# 1AC --- Foreign Transparency --- JCCC

## 1AC --- Foreign Transparency --- v1

### 1AC --- Adv --- TLP

#### Contention 1 is the TLP:

#### The 2nd circuit’s most recent decision expanded exemptions for Chinese export cartels based on post-hoc defenses that undermine transparency

\*The decision was Animal Science Products v. Hebei Welcome Pharmaceuticals (Also called Vitamin C)

Wesley, 21 (Richard C. Wesley is a Judge of the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit. At the time of his appointment in 2003, he was a Judge of the New York Court of Appeals. Judge Wesley received his B.A. degree summa cum laude from the State University of New York at Albany in 1971, and his J.D. degree from Cornell Law School in 1974., 8-10-2021, accessed on 11-29-2021, Cases.justia, "Animal Sci. Prods. v. Hebei Welcome Pharma. Co. Ltd. 2021 Dissenting Opinion", <https://cases.justia.com/federal/appellate-courts/ca2/13-4791/13-4791-2021-08-10.pdf?ts=1628605810)//Babcii>

Did “Chinese law require[] the Chinese sellers’ conduct[?]” Animal Sci. Prods., Inc. v. Hebei Welcome Pharm. Co., 138 S. Ct. 1865, 1875 (2018). **The majority never** really **answers. Instead, it improperly applies** the doctrine of **international comity to avoid a finding it cannot contest: that Chinese law did not require the defendants to fix prices** above the minimum of $3.35/kg, which is what Hebei and NCPG (the “defendants”) did. Because it was not impossible for the defendants to comply with both Chinese and U.S. law, this case should not be dismissed on international comity grounds. See Hartford Fire Ins. Co. v. California, 509 U.S. 764, 799 (1993). Section 1 of the Sherman Act prohibits “[e]very contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several [s]tates, or with foreign nations.” 15 U.S.C. § 1. “[P]rice-fixing agreements are unlawful **per se** under the Sherman Act.” Arizona v. Maricopa Cty. Med. Soc., 457 U.S. 332, 345 (1982). It is well established that § 1 proscribes only concerted, not unilateral, action. See Fisher v. City of Berkeley, Cal., 475 U.S. 260, 266 (1986). “Even where a single firm’s restraints directly affect prices and have the same economic effect as concerted action might have, there can be no liability under § 1 in the absence of agreement [with another, separate entity].” Id. As a threshold matter, the plain text of the regulations and agency charter demonstrates Chinese law did not require the defendants to coordinate vitamin C prices and quantities at all. The 2002 Notice establishing the Price Verification and Chop (“PVC”) system stated “the relevant chambers must . . . submit to [Customs] information on industry-wide negotiated prices.” Sp. App’x 302. The 2003 Announcement explained “the Chambers shall . . . affix the . . . chop . . . to the export contracts at the blocks where the prices and quantities are specified” and “verify the submissions by the exporters based on the industry agreements.” Id. at 310. The Vitamin C Subcommittee, “a self-disciplinary trade organization jointly established on [a] voluntary basis” to, inter alia, “coordinate and guide vitamin C import and export business,” expressly gave members “[f]reedom to withdraw from the Subcommittee” in its amended 2002 Charter. Id. at 325–26. The 2003 Announcement acknowledged **membership was optional**, instructing the Chambers to “give [non-member exporters] the same treatment as to member exporters.” Id. at 311. In other words, under the PVC regime, the defendants were not legally required to engage in any concerted action. They could have complied with Chinese law without violating the Sherman Act by resigning from the Subcommittee and thereby independently setting their prices at or above the industry-coordinated minimum price, abstaining from any “meeting of the minds” to agree on price.1 See Fisher, 475 U.S. at 267. The Ministry and defendants do not dispute this conclusion. The Ministry explicitly agreed that “[u]nder the [Vitamin C Subcommittee’s] 2002 Charter . . . [Subcommittee] membership was no longer necessary to export vitamin C.” Ministry’s Letter Br. at 5. Its argument that “through the PVC system . . . the Chamber . . . ensured that each manufacturer