# Off

### Litigation

#### Litigation is controlled now---the aff kills it

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

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

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

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

A. Summary Judgment Can Cut Short Extreme Costs Antitrust litigation can involve enormous discovery costs, particularly when antitrust litigation overlaps with class action litigation. Due to the wide scope of many antitrust claims, discovery can implicate a broad range of documents, records, interrogatories, and depositions. In fact, "[s]trategically minded" plaintiffs can take advantage of antitrust law's "onerous discovery costs" by requiring the defendant "to respond to wide-ranging interrogatories, produce documents, and prepare for and defend depositions" with only a "facially plausible allegation" of an antitrust violation. These costs can take a very large toll on both large and small businesses. The legal hours necessary to answer and address discovery challenges can also impose extreme costs. Plaintiffs can often use discovery costs as a weapon against defendants in antitrust litigation. The Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals stated that "antitrust trials often encompass a great deal of expensive and time consuming discovery and trial work" in explaining that the "very nature" of antitrust litigation should encourage summary judgment. The court's language here supports [\*389] the idea that in antitrust litigation, summary judgment has a special value, greater even than its normal use in other areas of the law. Summary judgment can be used to cut short lengthy litigation where parties have already accrued extreme costs from discovery and one party still cannot produce a genuine issue of material fact. In antitrust litigation, the value of summary judgment to mitigate discovery costs through shortening litigation is elevated to a special importance even greater than normal for three reasons. First, antitrust litigation normally involves large organizations, which magnifies the costs of those firms going through the discovery process. Large firms have a great number of involved employees and departments, all of which would likely be subject to the broad discovery that is characteristic of antitrust litigation. Summary judgment, though normally considered after discovery, is a procedural weapon available at nearly any point in this process, as "a party may file a motion for summary judgment at any time until 30 days after the close of all discovery." The existence of a stay for extension of discovery shows that summary judgment need not automatically wait for discovery's completion, and thus can be an invaluable safeguard against otherwise incredibly costly discovery. This safeguard allows summary judgment to be a powerful tool to radically lower discovery time and costs without "railroad[ing]" the other party. Second, antitrust litigation is normally a slow process that takes a great deal of time. The amount of time necessary to process and review evidence produced by discovery leads to incredible legal costs, often disproportionately placed on the defendant firm. The plaintiff has the advantage over the defendant in deciding the scope of discovery costs, and may often tailor its claim in such a way as to avoid the discovery costs that a defendant's counterclaim may reflect [\*390] back on the plaintiff. These lengthy trials can be effectively truncated by summary judgment, and thus summary judgment's normal value is even greater in the world of antitrust litigation where protracted trials are the norm. Finally, the vast amount of evidence necessary to prove the elements of an antitrust claim contribute to the large discovery costs tied to antitrust litigation by overwhelming judges' ability to reign in discovery costs. Currently, we rely on judges to limit the range of discovery requested, but in the context of antitrust litigation, judges have difficulty dealing with the broad variety of evidence that may be called for. One analysis of the power of discovery described it as a costly and potentially abusive force, and determined judges' abilities to limit discovery costs on their own as "hollow" at best: A magistrate supervising discovery does not--cannot--know the expected productivity of a given request, because the nature of the requester's claim and the contents of the files (or head) of the adverse party are unknown. Judicial officers cannot measure the costs and benefits to the requester and so cannot isolate impositional requests. Requesters have no reason to disclose their own estimates because they gain from imposing costs on rivals (and may lose from an improvement in accuracy). The portions of the Rules of Civil Procedure calling on judges to trim back excessive demands, therefore, have been, and are doomed to be, hollow. We cannot prevent what we cannot detect; we cannot detect what we cannot define; we cannot define "abusive" discovery except in theory, because in practice we lack essential information. Even in retrospect it is hard to label requests as abusive. How can a judge distinguish a dry hole (common in litigation as well as in the oil business) from a request that was not justified at the time? [\*391] Summary judgment can also reduce costs to both parties by reducing time and discovery costs to the parties, and to the judicial system itself, by cutting short lengthy litigation. Both sides often incur costs from employing experts in various areas, researching and producing evidence necessary to prove or disprove elements of antitrust actions, and in the great many legal hours necessary for both plaintiffs and defendants--not to mention costs to the state--during lengthy litigation that is often fruitless due to an "incentive to file potentially equivocal claims." Antitrust law is structured in such a way as to have a "special temptation" for what would otherwise be frivolous litigation. As antitrust law is, by its very nature, between competitors, there is significant motivation to force costs on to other firms, perhaps even through frivolous legal claims or intentionally imposing other large legal costs. Costs can also multiply in antitrust litigation because antitrust actions are often combined with other particularly complex areas of law, such as patent law or class actions. Class actions particularly in the antitrust context can make trials "unmanageable." Combining two already complex areas of law is a recipe for large legal costs and prolonged litigation. The value of cutting costs short cannot be overstated, as antitrust litigation takes place in the arena of business competition. This means that firms are already engaged in close competition for antitrust cases to be relevant, and thus unnecessary costs can further distort the market.

