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**1AC**

**Inequality---1AC**

**Advantage 1 is Inequality.**

#### Labor market power through monopsony causes inequality and wage stagnation.

Eric A. Posner 8/13/21. Kirkland & Ellis Distinguished Service Professor at University of Chicago. How Antitrust Failed Workers. Oxford University Press, 2021.

In the United States, and much of the Western world, economic growth has slowed, inequality has risen, and wages have stagnated. Academic research has identified several possible causes, ranging from structural shifts in the economy to public policy failure. One possible cause that has received increasing attention from economists is labor market power, the ability of employers to set wages below workers’ marginal revenue product.1 New evidence suggests that many labor markets around the country are not competitive but instead exhibit considerable market power enjoyed by employers, who use their market power to suppress wages. This phenomenon—the power of employers to suppress wages below the competitive rate—is known among economists as labor monopsony, or simply labor market power. Wage suppression enhances income inequality because it creates a wedge between the incomes of people who work in concentrated and competitive labor markets. Wage suppression also reduces the incomes of workers relative to those of people who live off capital, and the latter are almost uniformly wealthier than the former. Wage suppression also interferes with economic growth since it results in underemployment of labor and, while it may seem to raise the return on capital, actually depresses it, as capital must lie idle to take advantage of monopsony power. With wages artificially suppressed, qualified workers decline to take jobs, and workers may underinvest in skills and schooling. Many workers exit the workforce and rely on government benefits, including disability benefits that have become a hidden welfare system.2 This in turn costs the government both in lost taxes and in greater expenditures. One estimate finds that monopsony power in the U.S. economy reduces overall output and employment by 13% and labor’s share of national output by 22%.3

The claim that labor market power raises inequality and reduces growth mirrors another claim that has received attention lately—that the product market power of firms has contributed to rising inequality and faltering growth.4 A product market is a collection of products defined by frequent consumer substitution. When a small number of sellers or one seller of these products exist, we say that each seller has product market power, which enables it to charge a price higher than marginal cost, or the price that would prevail in a competitive market. When a small number of employers hire from a pool of workers of a certain skill level within the geographic area in which workers commute, the employers have labor market power.

One major source of market power in both types of markets is thus concentration, where only a few firms operate in a given market. Imagine, for example, a small town with only a few gas stations. Each gas station sets the price of gas to compete with the prices of the other gas stations. When a gas station lowers its price, it may obtain greater market share from the other gas stations—which increases profits—but it also receives less revenue per sale. If only a single gas station exists, it will maximize profits by charging a high (“monopoly”) price because the gains from buyers willing to pay the price exceed the lost revenue from buyers who stay away. If only a few gas stations exist, they might illegally enter a cartel in which they charge an above-market price and divide the profits, or they might informally coordinate, which is generally not illegal, though the social harm is the same. In contrast, if many gas stations compete, prices will be bargained down to the efficient level—the marginal cost—resulting in low prices for consumers and high aggregate output of gasoline.

Labor market concentration creates monopsony (or, if more than one employer, oligopsony, but I use these terms interchangeably) where labor market power is exercised by the buyer rather than (as in the example of gas stations) the seller. Employers are buyers of labor who operate within a labor market. A labor market is a group of jobs (e.g., computer programmers, lawyers, or unskilled workers) within a geographic area where the holders of those jobs could with relative ease switch among the jobs. The geographic area is usually defined by the commuting distance of workers. A labor market is concentrated if only one or a few employers hire from this pool of workers. For example, imagine the gas stations employ specialist maintenance workers who monitor the gas-pumping equipment. If only a few gas stations exist in that area, and no other firms (e.g., oil refineries) hire from this pool of workers, then the labor market is concentrated, and the employers have market power in the labor market. To minimize labor costs, the employers will hold wages down below what the workers would be paid in a competitive labor market—their marginal revenue product. Faced with these low wages, some people qualified to work will refuse to. But the employers gain more from wage savings than they lose in lost output because of the small workforce they employ.

Antitrust law does not distinguish monopoly and monopsony (including labor monopsony): firms that achieve monopolies or monopsonies through anticompetitive behavior violate antitrust law. But product market concentration has received a huge amount of attention by courts, researchers, and regulators, while labor market concentration has received hardly any attention at all.5 The Department of Justice (DOJ) and Federal Trade Commission’s (FTC) Horizontal Merger Guidelines, which are used to screen potential mergers for antitrust violations, provide an elaborate analytic framework for evaluating the product market effects of mergers. Yet, while the Merger Guidelines state that there is no distinction between seller and buyer power,6 they say nothing about the possible adverse labor market effects of mergers. Similarly, while there are thousands of reported cases involving allegations that firms have illegally cartelized product markets, there are few cases involving allegations of illegally cartelized labor markets.7

This historic imbalance between what I will call product market antitrust and labor market antitrust has no basis in economic theory. From an economic standpoint, the dangers to public welfare posed by product market power and labor market power are the same. As Adam Smith recognized, businesses gain in the same way by exploiting product market power and labor market power—enabling them to increase profits by raising prices (in the first case) or by lowering costs (in the second case).8 For that reason, businesses have the same incentive to obtain product market power and labor market power. Hence the need—in both cases—for an antitrust regime to prevent businesses from obtaining product and labor market power except when there are offsetting social gains.

**Current antitrust law explains the decline in wages and rise in inequality.**

Sandeep **Vaheesan 18**. Legal director at the Open Markets Institute. “How Contemporary Antitrust Robs Workers of Power” LPE Project. 07-19-18. <https://lpeproject.org/blog/how-contemporary-antitrust-robs-workers-of-power/>

The political economist Albert Hirschman developed the idea that members of an organization can exercise power in two ways—through exit and voice. Market activity is associated with exit: consumers unhappy with the price or quality of service of their current wireless carrier can switch to a rival carrier offering lower rates or better service. Elections exemplify voice: voters can replace a corrupt or ineffective incumbent officeholder with a challenger promising to make the government work for ordinary people. For workers, both exit (joining a new employer) and voice (making demands of a current employer) are important. Despite the pro-worker aims of the framers of the Sherman and Clayton Acts, **antitrust law** today is an **enemy of both exit and voice for workers.** For more than a generation, antitrust enforcers have permitted **labor markets to** **become highly concentrated** and have also **interfered with the efforts** of a large segment of workers to build collective power. Through their labor market actions, the Department of Justice (DOJ) and Federal Trade Commission (FTC) reinforce, rather than tame, corporate power. To create a progressive, pro-worker antitrust, legislators and policymakers must adopt a radically different vision for the field. Tens of millions of American workers **wield little or no power** in their place of work. In many parts of the country, workers lack meaningful exit. They **face concentrated local labor markets** in which only a handful of employers compete (at least theoretically) for their services. In some labor markets, employees have only one actual or prospective employer. In other words, many Americans, at least in their capacity as workers, may experience what we often think of as a relic of a bygone era—the company town. As recent studies have shown, employer-side concentration is **associated with significantly lower wages**. And other research has found that concentration at one level of a supply chain can **depress wages further upstream.** In addition to concentrated markets, approximately **30 million workers** are subject to **non-compete clauses**, which prevent them from accepting a new job or starting a business in the same line of work. Non-compete clauses, regardless of whether they are enforced, can signal to workers that their choice is **either stay at their current job or suffer extended unemployment.** Along with possessing few exit options, most workers cannot assert effective voice in the workplace. Big business’s legal and political war on labor’s power has severely weakened unions. In contrast to the 1950s when roughly a third of wage and salary workers were unionized, only a small percentage of workers are members of labor unions today—around one in ten among all workers, and one in sixteen among workers in the private sector. This decline in union density **explains a significant fraction of the forty-year stagnation in wages and increase in income inequality**. Moreover, even if wage gains had kept pace with productivity, the collapse of organized labor means that workers lost say over numerous workplace issues. While employees can speak up as individuals, this type of voice is no substitute for the collective voice that comes from a democratic union. Given that most individual workers are dispensable and replaceable for their employers, a lone voicing of grievance often can easily be ignored or even invite retaliation from an employer. And, beyond the site of employment, unorganized workers are less able to exercise voice in electoral politics and check the dominant influence of corporations. Antitrust enforcers have allowed labor markets to grow more concentrated across the country. Just as labor law has been rewritten to cripple labor organizing, the executive branch and courts have remade antitrust to be much friendlier to capital over the past four decades. Influenced by the writings of Robert Bork, the Supreme Court has held that the **antitrust laws are a “consumer welfare prescription.”** Although the Supreme Court and the antitrust agencies counterintuitively state that consumer welfare accounts for harms to workers and other sellers of services, the DOJ and the FTC focus their enforcement on mergers and practices harmful to consumers. In developing enforcement priorities, the federal antitrust agencies have relied on simplistic economic theory. Instead of directing their economists to study the structure of labor markets, the DOJ and the FTC have adopted an Econ 101 view of the world and assumed that labor markets are generally competitive on the employer side. Embracing this fiction, the agencies have never stopped a merger on labor market grounds. **Due to antitrust inaction** (and other factors), labor market **concentration has increased** since the late 1970s.

**Inequality undermines US international engagements---it’s the biggest threat.**

Kurt M. **Campbell 14.** Chairman and chief executive of the Asia Group investment and consulting firm was assistant secretary of state for East Asian and Pacific Affairs from 2009 to 2013. “How income inequality undermines U.S. power” The Washington Post. https://www.washingtonpost.com/opinions/how-income-inequality-undermines-us-power/2014/11/28/53fab4e4-74e5-11e4-9d9b-86d397daad27\_story.html?utm\_term=.40bd11b21cf7

Much has been written about the domestic consequences of growing income inequality in the United States — how **inequality depresses growth**, puts downward pressure on the middle class, accentuates wage stagnation and creates added difficulty paying for a college education and buying a home — but much less has been said about how inequality will affect America’s role in the world. How will the social science experiment of allowing wealth to settle so unequally between the top 1 percent and rest of the United States impact the foundations and contours of U.S. foreign policy? In fact, there are likely to be subtle and **direct consequences of growing inequality** both for the United States’ **international standing** and its activism. In most critical respects, the **United States has helped to create and underwrite the global operating system** since the end of World War II. This required a citizen’s sense of external responsibility and belief that the United States had **something unique** and valuable to confer to the world. Americans over these generations have regularly demonstrated in word and deed that they were prepared to bear burdens and advance ideas. Coinciding with this era was a general sense of overarching optimism that reinforced a post-World War II period of unprecedented American activism on the global scene. It is likely that as a **growing segment of the population strains just to get by**, it will increasingly view foreign policy — foreign assistance and military spending alike — as a kind of **luxury ripe for cuts** and a reduction in ambition. It is possible to see early indicators of these sentiments on the right and left, in the form of both tea party isolationism and Occupy Wall Street suspicion that corporate interests drive America’s foreign entanglements. It is also the case that other countries have long emulated aspects of the American Way in designing their own development models. Having access to higher education, **creating conditions that support innovation and allowing for greater upward mobility** have all been deeply attractive qualities to many nations. But it is the construction of a **durable U.S. middle class** that has been perhaps **most compelling** to highly stratified societies across Latin America, Asia and Africa. Now, however, the United States is moving in the other direction, toward an **unstable society divided between astronomically rich elites** and everyone else. This **undermines a critical component of U.S. soft power** and is a model for societal engineering that few would choose to emulate. It is also the case that the most recent era of U.S. exertion on the global stage has involved nearly 15 years of conflict in the Middle East and South Asia. The most important features of these largely military engagements have involved refinements in counterinsurgency technique and adaptations in military technology. A different 1 percent of the U.S. population has been primarily involved in this struggle: the U.S. military and others associated with the defense establishment. Aside from clapping when a uniformed military member greets an emotional family at an airport homecoming, the vast majority of the population has been largely unaffected by these conflicts. They neither paid for nor fought these wars. The next phase of intense global engagement is likely to demand much more from a larger share of the population. The lion’s share of 21st-century history will play out in Asia, with its thriving and **acquisitive middle classes driving innovation, nationalist competitions, military ambitions, struggles over history and identity, and simple pursuit of power.** The United States is in the midst of a **major reorientation** of its foreign policy and commercial priorities that will draw it more closely to Asia in the decades ahead. The competition for power and prestige there rests on comprehensive aspects of national power — as much to our product and service offerings, the strength of our educational system and the health and vitality of our national infrastructure as to the quality of U.S. military capabilities. Each of these efforts require **substantial and sustained longer-term investments**; all face funding shortfalls due to myriad challenges. A corresponding **consequence of growing inequality has been a reduction** in support for these building blocks for comprehensive and sustained **international engagement.** The worrisome dimensions of income inequality on the quality of domestic American life should be enough to cause us to **consider enacting remedies**. However, the potential negative implications on U.S. performance internationally can only add to the case. Ultimately, a sustained and purposeful American internationalism is inextricably linked to the health of our domestic life, to which **gaping inequality is the biggest threat.**

**Collapsing worker welfare causes neo-isolationist nativism---recovery future-proofs internationalism.**

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U.S. President Joe Biden has declared that under his leadership, “**America is back**” and once again “**ready to lead the world**.” Biden wants to return the country to its traditional role of **catalyzing international cooperation** and **staunchly defending liberal values** abroad. His challenge, however, is primarily one of politics, not policy. Despite Biden’s victory in last year’s presidential election, his internationalist vision faces a deeply **skeptical** American **public**. The **political foundations** of U.S. **internationalism** have collapsed. The **domestic consensus** that long supported U.S. engagement abroad has come apart in the face of mounting partisan discord and a deepening rift between urban and rural Americans. An inward turn has accompanied these growing divides. President Donald Trump’s unilateralism, **neo-isolationism, protectionism, and nativism** were anathema to most of the U.S. foreign policy establishment. But **Trump’s approach** to statecraft tapped into **public misgivings** about American overreach, contributing to his victory in 2016 and helping him win the backing of 74 million voters in 2020. An **“America first”** approach to the world **sells** well when many Americans experience **economic insecurity** and feel that they have been on the losing end of globalization. A recent survey by the Pew Research Center revealed that roughly half the U.S. public believes that the country should **pay less attention to problems overseas** and concentrate more on fixing problems at home. **Redressing** the **hardships** facing many **working Americans** is essential to inoculating the country against “**America first**” and **Trump’s illiberal politics** of grievance. That task begins with **economic renewal**. Restoring popular support for the country’s **internationalist calling** will entail sustained investment in pandemic recovery, health care, infrastructure, green technology and jobs, and other **domestic programs**. Those steps will require structural political reforms to ease gridlock and ensure that U.S. foreign policy serves the interests of working Americans. What Biden needs is an “inside out” approach that will link imperatives at home to objectives abroad. Much will depend on his willingness and ability to take bold action to rebuild broad popular support for internationalism from the ground up. Success would significantly reduce the chances that the president who follows Biden, even if he or she is a Republican, would return to **Trump’s self-defeating foreign policy**. Such **future-proofing is critical** to restoring **international confidence** in the United States. In light of the dysfunction and polarization plaguing U.S. politics, leaders and people around the world are justifiably questioning whether Biden represents a **new normal** or just a **fleeting reprieve** from “America first.”

#### Soft power solves global existential risks.

Joseph S. Nye Jr. 20. Harvard University Distinguished Service Professor, Emeritus. "COVID-19’s Painful Lesson About Strategy and Power". War on the Rocks. 3-26-2020. https://warontherocks.com/2020/03/covid-19s-painful-lesson-about-strategy-and-power/

In 2017, President Donald Trump announced a new National Security Strategy that focused on great-power competition with China and Russia. While the plans also note the role of alliances and cooperation, the implementation has not. Today, COVID-19 shows that the strategy is inadequate. Competition and an “America First” approach is not enough to protect the United States. Close cooperation with both allies and adversaries is also essential for American security.

Under the influence of the information revolution and globalization, world politics is changing dramatically. Even if the United States prevails in the traditional great-power competition, it cannot protect its security acting alone. COVID-19 is not the only example. Global financial stability is vital to U.S. prosperity, but Americans need the cooperation of others to ensure it. And while trade wars have set back economic globalization, there is no stopping the environmental globalization represented by pandemics and climate change. In a world where borders are becoming more porous to everything from drugs to infectious diseases to cyber terrorism, the United States must use its soft power of attraction to develop networks and institutions that address these new threats. For example, this administration proposed halving the U.S. contribution to the World Health Organization’s budget — now we need it more than ever.

A successful national security strategy should start with the fact that “America First” means America has to lead efforts at cooperation. A classic problem with public goods (like clean air, which all can share and from which none can be excluded) is that if the largest consumer does not take the lead, others will free-ride and the public goods will not be produced. As the technology expert Richard Danzig summarizes the problem:

Twenty-first century technologies are global not just in their distribution, but also in their consequences. Pathogens, AI systems, computer viruses, and radiation that others may accidentally release could become as much our problem as theirs. Agreed reporting systems, shared controls, common contingency plans, norms and treaties must be pursued as a means of moderating our numerous mutual risks.

Tariffs and border walls cannot solve these problems. While American leadership is essential because of the country’s global influence, success will require the cooperation of others.

On transnational issues like COVID-19 and climate change, power becomes a positive-sum game. It is not enough to think of American power over others. We must also think in terms of power to accomplish joint goals, which involves power with others. On many transnational issues, empowering others helps us to accomplish our own goals. The United States benefits if China improves its energy efficiency and emits less carbon dioxide, or improves its public health systems. In this world, institutional networks and connectedness are an important source of information and of national power, and the most connected states are the most powerful. Washington has some sixty treaty allies while China has few. Unfortunately, as Mira Rapp-Hooper recently argued, the United States is squandering that power resource.

In the past, the openness of the United States enhanced its capacity to build networks, maintain institutions, and sustain alliances. But will that openness and willingness to engage with the rest of the world prove sustainable in the current populist mood of American domestic politics? Even if the United States possesses more hard military and economic power than any other country, it may fail to convert those resources into effective influence on the global scene. Between the two world wars, America did not and the result was disastrous.

**A worker welfare standard would protect workers and reduce labor market concentration.**

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Most of the principles naturally carry over, in suitably modified form, to the analysis of merger effects on labor markets, though a few subtle issues arise. Many of the same factors that could act as efficiencies on the product side are also efficiencies on the labor side. By analogy to the “consumer welfare” standard, we believe that **mergers that trigger scrutiny by reducing** **labor market competition** should be subject to a “**worker welfare” standard**.213 The fact that the merger might raise firm profits more than it harms workers **should not be sufficient to excuse the merger**. Instead, the merger would be permitted if the merger sufficiently increases worker productivity (workers’ marginal revenue product) in a way that will not fully be absorbed by lower prices or increased employer profits. Thus, harms from reduced competition are more than fully offset, and **therefore workers’ wages, benefits, or conditions will improve because of the merger.** This is not to say that mergers that harm workers should never be approved. The losses to workers could be offset by gains elsewhere in the economy. Indeed, the merger of two firms that operate in a frictionless labor market should not greatly harm workers even if it does result in significant layoffs, because in a competitive labor market **the laid-off workers can easily find equally good jobs.**214 In contrast, a merger that does create competitive concern should not be excused simply on the basis that it **allows the firm to cut costs by destroying jobs**. In such cases, antitrust doctrine does not allow efficiency gains in other markets to offset losses in one market.215 Thus, typically, **the worker-surplus implications of a merger will indicate its competitive effects**, just as in product markets consumer surplus is a strong but not perfect proxy for competitive effects. In some cases, a merger may **prove overall competitively harmful in labor markets** (thus **reducing worker welfare**) and beneficial in product markets (thus increasing consumer welfare). Such cases should be treated roughly like ones where competitive harm occurs in one product market but there are competitive benefits in another product market. To the extent possible, antitrust authorities should try to find remedies that address the competitive harms while preserving the benefits, such as requiring the spinning off of critical units that would allow an increase in market power. However, **the frequency of such cases should not be exaggerated**; mergers that increase labor market power and thus raise effective costs will not usually bring lower prices to consumers, and mergers increasing product market power and thus reducing sales will not typically create great jobs. As we noted in section I.A.3, enforcers should **not believe** the canard that the monopsonist’s lower labor costs are **passed on to consumers as lower prices**.216 Monopsony power raises the effective marginal cost a firm faces and thus should almost always lead to increased prices. Similar analysis applies to the merger-specificity of the efficiency gains: productivity gains that could be achieved absent the anticompetitive effects of the merger should not play a role in merger analysis.