complied with the industry’s price and volume restrictions,” id., does not amount to a violation of the Sherman Act. See Fisher, 475 U.S. at 267 (holding that “the mere fact that all competing property owners must comply with the same provisions of the [city’s rent control] [o]rdinance is not enough to establish a conspiracy among landlords”). The defendants concede members were able to freely resign, but contend they could not because they were members of the executive “Council” elected to four-year terms. See Appellants’ Letter Br. at 3. However, there is no indication their status impeded their legal right to resign. Their argument they could not as “a practical matter,” id., is inapposite; we are concerned only with what Chinese law required. Despite recognizing that members could resign from the Subcommittee, the Ministry avers that the PVC regime required the defendants to violate the Sherman Act. I do not think the Ministry’s submissions merit deference under the Supreme Court’s five-factor test. See Animal Sci. Prods., 138 S. Ct. at 1873. They lack sufficient “clarity, thoroughness, and support,” id., as they conflate China’s 2002 PVC regime with its 1997 regime and fail to address salient issues such as the “suspension provision” of the 2002 Notice permitting “the customs and chambers [to] suspend export price review,” Sp. App’x 302, and the right under the 2002 Charter to freely resign from the Vitamin C Subcommittee. The “context and purpose” factor, Animal Sci. Prods., 138 S. Ct. at 1873, cuts strongly against the Ministry; I do not see how this being the Chinese government’s first official appearance in a U.S. court mitigates the fact that the Ministry has only taken this ––as the majority recognizes––**self-serving position** for the first time in the context of this litigation. See Maj. Op. at 47–48. Its view conflicts with China’s public representation to the World Trade Organization (“**WTO**”) in 2002 **that it “gave up export administration of . . . vitamin C**,” noted under the heading “any restrictions on exports through non-automatic licensing or other means . . . .” World Trade Organization, Transitional Review under Art. 18 of the Protocol of Accession of the People's Republic of China, G/C/W/438, at 2–3 (2002) (some emphasis omitted). Upon careful and respectful consideration, these deficiencies prevent me from finding the submissions worthy of deference. Moreover, the record makes clear that Chinese law did not require the defendants to agree on prices above the minimum of $3.35/kg, which is what the defendants did. In a 2003 Notice informing “member enterprises” of the “industry[-]agreed export prices,” the Chamber asserted “[t]he agreed prices are the minimum prices. We put the limit on the floor prices but not the ceiling prices.” App’x 1934 (emphases added). Wang Qi, an executive of one of the original defendants that settled before trial, testified: Question: And when the minimum price for verification and chop was $3.35, the Chamber of Commerce did not care if your company sold Vitamin C at a price higher than $3.35; isn’t that right? Answer (Qi): Correct. That is like a minimum price. Question: You were free to decide about prices above $3.35 when that was the minimum price? Answer (Qi): Yes, when it’s over they don’t care. . . . Question: And no one ordered you outside of your company to charge prices higher than $3.35 when that was the minimum price? . . . [(Qi asks to clarify question)] Answer (Qi): No. Id. at 1709–10 (emphases added). Qi’s testimony is consistent with the Ministry’s and defendants’ accounts. The Ministry described the PVC regime as “the minimum export price rule,” explaining that “Chinese law imposed minimum price thresholds via PVC,” Ministry’s Letter Br. at 2, 4 (emphasis added), and “[i]f the price was at or above the minimum acceptable price set by coordination through the Chamber, the Chamber affixed a . . . ‘chop,’ on the contract,” App’x 164 (emphasis added). This accords with the Ministry’s consistent contention that China adopted the PVC system to “avoid anti-dumping sanctions imposed by foreign countries on China’s exports,” id., also identified as a goal in the 2002 Notice. See also