# Wiki Doc Neg

## 1NC

### 1NC – States CP

#### The 50 states, territories, and DC should increase prohibitions on private sector anticompetitive business practices that substantially reduce bargaining power of workers in labor markets.

### 1NC – Trade DA

#### **Antitrust expansion opens the floodgates of protectionism – that ends free trade**

Murray 19 [Allison Murray, Loyola Law, Judicial Law Clerk for U.S. Bankruptcy Courts. Edited by Loyola Law Professor David Kesselman and the ILR team of editors and staff. “Given Today’s New Wave of Protectionism, is Antitrust Law the Last Hope for Preserving a Free Global Economy or Another Nail in Free Trade’s Coffin?” 2/28/2019. https://digitalcommons.lmu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1785&context=ilr]

Although a system of truly free world trade has never been perfected, past world leaders have eliminated most of the protectionist trade mechanisms that once ran rampant in the international economy. They did so by implementing multilateral and bilateral trade agreements. These webs of agreements have bolstered decades of support for free trade, or at least some version of it. By and large, tariff policies and other forms of protectionism were either eliminated or dramatically reduced. Now, as we have seen in the media, when a government imposes a tariff, it becomes a rather extreme political statement which sends a shockwave of significant global consequences.

Protectionism did not end when the age of overbearing tariff policies did, despite then-leaders’ best efforts to vilify it. Rather, the end of the tariff era forced nations to achieve protectionist goals through more subtle trade vehicles, like antitrust law.3 So, the recent resurgence of protectionist rhetoric should mean that these subtle trade vehicles, including antitrust law, will be relied on more heavily. It is a fear of many that antitrust law may become overused and inequitably applied to achieve and combat protectionist aims.

Notwithstanding the recent uptick in tariff threats, it is unlikely that all Western leaders will revamp or terminate the trade agreements set forth by their predecessors and bring back the kinds of tariff policies that once existed in their place. Although in the United States (“U.S.”), President Trump recently imposed tariffs on steel imports, it appears that his intent is to limit this behavior to a specific industry rather than institute a widespread policy favoring the use of tariffs generally.4 To remedy bad behavior in a specialized set of industries is not to instigate a global paradigm shift. This purpose is underscored by his use of the national security exemption, which is largely interpreted as being used for individual situations rather than general policy schemes.5 Many still hope that his course of action will be retracted and is merely a strong negotiation tactic. However, there is no doubt that Trump is far more comfortable than past leaders with subverting the status quo on trade relations.

Trump is not the only high-profile leader flirting with staunch protectionism. Western leaders in the E.U. appear to be growing more comfortable than their predecessors with considering similar policies. However, Western lawmakers themselves do not seem as persuaded by the statements of their leadership. The general sentiment among international policymakers is that there has been too much political wherewithal spent on loosening international trade barriers to take actions that could counteract that progress.6 Presidential actions taken because of dissatisfaction with current global trade relations aside, a complete overhaul of trade agreements may be too daunting and difficult a task, especially absent ample political support in legislative bodies.

Given the anticipated continuation of cooperative trade agreements and the proliferation of protectionist rhetoric as the new norm of public opinion, leaders will be forced to rely on existing avenues to meet protectionist aims. Again, we find ourselves relying squarely on antitrust law, the more subtle and widely accepted mechanism of restricting trade, to address perceived inequities. In the words of the World Trade Organization (“WTO”), “once formal trade barriers come down, other issues become more important.”7 Among the important issues lies antitrust law. Antitrust and competition laws can form a subtle trade barrier resulting in the imposition of tariff-like measures.

Antitrust law can be enforced to reach protectionist aims and to combat them. It is a tool that allows nations to achieve individual protectionist aims without undermining the future of trade between countries and the cooperative framework underpinning the relatively delicate global free trade enjoyed today. However, the perception of enforcement of antitrust laws as an abusive and solely protectionist mechanism may cause the death of even the smallest semblance of international free trade that remains in the international marketplace today.

#### Nuke war

Oppenheimer 21 [Dr. Michael F. Oppenheimer, Clinical Professor at the Center for Global Affairs at New York University, Senior Consulting Fellow for Scenario Planning at the International Institute for Strategic Studies, Former Executive Vice President at The Futures Group, Member of the Council on Foreign Relations, The Foreign Policy Roundtable at the Carnegie Council on Ethics and International Affairs, and The American Council on Germany, “The Turbulent Future of International Relations”, in The Future of Global Affairs: Managing Discontinuity, Disruption and Destruction, Ed. Ankersen and Sidhu, p. 23-30]

Four structural forces will shape the future of International Relations: globalization (but without liberal rules, institutions, and leadership)1; multipolarity (the end of American hegemony and wider distribution of power among states and non-states2); the strengthening of distinctive, national and subnational identities, as persistent cultural differences are accentuated by the disruptive effects of Western style globalization (what Samuel Huntington called the “non-westernization of IR”3); and secular economic stagnation, a product of longer term global decline in birth rates combined with aging populations.4 These structural forces do not determine everything. Environmental events, global health challenges, internal political developments, policy mistakes, technology breakthroughs or failures, will intersect with structure to define our future. But these four structural forces will impact the way states behave, in the capacity of great powers to manage their differences, and to act collectively to settle, rather than exploit, the inevitable shocks of the next decade.

Some of these structural forces could be managed to promote prosperity and avoid war. Multipolarity (inherently more prone to conflict than other configurations of power, given coordination problems)5 plus globalization can work in a world of prosperity, convergent values, and effective conflict management. The Congress of Vienna system achieved relative peace in Europe over a hundred-year period through informal cooperation among multiple states sharing a fear of populist revolution. It ended decisively in 1914. Contemporary neoliberal institutionalists, such as John Ikenberry, accept multipolarity as our likely future, but are confident that globalization with liberal characteristics can be sustained without American hegemony, arguing that liberal values and practices have been fully accepted by states, global institutions, and private actors as imperative for growth and political legitimacy.6 Divergent values plus multipolarity can work, though at significantly lower levels of economic growth-in an autarchic world of isolated units, a world envisioned by the advocates of decoupling, including the current American president. 7 Divergent values plus globalization can be managed by hegemonic power, exemplified by the decade of the 1990s, when the Washington Consensus, imposed by American leverage exerted through the IMF and other U.S. dominated institutions, overrode national differences, but with real costs to those states undergoing “structural adjustment programs,”8 and ultimately at the cost of global growth, as states—especially in Asia—increased their savings to self insure against future financial crises.9

But all four forces operating simultaneously will produce a future of increasing internal polarization and cross border conflict, diminished economic growth and poverty alleviation, weakened global institutions and norms of behavior, and reduced collective capacity to confront emerging challenges of global warming, accelerating technology change, nuclear weapons innovation and proliferation. As in any effective scenario, this future is clearly visible to any keen observer. We have only to abolish wishful thinking and believe our own eyes.10

Secular Stagnation

This unbrave new world has been emerging for some time, as US power has declined relative to other states, especially China, global liberalism has failed to deliver on its promises, and totalitarian capitalism has proven effective in leveraging globalization for economic growth and political legitimacy while exploiting technology and the state’s coercive powers to maintain internal political control. But this new era was jumpstarted by the world financial crisis of 2007, which revealed the bankruptcy of unregulated market capitalism, weakened faith in US leadership, exacerbated economic deprivation and inequality around the world, ignited growing populism, and undermined international liberal institutions. The skewed distribution of wealth experienced in most developed countries, politically tolerated in periods of growth, became intolerable as growth rates declined. A combination of aging populations, accelerating technology, and global populism/nationalism promises to make this growth decline very difficult to reverse. What Larry Summers and other international political economists have come to call “secular stagnation” increases the likelihood that illiberal globalization, multipolarity, and rising nationalism will define our future. Summers11 has argued that the world is entering a long period of diminishing economic growth. He suggests that secular stagnation “may be the defining macroeconomic challenge of our times.” Julius Probst, in his recent assessment of Summers’ ideas, explains:

…rich countries are ageing as birth rates decline and people live longer. This has pushed down real interest rates because investors think these trends will mean they will make lower returns from investing in future, making them more willing to accept a lower return on government debt as a result.

Other factors that make investors similarly pessimistic include rising global inequality and the slowdown in productivity growth…

This decline in real interest rates matters because economists believe that to overcome an economic downturn, a central bank must drive down the real interest rate to a certain level to encourage more spending and investment… Because real interest rates are so low, Summers and his supporters believe that the rate required to reach full employment is so far into negative territory that it is effectively impossible.

…in the long run, more immigration might be a vital part of curing secular stagnation. Summers also heavily prescribes increased government spending, arguing that it might actually be more prudent than cutting back – especially if the money is spent on infrastructure, education and research and development.

Of course, governments in Europe and the US are instead trying to shut their doors to migrants. And austerity policies have taken their toll on infrastructure and public research. This looks set to ensure that the next recession will be particularly nasty when it comes… Unless governments change course radically, we could be in for a sobering period ahead.12

The rise of nationalism/populism is both cause and effect of this economic outlook. Lower growth will make every aspect of the liberal order more difficult to resuscitate post-Trump. Domestic politics will become more polarized and dysfunctional, as competition for diminishing resources intensifies. International collaboration, ad hoc or through institutions, will become politically toxic. Protectionism, in its multiple forms, will make economic recovery from “secular stagnation” a heavy lift, and the liberal hegemonic leadership and strong institutions that limited the damage of previous downturns, will be unavailable. A clear demonstration of this negative feedback loop is the economic damage being inflicted on the world by Trump’s trade war with China, which— despite the so-called phase one agreement—has predictably escalated from negotiating tactic to imbedded reality, with no end in sight. In a world already suffering from inadequate investment, the uncertainties generated by this confrontation will further curb the investments essential for future growth. Another demonstration of the intersection of structural forces is how populist-motivated controls on immigration (always a weakness in the hyper-globalization narrative) deprives developed countries of Summers’ recommended policy response to secular stagnation, which in a more open world would be a win-win for rich and poor countries alike, increasing wage rates and remittance revenues for the developing countries, replenishing the labor supply for rich countries experiencing low birth rates.

Illiberal Globalization

Economic weakness and rising nationalism (along with multipolarity) will not end globalization, but will profoundly alter its character and greatly reduce its economic and political benefits. Liberal global institutions, under American hegemony, have served multiple purposes, enabling states to improve the quality of international relations and more fully satisfy the needs of their citizens, and provide companies with the legal and institutional stability necessary to manage the inherent risks of global investment. But under present and future conditions these institutions will become the battlegrounds—and the victims—of geopolitical competition. The Trump Administration’s frontal attack on multilateralism is but the final nail in the coffin of the Bretton Woods system in trade and finance, which has been in slow but accelerating decline since the end of the Cold War. Future American leadership may embrace renewed collaboration in global trade and finance, macroeconomic management, environmental sustainability and the like, but repairing the damage requires the heroic assumption that America’s own identity has not been fundamentally altered by the Trump era (four years or eight matters here), and by the internal and global forces that enabled his rise. The fact will remain that a sizeable portion of the American electorate, and a monolithically pro- Trump Republican Party, is committed to an illiberal future. And even if the effects are transitory, the causes of weakening global collaboration are structural, not subject to the efforts of some hypothetical future US liberal leadership. It is clear that the US has lost respect among its rivals, and trust among its allies. While its economic and military capacity is still greatly superior to all others, its political dysfunction has diminished its ability to convert this wealth into effective power.13 It will furthermore operate in a future system of diffusing material power, diverging economic and political governance approaches, and rising nationalism. Trump has promoted these forces, but did not invent them, and future US Administrations will struggle to cope with them.

What will illiberal globalization look like? Consider recent events. The instruments of globalization have been weaponized by strong states in pursuit of their geopolitical objectives. This has turned the liberal argument on behalf of globalization on its head. Instead of interdependence as an unstoppable force pushing states toward collaboration and convergence around market-friendly domestic policies, states are exploiting interdependence to inflict harm on their adversaries, and even on their allies. The increasing interaction across national boundaries that globalization entails, now produces not harmonization and cooperation, but friction and escalating trade and investment disputes.14 The Trump Administration is in the lead here, but it is not alone. Trade and investment friction with China is the most obvious and damaging example, precipitated by China’s long failure to conform to the World Trade Organization (WTO) principles, now escalated by President Trump into a trade and currency war disturbingly reminiscent of the 1930s that Bretton Woods was designed to prevent. Financial sanctions against Iran, in violation of US obligations in the Joint Comprehensive Plan Of Action (JCPOA), is another example of the rule of law succumbing to geopolitical competition. Though more mercantilist in intent than geopolitical, US tariffs on steel and aluminum, and their threatened use in automotives, aimed at the EU, Canada, and Japan,15 are equally destructive of the liberal system and of future economic growth, imposed as they are by the author of that system, and will spread to others. And indeed, Japan has used export controls in its escalating conflict with South Korea16 (as did China in imposing controls on rare earth,17 and as the US has done as part of its trade war with China). Inward foreign direct investment restrictions are spreading. The vitality of the WTO is being sapped by its inability to complete the Doha Round, by the proliferation of bilateral and regional agreements, and now by the Trump Administration’s hold on appointments to WTO judicial panels. It should not surprise anyone if, during a second term, Trump formally withdrew the US from the WTO. At a minimum it will become a “dead letter regime.”18

As such measures gain traction, it will become clear to states—and to companies—that a global trading system more responsive to raw power than to law entails escalating risk and diminishing benefits. This will be the end of economic globalization, and its many benefits, as we know it. It represents nothing less than the subordination of economic globalization, a system which many thought obeyed its own logic, to an international politics of zero-sum power competition among multiple actors with divergent interests and values. The costs will be significant: Bloomberg Economics estimates that the cost in lost US GDP in 2019- dollar terms from the trade war with China has reached $134 billion to date and will rise to a total of $316 billion by the end of 2020.19 Economically, the just-in-time, maximally efficient world of global supply chains, driving down costs, incentivizing innovation, spreading investment, integrating new countries and populations into the global system, is being Balkanized. Bilateral and regional deals are proliferating, while global, nondiscriminatory trade agreements are at an end.

Economies of scale will shrink, incentivizing less investment, increasing costs and prices, compromising growth, marginalizing countries whose growth and poverty reduction depended on participation in global supply chains. A world already suffering from excess savings (in the corporate sector, among mostly Asian countries) will respond to heightened risk and uncertainty with further retrenchment. The problem is perfectly captured by Tim Boyle, CEO of Columbia Sportswear, whose supply chain runs through China, reacting to yet another ratcheting up of US tariffs on Chinese imports, most recently on consumer goods:

We move stuff around to take advantage of inexpensive labor. That’s why we’re in Bangladesh. That’s why we’re looking at Africa. We’re putting investment capital to work, to get a return for our shareholders. So, when we make a wager on investment, this is not Vegas. We have to have a reasonable expectation we can get a return. That’s predicated on the rule of law: where can we expect the laws to be enforced, and for the foreseeable future, the rules will be in place? That’s what America used to be.20

The international political effects will be equally damaging. The four structural forces act on each other to produce the more dangerous, less prosperous world projected here. Illiberal globalization represents geopolitical conflict by (at first) physically non-kinetic means. It arises from intensifying competition among powerful states with divergent interests and identities, but in its effects drives down growth and fuels increased nationalism/populism, which further contributes to conflict. Twenty-first-century protectionism represents bottom-up forces arising from economic disruption. But it is also a top-down phenomenon, representing a strategic effort by political leadership to reduce the constraints of interdependence on freedom of geopolitical action, in effect a precursor and enabler of war. This is the disturbing hypothesis of Daniel Drezner, argued in an important May 2019 piece in Reason, titled “Will Today’s Global Trade Wars Lead to World War Three,”21 which examines the pre- World War I period of heightened trade conflict, its contribution to the disaster that followed, and its parallels to the present:

Before the First World War started, powers great and small took a variety of steps to thwart the globalization of the 19th century. Each of these steps made it easier for the key combatants to conceive of a general war. We are beginning to see a similar approach to the globalization of the 21st century. One by one, the economic constraints on military aggression are eroding. And too many have forgotten—or never knew—how this played out a century ago.

…In many ways, 19th century globalization was a victim of its own success. Reduced tariffs and transport costs flooded Europe with inexpensive grains from Russia and the United States. The incomes of landowners in these countries suffered a serious hit, and the Long Depression that ran from 1873 until 1896 generated pressure on European governments to protect against cheap imports.

…The primary lesson to draw from the years before 1914 is not that economic interdependence was a weak constraint on military conflict. It is that, even in a globalized economy, governments can take protectionist actions to reduce their interdependence in anticipation of future wars. In retrospect, the 30 years of tariff hikes, trade wars, and currency conflicts that preceded 1914 were harbingers of the devastation to come. European governments did not necessarily want to ignite a war among the great powers. By reducing their interdependence, however, they made that option conceivable.

…the backlash to globalization that preceded the Great War seems to be reprised in the current moment. Indeed, there are ways in which the current moment is scarier than the pre-1914 era. Back then, the world’s hegemon, the United Kingdom, acted as a brake on economic closure. In 2019, the United States is the protectionist with its foot on the accelerator. The constraints of Sino-American interdependence—what economist Larry Summers once called “the financial balance of terror”—no longer look so binding. And there are far too many hot spots—the Korean peninsula, the South China Sea, Taiwan—where the kindling seems awfully dry.

### 1NC – Adv CP

#### The United States federal government should

* Institute a wealth tax and redistribution wealth program
* Establish a Guaranteed Basic Income program
* increase its investment in infrastructure development, creating an infrastructure bank
* establish a national innovation policy, to oversee procurement reform, incentives for research and development, and workforce training
* Pass the Consumer Protection and Recovery Act
* Pass a resolution affirming its trust in the FTC
* Sustain current levels of funding for the FTC

#### Infrastructure solves inequality

Lee 10 (Oct. 11, Jessie, Director of Progressive Media and Online Response, “The President on Infrastructure Investment: "This is Work That Needs to Be Done. There Are Workers Who Are Ready to Do It."”, The White House, <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/blog/2010/10/11/president-infrastructure-investment-work-needs-be-done-there-are-workers-who-are-rea>) MFE

During tough economic times, one of the toughest jobs to hold is as a construction worker. In almost any city or town in America, you're likely to see buildings, projects, or roads left half-done after investments made by private enterprise or state and local governments based on expectations of a brighter economic future dried up. Meanwhile, there is a near-universal consensus that America's infrastructure is both falling apart and lagging behind as our competitors move forward on the next generation of transportation. That's part of why a new report from the Council of Economic Advisers and the Treasury Department (pdf) encourages a bold new plan to invest, finding that infrastructure projects have a high bang for the buck because construction costs are low due to underutilized resources, and that these investments would create jobs in sectors of the economy suffering from some of the highest levels of unemployment. The Recovery Act already created hundreds of thousands of jobs this way, but there is more than enough left to do. President Obama Holds a Meeting on Infrastructure President Barack Obama holds a meeting with Cabinet secretaries, former secretaries of Transportation and mayors and governors on infrastructure investment in the State Dining Room of the White House, October 11, 2010. (Official White House Photo by Pete Souza) After meeting with some of his Cabinet secretaries, along with a bipartisan group of former secretaries of Transportation, mayors and governors who have come together in support of infrastructure investment, the President spoke both on the depth of the problem and value of the solution. On the problem: For years, we have deferred tough decisions, and today, our aging system of highways and byways, air routes and rail lines hinder our economic growth. Today, the average American household is forced to spend more on transportation each year than food. Our roads, clogged with traffic, cost us $80 billion a year in lost productivity and wasted fuel. Our airports, choked with passengers, cost nearly $10 billion a year in productivity losses from flight delays. And in some cases, our crumbling infrastructure costs American lives. It should not take another collapsing bridge or failing levee to shock us into action. So we’re already paying for our failure to act. And what’s more, the longer our infrastructure erodes, the deeper our competitive edge erodes. Other nations understand this. They are going all-in. Today, as a percentage of GDP, we invest less than half of what Russia does in their infrastructure, less than one-third of what Western Europe does. Right now, China’s building hundreds of thousands of miles of new roads. Over the next 10 years, it plans to build dozens of new airports. Over the next 20, it could build as many as 170 new mass transit systems. Everywhere else, they’re thinking big. They’re creating jobs today, but they’re also playing to win tomorrow. So the bottom line is our shortsightedness has come due. We can no longer afford to sit still. On the solution: By investing in these projects, we’ve already created hundreds of thousands of jobs. But the fact remains that nearly one in five construction workers is still unemployed and needs a job. And that makes absolutely no sense at a time when there is so much of America that needs rebuilding. So that’s why, last month, I announced a new plan for upgrading America’s roads, rails and runways for the long-term. Over the next six years, we will rebuild 150,000 miles of our roads -- enough to circle the world six times. We will lay and maintain 4,000 miles of our railways -- enough to stretch from coast to coast. And we will restore 150 miles of runways and advance a next generation air-traffic control system that reduces delays for the American people. This plan will be fully paid for. It will not add to our deficit over time. And we are going to work with Congress to see to that. It will establish an infrastructure bank to leverage federal dollars and focus on the smartest investments. We want to cut waste and bureaucracy by consolidating and collapsing more than 100 different, often duplicative programs. And it will change the way Washington works by reforming the federal government’s patchwork approach of funding and maintaining our infrastructure. We’ve got to focus less on wasteful earmarks, outdated formulas. We’ve got to focus more on competition and innovation; less on shortsighted political priorities, and more on our national economic priorities. So investing in our infrastructure is something that members of both political parties have always supported. It’s something that groups ranging from the Chamber of Commerce to the AFL-CIO support today. And by making these investments across the country, we won’t just make our economy run better over the long haul -- we will create good, middle-class jobs right now.

#### Passing Consumer Protection and Recovery Act solves trust. Consumer protection’s a massive alt cause to trust—as is resource loss! Aff only makes things worse—cal’s yellow.

Testimony of Ted Mermin 21. Executive Director Center for Consumer Law & Economic Justice UC Berkeley School of Law. Before the United States House of Representatives Committee on Energy & Commerce Subcommittee on Consumer Protection and Commerce Hearing on “The Consumer Protection and Recovery Act: Returning Money to Defrauded Consumers”. https://docs.house.gov/meetings/IF/IF17/20210427/112501/HHRG-117-IF17-Wstate-MerminT-20210427.pdf

10. Trust the FTC. This final step informs all the others. There can be no doubt that there is more work to do protecting consumers than the FTC currently has the tools or resources to accomplish. There is also no doubt that the FTC has been trammeled in ways that its sister agencies, federal and state, have not. Whatever the reason, it is high time to retire the “zombie ideas” about the FTC – that the Commission is unnecessary, or overreaching, or heavy-handed, or inefficient.23 It is time, as one commissioner stated in Senate testimony last week, to “turn the page on the FTC’s perceived powerlessness.”24

For an American public eager for greater – not lesser – protection from increasingly sophisticated scam artists, deceptive advertisers, and privacy violating tech companies, building an effective FTC is an easy decision. It can and should be for this committee as well.

IV. Conclusion

This subcommittee meets at a remarkable historical moment, when the COVID-19 pandemic has revealed the profound need for a robust Federal Trade Commission just days after the Supreme Court made action by Congress an absolute necessity. This is a perilous time, with the chief protector of American consumers rendered nearly powerless just when those consumers are experiencing a heightened threat resulting from a once-in-a-century pandemic. The Consumer Protection and Recovery Act provides a critical first step toward restoring authority and effectiveness to the nation’s leading consumer protection agency.

Swift action to restore the FTC’s traditional 13(b) authority means that when constituents contact your office, and tell your staff that they have lost their life’s savings to a work-at-home scam, or their identity has been stolen and someone has opened accounts in their name, or they just spent their stimulus payment on a supposed cure for COVID for their grandmother who’s on a respirator – there will still be an agency to refer them to. No one wants that staffer to have to add: “Well, we could send you to the FTC, but they don’t actually have the power to get you your money back.”