#### The plan’s codification is key to certainty.

Eric A. Posner 8/13/21. Kirkland & Ellis Distinguished Service Professor at University of Chicago. How Antitrust Failed Workers. Oxford University Press, 2021.

Anticompetitive behavior. Plaintiffs would be able to base their case on any of the following anticompetitive acts: mergers in highly concentrated markets; use of noncompete and related clauses; restrictions on employees’ freedom to disclose wage and benefit information; unfair labor practices under the National Labor Relations Act;38 misclassification of employees as independent contractors; no-poaching, wage-fixing, and related agreements that are also presumptively illegal under Section 1; and prohibitions on class actions. Of course, current law gives employees the theoretical right to allege these types of anticompetitive behavior, but the cases show a pattern of judicial skepticism, as noted earlier. Codification would help employees by compelling courts to take these claims seriously. Employers would be allowed to rebut a prima facie case of anticompetitive behavior by showing that the act in question would likely lead to an increase in wages.

This reform would strengthen and extend Section 2 actions against labor monopsonists by standardizing a list of anticompetitive acts. While not all of these acts are invariably anticompetitive, the employer would be able to defend itself by citing a business justification. For example, a noncompete could be justified because it protects an employer’s investment in training. If so, an employer could avoid antitrust liability by showing that its use of noncompetes benefits workers, who obtain higher wages as a result of their training.39

These reforms would strengthen Section 2 claims against labor monopsonies but would also preserve the doctrinal structure of Section 2. They would not generate significant legal uncertainty or require a revision in the way that we think about antitrust law.

**Modeling---1AC**

**Advantage 2 is Modeling.**

**Competition standards around the world focus on consumer welfare.**

Marianela **Lopez-Galdos 17**. “Antitrust in 60 Seconds: Is the Consumer Welfare Standard Appropriate?” Disruptive Competition Project. 11-17-17. https://www.project-disco.org/competition/111717-antitrust-in-60-seconds-is-the-consumer-welfare-standard-appropriate/

In the rest of the world, including the European Union, most competition systems were put in place in the post-war periods. As such, the pursuit of pluralistic goals guided by public interest concerns through the competition system was a method by which these toddling democracies sought to boost and defend their nascent democratic process. That being said, competition systems have evolved, and mature ones have **narrowed the antitrust analysis to focus on consumer welfare.** In this context, it is noteworthy that the UN and OECD have **separately concluded** that many competition systems **pursue consumer welfare as the primary competition goal.** In 1995, UNCTAD concluded that “There has in fact been an increasing convergence in the provisions or the application of competition laws over the laws two decades. Competition systems in many countries are now placing relatively greater emphasis upon the protection of competition, as well as **upon efficiency and competitiveness criteria**, rather than upon other public interest goals”.

**Replacing the federal consumer welfare standard prevents global fascism.**

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After World War II, the United States engaged in a historic effort to rebuild Europe and Japan through the Marshall Plan. While the story of the Marshall Plan is well known, what is less commonly understood is that the United States exported aggressive antitrust laws to Europe during those post-war years. The Marshall Plan antitrust advisors believed that the **massive consolidation in the German economy facilitated** and sustained **fascism**, and they argued that a **democratic society required a democratic economy**.26 Today, in the context of increasing concentration, rising authoritarianism, and foreign governments commingling state and markets through state-owned enterprises and state capitalism, **promoting economic democracy** abroad should be an **essential foreign policy objective**. And yet, the text of the Trans-Pacific Partnership, a trade agreement designed by the Obama Administration, established the objectives of competition policy as “economic **efficiency and consumer welfare**,” a narrowly drawn and ideological conception of the purposes of **antitrust** law that has no basis in U.S. statutory law.27 Presidents and their administrations should **abandon these cramped views of antitrust** and instead encourage the adoption of more aggressive antitrust laws **abroad**.

**Global use of the consumer welfare standard fuels populism.**

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Other competition legal scholars have called attention to the fact **the socioeconomic social contract is breaking down.** For example, Gal (2019) argues that: A growing number of citizens believe that the promises of the competition based market system, which form an important part of the implicit social contract, are not fulfilled and that capitalistic markets are no longer working in their favour. Indeed, statistics indicate that social mobility is low; that wealth is aggregated disproportionately in the hands of the already well-off; that **wealth inequality keeps rising**; that several large firms dominate the digital economy, thereby blocking at least some of the promises that technological changes were thought to bring about; that technological changes such as robotics create significant disruption effects and have negative implications on the labor market; or that education and social security **do not create viable solutions** for workers in order to ensure that wide geographic areas or demographic groups are not significantly and irreparably harmed. If one recognises the fact that the unfairness of the result of competition may be one of the **sources of populism** and that a **rebalancing of the benefits of the competitive process** is in order to make economic competition tolerable, the question is how to achieve it. Because the redistributive tools we have **do not seem to be adequate**, some of the hotly debated issues are whether we should be more cautious about entering into trade agreements with countries having widely different social and economic environments or rules and, at the domestic level, whether **antitrust** or competition law enforcement should **concern itself with the fairness of the competitive process.** Concerning antitrust or competition law enforcement three main arguments have been put forward against the inclusion of fairness considerations in the enforcement of anti- trust and competition law. First, the concept of fairness is vague; second, taking into consideration fairness would entail a social cost in terms of efficiency; and third, competition authorities are not equipped to trade fairness against efficiency considerations. Trebilcock and Ducci (2017) consider the vagueness of the notion of fairness and the necessity to specify the notions of fairness which could be relevant for competition. They usefully distinguish different notions of fairness that are pertinent to domestic markets: vertical fairness (between producers and consumers); horizontal fairness on the demand side (between consumers); horizontal fairness on the supply side (between producers); and procedural fairness (due process and private enforcement). One can **easily show** that antitrust is congruent with fairness with respect to horizontal fairness among suppliers in the sense that competition or antitrust law enforcement aims at **eliminating the barriers to entry or to development**, which prevent competitors from entering new markets or competing on the merits with established firms. This dimension of competition does not seem particularly problematic from the standpoint of fairness. One can also mention the fact that competition law, to the extent that it aims at eliminating discriminatory practices (as in the European competition law where article 102 prohibits firms with market power from directly or indirectly imposing unfair purchase or selling prices or other unfair trading conditions, or from applying dissimilar conditions to equivalent transactions with other trading parties, thereby placing them at a competitive disadvantage), goes some way toward meeting the horizontal fairness condition for consumers. The question of whether the way in which competition laws are implemented meet vertical fairness criteria is more complex. Some, like Trebilcock and Ducci, argue that **the goal of protecting consumer welfare assigned in most countries** to competition law is a somewhat **clumsy attempt to bring into competition law fairness issues** which are alien to what which competition law should be concerned with. For example, they write: Despite being usually justified by a distributive justice rationale, we believe that the consumer welfare standard **does not vindicate distributional equity concerns for consumers** vis-a-vis producers, and we believe that such choice of welfare standard does not represent an optimal tool for redistributive goals. On the contrary, we view the consumer welfare standard as resulting from a mix of poorly defined distributive concerns and more political economy-oriented explanations. Under the latter perspective, the ascendance of the consumer welfare standard may be interpreted as a political bargain between self-interested groups of producers (primarily large firms defending the efficiency benefits of economies of scale) and consumers (including final consumers, small buyers, farmers), where the concept of ‘consumer welfare’ can be seen as a more acceptable form of welfare standard for non-specialist audiences, which would politically allow the advancement of economic goals in the competition policy domain.

**Populism causes extinction.**

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The international system is at a **historical inflection point.** As Asia continues its economic ascent, two centuries of Western domination of the world, first under Pax Britannica and then under Pax Americana, are coming to an end. The West is losing not only its material dominance but also its ideological sway. Around the world, democracies are **falling prey** to illiberalism and **populist dissension** while a rising China, assisted by a pugnacious Russia, seeks to challenge the West’s authority and republican approaches to both domestic and international governance. U.S. President Joe Biden is committed to refurbishing American democracy, restoring U.S. leadership in the world, and taming a pandemic that has had devastating human and economic consequences. But Biden’s victory was a close call;on neither side of the Atlantic will **angry populism or illiberal temptations readily abate**. Moreover, even if Western democracies overcome polarization, beat back illiberalism, and pull off an economic rebound, they will not forestall the arrival of a world that is both multipolar and ideologically diverse. History makes clear that such **periods of tumultuous** **change** come with **great peril**. Indeed, **great-power** **contests** over hierarchy and ideology regularly lead to **major wars**. Averting this outcome requires soberly acknowledging that the Western-led liberal order that emerged after World War II cannot anchor global stability in the twenty-first century. The search is on for a viable and effective way forward. The best vehicle for promoting stability in the twenty-first century is a global concert of major powers. As the history of the nineteenth-century Concert of Europe demonstrated—its members were the United Kingdom, France, Russia, Prussia, and Austria—a steering group of leading countries can curb the geopolitical and ideological competition that usually accompanies multipolarity. Concerts have two characteristics that make them well suited to the emerging global landscape: political inclusivity and procedural informality. A concert’s inclusivity means that it puts at the table the geopolitically influential and powerful states that need to be there, regardless of their regime type. In so doing, it largely separates ideological differences over domestic governance from matters of international cooperation. A concert’s informality means that it eschews binding and enforceable procedures and agreements, clearly distinguishing it from the UN Security Council. The UNSC serves too often as a public forum for grandstanding and is regularly paralyzed by disputes among its veto-wielding permanent members. In contrast, a concert offers a private venue that combines consensus building with cajoling and jockeying—a must since major powers will have both common and competing interests. By providing a vehicle for genuine and sustained strategic dialogue, a global concert can realistically mute and manage inescapable geopolitical and ideological differences. A global concert would be a consultative, not a decision-making, body. It would address emerging crises yet ensure that urgent issues would not crowd out important ones, and it would deliberate on reforms to existing norms and institutions. This steering group would help fashion new rules of the road and build support for collective initiatives but leave operational matters, such as deploying peacekeeping missions, delivering pandemic relief, and concluding new climate deals, to the UN and other existing bodies. The concert would thus tee up decisions that could then be taken and implemented elsewhere. It would sit atop and backstop, not supplant, the current international architecture by maintaining a dialogue that does not now exist. The UN is too big, too bureaucratic, and too formalistic. Fly-in, fly-out G-7 or G-20 summits can be useful but even at their best are woefully inadequate, in part because so much effort goes toward haggling over detailed, but often anodyne, communiqués. Phone calls between heads of state, foreign ministers, and national security advisers are too episodic and often narrow in scope. Fashioning major-power consensus on the international norms that guide statecraft, accepting both liberal and illiberal governments as legitimate and authoritative, advancing shared approaches to crises—the Concert of Europe relied on these important innovations to preserve peace in a multipolar world. By drawing on lessons from its nineteenth-century forebearer, a twenty-first-century global concert can do the same. Concerts do lack the certitude, predictability, and enforceability of alliances and other formalized pacts. But in designing mechanisms to preserve peace amid geopolitical flux, policymakers should strive for the workable and the attainable, not the desirable but impossible. A GLOBAL CONCERT FOR THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY A global concert would have six members: China, the European Union, India, Japan, Russia, and the United States. Democracies and nondemocracies would have equal standing, and inclusion would be a function of power and influence, not values or regime type. The concert’s members would collectively represent roughly 70 percent of both global GDP and global military spending. Including these six heavyweights in the concert’s ranks would give it geopolitical clout while preventing it from becoming an unwieldy talk shop. Members would send permanent representatives of the highest diplomatic rank to the global concert’s standing headquarters. Although they would not be formal members of the concert, four regional organizations—the African Union, Arab League, Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), and Organization of American States (OAS)—would maintain permanent delegations at the concert’s headquarters. These organizations would provide their regions with representation and the ability to help shape the concert’s agenda. When discussing issues affecting these regions, concert members would invite delegates from these bodies as well as select member states to join meetings. For example, were concert members to address a dispute in the Middle East, they could request the participation of the Arab League, its relevant members, and other involved parties, such as Iran, Israel, and Turkey. A global concert would shun codified rules, instead relying on dialogue to build consensus. Like the Concert of Europe, it would privilege the territorial status quo and a view of sovereignty that precludes, except in the case of international consensus, using military force or other coercive tools to alter existing borders or topple regimes. This relatively conservative baseline would encourage buy-in from all members. At the same time, the concert would provide an ideal venue for discussing globalization’s impact on sovereignty and the potential need to deny sovereign immunity to nations that engage in certain egregious activities. Those activities might include committing genocide, harboring or sponsoring terrorists, or severely exacerbating climate change by destroying rainforests. Policymakers should strive for the workable and the attainable, not the desirable but impossible. A global concert would thus put a premium on dialogue and consensus. The steering group would also acknowledge, however, that great powers in a multipolar world will be driven by realist concerns about hierarchy, security, and regime continuity, making discord inescapable. Members would reserve the right to take unilateral action, alone or through coalitions, when they deem their vital interests to be at stake. Direct strategic dialogue would, though, make surprise moves less common and, ideally, unilateral action less frequent. Regular and open consultation between Moscow and Washington, for example, might have produced less friction over NATO enlargement. China and the United States are better off directly communicating with each other over Taiwan than sidestepping the issue and risking a military mishap in the Taiwan Strait or provocations that could escalate tensions. A global concert could also make unilateral moves less disruptive. Conflicts of interest would hardly disappear, but a new vehicle devoted exclusively to great-power diplomacy would help make those conflicts more manageable. Although members would, in principle, endorse a norm-governed international order, they would also embrace realistic expectations about the limits of cooperation and compartmentalize their differences. During the nineteenth-century concert, its members frequently confronted stubborn disagreements over, for instance, how to respond to liberal revolts in Greece, Naples, and Spain. But they kept their differences at bay through dialogue and compromise, returning to the battlefield in the Crimean War in 1853 only after the revolutions of 1848 spawned destabilizing currents of nationalism. A global concert would give its members wide leeway when it comes to domestic governance. They would effectively agree to disagree on questions of democracy and political rights, ensuring that such differences do not hinder international cooperation. The United States and its democratic allies would not cease criticizing illiberalism in China, Russia, or anywhere else, and neither would they abandon their effort to spread democratic values and practices. On the contrary, they would continue to raise their voices and wield their influence to defend universal political and human rights. At the same time, China and Russia would be free to criticize the domestic policies of the concert’s democratic members and publicly promote their own vision of governance. But the concert would also work toward a shared understanding of what constitutes unacceptable interference in other countries’ domestic affairs and, as a result, are to be avoided. OUR BEST HOPE Establishing a global concert would admittedly constitute a setback to the liberalizing project launched by the world’s democracies after World War II. The proposed steering group’s aspirations set a modest bar compared with the West’s long-standing aim of spreading republican governance and globalizing a liberal international order. Nonetheless, this scaling back of expectations is unavoidable given the twenty-first century’s geopolitical realities. The international system, for one, will exhibit characteristics of both bipolarity and multipolarity. There will be two peer competitors—the United States and China. Unlike during the Cold War, however, ideological and geopolitical competition between them will not encompass the world. On the contrary, the EU, Russia, and India, as well as other large states such as Brazil, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey, and South Africa, will likely play the two superpowers off each other and seek to preserve a significant measure of autonomy. Both China and the United States will also likely limit their involvement in unstable zones of less strategic interest, leaving it to others—or no one—to manage potential conflicts. China has long been smart enough to keep its political distance from far-off conflict zones, while the United States, which is currently pulling back from the Middle East and Africa, has learned that the hard way. The international system of the twenty-first century will therefore resemble that of nineteenth-century Europe, which had two major powers—the United Kingdom and Russia—and three powers of lesser rank—France, Prussia, and Austria. The Concert of Europe’s primary objective was to preserve peace among its members through a mutual commitment to upholding the territorial settlement reached at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. The pact rested on good faith and a shared sense of obligation, not contractual agreement. Any actions required to enforce their mutual commitments, according to a British memorandum, “have been deliberately left to arise out of the circumstances of the time and of the case.” Concert members recognized their competing interests, especially when it came to Europe’s periphery, but sought to manage their differences and prevent them from jeopardizing group solidarity. The United Kingdom, for example, opposed Austria’s proposed intervention to reverse a liberal revolt that took place in Naples in 1820. Nonetheless, British Foreign Secretary Lord Castlereagh eventually assented to Austria’s plans provided that “they were ready to give every reasonable assurance that their views were not directed to purposes of aggrandizement subversive of the Territorial System of Europe.” A global concert would give its members wide leeway when it comes to domestic governance. A global concert, like the Concert of Europe, is well suited to promoting stability amid multipolarity. Concerts limit their membership to a manageable size. Their informality allows them to adapt to changing circumstances and prevents them from scaring off powers averse to binding commitments. Under conditions of rising populism and nationalism, widespread during the nineteenth century and again today, powerful countries prefer looser groupings and diplomatic flexibility to fixed formats and obligations. It is no accident that major states have already been turning to concert-like groupings or so-called contact groups to tackle tough challenges; examples include the six-party talks that addressed North Korea’s nuclear program, the P5+1 coalition that negotiated the 2015 Iran nuclear deal, and the Normandy grouping that has been seeking a diplomatic resolution to the conflict in eastern Ukraine. The concert can be understood as a standing contact group with a global purview. Separately, the twenty-first century will be politically and ideologically diverse. Depending on the trajectory of the populist revolts afflicting the West, liberal democracies may well be able to hold their own. But so too will illiberal regimes. Moscow and Beijing are tightening their grip at home, not opening up. Stable democracy is **hard to find** in the Middle East and Africa. Indeed, **democracy is receding,** not advancing, worldwide—a trend that could well continue. The international order that comes next must make room for ideological diversity. A concert has the necessary informality and flexibility to do so; it separates issues of domestic rule from those of international teamwork. During the nineteenth century, it was precisely this hands-off approach to regime type that enabled two liberalizing powers—the United Kingdom and France—to work with Russia, Prussia, and Austria, three countries determined to defend absolute monarchy. Finally, the inadequacies of the current international architecture underscore the need for a global concert. The rivalry between the United States and China is heating up fast, the **world is suffering** through a devastating pandemic, climate change is advancing, and the evolution of cyberspace poses new threats. These and other challenges mean that clinging to the status quo and banking on existing international norms and institutions would be dangerously naive. The Concert of Europe was formed in 1815 owing to the years of devastation wrought by the Napoleonic Wars. But the lack of great-power war today should not be cause for complacency. And even though the world has passed through previous eras of multipolarity, the advance of globalization increases the demand for and importance of new approaches to global governance. Globalization unfolded during Pax Britannica, with London overseeing it until World War I. After a dark interwar hiatus, the United States took up the mantle of global leadership from World War II into the twenty-first century. But Pax Americana is now running on fumes. The United States and its traditional democratic partners have neither the capability nor the will to anchor an interdependent international system and universalize the liberal order that they erected after World War II. The absence of U.S. leadership during the COVID-19 crisis was striking; each country was on its own. President Biden is guiding the United States back to being a team player, but the nation’s pressing domestic priorities and the onset of multipolarity will deny Washington the outsize influence it once enjoyed. Allowing the world to slide toward regional blocs or a two-bloc structure similar to that of the Cold War is a nonstarter. The United States, China, and the rest of the globe cannot fully uncouple when national economies, financial markets, and supply chains are irreversibly tethered together. A great-power steering group is the best option for managing an integrated world no longer overseen by a hegemon. A global concert fits the bill.