Appellants’ Letter Br. at 4 (“The prices agreed on were up to the companies so long as they exceeded anti-dumping minima.”). As a result, even if Chinese law required vitamin C exporters to coordinate in setting a price, it was only a minimum price; to collude on prices above that was the defendants’ choice, not their legal obligation. The majority acknowledges that “the [Subcommittee] members were able to exercise some discretion in determining actual market prices by consensus,” Maj. Op. at 36, and that “the PVC regime’s enforcement scheme appears to have required only the [minimum price of $3.35/kg],” id. at 47 n.33. Yet it surmises that “the additional price and volume coordination” above the minimum was “still clearly mandated by the Chinese government,” without any support.2 Id. Neither the defendants nor the majority proffer any evidence suggesting vitamin C exporters needed to agree on every price rather than just the minimum price. Instead, the defendants argue that “the price level established does not matter” because the Sherman Act prohibits price fixing per se. Appellants’ Letter Br. at 6. However, international comity does not work that way. International comity is a careful balancing act.3 It requires “tak[ing] into account the interests of the United States, the interests of the foreign state, and those mutual interests the family of nations have in just and efficiently functioning rules of international law.” In re Maxwell Commc'n Corp., 93 F.3d 1036, 1048 (2d Cir. 1996). Accordingly, “[w]hen there is a conflict, a court should seek a reasonable accommodation that reconciles the central concerns of both sets of laws.” Societe Nationale Industrielle Aerospatiale v. U.S. Dist. Ct. for S. Dist. of Iowa, 482 U.S. 522, 555 (1987) (Blackmun, J., concurring). China’s purpose in enacting the PVC regime, as characterized by the Ministry, was to “transition from a Statecontrolled economy” as it entered the WTO and to avoid anti-dumping sanctions. Ministry’s Letter Br. at 3. Even accepting for argument’s sake that Chinese law required the defendants to coordinate on a minimum price to achieve its concern about anti-dumping claims, applying comity for agreements **above the minimum** goes above and beyond **accommodating the central interests of the foreign state**. Nothing in the international comity precedents implies a true conflict exists where only part of the defendants’ conduct was required under foreign law. As the Supreme Court held in Hartford Fire, there is no true conflict if foreign law did not “require[] [defendants] to act in some fashion prohibited by the law of the United States” or if the defendants’ “compliance with the laws of both countries” was possible. 509 U.S. at 799. The phrase “act in some fashion” does not direct courts to ignore whether there exists a true conflict as to the defendants’ actual conduct at issue. Indeed, as the majority recites repeatedly, the comity analysis looks to the “degree of conflict with foreign law,” not simply whether there is any conflict period. See Timberlane Lumber Co. v. Bank of Am., N.T. & S.A., 549 F.2d 597, 614 (9th Cir. 1976) (emphasis added).4 Accordingly, even if the PVC regime required the defendants to agree on a minimum price and the defendants could not have complied with the Sherman Act because it prohibits price fixing per se, comity does not demand that we set aside examining if their actual price-fixing conduct was required under Chinese law. The defendants could have complied with Chinese law and the Sherman Act by: (1) exercising their legal right to resign from the Subcommittee and not participating in any conspiracy to set prices, or (2) not colluding on prices above the minimum, the only price needed to receive a chop. Given the “virtually unflagging obligation of the federal courts to exercise the jurisdiction given them,” Colorado River Water Conservation Dist. v. United States, 424 U.S. 800, 817 (1976), this is not the “rare” case presenting “extraordinary circumstances” that warrants dismissal on the basis of comity, see Brief for U.S. Gov’t as Amicus Curiae, Animal Sci. Prods., 138 S. Ct. 1865 (No. 16-1220), at 19. I would affirm the judgment of the district court.5

