the cultural imperialist strategy of the US, to an increasingly global audience as well.↵

US capital was in a position to take advantage of the global reach of the online open market

But what happens after an ideology is inscribed in a protocol stack and that protocol stack is canonised as a global network paradigm? Like the question of individual agency, the cause-effect relationship between protocol design and the projection of political power across borders is an elusive one. There are good reasons to believe that open protocols and the open process of standardisation served US interests, market expansion, and geopolitical ambitions in the 1990s. On the one hand, the US government held reigns in the world of Internet Governance, with the US Chamber of Commerce owning the root zone file in which every top-level domain is recorded.¹² On the other hand, US capital was in a position to take advantage of the global reach of the online open market and the permissionless innovation enabled by the End-to-End principle enshrined in TCP/IP. These material conditions cemented US hegemony to some degree but also created ideological contradictions and path dependencies.

Ideological contradictions meant that the US came under fierce criticism from its partners and enemies for advertising the doctrine of openness and collaboration in the development and governance of the Internet, while keeping control of the most obvious choke point within its underlying infrastructure. The US gave up its hold on the DNS root zone file on the 1st October 2016. Around the same time, East Asian multinational corporations began to appear as viable competitors to US platform monopolies in the lucrative market of online services.¹³ The infrastructural ideology of open internetworking and the protocol design of the TCP/IP stack meant that the US state and capital could do little to halt their advance. Both US incepted material conditions and governance institutions now played to the advantage of foreign actors. Once the terms of interconnection have been set in the context of a network paradigm, the US could do as much to turn them around as Victor Frankenstein to control the Creature. ○

¹² The last part of web addresses such as .net or .nl.↵

¹³ Prominent examples are the Alibaba online marketplace, Sina Weibo social media platform, and the super-app WeChat.↵

the accessibility that Apple marketed proved to be more substantial than the promises of the free software movement

Structure and agency in user adoption

In this round-table discussion, we look at power and agency from the point of view of standards and protocols, interoperability, and sovereignty. An assumption that comes with the topic is that the grammars defined by standards and protocols for interoperable machine-to-machine communication are as much instruments of power as the software interfaces running on the application layer and the content delivered by the network to end users. By focusing on low-level technological solutions and their governance mechanisms, we are privileging a bottom-up view of the protocol stack and the social relations it enables and instigates.

Overemphasising the role of the underlying *infrastructures* and their infrastructural effects, such as interoperability, may lead to losing sight of the real driver behind changes in the ecosystem of protocols and standards: user adoption. Our discussion is far removed from the perspective of end users who encounter infrastructural assemblages in the situated context of their life-worlds while they focus their attention on getting mundane things done. When they do, their technological choices are rarely motivated by an evaluation of governance mechanisms or even technical suitability. Availability, reliability, and convenience drive user adoption.

The example of Apple's experience design is a case in point. The free software movement has long been evangelising the adoption of user-controlled technologies for political, aesthetic, and practical reasons. In doing so, the free software movement often stood in for the public interest, articulating how technology in the service of users should work. While hackers have been waiting for the Year of the Linux Desktop¹⁴ that never comes, Apple championed a vision of technology that is simple and functional.

The point is that for most end users, the accessibility that Apple marketed proved to be more substantial than the promises of the free software movement. Apple focused its offering on the surface layer of the stack because that is where end users make their choices. The free software movement lost out because it has put the bulk of its efforts into improving the underlying infrastructure-level technologies rather than the associated user interfaces.

The moral of the story is that the popularity and, by extension, the power of protocols largely depends on which user interfaces and user-facing services choose to integrate them. ○¹⁵

¹⁴ Ironically, a subcultural reference to the historical tipping point marking the mass adoption of the GNU/Linux operating system by end users on their personal computers.↵

¹⁵ Cf. the discussion on user agents at the end of the "Challenges to open standard setting" section.↵

Interoperability

Interoperability is a principle that gets constantly repeated in discussions about a more democratic internet. It is described as one that secures the goals of market competition but also brings greater innovation in services and a chance for more society-centric solutions. In Europe, a range of interoperability mandates was or is in the process of being introduced - making it possible to discuss how state regulation enables the creation of interoperable ecosystems.

Interoperability mandates are an enabling force

There are signs that online ecosystems are shifting back to decentralised solutions after a period of centralisation around the major platforms. And while interoperability is often mentioned as an essential principle, it is hard to imagine Big Tech creating interoperable solutions independently. Amandine Le Pape presented a case study of the Matrix protocol as a successful implementation of messaging interoperability. Le Pape demonstrated how regulation can enable market change if coupled with sufficient capacity to implement alternative, interoperable solutions.

**state regulation that is the
real enabler of interoperable
messaging**

Matrix is an open standard for secure, decentralised communication that aims to create an open communication layer on the web, to break communication silos. The messaging networks built on this protocol have 100 million individual users - many through governments or enterprises that adopted the standard. Matrix was created in 2014, and observed significant growth whenever dominant communication networks have been failing to meet user expectations - such as when changes were made to WhatsApp's privacy policies.