**Specifically, the Philippines mirrors the consumer welfare standard after US law, but it must consider the AFF’s standard to promote development.**

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The complexities of modern government have often led Congress- whether by actual or perceived necessity-to legislate broad policy goals and general statutory standards, leaving the specific policy options to the discretion of an administrative body. 2 In this regard, the Philippine Competition Commission ("PCC")-the administrative body mandated to implement the Philippine Competition Act -has taken great strides in **advancing the policy objectives of economic efficiency and consumer welfare**. That the two policy objectives figure greatly in the exercise of the PCC's mandate is evident from its regulatory issuances and participation in relevant proceedings. A. Regulatory Issuances In its Implementing Rules and Regulations ("IRR"), the PCC adopts the "substantial lessening of competition" ("SLC") test,4 a Jurisprudential standard crafted and **developed by foreign jurisdictions to weigh the anticompetitive effects of certain transactions.** By assessing market indicators such as firm rivalry, prices, quality, and availability of goods and services, the SLC test filters out agreements that reduce competitive pressure among firms and disincentivize them from becoming more efficient and innovative.5 The IRR also allows the PCC to forbear-or desist from applying the provisions of the PCA-when, among other considerations, forbearance is consistent with the benefit and welfare of the consumers. 6 Economic efficiency and **consumer welfare also take center stage** in the PCC's Rules on Enforcement Procedure ("Enforcement Rules"), the rules and regulations governing hearings, investigation, and other proceedings on anti-competitive agreements, abuse of dominant market position, and other violations of the PCA.7 Preliminary inquiries-the PCC proceedings that parallel the prosecutor's preliminary investigation in criminal cases-are to be conducted with due regard to consumer welfare.8 Interim measures may be issued against entities when their acts would result in a material and adverse effect on consumers or competition in the market.9 Upon termination of enforcement proceedings, the PCC will determine the propriety of imposing conclusive remedies with the aim of maintaining, enhancing, or restoring competition in the market.10 Similar to the IRR, the PCC's Rules on Merger Procedure ("Merger Rules") employs the SLC test in determining whether a proposed merger or acquisition will, post-transaction, **reduce economic efficiency or impair consumer welfare**; in determining the appropriateness of imposing interim measures; 12 or in considering whether, before clearing a merger or acquisition, the parties must abide by certain conditions to remedy, prevent, or mitigate competitive harm. 13 In addition, pursuant to its market surveillance function, the PCC is empowered to motu proprio conduct a review of mergers that are reasonably foreseen to breach the SLC test. 14 Intervening by way of an amicus curiae brief, the PCC apprised the Supreme Court of the competition issue intertwined with the legal question in a pending case that assailed, as an ultra vires expansion of statutory language, the regulation issued by the Philippine Contractors Accreditation Board that created a nationality restriction that was unsupported by the governing statutory text.15 The PCC supported striking down the regulation, arguing that, on the basis of economic literature and empirical data, the nationality restriction constituted a regulatory barrier to entry that unduly favored domestic contractors to the detriment of foreign contractors. In its argument that the regulation inordinately restricts market competition, the PCC enunciated the following principles: Consumer welfare, which in this case refers to the welfare of both households and other businesses, is maximized when competition allows consumers to access and choose the most efficient producers, regardless of the service provider's nationality. Indeed, it is a settled principle in economics that if there are many players in the market, healthy competition will ensue. The competitors will try to outdo each other in terms of quality and price in order to survive and profit. Competition therefore results in better quality products and competitive prices, which redound to the benefit of the public.16 In its recent bid to take its legal scuffle with Globe and PLDT17 to the Supreme Court,18 the PCC donned its mantle "to level the playing field across all markets; to review the competitive implications of large transactions; and to actively investigate, prosecute, and sanction cases of cartelistic behaviors that prevent, restrict, or lessen market competition." 19 These mandates would be carried out to "[encourage] innovation among market players, [reward] their efficient and productive use of resources, and ultimately [redound] to the benefit of consumers by lowering prices and enhancing their right of choice over goods and services offered in the market. 20 Significantly, the general public has acquiesced to the perception that the PCC champions economic efficiency and consumer welfare. News reports have consistently adverted to the PCA as a landmark piece of legislation that will enhance and promote these two policy objectives. Even lawmakers have acknowledged the PCC's critical role in improving market competition. Senator Juan Miguel Zubiri, addressing PCC's representative, Commissioner Johannes Bernabe, in a legislative hearing concerning the telecommunications sector, stated: "I'm really one with you [...] So you guys have to help us out [...] We are fighting giants. But as I said, the least that can happen is [that they] shape up and give us better service[,] or the best is that more players can come in and give us the best service[.]"21 But are such policy objectives all there is to the PCA? Or does the statutory text, alone or in conjunction with related legal materials, admit of other governing principles? Addressing such questions is crucial as the PCA may also cover other goals that have not been explicitly recognized. The law, after all, admits of different interpretations. 22 This then requires stakeholders and other government bodies to defer to the "sound discretion of the government agency entrusted with the regulation of activities coming under [its] special and technical training and knowledge[.]" 23 In such case, the PCC might be **undercutting its own potential to make even greater strides in other aspects of national development.** Recognizing these **other objectives** will greatly influence the PCC's exercise of its mandate and, more importantly, could **translate to better gains in national development.** By no means does this Note claim that the PCC is severely limiting the exercise of its functions-whether consciously or subconsciously. Rather, it simply articulates other equally **important antitrust considerations** which can be construed from the statutory text-considerations which the PCC **must also devote attention** to, and which the public, considering the incipient but technical field of competition law, 24 must appreciate.

**The current standard results in economic injury.**

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Enjoyment of the foregoing advantages should not, however, serve as vices that hinder the PCC from pursuing other policy objectives **beyond economic efficiency and consumer welfare.** The two virtues are, after all, **not without their shortcomings**-a strong admonition against the PCC from exclusively limiting its mandate to said virtues. Moreover, "with the growing complexity of modern life, the multiplication of the subjects of governmental regulations, and the increased difficulty of administering the laws," Congress has **vested "a larger amount of discretion in administrative and executive officials**, not only in the execution of the laws, but also in the promulgation of certain rules and regulations calculated to promote public interest." 9 0 To begin with, economics may not be as impartial a science as one might paint it to be, while economic efficiency and consumer welfare may not be as dispassionate. Economics, after all, is a tool that can be harnessed to suit any end. As incisively expressed in one article: Despite the laborious techniques and scientific pretention, most brands of economics are covertly ideological. Marxian economics, with its labor theory of value, assumes the inevitability of class conflict, and hence, the necessity of class struggle. Keynesianism, with its conviction that industrial capitalism is systematically unstable, offers an equally "scientific" rationale for government intervention. Neoclassical economics, with its reliance on the efficiency of markets, is a lavishly 9 Although legal analysis can now be expressed in terms of graphs, functions, equations and charts, this does not mean that competition agencies automatically possess the "cold neutrality of an impartial judge[.]" 92 **Antitrust and competition policy**, no different from the application of any other law, is **not an autarchic field** but is instead responsive to the warp and woof of other civil, political, and social dimensions. More alarmingly, employing the standards of economic efficiency and consumer welfare-more so when done to the **exclusion** of other goals-have, in some instances, **perversely led to economic injury.** Efficiency or welfare analysis has been criticized as ascribing to distinct goods and services the same social utility. Such a one-dimensional take fails to account for the harm certain goods-for instance, tobacco and guns- inflict on society. Since efficiency and welfare are primarily concerned with delivering the most competitive prices to consumers, **regulators end up making harmful goods more accessible to the consuming public.** 93 Furthermore, in a regime that adopts efficiency and/or welfare to the exclusion of other standards, "conduct that did not impair efficiency would be permitted, **regardless of the effects competitors, or the political economy at large**." 4 From a broader perspective, efficiency and consumer welfare are but two aspirations in the entire universe of objectives that antitrust may pursue. The United States case of Brown Shoe v. United States95 is instructive on this matter: Congress provided no definite quantitative or qualitative tests by which enforcement agencies were to gauge the effects of a given merger, but rather that Congress intended that a variety of economic and other factors be considered in determining whether the merger was consistent with maintaining competition in the industry in which the merging 96 The PCC shall inevitably encounter cases that will entail the application of other considerations since going by the economic efficiency or consumer welfare approach alone would be a dereliction of the duties to address various issues and promote other equally important values. As more complex variables factor into the agency's calculus, the PCC would risk undercutting its mandate if it were to limit its goals. In such case, **the ultimate loser would be society.**

**Equitable growth in the Philippines prevents piracy.**

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The Sulu-Celebes Sea is one of the major shipping routes of Southeast Asia.64 Annually, US$40 billion worth of goods pass through the Sulu-Celebes Sea, creating great economic opportunities for inhabitants of the region in logistics management, ship maintenance, and other complementary sectors.65 Moreover, its marine biodiversity66 generates economic opportunities for eco-tourism67, fish farming, and reef-sourced biomedical products.68 However, the threats arising from crime, piracy and terrorism have significantly impacted investors’ confidence in that region. Notwithstanding these opportunities, the labour force participation rate of the Bangsamoro Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (BARMM) is only 62.3 percent for individuals who are above 15 years old, signalling a high unemployment figure despite the reported 3.8 percent unemployment rate. 69 More critically, low levels of formal education in the BARMM have led to limits on workforce development.70 Non-Governmental Organisations have identified coastal **poverty71** **and relative economic depression72** as the **key factors** that may induce grievances and lead to a sense of relative deprivation and injustice for which affected individuals feel the need to rebel against. This then drives **individuals into engaging in illicit activities and political violence.**73 While comprehensive data on the youth unemployment rates in the region is unavailable, the high intensity of conflict and low formal education attainment reduces economic opportunities among youth. Based on the youth bulge theory, spaces with high youth population and high youth unemployment are more prone to civil conflict.74 The poor economic outlook, coupled with existing political grievances, facilitates the continuous recruitment of disgruntled youth **into militancy**.75 The coasts of the Sulu-Celebes Seas has observed high proportion of youth participating in Abu Sayyaf activities. This includes the infamous Ajang Ajang unit, which comprised sons of deceased Abu Sayyaf members. Much of the Abu Sayyaf militant strength is derived from its youth. Notable leaders like Isnilon Hapilon (49 years old when killed), leader of the Islamic State’s East Asian Wilayah, participated in militancy since he was 17.76 Amin Baco (35 years old when killed), who was touted to succeed Hapilon, participated in Islamist insurgencies since he was 16.77 Nonetheless, more research onto this topic is required to investigate the relationship between the high youth recruitment and economic deprivation at the region. The COVID-19 pandemic has decimated the economies of the TCA member states. Youth unemployment for the Philippines, Indonesia, and Malaysia has risen significantly as a result of measures to curtail the spread of the virus.78 This trend **worsens the existing socio-political grievances** of the population, thereby **increasing** youth **participation in regional militancy**.79 Ultimately, governments must adopt both hard and soft power to build lasting peace in the region.

**Goes nuclear---terrorist-piracy nexus guarantees escalation.**

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The terrorism-piracy nexus and port security

In assessing the nature of maritime terrorist activity **in Asia**, it is important to study the terrorism-piracy nexus – not least because pirates have in the past financed terrorist activity.[59]Evidence of a linkage between the terrorists and pirates first emerged in May 2003, when the M/V Pen rider, a Malaysian-registered oil tanker, was attacked off the coast of Malaysia, and three crew members were taken hostage.[60] After ship owners paid $100,000 to free the crew, it emerged that the attackers were associated with the Free Aceh Movement, an insurgent group operating in Indonesia. The receipt of a ransom of $1.2 million by the Somali pirates to free a Spanish fishing vessel and 26 hostages in 2008 provided more proof of a possible link between terrorists and pirates; reportedly, the Al-Shabaab had received a five-percent cut. A year later, when the terror group hired pirates to smuggle in members of Al Qaeda to Somalia, the terror-piracy linkage seemed virtually **certain**.[61]

In recent years, **terrorists and pirates have appeared to draw closer**, even if the exact nature of their collaboration is not clear. Somali pirates and terrorists are said to have worked together in arms trafficking, and Al-Shabaab is said to have even have trained pirates for ‘duties’ at sea.[62]An investigation by the United Nations (UN) in 2017 found evidence of collusion between pirates and the Al Shabaab, including the possibility that pirates helped the latter smuggle weapons and ammunition into Somalia.[63] As discussed earlier, in Southeast Asia, the Abu Sayaff’s turn to piracy has resulted in millions earned via ransom payments.[64] Its cadres have used the **revenue** earned for pirate activity **to expand the radical organisation’s presence** in Southeast Asia.

The terror-piracy linkage is important because it highlights the causal mechanism behind rising **violence** at sea. The task of maritime security agencies becomes harder, however, when the lines between terrorism and piracy begin blurring, particularly in Southeast Asia, where the Abu Sayyaf has alternated between piracy and terrorism. Today’s pirates are trained fighters onboard speedboats, armed not only with automatic weapons, hand-held missiles and grenades but also and global positioning systems; professional mercenaries that loop effortlessly between rent-seeking and violent acts. Their objectives are as much ideological, as they are material.

ISPS code and littoral security

While most discussions around maritime terrorism presume a threat to sea-borne assets, port security constitutes the bigger challenge. Terrorists have long had **seaports on their crosshairs**, because of the latter’s role in **trade and economic development**. In recent years, there has been a significant increase in freight traffic, with key ports in Asia transformed into global trading hubs. In keeping with the growing importance of port-enabled trade, regional governments have taken better measures to protect ships and onshore facilities. In many ports, authorities have increased guards, gates, and security cameras, even introducing identification card programs to screen those with access to critical port infrastructure. The installation of radiation detectors has been particularly helpful in screening critical cargo and identifying suspicious shipments.

Yet, not even the best ports in Asia are able to track and monitor large containers comprehensively. With a rising quantum of cargo to be handled every day, port authorities find it impractical to scan each and every container being offloaded from cargo ships.[65]Container scanning in many ports is in fact a largely random exercise, with authorities insisting that shippers provide manifests of what is contained in cargo bins.[66]

The lack of effective checks on ports brings up the possibility of the use of containers as weapons to smuggle in arms, explosive materials or the terrorists themselves. While terrorists would not possibly target cargo ships directly, the latter could be used to transport weapons or to sabotage commercial operations. **A dirty-bomb** in an illicit cargo container of a cargo ship could cause a port shutdown and huge commercial disruption.[67] Even a failed attempt to smuggle a device into a major transshipment hub would significantly impact port operations.

After the 9/11 incident in the United States, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) had established the International Ship and Port Facility Security (ISPS) Code—a set of maritime regulations designed to help detect and deter threats to international shipping. The code subjects ships to a system of survey, verification, certification and control to ensure that the security measures prescribed by the IMO are implemented by member countries. It also provides a standardised, consistent framework for evaluating risk and gauging vulnerabilities of ships and ports facilities, laying down principles and guidelines for governments, port authorities and shipping companies, making compliance mandatory.[68]

The code, however, has not been effective in a way originally intended.[69]Firstly, the code is based on the experience of 9/11 and early piracy activity off Somalia. No amendments or revisions have been made with regard to new types of security threats encountered in recent years. The exclusion of vessels less than 500 tonnes, and all fishing vessels regardless of their size, is a further impediment in the code’s implementation, as terrorists have sought to use smaller boats to smuggle weapons and ammunition rarely subject to regulation.[70]

Another shortcoming is that the code does not include official monitoring procedures for security matters. Unlike the International Safety Management Code (ISM) that prescribes office audits by internal and external sources, the ISPS enumerates general guidelines and precautions—a standardised template for evaluating risks on many different types, sizes and categories of vessels and facilities.[71] The code also does not specify ways to strengthen capability to protect against new forms of terrorism, such as drone attacks.[72] With no legal obligation to implement regulations, port authorities are unwilling to make necessary investments in security measures.

The lack of national legislation/guidelines is another hurdle in the code’s implementation. Regional governments have neither enacted necessary domestic legislation to fight terrorists nor allotted resources to implement security measures.[73] In India, for instance, there is no comprehensive maritime security policy for protection of the commercial maritime infrastructure and supply chains.[74]A new Merchant Shipping Bill[75] in 2016 improved transparency and effective delivery of services, but has failed to address security concerns.

Given the complicated mix of variables contributing to port security, a study of security measures adopted by the civil aviation industry might offer some useful pointers. The latter’s efforts to prevent hijackings of commercial aircraft over the past four decades has been widely hailed as a success. Developed in the late 1960s, the international legal regime governing civilian flight operations was significantly upgraded after the attacks of 11 September 2001. The United States’ efforts to bring in legislation to regulate foreign airlines and flights from foreign airports have been particularly helpful. In concert with other international conventions drafted by the UN International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO), the regulatory regime has deterred terrorists and criminals from targeting aircraft.[76]

This may hold important lessons for port security; in particular, approaches used in the international legal regime governing civil aviation to eliminate safe havens for pirates and terrorists by ensuring legal accountability. A study of security in the aviation sector could offer important tips on how port security systems could be mobilised to encourage best management practices; the importance of freezing assets of those who fund piracy enterprises; and the utility of enhancing communication and coordination among the various stakeholders relevant to the fight against piracy and terrorism.[77]

A next terrorist attack: Gauging the odds

To design policies that help combat maritime terrorism it is important to assess the likely nature of future attacks and their probable targets. Future terrorist attacks could be directed against four kinds of targets: warships, supertankers, passenger ships and port facilities. The most vulnerable and attractive targets remain tankers out at sea. The recent attacks on tankers in the Persian Gulf revealed that the threat is evolving and could now include unmanned vehicles.[78] More damaging would be the seizure and sinking of an oil-carrying tanker in a congested space, crippling the flow of maritime traffic. To get a sense of the extent of damage such an attack would cause, the Limburg incident in 2002 caused a massive spillage of oil (almost 90,000 tonnes) that took many weeks to clear.[79]

Another kind of attack could be on cruise ships out at sea. Big cruise ships are a lucrative target since they are lightly defended and relatively easily accessible.[80]An enquiry into the Achille Lauro incident in October 1984 highlighted fundamental deficiencies in safety procedures. Apparently, checks on passengers in the run-up to that fateful incident had not been foolproof. Despite acting nervously and even displaying anti-social behaviour, the Palestinian hijackers did not arouse the suspicions of passengers and crew.[81] While safety procedures have since improved, security procedures at ports and aboard cruise ships (with certain exceptions) are far from immaculate. During the Super Ferry incident in the Philippines in 2004, Abu Sayyaf operatives disguised as tourists smuggled 20 sticks of explosives that were stored inside an emptied out TV set.[82] There is some evidence that cruise shipping companies in Asia and Africa continue with the same lax approach that enabled that devastating attack.

The most likely venue of a future terrorist strike, however, might be inside a port facility, and it could possibly involve a ‘lone wolf’ with a loose affiliation to a bigger terrorist group. Ports are an attractive target because many of the tactical problems that terrorists face in orchestrating attacks on ships in the high seas do not apply to harbors, ports, or shore-based maritime facilities. Terrorists realise that the containerised supply chain is complex, and creates many opportunities for isolated acts of terrorism. An ineffective point of check, for instance, could allow a jihadi inside a container **to detonate a** vast quantity of explosives or a low-grade **nuclear device**; inadequate surveillance in a vessel could lead a jihadi diver to plant an explosives improvised explosive device (IED). While many ports have installed radiation detectors to combat the threat of IED, the pace of installation has been slow, and smaller ports remain vulnerable.

**The plan solves---US antitrust law is modeled---the stakes are huge.**

David J. **Gerber 13**. Teaches antitrust law, comparative law and more specialized seminars such as international and comparative competition law. He has been a member of the Chicago-Kent faculty since 1982. After graduating from the University of Chicago Law School, Professor Gerber practiced law in New York City and then spent several years working in a German law firm and in several universities in Europe. “U.S. ANTITRUST: FROM SHOT IN THE DARK TO GLOBAL LEADERSHIP” Then & Now: Stories of Law and Progress. 2013.