Inaction or delay will mean no recovery for millions of wronged American consumers. The time to pass the Consumer Protection and Recovery Act is now.

#### Wealth tax solves inequality

BBC 4/7 [BBC News, "Tax wealth to help shrink inequality caused by Covid says IMF", 4/7/21, https://www.bbc.com/news/business-56665505]

Governments should consider raising taxes on the wealthy to help pay for the cost of Covid, the International Monetary Fund says.

It suggested a temporary increase in taxes on wealth or high incomes could help tackle inequalities that have widened due to the crisis.

In its fiscal report, it added the move would help the worst affected by the pandemic feel a sense of cohesion.

But the organisation urged governments to "carefully assess trade-offs".

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) pointed to the reform of current policies on inheritance taxes or property, for example, before turning to wealth taxes.

"To help meet pandemic-related financing needs, policymakers could consider a temporary Covid-19 recovery contribution, levied on high incomes or wealth," the report said.

"To accumulate the resources needed to improve access to basic services, enhance safety nets, and reinvigorate efforts to achieve the sustainable development goals, domestic and international tax reforms are necessary, especially as the recovery gains momentum," it said.

A wealth tax typically targets the assets owned by taxpayers, such as property or investments. Its use has declined in recent decades.

#### Guaranteed Income solves inequality

Holder 21 [Sarah Holder and Brentin Mock, "What a National Guaranteed Income Could Look Like", 7/8/21, https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2021-07-08/what-a-national-guaranteed-income-could-look-like]

Researchers behind the Guaranteed Income for the 21st Century proposal estimate that it could elevate the nearly 14 million U.S. households who lived in poverty before the pandemic above the federal poverty line. It claims even more profound effects on Black households, which are disproportionately represented under the poverty line.

“We know that poverty is not race-neutral. We know that employment interactions are not race-neutral,” said Hamilton. By structuring the tax to benefit those with the fewest resources, it “will have heroic effects on addressing some racial inequities,” he said. “We know that there are dramatically disproportionate shares of Black and white people in poverty, particularly Black children. So what this does is say, well, we're going to eliminate it in its entirety.”

A negative income tax has been proposed in the past, most famously by conservative economist Milton Friedman during the Nixon administration. “A negative income tax has always been something supported by both sides of the political spectrum,” said William Lee, the chief economist for the Milken Institute. “The way it’s often proposed that gets the broadest support is to say we need a complete replacement of the existing benefits program in the U.S. with a basic minimum level of income.”

That’s where this proposal diverges from past iterations: It wouldn’t be a replacement of other elements of the social safety net, or an answer to calls for reparations or universal health insurance. Instead, it would flip the existing tax code — which is designed for “poverty maintenance, rather than income mobility, or income maintenance, rather than income mobility,” Hamilton says. Because the plan is linked to the median income of the country, indexing such support structurally would mean that “in perpetuity, we are trending families towards the middle class.”

#### National policy restarts innovation and solves slow growth without market disruption.

Sadat ’20 [Mir; November 22; former Policy Director leading interagency coordination on defense and space policy issues, including at the Department of Defense and National Security Council, Ph.D. from Claremont Graduate University; The Hill, “Why innovation is so important to America's global leadership,” <https://thehill.com/opinion/technology/526535-why-innovation-is-so-important-to-americas-global-leadership>]

The U.S. government must mitigate the harm to America’s innovation base. So far, the government has yet to craft a national innovation policy and stand up a true national innovation council to modernize government; coordinate between the government, industry and academia; transform monopolistic or oligopolistic markets into competitive sectors; and ensure that America regains global economic leadership through foreign partnerships. Reform of American innovation is necessary for several reasons.

First, to harness the untapped potential of exponential technologies, the government must democratize its requirements processes that have advantaged legacy systems and traditional technology providers. The government must evolve its industrial age procurement policies, practices and beneficiaries to the digital age by placing innovation at the core of its activities. The innovation base needs public and private investment capital, scaled to the risk and importance of the invention, to level the playing field for startups and scale-ups, and to increase competitiveness. In short, the government must increase funding and incentives for Apollo-scale research and development (R&D) programs.

Second, to create exponential technologies in an era of unprecedented disruption, America’s workforce requires continuous training and education. The “lone innovator” is a myth because every American invention is a mix of persistence, genius, teamwork, business model and resource management. The government must establish whole-of-nation policies that stimulate world-class innovators in the areas of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM); support nationwide STEM access and diversity; promote R&D and economic growth in technologically underserved areas using economic opportunity zones; and improve mentorship programs for underrepresented persons.

Third, individual innovators and their teams are challenged to achieve successful outcomes because of the high costs and risks, the uncertainty and gaps in funding, and the vicissitudes of the market’s readiness. America’s innovators are strewn across the federal enterprise, the national security establishment, state and local governments, startups and established corporations, universities and research institutions, and other consortiums. Innovators must collaborate by leveraging innovation multipliers such as diversity of effort, thought and demographics.

Fourth, if rules-based, free-market innovation is to compete economically and demonstrate American leadership, then the government must create and enhance opportunities for innovators to compete in international markets and garner global funding. Innovation is the global competition that transcends borders. We must be the first to disrupt our markets, rather than others who could render particular industries potentially obsolete.

### 1NC – EU CP

#### The European Commission should

* prohibit private sector anticompetitive business practices that substantially reduce bargaining power of workers in labor markets
* prevent companies that violate the rule extraterritorially from accessing the EU market

#### The Brussels effect solves certainty and ensures spillover, but unilateralism is key to maintain influence

Bradford 12 [Anu, International Trade Law Professor @ Columbia Law School, Adam S. Chilton, Professor @ University of Chicago Law School, Katerina Linos, Professor @ University of California, Berkeley. Alex Weaver, Linklaters Law Prof. “The Brussels Effect” p. 44-45 https://scholarship.law.columbia.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1275&context=faculty\_scholarship]

The strictest antitrust laws prevail in situations where conflict exists among different regulators. If lenient antitrust jurisdiction A and stringent antitrust jurisdiction B investigate the same transaction, B's standard will prevail. A company seeking to merge that would be rejected by State B has two options: abandon the merger or abandon State B. If State B's market is relatively insignificant, the company might choose the latter. However, if State B's market is large, abandoning it is not often a realistic option.74 At the international level, the EU antitrust laws are, indeed, often the most stringent." The EU also consists of a consumer market that is too large and important to abandon. For this reason, the EU antitrust laws have often become the de facto global antitrust standards, to which the more permissive U.S. antitrust laws must yield.76 The reasons for the U.S.-EU difference in antitrust enforcement are manifold. At the most basic level, the EU antitrust authorities remain suspicious of the market's ability to deliver efficient outcomes and are therefore more inclined to intervene through a regulatory process." While the EU is more fearful of the harmful effects of nonintervention (so called "false negatives," anti-competitive practices that the EU fails to regulate), the U.S. authorities are often more mindful of the detrimental effects of inefficient intervention (so called "false positives," pro-competitive practices that the United States erroneously restricts)." Yet given the logic of unilateral regulatory globalization, it is the EU approach that determines the outcome. One of the most famous examples of the EU's global regulatory clout was its decision to prohibit the $42 billion proposed acquisition of Honeywell International by General Electric." When the EU blocked this transaction involving two U.S. companies, it was irrelevant that the U.S. antitrust authorities had previously cleared the transaction: the acquisition was banned worldwide because it was legally impossible to let the merger proceed in one market and prohibit it in another. In this sense, merger decisions are legally nondivisible.so The GE/Honeywell case is emblematic 20 107:1 (2012) The Brussels Effect of a difference in the antitrust regulatory approaches of the EU and the United States. The U.S. authorities considered the merger to be efficient and hence welfare enhancing. In contrast, the EU was concerned that any efficiencies that resulted from the transaction, including a short-term decrease in price, would later drive out competitors and result in a longterm increase in price." While GE/Honeywell is the most famous international antitrust enforcement conflict, it does not stand alone.82 The EU similarly threatened to block a merger between two U.S. companies, Boeing and McDonnell Douglas, even though the deal was already cleared by the U.S. authorities without conditions." In the end, the EU let the merger proceed subject to extensive commitments.84 These included abandoning Boeing's exclusive dealing contracts with various U.S. carriers." Similarly, the EU often gets to dictate the code of conduct for dominant companies worldwide. For example, the EU has imposed record-high fines and behavioral remedies against dominant U.S. companies, including Microsoft and Intel. 6 The global nature of antitrust remedies is not unusual. The EU has frequently extracted commitments that require parties to modify their behavior globally or restructure assets in foreign countries." However, the United States has similarly restructured deals where parties' productive assets are located offshore. Both the U.S. and EU agencies are vested with 21 NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY LAW REVIEW extraterritorial regulatory capacity." Both recognize their authority to apply laws to foreign companies as long as anticompetitive "effects" are felt on their markets. It is thus not the regulatory capacity as such but the EU's sustained preference to impose more frequent and more invasive remedies that has made it the world's de facto antitrust enforcer. In some respect, however, the EU Commission has an even greater regulatory capacity than its U.S. counterparts: the Commission is empowered to prohibit mergers and impose behavioral and structural remedies without first obtaining a court judgment." Administrative delegation does not reach this far in the United States, where the agencies need federal court endorsement to enjoin a merger.90

### 1NC – Biz Con DA

#### Corporate optimism will drive self-sustaining recovery.

Van der Welle ’21 [Peter; July 7; Strategist within the Global Macro team, M.A. in Economics from Tilburg University; Robeco, “How capex holds the key to a self-sustaining economic recovery,” <https://www.robeco.com/latam/en/insights/2021/07/how-capex-holds-the-key-to-a-self-sustaining-economic-recovery.html>]

Title:

How capex holds the key to a self-sustaining economic recovery.

Capital expenditure to fix supply shortages and meet burgeoning demand is seen figuring strongly in the post-Covid recovery.

[Author and summary omitted].

Companies are expected to invest heavily in new equipment and capacity as they seek to meet the pent-up demand released from economic reopening.

“The world is emerging from the pandemic, and much of the focus has been on the release of huge pent-up demand for goods and services that have been inaccessible for much of the past year,” says Peter Van der Welle, strategist with Robeco’s multi-asset team.

“But there is a bigger issue regarding the ability of companies to supply these goods and services, due to the supply side constraints that have emerged through economic reopening. We believe this is powering a resurgence in capital expenditure by companies, and those which are investing in new equipment to meet greater demand will be the more sought after stocks.”

Capex intentions

Van der Welle says this trend can already be seen in the US Federal Reserve’s Capex Intentions Index, which shows that steep year-on-year increases in capital expenditures are planned.

“So, that's promising for a near-term rebound in the capex cycle,” he says. “The market has already picked up on that theme because you can see a clear outperformance of capex-intensive stocks compared to the broader market year to date.”

Fiscal dominance

Van der Welle says five elements support the multi-asset team’s view that capex will rise from here onwards. “The first is the overarching macroeconomic picture in that we are increasingly moving towards an environment of fiscal dominance and away from one that has been monetary-led via quantitative easing,” he says.

“Central banks have pursued very easy monetary policies, but they have hit the nominal lower bounds with regard to policy rates.”

“This is a hard constraint because real rates are difficult for central banks to push even lower than they are nowadays, given the strong consensus among both central bankers and market participants that inflation is transitory.”

Big spending plans

For stimulus, fiscal policy is better suited to address the negative supply shock that Covid-19 has posed. Fiscal dominance can be seen in the huge infrastructure spending planned in the US, with the USD 1.9 trillion American Rescue Plan already in motion, and the USD 2 trillion American Jobs Plan going through Congress. In Europe, the disbursement of the EUR 750 billion EU Recovery Fund is due to start later in July.

“An era of fiscal dominance is able to say goodbye to the secular stagnation thesis, which holds that the economy is suffering from under-investment,” says Van der Welle. “Under-investment due to insufficient demand, which was the biggest problem after the global financial crisis, has become less likely.”

“We saw very subdued consumption growth both in the US and elsewhere between 2009 and 2019. That story is reversing in the US. Households’ income has been supported by fiscal policy during the Covid-19 recession, while burgeoning consumer demand in the reopening phase could prove to be more sticky as employment prospects continue to improve in the medium term.”

Tobin’s Q looks good

A third reason to expect higher capex is driven by ‘Tobin’s Q’ – the market value of a company divided by its assets' replacement cost. If this ratio is above one, then corporates have an incentive to invest directly in the underlying assets rather than buying another company at market value to acquire the same assets.

The Tobin’s Q ratio is currently at 1.7 for the US. “So it's very expensive to do M&A, and it is wiser for corporates to invest in the underlying capital goods themselves,” Van der Welle says.

“We should therefore expect a gradual move away from M&A activity towards companies making direct investments in capital goods.”

Supply-side constraints

The fourth element is the severe supply-side constraints seen in the global economy, as capacity shut down during the pandemic.

“This is reflected in the ISM Prices Paid Index, which reached an all-time high in June in reflection of rampant shortages of raw materials and labor,” says Van der Welle.

“Clearly the issue today following the pandemic is not demand related, but supply related. This will also trigger more awareness to push the productivity frontier and incentivize capital expenditure.”

Less reliance on labor

The fifth element is the partial substitution from labor to capital in the US against the backdrop of lingering labor shortages.

“A decline in the labor force participation rate shows that people are not quickly returning to the labor force, as they have been disincentivized by the subsidies and pay checks they have gained from the stimulus plans, and/or structural changes in their work/life balance due to the pandemic,” says Van der Welle.

“When the cost of labor becomes more expensive, substituting labor with capital becomes more attractive for employers. Typically, the inflection point for capex intentions becoming positive is when unit labor costs rise by more than 2% year on year, which is the case today.”

Capex will lengthen the earnings cycle

Regarding earnings, there is a significant relationship between capex intentions and productivity, though the lag from intending to invest to actually getting a realized productivity gain is quite long – up to several years.

Higher capex that eventually brings higher productivity growth will sustain the earnings cycle, Van der Welle says. Higher productivity gives corporates more pricing power because they suppress unit labor costs, and that means profit margins can stay elevated for longer.

#### Changing the legal standards of antitrust spills over to crush otherwise surging growth.

Thierer ’21 [Adam; February 25; Senior Research Fellow with the Mercatus Center at George Mason University; The Hill, “Open-ended antitrust is an innovation killer,” <https://thehill.com/opinion/technology/540391-open-ended-antitrust-is-an-innovation-killer>]

Unfortunately, the calls for more bureaucracy and regulation emanating from all corners of the political world could have an unintended consequence: discouraging the sort of vibrant innovation and consumer choice that made America’s tech companies household names across the globe.

Sen. [Amy Klobuchar](https://thehill.com/people/amy-klobuchar) (D-Minn.) is leading one charge. Klobuchar, who chairs the Judiciary Subcommittee on Antitrust, Competition Policy and Consumer Rights, [recently introduced](https://www.klobuchar.senate.gov/public/_cache/files/e/1/e171ac94-edaf-42bc-95ba-85c985a89200/375AF2AEA4F2AF97FB96DBC6A2A839F9.sil21191.pdf) the “Competition and Antitrust Law Enforcement Reform Act.” This sweeping measure seeks to expand the powers and budgets of antitrust regulators at the Federal Trade Commission and the Department of Justice. It also includes new filing requirements and potentially hefty civil fines.

The most important feature is the proposed change to the legal standard by which regulators approve business deals. It would allow the government to stop any deal that creates an “appreciable risk of materially lessening competition,” and it also defines exclusionary behavior as, “conduct that materially disadvantages one or more actual or potential competitors.”

These may sound like simple, semantic tweaks, but – much like some of the other policy ideas currently circulating – they would upend decades of settled law and create a sea change in U.S. antitrust enforcement. This change could undermine business dynamism, innovation and investment in ways that inhibit the global competitiveness of U.S. businesses.

Critics of merger and acquisition (M&A) activity by large tech firms include not only Sen. Klobuchar but also Republicans such as Sen. [Josh Hawley](https://thehill.com/people/joshua-josh-hawley) (R-Mo.). Hawley recent [offered an amendment](https://www.axios.com/josh-hawley-big-tech-merger-ban-1467081d-216c-45a2-9d09-9416dfbde330.html) to a budget bill that would preemptively prohibit mergers and acquisitions by dominant online firms. Klobuchar and Hawley believe that M&A skews the market in favor of today’s largest firms, entrenching their market power and discouraging innovation.

History teaches a different lesson. Consider DirecTV and Skype, both once considered innovative market leaders in their respective fields of satellite TV and internet telephony. Both firms stumbled, however, and they might not even be with us today without creative business deals. DirecTV has been partially or fully controlled by Hughes Electronics, News Corp., Liberty Media and now AT&T. Skype has swapped hands multiple times, moving from eBay, to a private investment firm and now to Microsoft.

These were complex deals, and some didn’t work, leading to divestitures. But each was a learning experience that illustrated how dynamic media and technology markets can be with firms constantly searching for value-added arrangements that serve their customers and shareholders. If we make this type of activity presumptively illegal, we’re imagining that government bureaucrats are better suited to make these calls than businesspeople and the consumers who choose whether or not to buy the product.

Worse yet, legal tests like those Klobuchar proposes – “conduct that materially disadvantages potential competitors” – are remarkably open-ended and could be easily abused. The system will be gamed by opponents of deals for business reasons. They will claim that their own failure to attract investors or customers must all be the fault of more creative rivals. That’s a recipe for cronyism and economic stagnation.

Those who worry about today’s largest tech giants becoming supposedly unassailable monopolies should consider how similar fears were expressed not so long ago about other tech titans, many of which we laugh about today. Just 14 years ago, headlines [proclaimed](https://www.technewsworld.com/story/55185.html) that “MySpace Is a Natural Monopoly,” and [asked](https://www.theguardian.com/technology/2007/feb/08/business.comment), “Will MySpace Ever Lose Its Monopoly?” We all know how that “monopoly” ceased to exist.

At the same time, pundits [insisted](https://www.marketwatch.com/story/apple-should-pull-the-plug-on-the-iphone) “Apple should pull the plug on the iPhone,” since “there is no likelihood that Apple can be successful in a business this competitive.” The smartphone market of that era was viewed as completely under the control of BlackBerry, Palm, Motorola and Nokia. A few years prior to that, critics lambasted the merger of AOL and TimeWarner as a new [corporate “Big Brother”](http://www.ojr.org/ojr/workplace/1017966109.php?__cf_chl_jschl_tk__=67a5f6a101935b8e3586ca48216d31ba6d4e03de-1612467283-0-AXvbGCtUx-p_N4T-8_2m8OHezQUhQ9kelg9-pVuD6IzKvFfXrllJujU9ERvjqjyIsAeCovUw9bfZqq75_NYasBM87SnQT_027hDJOhjXeowzK1QQH_7vcmr1tS4XgCGC_NNx6UGbAvVgcJNFhSkqkVKKeRJ-BjdDA7Vus-gwmr7wQXcS7KKfTtHyqxdRfureL9alpZHU2IJcbbdYaZpTjTrfcJHCKa8pIZcdiScjaRJmON9X1Ip20Vuv7tyDHbZSvcrn88WrY_9N_qBpKvZhQ4PAe90w5Fx5iHjjNIzoNMKSpToTFGLbPdqawgge9PVubSQbkS7xXDXxCBMA2Sh-Y_U) that would decimate digital diversity and online competition.

Today, we know these tales of the apocalypse ended up instead becoming case studies in the continuing power of “creative destruction.” New innovations and players emerged from many unexpected quarters, decimating whatever dreams of continued domination the old giants once had.

Today’s biggest players face similar pressures, and it’s better to let rivalry and innovation emerge organically, not through the wrecking ball of heavy-handed antitrust regulation.

#### Extinction---recovery caps numerous geopolitical crises.

Baird ’20 [Zoe; October 2020; C.E.O. and President of the Markle Foundation, Member of the Aspen Strategy Group and former Trustee at the Council on Foreign Relations, J.D. and A.B. from the University of California at Berkeley; Domestic and International (Dis)order: A Strategic Response, “Equitable Economic Recovery is a National Security Imperative,” Ch. 13]

A strong and inclusive economy is essential for American national security and global leadership. As the nation seeks to return from a historic economic crisis, the national security community should support an equitable recovery that helps every worker adapt to the seismic shifts underway in our economy.

Broadly shared economic prosperity is a bedrock of America’s economic and political strength—both domestically and in the international arena. A strong and equitable recovery from the economic crisis created by COVID-19 would be a powerful testament to the resilience of the American system and its ability to create prosperity at a time of seismic change and persistent global crisis. Such a recovery could attack the profound economic inequities that have developed over the past several decades. Without bold action to help all workers access good jobs as the economy returns, the United States risks undermining the legitimacy of its institutions and its international standing. The outcome will be a key determinant of America’s national security for years to come.

An equitable recovery requires a national commitment to help all workers obtain good jobs—particularly the two-thirds of adults without a bachelor’s degree and people of color who have been most affected by the crisis and were denied opportunity before it. As the nation engages in a historic debate about how to accelerate economic recovery, ambitious public investment is necessary to put Americans back to work with dignity and opportunity. We need an intentional effort to make sure that the jobs that come back are good jobs with decent wages, benefits, and mobility and to empower workers to access these opportunities in a profoundly changed labor market.

To achieve these goals, American policy makers need to establish job growth strategies that address urgent public needs through major programs in green energy, infrastructure, and health. Alongside these job growth strategies, we need to recognize and develop the talents of workers by creating an adult learning system that meets workers’ needs and develops skills for the digital economy. The national security community must lend its support to this cause. And as it does so, it can bring home the lessons from the advances made in these areas in other countries, particularly our European allies, and consider this a realm of international cooperation and international engagement.

Shared Economic Prosperity Is a National Security Asset

A strong economy is essential to America’s security and diplomatic strategy. Economic strength increases our influence on the global stage, expands markets, and funds a strong and agile military and national defense. Yet it is not enough for America’s economy to be strong for some—prosperity must be broadly shared. Widespread belief in the ability of the American economic system to create economic security and mobility for all—the American Dream— creates credibility and legitimacy for America’s values, governance, and alliances around the world.

After World War II, the United States grew the middle class to historic size and strength. This achievement made America the model of the free world—setting the stage for decades of American political and economic leadership. Domestically, broad participation in the economy is core to the legitimacy of our democracy and the strength of our political institutions. A belief that the economic system works for millions is an important part of creating trust in a democratic government’s ability to meet the needs of the people.

The COVID-19 Crisis Puts Millions of American Workers at Risk

For the last several decades, the American Dream has been on the wane. Opportunity has been increasingly concentrated in the hands of a small share of workers able to access the knowledge economy. Too many Americans, particularly those without four-year degrees, experienced stagnant wages, less stability, and fewer opportunities for advancement.

Since COVID-19 hit, millions have lost their jobs or income and are struggling to meet their basic needs—including food, housing, and medical care.1 The crisis has impacted sectors like hospitality, leisure, and retail, which employ a large share of America’s most economically vulnerable workers, resulting in alarming disparities in unemployment rates along education and racial lines. In August, the unemployment rate for those with a high school degree or less was more than double the rate for those with a bachelor’s degree.2 Black and Hispanic Americans are experiencing disproportionately high unemployment, with the gulf widening as the crisis continues.3

The experience of the Great Recession shows that without intentional effort to drive an inclusive recovery, inequality may get worse: while workers with a high school education or less experienced the majority of job losses, nearly all new jobs went to workers with postsecondary education. Inequalities across racial lines also increased as workers of color worked in the hardest-hit sectors and were slower to recover earnings and income than White workers.4

The Case for an Inclusive Recovery

A recovery that promotes broad economic participation, renewed opportunity, and equity will strengthen American moral and political authority around the world. It will send a strong message about the strength and resilience of democratic government and the American people’s ability to adapt to a changing global economic landscape. An inclusive recovery will reaffirm American leadership as core to the success of our most critical international alliances, which are rooted in the notion of shared destiny and interdependence. For example, NATO, which has been a cornerstone of U.S. foreign policy and a force of global stability for decades, has suffered from American disengagement in recent years. A strong American recovery—coupled with a renewed openness to international collaboration—is core to NATO’s ability to solve shared geopolitical and security challenges. A renewed partnership with our European allies from a position of economic strength will enable us to address global crises such as climate change, global pandemics, and refugees. Together, the United States and Europe can pursue a commitment to investing in workers for shared economic competitiveness, innovation, and long-term prosperity.