#### That opens the door for inconsistency in WTO and Antitrust laws by creating an immunization strategy under both --- post-hoc defenses are key

Wang, 12 (Dingding Tina Wang, J.D. Candidate 2012, Columbia Law Vol. 112, No.5 , June 2012, Accessed 11-12-21, “WHEN ANTITRUST MET WTO: WHY U.S. COURTS SHOULD CONSIDER U.S.-CHINA WTO DISPUTES IN DECIDING ANTITRUST CASES INVOLVING CHINESE EXPORTS” https://www.jstor.org/stable/23238449) //Babcii

2. Interplay of Antitrust Law and WTO Law. — **WTO law and antitrust law share the common goal of ensuring competition**, whether between domestic and foreign producers or among producers in general.79 But the WTO did not standardize an international form of antitrust law, and antitrust law remains cleaved along national lines.80 A **member country** generally cannot sue another member country in the WTO for anticompetitive **conduct by private actors**.81 Some scholars have argued that there is little incentive for a country to sign onto an international antitrust agreement because the advantage of export cartels for the exporting country is that losses typically fall to foreign consumers and gains accrue to domestic producers.82 National governments have an incentive to set up, encourage, or tolerate export cartels as a way to prop up domestic producers and externalize the costs of doing so to foreign markets,83 though at the risk of provoking trade tensions.84 Overall, WTO law continues to **focus on state conduct while antitrust** law mostly **targets private anticompetitive conduct**. But national antitrust law and WTO law interact and are **likely to conflict** when private anticompetitive conduct is mixed with state conduct. As a prime example, the recent U.S.-China WTO dispute over China's export restraints on certain raw materials closely tracks the pending antitrust cases in U.S. courts, but the U.S. government and U.S. plaintiffs made contradicting claims: The U.S. government argued in the WTO that the Chinese government directed the export restraints, while the U.S. private parties argued in U.S. courts that the Chinese government did not direct the export restraints.85 If China's price restraints are public in nature, the producers may be **immune from U.S. antitrust** li ability, due to available common-law foreign-sovereignty-related defenses, but the country should be vulnerable to WTO liability. If the price restraints are private in nature, **China should avoid WTO liability** but the private antitrust cases should proceed on the merits, because the foreign sovereignty-related defenses would fail.86 **There is** the risk of **theoretical inconsistency**, in which both the foreign country and its private producers are held liable, and the resulting "double whammy" for the foreign country of both treble damages from U.S. antitrust liability and trade sanctions from WTO liability.87 As one antitrust treatise notes, WTO and national antitrust cases "when taken together raise fascinating possibilities for the interaction between competition policy and international trade law."88 The DOJ and FTC also observe, "There has always been a close relationship between the international application of the antitrust laws and the policies and rules governing the international trade of the United States. II. Chinese Exports: A Tale of Three Judicial Approaches to the U.S.-China WTO Dispute This Part explores the interaction between three domestic antitrust actions and the parallel WTO dispute. Part II.A describes the unprecedented Chinese government participation in the vitamin C case in the Eastern District of New York and describes the court's treatment of the Chinese government's representations to the court. Part II.B shows how the U.S.-China WTO dispute interacts with the vitamin C case, particularly through the U.S. government's extensive use, in its WTO filings, of the Chinese government's statements in the vitamin C case. Part II.C compares the approaches that the three district courts have taken in re sponse to the existence of the U.S.-China WTO dispute. Part II.C.l de scribes the Western District of Pennsylvania's constitutional and prag matic rationales for issuing a stay of its case pending resolution of the WTO dispute. Part II.C.2 explores the District of New Jersey's use of the U.S. executive branch's position in the WTO dispute to help it make fac tual and legal findings. Part II.D.l provides the broader context of U.S. courts' treatment of decisions by international tribunals, and, in particu lar, the Federal Circuit's refusal to accord legal deference to WTO rul ings in its interpretation of U.S. trade law. The section notes that the precedent leaves room for ways that WTO cases can factually inform courts' application of other areas of U.S. law, such as antitrust. Part II.D.2 describes a line of trade-remedy cases in which courts still acknowledge that WTO decisions can be informative or persuasive and argues that this approach can be extended to domestic antitrust cases. A. Vitamin C Case: The Chinese Government Speaks In the vitamin C case discussed in Part I.B, the Chinese government, apparently for the first time ever, filed an amicus brief in U.S. court.90 China's Ministry of Commerce, a government