The “shot in the dark” that was the **U.S. antitrust law system** is today no longer solely a domestic field of law. It is now also a **critically important component of global economic policy!** The system that U.S. judges had evolved to deal with purely domestic problems and that relied on little more than confidence in the capacity of courts to develop reasonable responses to conflicts has been transformed into the central player in efforts to respond effectively to economic and other forms of globalization. It is now a U.S. export product, and the **stakes are enormous.** What directions and forms will the **rules of competition** take? Treatment of these issues will be a **factor in the future of many countries**, including the U.S., and for more than two decades Chicago-Kent has brought transnational competition law to our students, and Chicago-Kent faculty have contributed to the international discussion of these issues. A. Foreign Interactions and Perceptions **U.S. antitrust now plays on a global stage**, and much will depend on how foreign experts, lawyers, government officials and business leaders **see U.S. antitrust**. They will make **decisions about what to do in their own countries** and on the international level. This means that their perspectives on the U.S. system are critical to its roles both at home and abroad, and foreign images of U.S. antitrust have changed radically. Prior to the Second World War, those in Europe who knew anything about U.S. antitrust law (and they were few) generally considered it a mistake. They tended to see it as a failure that actually created more harm than good by forcing companies to merge rather than cooperate. This view predominated in large measure until after the Second World War. The Europeans were developing a different concept of competition law that emphasized administrative control of dominant firms. This conception of competition was spreading rapidly in Europe in the 1920s, but depression and war led to its virtual abandonment. After that war ended, however, U.S. antitrust law became associated with U.S. economic dominance in the “free world.” The real and imagined connections between economic concentration and military expansion in both Germany and Japan convinced many that **U.S.-style antitrust law should be used** to combat such concentrations. U.S. occupation forces in Germany and Japan imposed U.S. antitrust ideas during the occupation period, and the U.S. insisted that both countries either enact or maintain competition law after the occupation. This increased awareness of these ideas abroad. Perhaps more important, however, was the **perception that antitrust was a source of strength for the U.S. economy** and thus a potential spur to growth that other countries could employ. U.S.-style antitrust did not, however, always fit well with European legal traditions and institutions, and in most European countries skepticism toward the U.S. model limited progress in protecting competition. In Germany, however, a separate set of ideas about how to protect competition developed in the 1930s and 1940s in the underground, and after the war it became the basis for German antitrust law. From here it spread to the European level and became part of the process of Euro- pean integration. The basic idea of U.S. antitrust law—i.e., protecting the competitive process from restraints—was part of this model of competition law, but the model itself was conceptually and institutionally quite distinct. European scholars and officials in these areas often looked to U.S. antitrust for comparisons and insights into problems, but there was relatively little interaction between U.S. and European forms of competition law until the 1990s. In the 1990s these relationships became far closer and more important for both the U.S. and Europeans. Moreover, the fall of the Soviet Union precipitated widespread interest in market-based approaches around the world and revived the messianic tenor of the U.S. antitrust law community. Many countries that had socialist or other command-based approaches to the organization of economic activity now introduced antitrust laws or significantly increased their investment in the enforcement of such laws. Often they looked to U.S. antitrust officials, lawyers and scholars for help in implementing or evaluating their new activities.

**Democracy---1AC**

**Advantage 3 is Democracy.**

**Congressional inaction shifts power to less democratic institutions.**

Spencer Weber **Waller 19**. John Paul Stevens Chair in Competition Law and Director, Institute for Consumer Antitrust Studies, Loyola University Chicago School of Law. "Antitrust and Democracy " Florida State University Law Review. 2019. https://lawecommons.luc.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1658&context=facpubs

It is **disappointing** that the U.S. **Congress** has more often focused on the minutiae of competition law and policy or conducted hearings on high profile mergers that, by design, cannot affect the eventual enforcement actions of the agencies. 160 There have been **no major amendments** of the antitrust laws since the 1970s. 16 1 Criminal penalties have been increased, but the private treble **damage remedies** as a whole have been largely left **unchanged**. 162 **Exemptions** and **immunities** have been **expanded** and contracted at the margins. 16 3 **Budgets** have been increased and **lowered** depending on the era and the overall political zeitgeist.

Unfortunately, much of Congressional attention to competition law has involved **minor issues** and **outright petty** matters. For example, Congress effectively killed a proposal that would have rationalized cooperation between the Antitrust Division and the FTC because it affected which Congressional committee had "jurisdiction" over the work of these agencies. 164 Even more petty was the unsuccessful effort of one Congressman to force the FTC to vacate its headquarters for an expansion of the national art museum.165

The opportunity costs for each hearing on such marginal issues, for example, whether professional baseball should continue to enjoy a partial exemption from the antitrust laws or grandstanding for constituents over the fate of a particular merger with a pronounced local effect, is **high**. Congress sacrifices time, money, and attention better used to study more important, broader issues of competition law and policy. Stated enforcement policy over unilateral conduct and merger policy have changed substantially between administrations and over time. Important guidelines and stated enforcement priorities have changed as well with little substantive Congressional involvement. 16 6 Critical decisions by the United States Supreme Court have changed the law in dramatic and subtle ways without significant Congressional input either before or after the decisions. 167

Perhaps Congress simply does not care about, or actually approves of, the continued evolution of United States antitrust law and policy in all its complexity. However, this silence or indifference has important consequences. It **shifts power** from the most democratic elected institutions to the more distant, **less democratic institutions** of agencies and courts to craft fundamental economic policy free from all but the most **macro-level interventions** or corrections.

**That collapses court legitimacy and constitutional separation of powers.**

David P. **Ramsey 10**. Associate Professor of Government at the University of West Florida. “The Role of the Supreme Court in Antitrust Enforcement”. May 2010. https://baylor-ir.tdl.org/bitstream/handle/2104/7960/david\_ramsey\_phd.pdf?sequence=3

White’s announcement of the rule of reason was not without its critics on the Court. Justice John Marshall Harlan, author of the Court’s opinion in the Northern Securities case, delivered a passionate dissent which, in the period immediately following announcement of the Court’s ruling in the Standard Oil case, was more widely covered in the press than White’s majority opinion. For Harlan, the real issue of the case was whether or not the Court would resist the temptation to amend the Sherman Act by a process of judicial legislation.28 Harlan places the decision in the context of the failed arguments of defendants in the Trans-Missouri and Joint Traffic arguments, who twice attempted to persuade the Court to amend or interpret the text of Sherman §1 prohibition of all agreements in restraint of trade to read all agreements ‘in unreasonable restraint of trade,’ and twice failed to do so.29 Given such precedents, Harlan found White’s decision now to incorporate the standard of reasonableness into the Court’s interpretation of the statute troubling not only because this would seem to **raise constitutional concerns** about judicial legislation, but also because it seemed to show such **blatant disregard** for stare decisis, and would thus help to **weaken** an important source of **institutional power** for the judiciary over time. 30 Finally, Harlan explained that he was worried that White’s adoption of a rule of reason would have **profound constitutional implications in future generations**, particularly the danger of judicial encroachment on the legislative power, and the danger that the Court, by something so small as inserting the word ‘reasonable’ into the Sherman Act’s prohibition of restraints of trade, might eventually come to **erect itself into a superlegislature**, just as Brutus and the Anti-Federalists had feared. Emphasizing the three “separate, equal and coordinate departments” erected by the Constitution, Harlan stresses the danger posed to our institutions should any one branch of the federal government begin to usurp the powers of another, and that this danger was all the more **prevalent and pernicious** in cases involving attempts to transcend constitutional powers in the name of the common good. Harlan closes with a passionate exhortation to resist this temptation to pursue the public good or further the legislative intent of Congress by surpassing the powers granted the Court in Article III. After many years of public service at the National Capital, and after a somewhat close observation of the conduct of public affairs, I am impelled to say that there is abroad in our land a most harmful tendency to bring about the amending of constitutions and legislative enactments by means alone of judicial construction. As a public policy has been declared by the legislative department in respect of interstate commerce, over which Congress has entire control, under the Constitution, all concerned must patiently submit to what has been lawfully done until the People of the United States—the source of all National power—shall, in their own time, upon reflection and through the legislative department of the Government, require a change of that policy.31 Though Harlan’s warning tends to be lightly dismissed by later critics, it must be remembered that at the time, federal involvement in regulation of the economy was minimal, and therefore the Court tended to defer to the political branches. Harlan’s reluctance to accept a court-made rule of reason was in part, then, an attempt to protect the Court from the political backlash that would likely result from being positioned at the vanguard of Progressive reforms. The Sherman Act was controversial enough as a statement of national economic policy without the Court adding to it an additional layer of discretionary power for the judiciary.

**Rule of law is essential to stave off societal collapse.**

Stephen **Breyer 18**. An associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. “AMERICA’S COURTS CAN’T IGNORE THE WORLD” The Atlantic. October 2018. <https://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2018/10/stephen-breyer-supreme-court-world/568360/>

Third, and finally, my legal examples suggest the importance of looking to approaches and solutions that themselves **embody a rule of law**. To achieve and maintain a rule of law is more difficult than many people believe. The effort is ancient, stretching back to King John and the Magna Carta, and still earlier. And the effort does not always succeed. I often describe to judges from other countries how, in the 1830s, a president of the United States, Andrew Jackson, when faced with a Supreme Court decision holding that northern Georgia (where gold had been found) belonged to the Cherokee Nation, is said to have remarked, “John Marshall [the chief justice] has made his decision, now let him enforce it.” Jackson sent troops to Georgia, but not to enforce the law. Instead they evicted the tribe members, sending them along the Trail of Tears to Oklahoma, where their descendants live to this day. Not for more than a century, a period that included the Civil War and decades of racial segregation, would the Supreme Court hold, in Brown v. Board of Education, in 1954, that racial segregation violated the Constitution. Yet the country did not abolish segregation the next year or the year after that. When, in 1957, a judge in Little Rock, Arkansas, ordered Central High School desegregated, the local White Citizens’ Council, supported by the governor, rallied in front of the school, letting no black child enter. It took more than judicial decisions to end segregation. It took a president’s decision to send 1,000 paratroopers to Arkansas. It took Martin Luther King Jr., and the Freedom Riders, and the words and deeds of countless Americans who were not lawyers or judges. Today the public has come to accept the rule of law. When the Court decided Bush v. Gore, a case that was unpopular among many, and was (as I wrote in dissent) wrongly decided, the nation accepted the decision without rioting in the streets. That is a major asset for a nation with a highly diverse population of 320 million citizens. We do not have to convince judges or lawyers that maintaining the rule of law is necessary—they are already convinced. Instead we must convince ordinary citizens, those who are not lawyers or judges, that they sometimes must accept decisions that affect them adversely, and that may well be wrong. If they are willing to do so, the rule of law has a chance. And as soon as one considers the alternatives, the need to work within the rule of law is obvious. The **rule of law** is the opposite of the arbitrary, which, as the dictionary specifies, includes the **unreasonable, the capricious, the authoritarian, the despotic, and the tyrannical.** Turn on the television and look at what happens in nations that use other means to resolve their citizens’ differences. For my generation, the need for law in its many forms was perhaps best described by Albert Camus in The Plague. He writes of a disease that strikes Oran, Algeria, which is his parable for the Nazis who occupied France and for the evil that inhabits some part of every man and woman. He writes of the behavior of those who lived there, some good, some bad. He writes of the doctors who help others without relying upon a moral theory—who simply act. At the end of the book, Camus writes that the germ of the plague never dies nor does it ever disappear. It waits patiently in our bedrooms, our cellars, our suitcases, our handkerchiefs, our file cabinets. And one day, perhaps, to the misfortune or for the education of men, the plague germ will reemerge, reawaken the rats, and send them forth to die in a once-happy city. The struggle against that germ continues. And the rule of law is one **weapon that civilization has used to fight it.** **The rule of law is the** **keystone of the effort to build a civilized, humane, and just society.** At a time when facing facts, understanding the local and global challenges that they offer, and working to meet those challenges cooperatively is **particularly urgent**, we must continue to construct such a society—a **society of laws**—together.

**Judicial activism collapses democracy.**

James **Muffett 14**. Founder & President of Student Statesmanship Institute and President of Citizens for Traditional Values. “The Danger Of Judicial Activism”. Michigan All Rise. 9-8-14. <https://michiganallrise.org/resources/the-danger-of-judicial-activism/>

There is a battle in our nation between those who believe that judges should follow the law as intended by the legislature, and those who think judges have latitude to interpret the law according to their view of what the law ought to be. The latter are referred to as, “activist judges.” When judges insert their own personal bias, they usurp the role of the legislators whom the citizens elect to represent them in deciding disputed, difficult policy issues. Thus, judicial activism **undermines the very basis of our representative democracy.** It can be argued that activist judges have done more damage to traditional, Judeo-Christian values than the other branches of government combined. The areas of greatest damage include free enterprise, human life, marriage, personal freedoms, property rights and religious liberty. Judges who usurp the authority of the people are **not merely incorrect; they are themselves unconstitutiona**l. And they are unjust. In fact, Justice White in his Roe v. Wade dissent opinion, wrote that the court had acted “**not in constitutional interpretation**, but in the unrestrained imposition of its own, **extra-constitutional value preferences**.” In addition to short-circuiting the democratic process, this judicial approach creates an environment of unpredictability which ultimately leads to **destabilization and more litigation.** When judges exercising the power of judicial review are guided by the text, logic, structure, and original understanding of the Constitution and the law, they deserve our respect and gratitude. By operating with this type of judicial oversight, they are playing their part to make constitutional republican government a reality. But where judges usurp democratic legislative authority by imposing on the people their moral and political preferences, under the guise of fairness or empathy, they should be severely criticized and resolutely opposed. It is time for all citizens to wake up to this **crisis** and work to elect “Rule of Law” judges who exercise constitutional authority only to enforce the law as written and ensure that laws apply to everyone equally.

**Antitrust is key to democratic legitimacy---sets a precedent.**

Daniel A. **Crane 21**. Frederick Paul Furth, Sr. Professor of Law, University of Michigan. "Antitrust Antitextualism " Notre Dame Law Review. 1-28-2021. https://scholarship.law.nd.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=4952&context=ndlr

3. Implications for Interpretation

The phenomenon of antitrust antitextualism is important for understanding the U.S. antitrust system, its history, and the possibilities for its reform, but it also has significance for more general understandings of how statutes are written and how their interpretation functions or should function. Scholars have argued that Congress sometimes means statutory language to be purely expressive, indeed that it means for the courts not to give that language legal effect.262 But the story of antitrust antitextualism goes far beyond judicial excision of stray words or phrases from the antitrust statutes. In important instances, particularly with respect to the FTC and Robinson-Patman Acts, the **courts** have **entirely rewritten** the textual meaning and legislative purpose of the statute.263 Through a chronic cycle of legislative enactment, judicial disregard, and implicit legislative acquiescence, Congress and the courts have constituted the **common-law system** that judges and scholars across the political spectrum now consider normalized and perhaps even inevitable.

This pattern of judicial/legislative engagement (with the executive playing an enabling role) raises both analytical and normative questions for the jurisprudence of statutory interpretation. Analytically and descriptively, is antitrust law sui generis, or do other statutory domains exhibit a similar, but perhaps unrecognized, dynamic? Do the antitrust laws idiosyncratically operate in a space of equipoise between Jeffersonian idealism and Hamiltonian pragmatism, with Congress implicitly assigning itself the role of idealist orator while acquiescing as the courts provide pragmatic counterbalance? Or is this yin and yang phenomenon, disguised in the interpretive rhetoric of broad delegations and common-law method, a more general one, in maybe unappreciated ways? Once a pattern is observed in **one legal domain**, it tends to be observed soon in **others** as well. Finding a **recurrence** of the antitrust pattern elsewhere could provide new insights on **statutory** interpretation, **s**eparation **o**f **p**owers, and the de facto **institutional roles** of the legislative and judicial branches.

Normatively, there is **much to question** about the **democratic legitimacy** of the implicit system of legislative declaration and **judicial reformation** described in this Article. There seems little in it that either a committed textualist or a committed purposivist could defend, since the system entails the courts honoring neither what Congress wrote nor what it meant. To rehabilitate the system’s democratic legitimacy, a subtle purposivist might say that what Congress actually meant—in a deep sense—must be gathered from the **norms of the system** itself rather than from conventional evidence such as floor statements by members of Congress, committee reports, or other contemporaneous sources of public meaning. Perhaps members of Congress legislate against a backdrop of expectation that the courts will continue to read down new statutes to accommodate pragmatic efficiency interests, and consenting to this implicit system, the members feel liberated to express more in the statute than they actually mean as prescriptive. But if that is wholesome democratic practice, that case is yet to be made.

**Democratic backsliding in the US spills over.**

Larry **Diamond 21**. Senior Fellow at the Hoover Institution and the Freeman Spogli Institute for International Studies at Stanford University. "A World Without American Democracy?". Foreign Affairs. 7-2-2021. https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/americas/2021-07-02/world-without-american-democracy?utm\_medium=referral&utm\_source=www-foreignaffairs-com.cdn.ampproject.org&utm\_campaign=amp\_kickers

Aprolonged global democratic recession has, in recent years, morphed into something even more troubling: the **“third reverse wave” of democratic breakdowns** that the political scientist Samuel Huntington warned could follow the remarkable burst of “third wave” democratic progress in the 1980s and the 1990s. Every year for the past 15 years, according to Freedom House, significantly more countries have seen declines in political rights and civil liberties than have seen gains. But since 2015, that already ominous trend has turned sharply worse: 2015–19 was the first five-year period since the beginning of the third wave in 1974 when more countries **abandoned democracy**—twelve—than transitioned to it—seven. And **the trend continues.** Illiberal populist leaders are **degrading democracy** in countries including Brazil, India, Mexico, and Poland, and **creeping authoritarianism** has already moved Hungary, the Philippines, Turkey, and Venezuela out of the category of democracies altogether. In Georgia, the dominance of the Georgian Dream Party has led to the steady decline of electoral processes and a breakdown in the rule of law. In Myanmar, the military overthrew the elected government of Aung San Suu Kyi, ending an experiment in partial democracy. In El Salvador, president Nayib Bukele staged an executive coup by removing the attorney general and Supreme Court justices who were obstacles to his consolidation of power. In Peru, democracy hangs from a thread as the right-wing autocrat Keiko Fujimori advances vague claims of election fraud in a bid to overturn her narrow electoral defeat to left-wing opponent Pedro Castillo. What is especially striking about this last case is that Fujimori’s gambit bears a grim resemblance to the lie perpetuated by former U.S. President Donald Trump and his followers about the 2020 presidential election. This is no coincidence. As the journalist and historian Anne Applebaum has observed, fictitious claims of fraud and “stop the steal” tactics are becoming a common means by which autocratic populists try to obstruct democracy. Such tactics have long been a source of instability in countries struggling to develop democracy. But the fact that the most recent iteration of the antidemocrat’s playbook draws heavily on precedents in the **world’s most important and powerful democracy** marks the start of a **dangerous new era.** Today, the United States confronts a **growing antidemocratic movement**, not just from the ranks of fringe extremists but also from a substantial group of officeholders—a movement that is challenging the very foundations of electoral democracy. Should this effort succeed, the United States could become the first ever advanced industrial democracy to fail—that is, to no longer meet the minimum conditions for free and fair elections as political scientists and other scholars of democracy define them. The **failure of American democracy would be catastrophic** not only for the United States; it would also have **profound global consequences** at a time when freedom and democracy are already **under siege**. As Huntington noted, the diffusion of democratic movements and ideas from one country to another has helped drive positive democratic change. Antidemocratic norms and practices can **spread in a similar fashion**—especially when they emanate from powerful countries. That is why the acceleration of a democratic recession into a democratic depression happened largely on Trump’s watch. And it is why no development would **more gravely damage the global democratic cause** than the democratic backsliding of its **most important champion.**

**Democracy solves every impact by being comparatively more stable than autocracies.**

**Kroenig 20** Matt. 4/3. Professor of government and foreign service at Georgetown University – you know who he is. “Why the U.S. Will Outcompete China” <https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2020/04/why-china-ill-equipped-great-power-rivalry/609364/>) 1/20/2021