The U.S. has unique advantages that give it the tools to emerge from the crisis with tremendous economic strength— including an entrepreneurial spirit and the technological and scientific infrastructure to lead global efforts in developing industries like green energy and biosciences that will shape the international economy for decades to come.

### 1NC – T Per Se

TOPICALITY:

#### ‘Prohibiting’ a practice requires per se illegality.

Lee Mendelsohn 6, Director at Edward Nathan, “KIPA Conduct Amounts to Price Fixing”, Business Day (South Africa), 6/12/2006, Lexis

The first step in any competition law analysis is to define the relevant market. There are two components to an analysis of the relevant market, namely the relevant product market and the geographic market.

The relevant product market consists of those products and services that operate as a competitive constraint on the behaviour of the suppliers of those products and/or services.

The relevant product market is determined by ascertaining whether a small but significant non-transient increase in pricing of the product in question would cause buyers to substitute the product with another product or would cause suppliers of other products to begin producing the product in question.

The relevant geographic market is determined by ascertaining whether a small but significant non-transient increase in pricing of the product in question would cause buyers to purchase the product from other geographic areas, alternatively suppliers of the product in other geographic areas to supply those products into the area in question.

For the purposes of this case study, we are instructed to accept that each medical speciality constitutes a relevant product market and that the relevant geographic market for each of them is Kleindorpie.

The Competition Act provides that "an agreement between, or concerted practice by, firms, or a decision by an association of firms, is prohibited if it is between parties in a horizontal relationship and if … it involves … directly or indirectly fixing a purchase or selling price or any other trading condition".

An "agreement" is defined as including a contract, arrangement or understanding, whether or not legally enforceable. The term agreement is very widely defined. A "horizontal relationship" is defined as a "relationship between competitors".

The prohibition on the fixing of a purchase or selling price or any other trading condition is one of the so-called "per se" prohibitions which are included in our Competition Act. The prohibition is automatic and absolute and the fixing of prices or other trading condition cannot be justified on the basis of any technological, efficiency or other procompetitive gains that could outweigh the potential anticompetitive effect of the fixing of the price or trading condition. If the capitation plan of KIPA falls within the restrictive horizontal practice prohibiting price fixing and the fixing of other trading conditions, such practice will be a contravention of the act.

Limits---many standards, requiring distinct answers, make the topic unmanageable.

Ground---fringe standards dodge links and allow bidirectional permissiveness.

### 1NC – Clog DA

#### Antitrust litigation is uniquely complex and resource-intensive---a spike trades-off with judicial functioning in other areas

Warren 15 [Daniel R. Warren, JD from the Boston University School of Law, BS from Ohio State University, “Stress Fractures: The Need to Stop and Repair the Growing Divide in Circuit Court Application of Summary Judgment in Antitrust Litigation”, Review of Banking and Financial Law, 35 Rev. Banking & Fin. L. 380, Lexis]

A. Summary Judgment Can Cut Short Extreme Costs

Antitrust litigation can involve enormous discovery costs, particularly when antitrust litigation overlaps with class action litigation. Due to the wide scope of many antitrust claims, discovery can implicate a broad range of documents, records, interrogatories, and depositions. In fact, "[s]trategically minded" plaintiffs can take advantage of antitrust law's "onerous discovery costs" by requiring the defendant "to respond to wide-ranging interrogatories, produce documents, and prepare for and defend depositions" with only a "facially plausible allegation" of an antitrust violation. These costs can take a very large toll on both large and small businesses. The legal hours necessary to answer and address discovery challenges can also impose extreme costs.

Plaintiffs can often use discovery costs as a weapon against defendants in antitrust litigation. The Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals stated that "antitrust trials often encompass a great deal of expensive and time consuming discovery and trial work" in explaining that the "very nature" of antitrust litigation should encourage summary judgment. The court's language here supports [\*389] the idea that in antitrust litigation, summary judgment has a special value, greater even than its normal use in other areas of the law. Summary judgment can be used to cut short lengthy litigation where parties have already accrued extreme costs from discovery and one party still cannot produce a genuine issue of material fact.

In antitrust litigation, the value of summary judgment to mitigate discovery costs through shortening litigation is elevated to a special importance even greater than normal for three reasons. First, antitrust litigation normally involves large organizations, which magnifies the costs of those firms going through the discovery process. Large firms have a great number of involved employees and departments, all of which would likely be subject to the broad discovery that is characteristic of antitrust litigation. Summary judgment, though normally considered after discovery, is a procedural weapon available at nearly any point in this process, as "a party may file a motion for summary judgment at any time until 30 days after the close of all discovery." The existence of a stay for extension of discovery shows that summary judgment need not automatically wait for discovery's completion, and thus can be an invaluable safeguard against otherwise incredibly costly discovery. This safeguard allows summary judgment to be a powerful tool to radically lower discovery time and costs without "railroad[ing]" the other party.

Second, antitrust litigation is normally a slow process that takes a great deal of time. The amount of time necessary to process and review evidence produced by discovery leads to incredible legal costs, often disproportionately placed on the defendant firm. The plaintiff has the advantage over the defendant in deciding the scope of discovery costs, and may often tailor its claim in such a way as to avoid the discovery costs that a defendant's counterclaim may reflect [\*390] back on the plaintiff. These lengthy trials can be effectively truncated by summary judgment, and thus summary judgment's normal value is even greater in the world of antitrust litigation where protracted trials are the norm.

Finally, the vast amount of evidence necessary to prove the elements of an antitrust claim contribute to the large discovery costs tied to antitrust litigation by overwhelming judges' ability to reign in discovery costs. Currently, we rely on judges to limit the range of discovery requested, but in the context of antitrust litigation, judges have difficulty dealing with the broad variety of evidence that may be called for. One analysis of the power of discovery described it as a costly and potentially abusive force, and determined judges' abilities to limit discovery costs on their own as "hollow" at best:

A magistrate supervising discovery does not--cannot--know the expected productivity of a given request, because the nature of the requester's claim and the contents of the files (or head) of the adverse party are unknown. Judicial officers cannot measure the costs and benefits to the requester and so cannot isolate impositional requests. Requesters have no reason to disclose their own estimates because they gain from imposing costs on rivals (and may lose from an improvement in accuracy). The portions of the Rules of Civil Procedure calling on judges to trim back excessive demands, therefore, have been, and are doomed to be, hollow. We cannot prevent what we cannot detect; we cannot detect what we cannot define; we cannot define "abusive" discovery except in theory, because in practice we lack essential information. Even in retrospect it is hard to label requests as abusive. How can a judge distinguish a dry hole (common in litigation as well as in the oil business) from a request that was not justified at the time?

[\*391] Summary judgment can also reduce costs to both parties by reducing time and discovery costs to the parties, and to the judicial system itself, by cutting short lengthy litigation. Both sides often incur costs from employing experts in various areas, researching and producing evidence necessary to prove or disprove elements of antitrust actions, and in the great many legal hours necessary for both plaintiffs and defendants--not to mention costs to the state--during lengthy litigation that is often fruitless due to an "incentive to file potentially equivocal claims." Antitrust law is structured in such a way as to have a "special temptation" for what would otherwise be frivolous litigation. As antitrust law is, by its very nature, between competitors, there is significant motivation to force costs on to other firms, perhaps even through frivolous legal claims or intentionally imposing other large legal costs. Costs can also multiply in antitrust litigation because antitrust actions are often combined with other particularly complex areas of law, such as patent law or class actions. Class actions particularly in the antitrust context can make trials "unmanageable." Combining two already complex areas of law is a recipe for large legal costs and prolonged litigation. The value of cutting costs short cannot be overstated, as antitrust litigation takes place in the arena of business competition. This means that firms are already engaged in close competition for antitrust cases to be relevant, and thus unnecessary costs can further distort the market.

#### Efficient court review underpins patent-led innovation---that stops nuclear war and a range of existential threats

Rando 16 [Robert J. Rando, Founder and Lead Counsel of The Rando Law Firm P.C., Fellow of the Academy of Court-Appointed Masters, Treasurer for the New York Intellectual Property Law Association, Chair of the Federal Bar Association Intellectual Property Law Section, “America’s Need For Strong, Stable and Sound Intellectual Property Protection and Policies: Why It Really Matters”, IP Insight, June 2016, p. 12-14 [language modified] [abbreviations in brackets]]

Robert F. Kennedy’s speech, which includes his reference to the oft-quoted “interesting times” curse, applies throughout history in many contexts and, indeed, with both negative and positive connotation. While he focused on the struggles for freedom and social justice, the requisite ascendancy of the individual over the state, and the institution and integration of those ideals for the greater good, he also promoted the goals of greater global unity, cooperation and communication, which were, and could be, achieved by advances in technology. And, as noted in the excerpt, he championed “the creative energy of men.”

Intellectual Property in “Interesting Times”

It is beyond question that starting with the last decade of the twentieth century and throughout the first two decades of the twenty-first century, when it comes to matters relating to intellectual property, we have been living in “interesting times.” Some may interpret these interesting times as defined by the curse and others may view it by the ordinary meaning of “interesting.” In either case, those of us that toil in the fields of patents, copyrights, trademarks, trade secrets, and privacy rights have experienced an unprecedented sea change in the way those rights are procured, protected and enforced. Likewise, and perhaps more importantly, even those of us that do not practice in these areas of law, as well as the general public, have been, and continue to be, impacted by the consequences of these changes (both positive and negative).

The Changes In Intellectual Property Law

Examples of some of the changes in intellectual property law are: the sweeping 2011 legislative changes to the patent laws under the America Invents Act (AIA), which impact is only beginning to be fully appreciated; the various proposals for patent law reform, on the heels of the AIA, beginning with the 113th and 114th Congress; the copyright laws Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) and numerous 114th Congressional proposed copyright law changes; the recently enacted federal trade secret law (Defend Trade Secrets Act of 2016 (DTSA))2; the impact of the internet, domain names and globalization on Trademark law; the intellectual property law harmonization requirements included in various global/regional trade agreements; and the proliferation of devices (both invasive and non-invasive) that defy any rational basis for believing we can still adhere to the republic’s libertarian understanding of the right to privacy.

Without engaging in “chicken and egg” analysis, it is sufficient to observe that technological advancement, societal needs, globalization, existential threats, economic realities, and political imperatives (or what James Madison referred to in the Federalist Papers No. 10 as factious governance), have combined to create the “interesting times” for the United States [IP] intellectual property laws.

What was said by Bobby Kennedy in 1966 remains true today. We live in dangerous and uncertain times. Many of the existential threats remain the same (nuclear war and proliferation, [genocides] ~~genocidal maniacs~~ and natural disease) and some are new ([hu]manmade disease, greater awareness of environmental changes and possibly human interrelationship factors, and the unintended consequences of genetic manipulation and robotic technologies). The danger and uncertainty that pervades changes in intellectual property laws, though not an existential threat of the same manner and kind, correlates with the threat and remains “more open to the creative energy of man than any other time in history.”

Apropos the creative energy of man, there is a non-coincidental congruence and convergence of activity across and among the three branches of government, occurring almost simultaneously with the congruence and convergence of the rapid developments of technological innovation across various scientific disciplines and the information age, reflected in the transformation of the [IP] intellectual property laws in the United States.

Patents

The passage of the AIA was a culmination of efforts spanning several years of Congressional efforts; and the product of a push by the companies at the forefront of the twenty-first century new technology business titans. The legislation brought about monumental changes in the patent law in the way that patents are procured (first inventor to file instead of first to invent) and how they are enforced (quasi-judicial challenges to patent validity through inter-party reviews at the Patent Trial and Appeals Board (PTAB)).

The 113th and 114th Congress grappled with newly proposed patent law reforms that, if enacted, may present additional tectonic shifts in the patent law. Major provisions of the proposals include: fee-shifting measures (requiring loser pays legal fees - counter to the American rule); strict detailed pleadings requirements, promulgated without the traditional Rules Enabling Act procedure, that exceed those of the Twombly/Iqbal standard applied to all other civil matters in federal courts, and the different standards applicable to patent claim interpretation in PTAB proceedings and district court litigation concerning patent validity.

The Executive and administrative branch has also been active in the patent law arena. President Obama was a strong supporter of the AIA3 and in his 2014 State Of The Union Address, essentially stated that, with respect to the proposed patent law reforms aimed at patent troll issues, we must innovate rather than litigate.4 Additionally, the USPTO has embarked upon an energetic overhaul of its operations in terms of patent quality and PTO performance in granting patents, and the PTAB has expanded to almost 250 Administrative Law Judges in concert with the AIA post-grant proceedings’ strict timetable requirements.

The Supreme Court, not to be outdone by the Articles I and II branches of the U.S. government, has raised the profile of patent cases to historical heights. From 1996 to the 2014-15 term there has been a steady increase in the number of patent cases decided by the SCOTUS5. The 2014-15 term occupied almost ten percent of the Court’s docket. Prior to the last two decades, the Supreme Court would rarely include more than one or two patent cases in a docket that was much larger than those we have become accustomed to from the Roberts’ Court6.

While the SCOTUS activity in patent cases is viewed by some as a counter-balance to the perceived Federal Circuit’s pro-patent and bright line decisions, it can just as assuredly be viewed as decisions rendered by a Court of final resort which does not function in a vacuum devoid of the social, economic and political winds of the times. In recognition of the effect new technologies have on the patent law, the politicization of intellectual property law matters, especially patent law (through factious governing principles of the political branches of the government), and the maturation of the Federal Circuit patent law jurisprudence, the SCOTUS has rendered opinions in cases that impact, and perhaps are/were intended to mitigate the concerns regarding, some of the vexing issues confronting the patent community today (e.g., non-practicing entities or in the politicized parlance “patent trolls,” the intersection of patent and antitrust laws in Hatch-Waxman so called “pay-for-delay” settlements between Branded and Generic pharma companies, and the fundamental tenets that comprise the very heart of what is patent eligible subject matter).

Copyrights

The advent and ubiquity of the internet, social media and digital technologies (MP3s, Napster, Facebook, YouTube, and Twitter) represents the impetus for changes in the Copyright laws. The DMCA addressed the issues presented by these advances or changes in the differing media and forms of artistic impressions. The proliferation of digital photos, graphic designs and publishing alternatives, as well as adherence to globalization harmonization have given rise to changes in the statutory law and jurisprudence in this area of intellectual property law. Additionally, there is an overlap of patent rights and copyrights for software driven by the ebb and flow of the strength of each respective intellectual property protection.

Notably, the Patent and Copyright Clause7, in addition to Author’s writings, has been viewed as discretely applying to two different types of creativity or innovation. When drafted the “sciences” referred not only to fields of modern scienctific inquiry but rather to all knowledge. And the “useful arts” does not refer to artistic endeavors, but rather to the work of artisans or people skilled in a manufacturing craft. Rather than result in ambiguity or confusion, perhaps the Framers were either quite prescient or, just coincidentally, these aspects of the Patent and Copyright Clause have converged.

For example, none other than the famous Crooner, Bing Crosby, benefited from both protections. Well-known as a prolific and popular recording artist he also benefited from his investments in the, then innovative, recording technologies. Similarly, the Beatles, Beach Boys, as well as many other rock and roll artists, experimental efforts in music performance, recording and production, helped to transform the music industry in both copyrightable artistic expression and patentable inventions. Similarly, film, literary and digital arts reap benefits at the crossroads of both copyright and patent protections.

Trademarks

Trademark laws have been impacted by numerous changes in the business landscape. They include the internet, Domain names, international rights in a global economy, different venues and avenues for branding, marketing and merchandising, global knock-offs from nations that have a less than stellar respect for intellectual property rights, and international trade agreements. More recently, politicization (or perhaps political correctness) has creeped into the trademark law arena pitting branding rights and protections against first amendment rights.

Trade Secrets

As with Copyright and Trademark law, trade secrets law includes some of the same issues related to trade agreements. TRIPS required members to have trade secret protection in place. Initially, the United States compliance with this requirement has relied upon the trade secret law of the individual states. That compliance may be supplanted by the recently enacted DTSA. Similarly, the Trans Pacific Partnership (TPP) trade agreement contains intellectual property rights provisions that will trigger required changes to United States statutory Intellectual Property Laws.

The proposed trade secret legislation also gives rise to several concerns. For instance, there is an absence of a specific definition for trade secret, as well as potential issues of federalism, conflict with state law precedent (despite no preemption), remedies, and the impact on employer/employee relations.

There is also a real concern that the strengthening of trade secret protection in conjunction with the perceived weakening of patent protection (e.g., high rate of invalidating patents in post-grant proceedings before the PTAB and strict limitations on what is patent eligible subject matter) may very-well have the unintended consequence of contravening the purpose behind the Patent and Copyright Clause: “to promote the progress of the sciences and the useful arts.” Moreover, the incentive to innovate may very well be usurped by the advantage of withholding patent law disclosure of highly beneficial scientific advancements that directly affect the human condition, alter life expectancies and the evolution of the human species (rather than by mere “natural selection”), and what is the very essence of a human being (for better or worse). Thus, crippling innovation and the progress of the sciences and useful arts.

Privacy Rights

It is increasingly more difficult to function “off the grid.” The invasive and non-invasive attributes of the internet, the reliance upon the multitude of devices, social media, and information age technologies, and access to big data, all contribute to the decrease in and dilution of the right to privacy. Wittingly or otherwise, the strong libertarian roots of the republic have been replaced by dependence upon these modes of an information-age life. Commentary on the benefits and deficits of this reality are beyond the subject and purpose of this writing. Suffice to acknowledge that the right to privacy has been significantly reduced. The laws that protect these rights are in a constant struggle to maintain those rights while yielding to the demands of the lifestyle and security concerns. Laws that relate to cybersecurity in the global and domestic space create interplay with privacy rights. Legislation, trade agreements and jurisprudence all impact this area of intellectual property. Cross-border theft of trade secrets, competitor espionage, and loss of control over personal data are all implicated in the intellectual property law arena.

America’s Need For Strong Intellectual Property Protection

The need for strong protection of intellectual property rights is greater now than it was at the dawn of our republic. Our Forefathers and the Framers of the U.S. Constitution recognized the need to secure those rights in Article 1, Section 8, Clause 8. James Madison provides insight for its significance in the Federalist Papers No. 43 (the only reference to the clause). It is contained in the first Article section dedicated to the enumerated powers of Congress. The clause recognizes the need for: uniformity of the protection of IP rights, securing those rights for the individual rather than the state; and, incentivizing innovation and creative aspirations.

Underlying this particular enumerated power of Congress is the same struggle that the Framers grappled with throughout the document for the new republic: how to promote a unified republic while protecting individual liberty. The fear of tyranny and protection of the “natural law” individual liberty is a driving theme for the Constitution and throughout the Federalist Papers. For example, in Federalist No. 10, James Madison articulated the important recognition of the “faction” impact on a democracy and a republic. In Federalist No. 51, Madison emphasized the importance of the separation of powers among the three branches of the republic. And in Federalist No. 78, Alexander Hamilton, provided his most significant essay, which described the judiciary as the weakest branch of government and sought the protection of its independence providing the underpinnings for judicial review as recognized thereafter in Marbury v. Madison.

All of these related themes are relevant to the Patent and Copyright Clause and at the center of the intellectual property protections then and now. The Federalist Papers No. 10 recognition that a faction may influence the law has been playing itself out in the halls of congress in the period of time leading up to the AIA and in connection with the current patent law reform debate. The large tech companies of the past, new tech, new patent-based financial business model entities, and pharma factions have been the drivers, proponents and opponents of certain of these efforts. To be sure, some change is inevitable, and both beneficial and necessary in an environment of rapidly changing technology where the law needs to evolve or conform to new realities. However, changes not premised upon the founding principles of the Constitution and the Patent and Copyright Clause (i.e., uniformity, secured rights for the individual, incentivizing innovation and protecting individual liberty) run afoul of the intended purpose of the constitutional guarantee.

Although the Sovereign does not benefit directly from the fruits of the innovator, enacting laws that empower the King, and enables the King to remain so, has the same effect as deprivation and diminishment of the individual’s rights and effectively confiscates them from him/her. Specifically, with respect to intellectual property rights, effecting change to the laws that do not adhere to these underlying principles, in favor of the faction that lobbies the most and the best in the quid pro quo of political gain to the governing body threatens to undermine the individual’s intellectual property rights and hinder the greatest economic driver and source of prosperity in the country.

It is also important to recognize that the social, political and economic impact of strong protections for intellectual property cannot be overstated. In the social context, the incentive for disclosure and innovation is critical. Solutions for sustainability and climate change (whether natural, man-made or mutually/marginally intertwined) rely upon this premise. Likewise, as we are on the precipice of the ultimate convergence in technologies from the hi-tech digital world and life sciences space, capturing the ability to cure many diseases and fatal illnesses and providing the true promise of extended longevity in good health and well-being, that is meaningful, productive, and purposeful; this incentive must be preserved.

In similar fashion, advancements in technologies related to the global economy and communications will enhance the possibilities for solutions to political and cultural conflicts that arise around the globe. Likewise, the United States economy has always benefited when it is at the forefront of innovation and achieves prosperity from its leadership role in technological advancements.

Conclusion

As was the case in 1966, how we move forward today, to solve the many problems facing our country and the broader global community in these “interesting times,” both within and without the laws affecting intellectual property rights, depends upon the “creative energy of man” which must prevail. An achievable goal, dependent on the strong, stable and sound protection of intellectual property rights.

## Inequality Adv

### 1NC – Circumvention

#### Even new laws fail—courts refuse to enforce, including SCOTUS

Newman 19 [John Newman is a University of Miami School of Law professor and a former attorney with the U.S. Department of Justice Antitrust Division, "What Democratic Contenders Are Missing in the Race to Revive Antitrust", 4/1/19, https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2019/04/what-2020-democratic-candidates-miss-about-antitrust/586135/]

But the federal courts represent a massive stumbling block for any progressive antitrust movement. Reformers have identified two paths forward; both lead eventually to the court system. The first is relatively moderate: appoint regulators who will actually enforce the laws already on the books. Warren’s plan rests in part on this straightforward idea. The second, more audacious path requires congressional action to amend and strengthen our current laws. Warren’s call for a new ban on technology companies’ buying and selling via their own platforms falls into this category. Klobuchar has also proposed new antitrust legislation that would make it easier to block harmful mergers and acquisitions.

But no matter its content, enforcing a law requires persuading a judge. When it comes to U.S. antitrust laws, federal judges—not Congress, and not regulatory agencies—are the ultimate arbiters. The Department of Justice Antitrust Division, one of our two public enforcement agencies, files all its cases in federal courts. And although the Federal Trade Commission (the other) can decide cases internally, the inevitable appeals eventually end up in court as well.

No matter how strongly worded a law may be, ideologically driven judges can usually find a way around enforcing it. The cyclical history of U.S. antitrust law is proof that judges wield nearly limitless institutional power in this area.

Soon after Congress passed the Sherman Act in 1890, a conservative Supreme Court began to chip away at its effectiveness. Congress reacted in 1914 with the Clayton Act, which sought to ban anticompetitive mergers. In 1936, at the height of the New Deal era, Congress passed the Robinson-Patman Act, which prohibits price discrimination (charging different prices to different buyers for the same product). These laws were actively enforced for decades.