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

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

Robert F. Kennedy’s speech, which includes his reference to the oft-quoted “interesting times” curse, applies throughout history in many contexts and, indeed, with both negative and positive connotation. While he focused on the struggles for freedom and social justice, the requisite ascendancy of the individual over the state, and the institution and integration of those ideals for the greater good, he also promoted the goals of greater global unity, cooperation and communication, which were, and could be, achieved by advances in technology. And, as noted in the excerpt, he championed “the creative energy of men.” Intellectual Property in “Interesting Times” It is beyond question that starting with the last decade of the twentieth century and throughout the first two decades of the twenty-first century, when it comes to matters relating to intellectual property, we have been living in “interesting times.” Some may interpret these interesting times as defined by the curse and others may view it by the ordinary meaning of “interesting.” In either case, those of us that toil in the fields of patents, copyrights, trademarks, trade secrets, and privacy rights have experienced an unprecedented sea change in the way those rights are procured, protected and enforced. Likewise, and perhaps more importantly, even those of us that do not practice in these areas of law, as well as the general public, have been, and continue to be, impacted by the consequences of these changes (both positive and negative). The Changes In Intellectual Property Law Examples of some of the changes in intellectual property law are: the sweeping 2011 legislative changes to the patent laws under the America Invents Act (AIA), which impact is only beginning to be fully appreciated; the various proposals for patent law reform, on the heels of the AIA, beginning with the 113th and 114th Congress; the copyright laws Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) and numerous 114th Congressional proposed copyright law changes; the recently enacted federal trade secret law (Defend Trade Secrets Act of 2016 (DTSA))2; the impact of the internet, domain names and globalization on Trademark law; the intellectual property law harmonization requirements included in various global/regional trade agreements; and the proliferation of devices (both invasive and non-invasive) that defy any rational basis for believing we can still adhere to the republic’s libertarian understanding of the right to privacy. Without engaging in “chicken and egg” analysis, it is sufficient to observe that technological advancement, societal needs, globalization, existential threats, economic realities, and political imperatives (or what James Madison referred to in the Federalist Papers No. 10 as factious governance), have combined to create the “interesting times” for the United States [IP] intellectual property laws. What was said by Bobby Kennedy in 1966 remains true today. We live in dangerous and uncertain times. Many of the existential threats remain the same (nuclear war and proliferation, [genocides] ~~genocidal maniacs~~ and natural disease) and some are new ([hu]manmade disease, greater awareness of environmental changes and possibly human interrelationship factors, and the unintended consequences of genetic manipulation and robotic technologies). The danger and uncertainty that pervades changes in intellectual property laws, though not an existential threat of the same manner and kind, correlates with the threat and remains “more open to the creative energy of man than any other time in history.” Apropos the creative energy of man, there is a non-coincidental congruence and convergence of activity across and among the three branches of government, occurring almost simultaneously with the congruence and convergence of the rapid developments of technological innovation across various scientific disciplines and the information age, reflected in the transformation of the [IP] intellectual property laws in the United States. Patents The passage of the AIA was a culmination of efforts spanning several years of Congressional efforts; and the product of a push by the companies at the forefront of the twenty-first century new technology business titans. The legislation brought about monumental changes in the patent law in the way that patents are procured (first inventor to file instead of first to invent) and how they are enforced (quasi-judicial challenges to patent validity through inter-party reviews at the Patent Trial and Appeals Board (PTAB)). The 113th and 114th Congress grappled with newly proposed patent law reforms that, if enacted, may present additional tectonic shifts in the patent law. Major provisions of the proposals include: fee-shifting measures (requiring loser pays legal fees - counter to the American rule); strict detailed pleadings requirements, promulgated without the traditional Rules Enabling Act procedure, that exceed those of the Twombly/Iqbal standard applied to all other civil matters in federal courts, and the different standards applicable to patent claim interpretation in PTAB proceedings and district court litigation concerning patent validity. The Executive and administrative branch has also been active in the patent law arena. President Obama was a strong supporter of the AIA3 and in his 2014 State Of The Union Address, essentially stated that, with respect to the proposed patent law reforms aimed at patent troll issues, we must innovate rather than litigate.4 Additionally, the USPTO has embarked upon an energetic overhaul of its operations in terms of patent quality and PTO performance in granting patents, and the PTAB has expanded to almost 250 Administrative Law Judges in concert with the AIA post-grant proceedings’ strict timetable requirements. The Supreme Court, not to be outdone by the Articles I and II branches of the U.S. government, has raised the profile of patent cases to historical heights. From 1996 to the 2014-15 term there has been a steady increase in the number of patent cases decided by the SCOTUS5. The 2014-15 term occupied almost ten percent of the Court’s docket. Prior to the last two decades, the Supreme Court would rarely include more than one or two patent cases in a docket that was much larger than those we have become accustomed to from the Roberts’ Court6. While the SCOTUS activity in patent cases is viewed by some as a counter-balance to the perceived Federal Circuit’s pro-patent and bright line decisions, it can just as assuredly be viewed as decisions rendered by a Court of final resort which does not function in a vacuum devoid of the social, economic and political winds of the times. In recognition of the effect new technologies have on the patent law, the politicization of intellectual property law matters, especially patent law (through factious governing principles of the political branches of the government), and the maturation of the Federal Circuit patent law jurisprudence, the SCOTUS has rendered opinions in cases that impact, and perhaps are/were intended to mitigate the concerns regarding, some of the vexing issues confronting the patent community today (e.g., non-practicing entities or in the politicized parlance “patent trolls,” the intersection of patent and antitrust laws in Hatch-Waxman so called “pay-for-delay” settlements between Branded and Generic pharma companies, and the fundamental tenets that comprise the very heart of what is patent eligible subject matter). Copyrights The advent and ubiquity of the internet, social media and digital technologies (MP3s, Napster, Facebook, YouTube, and Twitter) represents the impetus for changes in the Copyright laws. The DMCA addressed the issues presented by these advances or changes in the differing media and forms of artistic impressions. The proliferation of digital photos, graphic designs and publishing alternatives, as well as adherence to globalization harmonization have given rise to changes in the statutory law and jurisprudence in this area of intellectual property law. Additionally, there is an overlap of patent rights and copyrights for software driven by the ebb and flow of the strength of each respective intellectual property protection. Notably, the Patent and Copyright Clause7, in addition to Author’s writings, has been viewed as discretely applying to two different types of creativity or innovation. When drafted the “sciences” referred not only to fields of modern scienctific inquiry but rather to all knowledge. And the “useful arts” does not refer to artistic endeavors, but rather to the work of artisans or people skilled in a manufacturing craft. Rather than result in ambiguity or confusion, perhaps the Framers were either quite prescient or, just coincidentally, these aspects of the Patent and Copyright Clause have converged. For example, none other than the famous Crooner, Bing Crosby, benefited from both protections. Well-known as a prolific and popular recording artist he also benefited from his investments in the, then innovative, recording technologies. Similarly, the Beatles, Beach Boys, as well as many other rock and roll artists, experimental efforts in music performance, recording and production, helped to transform the music industry in both copyrightable artistic expression and patentable inventions. Similarly, film, literary and digital arts reap benefits at the crossroads of both copyright and patent protections. Trademarks Trademark laws have been impacted by numerous changes in the business landscape. They include the internet, Domain names, international rights in a global economy, different venues and avenues for branding, marketing and merchandising, global knock-offs from nations that have a less than stellar respect for intellectual property rights, and international trade agreements. More recently, politicization (or perhaps political correctness) has creeped into the trademark law arena pitting branding rights and protections against first amendment rights. Trade Secrets As with Copyright and Trademark law, trade secrets law includes some of the same issues related to trade agreements. TRIPS required members to have trade secret protection in place. Initially, the United States compliance with this requirement has relied upon the trade secret law of the individual states. That compliance may be supplanted by the recently enacted DTSA. Similarly, the Trans Pacific Partnership (TPP) trade agreement contains intellectual property rights provisions that will trigger required changes to United States statutory Intellectual Property Laws. The proposed trade secret legislation also gives rise to several concerns. For instance, there is an absence of a specific definition for trade secret, as well as potential issues of federalism, conflict with state law precedent (despite no preemption), remedies, and the impact on employer/employee relations. There is also a real concern that the strengthening of trade secret protection in conjunction with the perceived weakening of patent protection (e.g., high rate of invalidating patents in post-grant proceedings before the PTAB and strict limitations on what is patent eligible subject matter) may very-well have the unintended consequence of contravening the purpose behind the Patent and Copyright Clause: “to promote the progress of the sciences and the useful arts.” Moreover, the incentive to innovate may very well be usurped by the advantage of withholding patent law disclosure of highly beneficial scientific advancements that directly affect the human condition, alter life expectancies and the evolution of the human species (rather than by mere “natural selection”), and what is the very essence of a human being (for better or worse). Thus, crippling innovation and the progress of the sciences and useful arts. Privacy Rights It is increasingly more difficult to function “off the grid.” The invasive and non-invasive attributes of the internet, the reliance upon the multitude of devices, social media, and information age technologies, and access to big data, all contribute to the decrease in and dilution of the right to privacy. Wittingly or otherwise, the strong libertarian roots of the republic have been replaced by dependence upon these modes of an information-age life. Commentary on the benefits and deficits of this reality are beyond the subject and purpose of this writing. Suffice to acknowledge that the right to privacy has been significantly reduced. The laws that protect these rights are in a constant struggle to maintain those rights while yielding to the demands of the lifestyle and security concerns. Laws that relate to cybersecurity in the global and domestic space create interplay with privacy rights. Legislation, trade agreements and jurisprudence all impact this area of intellectual property. Cross-border theft of trade secrets, competitor espionage, and loss of control over personal data are all implicated in the intellectual property law arena. America’s Need For Strong Intellectual Property Protection The need for strong protection of intellectual property rights is greater now than it was at the dawn of our republic. Our Forefathers and the Framers of the U.S. Constitution recognized the need to secure those rights in Article 1, Section 8, Clause 8. James Madison provides insight for its significance in the Federalist Papers No. 43 (the only reference to the clause). It is contained in the first Article section dedicated to the enumerated powers of Congress. The clause recognizes the need for: uniformity of the protection of IP rights, securing those rights for the individual rather than the state; and, incentivizing innovation and creative aspirations. Underlying this particular enumerated power of Congress is the same struggle that the Framers grappled with throughout the document for the new republic: how to promote a unified republic while protecting individual liberty. The fear of tyranny and protection of the “natural law” individual liberty is a driving theme for the Constitution and throughout the Federalist Papers. For example, in Federalist No. 10, James Madison articulated the important recognition of the “faction” impact on a democracy and a republic. In Federalist No. 51, Madison emphasized the importance of the separation of powers among the three branches of the republic. And in Federalist No. 78, Alexander Hamilton, provided his most significant essay, which described the judiciary as the weakest branch of government and sought the protection of its independence providing the underpinnings for judicial review as recognized thereafter in Marbury v. Madison. All of these related themes are relevant to the Patent and Copyright Clause and at the center of the intellectual property protections then and now. The Federalist Papers No. 10 recognition that a faction may influence the law has been playing itself out in the halls of congress in the period of time leading up to the AIA and in connection with the current patent law reform debate. The large tech companies of the past, new tech, new patent-based financial business model entities, and pharma factions have been the drivers, proponents and opponents of certain of these efforts. To be sure, some change is inevitable, and both beneficial and necessary in an environment of rapidly changing technology where the law needs to evolve or conform to new realities. However, changes not premised upon the founding principles of the Constitution and the Patent and Copyright Clause (i.e., uniformity, secured rights for the individual, incentivizing innovation and protecting individual liberty) run afoul of the intended purpose of the constitutional guarantee. Although the Sovereign does not benefit directly from the fruits of the innovator, enacting laws that empower the King, and enables the King to remain so, has the same effect as deprivation and diminishment of the individual’s rights and effectively confiscates them from him/her. Specifically, with respect to intellectual property rights, effecting change to the laws that do not adhere to these underlying principles, in favor of the faction that lobbies the most and the best in the quid pro quo of political gain to the governing body threatens to undermine the individual’s intellectual property rights and hinder the greatest economic driver and source of prosperity in the country. It is also important to recognize that the social, political and economic impact of strong protections for intellectual property cannot be overstated. In the social context, the incentive for disclosure and innovation is critical. Solutions for sustainability and climate change (whether natural, man-made or mutually/marginally intertwined) rely upon this premise. Likewise, as we are on the precipice of the ultimate convergence in technologies from the hi-tech digital world and life sciences space, capturing the ability to cure many diseases and fatal illnesses and providing the true promise of extended longevity in good health and well-being, that is meaningful, productive, and purposeful; this incentive must be preserved. In similar fashion, advancements in technologies related to the global economy and communications will enhance the possibilities for solutions to political and cultural conflicts that arise around the globe. Likewise, the United States economy has always benefited when it is at the forefront of innovation and achieves prosperity from its leadership role in technological advancements. Conclusion As was the case in 1966, how we move forward today, to solve the many problems facing our country and the broader global community in these “interesting times,” both within and without the laws affecting intellectual property rights, depends upon the “creative energy of man” which must prevail. An achievable goal, dependent on the strong, stable and sound protection of intellectual property rights.

### States

#### TEXT: The attorneys general of the 50 states and relevant territories, through the National Association of Attorneys General’s Multistate Antitrust Task Force, should prohibit the section 501(c)(3) status of the National Collegiate Athletics Association (NCAA) on the grounds that it constitutes illegal price fixing.

#### A multistate AG antitrust enforcement solves the aff---causes federal follow-on

Artega 19 (Juan A. Arteaga is an experienced antitrust attorney and a former Deputy Assistant Attorney General for the U.S. Department of Justice’s Antitrust Division, The Role of US State Antitrust Enforcement, Global Competition Review, 11-19, <https://www.lexology.com/library/detail.aspx%3Fg%3Dd423301d-f4d1-4550-a99c-1880869e67e7+&cd=11&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=us>, y2k)