National-security analysts see China as one of the greatest threats facing the United States and its allies. According to an emerging conventional wisdom, China has the leg up on the U.S. in part because its authoritarian government can strategically plan for the long term, unencumbered by competing branches of government, regular elections, and public opinion. **Yet this faith in autocratic ascendance and democratic decline is contrary to historical fact. China may be able to put forth big, bold plans**—the kinds of projects that analysts think of as long term—**but the visionary projects of autocrats don’t usually pan out**. Watch White Noise, the inside story of the alt-right The Atlantic’s first feature documentary ventures into the underbelly of the far-right movement to explore the seductive power of extremism. Stream Now Yes, democratic governments are obligated to answer to their citizens on regular intervals and are sensitive to public opinion—t**hat’s actually democracies’ greatest source of strength. Democratic leaders have a harder time advancing big, bold agendas, but the upside of that difficulty is that the plans that do make it through the system have been carefully considered and enjoy domestic support**. Historically speaking, **once a democracy comes up with a successful strategy, it sticks with the plan**, even through a succession of leadership. Washington has arguably followed the same basic, three-step geopolitical plan since 1945. First, the United States built the current, rules-based international system by providing security in important geopolitical regions, constructing international institutions, and promoting free markets and democratic politics within its sphere of influence. Second, it welcomed into the club any country that played by the rules, even former adversaries, like Germany and Japan. And, third, the U.S. worked with its allies to defend the system from those countries or groups that would challenge it, including competitors such as Russia and China, rogue states such as Iran and North Korea, and terrorist networks. **America can pursue long-term strategy in part because it enjoys domestic political stability**. While new politicians seek to improve on their predecessor’s policies, the United States is unlikely to see the drastic shifts in strategy that come from the fall of one political system and the rise of another. Democratic elections may be messy, but they’re not as messy as coups or civil wars. Daniel Blumenthal: The Unpredictable Rise of China **Open societies** have many other advantages as well. They **facilitate innovation**, **trust in financial markets**, and economic growth. Because **democracies** tend to be more reliable partners, they **are typically skillful alliance builders**, and they can accumulate resources without frightening their neighbors. **They tend to make thoughtful, informed decisions on matters of war and peace, and to focus their security forces on external enemies, not their own populations. Autocratic systems simply cannot match this impressive array of economic, diplomatic, and military attributes.** David Leonhardt recently wrote in The New York Times, “Chinese leaders stretching back to Deng Xiaoping have often thought in terms of decades.” Commonly cited examples of that long-term thinking include the Belt and Road Initiative, a program that invests in infrastructure overseas; Made in China 2025, an effort to subsidize China’s giant tech companies to become world leaders in 21st-century technologies, such as artificial intelligence; and Beijing’s promise to be a global superpower by 2049. Since putting in place sound economic reforms in the 1970s, China has seen its economy expand at eye-popping rates, to become the world’s second largest. Many economists predict that China could even surpass the United States within the decade, and some have suggested that China’s model of state-led capitalism will prove more successful, in terms of economic growth, than the U.S. template of free markets and open politics. I doubt these predictions. Because autocratic leaders are unconstrained and do not have to contend with a legislature or courts, they have an easier time taking their countries in new and radically different directions. Then, when the dictator changes his mind, he can do it again. Mao’s autocratic China ricocheted from one failed policy to another: the Great Leap Forward, then the Hundred Flowers Campaign, then the Cultural Revolution. Mao aligned with the Soviet Union in 1950 only to nearly fight a nuclear war with Moscow in the next decade. Beginning in the time of Deng Xiaoping, China pursued a fairly constant strategy of liberalizing its economy at home and “hiding its capabilities and biding its time” abroad. But President Xi Jinping abandoned these dictums when he took over. As the most powerful leader since Mao—he has changed China’s constitution to set himself up as dictator for life—he could once again jerk China in several new directions, according to his whims, and back again. According to the Asia Society, he has stalled or reversed course on eight of 10 categories of economic reform promised by the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) itself. Moreover, Xi is baring China’s teeth militarily, taking contested territory from neighbors in the South China Sea and conducting military exercises with Russia in Europe. The problem for Beijing is that stalled reforms will stymie its economic potential and its confrontational policies are provoking an international coalition to contain them. The 2017 U.S. National Security Strategy declared great-power competition with China the foremost security threat to the U.S.; the European Union labeled China a “systemic rival”; and Japan, Australia, India, and the United States have formed a new “quad” of powers to balance China in the Pacific. Furthermore, the plans often cited as evidence of China’s farsighted vision, the Belt and Road Initiative and Made in China 2025, were announced by Xi only in 2013 and 2015, respectively. Both are way too recent to be celebrated as brilliant examples of successful, long-term strategic planning. A certain level of domestic political stability is a prerequisite for charting a steady strategic course in foreign and domestic affairs. **But autocratic regimes are notoriously brittle. While institutionalized political successions in democracies typically lead to changes of policy, political successions in autocracies are likely to result in regime collapse and war**. China’s “5,000 years of history” were pockmarked by rebellion, revolution, and new dynasties. Fearing internal threats to domestic political stability—consider the protests this year in Hong Kong and Xinjiang—the CCP spends more on domestic security than on its national defense**. If you follow the money, the CCP is demonstrating that the government is more afraid of its own people than of the Pentagon. This domestic fragility will frustrate China’s efforts to design and execute farsighted plans. If threats to Chinese domestic stability were to materialize and the CCP were to collapse tomorrow**, for example, Chinese grand strategy could undergo another seismic shift, including possibly opting out of competition with the United States altogether. Shadi Hamid: China Is Avoiding Blame by Trolling the World Autocracies have other vulnerabilities as **well. State-led planning has never produced high rates of economic growth over the long term. Autocrats are poor alliance builders** who fight with their supposed allies more than with their enemies. And the highest priority of autocratic security forces is repressing their own people, not defending the country. The world has undergone drastic changes in just the past few years, but these enduring patterns of international affairs have not. Some fear that Trump’s nationalist tendencies will erode the U.S. position, but the momentum of America’s successful grand strategy has kept the country on a fairly steady course. Despite Trump’s criticism of NATO, for example, two new countries have joined the alliance on his watch, including North Macedonia this week. The coronavirus has upended a sense of security in the U.S., leading many people into the familiar trap of lauding autocratic China’s firm response in contrast to the halting and patchwork measures in the United States. But there is good reason to believe that this assessment will be updated in America’s favor with the benefit of hindsight. Already we are seeing evidence that conditions are much worse in China than CCP officials are letting on and that China’s attempts at international “disaster diplomacy” are backfiring. It has been revealed that the CCP has continually misrepresented the numbers of COVID-19 infections and deaths in China, and European nations have rejected and returned faulty Chinese coronavirus testing kits.

**The plan is key to reverse erroneous court judgement that distorted the purpose of antitrust law.**

Daniel **Hanley 21**. A policy analyst at the Open Markets Institute. "Slate - How Antitrust Lost Its Bite" Open Markets Institute. 4-21-2021. https://www.openmarketsinstitute.org/publications/slate-how-antitrust-lost-its-bite

Antitrust is about determining and allocating the rights, privileges, and duties of all economic actors. When Congress **originally enacted** the Sherman Act, the law was intended to protect **consumers**, **workers**, and **democracy** from excessive concentrations of corporate power. Because of this reality, it is an inherently political area of law. The shift toward rooting it in economics, and making its application substantially more obscure than a bright-line rule, is effectively a means by the **judiciary** to **strip** the historical foundations of antitrust from the record and instead substitute its **own judgment** on what the priorities are for the economy and how it should be structured.

When combined with the rule of reason, the judiciary’s **consumer welfare** framework effectively **erases Congress’ intent** for the antitrust laws to operate as a “comprehensive charter of **economic liberty**” that “does not confine its protection to consumers, or to purchasers, or to competitors, or to sellers.” Such values are best determined by members of the elected legislature rather than **unelected judges**, a point ironically acknowledged by the Supreme Court in 1972.

**Lower** federal **courts** today continue to push the **c**onsumer **w**elfare **s**tandard even further by, in **violation** of controlling Supreme Court precedent, weighing the competitive harms of a dominant firm’s conduct against one group to the benefits provided to another group. In ongoing litigation against the NCAA that was heard by the Supreme Court last week, the district court judge ruled that the NCAA’s compact with universities to set a ceiling on the amount of compensation that student-athletes can receive is legal because of the reputed benefit consumers derive from watching athletes knowing there is a cap on their compensation. The court employed the rule of reason to arrive at this result. In an alternative enforcement regime, the NCAA would be a per se illegal employer cartel that is suppressing workers’ wages.

Comprehensive empirical analysis has revealed that the rule of reason has been a rubber stamp for even the most egregious antitrust conduct. A 2009 analysis revealed that 97 percent of cases analyzed under the rule of reason result in victories for defendants. That means corporations are effectively shielded from most antitrust violations.

Part of the reason for such a skewed result in favor of antitrust defendants is that dominant firms have access to high-salaried economists that are able to manipulate analyses to mask the corporation’s conduct to look like it is operationally efficient instead of engaging in predatory practices. Such a situation also deters antitrust litigation because a plaintiff will also have to incur the cost of an economist—which can cost several thousand dollars and, in some cases, several hundred thousand dollars. Thus, the battle over the legality of a business tactic under a consumer welfare framework and rule of reason legal analysis depends on access to immense **financial capital** and **judicial appeasement** of policies that favor **corporate integration** rather than common notions of fairness, equity, and deconcentrated markets—which was the **original purpose** of the antitrust laws.

Despite controlling Supreme Court precedent prohibiting the use of economics in certain antitrust violations, courts now routinely use it to justify corporate consolidation. For example, in the context of merger analysis, the **economization** of **antitrust** has led courts to believe and depend on theoretical assumptions on how mergers are beneficial for society and consumers. In the case of AT&T and its pursuit of acquiring Time Warner in 2018, the corporation stated its merger would produce efficiencies and save customers money. District Court Judge Richard Leon was persuaded by AT&T’s statements holding that vertical integration is able to shrink its costs and will “lead to lower prices for consumers.” But such assumptions have been categorically repudiated by researchers. In one example, the economist John Kwoka found that 80 percent of studied **mergers** led to **high prices** and even **reduced output**. Other studies have found equivalent results. In the context of AT&T, subsequent evidence showed that AT&T did raise prices on consumers.

As Congress considers enacting new legislation, it must start by **reclaiming control** over antitrust by enacting laws with **clear rules** that could **deter** exclusionary **conduct** and greatly **simplify** the **litigation** process for plaintiffs. Moreover, instead of just restoring many of the historical bright-line rules that the judiciary has eroded over the last 60 years, new laws should go further to ensure that markets remain deconcentrated and to promote economic fairness. For example, Congress could enact strict prohibitions on firms entering certain lines of business, such as AT&T being prohibited from entering the computer industry in 1956, or ban the use of specific competitive practices outright, such as **noncompetes** that **restrict** the mobility of **workers**. Rules like these ensure the markets are structured **by publicly accountable** institutions to incentivize socially beneficial corporate conduct, such as investments in research and development and product quality.

Importantly, rules-based laws would also ensure the judiciary is adhering to **Congress’ directive** to keep markets deconcentrated and acknowledge that the **judiciary** is **not a** reliable **safeguard** for smaller independent firms and workers who often do not have access to significant amounts of capital to litigate an antitrust lawsuit. In fact, in commonly applied rules for how judges interpret Congress’ laws, the judiciary views **ambiguity** as an **opportunity** to **fill** any legal **gaps** with its interpretation and ideology.

History has consistently shown that only **bright-line rules** will lead to an **effective** and vigorous enforcement environment, as they do in other areas of law, and **prevent** the **judiciary** from favoring dominant economic enterprises and **distorting** the **antitrust** laws to preference increased concentration. The Supreme Court’s original development of the rule of reason and its subsequent gutting of the enforcement of the Clayton Act in the 1930s is particularly illustrative of why bright-line rules are necessary.

**Plan---1AC**

**The United States Federal Government should prohibit private sector business practices that violate an antitrust worker welfare standard.**

**Solvency---1AC**

**Contention 4 is Solvency.**

**Replacing consumer welfare with worker considerations lets labor win---alternatives legalize exploitation and ban collective bargaining.**

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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.

**Antitrust law must prioritize worker welfare---workers suffer a greater loss than consumers.**

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As this Note has already stated, the purpose of antitrust law is to protect competition, but the **meaning of competition is nebulous**.136 Regardless of whether total welfare or the consumer welfare standard is the appropriate measure of net competitive effect,137 a body of law that protects competition should **not allow firms to engage in conduct that restricts trade severely** in one part of the supply chain merely because it prioritizes end customer benefits.138 As a class of consumers, **workers also deserve protection from anticompetitive employer agreements.** Congressional intent **supports prioritizing the interests of workers** over customers when analyzing anticompetitive restraints in labor markets. Unions are inherently anticompetitive; a union is a combination of workers jointly setting wages and other work conditions, just as a cartel is a combination of firms setting prices together.139 As a result, the existence of unions increases the wages that firms pay their workers, which in turn results in price increases for customers.140 Nonetheless, labor law staunchly defends the ability of workers to create unions. When antitrust restrictions would deter union conduct, Congress has decided that **labor law carries more weight.**141 Thus, the labor exceptions to antitrust law142 demonstrate a congressional decision that the welfare gains to workers from increased wages and other improved terms of employment outweigh the costs to customers in the output market from the resulting increased prices. Given that Congress protects workers in one class of anticompetitive conduct, it is reasonable to **structure antitrust law to protect workers from conduct with parallel effects**. Restraints of trade in labor markets are the converse of unions, trading lower wages for lower prices. However, it is possible that Congressional intent extends only to weighing the interests of workers over customers in the special case of union activity. Even though unions engage in political activies, the aims of unions are primarily economic.143 Thus, Congress supports the economic mission of unions (advancing the welfare of workers despite the potential economic effects on firms and customers) by favoring them in antitrust law. Unions are only special in antitrust because Congress has expressed a legislative preference for workers over other economic actors. It is thus **appropriate for courts to weigh workers over other actors** when firms engage in conduct that affects workers at the expense of other groups. Further, the welfare economics of restricting competition in employment markets supports worker protection. Economists generally agree that individuals exhibit diminishing marginal utilities of wealth—that is, each additional dollar an individual receives makes them a little less well off than the previous dollar did.144 **Diminishing marginal utility of wealth** thus implies that when two individuals lose equivalent amounts of money, the individual for whom the loss was a greater portion of his or her wealth **suffers a greater loss**.145 Generally, the wages that workers lose as a result of anticompetitive conduct will be larger than the price cuts for customers.146 Where the monopsonist also has market power in the output market, the price decrease passed on to customers will be even smaller than in a competitive output market.147 Because wages likely represent a larger portion of workers’ wealth than the additional wealth consumers gain from lower prices, workers lose more welfare than customers gain. Moreover, behavioral economics suggest that the losses to workers from wage reductions will **hurt workers more** than the gains that customers will receive from lower prices.148 Behavioral economists have recognized that individual utility is relative to a reference point like the status quo; losses relative to that reference point **cause a welfare loss about twice the size of the welfare gain** from an equivalent gain.149 Put simply, losses hurt more than equivalent gains feel good. Because monopsonistic conduct results in losses for workers and gains for customers relative to the competitive equilibrium, the **total net effect on welfare that consumers experience is even more likely to be negative.** To be sure, behavioral economics has not been universally welcomed in antitrust law.150 But courts have entertained behavioral economics arguments in antitrust before, generally in cases where neoclassical economic analysis would sharply diverge from what the court believes a “real” customer would do.151 Here, it is unlikely that customers weigh price decreases in the same way that workers weigh wage increases because wages are the primary source of most workers’ incomes; as a result, equivalent economic losses to workers likely outweigh the gain.152

#### Antitrust is a pre-requisite to effective labor law. Anything else allows skirting damages and prevention of effective collective bargaining.

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This paper sets out an important but under-appreciated aspect of the rise in labor market precarity and diminishing worker bargaining power: the erosion of antitrust laws restricting dominant firms’ ability to use vertical restraints to control and restrict both less powerful affiliates and the workers who work for them, and the concurrent use of antitrust against any attempt by those workers or independent businessmen or contractors to bargain collectively against such concentrations of power. In ascertaining the causes of contemporary inequality in wealth, income, and social status, especially with respect to the labor market, we cannot overlook the role that antitrust has played.

This contrasts with a recent Economic Policy Institute paper by Heidi Shierholz and Josh Bivens that treats the rise of employer power in labor markets, and the extent to which weakening antitrust has caused that phenomenon, as a less important cause of rising inequality and stagnant wages compared to the erosion of labor law and thus of collective bargaining.95 Their evidence for the contention that diminishing worker bargaining power matters more than concentrated employer bargaining power is that inequality within the distribution of labor income is a more significant cause of stagnating wages

and the growing gap between median worker pay and average worker productivity than is the declining labor share of national income, which is of more recent vintage than either of the first two economic trends.

But we cannot map rising labor income inequality to worker bargaining power and labor law and the declining labor share of income to employer power and antitrust so neatly. As the analysis in Parts II and III show, income inequality is to a large extent caused by rising earnings inequality between firms, rather than between workers, reflecting employer power to set wages. This is the result of the legalization of business models like the fissured workplace that allow powerful employers to segregate workers from the profits they earn for their bosses. The point of Part II of this paper is that the fissured workplace is the product of both labor regulation and antitrust. Thus, increasing inequality of power between employers and workers cannot be coherently treated as two separate phenomena: rising employer power, and declining worker power.

That means the solution to unequal bargaining power is not necessarily or not entirely an antitrust solution, but antitrust must play a major part, since it implicates the business models available to the economy’s dominant firms. In particular, we should seek, through revived antitrust and labor regulations that both take account of how the economy actually works, and how power is exercised within it, to re-establish the sharp distinction embodied in Richfield Oil. Either workers are employees, in which case they can be controlled by their bosses, who in turn owe them statutory protections including the right to bargain collectively, or they are independent businesses, in which case they cannot be coerced by contract or by any other means. Proposals to extend and strengthen labor law tests for statutory employment to take account of gig economy technologies are crucial, but they will be ineffective so long as employers and lead firms retain the strong incentive to push workers outside their protection. The role of antitrust in that context is to create a significant cost to so doing: the potential for treble damages under antitrust liability should a lead firm be caught coordinating and directing the activities of its non-employee subsidiaries and contractors. That is the mechanism that would weigh against employers’ incentive to mis-classify.

Putting such an antitrust regime in place entails the abandonment of both the consumer welfare standard and, with it, the Chicago School’s jurisprudence of vertical restraints. Instead, any vertical restraint, price or non-price, should be a presumptive violation of the Sherman Act if it is imposed by a firm with market power. And antitrust’s definition of market power must, in turn, be expanded beyond the confined market-share-based Sherman Act jurisprudence to instead take account of the many ways economists have of testing for the existence of market power. Firms would be judged to have market power if they:

• Have the power to unilaterally raise prices for their customers or lower them for their suppliers, including workers;

• Wage- or price-discriminate among customers, suppliers, or workers;

• Unilaterally impose non-price, uncompensated contractual provisions on their counterparties, like non-compete agreements in labor contracts;

• Impede or control entry by would-be competitors; or

• Earn profits and/or make payments to their shareholders at a rate in excess of their market cost of capital.