But starting in the late 1970s, conservative judges began to erode the Clayton Act. Today, megamergers among competitors such as Bayer and Monsanto barely raise eyebrows. So-called vertical mergers, which combine suppliers and their customers, are now all but immune from antitrust enforcement—see the DOJ’s failed challenge to AT&T and Time Warner’s recent tie-up.

Under the business-friendly Roberts Court, the Robinson-Patman Act has similarly been eviscerated. By the 2000s, the ideas of the conservative Chicago School had become mainstream in antitrust circles. Robinson-Patman, a law intended to protect small businesses, was an easy target for Chicago School critics narrowly focused on efficiency and low consumer prices. Their attacks found a receptive audience in the federal judiciary. Among insiders, Robinson-Patman is now known as “zombie law.” It remains on the books, but regulators no longer bother trying to enforce it.

If Democrats want to change antitrust law, they will first and foremost need to change the judges who apply it. Yet none of the 2020 contenders championing antitrust reform have even mentioned the possibility of appointing progressive antitrust thinkers to the bench.

Conservatives, on the other hand, have long recognized the centrality of antitrust to broader questions about the apportionment of power in society. In his seminal work, The Antitrust Paradox, Robert Bork called antitrust a “microcosm in which larger movements of our society are reflected.” Battles fought in this arena, Bork wrote, “are likely to affect the outcome of parallel struggles in others.” Strong antitrust enforcement keeps powerful monopolies in check. Toothless antitrust allows the unlimited accumulation of corporate power.

Recognizing the high stakes, the Republican Party has gone to great lengths to appoint conservative antitrust experts to the federal judiciary. Bork was an antitrust professor at Yale Law School before becoming an appellate judge in 1982.\* Frank Easterbrook practiced and taught antitrust before donning the black robe in 1985. Douglas Ginsburg served as the head of the Justice Department’s Antitrust Division before he became a federal judge in 1986. None of the three managed to join the Supreme Court, but not for lack of trying. Reagan nominated both Bork and Ginsburg to serve as justices, though Ginsburg withdrew and Bork was famously rejected after a contentious Senate hearing.

And whom did the GOP select as its very first U.S. Supreme Court nominee during the Trump Administration? None other than Neil Gorsuch, who practiced antitrust law for more than a decade before joining the Tenth Circuit. Even as a judge, Gorsuch continued to teach a law-school course on antitrust until his confirmation to the Supreme Court in 2017.

Once upon a time, progressives demonstrated similar concern about judicial treatment of antitrust laws. Justice Stephen Breyer, for example, served as special assistant to the head of the DOJ Antitrust Division before his judicial appointment by President Jimmy Carter. Earlier still, Justice John Paul Stevens was an antitrust lawyer, scholar, and professor before his appointment to the bench.

Today’s Democratic 2020 hopefuls seem to have forgotten the lessons of history. Their antitrust proposals focus exclusively on appointing the right regulators and amending our current statutes. These are right-minded ideas, but they overlook the central role judges play in our political system.

There is an old saying in the legal community: “Hard cases make bad law.” That may be true, but it is just as often the case that bad judges make bad law. Real antitrust reform will require more than regulatory and legislative tweaks; it will require the right judges.

### 1NC – D

#### Demographic shifts lock in long term labor power.

Irwin ’21 [Neil; June 5; senior economics correspondent; New York Times, “Workers Are Gaining Leverage Over Employers Right Before Our Eyes,” <https://www.nytimes.com/2021/06/05/upshot/jobs-rising-wages.html>; KP]

Yet in key respects, the shift builds on changes already underway in the tight labor market preceding the pandemic, when the unemployment rate was 4 percent or lower for two straight years.

That follows decades in which union power declined, unemployment was frequently high and employers made an art out of shifting work toward contract and gig arrangements that favored their interests over those of their employees. It would take years of change to undo those cumulative effects.

But the demographic picture is not becoming any more favorable for employers eager to fill positions. Population growth for Americans between ages 20 and 64 turned negative last year for the first time in the nation’s history. The Congressional Budget Office projects that the potential labor force will grow a mere 0.3 percent to 0.4 percent annually for the remainder of the 2020s; the size of the work force rose an average of 0.8 percent a year from 2000 to 2020.

An important question for the overall economy is whether employers will be able to create conditions attractive enough to coax back in some of the millions of working-age adults not currently part of the labor force. Depending on your view of the causes, the end of expanded pandemic-era jobless benefits might also have an effect. Some businesses may need to raise prices or retool how they operate; others may be forced to close entirely.

Higher wages are part of the story. The jobs report issued on Friday showed that average hourly earnings for nonmanagerial workers were 1.3 percent higher in May than two months earlier. Other than in a brief period of statistical distortions early in the pandemic, that is the strongest two-month gain since 1983.

But wages alone aren’t enough, and firms seem to be finding it in their own best interest to seek out workers across all strata of society, to the benefit of people who have missed out on opportunity in the last few decades.

“I’ve been doing this a long time and have never felt more excited and more optimistic about the level of creative investment on this issue,” said Bertina Ceccarelli, chief executive of NPower, a nonprofit aimed at helping military veterans and disadvantaged young adults start tech industry careers. “It’s an explosive moment right now.”

In effect, an entire generation of managers that came of age in an era of abundant workers is being forced to learn how to operate amid labor scarcity. That means different things for different companies and workers — and often involves strategies more elaborate than simply paying a signing bonus or a higher hourly wage.

At the high end of the labor market, that can mean workers are more emboldened to leave a job if employers are insufficiently flexible on issues like working from home.

### 1NC – AT: Slow Growth

#### Slow growth is inevitable AND has no impact.

Dietrich Vollrath 20, Professor of economics at the University of Houston, "Slow economic growth is a sign of success," USAPP, 02/22/2020, https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/usappblog/2020/02/22/slow-economic-growth-is-a-sign-of-success/.

We’re accustomed to looking at the growth rate of GDP to evaluate the health of our economy. Which is why the recent slowdown in growth appears so troubling. In the US, GDP growth for 2019 was 2.3%, meaning it has been nineteen years since growth hit 4%, and nearly as long since it touched 3%. For the UK the story is similar, as it has been fifteen years since growth hit 3%. In the Eurozone as a whole, growth last came close to 4% in 2000. These slowdowns across developed economies predates the financial crisis, and leads to natural questions: what went wrong with the economy, and how do we fix it?

But the slowdown we’re observing isn’t something we can fix – or that we would want to fix – because the slowdown was never a consequence of things that went wrong. Instead, as I show my new book, the slowdown is a consequence of things that went right.

From a simple accounting perspective, there are two main factors behind slower growth: the fall in fertility during the 20th century, and the shift of our expenditures away from goods and towards services. And both of those explanations can be traced back to economic success.

The fall in fertility had a significant impact on economic growth for decades, particularly in the US. The baby boom generated a one-time wave of human capital that hit the economy during the middle of the 20th century. As those new workers hit the workforce, the proportion of workers to population rose substantially, as evidenced by the fall in the youth dependency ratio between 1960 and 1980 (see Figure 1). Combined with the relatively high educational attainment of the baby boomers compared to prior generations, this provided a substantial boost to the growth rate, increasing it around 1.25 percentage points in 1990 compared to immediately after World War II.

As that wave of human capital receded, so did the growth rate. Starting in the early 2000s, the old age dependency ratio started to rise (see Figure 1) the inevitable consequence of the drop in youth dependency back in the 1960s and 1970s. As workers aged out of the workforce – and continue to do so – this dragged down the growth rate of the aggregate economy. That 1.25 percentage point boost during the 20th century disappeared in the 21st, explaining most of the slowdown in the US.

But why should we see these demographic shifts as a success? The drop in fertility after the baby boom which explains the shifts was driven by several successes. Expanded access to college education pushed back the age at which people were willing to marry. The opening up of many professions to women, along with growth in overall wages, meant that it made sense for many women to delay marriage. Finally, advances in contraceptive technology meant it was possible for women to take advantage of the new educational and professional opportunities that arose. The growth slowdown today is a consequence of family decisions made decades ago in response to rising living standards and the expansion of women’s rights.

The second source of the slowdown, the shift from goods towards services, was also driven by success. In the past one hundred years we became incredibly efficient at producing goods like clothes, food, furniture, and computers. The consequence was a steady reduction in the price of those goods relative to services. We could have used that reduction to buy even more goods than we did, but instead we took advantage of the savings to purchase more services like education, healthcare, and travel. Therefore the composition of our expenditures shifted away from goods and towards services (see Figure 2). We still consume more goods than before; it is just that they got so cheap that their share of our total expenditure fell relative to services.

This had a consequence for overall economic growth, however. Productivity growth in services is lower than for goods. That wasn’t a failure of services in the last few years. It appears to be an inherent quality noted by economist William Baumol in the 1960s. If a restaurant — a service — tried to operate with half their normal staff, you’d complain about the slow service and lack of attention. In comparison, if a manufacturer produced a laptop – a good – with half as much labour, you’d never know. This makes productivity growth harder for services than for goods. As we shifted expenditures towards services, aggregate productivity growth was thus bound to fall. Between the middle of the 20th century and today, that probably shaved another 0.2 to 0.25 percentage points off of the growth rate. But note that this only happened because of the productivity growth we experienced in the first place, a success.

Relative to the successes in the demographic shifts and spending shifts, the usual suspects are not capable of explaining the growth slowdown. Tax rates fell right as the slowdown started, and evidence from across states and industries shows that, if anything, more regulation was associated with faster growth, not slower. Trade with China exploded in the last twenty years, but evidence suggests that this had little effect on growth for the economy as a whole, even though individual regions and industries saw booms or busts. Economy-wide measures of the mark-up of price over cost rose, but it turns out that this didn’t lower growth. The shift of activity to high mark-up industries kept economic growth rates from falling even further than they did, as it meant we produced more valuable products.

If you’re still uncertain that the growth slowdown is a consequence of success, ask yourself what you’d give up to bring growth back to 4%. We could destroy half of all our goods: cars, couches, TVs, laptops, houses, trampolines, and so on. That would lead to a massive shift of spending towards goods as we scrambled to replace everything, and we’d see a jump in productivity growth. Alternatively, we could roll back contraceptive rights and women’s participation in the workforce in the hopes of starting a new baby boom. Wait twenty years and we’d have another surge of human capital into the economy. Would either of those be worth it just to see growth hit 4% again, perhaps not until 2040? Assuming the answer is “no”, that tells us the growth slowdown happened because of things that went right, things we would not sacrifice.

#### No liberal order or SOI impact---states won’t risk war, err towards isolation, AND mediate ties economically.

Mueller ’21 [John; February 17; Adjunct Professor of Political Science and Senior Research Scientist at the Mershon Center for International Security Studies; The Stupidity of War: American Foreign Policy and the Case for Complacency, “The Rise of China, the Assertiveness of Russia, and the Antics of Iran,” Ch. 6]

Complacency, Appeasement, Self-destruction, and the New Cold War

It could be argued that the policies proposed here to deal with the international problems, whether real or imagined, presented by China, Russia, and Iran constitute exercises not only in complacency, but also in appeasement. That argument would be correct. As discussed in the Prologue to this book, appeasement can work to avoid military conflict as can be seen in the case of the Cuban missile crisis of 1962. As also discussed there, appeasement has been given a bad name by the experience with Hitler in 1938.

Hitlers are very rare, but there are some resonances today in Russia’s Vladimir Putin and China’s Xi Jinping. Both are shrewd, determined, authoritarian, and seem to be quite intelligent, and both are fully in charge, are surrounded by sychophants, and appear to have essentially unlimited tenure in office. Moreover, both, like Hitler in the 1930s, are appreciated domestically for maintaining a stable political and economic environment. However, unlike Hitler, both run trading states and need a stable and essentially congenial international environment to flourish.128 Most importantly, except for China’s claim to Taiwan, neither seems to harbor Hitler-like dreams of extensive expansion by military means. Both are leading their countries in an illiberal direction which will hamper economic growth while maintaining a kleptocratic system. But this may be acceptable to populations enjoying historically high living standards and fearful of less stable alternatives. Both do seem to want to overcome what they view as past humiliations – ones going back to the opium war of 1839 in the case of China and to the collapse of the Soviet empire and then of the Soviet Union in 1989–91 in the case of Russia. Primarily, both seem to want to be treated with respect and deference. Unlike Hitler’s Germany, however, both seem to be entirely appeasable. That scarcely seems to present or represent a threat. The United States, after all, continually declares itself to be the indispensable nation. If the United States is allowed to wallow in such self-important, childish, essentially meaningless, and decidedly fatuous proclamations, why should other nations be denied the opportunity to emit similar inconsequential rattlings? If that constitutes appeasement, so be it. If the two countries want to be able to say they now preside over a “sphere of influence,” it scarcely seems worth risking world war to somehow keep them from doing so – and if the United States were substantially disarmed, it would not have the capacity to even try.

If China and Russia get off on self-absorbed pretensions about being big players, that should be of little concern – and their success rate is unlikely to be any better than that of the United States. Charap and Colton observe that “The Kremlin’s idee fixe that Russia needs to be the leader of a pack of post-Soviet states in order to be taken seriously as a global power broker is more of a feel-good mantra than a fact-based strategy, and it irks even the closest of allies.” And they further suggest that

The towel should also be thrown in on the geo-ideational shadow-boxing over the Russian assertion of a sphere of influence in post-Soviet Eurasia and the Western opposition to it. Would either side be able to specify what precisely they mean by a regional sphere of influence? How would it differ from, say, US relations with the western-hemisphere states or from Germany’s with its EU neighbors?129

Applying the Gingrich gospel, then, it certainly seems that, although China, Russia, and Iran may present some “challenges” to US policy, there is little or nothing to suggest a need to maintain a large US military force-in-being to keep these countries in line. Indeed, all three monsters seem to be in some stage of self-destruction or descent into stagnation – not, perhaps, unlike the Communist “threat” during the Cold War. Complacency thus seems to be a viable policy.

However, it may be useful to look specifically at a couple of worst-case scenarios: an invasion of Taiwan by China (after it builds up its navy more) and an invasion of the Baltic states of Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia by Russia. It is wildly unlikely that China or Russia would carry out such economically self-destructive acts: the economic lessons from Putin’s comparatively minor Ukraine gambit are clear, and these are unlikely to be lost on the Chinese. Moreover, the analyses of Michael Beckley certainly suggest that Taiwan has the conventional military capacity to concentrate the mind of, if not necessarily fully to deter, any Chinese attackers. It has “spent decades preparing for this exact contingency,” has an advanced early warning system, can call into action massed forces to defend “fortified positions on home soil with precision-guided munitions,” and has supply dumps, booby traps, an wide array of mobile missile launchers, artillery, and minelayers. In addition, there are only 14 locations that can support amphibious landing and these are, not surprisingly, well-fortified by the defenders.130

The United States may not necessarily be able to deter or stop military attacks on Taiwan or on the Baltics under its current force levels.131 And if it cannot credibly do so with military forces currently in being, it would not be able to do so, obviously, if its forces were much reduced. However, the most likely response in either eventuality would be for the United States to wage a campaign of economic and military (including naval) harassment and to support local – or partisan – resistance as it did in Afghanistan after the Soviet invasion there in 1979. 132 Such a response does not require the United States to have, and perpetually to maintain, huge forces in place and at the ready to deal with such improbable eventualities.

The current wariness about, and hostility toward, Russia and China is sometimes said to constitute “a new Cold War.”133 There are, of course, considerable differences. In particular, during the Cold War, the Soviet Union – indeed the whole international Communist movement – was under the sway of a Marxist theory that explicitly and determinedly advocated the destruction of capitalism and probably of democracy, and by violence to the degree required. Neither Russia nor China today sports such cosmic goals or is enamored of such destructive methods. However, as discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, the United States was strongly inclined during the Cold War massively to inflate the threat that it imagined the Communist adversary to present. The current “new Cold War” is thus in an important respect quite a bit like the old one: it is an expensive, substantially militarized, and often hysterical campaign to deal with threats that do not exist or are likely to selfdestruct.134

It may also be useful to evaluate terms that are often bandied about in considerations within foreign policy circles about the rise of China, the assertiveness of Russia, and the antics of Iran. High among these is “hegemony.” Sorting through various definitions, Simon Reich and Richard Ned Lebow array several that seem to capture the essence of the concept: domination, controlling leadership, or the ability to shape international rules according to the hegemon’s own interests. Hegemony, then, is an extreme word suggesting supremacy, mastery, preponderant influence, and full control. Hegemons force others to bend to their will whether they like it or not. Reich and Lebow also include a mellower designation applied by John Ikenberry and Charles Kupchan in which a hegemon is defined as an entity that has the ability to establish a set of norms that others willingly embrace.135 But this really seems to constitute an extreme watering-down of the word and suggests opinion leadership or entrepreneurship and success at persuasion, not hegemony.

Moreover, insofar as they carry meaning, the militarized application of American primacy and hegemony to order the world has often been a fiasco.136 Indeed, it is impressive that the hegemon, endowed by definition by what Reich and Lebow aptly call a grossly disproportionate military capacity, has had such a miserable record of military achievement since 1945 – an issue discussed frequently in this book.137 Reich and Lebow argue that it is incumbent on IR scholars to cut themselves loose from the concept of hegemony.138 It seems even more important for the foreign policy establishment to do so.

There is also absurdity in getting up tight over something as vacuous as the venerable “sphere of influence” concept (or conceit). The notion that world affairs are a process in which countries scamper around the world seeking to establish spheres of influence is at best decidedly unhelpful and at worst utterly misguided. But the concept continues to be embraced in some quarters as if it had some palpable meaning. For example, in early 2017, the august National Intelligence Council opined that “Geopolitical competition is on the rise as China and Russia seek to exert more sway over their neighboring regions and promote an order in which US influence does not dominate.”139 Setting aside the issue of the degree to which American “influence” could be said to “dominate” anywhere (we still wait, for example, for dominated Mexico supinely to pay for a wall to seal off its self-infatuated neighbor’s southern border), it doesn’t bloody well matter whether China or Russia has, or seems to have, a “sphere of influence” someplace or other.

More importantly, the whole notion is vapid and essentially meaningless. Except perhaps in Gilbert and Sullivan’s Iolanthe. When members of the House of Lords fail to pay sufficient respect to a group of women they take to be members of a ladies’ seminary who are actually fairies, their queen, outraged at the Lords’ collected effrontery, steps forward, proclaims that she happens to be an “influential fairy,” and then, with a few passes of her wand, brushes past the Lords’ pleas (“no!” “mercy!” “spare us!” and “horror!”), and summarily issues several edicts: a young man of her acquaintance shall be inducted into their House, every bill that gratifies his pleasure shall be passed, members shall be required to sit through the grouse and salmon season, and high office shall be obtainable by competitive examination. Now, that’s influence. In contrast, on December 21, 2017, when the United States sought to alter the status of Jerusalem, the United Nations General Assembly voted to repudiate the US stand in a nearly unanimous vote that included many US allies. Now, that’s not influence.

In fact, to push this point perhaps to an extreme, if we are entering an era in which economic motivations became paramount and in which military force is not deemed a sensible method for pursuing wealth, the idea of “influence” would become obsolete because, in principle, pure economic actors do not care much about influence. They care about getting rich. (As Japan and Germany have found, however, influence, status, and prestige tend to accompany the accumulation of wealth, but this is just an ancillary effect.) Suppose the president of a company could choose between two stories to tell the stockholders. One message would be, “We enjoy great influence in the industry. When we talk everybody listens. Our profits are nil.” The other would be, “No one in the industry pays the slightest attention to us or ever asks our advice. We are, in fact, the butt of jokes in the trade. We are making money hand over fist.” There is no doubt about which story would most thoroughly warm the stockholders’ hearts.

### 1NC – Growth Up

#### Growth up and stays up – best projections

Minikoff 12/31 [Yoel Minikoff, Seeking Alpha News Editor. “Will the U.S. economic recovery continue into 2022?” 12/31/21. https://seekingalpha.com/news/3784335-will-the-us-economic-recovery-continue-into-2022]

Opportunity: The Conference Board, a non-profit research group of more than 1,000 public and private corporations, still forecasts that the U.S. economy will grow by 3.5% in 2022. Take for example the solid growth seen last quarter, despite a rise in coronavirus cases across the U.S., as well as a solid season of corporate earnings. There is also the trend for each successive wave of COVID-19 to having a smaller impact on the economy, while consumers are keeping up robust spending amid improving labor market conditions.

"Supported by the expectation of continued healthy financial market conditions, increased production to restock lean inventories, further gains in the consumption of services as consumer and business travel picks up, and a resilient housing market, continued above-trend growth is likely GDP growth in 2022," read a forecast from Kevin Kliesen, economist at the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis. "At this point, the most probable outcome is 3% to 4% real."

### 1NC – Inequality

#### Inequality’s declining.

Gramm ’21 [Phil and John Early; March 23; a former chairman of the Senate Banking Committee and a visiting scholar at the American Enterprise Institute; served twice as assistant commissioner at the Bureau of Labor Statistics; Wall Street Journal, “Incredible Shrinking Income Inequality,” <https://www.wsj.com/articles/incredible-shrinking-income-inequality-11616517284>; KP]

Twice over the past 50 years, the Census Bureau has significantly changed how it collects and records income statistics. In 1993 and 2013 the Census Bureau changed its methods in an effort to collect better information from high-income households. These changes created two major discontinuities and distorted the time-series so that the change in measured income inequality in those years was as much as 15 times the average annual change found for the entire 50-year period. At the time, the Census Bureau explained in detail what it had done. It also explained the limitations the changes imposed on the use of its income-inequality measure to look at changes over extended periods. In subsequent use of the data by the Census Bureau and others, however, those warnings have been neglected.

The simple solution would have been to isolate the distortions caused solely by the changes in data-collection techniques and adjusted the previous years’ measures to reflect the effect of the changes. We made these adjustments and they are shown in the nearby figure. The blue line is the actual reported Census Bureau measurement of income inequality. The yellow line eliminates the effects of the 1993 and 2013 discontinuities caused solely by changes in measurement technique. The black line shows income inequality when the value of all transfer payments received is counted as income, income is reduced by taxes paid, and the two technical corrections are made.

Lo and behold—income inequality is lower than it was 50 years ago.

The raging debate over income inequality in America calls to mind the old Will Rogers adage: “It ain’t what you don’t know that gets you into trouble. It is what you do know that ain’t so.” We are debating the alleged injustice of a supposedly growing social problem when—for all the reasons outlined above—that problem isn’t growing, it’s shrinking. Those who want to transform the greatest economic system in the history of the world ought to get their facts straight first.