In the United States, competition laws have been implemented and enforced through a dual system where the state and federal governments play distinct, yet complementary, roles in regulating the competitive process. While the Department of Justice (DOJ) Antitrust Division and Federal Trade Commission (FTC) are widely viewed as the stewards of US antitrust laws, state attorneys general have long played an important, albeit varying, role within the United States’ antitrust enforcement regime. This has been especially true during the past 30 years because state attorneys general have become much more effective at coordinating their antitrust enforcement efforts to ensure that they have a meaningful seat at the table in any actions brought jointly with their federal counterparts or are able to bring their own actions when the DOJ and FTC decide not to do so.Prior to the enactment of the first federal antitrust law – the Sherman Act – in 1890, state antitrust enforcement was quite robust in the United States because at least 26 states had already enacted some form of antitrust prohibition. In addition, state enforcers had often used general corporation law and common law restraint of trade principles to regulate anticompetitive business practices and transactions. This well-established state antitrust enforcement infrastructure – coupled with the fact that the Antitrust Division and FTC had only recently been created – permitted state attorneys general to continue playing a leading enforcement role for the first 30 years after the Sherman Act’s passage. Indeed, state attorneys general successfully prosecuted a number of the most consequential antitrust enforcement actions during this period. In the early 1920s, however, state antitrust enforcers began playing a less prominent role because ‘the national dimension of the most important trusts, . . . as well as their ability to restructure in order to evade problematic state laws’, made clear that the federal government needed to step forward in order to adequately protect consumers and the competitive process. As a result, the DOJ and FTC – whose national jurisdiction and greater resources enabled them to tackle the most pressing competition issues of the time – displaced state attorneys general as the primary source of government antitrust enforcement within the United States. This largely remained true until the mid-1970s when Congress, in response to the DOJ and FTC’s perceived inactivity, passed two laws that expanded the authority of state attorneys general to enforce the federal antitrust laws and provided them with financial resources to do so. In 1976, Congress passed the Hart-Scott-Rodino Antitrust Improvement Act, which, among other things, authorised state attorneys general to bring *parens patriae* suits (i.e., legal actions brought on behalf of natural persons residing within their states) seeking monetary (treble damages) and injunctive relief for Sherman Act violations. Congress also passed the Crime Control Act of 1976, which, among other things, provided state attorneys general with tens of millions in federal grants as ‘seed money’ for the creation of antitrust bureaus within their offices. These laws had their intended effect of reinvigorating state antitrust enforcement. During the 1980s, for example, state attorneys general once again emerged as vigorous antitrust enforcers, especially with respect to the prosecution of resale price maintenance practices and other vertical restraints. The rise in the level and prominence of state antitrust enforcement during this period was largely due to a perceived enforcement void at the federal level, where the DOJ and FTC had mostly limited their focus to ‘prohibiting cartels and large horizontal mergers’. No longer content with ceding antitrust enforcement to federal enforcers, state attorneys general expanded their antitrust dockets from prosecuting purely ‘local matters, such as bid-rigging on state contracts’, to actively investigating and litigating matters with multistate and national implications. To help ensure that they had a larger seat at the antitrust enforcement table, state attorneys general also increased the coordination of their enforcement efforts and competition advocacy through organisations such as the National Association of Attorneys General (NAAG), which created a Multistate Antitrust Task Force and issued state Vertical Restraints and Horizontal Merger Guidelines during this period. Since the reawakening of state antitrust enforcement nearly 30 years ago, state attorneys general have continued to play an important role in the enforcement of both state and federal antitrust laws. During periods of lax federal antitrust enforcement, state attorneys general have often ramped up their enforcement activity in order to protect consumers from anticompetitive transactions and business practices. During periods of vigorous federal antitrust enforcement, they have often served as strong partners for the DOJ and FTC by, among other things, offering valuable insights about competitive dynamics in local markets, assisting with obtaining information from key market participants (including state governmental entities that are direct purchasers of goods and services), and helping develop and implement litigation strategies for cases being tried before federal judges presiding in their states. Since January 2017, state attorneys general have increasingly played a leading and independent antitrust enforcement role. State antitrust enforcers have significantly increased their enforcement activity and willingness to act separately from their federal counterparts because many of them believe that there has been ‘under-enforcement’ by the DOJ and FTC. State antitrust enforcers have also been able to enhance their influence over key competition policy issues and the antitrust enforcement agenda within the United States because there appears to have been a significant decline in the coordination and relationship between the DOJ and FTC. In once again flexing their enforcement muscle, state attorneys general have shown a willingness to publicly disagree with the DOJ and FTC on both policy and enforcement decisions, and have also sought to pressure their federal counterparts into more aggressively policing certain industries. Recent examples of the increased independence and assertiveness of state antitrust enforcers include: In their joint investigation into the T-Mobile/Sprint merger, nearly 20 state attorneys general have sued to block the transaction even though the DOJ, along with seven state attorneys general, have approved the deal after securing certain structural and behavioural remedies. After the DOJ announced its proposed settlement with the companies, the Attorney General for New York, who has been leading the states’ challenge to the merger, issued a press release dismissing the adequacy of the remedies negotiated by the DOJ: ‘The promises made by [the divestiture buyer] and [the merging companies] in this deal are the kinds of promises only robust competition can guarantee. We have serious concerns that cobbling together this new fourth mobile [phone] player, with the government picking winners and losers, will not address the merger’s harm to consumers, workers, and innovation.’ The DOJ, FTC and several state attorneys general have been actively investigating and prosecuting ‘no-poach’ agreements (i.e., where competitors for employees agree not to recruit or hire each other’s employees)in recent years. However, the DOJ and state attorneys general have taken directly opposing positions in private litigation challenging the legality of ‘no-poach’ clauses in corporate franchise agreements. The DOJ has argued that courts should review these clauses under the rule of reason whereas various state attorneys general have argued that these clauses should be deemed per se unlawful. None of the more than 20 state attorney general offices that actively investigated the AT&T/Time Warner merger joined the DOJ’s unsuccessful challenge to the transaction despite the DOJ’s concerted effort to secure their support. In fact, nine state attorneys general filed an amicus brief opposing the DOJ’s appeal of the trial court’s decision. After the FTC declined to seek any Colorado-related remedies in connection with Optum’s acquisition of DaVita Medical Group, the Attorney General for Colorado required the merging companies to lift the exclusivity provisions in contracts with certain healthcare providers and to extend their existing contracts with certain health insurers. In announcing this settlement, the Colorado Attorney General stated: ‘I recognize that this case marks an important step in state antitrust enforcement . . . . I am committed to protecting all Coloradans from anticompetitive consolidation and practices, and will do so whether or not the federal government acts to protect Coloradans.’ After voicing displeasure with federal antitrust enforcement in the technology sector, numerous state attorneys general launched their independent investigations into ‘Big Tech’ companies even though the DOJ and FTC have ongoing investigations into these companies. Given that companies will increasingly have to engage with state attorneys general in a meaningful manner with respect to antitrust matters, this chapter discusses key issues related to state antitrust enforcement in the United States. Specifically, this chapter discusses: the federal and state antitrust laws under which state enforcers operate; the processes through which state enforcers coordinate with each other and their federal counterparts; the opportunity for coordination and conflict between state enforcers and private counsel during litigation; strategic and practical considerations when engaging with state attorneys general; and certain noteworthy enforcement actions that state enforcers have recently prosecuted. Statutory regime governing US state antitrust enforcement Civil enforcement of federal antitrust laws Enforcement actions on behalf of state governmental entities Under the federal antitrust laws, state attorneys general have the express authority to bring civil actions on behalf of their state, municipalities, and governmental entities for harm suffered when directly purchasing goods or services. In bringing such actions, state attorneys general can seek monetary (treble damages) and injunctive relief, as well as their costs and reasonable attorney’s fees. In actions seeking monetary relief, state attorneys general typically allege that the state plaintiffs were forced to pay higher prices by an unlawful horizontal conspiracy, such as a price-fixing or bid-rigging scheme, and seek to recover the overcharges. In some cases, state attorneys general have sought to recover damages arising out of anticompetitive unilateral conduct, such as overcharges paid by state governmental entities due to a defendant’s actual or attempted monopolisation of a specific market. In seeking injunctive relief, state attorneys general often argue that such relief is proper because the business practice or transaction in question – in addition to harming the state plaintiffs – has or will cause injury to the state’s general economy. While general harm to a state’s economy can serve as a basis for injunctive relief, stateattorneyscannot base their request for damages on such harm. Parens patriae enforcement actions A well-settled principle in the United States’ legal system is that ‘the States have a quasi sovereign interest in protecting their citizens from ongoing economic harm’. Consequently, the federal antitrust laws expressly authorise state attorneys general to file parens patriae actions in federal court that seek to redress the harm suffered by their citizens due to federal antitrust violations. In providing state attorneys general with parens patriae authority, the federal antitrust laws permit state antitrust enforcers to seek monetary (treble damages) and injunctive relief, as well as their costs and reasonable attorney’s fees. State attorneys general have been empowered to seek such broad and substantial relief on behalf of their citizens to allow them ‘to deter further economic harm and to obtain relief for the injury inflicted on their economies and their citizens’. In exercising their parens patriae authority, state attorneys general have often sought to protect their citizens and state economies from the harm caused by anticompetitive business practices. For example, in the e-Books Litigation, 33 state attorneys general alleged that Apple, Inc and various book publishers unlawfully conspired to fix the prices of electronic books, which resulted in their citizens paying higher prices and harm to their states’ general economies. Ultimately, these state attorneys general, working alongside private class counsel, secured settlements from the defendants that provided nearly US$600 million in direct refunds to their citizens. In a pending lawsuit brought against various manufacturers of generic pharmaceuticals, 44 state attorneys general have alleged that the defendants unlawfully conspired to fix the prices for numerous generic drugs, which forced their states and citizens to pay billions of dollars in overcharges, as well as significantly harmed their states’ general economies. State attorneys general have also invoked their parens patriae authority to protect their citizens and state economies from the harm caused by anticompetitive transactions. For instance, in their pending challenge to T-Mobile’s proposed acquisition of Sprint, nearly 20 state attorneys general have alleged that the transaction will result in their residents paying higher prices for lower quality mobile phone services as well as harm to their states’ general economies. Likewise, the state attorneys general that joined the DOJ’s successful challenges to the proposed Anthem/Cigna and Aetna/Humana mergers alleged that these mergers would have harmed their citizens and the general economies of their states by reducing the number of large health insurance providers from five to three. There are, however, important limitations on the parens patriae authority conferred to state attorneys general under the federal antitrust laws. For instance, the monetary relief sought by state attorneys general must: (1) arise out of a Sherman Act violation; (2) have been incurred by natural persons residing in their states (i.e., the losses suffered by business organisations cannot be included in the alleged damages); (3) exclude harm suffered by indirect purchasers of the goods and/or services in question; (4) avoid the risk of multiple recoveries by excluding amounts previously awarded for the same injuries; and (5) arise out of actual financial losses rather than general harm to their state’s economy. Moreover, state attorneys general must provide their residents with adequate notice of the lawsuit and a meaningful opportunity to opt out of the litigation. In seeking to prove the monetary harm suffered by their citizens, state attorneys general can employ many of the same methods utilised by private plaintiffs. In price-fixing cases, for example, state attorneys general can prove the claimed aggregate damages by utilising ‘statistical or sampling methods’, ‘comput[ing[ [the] illegal overcharges’, or relying on any other methodology deemed ‘reasonable’ by the court. In addition, a number of state antitrust laws authorise their state attorney general to hire private lawyers to handle parens patriae actions, which the state attorneys general challenging the T-Mobile/Sprint merger have done. Civil enforcement of state antitrust lawsMost states have enacted state antitrust laws that are comparable to Sections 1 and 2 of the Sherman Act. In addition, some states have passed antitrust laws that are similar to Sections 3 and 7 of the Clayton Act and the Robinson-Patman Act. These state antitrust laws typically contain provisions expressly requiring that ‘they be construed in conformity with comparable [f]ederal antitrust statutes’.

State antitrust statutes typically provide state attorneys general with broad authority to investigate possible violations, including the power to ‘issue civil investigative demands compelling oral testimony, the production of documents, and responses to written interrogatories to individuals and corporations’. Like the federal antitrust laws, most state antitrust laws authorise state attorneys general to file civil lawsuits on behalf of their states and state governmental entities whenever a violation has caused them to suffer harm in their capacity as direct purchasers of goods or services, as well as parens patriae actions on behalf of their citizens.

### FTC

#### Antitrust law enforcement has two areas of focus now: health care and big tech. Health care is under the radar.

Levine 8-25-2021, master’s degree from the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism and a bachelor of arts in English from the University of Pennsylvania. She is also an alumna of the Fellowships at Auschwitz for the Study of Professional Ethics, a program in Germany and Poland that explores the ethics of reporting on politics, war and genocide (Alexandra, “How Biden's tech trustbuster could change health care,” *Politico*, <https://www.politico.com/newsletters/future-pulse/2021/08/25/how-bidens-tech-trustbuster-could-change-health-care-797333>)

Lina Khan’s Federal Trade Commission has its eyes on health care. The agency known for efforts to rein in Big Tech companies like Facebook and Amazon is also enmeshed in high-stakes health care and health tech battles that extend well beyond Silicon Valley. Case in point: The FTC trial that kicked off yesterday examining monopoly concerns in the market for cancer screening technology. (More on that below.) That closely watched antitrust case — involving the giant Illumina and startup Grail — predates Khan’s confirmation as FTC chair. But it underscores how health issues are looming over the agenda, particularly heading into the pandemic's second year. The way health care companies and consumer health apps handle sensitive data “is an area that I'm sure [Khan’s] very, very interested in,” said Jessica Rich, former director of the FTC’s consumer protection bureau, adding that the Biden administration's FTC will also be closely scrutinizing hospital mergers. “I expect her and the commission to take a very bold approach to what constitutes harm for both,” Rich said. “I expect her to pay close attention to algorithms and potential discrimination in health care, both denials and pricing issues which the FTC's laws can address.” The FTC’s jurisdiction touches nearly the entire health economy. While its competition bureau looks at health care mergers like the Illumina-Grail deal, its consumer protection side is focused on health privacy and data security issues, as well as fighting bogus medical claims on everything from weight loss to Covid cures. When Congress passed the Covid-19 Consumer Protection Act last year, the agency was granted new authority to police Covid scams. Although Khan hasn't spoken publicly about her health care agenda, she's likely to take issue with health apps and companies whose business models maximize, incentivize and monetize data collection. Of particular concern is how firms disclose what they’re doing with consumers’ data — and whether it may still be deceptive or unfair.