All of these things are economic indicia of market power because they could not be done by any one or more firms acting in concert in the face of competition from rivals—therefore they should be legal indicia of market power as well.96

Drilling down on how the antitrust laws should target labor market monopsony in particular, not merely prohibit vertical restraints that enable fissured workplace-style business models, the antitrust authorities should bring a monopsonization suit against an online labor platform like Uber that fixes wages and imposes exclusivity on independent businesses, along the lines of Meyer v. Kalanick. If, as would be expected, that case would be adjudicated under the Rule of Reason, despite its economic equivalence to the FTC’s per se cases against professional organizations and unions of independent contractors, then Congress should streamline the Rule of Reason for labor monopsony. This should be done along the lines proposed by Ioana Marinescu and Eric Posner, setting out principles to guide market definition that are responsive to measured firm-level labor supply elasticities.97 In fact, if firms have the unilateral power to dictate wages without causing a significant share of their workforce to leave, then the proper market definition for a monopsonization case may be significantly smaller than the one those authors recommend as a baseline. The point of such a suit is to force Uber to choose one business model or another: either employ the drivers if Uber wants to fix their wages and monitor them on the job, or give up the price- setting and market coordination power that makes the platform such a value proposition for its investors. It cannot be allowed to do both. Meanwhile, workers themselves who are not statutory employees should be protected by antitrust’s labor exemption and should be permitted to bargain collectively. However, any such extension of the labor exemption must not also immunize the powerful employer against whom they would seek to bargain. And at the very least, both no-poaching clauses in franchising contracts and non-compete clauses in employment contracts should be illegal per se.98

Finally, analysis of labor market impact should be incorporated in the statutory prospective merger review process that federal agencies undertake as a matter of routine, in order to prevent the harmful accumulation of monopsony power in labor markets by merger. The current FTC Chairman, Joseph Simons, said as much in Congressional testimony in the fall of 2018,99 but to date there is no evidence that any such investigation has taken place. In the recent merger approval for Staples’s takeover of its supplier Essendant, the majority of the commission claimed that the merger would have a pro-competitive impact on input markets.100 Specifically, if the combined firm reduced the price it pays to manufacturer, it would in fact purchase more from them, not less, and hence that price reduction would not be an exercise of buyer power (the majority’s opinion says nothing about labor specifically as an input). But the idea that the volume of sales is dispositive about the anti-competitive exercise of monopsony power is not correct. Wilmers finds evidence that dominant retailers and manufacturers impose price reductions on the suppliers over whom they exercise market power, and those suppliers in turn pass those price reductions through to their workers in the form of lower wages.101 That is an exercise of monopsony power, but it might well be accompanied by greater sales volume from the supplier to the dominant customer.

Altogether, the thesis of this paper is that there is no way to confront the economy’s crisis of unequal bargaining power without confronting the role that antitrust has played in getting us there. Antitrust is not a substitute to any of the many other ways that policy ought to be extended to halt and reverse the economy-wide erosion of worker bargaining power behind rising inequality and wage stagnation. But strengthening it is a necessary condition for the success of many of those alternatives, notably, labor law reform and collective bargaining on the part of precariously employed gig economy workers.

# 2AC---NU---R2

### Inequality---OV

### Modeling---OV

### Democracy---OV

### 2AC---Capitalism K

#### C) Centralized fails---the aff’s worker organization premise is better.

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Judis hasn’t completely freed himself from the old socialist nostalgia. He writes that “the idea of socialism as a command economy of nationalized firms was dashed by the collapse of the Soviet Union,” but that idea was dashed long before when it became clear that a centralized economy is massively inefficient and wasteful. It shouldn’t have taken outright collapse to show that democratic central planning is an oxymoron, that (as Bakunin had warned Marx) the concentration of economic power in the state would inevitably engender a tyrannical oligarchy. If your political faith was dashed by the fall of the USSR, you probably weren’t paying attention, because it never deserved your faith.

The American labor movement offers a more attractive tradition. Here the DSA is right: “Most of all, socialists look to unions to make private business more accountable.” Unions have been foolishly neglected by the Democratic Party for a long time. Employers have become increasingly sophisticated in defeating the aims of the National Labor Relations Act, just as taxpayers keep devising clever ways to get around the tax code. But Congress has constantly amended the law to eliminate tax loopholes, while through the Carter, Clinton, and Obama administrations congressional Democrats did little to stop union-busting. For example, they failed to block state right-to-work laws, which depress Democratic voting shares and turnout by about 3 percentage points.

The point here is Madisonian: Abuses will happen whenever there’s unaccountable power. Big business is too powerful. But the danger that someone will be too powerful is not an artifact of capitalism. “Whenever modern idealists are confronted with the divisive and corrosive effects of man’s self-love,” Reinhold Niebuhr wrote in 1944, “they look for some immediate cause of this perennial tendency, usually in some specific form of social organization.” The problem is neither capitalism nor socialism but the many Americans who lack associations that will defend their interests.

The political system is unlikely to deliver much to the lowest-paid workers if they are politically quiescent and disorganized, easily beguiled by fraudsters like Fox News and Trump. The decline of the proportion of unionized American workers has been one of the principal causes of rising economic inequality. Organized labor was one of the few mechanisms that mobilized the less advantaged members of society into coherent voting blocs. Without private sector unions, there is little pressure to respond to those people’s interests.

#### 6---Regulated capitalism solves war, environment, and quality of life---alternatives increase degradation and poverty. Prefer empirical and measurable indicators.

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Discourse on food ethics often advocates the anti-capitalist idea that we need less capitalism, less growth, and less globalization if we want to make the world a better and more equitable place, with arguments focused on applications to food, globalization, and a just society. For example, arguments for this anti-capitalist view are at the core of some chapters in nearly every handbook and edited volume in the rapidly expanding subdiscipline of food ethics. None of these volumes (or any article published in this subdiscipline broadly construed) focuses on a defense of globalized capitalism.1

More generally, discourse on global ethics, environment, and political theory in much of academia—and in society—increasingly features this anti-capitalist idea as well.2 The idea is especially prominent in discourse surrounding the environment, climate, and global poverty, where we face a nexus of problems of which capitalism is a key driver, including climate change, air and water pollution, the challenge of feeding the world, ensuring sustainable development for the world's poorest, and other interrelated challenges.

It is therefore important to ask whether this anti-capitalist idea is justified by reason and evidence that is as strong as the degree of confidence placed in it by activists and many commentators on food ethics, global ethics, and political theory, more generally.

In fact, many experts argue that this anti-capitalist idea is not supported by reason and argument and is actually wrong. The main contribution of this essay is to explain the structure of the leading arguments against the anti-capitalist idea, and in favor of the opposite conclusion. I begin by focusing on the general argument in favor of well-regulated globalized capitalism as the key to a just, flourishing, and environmentally healthy world. This is the most important of all of the arguments in terms of its consequences for health, wellbeing, and justice, and it is endorsed by experts in the empirically minded disciplines best placed to analyze the issue, including experts in long-run global development, human health, wellbeing, economics, law, public policy, and other related disciplines. On the basis of the arguments outlined below, well-regulated capitalism has been endorsed by recent Democratic presidents of the United States such as Barack Obama, and by progressive Nobel laureates who have devoted their lives to human development and more equitable societies, as well as by a wide range of experts in government and leading nongovernmental organizations.

The goal of this essay is to make the structure and importance of these arguments clear, and thereby highlight that discourse on global ethics and political theory should engage carefully with them. The goal is not to endorse them as necessarily sound and correct. The essay will begin by examining general arguments for and against capitalism, and then turn to implications for food, the environment, climate change, and beyond.

Arguments for and against Forms of Capitalism

The Argument against Capitalism

Capitalism is often argued to be a key driver of many of society's ills: inequalities, pollution, land use changes, and incentives that cause people to live differently than in their ideal dreams. Capitalism can sometimes deepen injustices. These negative consequences are easy to see—resting, as they do, at the center of many of society's greatest challenges.3

And at the same time, it is often difficult to see the positive consequences of capitalism.4 What are the positive consequences of allowing private interests to clear-cut forests and plant crops, especially if those private interests are rich multinational corporations and the forests are in poor, developing countries whose citizens do not receive the profits from deforestation? Why give private companies the right to exploit resources at all, since exploitation almost always has some negative consequences such as those listed above? These are the right questions to ask, and they highlight genuine challenges to capitalism. And in light of these challenges, it is reasonable to consider the possibility that perhaps a different economic system altogether would be more equitable and beneficial to the global population.

The Argument for Well-Regulated Capitalism

However, things are more complicated than the arguments above would suggest, and the benefits of capitalism, especially for the world's poorest and most vulnerable people, are in fact myriad and significant. In addition, as we will see in this section, many experts argue that capitalism is not the fundamental cause of the previously described problems but rather an essential component of the best solutions to them and of the best methods for promoting our goals of health, well-being, and justice.

To see where the defenders of capitalism are coming from, consider an analogy involving a response to a pandemic: if a country administered a rushed and untested vaccine to its population that ended up killing people, we would not say that vaccines were the problem. Instead, the problem would be the flawed and sloppy policies of vaccine implementation. Vaccines might easily remain absolutely essential to the correct response to such a pandemic and could also be essential to promoting health and flourishing, more generally.

The argument is similar with capitalism according to the leading mainstream arguments in favor of it: Capitalism is an essential part of the best society we could have, just like vaccines are an essential part of the best response to a pandemic such as COVID-19. But of course both capitalism and vaccines can be implemented poorly, and can even do harm, especially when combined with other incorrect policy decisions. But that does not mean that we should turn against them—quite the opposite. Instead, we should embrace them as essential to the best and most just outcomes for society, and educate ourselves and others on their importance and on how they must be properly designed and implemented with other policies in order to best help us all. In fact, the argument in favor of capitalism is even more dramatic because it claims that much more is at stake than even what is at stake in response to a global pandemic—what is at stake with capitalism is nothing less than whether the world's poorest and most vulnerable billion people will remain in conditions of poverty and oppression, or if they will instead finally gain access to what is minimally necessary for basic health and wellbeing and become increasingly affluent and empowered. The argument in favor of capitalism proceeds as follows:

Premise 1. Development and the past. Over the course of recorded human history, the majority of historical increases in health, wellbeing, and justice have occurred in the last two centuries, largely as a result of societies adopting or moving toward capitalism. Capitalism is a relevant cause of these improvements, in the sense that they could not have happened to such a degree if it were not for capitalism and would not have happened to the same degree under any alternative noncapitalist approach to structuring society. The argument in support of this premise relies on observed relationships across societies and centuries between indicators of degree of capitalism, wealth, investments in public goods, and outcomes for health, wellbeing, and justice, together with econometric analysis in support of the conclusion that the best explanation of these correlations and the underlying mechanism is that large increases in health, wellbeing, and justice are largely driven by increasing investments in public goods. The scale of increased wealth necessary to maximize these investments requires capitalism. Thus, as capitalist societies have become dramatically wealthier over the past hundred years (and wealthier than societies with alternative systems), this has allowed larger investments in public goods, which simply has not been possible in a sustained way in societies without the greater wealth that capitalism makes possible. Important investments in public goods include investments in basic medical knowledge, in health and nutrition programs, and in the institutional capacity and know-how to regulate society and capitalism itself. As a result, capitalism is a primary driver of positive outcomes in health and wellbeing (such as increased life expectancy, lowered child and maternal mortality, adequate calories per day, minimized infectious disease rates, a lower percentage and number of people in poverty, and more reported happiness);5 and in justice (such as reduced deaths from war and homicide; higher rankings in human rights indices; the reduced prevalence of racist, sexist, homophobic opinions in surveys; and higher literacy rates).6 These quantifiable positive consequences of global capitalism dramatically outweigh the negative consequences (such as deaths from pollution in the course of development), with the result that the net benefits from capitalism in terms of health, wellbeing, and justice have been greater than they would have been under any known noncapitalist approach to structuring society.7

Premise 2. Economics, ethics, and policy. Although capitalism has often been ill-regulated and therefore failed to maximize net benefits for health, wellbeing, and justice, it can become well-regulated so that it maximizes these societal goals, by including mechanisms identified by economists and other policy experts that do the following:

* optimally8 regulate negative effects such as pollution and monopoly power, and invest in public goods such as education, basic healthcare, and fundamental research including biomedical knowledge (more generally, policies that correct the failures of free markets that economists have long recognized will arise from “externalities” in the absence of regulation);9
* ensure equity and distributive justice (for example, via wealth redistribution);10
* ensure basic rights, justice, and the rule of law independent of the market (for example, by an independent judiciary, bill of rights, property rights, and redistribution and other legislation to correct historical injustices due to colonialism, racism, and correct current and historical distortions that have prevented markets from being fair);11 and
* ensure that there is no alternative way of structuring society that is more efficient or better promotes the equity, justice, and fairness goals outlined above (by allowing free exchange given the regulations mentioned).12

To summarize the implication of the first two premises, well-regulated capitalism is essential to best achieving our ethical goals—which is true even though capitalism has certainly not always been well regulated historically. Society can still do much better and remove the large deficits in terms of health, wellbeing, and justice that exist under the current inferior and imperfect versions of capitalism.

Premise 3. Development and the future. If the global spread of capitalism is allowed to continue, desperate poverty can be essentially eliminated in our lifetimes. Furthermore, this can be accomplished faster and in a more just way via well-regulated global capitalism than by any alternatives. If we instead opt for less capitalism, less growth, and less globalization, then desperate poverty will continue to exist for a significant portion of the world's population into the further future, and the world will be a worse and less equitable place than it would have been with more capitalism. For example, in a world with less capitalism, there would be more overpopulation, food insecurity, air pollution, ill health, injustice, and other problems. In part, this is because of the factors identified by premise 1, which connect a turn away from capitalism with a turn away from continuing improvements in health, wellbeing, and justice, especially for the developing world. In addition, fertility declines are also a consequence of increased wealth, and the size of the population is a primary determinant of food demand and other environmental stressors.13 Finally, as discussed at length in the next section of the essay, capitalism can be naturally combined with optimal environmental regulations.14 Even bracketing anything like optimal regulation, it remains true that sufficiently wealthy nations reduce environmental degradation as they become wealthier, whereas developing nations that are nearing peak degradation will remain stuck at the worst levels of degradation if we stall growth, rather than allowing them to transition to less and less degradation in the future via capitalism and economic growth.15 In contrast, well-regulated capitalism is a key part of the best way of coping with these problems, as well as a key part of dealing with climate change, global food production, and other specific challenges, as argued at length in the next section. Here it is important to stress that we should favor well-regulated capitalism that includes correct investments in public goods over other capitalist systems such as the neoliberalism of the recent past that promoted inadequately regulated capitalism with inadequate concern for externalities, equity, and background distortions and injustices.16

Conclusion. Therefore, we should be in favor of capitalism over noncapitalism, and we should especially favor well-regulated capitalism, which is the ethically optimal economic system and is essential to any just basic structure for society.

This argument is impressive because, as stated earlier in the essay, it is based on evidence that is so striking that it leads a bipartisan range of open-minded thinkers and activists to endorse well-regulated capitalism, including many of those who were not initially attracted to the view because of a reasonable concern for the societal ills with which we began. To better understand why such a range of thinkers could agree that well-regulated capitalism is best, it may help to clarify some things that are not assumed or implied by the argument for it, which could be invoked by other bad arguments for capitalism.

One thing the argument above does not assume is that health, wellbeing, or justice are the same thing as wealth, because, in fact, they are not. Instead, the argument above relies on well-accepted, measurable indicators of health and wellbeing, such as increased lifespan; decreased early childhood mortality; adequate nutrition; and other empirically measurable leading indicators of health, wellbeing, and justice.17 Similarly, the argument that capitalism promotes justice, peace, freedom, human rights, and tolerance relies on empirical metrics for each of these.18

Furthermore, the argument does not assume that because these indicators of health, wellbeing, and justice are highly correlated with high degrees of capitalism, that therefore capitalism is the direct cause of these good outcomes. Rather, the analyses suggest instead that something other than capitalism is the direct cause of societal improvements (such as improvements in knowledge and technology, public infrastructure, and good governance), and that capitalism is simply a necessary condition for these improvements to happen.19 In other words, the richer a society is, the more it is able to invest in all of these and other things that are the direct causes of health, wellbeing, and justice. But, to maximize investment in these things societies need well-regulated capitalism.

As part of these analyses, it is often stressed that current forms of capitalism around the world are highly defective and must be reformed in the direction of well-regulated capitalism because they lack investments in public goods, such as basic knowledge, healthcare, nutrition, other safety nets, and good governance.20 In this way, an argument for a particular kind of progressive reformism is an essential part of the analyses that lead many to endorse the more general argument for well-regulated capitalism.

Although these analyses are nuanced, and appropriately so, it remains the case that the things that directly lead to health, wellbeing, and justice require resources, and the best path toward generating those resources is well-regulated capitalism. And on the flip side, according to the analyses behind premise 1 described above, an anti-capitalist system would not produce the resources that are needed, and would thus be a disaster, especially for the poorest billion people who are most desperately in need of the resources that capitalism can create and direct, to escape from extreme poverty.21

### ---Say No

#### People say no and reformism is best—proposing non-capitalist economics out of nowhere is of zero value

John BARRY ‘7, Director of the Institute of Governance, Public Policy and Social Research and Co-Director of the Centre for Sustainability and Environmental Governance at Queen’s University Belfast [“Towards a model of green political economy: from ecological modernisation to economic security,” *Int. J. Green Economics*, Vol. 1, No. 3/4, 2007 p. 446-464, <http://www.inderscienceonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1504/IJGE.2007.013071>]

Economic analysis has been one of the weakest and least developed areas of broadly green/sustainable development thinking. For example, whatever analysis there is within the green political canon is largely utopian – usually based on an argument for the complete transformation of modern society and economy as the only way to deal with ecological catastrophe, an often linked to a critique of the socioeconomic failings of capitalism that echoed a broadly radical Marxist/socialist or anarchist analysis; or underdeveloped – due, in part, to the need to outline and develop other aspects of green political theory. However, this gap within green thinking has recently been filled by a number of scholars, activists, think tanks, and environmental NGOs who have outlined various models of green political economy to underpin sustainable development political aims, principles and objectives. The aim of this article is to offer a draft of a realistic, but critical, version of green political economy to underpin the economic dimensions of radical views about sustainable development. It is written explicitly with a view to encouraging others to think through this aspect of sustainable development in a collaborative manner. Combined realism and radicalism marks this article, which starts with the point that we cannot build or seek to create a sustainable economy ab nihlo, but must begin from where we are, with the structures, institutions, modes of production, laws and regulations that we already have. Of course, this does not mean simply accepting these as immutable or set in stone; after all, some of the current institutions, principles and structures underpinning the dominant economic model are the very causes of unsustainable development. We do need to recognise, however, that we must work with (and ‘through’ – in the terms of the original German Green Party’s slogan of ‘marching through the institutions’) these existing structures, as well as change and reform and in some cases, abandon them as either unnecessary or positively harmful to the creation and maintenance of a sustainable economy and society. Equally, this article also recognises that an alternative economy and society must be based in the reality that most people (in the West) will not democratically vote for a completely different type of society and economy. That reality must also accept that a ‘green economy’ is one that is recognisable to most people and that indeed safeguards and guarantees not just their basic needs but also aspirations (within limits). The realistic character of the thinking behind this article accepts that consumption and materialistic lifestyles are here to stay (so long as they do not transgress any of the critical thresholds of the triple bottom line) and indeed there is little to be gained by proposing alternative economic systems, which start from a complete rejection of consumption and materialism

. The appeal to realism is in part an attempt to correct the common misperception (and self-perception) of green politics and economics requiring an excessive degree of self-denial and a puritanical asceticism (Goodin, 1992, p.18; Allison, 1991, p.170–178). While rejecting the claim that green political theory calls for the complete disavowal of materialistic lifestyles, it is true that green politics does require the collective reassessment of such lifestyles, and does require a degree of shared sacrifice. It does not mean, however, that we necessarily require the complete and across-the-board rejection of materialistic lifestyles. There must be room and tolerance in a green economy for people to live ‘ungreen lives’ so long as they do not ‘harm’ others, threaten long-term ecological sustainability or create unjust levels of socioeconomic inequalities. Thus, realism in this context is in part another name for the acceptance of a broadly ‘liberal’ or ‘post-liberal’ (but certainly not anti-liberal) green perspective.1

### 2AC---States---TL

#### 1---State labor actions get pre-empted under the NLRA---thousands of empirics.

Moshe **Marvit 17**. attorney and fellow at the Century Foundation, and co-author with Richard D. Kahlenberg of Why Labor Organizing Should Be a Civil Right: Rebuilding a Middle-Class Democracy by Enhancing Worker Voice. “The Way Forward for Labor Is Through the States.” The American Prospect. 9/1/2017. <https://prospect.org/labor/way-forward-labor-states/>