### 1NC – Inequality No war

#### Inequality doesn’t cause war

Elise Must 16, PhD student at LSE, this was her PhD thesis, “When and how does inequality cause conflict? Group dynamics, perceptions and natural resources”, http://etheses.lse.ac.uk/3438/1/Must\_When\_and\_how\_does\_inequality.pdf

Does economic inequality lead to conflict? This question has attracted the attention of prominent scholars at least since the time of Aristotle (Nagel 1974). The frequent assumption that unequal distribution somehow fuels rebellion has resulted in a vast amount of theoretical as well as empirical work. For long, results remained mixed. Despite countless qualitative studies asserting that inequality is a major reason for conflict outbreak, quantitative studies struggled to establish a firm relationship between the two (Blattman and Miguel 2010, Cramer 2005, Lichbach 1989). These quantitative studies, including the most influential ones by Collier and Hoeffler (2004) and Fearon and Laitin (2003), rely on analysis of individual measures of inequality. However, as most prominently set forth by Frances Stewart, it is minority groups or collectives of individuals who rebel, not the whole population, nor individuals (Stewart 2002). Stewart’s theoretical development has given rise to several quantitative studies which uniformly support the role of economic group inequality in inducing conflict (Buhaug, Cederman, and Gleditsch 2014, Cederman, Weidmann, and Bormann 2015, Cederman, Weidmann, and Gleditsch 2011, Deiwiks, Cederman, and Gleditsch 2012, Østby 2008a, b, Østby, Nordås, and Rød 2009). Hence, there is an emerging consensus in the literature that inequality causes civil conflict when it overlaps with relevant group identities. Promising as these studies are, they nevertheless neglect a potential crucial part of the inequality-conflict causal chain. Seemingly all studies of inequality and conflict, including those measuring group inequalities, are based on objective inequalities. Yet, as Stewart (2010, 14) herself notes, ‘People take action because of perceived injustices rather than because of measured statistical inequalities of which they might not be aware’. Economic inequality measured by the Gini coefficient, or by local GDP data, is most commonly used as proxies, leaving completely aside how economic inequality is actually interpreted and perceived by both groups and individuals (ref. Zimmermann 1983). It remains obvious, however, that in order for people to take action to address inequalities, the first step is to recognize them and to consider them unjust (Han et al. 2012). The use then, of objective measures in current empirical studies, is based on the assumption that both objective and perceived horizontal inequalities essentially amount to the same thing. Put another way it is assumed that all objective inequalities are actually perceived as inequalities by relevant groups, and conversely all perceived inequalities have an objective basis. These are strong claims that are so far largely untested. Existing studies of the link between objective and perceived horizontal inequalities range from concluding that there is no such link (Langer and Smedts 2013) to documenting imperfect correlations – ranging from 0.27 to 0.30 depending on indicators and datasets (Holmqvist 2012). While cross-country analyses of conflict have neglected perceptions of inequality, the case study literature does offer some examples demonstrating their importance. Interviewing Muslim immigrants in London and Madrid, Gest (2010, 178) finds that what distinguishes democratic activists from those who engage in anti-system behavior, is the nature of their individual expectations and perceptions about shared economic realities. Moving on to larger conflicts, a recent World Bank report concludes that the so called ‘Arab Spring’ was driven by a decrease in popular subjective satisfaction, while the objective economic situation actually improved in the years before the widespread mobilization (Ianchovichina, Mottaghi, and Shantayanan 2015). The report also points to the importance of inter-group inequality as opposed to individual inequality. My main argument is that in order to better capture the role of inequality in inducing civil conflict, measures have to account for relevant groups as well as for the perception of inequality in these groups. In addition, my analyses fill two other gaps in the literature. While Stewart emphasizes how groups can mobilize around different identities, current studies have almost exclusively focused on ethnic groups. However, a regional identity might be just as relevant (ref. Posner 2004). I will therefor look at the effect of regional economic inequality on civil war. And finally, most of the studies, and all of those with a global scope, rely on time invariant measures of economic horizontal inequality. This is commonly defended by referring to the demonstrated ‘stickiness’ of horizontal inequalities (see e.g. Stewart and Langer 2008, Tilly 1999). Still, a recent study covering 1992 to 2013 demonstrates a global decline of ethnic inequality (Bormann et al. 2016), while Kanbur and Venables (2005) compare case studies of 26 developing countries and conclude that regional inequalities are rising. The data used in this analysis also show that horizontal inequalities change quite substantially over time. Using inequality data from one particular year to analyze decades of conflict incidents is therefore questionable. Hence, my study represents the first time-variant analyses of the effect of both objective and perceived regional inequality on civil war covering developed and developing countries in all world regions14 . Analysing data for the period 1989 to 2014 from the World Values Survey (WVS), I find that countries with a high level of perceived regional economic inequality have an elevated risk of civil war outbreak. On the other hand, mere objective regional economic inequalities do not have any significant effect. The group aspect remains essential, as neither objective nor perceived individual inequality is linked to increased civil conflict risk.

## FTC Adv

### 1NC – FTC Turn

#### The plan trades off with wins in other areas – causes Facebook loss

Nylen 20 [Leah Nylen, covers antitrust and investigations for POLITICO Pro. Before joining POLITICO, Leah spent eight years covering antitrust at MLex. She has also worked for Bloomberg and Congressional Quarterly and was selected as an Abe Journalist Fellow in 2014 for a reporting project in Japan on price-fixing cartels and cartel deterrence policies. “FTC Suffering a Cash Crunch as it Prepares to Battle Facebook” https://www.politico.com/news/2020/12/10/ftc-cash-facebook-lawsuit-444468]

The agency that just launched a landmark antitrust suit to break up Facebook is so strapped for cash that its leaders have discussed shrinking their staff and warned against taking on more cases.

In a series of emails to all Federal Trade Commission staff, obtained by POLITICO, Executive Director David Robbins said the agency would face a period of “belt tightening” to cut costs — and that filing fewer cases and trimming litigation expenses must be on the table.

“[W]e will either need to bring fewer expert intensive cases or significantly decrease our litigation costs (e.g. experts, transcripts, litigation support contractors, etc.),” Robbins said in an Oct. 29 email.

The emails offer an increasingly dire portrait of the money woes facing the FTC, which has launched a record amount of litigation in the past year even as the pandemic has caused a sharp reduction in the corporate merger filing fees that normally supply about half its budget. The crunch also raises the possibility that the FTC may not have the cash it needs to win its case against Facebook, which is gearing up for an expensive fight, or to take on additional companies like Amazon.

### 1NC – Scamming D

#### No scamming impact.

Ewing 20, Citing Keir Giles, a Russia specialist with the Conflict Studies Research Centre in the United Kingdom and Tim Hwang, director of the Harvard-MIT Ethics and Governance of AI Initiative. (Philip, 5-7-2020, “Why Fake Video, Audio May Not Be As Powerful In Spreading Disinformation As Feared”, *NPR*, <https://www.npr.org/2020/05/07/851689645/why-fake-video-audio-may-not-be-as-powerful-in-spreading-disinformation-as-feare>)

Sophisticated fake media hasn't emerged as a factor in the disinformation wars in the ways once feared — and two specialists say it may have missed its moment. Deceptive video and audio recordings, often nicknamed “deepfakes,” have been the subject of sustained attention by legislators and technologists, but so far have not been employed to decisive effect, said two panelists at a video conference convened on Wednesday by NATO. One speaker borrowed Sherlock Holmes' reasoning about the significance of something that didn't happen. “We've already passed the stage at which they would have been most effective,” said Keir Giles, a Russia specialist with the Conflict Studies Research Centre in the United Kingdom. “They're the dog that never barked.” The perils of deepfakes in political interference have been discussed too often and many people have become too familiar with them, Giles said during the online discussion, hosted by NATO's Strategic Communications Centre of Excellence. Following all the reports and revelations about election interference in the West since 2016, citizens know too much to be hoodwinked in the way a fake video might once have fooled large numbers of people, he argued: “They no longer have the power to shock.” Tim Hwang, director of the Harvard-MIT Ethics and Governance of AI Initiative, agreed that deepfakes haven't proven as dangerous as once feared, although for different reasons. Hwang argued that users of “active measures” (efforts to sow misinformation and influence public opinion) can be much more effective with cheaper, simpler and just as devious types of fakes — mis-captioning a photo or turning it into a meme, for example. Influence specialists working for Russia and other governments also imitate Americans on Facebook, for another example, worming their way into real Americans' political activities to amplify disagreements or, in some cases, try to persuade people not to vote. Other researchers have suggested this work continues on social networks and has become more difficult to detect. Defense is stronger than attack Hwang also observed that the more deepfakes are made, the better machine learning becomes at detecting them. A very sophisticated, real-looking fake video might still be effective in a political context, he acknowledged — and at a cost to create of around $10,000, it would be easily within the means of a government's active measures specialists. But the risks of attempting a major disruption with such a video may outweigh an adversary's desire to use one. People may be too media literate, as Giles argued, and the technology to detect a fake may mean it can be deflated too swiftly to have an effect, as Hwang said. “I tend to be skeptical these will have a large-scale impact over time,” he said. One technology boss told NPR in an interview last year that years' worth of work on corporate fraud protection systems has given an edge to detecting fake media.” This is not a static field. Obviously, on our end we've performed all sorts of great advances over this year in advancing our technology, but these synthetic voices are advancing at a rapid pace,” said Brett Beranek, head of security business for the technology firm Nuance. “So we need to keep up.” Beranek described how systems developed to detect telephone fraudsters could be applied to verify the speech in a fake clip of video or audio. Corporate clients that rely on telephone voice systems must be wary about people attempting to pose as others with artificial or disguised voices. Beranek's company sells a product that helps to detect them, and that countermeasure also works well in detecting fake audio or video. Machines using neural networks can detect known types of synthetic voices. Nuance also says it can analyze a recording of a real, known voice — say, that of a politician — and then contrast its characteristics against a suspicious recording. Although the world of cybersecurity is often described as one in which attackers generally have an edge over defenders, Beranek said he thought the inverse was true in terms of this kind of fraud detection.” For the technology today, the defense side is significantly ahead of the attack side,” he said. Shaping the battlefield Hwang and Giles acknowledged in the NATO video conference that deepfakes likely will proliferate and become lower in cost to create, perhaps becoming simple enough to make with a smartphone app. One prospective response is the creation of more of what Hwang called “radioactive data” — material earmarked in advance so that it might make a fake easier to detect. If images of a political figure were so tagged beforehand, they could be spotted quickly if they were incorporated by computers into a deceptive video. Also, the sheer popularity of new fakes, if that is what happens, might make them less valuable as a disinformation weapon. More people could become more familiar with them, as well as being detectable by automated systems — plus they may also have no popular medium on which to spread. Big social media platforms already have declared affirmatively that they'll take down deceptive fakes, Hwang observed. “That might make it more difficult for a scenario in which a politically charged fake video goes viral just before Election Day. “Although it might get easier and easier to create deepfakes, a lot of the places where they might spread most effectively, your Facebooks and Twitters of the world, are getting a lot more aggressive about taking them down,” Hwang said. That won't stop them, but it might mean they'll be relegated to sites with too few users to have a major effect, he said. “They'll percolate in these more shady areas.

### 1NC – Terror D

#### No nuke terror – people like Allison are hacks

* Two decades of threats haven’t panned out
* Too many things can go wrong:

Getting trusted collaborators

Stealing and transporting guarded material

Getting the top technicians in the world

No ability to test

Skilled detonation crew

All that while attracting zero attention

* Weapons have safety devices, are stored in pieces in different places
* Terrorists are like Bond villains that scheme instead of accomplishing anything
* Most attacks are bombs which don’t even work

Mueller and Stewart 10/29/18 [John Mueller is Woody Hayes Senior Research Scientist, Mershon Center for International Security Studies, and adjunct professor of Political Science, at Ohio State University. He is also a Senior Fellow at the Cato Institute in Washington. Mark G. Stewart is Professor of Civil Engineering and Director of the Centre for Infrastructure Performance and Reliability at The University of Newcastle in Australia. Terrorism and Bathtubs: Comparing and Assessing the Risks. October 29, 2018. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09546553.2018.1530662?journalCode=ftpv20]

However, there is of course no guarantee that things will remain that way, and the 9/11 attacks inspired the remarkable extrapolation that, because the terrorists were successful with box cutters, they might soon be able to turn out weapons of mass destruction— particularly nuclear ones—and then detonate them in an American city. For example, in his influential 2004 book, Nuclear Terrorism, Harvard’s Graham Allison relayed his “considered judgment” that “on the current path, a nuclear terrorist attack on America in the decade ahead is more likely than not.”11 Allison has had a great deal of company in his alarming pronouncements. In 2007, the distinguished physicist Richard Garwin put the likelihood of a nuclear explosion on an American or European city by terrorist or other means at 20 percent per year, which would work out to 91 percent over the eleven-year period to 2018.12

Allison’s time is up, and so is Garwin’s. These off-repeated warnings have proven to be empty. And it is important to point out that not only have terrorists failed to go nuclear, but as William Langewiesche, who has assessed the process in detail, put it in 2007, “The best information is that no one has gotten anywhere near this. I mean, if you look carefully and practically at this process, you see that it is an enormous undertaking full of risks for the would-be terrorists.”13 That process requires trusting corrupted foreign collaborators and other criminals, obtaining and transporting highly guarded material, setting up a machine shop staffed with top scientists and technicians, and rolling the heavy, cumbersome, and untested finished product into position to be detonated by a skilled crew, all the while attracting no attention from outsiders.

Nor have terrorist groups been able to steal existing nuclear weapons—characteristically burdened with multiple safety devices and often stored in pieces at separate secure locales

—from existing arsenals as was once much feared. And they certainly have not been able to cajole leaders in nuclear states to palm one off to them—though a war inflicting more death than Hiroshima and Nagasaki combined was launched against Iraq in 2003 in major part under the spell of fantasies about such a handover.14

More generally, the actual terrorist “adversaries” in the West scarcely deserve accolades for either dedication or prowess. It is true, of course, that sometimes even incompetents can get lucky, but such instances, however tragic, are rare. For the most part, terrorists in the United States are a confused, inadequate, incompetent, blundering, and gullible bunch, only occasionally able to get their act together. Most seem to be far better at frenetic and often self-deluded scheming than at actual execution. A summary assessment by RAND’s Brian Jenkins is apt: “their numbers remain small, their determination limp, and their competence poor.”15 And much the same holds for Europe and the rest of the developed world.16 Also working against terrorist success in the West is the fact that almost all are amateurs: they have never before tried to do something like this. Unlike criminals they have not been able to develop street smarts.

Except perhaps for the use of vehicles to deliver mayhem (though this idea is by no means new in the history of terrorism), there has been remarkably little innovation in terrorist weaponry or methodology since 9/11.17 Like their predecessors, they have continued to rely on bombs (many of which fail to detonate or do much damage) and bullets.18

### 1NC – Emerging Tech D

#### No emerging tech impact.

Pinker et al. ’20 [Steven; PhD, Professor of Psychology @ Harvard; Stuart Russell, Professor of Computer Science @ UC Berkeley; Lucas Perry; “Steven Pinker and Stuart Russell on the Foundations, Benefits, and Possible Existential Threat of AI”; June 29th, 2020; https://futureoflife.org/2020/06/15/steven-pinker-and-stuart-russell-on-the-foundations-benefits-and-possible-existential-risk-of-ai/]

Lucas Perry: Now that’s quite a beautiful picture of the future. There’s a lot of existential hope there. The other side to existential hope is existential risk. Now this is an interesting subject, which Steve and you, Stuart, I believe have disagreements about. So pivoting into this area, and Steve, you can go first here, do you believe that human beings, should we not go extinct in the meantime, will we build artificial superintelligence? And does that pose an existential risk to humanity?

Steven Pinker: Yeah, I’m on record as being skeptical of that scenario and dubious about the value of putting a lot of effort into worrying about it now. The concept of superintelligence is itself obscure. In a lot of the discussions you could replace the word “superintelligence” with “magic” or “miracle” and the sentence would read the same. You read about an AI system that could duplicate brains in silicon, or solve problems like war in the Middle East, or cure cancer.  It’s just imagining the possibility of a solution and assuming that the ability to bring it about will exist, without laying out what that intelligence would consist of, or what would count as a solution to the problem.

So I find the concept of superintelligence itself a dubious extrapolation of an unextrapolable continuum, like human-to-animal, or not-so-bright human-to-smart-human. I don’t think there is a power called “intelligence” such that we can compare a squirrel or an octopus to a human and say, “Well, imagine even more of that.”

I’m also skeptical about the existential risk scenarios. They tend to come in two varieties. One is based on the notion of a will to power: that as soon as you get an intelligent system, it will inevitably want to dominate and exploit. Often the analogy is that we humans have exploited and often extinguished animals because we’re smarter than them, so as soon as there is an artificial system that’s smarter than us, it’ll do to us what we did to the dodos. Or that technologically advanced civilizations, like European colonists and conquistadors subjugated and sometimes wiped out indigenous peoples, so that’s what an AI system might do to us. That’s one variety of this scenario.

I think that scenario confuses intelligence with dominance, based on the fact that in one species, Homo sapiens, they happen to come bundled together, because we came about through natural selection, a competitive process driven by relative success at capturing scarce resources and competing for mates, ultimately with the goal of relative reproductive success. But there’s no reason that a system that is designed to pursue a goal would have as its goal, domination. This goes back to our earlier discussion that the ability to achieve a goal is distinct from what the goal is.

It just so happens that in products of natural selection, the goal was winning in reproductive competition. For an artifact we design, there’s just no reason that would be true. This is sometimes called the orthogonality thesis in discussions of existential risk, although that’s just a fancy-schmancy way of referring to Hume’s distinction between our goals and our intelligence.

Now I know that there is an argument that says, “Wouldn’t any intelligence system have to maximize its own survivability, because if it’s given the goal of X, well, you can’t achieve X if you don’t exist, therefore, as a subgoal to achieving X, you’ve got to maximize your own survival at all costs.” I think that’s fallacious. It’s certainly not true that all complex systems have to work toward their own perpetuation. My iPhone doesn’t take any steps to resist my dropping it into a toilet, or letting it run out of power.

You could imagine if it could be programmed like a child to whine, and to cry, and to refuse to do what it’s told to do as its power level went down. We wouldn’t buy one. And we know in the natural world, there are plenty of living systems that sacrifice their own existence for other goals. When a bee stings you, its barbed stinger is dislodged when the bee escapes, killing the bee, but because the bee is programmed to maximize the survivability of the colony, not itself, it willingly sacrifices itself. So it is not true that by definition an intelligent system has to maximize its own power or survivability.

But the more common existential threat scenario is not a will to power but collateral damage. That if an AI system is given a single goal, what if it relentlessly pursues

it without consideration of side effects, including harm to us? There are famous examples that I originally thought were spoofs, but were intended seriously, like giving an AI system the goal of making as many paperclips as possible, and so it converts all available matter into paperclips, including our own bodies (putting aside the fact that we don’t need more efficient paperclip manufacturing than what we already have, and that human bodies are a pretty crummy source of iron for paperclips).

Barely more plausible is the idea that we might give an AI system the goal of curing cancer, and so it will  conscript us as involuntary guinea pigs and induce tumors in all of us, or that we might give it the goal of regulating the level of water behind a dam and it might flood a town because it was never given the goal of not drowning a village.

The problem with these scenarios is that they’re self-refuting.

They assume that an “intelligent” artifact would be designed to implement a single goal, which is not true of even the stupid artifacts that we live with. When we design a car, we don’t just give the goal of going from A to B as fast as possible; we also install brakes and a steering wheel and a muffler and a catalytic converter. A lot of these scenarios seem to presuppose both idiocy on the part of the designers

, who would give a system control over the infrastructure of the entire planet without testing it first to see how it worked, and an idiocy on the part of the allegedly intelligent system, which would pursue a single goal regardless of all the other effects. This does not exist in any human artifact, let alone one that claims to be intelligent. Giving an AI system one vaguely worded, sketchy goal, and empowering it with control over the entire infrastructure of the planet without testing it first seems to me just so self-evidently moronic that I don’t worry that engineers have to be warned against it.

I’ve quoted Stuart himself, who in an interview made the point well when he said, “No one talks about building bridges that don’t fall down. They just call it building bridges.” Likewise, AI that avoids idiocies like that is just AI, it’s not AI with extra safeguards. That’s what intelligence consists of.

# 2NC

### Adv CP

#### Two criticisms Coote provides is increased taxes and trade off with infrastructure spending – but we’ll fiat deficit spending and only taxing the rich as our enforcement mechs and we also fiat infrastructure spending – it concludes that solves – we’re yellow

Anna Coote 19. Principal fellow at the New Economics Foundation and and co-author of Universal Basic Income: A Union Perspective. “Universal basic income doesn’t work. Let’s boost the public realm instead” The Guardian. 05-06-19. https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2019/may/06/universal-basic-income-public-realm-poverty-inequality

A study published this week **sheds doubt on ambitious claims made for universal basic income** (UBI), the scheme that would give everyone regular, unconditional cash payments that are enough to live on. Its advocates claim it would help to reduce poverty, narrow inequalities and tackle the effects of automation on jobs and income. Research conducted for Public Services International, a global trade union federation, reviewed for the first time **16 practical projects** that have tested different ways of distributing regular cash payments to individuals across a range of poor, middle-income and rich countries, as well as copious literature on the topic. It could find **no evidence** to suggest that such a scheme could be **sustained for all individuals** in **any country** in the short, medium or longer term – or that this approach could achieve lasting improvements in wellbeing or equality. The research confirms the importance of generous, non-stigmatising income support, but everything turns on how much money is paid, under what conditions and with what consequences for the welfare system as a whole. From Kenya and southern India to Alaska and Finland, cash payment schemes have been claimed to show that UBI “works”. In fact, what’s been tested in practice is almost infinitely varied, with cash paid at different levels and intervals, usually well below the poverty line and mainly to individuals selected because they are severely disadvantaged, with funds provided by charities, corporations and development agencies more often than by governments. Experiments in India and Kenya have been funded, respectively, by Unicef and Give Directly, a US charity supported by Google. They give money to people on very low incomes in selected villages for fixed periods of time. Giving small amounts of cash to people who have next to nothing is **bound to make a difference** – and indeed, these schemes have helped to improve recipients’ health and livelihoods. But nothing is revealed about their **longer-term viability**, or how they could be **scaled up to serve whole populations.** And there is a democratic deficit: people who get their basic income from charities or aid agencies have no control over how payments are made, to whom, at what level or over what period of time. The Alaska Permanent Fund, built from the state’s oil revenues, pays all adults and children a dividend each year – in 2018, it was $1,600 (£1,230). The scheme is popular and enduring; it has been found to produce some positive impacts on rural indigenous groups, but it makes no claim to sufficiency and **has done nothing to reduce child poverty or to prevent widening income inequalities.** Helsinki city centre Finland undertook a two-year trial, from January 2017 to December 2018, of modest monthly payments of €560 (£477) to 2,000 unemployed people – but the government has refused to fund further expansion. It told us little about UBI except that, when push comes to shove, elected politicians may balk at paying for a universal scheme. The cost of a sufficient UBI scheme would be **extremely high** according to the International Labour Office, which estimates average costs equivalent to 20-30% of GDP in most countries. Costs can be reduced – and have been in most trials – by paying smaller amounts to fewer individuals. But there is no evidence to suggest that a partial or conditional UBI scheme could do anything to mitigate, let alone reverse, current trends towards worsening poverty, inequality and labour insecurity. **Costs may be offset by raising taxes** or shifting expenditure from other kinds of public expenditure, but either way there are huge and risky trade-offs. Money spent on cash payments cannot be invested elsewhere. The more generous the payments, the wider the range of recipients, the longer the scheme continues, the less money will be left to build the structures and systems that are needed to realise UBI’s progressive goals. As this week’s report observes, “If cash payments are allowed to take precedence, there’s a serious risk of **crowding out efforts** to build collaborative, sustainable services and infrastructure – and setting a pattern for future development that promotes commodification rather than emancipation.” This may help to explain why UBI has attracted support from Silicon Valley tycoons, who are more interested in **defending consumer capitalism than in tackling poverty and inequality.**

#### Infrastructure maintenance spending solves the wealth gap

Jennifer French Giarratano Andrew Young School of Policy Studies JUNE 19, **20**17 “Infrastructure Maintenance Spending Can Reduce Inequality, Georgia State Economists Find” <http://news.gsu.edu/2017/06/19/infrastructure-spending-inequality-reduction/> )//masw

ATLANTA—Public infrastructure spending on maintenance projects has a greater impact on economic growth and equitable wealth distribution than spending on new investments, according to Georgia State University research.

In “Public Infrastructure Maintenance and the Distribution of Wealth,” (Economic Inquiry, 2017), economists John Gibson and Felix Rioja of the Andrew Young School of Policy Studies examined the impact of infrastructure maintenance spending on economic output and wealth distribution. For their model they used Mexico, an emerging market where the level of infrastructure is average for Latin American countries while its income per capita ranks among the top third in that region.