body under the direction of the State Council (China's equivalent of the U.S. Cabinet) that regulates China's foreign trade, sought to bolster the Chinese vitamin C producers' **defenses of act of state, foreign sovereign compulsion, and international comity**. The Ministry first submitted a brief to the district court in 2006 explaining that, under China's export regulatory regime, the Chinese government, through an affiliated trade chamber, **directed** defendants to coordinate export **price** floors **among themselve**s.91 To counter the plaintiffs' argument that the defendants' trade association, CCCMHPIE, was a private organization, the Ministry stated that the chamber "is an entity under the Ministry's direct and active supervision"92 and that it authorized the creation of the chamber's vitamin C subcommittee to which the Chinese defendants belonged. **The Ministry did not directly set prices** but ordered the subcommittee members to attend price discussion meetings, vote on price floors, and comply with those price floors, under penalty of having their export allowances reduced or their export licenses revoked.93 In response, the plaintiffs pointed to the Chinese government s past public statements extolling the independence of trade chambers to support the plaintiffs' position that the chamber is a private actor. The Ministry of Commerce then filed a statement with the court in 2008 emphasizing that its 2006 amicus brief, rather than the past public statements, represented the Ministry's official position.94 The Ministry stressed that China's chambers of commerce do not fit the U.S. conception of a chamber of commerce: "[P] lain tiffs trivialize China's organs of regulation where those organs differ in structure or function from ones more familiar to the plaintiffs."95 Finally, the Ministry appealed to respect for sovereignty and reliance on diplomacy: [T]he Chinese government respectfully submits that, to the extent the plaintiffs take issue with the Chinese government's sovereign actions over the conduct solely of its own citizens, that issue should not be addressed in the courts of the United States but rather through bilateral trade negotiations conducted by the executive branches of the respective sovereign nations . . . .96 This argument echoed the judicial reasoning behind the act of state doctrine, with its concern for preserving the role of the executive branch in conducting foreign policy. Nonetheless, the district court allowed the action to proceed past the motion to dismiss stage, stating it was still **unclear whether the Chinese vitamin C producers' actions were compelled or voluntary**.97 While professing deference to the Ministry's arguments, the court em phasized that the trade association's own documents, including its public website, portrayed the exporters as reaching a "self-regulated agreement" in which they would "voluntarily control" the price and quantity of ex ports and take "self-restraint measures."98 But it also noted the Ministry's argument that terms such as exporters' "voluntary self-restraint" and "self-discipline" used in the chamber's documents should not be taken at "face value" or for their literal translations but should be placed in the context of China's regulatory system.99 In support of the defendants' mo tion for summary judgment, the Ministry submitted a statement to the court in 2009 in response: This [self-discipline] system has a long history in China and has been well known to, and complied with by, Chinese companies. Self-discipline does not mean complete voluntariness or self conduct. In effect, self-discipline refers to a system of regulation under the supervision of a designated agency acting on behalf of the Chinese government.100 These Ministry statements in U.S. court would come in handy when the United States sued China under the WTO, as discussed in the next sec tion. Nevertheless, the district court (this time under a different judge) eventually ruled against the Chinese defendants' summary judgment mo tion, finding that as a matter of law the Chinese government did not compel defendants to fix export prices.101 The court found that there was no evidence, on the face of the government directives and the trade as sociation's documents, that the Ministry of Commerce required, rather than merely encouraged, the exporters' price and output agreements.102 It found that even if some compulsion existed, the Chinese government only compelled exporters to avoid below-cost pricing and foreign anti dumping charges, not to set specific price levels that were above those necessary to achieve the government's goals.103 The court settled on ac cepting the so-called "plain language" of government regulations and trade association documents that emphasized the exporters' system of "self-discipline" and "voluntary" cooperation, and rejected the Chinese defendants' and Chinese government's insistence that such language be placed in the context of China's regulatory culture.104 It also found that **the Ministry of Commerce's amicus brief and statements105 to the court reflected a "carefully crafted and phrased litigation position" that was a "post-hoc" attempt to shield the exporters from liability.**106