While reforms to federal law have been blocked by Congress, states and cities have faced a different hurdle: the courts. Starting in 1959, **the Supreme Court has written into the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) a continually expanding preemption doctrine that prevents states and cities from passing laws that touch upon anything related to labor**, involve the interpretation of a collective bargaining agreement, or even involve issues that the courts believe Congress intended to leave to the free play of market forces. Congress can, and often does, expressly preempt states from passing laws that fall within a defined scope. Neither the NLRA nor its extensive legislative history, however, contains any mention of preemption: Congress did not expressly preempt states from acting. **In instances where Congress has not expressly preempted states from acting, state laws that actually conflict with federal laws are still preempted**. However, neither the NLRA nor its legislative history show any consensus that Congress meant to push states and cities from making laws that advanced, and do not conflict with, the pro-collective-bargaining policies of the NLRA. And yet, as Harvard Law Professor Ben Sachs has pointed out, the Supreme Court has not employed the typical typologies of preemption at all when dealing with labor law. Rather, it has created a preemption doctrine [that] is among the broadest and most robust in federal law. In most other areas of worker protection, from minimum wage to antidiscrimination laws, the federal government has set the floor under which states and cities may not go, but they can and often do raise the ceiling by increasing state or local minimum wage or including additional protected categories such as sexual orientation to existing protections. Indeed, the evolution of many of the nation's employment and civil rights protections began at the state level and trickled up to the federal government. It is only in the area of workers' labor rights that states and cities are powerless to act and that, solely as the result of judicial decisions. The Supreme Court's preemption doctrine started with the 1959 case, San Diego Building Trades v. Garmon, where the employer got a state court injunction against the union for picketing. The Supreme Court should have held that the picketing that the union was engaged in was a protected right under federal labor law, and therefore the state could not pass a law that conflicts with that right. Instead, the Court went further and held that Congress gave the National Labor Relations Board primary agency jurisdiction, and so when something is arguably protected or prohibited by the NLRA, then only the Board can act. Furthermore, only the Board can answer the initial question of whether conduct is arguably under the Board’s jurisdiction. The Supreme Court then doubled down on its preemption doctrine in the 1976 case, Machinists v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Commission. In the Machinist case, an employer brought an unfair labor practice charge against union workers who engaged in concerted refusal to work overtime during contract negotiations. The NLRB dismissed the charge because it held that the work refusal was not prohibited under the NLRA, so the employer brought a state court action against the union. In response, the Supreme Court expanded its earlier Garmon preemption to hold that Congress intended that certain conduct be left unregulated and left to be controlled by the free play of economic forces. Though the union in the Machinists case benefitted from the Court’s expansion of federal preemption, the decision has led to states and cities being almost absolutely prohibited from passing laws that promote unionization and collective bargaining. These Court decisions, and **thousands of lower court decisions that have followed the precedent in overturning state and local laws,** rely on three types of specious and archaic reasons that deserve challenge and reconsideration. First, the Court has repeatedly shown a strong reliance on the state of the economy and labor force during the time when these decisions were issued. In the Machinists case, the Court described how it experimented with various types of preemption before settling on the broad form begun by Garmon, stating, as it was, in short, experience, not pure logic, which initially taught that each of these methods sacrificed important federal interests in a uniform law of labor relations. The experience the Court referred to was that of the late 1940s and 1950s, when union membership was at its peak. Whatever balance between labor and management that may have existed then has since eroded. Second, the Court has long interpreted the statute to require a uniform labor law across the country, and yet, labor law has become in many ways a crazy quilt, varying from region to region, from state to state, and from one president to the next. The NLRB has become a highly politicized agency, with its decisions swinging wildly every time a new president appoints new members and a general counsel. Cases that proceed through the National Labor Relations Board are often appealed to federal courts, and different federal circuits often come to opposite conclusions, meaning that the laws in different states effectively differ though it is the courts, not state or local governments, that create those differences. Further, the expansion of state right to work laws, as well as a variety of state public sector labor laws have also undermined any goal of national uniformity in labor law. Lastly, the Court's determination that Congress intended to leave a wide variety of conduct to the free play of economic forces has, in the words of NYU Law Professor Cynthia Estlund, done what Congress did not do in the NLRA, or even with the Taft-Hartley Act: It has granted to employers a federal right to use their economic power against unions. The Congress that passed the NLRA may have intended to ensure a balance between employer and union power, but there is no indication that it intended employers to be able to use the Act to evade any regulation in broad areas through a laissez faire argument. The result of this judicially created broad preemption has been to limit state and local experimentation in line with what Justice Brandeis described as laboratories of democracy with labor laws that advance the stated purpose of federal labor law. However, since states and cities cannot act in the field of labor law, all discussions of federal labor law reform are purely theoretical and lack any empirical basis for their possible effects. Numerous labor law scholars have written critically over the years of the rationale for such broad preemption, as well as the effects it has had on workers' ability to organize. Recently, Lewis & Clark Law Professor Henry Drummonds came up with a list of ten potential reforms that would advance the pro-collective bargaining mission of the NLRA if states could be able to pass such reforms under normal preemption rules. These include allowing states to: increase damages for violating workers' labor rights so the penalties are in line with those for other forms of workplace discrimination; experiment with restrictions on permanent replacement of striking workers and on the use of employer lockouts; experiment with â€œcard checkâ€ recognition of the union; provide equal access to union advocates as well as employers during a campaign for unions; and require arbitration if an impasse arises in the bargaining over a first contract. **The one and only major state labor reform since** the **1935** enactment of the NLRA has had a profound effect on the division of wealth and power in the United States. That, of course, **was the provision of the 1947 Taft-Hartley Act enabling states to pass right to work laws.** Allowing states and cities to create local rules that promote unionization and collective bargaining that are tailored to local needs and local industries could prove just as significant in the opposite direction.

#### 4---

#### 6---The DOJ and FTC undermine states.

The **Open Markets** Institute and Service Employees International Union **19**. “How the Antitrust Agencies Can Help—Instead of Hurt—Workers”. https://www.justice.gov/atr/page/file/1217856/download

The DOJ and the FTC have largely **failed American workers** today by allowing a concentration crisis in scores of industries to weaken competition for labor. Instead of actively policing mergers for harms to workers, they have let employer-side concentration reach very high levels. Troublingly, when the FTC and DOJ have acted against practices in labor markets, the two agencies often have used antitrust laws to either **undermine efforts by employees and states to challenge abusive behavior by employers** or actually **targeted efforts by workers** or professional to work together. The FTC, for instance, has filed numerous complaints against workers for engaging in collective bargaining and other joint action. Furthermore, the FTC has **campaigned against state** and local occupational licensing **rules that** can **enhance** the **bargaining power and earnings of workers**, professionals, and independent entrepreneurs. The DOJ meanwhile has endorsed legal standards that would empower franchisees to collude against workers.

The DOJ’s and FTC’s general inactivity against employers and **activity against workers** reinforce and deepen inequality between the individual and the corporation. The agencies should reorient their enforcement priorities and focus on **protecting workers** from employers rather than on interfering with the basic rights of workers, professionals, and independent entrepreneurs to organize.2

#### 7---Can’t solve international coop---the DOJ and FTC are key to American antitrust’s global solvency.

**Garza et. al. 07**. Chair of the Antitrust Modernization Commission, a bi-partisan blue ribbon commission created by Congress to advise Congress and the President on the state of U.S. Antitrust law enforcement and former DOJ Antitrust Deputy Assistant Attorney General for Regulatory Affairs. “Antitrust Modernization Commission: Report and Recommendations: Chapter 2,” p. 216-217. Antitrust Modernization Commission. 2/4/2007. https://govinfo.library.unt.edu/amc/report\_recommendation/chapter2.pdf

The Antitrust Division of the Department of Justice (DOJ) and the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) **have made extensive efforts** to improve cooperation between the United States and other nations’ antitrust enforcers.26 **Both U.S. antitrust agencies “enjoy [a] strong cooperative relationship**[] with a large and increasing number of foreign enforcement agencies, **enabling close cooperation on cases**, **coordination** on international antitrust policy, and **provision of technical assistance to new agencies around the world**.”27 Whereas U.S. requests for cooperation previously took up to a year to be processed,28 today antitrust agencies worldwide have a “pick up the phone” approach toward sharing information and assisting each other in their antitrust enforcement efforts.29 This high degree of cooperation has facilitated convergence of both procedural and substantive aspects of antitrust law.

The efforts of the U.S. antitrust agencies have been advanced in part **through their participation in** two organizations, **the OECD and the ICN**.

30 The OECD was created in 1961 to expand free trade and improve development in member countries.31 As part of these efforts, it created a Competition Law and Policy Committee that provides a variety of means for countries to share their best practices regarding antitrust and competition policy.32 The ICN, in comparison, is relatively new, but has a more broad-based membership. It was created after ICPAC called for the creation of a “Global Competition Initiative” to address antitrust enforcement in a growing globalized economy.33 Membership in the ICN has increased from fourteen jurisdictions when it began in 200134 to ninety-seven members from eighty-five jurisdictions in 2007.35

The ICN and OECD **have promulgated “best practices”** on merger reviews and cartel investigations and **continue to work on convergence of substantive and procedural law**.36 For example, the ICN is currently undertaking a study of unilateral conduct standards with the goal of developing a consensus on the objectives and legal and economic bases of enforcement regarding unilateral conduct.37 The ICN in the past has developed principles of best practices regarding merger notification regimes, with the objective of highlighting the importance of transparency and clarity in each jurisdiction’s rules regarding filing requirements and review.38 Overall, through their efforts, **these institutions have had a meaningful influence in “promoting convergence in antitrust enforcement**”39 **and have contributed to the “significant recent progress in reducing conflicts by increasing cooperation, information sharing, and networking**.”40 Indeed, their successes are reflected at least in part by the fact that the vast majority of international investigations are conducted without incident.41

### 2AC---Section 5 CP---TL

#### 1---Congress controlling antitrust policy is key to keep democracy in hands of the people.

Harry **First &** Spencer Weber **Waller 13**. Harry First; New York University School of Law. Spencer Weber Waller; Loyola University Chicago School of Law. “Antitrust’s Democracy Deficit” Fordham Law School. Volume 81, Issue 5, 2013. https://ir.lawnet.fordham.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=4890&context=flr

The recommendation that Congress shift its focus to major issues is particularly critical to **reinvigorating Congress’s role in antitrust policy.** It is simply more important to probe whether merger enforcement has now been virtually limited to mergers to monopoly than to hold hearings into whether a particular merger in a particular industry is a good idea. Similarly, reasonable people can differ over whether a particular antitrust provision should be enforced more vigorously, less vigorously, or simply repealed, but we doubt any Congress since the passage of the Sherman Act would simply say, “We don’t care, do whatever you want.” We may not like the results of what **Congress** says on any particular issue, but it **remains the only directly democratically accountable branch of government** and the one most **clearly charged with setting the broad parameters** of fundamental public policy. It should speak, as it does in most other areas of our complex economy, and not have its **silence used as an** **excuse for self-interested actors to shift power in their favor** when the legislature chooses to turn to other pressing issues of the day.

#### The aff could be agency action

Trade Policy Review Body 12. “Unofficial Room Documents”. 17 December 2012. https://www.keionline.org/sites/default/files/USTPRDecember2012roomdocument.pdf

There have been no major changes to the core antitrust laws for many years. Contrary to most aspects of U.S. trade policy that occur through new laws or actions by Congress and the Executive branch, U.S. competition policy is generally developed through interpretation by the Judicial branch, and through administrative proceedings at the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). The Department of Justice (DOJ) and the FTC initiate many cases each year pursuant to the relevant antitrust laws (Tables III.24 and III.25).

**---AT: Section 5 FTC Deference**

**Courts say no and congress backlashes.**

Alison **Jones and** William E. **Kovacic 20**. Alison Jones, King’s College London, London, United Kingdom. William E. Kovacic, King’s College London, George Washington University, and United Kingdom Competition and Markets Authority, "Antitrust’s Implementation Blind Side: Challenges to Major Expansion of U.S. Competition Policy". SAGE Journals. 3-20-2020. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0003603X20912884 https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/0003603X20912884

One possible solution to rigidities that have developed in Sherman Act jurisprudence is for the FTC to rely more heavily on the prosecution, through its own administrative process, of cases **based on Section 5 of the FTC Act** and its prohibition of “unfair methods of competition.”93 This section allows the FTC94 to tackle not only anticompetitive practices prohibited by the other antitrust statutes but also conduct constituting incipient violations of those statutes or behavior that exceeds their reach. The latter is possible where the conduct does not infringe the letter of the antitrust laws but contradicts their basic spirit or public policy.95

There is no doubt therefore that Section 5 was designed as an expansion joint in the U.S. antitrust system. It seems unlikely to us, nonetheless, that a majority of FTC’s current members will be minded to use it in this way. Further, even if they were to be, the reality is that such an application may encounter **difficulties**. Since its creation in 1914, **the FTC has never prevailed before the Supreme Court in any case challenging dominant firm misconduct**, whether premised on Section 2 of the Sherman Act or **purely on Section 5 of the FTC Act**.96 The last FTC success in federal court in a case predicated solely on Section 5 occurred in the late **1960s**.97

The FTC’s record of limited success with Section 5 has **not been for want of trying**. In the 1970s, the FTC undertook an ambitious program to make the enforcement of claims predicated on the distinctive reach of Section 5, a foundation to develop “competition policy in its broadest sense.”98 The agency’s Section 5 agenda yielded some successes,99 but also **a large number of litigation failures** involving cases to address subtle forms of coordination in oligopolies, to impose new obligations on dominant firms, and to dissolve shared monopolies.100 The agency’s program elicited powerful **legislative backlash** from a Congress that once supported FTC’s trailblazing initiatives but turned against it as the Commission’s efforts to obtain dramatic structural remedies unfolded.101

### 2AC---FTC DA---TL

#### 3---Zero link uniqueness---aggressive antitrust enforcement is back.

E. Steele **Clayton**, IV, **8/10**/21 – Bass, Berry & Sims PLC, “Be Prepared: Aggressive Antitrust Enforcement Is Back.” https://www.jdsupra.com/legalnews/be-prepared-aggressive-antitrust-8939761/

This summer has seen a flurry of bold antitrust announcements from the Biden administration. By issuing a sweeping executive order calling for numerous changes to antitrust enforcement and by naming progressive favorites and prominent Big Tech critics to head the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and the Antitrust Division of the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), President Biden has signaled that federal antitrust policy is entering a new era.

**The FTC has already begun carrying out its mandate to reshape antitrust policy**. Under the leadership of new Chairwoman Lina Khan, the FTC has moved quickly to eliminate checks on its antitrust enforcement powers. A majority of the FTC’s commissioners have expressly disavowed the agency’s longstanding approaches to policing antitrust violations and have given the new chair unprecedented authority over investigations and rulemakings.

Collectively, the Biden administration and the FTC have sent a clear message to the business community: **aggressive antitrust enforcement is back**. Companies should expect to see an increase in antitrust investigations, stiffer penalties for violations, more burdensome merger reviews, and new rules targeting a range of industry practices. In this environment, effective antitrust counseling and compliance programs are more important than ever.

#### 4---The FTC’s already overwhelmed with antitrust cases.

PYMNTS 7/28/21. “FTC Sees Most Merger Filings In 2 Decades, Chair Says.” https://www.pymnts.com/antitrust/2021/ftc-sees-most-merger-filings-2-decades/

The Federal Trade Commission (FTC) is dealing with a rise in mergers that has amounted to the highest number of filings in 20 years, Bloomberg reported.

“Although the FTC is working to review many of these deals, the sheer volume of transactions is significantly straining commission resources,” FTC Chair Lina Khan said, per Bloomberg. “I am deeply concerned that the current merger boom will further exacerbate deep asymmetries of power across our economy, further enabling abuses.”

Companies have thus far announced $2.8 trillion in deals in the first seven months of this year, Bloomberg reported, which amounts to 2021 likely being the most active ever.

The reason for the influx is the high level of corporate confidence and the free spending of private equity firms, which has been happening over several industries, including technology, media, healthcare, transportation and others, according to Bloomberg.

Over the first three quarters of the current fiscal year, antitrust agencies have processed more than 2,400 merger filings Khan said, per Bloomberg.

But she said the wave of mergers hasn’t been the only issue. There are two other big problems facing the FTC, including a recent Supreme Court decision making it harder to recover money for victims of scams or deceptive practices, and the general boost in fraud during the pandemic, which has been made even worse by digital platforms, Bloomberg reported.

Khan, nominated by President Joe Biden for her role at the FTC, was officially approved June 15 in a 69-28 Senate vote.

“The overwhelming support in the Senate for Lina Khan’s nomination to serve on the Federal Trade Commission is a big win for fair competition in our country,” FTC Commissioner Rohit Chopra said in a statement at the time. “There is a growing consensus that the FTC must turn the page on the failed policies spanning multiple administrations.”

Khan has been known for being a critic of the tech industry and has worked on anti-competition issues before. She wrote a paper when she was a student that looked into how antitrust legislation didn’t negatively affect Amazon.

#### 5---Authorities already juggle competing goals.

Michelle **Meagher 21**. A competition lawyer and Senior Policy Fellow at the University College London Centre for Law, Economics and Society. This paper has been prepared for the ABA Spring Meeting 2021 session on the consumer welfare standard. “Adaptive Antitrust.” 03-24-21. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3816662

(7) How will authorities juggle competing goals? – The application of an “excessive power” legal standard is not a question purely of “juggling” or “balancing”. Instead, authorities must **synthesise the evidence from a range of sources, as they already do.** And courts will be required to do the same, **as they already must.**

#### 6---The FTC’s ramping up antitrust enforcement now beyond the scope of existing antitrust law

Caitlin Styrsky 8/17/21. Staff writer at Ballotpedia. “Checks and Balances: FTC expands interpretation of its antitrust enforcement authority.” https://news.ballotpedia.org/2021/08/17/checks-and-balances-ftc-expands-interpretation-of-its-antitrust-enforcement-authority/

The Federal Trade Commission (FTC) on July 1 voted 3-2 to broaden its interpretation of the commission’s Section 5 authority, which authorizes the FTC to investigate and challenge what it deems “unfair methods of competition in or affecting commerce.” The change could allow the agency to expand enforcement proceedings against companies that don’t expressly violate federal antitrust statutes.

The new interpretation departs from the commission’s 2015 precedent, established through internal guidance, that relied on the consumer welfare standard to determine what constitutes antitrust activity. According to the consumer welfare standard, only companies that artificially raise prices qualify as monopolies for the purposes of FTC enforcement. The FTC did not pursue companies via this standard if enforcement through the Sherman Act or the Clayton Act could address the competitive harm.

Under the FTC’s broadened interpretation of its authority, the commission can issue civil penalties to challenge what it deems to be anti-competitive behavior regardless of whether the behavior violates federal antitrust statutes. The change could allow the FTC to bring enforcement proceedings against tech companies that do not qualify as monopolies but that, in the opinion of FTC Chair Lina Khan, have been alleged to have exhibited anti-competitive practices.

“Withdrawing the 2015 Statement is only the start of our efforts to clarify the meaning of Section 5 and apply it to today’s markets,” wrote Khan in a statement. “Section 5 is one of the Commission’s core statutory authorities in competition cases; it is a critical tool that the agency can and must utilize in fulfilling its congressional mandate to condemn unfair methods of competition.”