Yet, it is state regulation that is the real enabler of interoperable messaging. Matrix is expected to further grow when the Digital Market Act's interoperability requirements go into force, at the start of 2024. The act requires large online platforms and corporations to make their messaging services interoperable. The new law has legitimised the approach taken by Matrix. The protocol and services built on top of it prove at the same time that interoperable, decentralised messaging is possible.

Regulation cannot force anyone to use interoperable services - they are an enabler for work done by creators of services that are alternatives to the dominant ones. There also need to be actors - businesses or non-profits - that are able to create these interoperable services. More broadly, this is a question of whether there are sufficient capacities and skills to benefit from interoperability - for example, whether public institutions have adequate technical expertise to deploy alternative solutions instead of simply accepting the offer of the Big Tech companies. Attention also needs to be

paid to the design of interfaces - as these have a cultural role determining the adoption of services. Today, Big Tech wields social and cultural power by excelling in the design of interfaces.

Regulatory action can also have spillover effects - the introduction of the DMA has raised the interest of standards bodies. For example, IETF has a working group on the interoperability of messaging services.

Interoperability helps market innovation and sovereignty of users

interoperability measures also serve to support sovereignty

Interoperability is often discussed solely in terms of market competition. Yet it is a generative principle that can lead to broader shifts in online ecosystems. Interoperability is interesting as it makes dominant services contestable by creating new markets. It allows alternatives to be created and for users to put pressure on services - since there is always the risk of them switching to other services in an interoperable space.

In his introductory remarks, Ian Brown presented The Open Banking provisions, introduced in the UK, and argued that they are a good example of the impact of interoperability measures. Open Banking has been enforced by the UK Competition and Markets Authority, which forced the nine largest banks to agree on a series of APIs that allow competitors to access data held by these banks based on the consent of individual customers. While the regulation has not made the banking sector much more competitive, it greatly impacted innovation and helped introduce a broad range of new financial services.

Interoperability measures also serve to support sovereignty. In the case of public institutions using Matrix-based services, the rationale for adopting Matrix is mainly to control their own communication infrastructure. Similarly, at individual level, choice can also translate to decisions about having more control over one's own communications and data.

Next steps for European interoperability policies

While the attention of stakeholders has focused on the interoperable messaging mandate, the DMA includes other, specific interoperability obligations for large online platforms - these include rules for virtual assistants or browser search engines. Further, the upcoming Data Act will introduce broad rules for data portability. These will apply to Internet of Things services and voice assistants, which will be required to ensure data portability, allowing users to move their data and change services that they are using. The Data Act will also introduce interoperability of cloud services.

We expect European policymakers to pursue interoperability measures further. As a rule, such measures make less sense for new types of services, for spaces of technological development that are still quickly changing. For this reason, messaging - where the core functionalities are now clearly defined and shared by many services on the market - was a good regulation choice.

Standardisation is a crucial factor that determines the success of interoperability measures. In the case of Open Banking, banks were forced to agree to technical standards. In the case of the DMA, the proposal to give the European Commission power to nominate technical standards did not pass. Gatekeepers will come up with their own standards, and there needs to be stronger mechanisms in place to ensure that they secure real interoperability. ○

Standards

**civil society often lacks the -
primarily technical expertise
- needed to participate in
standardisation debates**

Standards as an increasingly important mode of governance of technology

In the 1970s, the European Commission faced the challenge of regulating increasingly complex technological systems. And since it could not define the regulation in detail, it decided to delegate this task to European standardisation bodies. Michael Veale used this example to show how standards created by private standardization bodies were formally speaking optional - but in practice, companies complied to avoid risks related to the interpretation of the law itself.

Standard-setting is often framed as a technical activity conducted away from the political debates taking place in legislative processes. Yet this is not true, and technical standards impact societies - especially when technical systems are increasingly enmeshed with social systems.

The case of the European AI Act and the growing role of standardisation

The European Commission has introduced this regulatory model into the Artificial Intelligence Act, which is the first digital regulation to depend so much on standards as regulatory means. And as a result, matters related to fundamental rights have been delegated to standardisation bodies. In principle, standardisation is meant to ensure the regulation of high-risk AI applications in spheres such as health, education, policing or critical infrastructure. Yet the standardisation bodies lack the sectoral expertise and, as a result, are drafting standards that look the same across these spheres and do not take into account their specificity. There also are limits to creating public interest, society-centric rules through technical standards.

The AI Act process also shows challenges related to the participation of civil society in the standardisation work. Traditionally, public interest advocates have focused their attention on the legislative process. And they are largely missing from the standardisation bodies, which have already started work on the standards in parallel with the legislative work. In addition, civil society often lacks the - largely technical - expertise needed to participate in standardisation debates.