#### New enforcement priorities trigger a tradeoff from health care

Abbott 21, formerly served as general counsel of the Federal Trade Commission (Alden, “Lack of Resources and Lack of Authority Over Nonprofit Organizations Are the Biggest Hindrances to Antitrust Enforcement in Healthcare,” <https://www.mercatus.org/publications/antitrust-and-competition/lack-resources-and-lack-authority-over-nonprofit>)

Appropriate federal antitrust and consumer protection enforcement is good for the American economy. It promotes enhanced competition and consumer welfare. Regrettably, however, the effectiveness of federal enforcement in achieving these benefits is threatened by insufficient resources. As FTC Acting Chair Rebecca Kelly Slaughter explained in her April 20 testimony before the US Senate Committee on Commerce, Science, and Transportation, FTC employment has remained flat despite a growing workload, with merger filings doubling in recent years. Lauren Feiner reports on that testimony: “The absence of resources means that our enforcement decisions are harder,” [Slaughter] said. “If we think that we have a real case, a real law violation in front of us, but a settlement on the table that is maybe OK but doesn’t get the job done, we have to make difficult decisions about whether it’s worth spending a lot of taxpayer dollars to go sue the companies who are going to come in with many, many law firms worth of attorneys and expensive economic experts, versus taking that settlement.” I can attest to the accuracy of Slaughter’s observation, based on my experience as FTC general counsel in the Trump Administration. During my tenure, the FTC did indeed have to contend with resource limitations that adversely affected merger enforcement decision-making. The problem of resource constraints is particularly acute in the case of healthcare merger reviews, given the increasing consolidation of healthcare institutions. As one noted healthcare scholar stated in 2019, “The Affordable Care Act did not start the consolidation rapidly occurring with hospitals/health systems and medical groups, but it most definitely accelerated the movement to combine. In the last five years, the number and size of consolidations have been at an all-time high.”

#### Health consolidation collapses public health---specifically rural care

Numerof 20, PhD @ Bryn Mawr, internationally recognized consultant and author with over 25 years of experience in the field of strategy development and execution, business model design, and market analysis (Rita, “Covid-Induced Hospital Consolidation: What Are The Impacts On Consumers, And Potentially The President,” *Forbes*, <https://www.forbes.com/sites/ritanumerof/2020/11/11/covid-induced-hospital-consolidation-what-are-the-impacts-on-consumers-and-potentially-the-president/?sh=692d6fc94da0>)

Covid-19 has initiated yet another wave: A wave of hospital mergers and acquisitions that will have devastating consequences for public health if industry doesn’t soon execute an about-face. Whether because they’re on the brink of bankruptcy and have subscribed to the half-truth that size is protective, or because they think they can score some good deals and believe scale and success are synonymous, the financial fallout of Covid-19 has caused many hospital executives to make consolidation a core part of their future plans. With the intent of increasing care quality and decreasing consumer costs despite these challenging times, the merger between Shannon Medical Center and Community Hospital and partnership between Intermountain and Sanford Health are just two examples. There are multiple reasons why consumers absolutely cannot afford for industry to bulk up in an effort to weather this storm. The first is that the positive efforts executives claim consolidation will help them accomplish often prove to be futile. Research shows that wherever market concentration is high, there are also higher prices for both consumers and the employers who provide their healthcare coverage. In the absence of competition, costs increase and quality deteriorates. That’s the opposite of progress. Second, generally speaking, the union of two institutions with operational shortcomings only creates one larger institution with even more operational shortcomings! That’s not progress either. Third, Covid-induced consolidation will only make future progress many times more difficult. The larger an organization is, the more it will struggle to rapidly adapt to healthcare disruptions like we’re seeing today. Retail giants like Walmart, Walgreens, Amazon and CVS are pivoting to cater to healthcare consumer demands for affordability and accessibility. Right now, they’re still a blip on the radar relative to mainstream healthcare delivery, but they are looking to eventually corner the market and drive the industry forward. And as they continue down this path, consolidated healthcare systems will be left behind, potentially at the expense of the consumers in that area. The potential impact of continued consolidation on rural patients is especially concerning. Rural communities may have a limited number of the big-box retailers mentioned above. And the unfortunate fact of the matter is that when a larger hospital or health system purchases a smaller, rural hospital, it’s usually only a matter of time before the purchasing system realizes that unless they drastically pare down and reconfigure operations, the acquired hospital will never be profitable. Many eventually decide to close up shop, in some instances reducing or even eliminating rural patients’ options for care delivery. In the absolute worst-case scenario, this is exactly the reality all consumers could face if consolidation continues at its current pace. In theory and if left unchecked, all of the hospitals in the United States could be owned by only a handful of mammoth systems that then lack incentive to continually deliver quality services at lower total cost of care.

#### Strong public health infrastructure prevents bioterror attacks

Kosal 14, Adjunct Scholar to the Modern War Institute at the US Military Academy/West Point, Ph.D. in Chemistry from the University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign, Associate Professor at The Sam Nunn School of International Affairs at Georgia Tech (Margaret E. Kosal, “A New Role For Public Health in Bioterrorism Defense,” Frontiers in Public Health, Volume 2, Article 278)

In thinking about public health infrastructure as an active or passive part of new deterrence strategies, it is useful to think about the role of missile defense. As the presence of a ballistic missile defense system is supposed to be an existential deterrent itself, so could be a strong public health system. Missile defense is both a passive deterrent and, if used, an active deterrent, as it stops something from occurring. A strong public health infrastructure is likely to be the key in reducing the vulnerability to bioterrorism attack, as well as having a potential role in deterring a foreign terrorist group from even considering such an attack. If a biological weapon launched by a terrorist group will have little or no effect on the target country because of a known robust public health sector, then a foreign terrorist may be discouraged from launching a biological weapons attack in the first place. If foreign terrorists are also aware of the weak public health infrastructure with their own borders, and the increased risks to them and their publics in the event of an accident in developing biological weapons and/or spread of an infectious disease that they might launch, this may also deter them from pursuing this work. In addition, even the accidental release of a dangerous pathogen or the spread of an infectious disease via attack will most likely cause disproportional negative effects to nations with limited public health infrastructures and affect tacit and explicit supporters in those states. The role of a robust public healthcare system for its deterrence capacity can be explored through empirically driven case study methods against predominant theories of deterrence in political science (14, 15) and in comparison to other works considering the possibility of deterring bioterrorism (16–20). For example, the re-emergence of polio offers a potentially useful example to think about the effects of a potential bioterrorist attack on the developed and the developing world. Polio is both a contagious infectious disease and transmissible from human-to-human (like smallpox and plague). The poliovirus is highly transmissible with a basic reproductive rate or secondary transmission rate (R0) exceeding most suspected biological agents, e.g., standard estimates of R0 for polio range from 5 to 7 (21, 22), whereas R0 for suspected bioterrorist agents like smallpox (1.8–3.2) (23–25); pneumonic plague (0.8–3.0) (26, 27); and even Ebola (1.34–2.0) (28, 29) are lower. It is not a likely biological terrorism agent, however, due to the low-mortality associated with infection. It is, however, a useful model for thinking about the spread of infectious disease and the importance of a robust public health infrastructure as a deterrence strategy. At the beginning of 2003, the complete eradication of polio appeared to be within the grasp of the World Health Association and its many partners. In 1998, the World Health Organization estimated there were over 365,000 new cases of polio; by early 2003, the rate of infection had declined to <1,000 new cases worldwide due to a vigilant vaccination effort (30). That trend was interrupted, however, when Nigerian citizens refused to be vaccinated after hearing unfounded allegations of contaminated vaccines that would lead to sterility or cause HIV/AIDs. Before 2003, polio had largely been confined to only a handful of countries; Nigeria, India, Pakistan, and Afghanistan accounted for 93% of the world’s cases (31). What started with the refusal of local clerics to allow vaccination led to the reestablishment or importation of the poliovirus to 14 countries that were previously disease-free. Transport of the contagious virus was not limited to neighboring African states. The poliovirus moved through Sudan to Ethiopia crossing the Red Sea to Lebanon and Yemen. The latter was been particularly severely affected, witnessing more than 500 new cases in the first half of 2005. The poliovirus spread as far as Indonesia, where it afflicted more than 150 people in a single year in 2 provinces, predominantly children (32). Prior to this outbreak, Indonesia had been polio free for nine years. Genetic fingerprinting confirmed that the strain imported to Indonesia came from northern Nigeria through Sudan, most closely resembling an isolate recovered in Saudi Arabia in December 2004. A pilgrim returning from Mecca or a returning foreign worker is suspected to have brought the virus to the island of Java, across an ocean and thousands of miles from its source. The polio virus continues to persist in a limited number of states in the developing world, specifically in Nigeria, Afghanistan, and Pakistan, where a ban on vaccination by Islamist leaders in Waziristan remains in place. Since 2013, polio (linked genetically to the strain in Pakistan) has spread from Syria to Iraq (33). Countries that have witnessed the re-emergence of poliovirus outbreaks have some crucial links: social and political challenges that have impeded the development and implementation of appropriate public health infrastructures and measures. Not unexpectedly, there is an inverse relationship between government health expenditure in health and number of polio cases. Looking at the spread of polio can provide us with a lens to think about the impacts of bioterrorism in states with developed public health infrastructures and those who do not. A bioterrorist attack, especially one with a contagious agent like smallpox or pneumonic plague, will likely impact the developing parts of the world substantially more than the US. One only has to look as far as polio’s re-emergence (or more recently the outbreak of Ebola virus disease in West Africa) to see the very real repercussions of a contagious virus and how the most dire causes and effects of infection and spread stem from poor public health infrastructures (34). Creating a new deterrence strategy for bioterrorism is needed. Credibly, communicating the differential capacities to respond and the comparative likely outcomes will require diplomacy, coordination with civil affairs, specialized knowledge of individual states, and regions of the developing world. These are fundamentally interdisciplinary efforts that should leverage small teams from diplomatic, development, public health, and defense communities. One single parochial voice will be inadequate. Further improving the US domestic public health infrastructure would be beneficial and cost effective regardless of whether an outbreak is intentional or natural. The devastating Ebola outbreaks serve as a call for urgent investment in public health infrastructures worldwide, to provide both responsive and proactive actions to deter bioterrorism and to deal with natural disease outbreaks. Public health remains a powerful and often underutilized asset for bioweapons defense through vulnerability reduction; leveraging public health may also enable new approaches to deterring bioterrorism threats. International security scholars would benefit from better understanding of and leveraging the knowledge of the public health community.