#### That creates incentives to game the system --- It is proven to be theoretically and empirically likely

Fox and Janow, 12 (Eleanor Fox and Merit Janow, Walter J. Derenberg Professor of Trade Regulation at New York University School of Law, l Professor, Columbia University, 2012, accessed on 2-8-2022, Its.law.nyu, "China, the WTO, and Statesponsored export cartels: Where trade and competition ought to meet ", https://its.law.nyu.edu/faculty/profiles/representiveFiles/fox%20-%20China\_%20the%20WTO\_%20and%20Statesponsored%20export%20cartels\_FED2F0A6-A495-4641-11BC016851056F31.pdf)//Babcii

Has China lit its candle at both ends? We consider the hypothetical case of China sponsored hard core export restraints, which could in theory be carried out either by the state or by firms under the control of the state. We examine their legitimacy, both under WTO treaty obligations and under antitrust law. In so doing, we are struck by the opportunities for nations to **play** one **system** (trade) **against the other** (competition). At the end of this essay, we suggest a modality for bringing the systems and their fact-finding into greater coherence or at least awareness. We concentrate principally on one particular ongoing litigation, the US antitrust case against four Chinese firms for fixing prices of vitamin C into the United States (the firms admit the price-fixing and attribute it to China),1 as compared with a hypothetical proceeding in the World Trade Organization against China for sponsoring the export cartel. In the pending US antitrust case, Vitamin C, the Chinese firms defend that their cartel was lawful; that it was in fact China’s cartel; and they argue that the price-fixers are shielded from liability by the foreign sovereign compulsion defense. In the Vitamin C case, China’s Ministry of Commerce has, exceptionally, filed an amicus brief taking ownership of the cartel.2 Some years earlier, in the process of joining the WTO, **China undertook** extensive market-opening accession commitments. These  commitments included China’s undertaking to **allow the market to set prices** “in every sector” **except in areas specified**.3 Vitamins were not among the reserved items. China’s commitments reinforce a number of WTO provisions. For example, Article XI of the GATT speaks to the elimination of quantitative restrictions on imports and exports,4 Article 7.2 of China’s Protocol states its commitment not to “introduce, reintroduce or apply non-tariff measures;”5 Article 11 of the Safeguards Agreement prohibits voluntary export restraints, orderly marketing arrangements and other similar export measures... 6 What if China were exonerated in notional **WTO proceedings** against it for ordering a **vitamin C cartel** on grounds that the evidence was too ambiguous to conclude that the government itself ordered the output and price restrictions (a measure that would be reachable under some facts under China’s protocol and GATT Article XI7 ), **and** if the Chinese vitamins firms were **exonerated in the US court proceedings** on grounds that China did order the restrictions? We pose this possibility to examine two larger questions. 1) What is the appropriate perspective on the right of the state to take measures that impose costs on the trading system, and what is the appropriate perspective on the right of firms to invoke state action in defense of their export cartel? 2) What modalities can minimize the gaming and can nudge the systems towards coherence, both on fact-finding (what did Chinese officials say to whom?) and on the narrative: Did China adopt a governmental measure ordering the cartel within the meaning of its WTO undertakings; did it order the cartel within the meaning of the antitrust foreign sovereign compulsion defense? Did it order the cartel and also the terms of it, and does that matter?8 Should “order” mean the same thing in WTO language and in antitrust language? What are the consequences if the default perspectives for trade and for competition are not aligned? What are the consequences if WTO obligations are construed to give more policy space to China, and if the antitrust defense is construed to disfavor exceptions from the antitrust rule against cartels (as it is)? The appropriate perspective? We have a view: Trade and competition are two sides of the same coin. Trade and competition rules sympathetic to markets are important in today’s world of deep economic globalization. The financial crisis and its aftermath has increased tendencies of nations to draw inwards and to be attracted to more narrowly self-interested measures in the hope that nationalism might solve their problems. Often, the opposite is true. A perspective of openness and regard for the larger community is likely to enhance economic welfare, in general to produce more harmony, and to take an edge off conflicts in the world. We therefore prefer an approach in which commitments are interpreted strictly when construing undertakings by nations to forsake export restraints or export cartels. The counterpart to a state commitment to play by rules of free trade (not to restrain exports) is the private firm commitment to play by the rules of competition (not to cartelize). The anticartel rule is strong and stronger than it ever has been in the history of the world. Why? Because more and more nations appreciate the value of markets; they are in search of growth, and they are committed to building environments in which their producers can flourish and in which consumers can get fair deals. All antitrust nations of the world recognize that hard core cartels are heinous; cartels rob the people; they degrade competition, chilling the incentives that lead firms to invent and produce, create jobs and create wealth. There is no international law of competition, but there is one principle of antitrust law that can be found in all national antitrust regimes: No hard core cartels.9 Why, then, does the law of the US and other nations allow a foreign sovereign compulsion defense to a hard core cartel? There are two reasons: 1) Deference to sovereignty. If the state has a right to take certain measures (restrain exports), then should it not be allowed to use its firms as the means to do so? 2) Fairness to the commanded firms. Should a firm be punished merely for following the command of its state? If indeed China undertook not to order export cartels, then there would be no need for a foreign sovereign compulsion defense in order to respect the sovereignty space of China, for China would have forsaken just such policy space in return for the greater benefits of the world trading system.10 If, further, the defendant vitamin C firms had the choice not to price fix into the United States as far as China was concerned, either because China did not issue an order or the order was objectively invalid as contrary to China’s obligations, it would not be unfair to the firms to hold them to account. Indeed, even if the firms perceived that they were following the policy of their country, one could make a rather convincing argument that it is more unfair to the overcharged consumers for a court to refuse to apply the anti-cartel law than it is unfair to the profiteering cartelists to apply the US law.11 And if China (MOFOM) ordered the firms to collaborate on production to avoid dumping lawsuits and the firms proceeded to agree to an elevated price far above what any objective avoidance would require (plaintiffs allege that price rose almost 200%, from $2.50 to $7.00 per kilogram), again, fairness may not lie on the side of the firms.12 Thus, depending on the facts, neither the privilege of the sovereign nor equity to firms may require an antitrust defense, let alone a wide one. But still, our hypothetical may **come to pass**. The reach of international trade rules over state sponsored export cartels is **not well established**, we are just beginning to see cases litigating the scope of applicable rules. Moreover, both **China’s** governmental measures and the WTO obligations are not without ambiguity. The WTO could uphold the state as fulfilling its WTO commitments and the US federal court could uphold the firms’ submission that their conduct was compelled.13 Or conversely, there could be state liability at the WTO and private liability in antitrust. What might be done to avert such possibilities, or at least to avert **gaming by the litigants**?