### 2AC---Innovation DA---TL

#### 1--- China tech fears are unfounded---they can’t catch up.

Fred **Hu 18,** economist and chairman of Primavera Capital Group, 8-22-2018, "The U.S. Is Overly Paranoid About China’S Tech Rise," Washington Post, https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/theworldpost/wp/2018/08/22/us-china-3/?utm\_term=.ed8dd0d27f82

But much of the fear over China’s **tech**nological rise is unfounded. Fundamentally, China is like most emerging economies around the world: still trying hard to close the enormous technological gap with advanced economies led by America. China has undoubtedly made more progress than many of its developing peers in that race. Its tech industries have grown at a faster pace and achieved a global scale beyond those of most developing countries. In a broad range of manufacturing sectors — notably consumer electronics, steel, ship building, high-speed rail systems and solar panels — China has established itself as the world’s leading producer. In areas such as consumer Internet and financial technology, it has arguably overtaken even the United States and now leads the rest of the world. Yet China hawks such as Robert Lighthizer and Peter Navarro charge that whatever progress China has made on the tech front is due to the country’s blatant theft of U.S. technology. Considering the enormous investments China has made in science and technology over recent decades, such claims do not hold water. China has devoted vast resources to research and development — $409 billion in 2015 (21 percent of the global total), according to the U.S. National Science Foundation. China’s investment in research and development grew over 20 percent annually between 2000 and 2010 and almost 14 percent from 2010-2015. U.S. research and development hovered around 4 percent over the same period. For a country with an average per capita income a mere one-sixth of America’s, China’s research and development investments reflect a real and sustained national commitment. At the same time, China has vastly expanded and improved STEM education and has one of the largest pools of STEM graduates in the world. The devotion of significant resources to research and development and human capital has in turn enabled China to reap some of the early fruits of innovation. China now tops the world in new patent filings. As the first country to receive more than 1 million patent applications in a single year — a record the World Intellectual Property Organization said reflected “extraordinary” levels of innovation — China accounts for almost 40 percent of the global total and more than that of the United States, Japan and South Korea combined. China has also significantly boosted venture capital investment, which supports the commercialization of emerging technologies. While the United States attracts the most investment worldwide (nearly $70 billion), venture capital investment in China rose from approximately $3 billion in 2013 to $34 billion in 2016, climbing from 5 percent to 27 percent of the global share — the fastest increase of any economy. China’s start-up ecosystem is both vast and vibrant; it has successfully incubated more tech unicorns than any other country except the United States. Too often, U.S. critics claim that Chinese industrial policies like Made in China 2025 are behind the country’s ascendancy in tech. In fact, virtually none of China’s leading tech firms, such as Alibaba, Baidu and Tencent, are state-owned or meaningful beneficiaries of state support. They are all founded and led by smart and risk-taking private entrepreneurs, just like their Silicon Valley brethren. Tellingly, many Chinese tech start-ups have received U.S. venture financing. And Chinese technology companies and venture firms have made significant investments in U.S. start-ups. Sadly, the virtuous two-way venture capital flows are now in jeopardy because of Washington’s growing paranoia about China. As impressive as China’s innovation and progress may be, however, it is premature to declare that China has caught up with the U.S. tech industry. Interventionist government bureaucracy, stodgy state-owned enterprises, a rigid school system and — above all — harsh restrictions on individual freedoms continue to stifle independent thinking and creativity and constrain China from realizing its full innovation potential. While China is well positioned to succeed in “strategic” industries such as semiconductors, pharmaceuticals and commercial aircraft due to its vast pool of engineering talent and the size of its domestic market, **so far it has remained a laggard.** China has failed to develop an indigenous chip industry despite a state-led drive to do so, with tens of billions spent over the past four decades. Despite its status as the “world’s factory,” making everything from cell phones and laptops to numerous other devices, China continues to import 90 percent of its microchips from foreign countries, predominantly from the United States. That is why the U.S. threat to cut off critical chip supply to ZTE, a Chinese telecom equipment firm, has been dubbed the “Sputnik moment” in China: a sober reminder of China’s continued weaknesses in critical technologies. While China has made spectacular progress on the tech front, **the United States remains the undisputed global leader in science and technology**. The **U**nited **S**tates holds most of the world’s leading research universities; it deploys the highest amounts of both public and private funding in **r**esearch **and** **d**evelopment; attracts the most venture capital; awards the most advanced degrees; provides the most advanced business, financial and information services and is the largest producer in knowledge-intensive, high-tech sectors,

from pharmaceuticals to semiconductors. **The fear that China will displace the United States as the global tech superpower is grossly exaggerated**. Unfortunately, such paranoia dominates the minds of protectionist U.S. politicians and China hawks and has already amplified a destructive trade war between the world’s two largest economies. For China’s part, its soul-searching is overdue. Beijing should resist the prevalent yet ill-justified self-complacency and triumphalism that contributed to the fear in Washington in the first place, and it should make serious efforts to reform and open its domestic economy. Unless Beijing amends its heavy-handed statist approach to economic development, China’s potential as a leading nation in science and technology could be seriously curtailed.

**3---Big Tech isn’t innovative, it’s replacing innovative startups.**

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But there’s a more troubling possibility. Maybe something has changed about the nature of innovation, at least in software.

The start-up tradition traces back to Hewlett-Packard, the original company-in-a-garage, in 1937, and later to the Fairchildren of the 1960s, a tangle of semiconductor companies that successively spun out of larger companies, one after the other. The go-your-own-way ethos infused later cohorts of entrepreneurs across the spectrum of technologies, all the way up through the 20th century. The best thing you could be in Silicon Valley was a founder, and the best thing a founder could do was supercede those who came before.

The newest generation of companies has **not** been **able** to **fulfill** the latter half of that **prophecy**. It’s more difficult to dislodge the elder companies, which have grown ever more entrenched and valuable. CB Insights, a research firm, recently added up the (likely inflated) value of **all** 439 “unicorns”—**start-ups** that investors have valued at more than $1 billion—in the world. It got roughly $1.3 trillion, or about **one Apple’s worth** of market value. Remember, that figure accounts for hardly tech companies, such as Juul; so-far dubious technologies, such as augmented-reality headsets from Magic Leap (valued at $6.3 billion on this list); and all the Chinese and Indian players.

For start-ups not on the unicorn list—and even for many that are—the chance that they will have an initial public offering and remain independent is small. That means the only way their investors will get their money out will be via an acquisition by one of the large companies. Google, Facebook, and their ilk “have become enormous by swallowing small companies, so the network is no longer the network but the octopus,” Margaret O’Mara, a historian at the University of Washington, told me.

This could alter the course of technological development, not just corporate structures. Quantitative research suggests that big companies do different kinds of R&D than their more modest counterparts. Instead of coming up with **new products**, they come up with **process improvement**

**s**. “If the nature of innovation is distorted toward selling to an incumbent, you’re going to get more feature-driven innovation rather than systemic disruption,” Federal Trade Commissioner Rohit Chopra told me. As an example, O’Mara told me a story famous in Silicon Valley about how Xerox had a personal computer in its hands in the 1970s (thanks, Alan Kay!) but declined to commercialize it. “You get to a certain degree of bigness, and you’re making so much darn money on copy machines, why on Earth would you work on a PC and bring it to market?” O’Mara said. Apple, a start-up at the time, would famously popularize PCs instead.

Even though small firms have been responsible for many of the Valley’s most successful products and services, large firms have deep roots there too. As O’Mara points out in her book The Code, Lockheed Missiles and Space (later a unit of Lockheed Martin) was the largest Silicon Valley employer from the 1950s into the 1980s. The government supported the development of computing and networking in myriad ways. During the **Cold War**, the **U.S. gov**ernment **pushed research dollars** through a select few major research **universities** such as Stanford. Local companies directly benefited from this largesse, in terms of both the **funding** and **concentration** of **talent** around Palo Alto. It wasn’t until the 1970s that the military-industrial beginnings of the technology industry gave way to a different understanding of how to make change in the world.

“The story the Valley told about itself has been very much a small-is-beautiful story since the 1970s,” O’Mara told me. “It has a politics—this Vietnam-era rejection of the military-industrial complex, rejection of the mainframe, Big Business, Big Government, big universities.”

This led people to take **risks** and launch **new projects and firms**. Entrepreneurs from all over the world migrated to a place where people understood why they wanted to start companies. And the idea even embedded itself right near the heart of the Valley, at Google. The company’s slogan, “Don’t be evil”, had a particular meaning when it was adopted around the millennium. In the classic Valley mind-set, “evil is bigness of all kinds,” O’Mara said.

Now, of course, “the mainframe” has been replaced by the cloud, and companies such as Facebook have openly called for government regulation around key platform issues. The biggest companies moved closer and closer to Washington, D.C., during the Obama era, and despite some teeth-gnashing, stayed close after Donald Trump’s election.

**5---Expanding antitrust law won’t allow China to rise.**

Shira **Ovide 21**. Shira writes the On Tech newsletter, a guide to how technology is reshaping our lives and world. "China Isn’t the Issue. Big Tech Is." New York Times. 6-17-2021. https://www.nytimes.com/2021/06/17/technology/china-big-tech.html

We need to have a vigorous debate about what Americans might gain or lose if government officials succeed in forcing changes to technology services and companies as we know them.

One thing that’s standing in the way of such a debate is fearmongering by tech companies and their allies. They tend to decry anything that might alter how Big Tech operates as somehow helping China win the future. It’s an intellectually dishonest tactic and a distraction from important questions about our future. It bugs the heck out of me.

What prompted my eye rolling was how tech companies have responded to a recent flurry of activity that could profoundly alter life for America’s tech superstars, and all of us who are affected by their products. Several Democrats in Congress have proposed new laws to crack down on big technology companies. And the new chair of the Federal Trade Commission, Lina Khan, has advocated for aggressive enforcement of monopoly laws to stop what she sees as big tech companies preying on consumers.

Those steps could unravel the status quo in technology, or not. We’re in a messy phase that makes it tricky to predict what Congress, states, courts and government enforcers might do to change the rules for tech companies — and whether it will do more good than harm.

But powerful corporations and people who support them aren’t grappling with the nuances. Publicly at least, they have responded as they often do, by essentially implying that **guardrails** on some U.S. technology companies create the conditions for **China** to take over the world. Somehow. Don’t ask how.

Here’s what an official at NetChoice, a group that represents Google, Facebook and Amazon, told The Washington Post about the crop of Big Tech regulation bills: “At the same time Congress is looking to boost American innovation and cybersecurity, lawmakers should not pass legislation that would cede ground to foreign competitors and open up American data to dangerous and untrustworthy actors.”

And this is what the Information Technology and Innovation Foundation, a policy group that gets funding from telecommunications and tech companies, said this week about the appointment of Khan as F.T.C. chair: “In a time of increased global competition, antitrust populism will cause lasting self-inflicted damage that benefits foreign, less meritorious rivals.”

Sounds bad! You might notice that these statements don’t name **China**, which is the **magic word** to make stuff happen in **Washington**. But that’s what they mean by referencing unnamed foreign rivals.

Yes, it’s reasonable for Americans to want strong U.S. companies in a competitive global economy. But making a handful of tech kings **play fair** **isn’t likely** to **break them**.

As for the security arguments, the logic doesn’t work if you think about it for more than two seconds. Does preventing Amazon from selling its own brand of batteries — as one congressional bill might do — hold America back from fighting foreign cyberattacks? **Nope**. How do proposals that might restrain giant companies from doing whatever they want with our personal information **weaken America** on the world stage? **They do not**.

There are absolutely legitimate concerns about China shaping global technology or online conversations in ways that clash with America’s values and interests. It’s right to be concerned about China’s participation in swiping America’s secrets. That has almost **nothing to do** with whether Americans would be better off if **Facebook** were prohibited from buying the next Instagram or whether **Apple** shouldn’t be able to give a leg up to its fitness and music services on iPhones.

**Restraining U.S. corporate powers** from enriching themselves at the expense of Americans **doesn’t weaken** the **country**’s ability to restrain abuses by China or support competitive U.S. companies. We can do all of it.

# 1AR

**Consumer welfare presumes business domination as productive efficiency---labor must be subordinated in hierarchy to eliminate transactional costs. Only replacing the standard allows democratic coordination against firms.**

Sanjukta **Paul 20**. "Antitrust as Allocator of Coordination Rights." UCLA Law Review, vol. 67, no. 2, May 2020, p. 378-431. HeinOnline.

The third and most important Borkian homonym-pair is **efficiency**. It is required in order to supply the content of **consumer welfareB**, which is in turn necessary to supply the content of **competitionB**.

The notion of productive efficiency-the B member of the efficiency homonym-pair-is the ultimate foundation of the Borkian allocation of **coordination rights**. Although commonly associated with the overall idea that antitrust is about promoting competition, neither the ordinary language nor the technical sense of competition can generate the notion of productive efficiency. And the special Borkian **redefinition of competition**, competitionB, is entirely parasitic upon both the normative benchmark of **lower consumer prices and** then upon the notion that **productive efficiencies** generate these lower prices.

Productive efficiencies, per Bork, are cost savings realized from firm based coordination, in theory passed onto consumers as lower prices.142 This productively efficient coordination may consist in the vertical, hierarchically organized coordination presumed to take place within a firm, or it may be vertical, hierarchical coordination beyond firm boundaries, as for example when a large firm gives direction to a small subcontracted firm. Thus, the posited empirical fact of productive efficiencies, together with the normative benchmark of the **consumer welfare standard**, together generate the Borkian preference for **top-down, ownership-based coordination**.

Bork's notion of productive efficiencies is continuous with the work of Oliver Williamson, upon which he relied. 143 Williamson's thought itself was continuous with the ideas set forth by Ronald Coase decades earlier. In The Nature of the Firm, Coase famously recognized the firm as a limitation upon and exception to the competitive order.14" Coase's account of the firm turned upon the fact that interfirm relations were structured through the mechanism, and the relation, of **command rather than contract**. Instead of contracting with someone to perform a particular task, the firm hires a worker who will do whatever task, within a given range, that the firm decides it needs done at a given time. Coase thus took for granted that the firm was constituted from agency, or **master-servant, principles**. It is those legal principles that supply the duty of obedience to the common law employment relationship, and that do the work of substituting-in Coase's account-for a contractual obligation to perform a specific task or a discrete set of specific tasks. Managerial **hierarchies**, and the separation of work from ownership, **were thus basic to Coase's account**. 1

Williamson, picking up the Coasean thread, constructed a justification for traditionally organized firms based upon their **avoidance of the transaction costs** of market relations. Notably, this explanation and justification of firm-based coordination was meant to distinguish it not only from looser coordination outside the firm and in the market, but also from nontraditional, **democratic internal organization**. The paradigm firm on this view is thus one in which **decisionmaking and organization** is relatively **vertical**, in which **owners are not workers**, and which owners elect management. 146 **Work is** separated from and **subordinated** to ownership.14 7 In short, **managerial hierarchies were central** to the benefits of firm-based coordination in both Williamson's thought and that of other influential contemporaries. 148

It is **this body of thought**, and the supposed operational or productive efficiencies that it imputed to the hierarchically organized firm, that was directly infused into **the bloodstream of antitrust law through Bork**.14'9 This infusion effectively expanded and magnified the preferential treatment of **hierarchical coordination** associated **with concentrated ownership**-already present in the form of the firm exemption itself-by furnishing a conceptual basis for a more permissive attitude both to corporate mergers and to partial integration through vertical restraints.

These **productive efficiencies** have **nothing to do with** the notion of **economic efficiency** upon which the current antitrust paradigm generally justifies itself; they are a not a species, subset, or cousin of this concept. They are not derived from or related to the notion of a competitive market

, as allocative economic efficiency is. They exist in the way that they are posited if and only if an empirical claim about organizing human activity and technological functioning in time and space is correct. This specificity, which quite clearly implicates technological, social and historical contingencies, is also why we should be **skeptical of how universally such productive efficiencies exist**.

It might be argued that productive efficiency is related to the presumed goal of ideal theory insofar as its proponents claim that it is output-enhancing. First, just as **lower prices**, relative to any given real-world reference point, **are not necessarily efficient, neither is higher output**. Moreover, the argument that hierarchical control, rather than more democratic coordination, is output enhancing is based upon a causal mechanism that is entirely distinct from economic competition-and instead consists in a **restraint upon competition**. The Borkian concept of productive efficiency indeed expressly posits that some restraints on competition ultimately enhance output, and thus should be permitted as exceptions to the general procompetition norm. Just like the other two homonym-pairs organized around the ideal-state supplied by neoclassical theory on the one hand, and some other substantive normative benchmark, ultimately having to do with **lower consumer prices and hierarchical coordination**, on the other, productive efficiency and allocative efficiency are no more than mere homonyms. This pair of homonyms, both terms of art, are all the more likely to blend in everyday **legal and institutional practice**. I will henceforth refer to them as efficiency and efficiencyB.

Efficiency is used to **discipline workers**-and anyone else whose economic coordination is not mediated by a large firm-even as efficiencyB is deployed to **justify coordination controlled by large firms**. In other words, efficiency is used to **attack all disfavored forms of economic coordination**, from cartels to **unions to public market coordination**. Yet efficiencyB is used to defend economic coordination performed through the mechanism of a large, powerful firm. The two are judged by different metrics, and that differential judging is **written into the law itself**. Thus, even if consumer welfare were accepted as the substantive benchmark, horizontal coordination beyond firm boundaries is barred from showing that it produces such benefits, while corporate mergers are in many cases presumed to produce these benefits.

The reason for this is that, generally speaking, increasing coordination among producers-whether by merger or by coordination beyond firm boundaries-is presumed to increase consumer prices and reduce output. Bork is quite clear about this: "Mergers eliminate rivalry between the participating firms even more effectively than do cartels, and they are much more permanent."" But Bork goes on to say that the "disparity" in the treatment of cartels and mergers-a disparity whose intensification he advocated-"is explainable in terms of, and **only** in terms of, a **policy of consumer welfare**."" In other words, "a preference for [productive] efficiency," which implies the preference for mergers over cartels, "is explainable only by a **proconsumer policy**.""' Bork was making a very specific point here: that **this preference for mergers over cartels was already in antitrust law**, and that therefore the proconsumer policy was already in antitrust law. Bork was not wrong that antitrust, as he found it, already displayed a preference for firms, and indeed mergers, over cartels. Indeed, this is a corollary of the true proposition that antitrust already contained a preference for firm-based, and indeed hierarchical- and ownership-based, economic coordination even before Bork. In effect, Bork proffered the fact that there was such a preexisting preference in the law-along with his empirical claim about productive efficiencies-as the justification for then further intensifying that very preference.

The merits of Bork's argument from precedent aside, the argument carries within it the frank admission that logically, a **procompetition norm alone can never generate the antitrust preference for mergers, or for market concentration**, however it arises, **over cartels**-or more precisely, over horizontal coordination beyond firm boundaries. In other words, Bork quite clearly stated that the procompetition norm does not justify the firm exemption, and that only a substantive "**proconsumer policy"-in the sense of consumer welfareB-can justify it**. In particular, the argument is that in the case of horizontal mergers, efficiencyB may outweigh the posited losses in consumer benefits from coordination, efficiency, thereby justifying its permission."' For a horizontal merger, the price-lowering effect of efficiencyB may outweigh the price-increasing effect of efficiency. And in the case of vertical mergers or vertical coordination beyond firm boundaries, according to Bork there may be no losses from coordination, or efficiency, at all. But again, in the case of horizontal coordination beyond firm boundaries, for Bork there are no productive efficiencies; thus, one needs to waste no time searching for mitigating benefits:

It must also be remembered that there need not always be a tradeoff.... Some phenomena involve only a dead-weight loss and no, or insignificant, cost savings. That is the case with the gardenvariety price-fixing ring.... Other phenomena will involve only efficiency gain and no dead-weight loss. Examples of these include most of the mergers the Supreme Court strikes down ....

So the Borkian notion of efficiencyB is defined to imply that horizontal coordination beyond firm boundaries has substantively fewer benefits for consumers and, by extension, society, than vertically organized coordination. The empirical assumption embodied in productive efficiencies, along with a substantive proconsumer policy, thus together form the linchpin of Borkian antitrust. Once this substantive policy is in place, efficiencyB grounds both the permissive attitude to mergers and vertical coordination-particularly vertical coordination involving unequal relations between firms, where the cost-savings of **hierarchy** may be realized-and the **disciplinary** attitude to horizontal coordination beyond firm boundaries. Thus, whatever the logical basis of efficiencyB is, that is also the logical basis of **this fundamental preference for hierarchical** economic **coordination over democratic** forms of **coordination**. And efficiency is based on the notion that organizing production activities on the basis of **command**, in a traditionally organized top-down firm, **will yield social and economic benefits**.