#### Extinction without early response

Farmer 17 (“Bioterrorism could kill more people than nuclear war, Bill Gates to warn world leaders” http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/02/17/biological-terrorism-could-kill-people-nuclear-attacks-bill/)

Bioterrorists could one day kill hundreds of millions of people in an attack more deadly than nuclear war, Bill Gates will warn world leaders. Rapid advances in genetic engineering have opened the door for small terrorism groups to tailor and easily turn biological viruses into weapons. A resulting disease pandemic is currently one of the most deadly threats faced by the world, he believes, yet governments are complacent about the scale of the risk. Speaking ahead of an address to the Munich Security Conference, the richest man in the world said that while governments are concerned with the proliferation of nuclear and chemical weapons, they are overlooking the threat of biological warfare. Mr Gates, whose charitable foundationis funding research into quickly spotting outbreaks and speeding up vaccine production, said the defence and security establishment “have not been following biology and I’m here to bring them a little bit of bad news”. Mr Gates will today (Saturday) tell an audience of international leaders and senior officers that the world’s next deadly pandemic “could originate on the computer screen of a terrorist”. He told the Telegraph: “Natural epidemics can be extremely large. Intentionally caused epidemics, bioterrorism, would be the largest of all. “With nuclear weapons, you’d think you would probably stop after killing 100million. Smallpox won’t stop. Because the population is naïve, and there are no real preparations. That, if it got out and spread, would be a larger number.” He said developments in genetic engineering were proceeding at a “mind-blowing rate”. Biological warfare ambitions once limited to a handful of nation states are now open to small groups with limited resources and skills. He said: “They make it much easier for a non-state person. It doesn’t take much biology expertise nowadays to assemble a smallpox virus. Biology is making it way easier to create these things.” The increasingly common use of gene editing technology would make it difficult to spot any potential terrorist conspiracy. Technologies which have made it easy to read DNA sequences and tinker with them to rewrite or tweak genes have many legitimate uses. He said: “It’s not like when someone says, ‘Hey I’d like some Plutonium’ and you start saying ‘Hmmm.. I wonder why he wants Plutonium?’” Mr Gates said the potential death toll from a disease outbreak could be higher than other threats such as climate change or nuclear war. He said: “This is like earthquakes, you should think in order of magnitudes. If you can kill 10 people that’s a one, 100 people that’s a two... Bioterrorism is the thing that can give you not just sixes, but sevens, eights and nines. “With nuclear war, once you have got a six, or a seven, or eight, you’d think it would probably stop. [With bioterrorism] it’s just unbounded if you are not there to stop the spread of it.” By tailoring the genes of a virus, it would be possible to manipulate its ability to spread and its ability to harm people. Mr Gates said one of the most potentially deadly outbreaks could involve the humble flu virus. It would be relatively easy to engineer a new flu strain combining qualities from varieties that spread like wildfire with varieties that were deadly. The last time that happened naturally was the 1918 Spanish Influenza pandemic, which went on to kill more than 50 million people – or nearly three times the death toll from the First World War. By comparison, the recent Ebola outbreak in West Africa which killed just over 11,000 was “a Richter Scale three, it’s a nothing,” he said. But despite the potential, the founder of Microsoft said that world leaders and their militaries could not see beyond the more recognised risks. He said: “Should the world be serious about this? It is somewhat serious about normal classic warfare and nuclear warfare, but today it is not very serious about bio-defence or natural epidemics.” He went on: “They do tend to say ‘How easy is it to get fissile material and how accurate are the plans out on the internet for dirty bombs, plutonium bombs and hydrogen bombs?’ “They have some people that do that. What I am suggesting is that the number of people that look at bio-defence is worth increasing.” Whether naturally occurring, or deliberately started, it is almost certain that a highly lethal global pandemic will occur within our lifetimes, he believes. But the good news for those contemplating the potential damage is that the same biotechnology can prevent epidemics spreading out of control. Mr Gates will say in his speech that most of the things needed to protect against a naturally occurring pandemic are the same things needed to prepare for an intentional biological attack. Nations must amass an arsenal of new weapons to fight such a disease outbreak, including vaccines, drugs and diagnostic techniques. Being able to develop a vaccine as soon as possible against a new outbreak is particularly important and could save huge numbers of lives, scientists working at his foundation believe.

### Cap

#### Antitrust is a capitalist ploy that de-radicalizes and pacifies movements

Crane 18 (Daniel A. Crane is Frederick Paul Furth Sr. Professor of Law at the University of Michigan. “Antitrust’s Unconventional Politics” https://www.virginialawreview.org/articles/antitrusts-unconventional-politics/)sw

A final reason that the politics of antitrust sometimes confound conventional left–right divides has to do with the pragmatic sense that some regulatory interventions may be necessary to preserve capitalism politically, and that antitrust may be the least objectionable one. This “antitrust or else” perspective has characterized the politics of antitrust from the beginning. The conventional view that Congress intended the Sherman Act to seriously undermine the trusts is balderdash. According to Professor Merle Fainsod and Lincoln Gordon of Harvard University, “[T]he Republican Party, in control of the 51st Congress, was ‘itself dominated at the time by many of the very industrial magnates most vulnerable to real antitrust legislation.’”[87] A more realistic view is that the 51st Congress passed the Sherman Act to avert more radical reforms. Speaking on the Senate floor in 1890, Senator John Sherman warned his brethren, many of whom were controlled by the trusts, that Congress “must heed [the public’s] appeal or be ready for the socialist, the communist, and the nihilist.”[88] Sherman thus conceived of his eponymous antitrust statute as politically necessary to diffuse more radical political movements—as a sort of Band-Aid on capitalism. The idea that antitrust legislation and enforcement are necessary accommodations to public demand has a long pedigree in both conservative and more progressive circles. Writing in 1914, William Howard Taft described the Sherman Act as “a step taken by Congress to meet what the public had found to be a growing and intolerable evil.”[89] Notably, Taft did not own the public’s concern himself, nor did he attribute such a concern to Congress. Similarly, Theodore Roosevelt was relatively unconcerned with the trusts personally, but he “saw the trust problem as something that must be dealt with on the political level; public concern about it was too urgent to be ignored [90] Beyond the concern that, absent antitrust, capitalism itself might succumb to reformist pressures, there is a more modest possibility that, absent antitrust, political pressures would lead to overregulation. Antitrust and administrative regulation are conventionally viewed as alternatives to address market failures. From the Reagan Administration to the Financial Crisis of 2008, the overall arc of American law involved simultaneous deregulation and relaxation of antitrust enforcement. If popular dissatisfaction with the economic status quo grows, demand might grow to pull either the regulatory or antitrust lever. Those ideologically committed to a light governmental hand on the market might prefer the antitrust alternative. It is hard to judge at any given moment how much political support for antitrust intervention is motivated by genuine concern over monopoly and competition, and how much of it derives from the fact that, in the face of popular demand for a governmental cure to a perceived evil, it is often easier to delegate the solution to antitrust than to propose a regulatory solution. From the Sherman Act forward, however, it is certain that antitrust has often been deployed as a foil to more interventionist forms of regulation. The ideological and political implications of that move are complex and not neatly housed in left–right categories.

#### Capitalism is unsustainable and guarantees extinction

Molisa ‘14 (Pala Basil Mera, “Accounting For Apocalypse Re-Thinking Social Accounting Theory And Practice For Our Time Of Social Crises And Ecological Collapse,” <http://researcharchive.vuw.ac.nz/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10063/3686/thesis.pdf?sequence=2>)

Ecologically too, the situation is dire. Of the many measures of ecological well-being – topsoil loss, groundwater depletion, chemical contamination, increased toxicity levels in human beings, the number and size of “dead zones” in the Earth’s oceans, and the accelerating rate of species extinction and loss of biodiversity – the increasing evidence suggests that the developmental trajectory of the dominant economic culture necessarily causes the mass extermination of non-human communities, the systemic destruction and disruption of natural habitats, and could ultimately cause catastrophic destruction of the biosphere. The latest Global Environmental Outlook Report published by the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP), the GEO-5 report, makes for sobering reading. As in earlier reports, the global trends portrayed are of continuing human population growth, expanding economic growth,6 and as a consequence severe forms of ecological degradation (UNEP, 2012; see also, UNEP, 1997, 1999, 2002, 2007). The ecological reality described is of ecological drawdown (deforestation, over-fishing, water extraction, etc.) (UNEP, 2012, pp. 72, 68, 84, 102-106, ); increasing toxicity of the environment through chemical and waste pollution, with severe harm caused to human and non-human communities alike (pp. 173- 179); systematic habitat destruction (pp. 8, 68-84) and climate change (33-60), which have decimated the number of species on Earth, threatening many with outright extinction (pp. 139-158). The most serious ecological threat on a global scale is climate disruption, caused by the emission of greenhouse gases from burning fossil fuels, other industrial activities, and land destruction (UNEP, 2012, p. 32). The GEO-5 report states that “[d]espite attempts to develop low-carbon economies in a number of countries, atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases continue to increase to levels likely to push global temperatures beyond the internationally agreed limit of 2° C above the pre-industrial average temperature” (UNEP, 2012, p. 32). Concentrations of atmospheric methane have more than doubled from preindustrial levels, reaching approximately 1826 ppb in 2012; the scientific consensus is that this increase is very likely due predominantly to agriculture and fossil fuel use (IPCC, 2007). Scientists warn that the Earth’s ecosystems are nearing catastrophic “tipping points” that will be marked by mass extinctions and unpredictable changes on a scale unseen since the glaciers retreated twelve thousand years ago (Pappas, 2012). Twenty-two eminent scientists warned recently in the journal, Nature, that humans are likely to have triggered a planetary-scale critical transition “with the potential to transform Earth rapidly and irreversibly into a state unknown in human experience”, which means that “the biological resources we take for granted at present may be subject to rapid and unpredictable transformations within a few human generations” (Barnofsky et al., 2012). This means that human beings are in serious trouble, not only in the future, but right now. The pre-industrial level of carbon dioxide concentration was about 280 parts per million (ppm). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) estimates concentrations could reach between 541 and 970 ppm by the year 2100. However, many climate scientists consider that levels should be kept below 350 ppm in order to avoid “irreversible catastrophic effects” (Hansen et al., 2008). “Catastrophic warming of the earth” would mean a planet that is too hot for life – that is, any life, and all life (Mrasek, 2008). We need to analyze the above information and ask the simple questions: what does it signify and where will it lead? In terms of the social crises of inequalities, the pattern of human development suggests clearly that although capitalism is capable of raising the economic productivity of many countries as well as international trade, it also produces social injustices on a global scale. The trajectory of capitalist economic development that people appear locked into is of perpetual growth that also produces significant human and social suffering. In terms of the ecological situation, the mounting evidence from reports, such as those published by UNEP, suggest that a full-scale ecocide will eventuate and that a global holocaust is in progress which is socially pathological and biocidal in its scope (UNEP, 2012; see also, UNEP, 1997, 1999, 2002, 2007). Assuming the trends do not change, the endpoint of this trajectory of perpetual economic growth, ecological degradation, systemic pollution, mass species extinction and runaway climate change, which human beings appear locked into, will be climate apocalypse and complete biotic collapse. Given the serious and life-threatening implications of these social and ecological crises outlined above, it would be reasonable to expect they should be central to academic concerns, particularly given the responsibilities of academics as intellectuals. As the people whom society subsidizes to carry out intellectual work,7 the primary task of academics is to carry out research that might enable people to deepen their understanding of how the world operates, ideally towards the goal of shaping a world that is more consistent with moral and political principles, and the collective self-interest (Jensen, 2013, p. 43). Given that most people’s stated philosophical and theological systems are rooted in concepts of justice, equality and the inherent dignity of all people (Jensen, 2007, p. 30), intellectuals have a particular responsibility to call attention to those social patterns of inequality which appear to be violations of such principles, and to call attention to the destructive ecological patterns that threaten individual and collective well-being. As a “critic and conscience of society,” 8 one task of intellectuals is to identify issues that people should all pay attention to, even when – indeed, especially when – people would rather ignore the issues (Jensen, 2013, p. 5). In view of this, intellectuals today should be focusing attention on the hard-to-face realities of an unjust and unsustainable world. Moreover, intellectuals in a democratic society, as its “critic and conscience”, should serve as sources of independent and critical information, analyses and varied opinions, in an endeavour to provide a meaningful role in the formation of public policy (Jensen, 2013c). In order to fulfil this obligation as “critic and conscience,” intellectuals need to be willing to critique not only particular people, organizations, and policies, but also the systems from which they emerge. In other words, intellectuals have to be willing to engage in radical critique. Generally, the term “radical” tends to suggest images of extremes, danger, violence, and people eager to tear things down (Jensen, 2007, p. 29). Radical, however, has a more classical meaning. It comes from the Latin –radix, meaning “root.” Radical critique in this light means critique or analysis that gets to the root of the problem. Given that the patterns of social inequality and ecocidal destruction outlined above are not the product of a vacuum, but instead are the product of social systems, radical critique simply means forms of social analysis, which are not only concerned about these social and ecological injustices but also trace them to the social systems from which they emerged, which would subject these very systems to searching critiques. Such searching critique is challenging because, generally, the dominant groups which tend to subsidize intellectuals (universities, think tanks, government, corporations) are the key agents of the social systems that produce inequalities and destroy ecosystems (Jensen, 2013, p. 12). The more intellectuals choose not only to identify patterns but also highlight the pathological systems from which they emerge, the greater the tension with whoever “pay[s] the bills” (ibid.).