#### The most recent decision is unique --- It will greatly increase the risk of gaming through post-hoc measures

Qingxiu Bu, Commercial Law @ University of Sussex, formerly professor of transnational business @ Georgetown Law Center, ’20, ‘“Respectful Consideration, but Not Deference: Chinese Sovereign Amici in the US Supreme Court Vitamin C Judgment” Journal of European Competition Law & Practice, Vol. 11, No. 5–6

A. Neutrality, accuracy, and consistence

A foreign sovereign would unlikely be wholly impartial and could be liable to make false or inconsistent representations to federal courts.66 One of the possible risks is that it may not be neutral, which results from a strong incentive to shield its domestic entities from antitrust liability abroad.67 In Vitamin C, MOFCOM may have been motivated to shield domestic firms from treble damages.68 As Sweeney observed, the gains from the uncompetitive behaviour would accrue to their home state, while the victims are foreign purchasers.69 This is reflected in the Chinese government’s allegedly inconsistent position regarding its regulation of Vitamin C exports in front of the World Trade Organisation (WTO).70 China’s submission directly contradicted previous statements it had made about its competition law to theWTO.71 It is inferred that MOFCOM’s position was a post hoc attempt to shield the Chinese defendants’ conduct from antitrust scrutiny.72 Being inconsistent and self-serving, MOFCOM’s statement is due limited deference.73 The **lack of consistency** with earlier positions is not dispositive; however, it **can compromise** the **reliability** of the litigants’ position. As Godi said: ‘In fact, when a foreign government wishes to intervene as a third party to a dispute, its objective is rather clear: self-interest.’74 **Opening the door to this kind of manipulation** of American lawsuits would be self evidently unwise.75 **The Court should assess** the extent to which the foreign sovereign’s litigation position is **consistent with the positions it has taken in earlier briefs.**76

#### Attempts to “game” the system undermine the transnational legal process (TLP) and undermines WTO legitimacy --- Allowing antitrust to fill the gap is reverse causal