“Poor infrastructure networks—whether roads, railways, airports, water systems or power utilities—are rated globally among the greatest barriers to doing business,” said Gibson, an assistant professor of economics. “Insufficient spending can lead to deterioration and a reduction in services, which will increase both transportation and production costs.”

Several prior studies have shown public infrastructure investment positively affects growth. Rioja’s earlier studies also found that spending more on maintenance rather than new infrastructure can have a larger positive impact on economic output. Yet no earlier study had analyzed how various policies may influence the distribution of wealth and degree of inequality present in the economy.

“Governments often neglect maintenance in favor of building new infrastructure,” said Gibson. “Our first key finding shows that spending more on maintenance rather than on new investment can increase aggregate Gross Domestic Product and foster the more equitable distribution of wealth. Poorer households that experience an increase in infrastructure services increase their savings at a comparatively higher rate than do richer households.”

They also found that spending more on maintenance rather than new investment yielded the highest improvements to overall output, income and wealth.

“Policymakers need to pay much more attention to maintenance within their spending priorities,” the economists conclude.

#### The United States federal government should cease continuation of Google and Facebook cases – also means they don’t lose

### 1

#### Here is an example – also cites studies so means the aff independently fails

Sherk 9 [James Sherk, research fellow in labor economics at The Heritage Foundation. “What Unions Do: How Labor Unions Affect Jobs and the Economy.” 5/21/9. https://www.heritage.org/jobs-and-labor/report/what-unions-do-how-labor-unions-affect-jobs-and-the-economy]

Unions function as labor cartels. A labor cartel restricts the number of workers in a company or industry to drive up the remaining workers' wages, just as the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) attempts to cut the supply of oil to raise its price. Companies pass on those higher wages to consumers through higher prices, and often they also earn lower profits. Economic research finds that unions benefit their members but hurt consumers generally, and especially workers who are denied job opportunities.

The average union member earns more than the average non-union worker. However, that does not mean that expanding union membership will raise wages: Few workers who join a union today get a pay raise. What explains these apparently contradictory findings? The economy has become more competitive over the past generation. Companies have less power to pass price increases on to consumers without going out of business. Consequently, unions do not negotiate higher wages for many newly organized workers. These days, unions win higher wages for employees only at companies with competitive advantages that allow them to pay higher wages, such as successful research and development (R&D) projects or capital investments.

#### Gig workers excluded by the standard – thumps it – not considered ‘workers’ – we’re yellow

Firat Cengiz 20. School of Law and Social Justice, University of Liverpool. "The conflict between market competition and worker solidarity: moving from consumer to a citizen welfare standard in competition law". Cambridge Core. 10-8-2020. https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/legal-studies/article/conflict-between-market-competition-and-worker-solidarity-moving-from-consumer-to-a-citizen-welfare-standard-in-competition-law/6E783D1FC4BAB5605DFABCD17FBE3F35

Introduction

This paper offers a critical investigation of the law and economics of competition law enforcement in conflicts between workers and employers in the European Union (hereinafter EU) and the US. In such cases competition law comes into direct conflict with the principle of worker solidarity: according to the principle of market competition individuals are expected to take independent economic decisions and actions, whereas workers need to take collective economic actions and decisions to protect their interests. This conflict is particularly obvious in the context of the so-called gig economy,1 in which employers keep casualised workers at legal arms’ length to reduce labour and regulatory costs.2 If gig workers take collective action against their working conditions, they might face attack from competition law, because legally they might be considered independent service providers, rather than workers.3

The legal conundrum facing gig workers has become an increasingly popular subject in the law and economics literature.4 Nevertheless, the more fundamental question of how the enforcement of competition rules affects the overall position of workers beyond the limited case of the gig economy remains largely unexplored. This paper aims to investigate this broader and more fundamental question. In order to provide a sufficiently global answer, the paper focuses on the legal positions of the EU and US, as the leading competition law jurisdictions and primary competition policy exporters.5 The EU–US comparison shows that despite the slightly different legal tests applied in these polities, competition rules constitute nearly equally disciplining mechanisms against collective worker action on either side of the Atlantic.

This paper also makes an original contribution to the emerging debate on whether and how competition law can contribute to wealth equality between citizens in the post-2008 crisis economy. The existing debate on the competition law–equality relationship takes the ‘consumer welfare’ standard as its main reference point: it focuses exclusively on the distribution of wealth between consumers and producers; as a result, it overlooks the production process that takes place before consumers meet products and services, and the position of workers within it.6 This is a natural result of competition law's reliance on a limited area of neoclassical economics called ‘equilibrium economics’ that understands efficiency exclusively as a market mechanism in which the price manifests itself where supply meets demand.7 Departing from the mainstream competition law and economics methodology, this paper builds its investigation on a holistic theoretical foundation, looking beyond equilibrium economics at labour exploitation theory as established in neoclassical as well as Marxian models. This analysis shows that despite standing at opposing ends of the political spectrum and whilst having some fundamental differences, Marxist and neoclassical models agree that collective worker action is economically beneficial and socially necessary. As a result, a critical analysis of the current legal situation on both sides of the Atlantic in light of this holistic framework illustrates how competition law's hostility towards collective worker action is not only unjust but also economically unsound.

This paper demonstrates that the key problem in competition law's treatment of labour stems from the application of the consumer welfare standard in cases involving the competition–solidarity conflict without paying any attention to the idiosyncratic qualities of labour that render it naturally open to exploitation. Similarly, the consumer welfare standard overlooks the fact that consumers and workers are essentially the same group of people and one's welfare cannot be increased or decreased without affecting the other's.8 Even if worker exploitation could result in reduced labour costs and decreased prices, this cannot be deemed efficient as it reduces the workers’ welfare and results in broader negative socio-economic effects. Similarly, collective worker action resulting in higher labour costs and potentially higher prices cannot automatically be deemed inefficient, because although this might increase the prices consumers pay, they benefit from higher wages and better working conditions in their position as workers. As a result of this critical analysis, the paper proposes an original and more inclusive ‘citizen welfare’ standard that takes into account the economic effects of anti-competitive behaviour on workers as well as consumers. The citizen welfare standard could also potentially be applied in other contexts to solve long-standing conflicts between competition and other policy objectives, such as industrial, environmental and social policy objectives,9 although this paper primarily focuses on the application of citizen welfare to the competition–solidarity conflict.

The structure of the paper is as follows: the next section provides an opening discussion of competition law, consumer welfare and equality. This is followed by a discussion of the economic theory of labour exploitation. Then, the paper investigates how competition law approaches the competition–solidarity conflict in the EU and the US. The fourth section critically discusses the EU and US legal positions in light of economic theory. This section also develops the citizen welfare approach as an alternative to consumer welfare for the resolution of the competition–solidarity conflict. This is finally followed with conclusions. Regarding terminology, this paper uses the term ‘worker’ (rather than employee) as a non-legal, generic term encompassing all individuals who make a living by providing labour power as a production factor in the production process of goods and services. Similarly, the term ‘labour’ is used to refer to the contribution of the workers to the production process as an abstract human factor. However, if the courts or authorities in question use a different term (such as employee) in a specific case, the paper uses the same term in the discussion of that specific case.

#### American corporations bought out judges – they’ll use the aff in corporate protectionist ways

Root 19 [Danielle Root, director of voting rights and access to justice on the Democracy and Government Reform team at the Center for American Progress. Sam Berger, vice president of Democracy and Government Reform at the Center for American Progress. “Structural Reforms to the Federal Judiciary.” 5/8/2019. https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/courts/reports/2019/05/08/469504/structural-reforms-federal-judiciary/]

Discussions of the federal judiciary often focus on the substance of decisions made—which side wins and which side loses—and rightly so. These individual opinions are frequently of incredible importance, not just to the parties involved but in shaping the law more broadly. Yet this focus on substantive decisions has obscured deeper structural factors at play in the nation’s federal judiciary. Structural problems—such as lack of judicial diversity, ideologue judges, and lack of judicial accountability—undercut the courts’ legitimacy and have tangible negative effects on judicial decision-making. Instead of protecting everyday Americans by serving as a check on abuses of power, too often the federal courts have become a tool for carrying out the agendas of special interests and corporations.

Structural problems with the judiciary have always existed to varying degrees. But they have been exacerbated in recent years due to an ongoing campaign by conservatives to take control of the federal courts, often through procedural changes that have significant effects but garner little public attention. The problem has now reached a crisis point. Conservatives have shown a willingness to abandon any and all norms to undermine the judicial nominations process and pack the courts with judges who will help them realize political goals they cannot achieve through the political process. These judges have proven more than willing to carry out the task, supporting the most specious of legal claims in order to skew the system in favor of conservative interests and even prevent many Americans from accessing the courts at all.

#### Enforcement and prohibition are distinct steps

Alan S. Kaplinsky & Mark J. Levin 1, Kaplinsky is the former longtime Practice Leader of the firm's Consumer Financial Services Group; Senior Counsel @ Ballard Spahr, “ANATOMY OF AN ARBITRATION CLAUSE: DRAFTING AND IMPLEMENTATION ISSUES WHICH SHOULD BE CONSIDERED BY A CONSUMER LENDER,” May 2001, ALI-ABA COURSE OF STUDY MATERIALS, Lexis

. So that there is no misunderstanding on the part of the consumer, the lender should consider expressly disclosing the unavailability of class actions in arbitration, as in the sample clause language. Some lenders go even further and include an express "waiver" by the consumer of any right to participate in or prosecute a class action. But, see, the Reporter's Notes to Section 10 of the Proposed Revisions of the Uniform Arbitration Act (February, 2000) which states: "In some cases [i.e., where the clause specifically precludes class actions], such provisions may effectively undermine consumer's rights by making the relative cost of arbitrating or securing effective legal representation cost prohibitive. In such cases, it may be appropriate for a court to refuse to enforce the term prohibiting class actions and consolidation under Section 6 of the Act." Section 6(a) of the Revised UAA provides that an arbitration agreement "is valid, enforceable, and irrevocable except upon grounds that exist in law or in equity for the revocation of any contract."

#### Most workers aren’t affected.

Schubert et al. ‘21 [Gregor; 1/18/21; Ph.D. Candidate in Business Economics at the Harvard Economics Department and the Harvard Business School; et al.; "Employer Concentration and Outside Options," https://scholar.harvard.edu/files/stansbury/files/stansbury-jmp-jan18.pdf/]

On the other hand, our results do not support the idea that employer concentration is a major factor in wage suppression for the majority of U.S. workers. (This does not imply that other sources of monopsony power are not at play for workers in unconcentrated labor markets, notably arising from search frictions, switching costs, or differentiated jobs). While a very large share of occupation-city labor markets are highly concentrated according to typical thresholds, the majority of U.S. workers are not in labor markets with high degrees of employer concentration as measured by typical thresholds.58 This is because the most concentrated labor markets tend to be those with the fewest workers. So, while the effects of concentration on wages are non-trivial for the subset of workers in highly-affected labor markets, the aggregate effect of employer concentration on wages is unlikely to be very large, and employer concentration cannot explain more than a small share of aggregate income inequality.59

#### Big firms are better for workers.

Atkinson ’18 [Robert and Michael Lind; March 30; PhD from the University of North Carolina; professor of practice at the Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs at the University of Texas, JD from the University of Texas Law School, International Relations MA from Yale University; Big is Beautiful: Debunking the Myth of Small Business, “The Bigger the Better: The Economics of Firm Size,” Ch. 4]

Wages

For most working-age people, labor income (wages or salary) is the major source of income. And virtually every study shows that big firms pay more than small firms. Even Walmart, the retail giant that progressives love to hate,5 pays its retail workers on average 25 percent more than the industry average.6 One study found that “working in a store with 500+ employees pays 26 percent more for high-school educated and 36 percent more for those with some college education, relative to working in a store with fewer than ten employees.7 So if you are advising your children where to work—in a big corporation or a small company—advise them to go big if they want to maximize lifetime earnings.

This difference is not new. As far back as 1890, when the US Census Bureau first started collecting the data, large manufacturers paid their workers more than small ones.8 This pattern has held over time and across nations. Indeed, it is as consistent a finding as anything in economics. One review of the literature concluded, “Our bottom line is that the size-wage differential appears to be both sizeable and omnipresent.”9

A study from the early 2000s showed that firms with more than 500 workers in the US pay 28 percent more than small firms. In 2015 workers employed by large firms earned on average 54 percent more than workers in companies with fewer than 100 workers.10 And this is true across sectors. For example, workers employed at large US hog farms earn 38 percent more than workers at average-sized hog farms.11 Similarly, as a 2014 study from researchers at Stanford and the University of Michigan found, large chain retailers like Walmart “pay considerably more than small mom-and-pop establishments. Moreover, large firms and large establishments give access to managerial ranks and hierarchy.”12 And large firms give bigger increases to their workers: “Staying an additional year in a large firm brings an estimated average of 3.4% increase in salary in large firms but only 2.6% in small firms.”13 This pattern is repeated around the world. In Germany, average wages in firms with one to nine employees are about half those in large firms.14 Even after controlling for industry to reflect the fact that some industries with larger firms pay more and for differences in level of education of workers between firms, big firms still paid 14 percent more in the United States and 8 percent more in Canada.15

Small firms are also much more likely to employ low-wage workers. A 2007 study by The Urban Institute found that “Low-income workers are disproportionately likely to work in smaller firms. Although 20 percent of all workers are employed in firms with fewer than 10 workers, such firms employ 42 percent of low-wage workers and 35 percent of low-wage workers in low-income families with children.” Large firms with over 500 workers employ just 28 percent of low wage workers, but 44 percent of all workers.16

The wage gap is even larger in many developing nations. Indian firms with five to forty-nine workers paid their workers just 22 percent of what firms with more than 200 workers paid. Indonesian workers at small firms made 32 percent of the salaries of workers in large firms, in the Philippines 35 percent, in South Korea 50 percent, in China 60 percent, and in Thailand 72 percent.17 As a World Bank study concludes, “Large firms offer more stable employment, higher wages and more non-wage benefits than small firms in developed and developing countries, even after controlling for differences in education, experience and industry.”18 So for developing nations in particular, boosting living standards requires boosting firm size.

Is age the determining factor rather than size? Do new firms pay better than older firms? No. The average new firm paid its workers 72 percent of the average wage in the firm’s first year, and even four years later their wages were still below the average.19

The data lead to a clear if controversial conclusion: if policy makers want to improve wages, they should focus their efforts on helping both existing large firms and the minority of small firms that are capable of significant growth.

Benefits

In the United States, workers in large companies receive 85 percent more supplemental pay (e.g., overtime and bonuses), 2.5 times more in the value of paid leave and insurance (e.g., health insurance), and 3.9 times more in retirement benefits (and more than 5 times more in defined benefit plan contributions) than workers in firms with fewer than 100 workers.20 For example, few small retailers match their employee’s 401k contributions, if they even provide plans. But Walmart provides a 6 percent company match after one year on the job.21 Large firms (100 or more employees) are almost twice as likely to offer paid life insurance and disability insurance as smaller firms.22

#### Nationalism won’t cause great power war

Louis F. **Cooper 16**, His online writing includes “Reflections on U.S. Foreign Policy” at the U.S. Intellectual History Blog (July 16, 2014). His Ph.D. is from the School of International Service, American University., 12-6-2016, "WPTPN: Will Populist Nationalism Lead to Great-Power War?," No Publication, http://duckofminerva.com/2016/12/wptpn-will-populist-nationalism-lead-to-great-power-war.html

Several reasons present themselves. First, nuclear weapons have given the prospect of a global war, or any great-power war, a possibility of civilization-ending finality that it did not have in the past. Second, the security architecture created under U.S. leadership after World War II has arguably worked to reduce the likelihood of major armed conflict among the great powers. Third, the existence of a network of international institutions, both inside and outside the UN system, has pushed in the same direction. Fourth, it is very possible that, as John Mueller and Christopher Fettweis have argued, decision-makers have to come see great-power war as “subrationally unthinkable, or not even part of the option set for the great powers.”[ii] The extreme destructiveness of the twentieth century’s world wars, fueled partly by developments in technology, might well have produced long-term effects on how leaders and publics think about global or great-power war, in a way, for instance, that the Napoleonic Wars, for all their horror and bloodiness, did not. Phil Arena’s recent contribution to this series argues that if the U.S. under a Trump administration signals an unwillingness to defend its allies, then Putin might be tempted to gamble on an invasion of the Baltics or Kim Jong-Un similarly might gamble on an invasion of South Korea (and that would drag in China). Putting aside Kim Jong-Un for the moment as a special case, let’s consider Putin. As long as NATO exists – and Trump, despite his statements about the unfairness of the distribution of cost burdens, has not suggested, as far as I’m aware, that he wants to dissolve the alliance – then Putin would have to assume that an attack on the Baltics would trigger a NATO response. Even if Putin does not see great-power war as unthinkable or outside his “option set,” one would assume that for reasons of pure self-interest he would not want to risk a nuclear war. Nor, one might think, would he want to jeopardize the prospect of better (from his standpoint) relations with a U.S. administration less concerned with, among other things, his commission of war crimes in Syria or his annexation of Crimea than the Obama administration has been. For these reasons, I’m not too worried that the advent of the Trump administration will lead to a war with Russia over the Baltics. The Korean peninsula is, perhaps, a more worrisome situation. Chances are, however, that Trump, after taking office, will be prevailed upon to make reassuring noises about the U.S. commitment to South Korea, and that should suffice to deter Kim Jong-Un from doing anything too rash. The cautionary point here, admittedly, is that it’s not clear whether Kim can be counted on to behave in a minimally rational fashion. Putin, whatever one might think of him, is rational. It’s not entirely clear whether Kim is. However, if Kim is irrational then all bets are off regardless of what U.S. policy pronouncements are forthcoming. World politics is not invariably cyclical and states can learn from experience (as even Gilpin acknowledged). If one admits this and pays due attention to history, then it is plausible to think that the force of populist nationalism, as expressed in more erratic and/or less ‘internationalist’ official policy, will not, whatever its other effects may be, increase the low likelihoo

#### No populist wars

Saleem 21 [Raja M. Ali Saleem, Associate Professor (Public Policy) at the Centre for Public Policy and Governance at Forman Christian College in Lahore, Pakistan. “Military and Populism: An Introduction.” 4/26/21. https://www.populismstudies.org/military-and-populism-an-introduction/]

The points of contention between populists and the military are primarily populism’s anti-capitalism, anti-science, and anti-war program. Populists are generally anti-capitalistic, which is problematic to the military as capitalists are enthusiastic about military expenditures and generally support wars. US President Dwight D. Eisenhower, himself a former five-star general, warned the Americans about the rise of the military-industrial complex. Populists are also against foreign interventions and wars and are generally ready to decrease defense expenditures to increase the budget for social programs, which is not acceptable to the military. Populists are also anti-science, making their alliance with the army difficult as nowadays the armed forces use the most sophisticated technologies available.

There are several possible ways in which the military deals with populism and populist leaders. In advanced consolidated democracies, the military, as an institution, keeps its opinions to itself and serves whoever is elected. Populist leaders—because of their fiery rhetoric and meager respect for conventional legal rules—are more difficult to deal with. Depending on their institutional interests, the military elite silently helps or thwarts populist leaders while remaining within the laws and rules in advanced democracies. The interests of the military generally find more acceptance in right-wing populism than left-wing populism. The idea of the nation being in danger from foreigners or traitors who are constantly conspiring against it supports authoritarianism and an increased role of law-enforcement agencies, including the military.

The military is also considered the most nationalistic and less corrupt part of the elite. The familiar populist refrain of the glorious past is usually based on the past military victories of the national core—namely, the majority ethnolinguistic or religious group. This refrain also helps otherizing minorities, which the right-wing considers part of the problem. The right-wing populists are ready to militarily deal with this “problem,” which has less representation in the military. Left-wing populism is generally pacifist and against war and using the military against minorities. One area where both right-wing and left-wing populists seem to agree is that military interventions in other countries should be limited or avoided altogether.

#### The economy will boom in ’22 – inflation, unemployment, wages, housing, and Covid – all help inequality – also answers COVID thumper

Baker 1/1 [Dean Baker, economist and co-founder of the Center for Economic and Policy Research. “Commentary: The good news in 2022 will be the economy.” 1/1/22. https://fredericksburg.com/opinion/columns/commentary-the-good-news-in-2022-will-be-the-economy/article\_1b6e1f27-828c-5fd8-8652-a6f2a1669386.html]

THIS IS probably a minority position, but I feel very confident in saying that 2022 will be a very good year for the economy. We are looking at a situation where we have low unemployment, falling inflation and rising real wages. It is likely to be the best economy we have seen in many decades.

In recent weeks, inflation has been front and center in people’s minds as the media have given us endless stories about higher prices for gasoline, milk and other items.

Many have been convinced that inflation will only get higher, outstripping wages and leaving most workers worse off. This is not going to be the case.

We now see inflation driven by supply chain problems associated with reopening. This is demonstrated by the fact that we see big jumps in inflation almost everywhere. The United Kingdom, Germany, Spain and many other countries have all seen a rise in prices similar to what we see in the United States.

The reason this matters is because we will get through these supply chain problems. When we do, inflation will slow, and in many cases, be reversed.

We are already seeing this story in some cases. The price of gasoline has risen by almost 50 percent over the last year. This was the result of a surge in oil prices following a pandemic plunge. Oil producers who had shut down in the pandemic were surprised by the economy’s rapid growth. They are now catching up, and the world price of oil has fallen by 20 percent from its November peaks. Gas prices will soon follow oil prices down.

There is a similar story with cars. New- and used-car prices have soared in the last year primarily because a worldwide shortage of semiconductors forced auto manufacturers to cut back production. Several manufacturers are back up to capacity now, and the others are likely to be soon. This means the price hikes of 2021 will be largely reversed in 2022.

With inflation coming down rapidly, workers’ pay will go further. And, many workers should be in a position in 2022 to secure pay increases well in excess of inflation.

The 4.2 percent unemployment rate reported for November is already low by historical standards, but it will get still lower in 2022.

We are likely to see an unemployment rate close to 3.5 percent by the middle of the year, putting us at a 50-year low.

Low unemployment primarily benefits the most disadvantaged workers. Black and Hispanic workers, workers with less education, and people with criminal records get opportunities in a tight labor market that they would not typically see.

We are also likely to see mortgage interest rates remain low. This is good news for both home buyers and for people who have not yet refinanced a mortgage.

Low mortgage interest rates should also help fuel the sort of relocation process that started during the pandemic with increased opportunities for people to work from home. With many employers now making work-from-home options permanent, people are moving from high-priced cities like New York and San Francisco to lower-priced towns and cities. This process will continue and pick up speed in 2022.

A huge wild card in any forecast for the economy for 2022 is the path of the pandemic. This is obviously uncertain, but there are some grounds for optimism, even as we see cases and deaths skyrocket in this holiday season. Vaccination rates continue to rise, and the evidence shows that fully vaccinated people are largely protected from serious illness or death.

The other factor that could potentially be very good news is the spread of the omicron variant. We know that omicron is far more transmissible than delta or other COVID-19 variants. But, the evidence to date indicates that it is considerably less severe. Even though cases have skyrocketed in South Africa, the first country where omicron was identified, there has been no corresponding increase in hospitalizations and deaths. It’s still early, and more data may give us a different picture. However, from what we see to date, if omicron becomes the dominant variant, we may have much less to fear from the pandemic.

### 2

#### FTC is serious about cracking down on dominant companies and protecting small businesses and democracy—labor is one of many issues. Congress is necessary to challenge mergers and acquistions. cal’s yellow

Nicolás Rivero 21. NU Graduate. "Biden’s antitrust crusaders can’t crusade without Congress". Quartz. 3-11-2021. https://qz.com/1982437/lina-khan-and-tim-wu-need-congress-to-push-their-antitrust-agenda/amp/

US president Joe Biden is poised to promote two of the country’s most prominent anti-monopoly crusaders to top jobs in his administration. The moves signal that Biden is serious about cracking down on dominant companies that include Facebook, Google, Amazon, and Apple. But for the president’s trustbusting champions to make a real impact, they’ll need support from Congress.