#### The alternative is to affirm the dual power model of the Communist Party – only the Party can provide effective accountability mechanisms to correct unproductive tendencies, educate and mobilize marginalized communities, and connect local struggles to a movement for international liberation

Escalante 18 (Alyson Escalante is a Marxist-Leninist, Materialist Feminist and Anti-Imperialist activist. “PARTY ORGANIZING IN THE 21ST CENTURY” September 21st, 2018 <https://theforgenews.org/2018/09/21/party-organizing-in-the-21st-century/>)

I would argue that within the base building movement, there is a move towards party organizing, but this trend has not always been explicitly theorized or forwarded within the movement. My goal in this essay is to argue that base building and dual power strategy can be best forwarded through party organizing, and that party organizing can allow this emerging movement to solidify into a powerful revolutionary socialist tendency in the United States. One of the crucial insights of the base building movement is that the current state of the left in the United States is one in which revolution is not currently possible. There exists very little popular support for socialist politics. A century of anticommunist propaganda has been extremely effective in convincing even the most oppressed and marginalized that communism has nothing to offer them. The base building emphasis on dual power responds directly to this insight. By building institutions which can meet people’s needs, we are able to concretely demonstrate that communists can offer the oppressed relief from the horrific conditions of capitalism. Base building strategy recognizes that actually doing the work to serve the people does infinitely more to create a socialist base of popular support than electing democratic socialist candidates or holding endless political education classes can ever hope to do. Dual power is about proving that we have something to offer the oppressed. The question, of course, remains: once we have built a base of popular support, what do we do next? If it turns out that establishing socialist institutions to meet people’s needs does in fact create sympathy towards the cause of communism, how can we mobilize that base? Put simply: in order to mobilize the base which base builders hope to create, we need to have already done the work of building a communist party. It is not enough to simply meet peoples needs. Rather, we must build the institutions of dual power in the name of communism. We must refuse covert front organizing and instead have a public face as a communist party. When we build tenants unions, serve the people programs, and other dual power projects, we must make it clear that we are organizing as communists, unified around a party, and are not content simply with establishing endless dual power organizations. We must be clear that our strategy is revolutionary and in order to make this clear we must adopt party organizing. By “party organizing” I mean an organizational strategy which adopts the party model. Such organizing focuses on building a party whose membership is formally unified around a party line determined by democratic centralist decision making. The party model creates internal methods for holding party members accountable, unifying party member action around democratically determined goals, and for educating party members in communist theory and praxis. A communist organization utilizing the party model works to build dual power institutions while simultaneously educating the communities they hope to serve. Organizations which adopt the party model focus on propagandizing around the need for revolutionary socialism. They function as the forefront of political organizing, empowering local communities to theorize their liberation through communist theory while organizing communities to literally fight for their liberation. A party is not simply a group of individuals doing work together, but is a formal organization unified in its fight against capitalism. Party organizing has much to offer the base building movement. By working in a unified party, base builders can ensure that local struggles are tied to and informed by a unified national and international strategy. While the most horrific manifestations of capitalism take on particular and unique form at the local level, we need to remember that our struggle is against a material base which functions not only at the national but at the international level. The formal structures provided by a democratic centralist party model allow individual locals to have a voice in open debate, but also allow for a unified strategy to emerge from democratic consensus.

### T

#### “Private sector” means all non-governmental persons or entities

Senate Report 95 (Senate Report. 104-1, “UNFUNDED MANDATE REFORM ACT OF 1995,” <https://www.congress.gov/congressional-report/104th-congress/senate-report/1> , date accessed 9/10/21)

"Private sector" is defined to cover all persons or entities in the United States except for State, local or tribal governments. It includes individuals, partnerships, associations, corporations, and educational and nonprofit institutions.

#### Violation – the aff’s standard only applies to a particular industry

#### Vote neg – limits and ground---the number of potential subsets is infinite---any industry, product, single companies, individuals---undermines clash. Only big affs have link uniqueness

#### New, undisclosed affs are bad –

#### A – Education–preparation enables more effective research, clash, and depth–new Affs only have negative educational externalities—forces zero-sum choices between flowing and reading the 1AC or using lots of prep at the expense of the 2NR

#### B – Fairness–the Neg is already at a strategic disadvantage with aff choice, first/last speech, and infinite prep—adding new affs uniquely tilts the playing field against teams with fewer resources

#### Disclosing the aff when we ask after the pairing rewards new research while allowing some neg prep. It at least justifies multiple conditionality, other positions, and justifies new block arguments

# On

### Competition

#### Anti-trust is capitalist---faith in the magic of competition inevitably replicates market collapse.

Richard Wolff 19 Professor Emeritus of Economics at University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Transcript from YouTube video: “Economic Update: Competition and Monopoly in Capitalism.” Democracy @ Work. December 9th, 2019. https://www.democracyatwork.info/eu\_competition\_monopoly\_in\_capitalism.