This participatory challenge could be solved by engaging public standards bodies in the process. These bodies provide greater procedural legitimacy and ensure openness of the standards themselves - as those created by private standardisation bodies are often proprietary and therefore also expensive, thus limiting their accessibility. Yet public standardisation bodies will face the same challenges with participation: only some actors will have the capacity to engage in the process and to give

it legitimacy. Mallory Knodel, in her talk, gave an overview of the key bodies and proposed a strategy for conducting advocacy work in these fora.

the standardisation bodies, and their four functions

Four private standardisation bodies are relevant for standard setting in relation to the internet and related technologies: the World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) does mainly web standardisation, IEEE focuses on hardware standards, Internet Engineering Task Force (together with the Internet Research Task Force and the Internet Architecture Board) deals with standardisation of the layers of the internet that W3C or IETF does not address.

the deliberation on principles is well visible in the IETF's work on AI standards

Here is also the ITU, the oldest international body that is part of the UN. And while it has been attempting to play a role in internet standardisation, this approach has received a lot of push-backs.

Private standardisation bodies do four things: they make standards, they deal with the governance of standard making, they deliberate on principled (as a form of long-term thinking), and they conduct cross-cutting research work and knowledge building.

The deliberation on principles is visible in the IETF's work on AI standards. The Task Force published a document outlining the principles for human rights-focused AI development - and this framing resulted from the successful advocacy of a small group of civil society actors. Alternatives were proposed, aimed at watering down these principles - which ultimately directly impacted standardisation processes.

Structures for participatory standard setting

The composition of the different bodies determines to what extent their process is participatory and structures the possibility of civil society engagement in these processes. Both W3C and IEEE are membership-driven. The ITU stands out because it is heavily state-driven. In the last case, the ITU has been doing important work on enabling broader access, primarily through its Development Sector.

Of all these four bodies, the IETF is the most open in document sharing and participation in the drafting process. For public interest advocates, this openness concerns not just the standardisation process but also the other elements: work on governance and principles. It is easier for civil society to create its own space within the standardisation process. The Public Interest Technology Group at the IETF is an effort to create such space, with an impact upon IETF that goes beyond just standards, governance or principles - and the group takes advantage of the fact that IETF is an open forum.

Efforts to make the IETF process more participatory don't necessarily concern standard setting. Important work is being done through talks and interventions, providing IETF participants with new perspectives on technology. Similarly, the Global access to the internet for all research group has been established with a similar approach in mind - to shape the broader mindset of IETF stakeholders.

the issue of incentives to participation is one of the key challenges for standards bodies

Challenges to open standard setting

Fora like the IETF also create space for corporate advocacy. Often, a company that is developing a certain technology enters a standards body, and as a result, the research and development phase becomes more open. Comments made by stakeholder groups are made public, and legitimised through the IETF process, possibly creating pressure on the company.

One key challenge for standards bodies is incentives that lead stakeholders to participate. The dominant reason today is market domination: parties enter these processes with the hope that a standard will be designed to enable the given company to dominate the market. While these incentives work, they do not necessarily serve the public interest. Also, standards bodies lack mechanisms for arbitrating opposing interests of stakeholders.

While the bodies pay a lot of attention to internal governance, they, in turn, dismiss the issue of external governance: how they interact with other organisations, or how standards interact with regulation. W3C, if we see it as an international commons regulator, could be better at figuring out its connections with other relevant organisations and governance fora.

Standardisation work of W3C is contingent on the openness of user agents. Even with open protocols and ensured interoperability, the ecosystem can be captured by dominating the user agent market. And standardisation bodies lack means of impacting this market. One solution to this would be introducing a fiduciary regime for user agents, which would define legal obligations for taking actions in the user's interest. Dealing with this kind of issue requires bridging gaps between standards bodies and other governance and regulatory bodies. ○

Action points

The round-table discussion was an opportunity to assess the shifting policy terrain and possible strategies for intervention. We highlight three points to consider for policy advocates here:

1. **Standards bodies** are delegated an increasing role in European policymaking as standards and certification are instrumentalised in regulation in competition and trade, as well as values and norms. The implementation of the AI Act is a case in point. Policy advocacy that traditionally targeted policymaking and legislative processes must shift towards standards to influence outcomes.
2. **Telecommunication companies** attempt to diversify their role in digital services by providing access to data and compute provision. The introduction of smart networks such as 5G is a case in point, as well as the identification of citizens and consumers through mobile phones and SIM cards. Digital rights activists who traditionally focus on the Internet alone should consider widening their focus and perspectives to telecommunications.
3. The **European Parliament elections** will result in a *new European Commission* to be set up, shifting the balance of power and changing who is in charge of relevant portfolios.

Standards bodies are delegated an increasing role in European policy making

In the short term, the *Digital Markets Act*, *AI Act*, *Data Act*, *European Digital Identity (eIDAS)* and the *digital euro* processes have been mentioned in the workshop as legislative processes that are especially relevant to the public interest in the ecosystem of standards and protocols.

The key take-away from European developments, such as the work on AI standards, is that *interoperability regulations work*, and highlight the role of sovereign powers in shaping digital ecosystems. European policy has knock-on effects and spillover to other regions through leading by example, the entanglement of industrial processes, research and development, as well as markets. Centering people and the planet through shifting power to the public interest can increasingly happen through standards development, governance and policy with the input of a strategically aware civil society. ○

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