Biden appointed Columbia law professor Tim Wu to the National Economic Council (NEC) as his top advisor on technology and competition on March 5. Politico reports that Biden will soon follow up by nominating Lina Khan, also a Columbia law professor, to the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). (Before she can take her seat as one of the antitrust agency’s five commissioners, Khan must be confirmed by the Senate.)

Khan and Wu are two of the leading voices in a new movement of legal thought that argues the US should fundamentally overhaul the way it approaches antitrust. The crux of their argument is that courts should broaden the values they consider when deciding whether to block a merger or break up a dominant company. Rather than focus narrowly on the impact a company has on consumer prices, they argue that judges should also think about a company’s impact on small businesses, labor rights, and the health of democracy.

Khan and Wu have already secured a win for their cause just by being appointed—essentially a White House stamp of approval on their viewpoints. But despite much handwringing from industry groups, neither appointee will be able to single-handedly remake American antitrust in their image.

How the FTC can tackle antitrust

To be sure, Wu can advocate loudly for his preferred policies from his perch at the NEC, which advises the president on economic policy. And if Khan makes it to the FTC, which is the top US antitrust enforcement agency, she’ll have direct influence over which investigations the agency prioritizes, which lawsuits it brings, and whether its prosecutors will ask judges to impose fines, break up dominant firms, or require them to change their business practices.

But there are clear limits to their power. The most the FTC can do is bring more antitrust cases that ask courts for more aggressive remedies, like breakups. That would allow the agency to make a point about what it considers acceptable business behavior. But many of those lawsuits would be bound to lose in front of judges who have grown far more skeptical of antitrust cases over the past four decades and far more conservative over the past four years.

A larger caseload would also require Congress to approve more funding for the cash-strapped agency, which is already struggling to pay for its current docket. “The agencies have been asked on many occasions to do a lot with relatively little…but it’s not for free,” says former FTC chair and George Washington University law professor Bill Kovacic. If the FTC wants to pursue more large cases without a bigger budget, “they’ll have to make choices, and those choices will involve backing off of other areas of enforcement.”

The FTC could also decide to dust off its rarely used rule-making power and declare certain anticompetitive business practices illegal. But any new rule would almost certainly trigger legal challenges, which would spark a long, expensive court battle in front of judges who aren’t likely to be sympathetic. Kovacic estimates the process could take four or five years—and in the end, judges might just strike the rule down.

How Congress can tackle antitrust

The best hope for stricter antitrust enforcement lies in Congress. Lawmakers could pass bills, like one recently proposed by Minnesota senator Amy Klobuchar, that would make it easier for enforcement agencies to challenge mergers and acquisitions. They could even go a step further and draft an updated set of antitrust laws, perhaps following the blueprint laid out in last year’s antitrust report from the House of Representatives (which was co-authored by Khan). Armed with new laws clearly banning specific behaviors, prosecutors at the Department of Justice and the FTC would stand a better chance winning cases against well-funded adversaries like Facebook and Google.

Those steps wouldn’t hinge on heroics from antitrust hardliners like Khan and Wu. Instead, their success would depend on the whims of Senate centrists like West Virginia’s Joe Manchin, who has lately been flexing his power to derail the chamber’s democratic majority in opposition to left-wing priorities like a $15 minimum wage.

Ultimately, Congress should be the body that sets US antitrust policy. It has the clearest authority to ban the bullying business tactics for which Big Tech firms have been criticized. Legislative fixes are likely to be quicker and less vulnerable to court challenges—not to mention more democratic—than changing FTC rules. And it has traditionally been Congress’s prerogative to keep the country’s antitrust policy up to date: Legislators updated the monopoly laws every two decades or so between 1890 and 1950 to respond to new threats. They’ve just neglected that tradition for the past 70 years.

#### CHakrovorti is exclusively about tech. does not say labor—cal’s yellow

Bhaskar Chakravorti 7/7/21. Dean of global business at Tufts University’s Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy. "Lina Khan Has Her Own Antitrust Paradox". Foreign Policy. 7-7-2021. https://foreignpolicy.com/2021/07/07/ftc-lina-khan-regulate-tech-congress/

A poisoned chalice is not the most welcoming of gifts for a new chair of a major federal agency. But that is what legal scholar Lina Khan has been handed as she arrives at her office at the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), with media coverage more befitting a rock star than a regulator. She is breathlessly described as a legal wunderkind and her “Amazon’s Antitrust Paradox” may already be the most widely talked about note in the history of the Yale Law Journal. Even Sen. Ted Cruz said he looks forward to working with her—and you know that puts her in an extremely select club. The clock is ticking on her very first assignment—to refile an antitrust complaint against Facebook and convince a federal judge to reconsider a complaint he so expeditiously threw out. Khan has under 30 days.

The best thing Khan can do? Nothing.

Congress ought to make the next move and do the responsible thing by getting its act together and reaching an agreement over a slate of bills it has been bickering over, creating a modern regulatory infrastructure for today’s tech. U.S. lawmakers ought to stop cheering Khan from the sidelines and egging her into a legal skirmish. Instead, they need to do the hard work of taking the longer view—bringing antitrust law to the digital age before refiling another complaint. Unless our lawmakers create the right framework and agency responsible for regulating the digital industry, Khan’s FTC—and U.S. consumers—will be drawn into near-term battles while the actual war rages on.

Here is the plot so far and what must be done.

The Facebook antitrust rewrite Khan is being pushed into is fraught with problems. The FTC, under the previous administration, rushed through a lawsuit against Facebook in December 2020, alleging the company’s acquisitions of Instagram and WhatsApp were anti-competitive. Regardless of the merits or demerits of Facebook’s purchases, a federal judge did not buy it. He did offer a 30-day period for revising and refiling.

To be sure, antitrust lawsuits must meet high hurdles and take their time to wind through courts, but the speed of this rejection was stunning. Unsurprisingly, hopes are now pinned on Khan being precisely the person to take on the challenge—and advice is pouring in on how to go back for round two. Some have argued the agency just needs to be more explicit about its definition of the market and the data it is relying on.

It is useful to recall that, as the judge threw out the complaint, he also ruled that “the FTC’s inability to offer any indication of the metric(s) or method(s) it used to calculate Facebook’s market share renders its vague ‘60%-plus’ assertion too speculative and conclusory to go forward.” Defining the “market” and “market share” as well as putting data against these are not straightforward in Facebook’s case.

Since access to the social media platform is free to users, figuring out the “market” might mean considering the advertising customers who actually pay for space there see. Here, Facebook’s share is as low as across all U.S. online advertising. The share climbs to 60 percent when limited to U.S. social media advertising but then drops away when the social media advertising market is considered globally. Moreover, “social networking” itself is a fluid category. A Facebook commissioned study found that 90 percent of the people who use one of Facebook’s apps also use YouTube and 25 percent also use Twitter. To complicate matters further, in Apple’s App Store, Facebook is classified as “social networking,” but YouTube is “video, music, and live streaming” and Twitter is “news.” Other metrics, such as time spent on the apps or total user interactions, are not regularly reported. No matter how the FTC reframes the market and market share (and even if it is accepted by the judge), the definitions will be open to numerous challenges, which will surely lengthen the legal process, giving the defendant the upper hand.

One might argue the conventional metrics for proving monopoly power—“market share” and related measures—are outmoded and a different approach is needed. The FTC might, instead, frame the complaint against Facebook differently: The company used its dominance to play fast and loose with user data. For such an argument to hold though, it needs to be linked to implications for consumer welfare—the prevailing standard for antitrust that has been applied since the 1960s. But how does one prove consumers are harmed by the fact that Facebook is collecting their data? Clearly, part of the data being collected gives users services tailored to their interests that many users find beneficial. This begs more questions: Are users being asked for more data than is strictly necessary? Is the information being collected in intrusive or abusive ways? Ultimately, the FTC and the courts would have decide if customers are getting a good value in exchange for their data.

Regardless of how one discusses consumer welfare, Khan, especially, ought to resist being forced into this straightjacket; after all, she has argued that antitrust standards based on consumer welfare are unfit to gauge competitiveness in the digital economy. To put her ideas into practice, she ought to have the freedom to bring a case that rests on the argument that a company’s impact on the market structure inhibits competition.

Since Khan has written forcefully about revisiting antitrust standards, it is natural to expect this case would be her chance to rewrite not only the charge against Facebook but to change those standards more broadly. There is little doubt this is where her mind is. The FTC under her leadership voted to revoke a 2015 policy statement that limited the agency’s reach, giving it room to frame cases beyond the two foundational boundaries of antitrust in the United States: the Sherman Antitrust Act and the Clayton Antitrust Act.

But the FTC’s levers are limited.

Although Khan can reframe the fundamentals of the antitrust complaint, without adequate regulatory infrastructure—something only Congress can provide—there are likely to be unsurmountable obstacles as the chess game between the law and Facebook unfolds. No matter how brilliantly Khan’s FTC rewrites the case against Facebook, the agency’s powers, budget, and resources are still limited. Ad hoc adjustments to the FTC’s budget, as envisioned in one of the bills in Congress, and stopgap measures to expand its powers do not get around the fundamental fact that the FTC was not set up to pursue the breadth of novel issues and policy trade-offs that digital industries create.

#### Overly broad rulemaking decimates the FTC. They need to win big cases—ie FTC v Facebook—to execute their mandate. Cal’s yellow.

Marianela Lopez-Galdos 7/28/21. Global Competition Counsel at the Computer& Communications Industry Association, previously served as Director of Competition & Regulatory Policy, and is a professor at George Washington University Competition Law Center and at the University of Melbourne Law School. “Policy Decisions of Antitrust Institutions Series: The Future of the FTC and Its Perils”. Disruptive Competition Project. https://www.project-disco.org/competition/072821-policy-decisions-of-antitrust-institutions-series-the-future-of-the-ftc-and-its-perils/

But the current FTC leadership seems to have overlooked the agency’s history. As such, it has already promised to produce different policy outcomes and noted that the Section 5 Policy Guidelines were shortsighted. As a result, the current FTC has decided, with the support of the other two Democratic Commissioners, to rescind the Policy Guidelines.

It is unknown whether the current FTC will try to adopt different guidelines or whether it will start opening more cases under Section 5 of the FTC Act. Furthermore, it is less clear whether the new FTC leadership currently counts with the sufficient and aligned Neo-Brandeisian human talent to bring solid cases that are not based on the consumer welfare standard or to litigate before judges that support the Neo-Brandeisian vision of antitrust.

What seems clear is that the new agency’s leader might find it hard to bring all Commissioners to an agreement with respect to what the agency can do with Section 5 of the FTC Act, and this situation, in and of itself, puts the agency in peril.

The FTC’s Rulemaking Authority

Another important policy change that may be detrimental to the FTC is its expressed willingness to expand the agency’s rulemaking authority under, e.g., Section 18 of the FTC Act. It is well known that in addition to its authority to investigate law violations by individuals and businesses, the FTC also has federal rulemaking authority to issue industry-wide regulations.

However, the agency’s rulemaking authority has been self-limited since the 80s in an effort to ensure the institution doesn’t overuse its capacity to adopt industry-wide regulations and raise concerns with those policy makers that are against the legislature deferring its core mandate to an independent agency that doesn’t represent the people.

Traditionally the legislature has the constitutional mandate to create laws affecting different sectors of the economy. Whereas it is legally accepted to design independent agencies with constrained mandates to adopt regulations, such powers are not necessarily understood to construe independent agencies as substitutes for the legislature’s powers. It is a basic tenet of administrative law, that agencies are constrained by the enabling statute that gives them authority to promulgate regulations in the first place.

Against this background, it seems risky for the new leadership to engage in broad rulemaking endeavors that might raise concerns from an institution legitimacy perspective. In the long term, it is predictable that many policymakers might not be supportive of an agency that implements its rulemaking authority in its broadest sense. As a result, some degree of political backlash against the agency might not help the agency’s lifecycle, especially if the agency is not granted with specific legislative guidance in the form of new legislation.

The Future of the FTC

One of the most challenging matters to tackle when it comes to leadership of antitrust authorities, or administrative agency for that matter, is legacy and the impact for the future of the agency. To put it simply, while antitrust leaders leave agencies, the side effects of leadership’s successes and failures condition the future of the agencies. Their leadership has consequences and sets precedent which will bind the agency well into the future.

Under the current political context, it would not be surprising if the current Neo-Brandeisian FTC enjoyed political support and success with its decision to bring big cases, especially against leading tech companies. In the short term, if the FTC makes headlines for opening cases against “Big Tech”, policymakers pushing for antitrust reforms will surely applaud the new changes as they would reflect a commitment to enhanced enforcement outcomes notwithstanding the strength of the cases.

However, in the mid-and long-term, if the FTC loses the big cases, the commitment to policy outcomes won’t be met. And then, it is unlikely that the question would be whether the antitrust norms are fit for today’s economy, but rather if the agency is capable of executing its mandate effectively. The recent decision in the FTC v. Facebook case is a good example of this paradigm, where the Judge expressed that the FTC had not carried out a sufficiently robust analysis supported by evidence, and therefore dismissed the case.

Eventually, the agency’s short-term reputational gains could quickly turn into a debacle for the institution itself with the caveat that by then, most probably, Neo-Brandeisian leadership will be long gone. Unfortunately then, the U.S. antitrust system — which is the only one to keep two federal antitrust agencies, bringing about positive outcomes for consumers — might be at risk. Political support to merge these two institutions could gain even more support, as has happened in the past, to the detriment of consumers.

#### Congressional backlash – lobbying undermines resources

Jones 20 [Alison Jones, Professor of Law at King's and a solicitor at Freshfields Bruckhaus Deringer LLP. William E. Kovacic, George Mason University Foundation Professor at the George Mason University School of Law. “Antitrust’s Implementation Blind Side: Challenges to Major Expansion of U.S. Competition Policy.” 2020. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/0003603X20912884>]

D. Political Backlash

As we have already indicated, the government’s prosecution of high stakes antitrust cases often inspires defendants to lobby elected officials to rein in the enforcement agency. Targets of cases that seek to impose powerful remedies have several possible paths to encourage politicians to blunt enforcement measures. One path is to seek intervention from the President. The Assistant Attorney General of the Antitrust Division serves at the will of the President, making DOJ policy dependent on the President’s continuing support. The White House ordinarily does not guide the Antitrust Division’s selection of cases, but there have been instances in which the President pressured the Division to alter course on behalf of a defendant, and did so successfully.125

The second path is to lobby the Congress. The FTC is called an “independent” regulatory agency, but Congress interprets independence in an idiosyncratic way.126 Legislators believe independence means insulation from the executive branch, not from the legislature. The FTC is dependent on a good relationship with Congress, which controls its budget and can react with hostility, and forcefully, when it disapproves of FTC litigation—particularly where it adversely affects the interests of members’ constituents. Controversial and contested cases may consequently be derailed or muted if political support for them wanes and politicians become more sympathetic to commercial interests. The FTC’s sometimes tempestuous relationship with Congress demonstrates that political coalitions favoring bold enforcement can be volatile, unpredictable, and evanescent.127 If the FTC does not manage its relationship with Congress carefully, its litigation opponents may mobilize legislative intervention that causes ambitious enforcement measures to the founder.

Imagine, for a moment, that the DOJ and the FTC launch monopolization cases against each of the GAFA giants. Among other grounds, these cases might be premised on the theory that the firms used mergers to accumulate and protect positions of dominance. The GAFA firms have received unfavorable scrutiny from legislators from both political parties over the past few years, but the current wave of political opprobrium is unlikely to discourage the firms from bringing their formidable lobbying resources to bear upon the Congress. It would be hazardous for the enforcement agencies to assume that a sustained, well-financed lobbying campaign will be ineffective. At a minimum, the agencies would need to consider how many battles they can fight at one time, and how to foster a countervailing coalition of business interests to oppose the defendants.

#### Bathtubs kill more people than terrorism

Mueller and Stewart 10/29/18 [John Mueller is Woody Hayes Senior Research Scientist, Mershon Center for International Security Studies, and adjunct professor of Political Science, at Ohio State University. He is also a Senior Fellow at the Cato Institute in Washington. Mark G. Stewart is Professor of Civil Engineering and Director of the Centre for Infrastructure Performance and Reliability at The University of Newcastle in Australia. Terrorism and Bathtubs: Comparing and Assessing the Risks. October 29, 2018. https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09546553.2018.1530662?journalCode=ftpv20]

The likelihood that anyone outside a war zone will be killed by an Islamist extremist terrorist is extremely small. In the United States, for example, some six people have perished each year since 9/11 at the hands of such terrorists—vastly smaller than the number of people who die in bathtub drownings. Some argue, however, that the incidence of terrorist destruction is low because counterterrorism measures are so effective. They also contend that terrorism may well become more frequent and destructive in the future as terrorists plot and plan and learn from experience, and that terrorism, unlike bathtubs, provides no benefit and exacts costs far beyond those in the event itself by damagingly sowing fear and anxiety and by requiring policy makers to adopt countermeasures that are costly and excessive. This article finds these arguments to be wanting. In the process, it concludes that terrorism is rare outside war zones because, to a substantial degree, terrorists don’t exist there. In general, as with rare diseases that kill few, it makes more policy sense to expend limited funds on hazards that inflict far more damage. It also discusses the issue of risk communication for this hazard

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### Trade DA

#### Recent, robust studies prove trade solves GPW

Julian Adorney 20, Contributing Writer at the Hinrich Foundation, Young Voices Advocate, Senior SEO Analyst for Colorado SEO Pros, Writing Appeared at The Federalist, Fox Nation, The Hill, and the Mises Institute, BA from the University of Colorado, Boulder, “Want Peace? Promote Free Trade”, Hinrich Foundation for Advancing Sustainable Free Trade, 9/10/2020, https://www.hinrichfoundation.com/research/tradevistas/sustainable/trade-and-peace/

Why does protectionism lead to conflict and why does free trade help prevent it? Learn about the connection between peace and free trade.

Frédéric Bastiat famously claimed that “if goods don’t cross borders, soldiers will.”

Bastiat argued that free trade between countries could reduce international conflict because trade forges connections between nations and gives each country an incentive to avoid war with its trading partners. If every nation were an economic island, the lack of positive interaction created by trade could leave more room for conflict. Two hundred years after Bastiat, libertarians take this idea as gospel. Unfortunately, not everyone does. But as recent research shows, the historical evidence confirms Bastiat’s famous claim.

To trade or to raid

In “Peace through Trade or Free Trade?” professor Patrick J. McDonald, from the University of Texas at Austin, empirically tested whether greater levels of protectionism in a country (tariffs, quotas, etc.) would increase the probability of international conflict in that nation. He used a tool called dyads to analyze every country’s international relations from 1960 until 2000. A dyad is the interaction between one country and another country: German and French relations would be one dyad, German and Russian relations would be a second, French and Australian relations would be a third. He further broke this down into dyad-years; the relations between Germany and France in 1965 would be one dyad-year, the relations between France and Australia in 1973 would be a second, and so on.

Using these dyad-years, McDonald analyzed the behavior of every country in the world for the past 40 years. His analysis showed a negative correlation between free trade and conflict: The more freely a country trades, the fewer wars it engages in. Countries that engage in free trade are less likely to invade and less likely to be invaded.

Trading partners

The causal arrow

Of course, this finding might be a matter of confusing correlation for causation. Maybe countries engaging in free trade fight less often for some other reason, like the fact that they tend also to be more democratic. Democratic countries make war less often than empires do. But McDonald controls for these variables. Controlling for a state’s political structure is important, because democracies and republics tend to fight less than authoritarian regimes.

McDonald also controlled for a country’s economic growth, because countries in a recession are more likely to go to war than those in a boom, often in order to distract their people from their economic woes. McDonald even controlled for factors like geographic proximity: It’s easier for Germany and France to fight each other than it is for the United States and China, because troops in the former group only have to cross a shared border.

The takeaway from McDonald’s analysis is that protectionism can actually lead to conflict. McDonald found that a country in the bottom 10 percent for protectionism (meaning it is less protectionist than 90 percent of other countries) is 70 percent less likely to engage in a new conflict (either as invader or as target) than one in the top 10 percent for protectionism.



#### Breakdown escalates civil conflicts that draw in Iran, Russia, and North Korea---nuclear war

David Kampf 20, Senior PhD Fellow at the Center for Strategic Studies at The Fletcher School, MA in International Affairs from Columbia University, BA in Political Science from Bates College, Writing has Appeared in The New York Times, Washington Post, Foreign Policy, War on the Rocks, POLITICO Magazine, “How COVID-19 Could Increase the Risk of War”, World Politics Review, 6/16/2020, https://www.worldpoliticsreview.com/articles/28843/how-covid-19-could-increase-the-risk-of-war

But that overlooked the ways in which the risk of interstate war was already rising before COVID-19 began to spread. Civil wars were becoming more numerous, lasting longer and attracting more outside involvement, with dangerous consequences for stability in many regions of the world. And the global dynamics most commonly cited to explain the falling incidence of interstate war—democracy, economic prosperity, international cooperation and others—were being upended.

If the spread of democracy kept the peace, then its global decline is unnerving. If globalization and economic interdependence kept the peace, then a looming global depression and the rise of nationalism and protectionism are disconcerting. If regional and global institutions kept the peace, then their degradation is unsettling. If the balance of nuclear weapons kept the peace, then growing risks of proliferation are disquieting. And if America’s preeminent power kept the peace, then its relative decline is troubling.

Now, the pandemic, or more specifically the world’s reaction to it, is revealing the extent to which the factors holding major wars in check are withering. The idea that war between nations is a relic of the past no longer seems so convincing.

The Pessimists Strike Back

More than any other individual, it was cognitive scientist Steven Pinker who popularized the idea that we are living in the most peaceful moment in human history. Starting with his 2011 bestseller, “The Better Angels of Our Nature: Why Violence Has Declined,” Pinker argued that the frequency, duration and lethality of wars between great powers have all decreased. In his 2019 book, “Enlightenment Now: The Case for Reason, Science, Humanism, and Progress,” he wrote that war “between the uniformed armies of two nation-states appears to be obsolescent. There have been no more than three in any year since 1945, none in most years since 1989, and none since the American-led invasion of Iraq in 2003.”

Optimists like Pinker held that, rather than the world falling apart, as a quick glance at headline news might suggest, the opposite was true: Humanity was flourishing. More regions are characterized by peace; fewer mass killings are occurring; governance and the rule of law are improving; and people are richer, healthier, better educated and happier than ever before.

In their book, “Clear and Present Safety: The World Has Never Been Better and Why That Matters to Americans,” Michael A. Cohen and Micah Zenko argued that the evidence is so overwhelming that it is difficult to argue against the idea that wars between great powers, and all other interstate wars, are becoming vanishingly rare. Even when wars do break out, they tend to be shorter and less deadly than they were in the past. John Mueller, a senior fellow at the Cato Institute, also reasoned that the idea of war, like slavery and dueling before it, was in terminal decline, while Joshua Goldstein, an international relations researcher at American University, credited the United Nations and the rise of peacekeeping operations for helping win the “war on war.”

But in recent years, a range of critics have begun to poke holes in these arguments. Tanisha M. Fazal, an international relations professor at the University of Minnesota, contends that the decline in war is overstated. Major advances in medicine, speedier evacuations of wounded soldiers from the field of battle and better armor have made war less fatal—but not necessarily less frequent. Fazal and Paul Poast, who is at the University of Chicago, further assert that the notion of war between great powers as a thing of the past is based on the assumption that all such conflicts resemble World War I and II—both are historical anomalies—and overlooks the actual wars fought between great powers since 1945, from the Korean War and the Vietnam War to proxy wars from Afghanistan to Ukraine. Meanwhile, Bear F. Braumoeller, an Ohio State political science professor, analyzed the same historical data on conflicts used by Pinker, Mueller and Goldstein, and found no general downward trend in either the initiation or deadliness of warfare over the past two centuries. What’s more, Braumoeller contends that the so-called “long peace”—the 75 years that have passed without systemic war since World War II—is far from invulnerable, and that wars are just as likely to escalate now as they used to be. Just because a major interstate war hasn’t happened for a long time, doesn’t mean it never will again. In all probability, it will.