Today I'm going to devote the program to something many of you have asked me to present, to talk about, to analyze, and that is the question of monopoly. It has to do with the assertions we hear often these days that somehow our capitalist system, here in the United States and beyond, is being negatively affected because monopolies have replaced or displaced competition. The idea here is if only we can get competition back, recreate a competitive capitalism, why then the problems we face will go away. Today's program is a design to show you how and why that is not the case, to think about these things in a different way from this nice story that capitalism is basically fine; it's just the monopoly form we have to get rid of so we get back to the competition which we're all supposed to believe is wonderful and presents us with no problems to solve. So let's go, and let's do it in a systematic way. First, it is of course easier, faced with a declining capitalism, a capitalism that's all around us with its extreme inequalities, with its instabilities – here we are, trying to cope with the effects of the Great Crash of 2008, even while we anticipate the next downturn coming down the road soon – an economic system that has shown (that is, capitalism) that it is not respectful of the natural environment; it is not, as the words now go, sustainable in a reasonable way. Yeah, we're surrounded by problems of capitalism. So it's comforting in that situation to get the idea from somewhere that this really isn't a problem of capitalism as a system but rather the problem brought in somehow from the outside – monopoly – a situation in which competition among many companies gives way in some way we're not quite sure about to a domination by one or a small handful of companies. And so the argument goes, we don't have to be critical of capitalism; we don't have to think about an alternative system. No, no, we just have to deal with this little detail, the monopoly problem. And if we can deal with that, well, we'll get back to a competition, to a competitive capitalism that is good. There are three big mistakes involved in this way of thinking, which is nonetheless very widespread and very popular, more so now than in quite some years. First mistake: Capitalism has been wrestling with the problem of monopoly from day one. We have had repeated periods of monopoly. They have eventually led to movements, often of many people, to destroy or remove monopoly. We used to call that in America trust-busting, or antitrust. We even have a department within the Department of Justice in Washington devoted to antitrust activities. Yeah, we've been waging battles against monopoly over and over again, and you know why? Because we keep having monopolies over and over again. Google is a monopoly. Amazon is a monopoly. They're all around us: companies that have effectively no real competition. This is a problem that capitalism has always displayed. And that ought to lead you to wonder whether thinking about it as something we can do away with isn't maybe the best possible example of wishful thinking. The second big mistake is to imagine that competition is some unmixed blessing. It never was, and it isn't today. A competitive market is a human institution. Like every other human institution, it has strengths, and flaws, and weaknesses. To think of competition as some magical perfection is a silly abnegation of your own rational capability to evaluate something. It's sort of advertising thinking. By that, I mean the advertiser tells you what's good about the product they've been told to advertise; they don't tell you what's bad about it. If you want to evaluate it, you don't talk to an advertiser because they only give you one side. The people who promote competition use advertising logic. We're not going to do that here. Competition is no unmixed blessing. And finally, I'm going to show you that competition is itself the major cause of monopoly. So that even if we ever got back to a competitive capitalism, all that would mean is we're back in the process that produces monopoly – as it always has. All right, so let's begin. I'm going to start with explaining how competition has all kinds of consequences that most of you, like me, don't like, don't want. It's a discussion, if you like, of competition's other side: you know, the part that the advertiser doesn't tell you about. The used-car salesman who wants you to buy that junk doesn't tell you about what happened last week in the car crash that that was part of, etc., etc. All right, let's begin. One of the major reasons that American corporations shut down their operations in the United States and moved them to China, among other places, is because of – you guessed it – competition. They wanted to make more money than they had been before. They were afraid of other companies beating them in the competitive game, so they said wow, let's go to China, because there you can pay workers a lot less. There you don't have the same rules to obey. There they don't care that much about pollution as they do here. So we can save on all kinds of costs, and that will allow us to undercut our competitors. Yeah, one of the consequences of competition was the exodus of American companies to other parts of the world, and the enormous unemployment that resulted from it. Yeah, that was a result, among other things, of competition. Here's another one: Capitalists, employers, seeking to compete with one another, often engage in what we call automation. They bring in machines that are cheaper to use than human laborers, and that gets them a step ahead of their competitors. Okay, if we replace people with machines, we throw those people out of work. That has an impact on them, their self-esteem, their relationship to their spouse, their relationship to their children, their relationship to alcohol – should I continue? What are the social costs of automation? They're huge. They've been documented over and over again. Competition provokes and produces automation. Let me give you another example: Companies are competing, say, in the food business – you know, trying to get a customer like you or me to buy this kind of cereal rather than another. So they get their labs to go to work, and they discover we can replace wheat, which we used to put in our little flakes, with – Lord help us – some chemical that is cheaper than wheat. We're not going to worry about what that chemical does to your chemistry in your body because we can now lower the price of our cereal, because we're saving on wheat, and undercut the competitor. The human beings who eat this stuff will suffer, now and in the future, but competition left our producer of cereal no choice. And in case you think I'm making some up, let me give you some concrete ones. The Boeing Corporation, the major producer of airplanes in this country, is in a crisis as a corporation. You know why? Because the 737 Max crashed a couple of times, killing hundreds of people. And you know why? It turns out they economized on safety measures, and training measures. And you know why they did that? Because they're in a very tight competition with European and other airplane manufacturers, and that leads them – as it usually does – to look to cut corners: that race for, quote, "efficiency." Yeah, it was competition that contributed to those deaths and to that problem. That's competition too. You can't whitewash this story; they're real. One of the ways Amazon beats its competition is it speeds up the work process. It has figured out ways to make people work much more intensely, using up their brains, their muscles, their nerves, in ways that cause real long-term physical damage to working people. That, too, is a result of the competitive effort. And you know, it wasn't so long ago that children were part of the labor force. That's right, kids as young as five and six years of age. We were told they have little fingers, you see. They can be more productive than people who are adults with big fat fingers, you know – that doesn't work. And by the way, you should be grateful because poor kids are the ones we hire, and that gives their poor families more income than they would otherwise have. We heard those arguments. Competition, the companies said, required them to use the more productive, and the lower-wage, children rather than adults. So child labor was also a result of competition. It was so ugly and so troubling to so many people that finally there were movements in the United States and many other countries simply to outlaw child labor. So it became a crime for any employer to use a worker who was under 16 or 18 years of age. That was a way in which people said we are not going to allow competition among capitalists to destroy our children. They were recognizing that competition has an awful effect in what it does to children. Well, it has many awful effects. So let's be clear: In the history of capitalism, the monopoly problem (which we're going to get to in the second half of today's program) is no worse, it's just different, from the competition problems. Capitalism goes through phases of competition and monopoly, going from one to the other, as I will explain. But we shouldn't bemoan the one in favor of the other, any more than vice-versa. These are neither of them solutions; they are both phases of the problem. And the problem is capitalism, which does its number on us both in the period when it's competitive and in the period when it's monopoly. People who want us to engage one more time in an anti-monopoly crusade are doing something that in the end evades the problem, which is the system – capitalism – not this or that form of that system, such as competition and monopoly. We've come to the end of the first half of today's Economic Update. This gives me an opportunity to remind you, please, to sign up if you haven't already, to subscribe to our YouTube channel. It's a way easily for you to support us, doesn't cost any money, and it is a big help to us in terms of our reputation and what we can accomplish. Likewise, please make use of our websites. They are there for your communication with us. They are there for you to be able to, with a click of a mouse, to follow us on Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram. And finally, a special thanks goes, as always, to our Patreon community for their ongoing enthusiastic support. It means the world to us. My final, very final for this first half, is about a new book that we have just produced and released. It's a follow-up to an earlier volume I have spoken to you about that was called Understanding Marxism. For the same reason, we have now produced a brand-new book, just out, called Understanding Socialism. It is a response, as this program is, to issues, questions, comments you have sent to us in large numbers. It's an attempt to give an overview of the different interpretations of what socialism means, of what happened in countries like Russia and China that tried to create this – the strengths, the weaknesses, the lessons to be learned, what to do, and what not to do. Please, if you're interested and want to follow up, check us out, check the book out: lulu.com is how you find both books. And I will be right back; stay with us. Welcome back, friends, to the second half of today's Economic Update. This program, as I explained, is devoted to the analysis of competition and monopoly as two interactive, sequential phases of capitalism as a system. The first part of the program was devoted mostly to competition, so let's turn now to monopoly. What is the basic definition and criticism of monopoly? Strictly speaking, monopoly is defined simply as a situation in which the producers of a particular commodity – shoes, software programs, haircuts, it doesn't matter – have been reduced to only one. Literally one seller – a monopolist. But in general language, it includes also situations where many producers who once competed with one another have been reduced to only a handful. The strict term for only a handful is "oligopoly," but we don't have to split hairs about this. "Monopoly" will be the word we use for either one or a very small number. For example, there were once dozens of automobile companies, but very quickly their competition reduced them to basically three for much of the post-World War II period, and you know their names: Ford, General Motors, and Chrysler. And likewise there were once many cigarette producers, there were once many television-set producers, and they became very few, whose names, therefore, we all know. What's the criticism of a monopoly or oligopoly situation? Again, very simple: The idea is, if there's only one seller of something, that seller can jack up the price way above what he might have otherwise because he doesn't have any competitor. If he had a competitor, if he raised the price, the competitor would get all the business because we'd all go to the competitor who hadn't raised the price rather than buy it at a higher price from the monopolist. So we don't like monopolies, because they can jack up their prices and their profits because they don't have a competitor. And if it's a few, a handful, well then we talk about things like cartels: arrangements when a few get together over dinner, or out on the golf course, and tell us what the price is. If you ever wondered why the prices of different cars, different cigarettes, and so on, are so close to one another – mm-hmm – that's because there are few sellers, and somehow they worked it all out. But the basic criticism is that a monopoly is a situation in which the seller of something jacks the price up way beyond what they could otherwise get because there are no more competitors. So let's talk about this monopoly problem and where the monopolies come from. Well, the first and most important lesson is this: Competition produces monopoly. It's not something external, imposed on competition. It has nothing to do with human greed or anything else. Are people greedy? You betcha – some more, some less – but that's really a separate matter. It's competition that produces monopoly, and let me show you how that works. In competition, we have, by definition, a whole bunch of producers. They all produce the same thing. They compete with one another, hoping we, the consumer, will buy from one rather than the other. They compete in the quality of what they produce and in the price of what they produce. And we are supposed, as consumers, to go look for the best quality at the lowest price, and to patronize that one who offers that to us better than the others that we could buy from but choose not to. Okay, that's a fair definition. Now let's follow the logic. Company A produces – however it manages it – a better quality and/or a lower price than Company B. So we all go to Company A. Company B can't find any buyers because it's not competitive. Or to say the same thing in other words, Company A outcompetes Company B. Here's what happens: Company B collapses. Because it can't sell its goods, we're all going to Company A. So Company B sooner or later declares bankruptcy. It can't continue. It lays off its employees, it stops buying inputs, because it can't compete. Good. Now what happens in Company A? Company A says hey, there's a whole bunch of workers that have just lost their job at Company B; they're trained in producing what we produce; let's go hire some of them. And likewise, Company A says, they're not using their computers, or their trucks, or their other inputs. They're going to have to sell them on the secondhand market. We can get some important inputs we need at a lower price than we would have to pay if we bought them new. So what begins to happen is, where before there were two companies, A and B, there's now one larger A, and B has disappeared. Or to say the same thing in simple English, A – the winner in the competitive struggle – eats, absorbs into itself, what's left of Company B. And this process is repeated over and over, until 30, or 300, companies have become one, or two, or three. That's the result of competition. That's how competition is supposed to work. That's how competition does work. It's important to understand: Monopoly is where competition leads. And as if that weren't enough, let me make sure you understand this from the business point of view: It is the great dream of every entrepreneur to become the last one standing in the competition, to win the competition, not just because it makes you feel good you outmaneuvered your competitors, but because if you're the last one standing, you're the monopolist. The reward for having outcompeted the others is that you're now in a position to jack up the profits, and the prices, way beyond what you could have done before. So we have a system that produces monopoly, and all the incentives for every entrepreneur in competition to work as hard as possible to become the monopolist. So why is anyone surprised that monopolies keep happening, because they're the whole point and purpose of capitalist competition. If you ever were – and we never have, but if you ever were – able to get rid of all the monopolies and re-establish competition, all you would be doing is setting this same process in motion again for the umpteenth historical time. In other words, fighting against monopoly is pointless as long as you have capitalism, because it is the endless reproducer of this problem – as it always has been. Now, how do monopolies maintain themselves? If you're the only one standing, you're a monopolist. Or you're an oligopoly, you're a few, and you get together and jack up your prices together. The question becomes look, a monopolist makes very high profits – much higher than a competitor can achieve – and isn't that an enormous incentive for other capitalists to get in on that business? Because look at the profits they're earning, because they're the only one. Apple, Amazon, Google – the profits are staggering. Everybody wants to get in. So the way a monopolist has to think is, I've got to create obstacles that block other people from coming in to get a piece of the enormous profits my monopoly allows me to get. We call that in economics "barriers to entry." Monopolists need to create barriers. Let me give you a couple of examples. The major soft drink makers in the United States – basically Coca-Cola and Pepsi Cola – they produce a drink that has sugar and coloring in it, and lots and lots of water. Let me assure you, there is nothing difficult or complicated about producing a mixture of sugar, color, and water. It doesn't take a genius; it never did. Pepsi and Coca-Cola make a fortune off of their product, as we know, and they have for decades. They have a virtual monopoly. Now, lots of other people could produce water, sugar, and color close to, if not identical with, whatever they produce, but they can't break through. They can't really get to that status. And you know why? Because Coca-Cola and Pepsi erected a barrier to entry. And the way they did that was with advertising. Every billboard, every magazine cover, every doorway of every institution you've ever been to has a picture of smiling, happy people drinking one or the other. You've learned: that's the drink, that's the drink. Another company might make a perfect substitute, but they can't afford the enormous cost of advertising. The advertising costs more than the water, and the sugar, and the color. What you pay for when you buy Pepsi and Coke is the advertising that got you to buy it. You're paying for being hustled. But it works, because it means other companies know that they can't get in there by cheaply producing an alternative, because you have to produce the advertising that goes with it, or else you can't do it. And so their monopoly is maintained. Here's another way to maintain a monopoly: Get the government to step in. Here the famous example is the milk producers. Some years ago, there was a crisis with milk. There was contamination; people were getting sick. So the clever milk monopolies came in and said, we're going to support the enormously expensive, special equipment to guarantee pasteurization, and so on, of milk. Why did they support it? Because your small farmer, your small dairy producer, can't afford it, so they go out of business. Only the big, rich few that are left can afford the enormous equipment. They used governmental rules to create a barrier to entry. Here's another way: corrupt public officials. President Trump denounces Huawei corporation because it compromises our national security. It denounces European car producers because somehow their shipping cars here compromises our security. Who cares? As long as the president blocks other companies from getting into the business that might compete with an American, a barrier to entry exists. Monopolists have been very creative in coming up with ways to preserve their monopolies. I don't want to lose the basic point. The basic point is: Capitalism oscillates, back and forth between competition and monopoly – first this industry, then that one. For a while, Ford, General Motors, and Chrysler were the monopolies – or the oligopoly, if you like – in automobiles. But eventually, Toyota, and Nissan, and Peugeot, and Fiat broke the monopoly. In that case, it was foreigners who did it. And then we had some competition, and that, then, is now shrinking. The French – the last two producers in France – have just agreed to merge. You get the picture. Industry by industry, first this one, then that one, go through one phase or another. The important point is: The phases are not our problem. They merge into, and incentivize, each other. Each provokes movement in the other direction. The point to understand is that the problems of a capitalist system are not about this oscillation of phases. We're not going to solve the problem of monopoly by getting rid of them and re-establishing competition. We've been there; we've done that; it reproduces monopoly; and it doesn't change the basic inequality, unsustainability, instability of capitalism. We need to get beyond that stale, old debate – competition versus monopoly – and face the underlying reality: Capitalism is the problem, and getting beyond it is the solution.