And by focusing solely on interstate wars, the optimists miss half the story, at least. Wars between states have declined, but civil wars never disappeared—and these internal conflicts could easily escalate into regional or global wars.

The number of conflicts in the world reached its highest point since World War II in 2016, with 53 state-based armed conflicts in 37 countries. All but two of these conflicts were considered civil wars. To make matters worse, new studies have shown that civil wars are becoming longer, deadlier and harder to conclusively end, and that these internal conflicts are not really internal. Civil wars harm the economies and stability of neighboring countries, since armed groups, refugees, illicit goods and diseases all spill over borders. Some 10 million refugees have fled to other countries since 2012. The countries that now host them are more likely to experience war, which means states with huge refugee populations like Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey face legitimate security challenges. Even after the threat of violence has diminished in refugees’ countries of origin, return migration can reignite conflicts, repeating the brutal cycle.

A Yugoslav Federal Army tank.

Perhaps most importantly, recent research indicates that civil wars increase the risk of interstate war, in large part because they are attracting more and more outside involvement. In a 2008 paper, researchers Kristian Skrede Gleditsch, Idean Salehyan and Kenneth Schultz explained that, in addition to the spillover effects, two other factors in civil wars increase international tensions and could possibly provoke wider interstate wars: external interventions in support of rebel groups and regime attacks on insurgents across international borders.

Immediately after the Cold War, none of the ongoing civil wars around the world were internationalized. According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program, there were 12 full-fledged civil wars in 1991—in Afghanistan, Iraq, Peru, Sri Lanka, Sudan, and elsewhere—and foreign militaries were not active on the ground in any of them. Last year, by contrast, every single full-fledged civil war involved external military participants. This is due, in part, to the huge growth in U.S. military interventions abroad into civil conflicts, but it’s not only the Americans. All of today’s major wars are in essence proxy wars, pitting external rivals against one another. Conflicts in Syria, Yemen and Libya are best understood not as civil wars, but as international warzones, attracting meddlers including the United States, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Iran, France and many others, which often intervene not to build peace, but to resolve conflicts in a way that is favorable to their own interests. These internationalized wars are more lethal, harder to resolve and possibly more likely to recur than civil wars that remain localized. It is not that difficult to imagine how these conflicts could spark wider international conflagrations. Wars, after all, can quickly spiral out of control.

As Risks Increase, Deterrents Decline

To make matters worse, most of the global trends that explained why interstate war had decreased in recent decades are now reversing. The theories that democracy, prosperity, cooperation and other factors kept the peace have been much debated—but if there was any truth to them, their reversals are likely to increase the chance of war, irrespective of how long the coronavirus pandemic lasts.

Democracy is often considered a prophylactic for war. Fully democratic countries are less likely to experience civil war and rarely, if ever, go to war with other democracies—though, of course, they do still go to war against non-democracies. While this would be great news if democracy and pluralism were spreading, there have now been 14 consecutive years of global democratic decline, and there have been signs of additional authoritarian power grabs in countries like Hungary and Serbia during the pandemic. If democracy backslides far enough, internal conflicts and foreign aggression will become more likely.

Other theories posit that economic bonds between countries have limited wars in recent decades. Dale Copeland, a professor of international relations at the University of Virginia, has argued that countries work to preserve ties when there are high expectations for future trade, but war becomes increasingly possible when trade is predicted to fall. If globalization brought peace, the recent wave of far-right nationalism and populism around the world may increase the chances of war, as tariffs and other trade barriers go up—mostly from the United States under President Donald Trump, who has launched trade wars with allies and adversaries alike.

The coronavirus pandemic immediately elicited further calls to reduce dependence on other countries, with Trump using the opportunity to pressure U.S. companies to reconfigure their supply chains away from China. For its part, China made sure that it had the homemade supplies it needed to fight the virus before exporting extras, while countries like France and Germany barred the export of face masks, even to friendly nations. And widening economic inequalities, a consequence of the pandemic, are not likely to enhance support for free trade.

This assault on open trade and globalization is just one aspect of a decaying liberal international order, which, its proponents argue, has largely helped to preserve peace between nations since World War II. But that old order is almost gone, and in all likelihood isn’t coming back. The U.N. Security Council appears increasingly fragmented and dysfunctional. Even before Trump, the world’s most powerful country ratified fewer treaties per year under the Obama administration than at any time since 1945.

Trump’s presidency only harms multilateral cooperation further. He has backed out of the Paris Agreement on climate change, reneged on the Iran nuclear deal, picked fights with allies, questioned the value of NATO and defunded the World Health Organization in the middle of a global health crisis. Hyper-nationalism, rather than international collaboration, was the default response to the coronavirus outbreak in the U.S. and many other countries around the world.

It’s hard to see the U.S. reluctance to lead as anything other than a sign of its inevitable, if slow, decline. The country’s institutionalized inequalities and systemic racism have been laid bare in recent months, and it no longer looks like a beacon for others to follow. The global balance of power is changing. China is both keen to assert a greater leadership role within traditionally Western-led institutions and to challenge the existing regional order in Asia. Between a rising China, revanchist Russia and new global actors, including non-state groups, we may be heading toward an increasingly multipolar or nonpolar world, which could prove destabilizing in its own right.

Finally, the pacifying effect of nuclear weapons could be waning. While vast nuclear arsenals once compelled the United States and the Soviet Union to reach arms control agreements, old treaties are expiring and new talks are breaking down. Mistrust is growing, and the chance of an unwanted U.S.-Russia nuclear confrontation is arguably as high as it has been since the Cuban missile crisis.

The theory of nuclear peace may no longer hold if more countries are tempted to obtain their own nuclear deterrent. Trump’s decision to abandon the Iran nuclear deal, for one thing, has only increased the chance that Tehran will acquire nuclear weapons. It’s almost easy to forget that, just a few short months ago, the United States and Iran were one miscalculation or dumb mistake away from waging all-out war. And despite Trump’s efforts to negotiate nuclear disarmament with Kim Jong Un’s regime in Pyongyang, it is wishful thinking to believe North Korea will give up its nuclear weapons. At this point, negotiators can only realistically try to ensure that North Korea’s nuclear menace doesn’t get even more potent.

In other words, by turning inward, the United States is choosing to leave other countries to fend for themselves. The end result may be a less stable world with more nuclear actors.

If leaders are smart, they will take seriously the warning signs exposed by this global emergency and work to reverse the drift toward war.

If only one of these theories for peace were worsening, concerns would be easier to dismiss. But together, they are unsettling. While the world is not yet on the brink of World War III and no two countries are destined for war, the odds of avoiding future conflicts don’t look good.

The pandemic is already degrading democracies, harming economies and curtailing international cooperation, and it also seems to be fostering internal instability within states. Rachel Brown, Heather Hurlburt and Alexandra Stark argue that the coronavirus could in fact sow more civil conflict. If this proves accurate, the increase in civil wars is likely to lead to more external meddling, and these next proxy wars could soon precipitate all-out international conflicts if outsiders aren’t careful. With the usual deterrents to conflict declining around the world, major wars could soon return.

### Clog DA

#### It says disease---extinction

Thomas Such 21, Writer for the Glasgow Guardian, “How to Wipe Out Humanity”, The Glasgow Guardian, 2/9/2021, https://glasgowguardian.co.uk/2021/02/09/how-to-wipe-out-humanity/

Not only is a virus the key to an unpredictable disease which may one day wipe out humanity, but the origins of said virus are key. My “research” concluded that the most efficient way of killing humanity is to have the disease spread in a semi-developed country such as China; it is far easier for viruses and other diseases to spread in less developed countries - but in order to successfully achieve global transmission, a host country must have the substantial international infrastructure to spread a pandemic worldwide. Using this strategy in my “research”, I was able to play a game of Plague Inc. wherein the spread and threat of Covid-19 seemed minimal by using China as a perfect starting point to wipe out humanity. The key, as it turns out, is the spreading of the virus - something that Covid-19 has proved can be done very easily in our modern globalised society. The journey from China to Italy spreading the plague across Europe took almost 40 years back in the middle ages: in 2020, it took a mere 40 days for widespread outbreaks to begin in Italy spreading across much of Europe.

My research into the historical spread of pandemics and my attempts to create my destroyer of humanity illustrates a significant disparity between what happens in the real world and the measures one may find in a simulator. Political realities and measures many may consider “draconian” or simply unrealistic heavily impact how a pandemic may spread and the eventual impact it will have on humanity. Using Plague Inc., I was able to effectively kill off humanity in around a year using a fast transmission of virus, which also became gradually more lethal. This is essential to ensure the near-universal transmission of the virus, and to penetrate measures such as increased border security and isolated regions once the knowledge of the pandemic spreads. Whilst it is unlikely that humanity will be wiped out any time soon, it became clear to me that instead of nuclear war, alien invasion or the looming threat of global warming; the real threat to humanity and the eventual destruction of our species may come from something as simple as bacteria. While we like to revel in our scientific advancements of the modern era and the ascension of humans as Earth’s alpha species, it becomes clear that, when we adapt, our environment and the threats it poses adapt with us. Plague Inc. showed a clear pathway to killing off humanity - though, luckily, the Covid-19 threat in the program was combated due to immense political pressure, restrictions and record-making vaccine paces. The real threat, however, remains clear: if humanity becomes increasingly lax with preventive and managerial measures, it is obvious what the future may hold for us.

#### And, tech leadership---global war---turns every impact

Franklin D. Kramer 16, Distinguished Fellow and Board Member at the Atlantic Council and Former Assistant Secretary of Defense, and James A. Wrightson, Jr., Former Aerospace Executive, Most Recently with Lockheed Martin Corporation, “INNOVATION, LEADERSHIP, AND NATIONAL SECURITY”, 4/11/2016, p. 3-4

Innovation will be a crucial requirement for US leadership and national security in the twenty-first century. The United States faces an era of global competition across all elements of national power. In the economic arena, American domination has necessarily been comparatively receding as the world continues to develop. Militarily, challenges have expanded geographically and qualitatively as multi-polarity and diffusion of power increases the number of capable state and nonstate actors. Diplomacy has become more complex as information capabilities are available throughout the world, populaces are more engaged, and there are strong ideological challenges to the Western, liberal rules-based model. The United States is still the most powerful nation, but maintaining successful leadership and strong national security will require the United States to build on and enhance its existing strengths. A crucial element of that requirement will be the capacity to innovate regularly and effectively. Innovation will be a prerequisite to leadership across all elements of national power.

This report proposes that both the US government and the American private sector take significant steps to encourage innovation beyond what the United States, already an innovative society, has successfully accomplished. The key elements will be enhanced development of the “cluster model” for innovation, which engages the public, private, and nonprofit sectors jointly; greater government focus on innovation; increased support for innovation by corporations; expanding the spectrum of entrepreneurs; and maintaining the diversity of ideas and approaches necessary for innovation while expanding the synergies between and among the multiple elements of the innovation landscape, including increasing the permeability between the national security agencies and the private sector.

I. THE INNOVATION IMPERATIVE— LEADERSHIP AND NATIONAL SECURITY

“[R]esearch has become central; it also becomes more formalized, complex, and costly,” President Dwight D. Eisenhower, Military-Industrial Complex Speech, 1961

“Whether it’s improving our health or harnessing clean energy, protecting our security or succeeding in the global economy, our future depends on reaffirming America’s role as the world’s engine of scientific discovery and technological innovation. “ Remarks by President Barack Obama on the “Educate to Innovate” Campaign and Science Teaching and Mentoring Awards, January 6, 2010

The United States has long been the world’s most innovative society, and that innovation has been a key element undergirding America’s international leadership and strength. The national security strategy states that “Scientific discovery and technological innovation empower American leadership with a competitive edge that secures our military advantage, propels our economy, and improves the human condition.”1 This requirement for innovation has become increasingly critical as America’s overwhelming dominance in other arenas—a key factor in the twentieth century—has been comparatively reduced.

• Economically: While the United States remains the world’s largest economy, there are expectations that it will be overtaken in gross size by China.2 Per capita income in the United States is below multiple countries3 while median real income has actually fallen since 1999.4

• Militarily: While United States forces have unparalleled capabilities, the challenges posed by Iraq, Afghanistan, ISIS, the worldwide demands of counterterrorism, Russian actions in Ukraine and elsewhere, and the confrontations in the East and South China Seas all demonstrate the multiple and diverse demands that the military faces. Without innovation in defense capabilities, the United States will face technological parity, losing the advantage it has maintained for over half a century.

#### Litigation is controlled

Emily S. Taylor Poppe 21, Assistant Professor of Law at the University of California, Irvine School of Law, “Institutional Design for Access to Justice”, UC Irvine Law Review, 11 U.C. Irvine L. Rev. 781, February 2021, Lexis

This law-centric orientation is strikingly different from that of most Americans, despite popular claims about their litigiousness. Most individuals never even identify the civil legal problems they experience as "legal." Only a tiny minority will ever seek legal advice in response to a problem, and most are more likely to do nothing than to file a lawsuit. Decades of empirical scholarship have confirmed that despite the prevalence of civil legal problems in everyday life, there is remarkably little recourse to formal law. [FOOTNOTE BEGINS] DAVID M. ENGEL, THE MYTH OF THE LITIGIOUS SOCIETY: WHY WE DON'T SUE 3 (2016) (noting that "specious claims of a litigation explosion have been made so often that they have rooted themselves in the national psyche"). [FOOTNOTE ENDS]

#### Filing data proves

Joanna C. Schwartz 20, Professor of Law at the UCLA School of Law, “Qualified Immunity and Federalism All the Way Down”, Georgetown Law Journal, 109 Geo. L.J. 305, December 2020, Lexis

Concerns about increased government liability were in the air during the 1970s and 1980s. During that period, the "dominant articulated perception of constitutional tort litigation" was that § 1983 "cases flood the federal courts." The Supreme Court first recognized a cause of action against state and local government officials under § 1983 in 1961, and the number of civil rights filings increased from several hundred to tens of thousands in the years between 1961 and 1979. This expansion in federal civil rights filings and liability corresponded with a collapse of the insurance market for municipal liability coverage. As John Rappaport has described, municipal liability insurance was widely available from the 1960s to the mid-1970s. Then the market contracted, with [\*323] premiums doubling between 1974 and 1976, and many jurisdictions were left uninsured by 1977. After a few years of improvement, there was another decline in the early 1980s. [FOOTNOTE BEGINS] Theodore Eisenberg & Stewart Schwab, The Reality of Constitutional Tort Litigation, 72 CORNELL L. REV. 641, 645 (1987); see also Maine v. Thiboutot, 448 U.S. 1, 24 (1980) (Powell, J., dissenting) ("There is some evidence that § 1983 claims already are being appended to complaints solely for the purpose of obtaining fees in actions where 'civil rights' of any kind are at best an afterthought."); Federalism and the Federal Judiciary: Hearings Before the Subcomm. on Separation of Powers of the S. Comm. on the Judiciary, 98th Cong. 5-13 (1984) (statement of John D. Ashcroft, Att'y Gen. of Missouri) (explaining that § 1983 filings against police officers "skyrocket[ed]" from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s, growing "in the thousands of percentage increase[s]"); Ruggero J. Aldisert, Judicial Expansion of Federal Jurisdiction: A Federal Judge's Thoughts on Section 1983, Comity and the Federal Caseload, 1973 LAW & SOC. ORD. 557, 563, 567 (arguing that the "deluge" of § 1983 cases from 1960 to 1971 and the Court's decisions that "substantially expand[ed] section 1983's subject matter jurisdiction" have "placed additional burdens on federal courts"). Note, however, that Eisenberg and Schwab, after examining the evidence, concluded that "[n]ational filing data refute the myth of a recent civil rights litigation explosion." Eisenberg & Schwab, supra, at 695. [FOOTNOTE ENDS]

#### Private claims skyrocket

LW 21 [Latham & Watkins Antitrust and Competition Practice. "US Senate Bill Would Reshape Antitrust Enforcement and Litigation." 2/18/21. https://www.lw.com/thoughtLeadership/US-Senate-Bill-Would-Reshape-Antitrust-Enforcement-and-Litigation]

CALERA would increase antitrust enforcement and private actions

Widen scope of anticompetitive conduct

In addition to broadening the definition of market power and lowering the standard for prohibited mergers, CALERA would add a new prohibition on “exclusionary conduct that presents an appreciable risk of harming competition.” “Exclusionary conduct” is defined by CALERA as conduct that “materially disadvantages one or more actual or potential competitors,” or “tends to foreclose or limit the ability or incentive of one or more actual or potential competitors to compete.” This prohibition would lead to an increase in claims, and novel allegations of anticompetitive conduct, as litigants would likely try to take advantage of these broad and undefined terms and shape the precedent.

#### And strengthening antitrust law encourages frivolous litigation---crushes the courts

R. Hewitt Pate & Paul S. Hates 6, R. Hewitt Pate, Counsel of Record, Paul S. Hayes, Hunton & Williams LLP, “Brief of Amici Curiae Economists in Support of Petitioners,” BELL ATLANTIC CORPORATION, et al., Petitioners, v. William TWOMBLY, et al., Individually and on behalf of all others similarly situated, Respondents, 2006 WL 2506633, WestLaw

Economists have long recognized that conspiracies to restrain trade can cause significant economic losses through higher prices and reduced output.7 Although agreements among competitors may promote economic efficiency, conspiracies, in which the members have suppressed the existence of an agreement among themselves, seldom, if ever, serve any competitive and efficiency-enhancing purpose. Conspiracies can also impose significant costs on society and are, by design, secret and hard to detect. Hence, there are sound economic reasons to impose substantial penalties to discourage firms from conspiring to restrain trade. The undersigned believe that antitrust law - and the courts - should be tough on cartels.

Economists have also recognized, however, that the legal system can impose significant costs on businesses, reduce economic efficiency, and ultimately harm consumers through higher prices and poorer products.8 Unfortunately, some lawyers - or the plaintiffs they represent - abuse the legal system by filing cases that ultimately lack merit but impose significant costs and risks on business defendants.9 Research \*12 indicates that private antitrust enforcement efforts already involve many claims that appear to be without merit.10 This underscores the problem noted by the Second Circuit. See Twombly, 425 F.3d at 114-17. Some plaintiffs’ lawyers use litigation to extract money from businesses that find it is cheaper and less risky to settle than to litigate.11 Class certification litigation is sometimes used to extort companies into writing large checks that often inure to the benefit of the lawyers.

In determining the appropriate standard for dismissal of a claim of conspiracy to restrain trade, society faces a tradeoff, as do the courts. On the one hand, making it easier for plaintiffs to pursue claims and obtain discovery will increase the likelihood that plaintiffs will uncover conspiracies in restraint of trade. An easier standard will, more importantly, discourage conspiracies in the first place because they are more likely to be detected and punished. On the other hand, making it easier for plaintiffs to file claims and pursue discovery will encourage plaintiffs to bring cases that lack merit in the hope of a settlement or verdict and, in the process, consume judicial and business resources. Moreover, firms would face a disincentive to engage in parallel behavior \*13 with their rivals because that behavior will make it more likely that they will be embroiled in litigation. Therefore, they will engage in less parallel behavior even when this behavior is efficient.

IV. THE “PARALLEL BEHAVIOR IS ENOUGH” STANDARD WOULD RESULT IN GREATER EXPENDITURE OF JUDICIAL AND BUSINESS RESOURCES

The “parallel behavior is enough” standard would encourage plaintiffs to file and pursue claims that companies have engaged in restraints of trade in violation of Section 1 of the Sherman Act. This likely would include plaintiffs adding gratuitous conspiracy charges to complaints in unrelated matters (breach of contract cases for example) to increase the costs of the litigation to defendants and put additional pressure on the defendants to settle. The direct cost of this standard and the behavior it would encourage includes costs to the judiciary as well as to businesses.

Additional judicial resources would be spent handling cases with conspiracy claims that meet the “parallel behavior is enough” standard. These include expenditures for personnel and other judicial resources. They also include the opportunity cost of the federal judiciary’s time. Assuming the federal courts (and their facilities and staff’) cannot expand to meet the additional litigation that would result under the “parallel behavior is enough” standard, the federal court dockets would become more congested. Other matters would receive less attention from the courts. The litigants in these other matters, and ultimately society, would suffer from the diversion of judicial resources to unmeritorious conspiracy claims. Businesses would also spend resources defending unfounded conspiracy claims. These costs would include direct litigation expenses such as hiring lawyers and handling document production. More importantly, they would include \*14 the opportunity cost of management and staff time spent on litigation rather than on business matters.12

#### Ambiguous antitrust rules discourage settling case---that increases judicial congestion.

Jesse W. Markham Jr. 12, Marshall P. Madison Professor of Law, University of San Francisco School of Law, “SAILING A SEA OF DOUBT: A CRITIQUE OF THE RULE OF REASON IN U.S. ANTITRUST LAW,” 17 Fordham J. Corp. & Fin. L. 591, WestLaw

5. Impairment of Settlements

Settlement is more difficult under uncertainty about what “enquiry is meet for the case.” The substantive law of antitrust should facilitate reasonable settlements because they avoid the high costs of litigation, through trial and appeal, while vindicating the objectives of antitrust law. Most antitrust cases settle,211 but that does not mean that they settle early, or that the terms of settlement are reasonable. Indeed, the Supreme Court has expressed frustration that the huge exposures defendants face in antitrust cases can force them to pay extortionate amounts to settle weak cases just to keep them from heading into the unpredictable waters of a jury trial.212

However, what the Supreme Court has not addressed are the reasons why defendants might regard those waters as riddled with reefs and shoals.213 The unpredictability of antitrust litigation under the rule of reason is at least a contributor to this phenomenon.214 In rule of reason cases counsel for each side have only a relatively weak basis for predicting how elaborate and costly the litigation will be and what outcome is most likely -- both of which are much clearer in per se cases. Although plaintiffs may only rarely win rule of reason cases, that is cold \*627 comfort to a defendant faced with a small but unpredictable risk of enormous liability exposure. So the defendant-friendly rule of reason is in tension with one of its very objectives, leaving defendants with unpredictable outcomes and large exposures and thus actually promoting so-called extortionate settlements and prolonging litigation.

#### They are the BIGGEST possible link---Pivoting from CWS increases the costs of antitrust.

Timothy J. Brennan 18, Professor of Public Policy and Economics at the University of Maryland, Baltimore County and a Senior Fellow at Resources for the Future, “Should Antitrust Go Beyond ‘Antitrust’?,” The Antitrust Bulletin, vol. 63, no. 1, SAGE Publications Inc, 03/01/2018, pp. 49–64

If one takes the view that antitrust may already be erring on the side of complexity rather than simplicity, that error becomes only worse if one incorporated additions goals for antitrust courts, since that will make the decision process even more intricate. Along with balancing an ever more complicated set of benefits and costs, those now will have to be balanced against other objectives that may well be difficult to measure in comparable terms. Rather than have antitrust enforcement pursue multiple goals, one should consider having a “division of policy labor” akin to the “division of labor” in the workplace and economy that Adam Smith proposed almost two-and-a-half centuries ago.32 Unless one is not adding other objectives to static efficiency and competition but replacing them, these objectives will increase the complexity and thus the cost of antitrust enforcement. Such a replacement, however, makes vivid the proposition that if we do not have antitrust enforcement on which to rely as a tool to promote efficiency through competition, there will be no other legal or policy framework to do so.