#### Capital mystifies its contradictions by finding capitalist “solutions” to its own problems. We deregulate when

# Extra

#### Reducing existential risk by even a tiny amount outweighs every other impact

Bostrom 11 — Nick Bostrom, Professor in the Faculty of Philosophy & Oxford Martin School, Director of the Future of Humanity Institute, and Director of the Programme on the Impacts of Future Technology at the University of Oxford, recipient of the 2009 Eugene R. Gannon Award for the Continued Pursuit of Human Advancement, holds a Ph.D. in Philosophy from the London School of Economics, 2011 (“The Concept of Existential Risk,” Draft of a Paper published on ExistentialRisk.com, Available Online at http://www.existentialrisk.com/concept.html, Accessed 07-04-2011)

Holding probability constant, risks become more serious as we move toward the upper-right region of figure 2. For any fixed probability, existential risks are thus more serious than other risk categories. But just how much more serious might not be intuitively obvious. One might think we could get a grip on how bad an existential catastrophe would be by considering some of the worst historical disasters we can think of—such as the two world wars, the Spanish flu pandemic, or the Holocaust—and then imagining something just a bit worse. Yet if we look at global population statistics over time, we find that these horrible events of the past century fail to register (figure 3). [Graphic Omitted] Figure 3: World population over the last century. Calamities such as the Spanish flu pandemic, the two world wars, and the Holocaust scarcely register. (If one stares hard at the graph, one can perhaps just barely make out a slight temporary reduction in the rate of growth of the world population during these events.) But even this reflection fails to bring out the seriousness of existential risk. What makes existential catastrophes especially bad is not that they would show up robustly on a plot like the one in figure 3, causing a precipitous drop in world population or average quality of life. Instead, their significance lies primarily in the fact that they would destroy the future. The philosopher Derek Parfit made a similar point with the following thought experiment: I believe that if we destroy mankind, as we now can, this outcome will be much worse than most people think. Compare three outcomes: (1) Peace. (2) A nuclear war that kills 99% of the world’s existing population. (3) A nuclear war that kills 100%. (2) would be worse than (1), and (3) would be worse than (2). Which is the greater of these two differences? Most people believe that the greater difference is between (1) and (2). I believe that the difference between (2) and (3) is very much greater. … The Earth will remain habitable for at least another billion years. Civilization began only a few thousand years ago. If we do not destroy mankind, these few thousand years may be only a tiny fraction of the whole of civilized human history. The difference between (2) and (3) may thus be the difference between this tiny fraction and all of the rest of this history. If we compare this possible history to a day, what has occurred so far is only a fraction of a second. (10: 453-454) To calculate the loss associated with an existential catastrophe, we must consider how much value would come to exist in its absence. It turns out that the ultimate potential for Earth-originating intelligent life is literally astronomical. One gets a large number even if one confines one’s consideration to the potential for biological human beings living on Earth. If we suppose with Parfit that our planet will remain habitable for at least another billion years, and we assume that at least one billion people could live on it sustainably, then the potential exist for at least 10^(18) human lives. These lives could also be considerably better than the average contemporary human life, which is so often marred by disease, poverty, injustice, and various biological limitations that could be partly overcome through continuing technological and moral progress. However, the relevant figure is not how many people could live on Earth but how many descendants we could have in total. One lower bound of the number of biological human life-years in the future accessible universe (based on current cosmological estimates) is 1034 years.[10] Another estimate, which assumes that future minds will be mainly implemented in computational hardware instead of biological neuronal wetware, produces a lower bound of 1054 human-brain-emulation subjective life-years (or 1071 basic computational operations).(4)[11] If we make the less conservative assumption that future civilizations could eventually press close to the absolute bounds of known physics (using some as yet unimagined technology), we get radically higher estimates of the amount of computation and memory storage that is achievable and thus of the number of years of subjective experience that could be realized.[12] Even if we use the most conservative of these estimates, which entirely ignores the possibility of space colonization and software minds, we find that the expected loss of an existential catastrophe is greater than the value of 10^(18) human lives. This implies that the expected value of reducing existential risk by a mere one millionth of one percentage point is at least ten times the value of a billion human lives. The more technologically comprehensive estimate of 1054 human-brain-emulation subjective life-years (or 1052 lives of ordinary length) makes the same point even more starkly. Even if we give this allegedly lower bound on the cumulative output potential of a technologically mature civilization a mere 1% chance of being correct, we find that the expected value of reducing existential risk by a mere one billionth of one billionth of one percentage point is worth a hundred billion times as much as a billion human lives. One might consequently argue that even the tiniest reduction of existential risk has an expected value greater than that of the definite provision of any “ordinary” good, such as the direct benefit of saving 1 billion lives. And, further, that the absolute value of the indirect effect of saving 1 billion lives on the total cumulative amount of existential risk—positive or negative—is almost certainly larger than the positive value of the direct benefit of such an action.[13]

#### Consequences first – focus on morality is complicity with injustice

Issac 2 (Jeffrey C. Isaac, James H. Rudy Professor of Political Science and Director of the Center for the Study of Democracy and Public Life at Indiana University, Spring 2002, Dissent, Vol. 49, No. 2)

As writers such as Niccolo Machiavelli, Max Weber, Reinhold Niebuhr, and Hannah Arendt have taught, an unyielding concern with moral goodness undercuts political responsibility. The concern may be morally laudable, reflecting a kind of personal integrity, but it suffers from three fatal flaws: (1) It fails to see that the purity of one's intention does not ensure the achievement of what one intends. Abjuring violence or refusing to make common cause with morally compromised parties may seem like the right thing; but if such tactics entail impotence, then it is hard to view them as serving any moral good beyond the clean conscience of their supporters; (2) it fails to see that **in a world of real violence** and injustice, **moral purity is** not simply a form of powerlessness; it is often a form of complicity in injustice. This is why, from the standpoint of politics--as opposed to religion--pacifism is always a potentially immoral stand. In categorically repudiating violence, it refuses in principle to oppose certain violent injustices with any effect; and (3) it fails to see that politics is as much about unintended consequences as it is about intentions; **it is the effects of action, rather than the motives of action, that is most significant.** Just as the alignment with "good" may engender impotence, it is often the pursuit of "good" that generates evil. This is the lesson of communism in the twentieth century: it is not enough that one's goals be sincere or idealistic; it is equally important, always, to ask about the effects of pursuing these goals and to judge these effects in pragmatic and historically contextualized ways. Moral absolutism inhibits this judgment. It alienates those who are not true believers. It promotes arrogance. And it undermines political effectiveness.

#### Extinction is a distinct ontological category that must be prevented.

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Mass extinction is not simply extinction (or death) writ large: it is a qualitatively different phenomena that demands its own ethical categories. It cannot be grasped by aggregating species extinctions, let alone the deaths of individual organisms. Not only does it erase diverse, irreplaceable life forms, their unique histories and open-ended possibilities, but it threatens the ontological conditions of Earthly life. IR is one of few disciplines that is explicitly devoted to the pursuit of survival, yet it has almost nothing to say in the face of a possible mass extinction event.62 It utterly lacks the conceptual and ethical frameworks necessary to foster diverse, meaningful responses to this phenomenon. As mentioned above, Cold-War era concepts such as ‘nuclear winter’ and ‘omnicide’ gesture towards harms massive in their scale and moral horror. However, they are asymptotic: they imagine nightmares of a severely denuded planet, yet they do not contemplate the comprehensive negation that a mass extinction event entails. In contemporary IR discourses, where it appears at all, extinction is treated as a problem of scientific management and biopolitical control aimed at securing existing human lifestyles.63 Once again, this approach fails to recognise the reality of extinction, which is a matter of being and nonbeing, not one of life and death processes. Confronting the enormity of a possible mass extinction event requires a total overhaul of human perceptions of what is at stake in the disruption of the conditions of Earthly life. The question of what is ‘lost’ in extinction has, since the inception of the concept of ‘conservation’, been addressed in terms of financial cost and economic liabilities.64 Beyond reducing life to forms to capital, currencies and financial instruments, the dominant neoliberal political economy of conservation imposes a homogenising, Western secular worldview on a planetary phenomenon. Yet the enormity, complexity, and scale of mass extinction is so huge that humans need to draw on every possible resource in order to find ways of responding. This means that they need to mobilise multiple worldviews and lifeways – including those emerging from indigenous and marginalized cosmologies. Above all, it is crucial and urgent to realise that extinction is a matter of global ethics. It is not simply an issue of management or security, or even of particular visions of the good life. Instead, it is about staking a claim as to the goodness of life itself. If it does not fit within the existing parameters of global ethics, then it is these boundaries that need to change. 9. An Earth-worldly politics. Humans are worldly – that is, we are fundamentally worldforming and embedded in multiple worlds that traverse the Earth. However, the Earth is not ‘our’ world, as the grand theories of IR, and some accounts of the Anthropocene have it – an object and possession to be appropriated, circumnavigated, instrumentalised and englobed.65 Rather, it is a complex of worlds that we share, co-constitute, create, destroy and inhabit with countless other life forms and beings. The formation of the Anthropocene reflects a particular type of worlding, one in which the Earth is treated as raw material for the creation of a world tailored to human needs. Heidegger famously framed ‘earth’ and ‘world’ as two countervailing, conflicting forces that constrain and shape one another. We contend that existing political, economic and social conditions have pushed human worlding so far to one extreme that it has become almost entirely detached from the conditions of the Earth. Planet Politics calls, instead, for a mode of worlding that is responsive to, and grounded in, the Earth. The formation of the Anthropocene reflects a particular type of worlding, one in which the Earth is treated as raw material for the creation of a world tailored to human needs. Heidegger famously framed ‘earth’ and ‘world’ as two countervailing, conflicting forces that constrain and shape one another. We contend that existing political, economic and social conditions have pushed human worlding so far to one extreme that it has become almost entirely detached from the conditions of the Earth. Planet Politics calls, instead, for a mode of worlding that is responsive to, and grounded in, the Earth. One of these ways of being Earth-worldly is to embrace the condition of being entangled. We can interpret this term in the way that Heidegger66 did, as the condition of being mired in everyday human concerns, worries, and anxiety, to prolong existence. But, in contrast, we can and should reframe it as authors like Karen Barad67 and Donna Haraway68 have done. To them and many others, ‘entanglement’ is a radical, indeed fundamental condition of being-with, or, as Jean-Luc Nancy puts it, ‘being singular plural’.69 This means that no being is truly autonomous or separate, whether at the scale of international politics or of quantum physics. World itself is singular plural: what humans tend to refer to as ‘the’ world is actually a multiplicity of worlds at various scales that intersect, overlap, conflict, emerge as they surge across the Earth. World emerges from the poetics of existence, the collision of energy and matter, the tumult of agencies, the fusion and diffusion of bonds. Worlds erupt from, and consist in, the intersection of diverse forms of being – material and intangible, organic and inorganic, ‘living’ and ‘nonliving’. Because of the tumultuousness of the Earth with which they are entangled, ‘worlds’ are not static, rigid or permanent. They are permeable and fluid. They can be created, modified – and, of course, destroyed. Concepts of violence, harm and (in)security that focus only on humans ignore at their peril the destruction and severance of worlds,70 which undermines the conditions of plurality that enables life on Earth to thrive. To respond to the destruction of worlds, we need a politics that is Earth-worldly, and an Earth-worldliness that is political. What might this look like? First, humans can acknowledge and embrace worldliness as a fundamental ontological condition and ethical imperative. Being worldly means understanding that we are nurtured, threatened, nourished, and harmed, by profound forces – and that our movements, responses and poetics make a difference to worlds. Humans also need to understand that being-Earthworldly means being-vulnerable along with the other co-constituents of the worlds we inhabit and traverse. Instead of attempting in vain to escape this co-vulnerability, as the global rich attempt to insulate themselves from the worst effects of global warming suffered by the poor – humans need to acknowledge its inescapability. More than this, they need to reframe it as a source of positive solidarity, rather than simply the fearful, clinging, negative solidarity71 forged by survival anxiety. This means acknowledging that being worldly is not an option or a choice, nor is it an obstacle to human ‘progress’ that can be overcome, whether through major projects of terraforming or emerging projects of space colonisation. Instead of confronting worldliness with resentment that prompts nihilistic violence or apathy72 – or, on the other hand, the instrumentalising optimism of eco-modernism73 – this ethico-politics would embrace the conditions, possibilities, and limitations of being-worldly. Second, humans can cultivate gratitude for worldliness and the gifts it confers. We can learn from Nigel Clark74 and other post-Levinasian thinkers, who urge us to acknowledge that humans owe their existence to chains of beings stretching back to the Big Bang (and beyond), and outwards in every direction, across the boundaries of species and all other categories. And, in turn, humans can attempt to give back – to inhabit, protect, nurture, and, yes, kill and consume other beings and worlds – without expecting them to conform to our demands, or exacting promises from them. Being Earth-worldly means embracing the collective threat that is the condition of being. It means engaging in this complex and ultimately finite project with gratitude, attention, resolution, and, above all, with an amor mundi that embraces the Earth – not only human worlds.