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

“Export cartel” refers to a collusive behavior between exporting firms “to charge a specified export price or to divide export markets among themselves.”1 The purpose is often to enhance domestic firms’ welfare at the expense of foreign consumers. 2 **Antitrust and** the World Trade Organization (“**WTO**”) are mutually exclusive remedies when dealing with an **export cartel**. The difference is that a successful antitrust proceeding depends on showing the **absence of government involvement**. In contrast, a WTO proceeding’s success depends on showing **the State’s participation** in export restraints. Lately, **the lines have blurred when certain export cartels wind their way through U.S. courts.** In such cases, the extent to which U.S. courts should enforce antitrust laws against foreign export cartels has been controversial, as defendants often invoke foreign-sovereignty-related defenses. This issue has become more prominent than ever with involved litigants who are at times unable to apply their antitrust laws extraterritorially to international cartels because of the difficulty of obtaining evidence that is located outside of their jurisdiction. Similarly, litigants at the WTO complained about the government’s role in the administrative and judicial system, including the use of verbal demands and informal notices on export cartels. This intervention undermines the ability to show that a WTO-inconsistent measure exists. Several recent U.S. antitrust litigations involving Chinese export cartels highlight this challenge. In **In re Vitamin C** Antitrust Litigation (“Vitamin C”),3 the Chinese defendants moved to dismiss the complaint of price-fixing on the ground that Chinese law required them to fix the price and quantity of vitamin C exports, **shielding them from liability under U.S. antitrust law.** The defendants invoked comity, sovereign compulsion, and the act of state doctrines.4 The Chinese **Ministry of Commerce** (“Ministry”) took the unprecedented step of intervening as amicus curiae in the proceeding. The Ministry explained that the China Chamber of Commerce of Medicines & Health Products Importers & Exporters (“CCCMHPIE”) is a “Ministry-supervised entity authorized by the Ministry to regulate vitamin C export prices and output levels.”5 Thus, the Chinese defendants were compelled under Chinese law to collectively set a price for vitamin C exports.6 Two similar antitrust cases were brought in the U.S. courts against Chinese export cartels. In Resco Products, Inc. v. Bosai Minerals Group,7 private litigants alleged price-fixing and other anti-competitive behavior by certain Chinese exporters of bauxite. As the members of the China Chamber of Commerce of Metals Minerals & Chemicals Importers & Exporters (“CCCMC”), the Chinese defendants relied on the amicus brief filed by the Ministry in Vitamin C and argued that CCCMC was a government entity that directed them to coordinate their price.8 Similarly, in Animal Science Products, Inc. v. China National Metals and Minerals Import and Export Corp,9 private litigants alleged price-fixing and other anti-competitive behavior by certain Chinese exporters of magnesite in a separate U.S. court proceeding. The defendants asserted that their trade chamber, CCCMC, was an instrument of the Chinese government to regulate export trade.10 On June 23, 2009, with the blessings of the Obama Administration, the U.S. government requested WTO consultations with China regarding China’s export restraints on several raw materials.11 In its first written submission, the U.S. government cited the above three cases, arguing that based upon representations already made by the Chinese Ministry, “the European understands that the CCCMC’s export-price related functions and responsibilities . . . are attributable to China.”12 On December 21, 2009, the Dispute Settlement Body (“DSB”) established a single panel to examine the complaints.13 The above **case**s fostered a **perception that** antitrust and WTO meet when private anticompetitive conduct is mixed with state conduct. Emblematic of this viewpoint is Professor Eleanor M. Fox and Professor Merit E. Janow’s argument that “[t]rade and competition rules sympathetic to markets are important in today’s world of deep economic globalization.”14 Both of the scholars were astonished by the **opportunities for nations to play one system** (trade) **against the other** (competition). They also cautioned that U.S. **courts** involved with foreign export cartels need to flexibly interact with the international regime to form a coherent approach to legal challenges over foreign regulatory systems.15 What academics and other commentators have missed is that the involved U.S. courts and the executive branch’s stance in the above litigations perfectly illustrates a pervasive Transnational Legal Process. The U.S. not only **represents all antitrust nations’ interests** when it is anti-cartel. The **transnational actors generated interactions that led to WTO law** and competition policy interpretations that become internalized, thereby binding under domestic law (in this Article, China law). This Article assesses the roles of Transnational Legal Process by examining transnational actors engaged in antitrust litigation and evaluating their relationship to transnational actors participating in the WTO litigation. My central thesis is that essential **synergies exist** between trade and competition, in which Transnational Legal Process will largely prove a positive role in constraining state-sponsored export cartels and international cartels. To avert gaming by the litigants due to ambiguous factual evidence in cartel cases, U.S. courts and the executive branch should become active transnational actors. They therefore stimulate each other to **participate in a dynamic process of Transnational Legal Process**. Under the condition that cartel action is attributable to State in the antitrust proceeding, as defendants invoke foreign-sovereignty-related defenses, transnational actors in the competition system promote WTO obedience by sending a strong signal to the executive branch. Under the condition that **cartel action is attributable to private parties** in the WTO proceeding, transnational actors in **the competition system** should perform a gap-filling role that the WTO system precludes. 16 The resulting tendency is to suggest **a synergistic relationship** between transnational actors to play by rules of free trade (not to restrain exports) and competition (not to cartelize). Having described the most basic features of Transnational Legal Process, my Article partly confirms that Transnational Legal Process **could** somewhat fix the potentially worrying issue of nations’ opportunities to play one system (trade) against the other (competition). This Article is organized as follows: Part II explores the treatment of cartels and important synergies that exist between WTO law and competition law. Part III details the theory of Transnational Legal Process and explores its potential role where the antitrust system and the WTO system meet. Part IV examines the role of Transnational Legal Process in enforcing WTO law and competition policy in the Chinese context.17 I examine the chief factors behind China’s economic transition that have shaped its current antitrust economic conditions. I then discuss the relationship between trade associations and the government under the hybrid nature of China’s regulatory environment. Part V explores relevant cases, focusing on U.S. transnational actor involvement. These cases support the basic premises that U.S. courts as part of Transnational Legal Process have successfully stimulated other participants (in this Article, the United States Trade Representative (“USTR”)). The key point is that Transnational Legal Process is active and significantly affected China’s WTO internalization and competition policy convergence.18 The last Chapter stresses the future of Transnational Legal Process, free trade, and competition. I suggest that the WTO plays a central role in framing the issues at play in the U.S.-China **trade dispute**. Meanwhile, I argue Transnational Legal Process needs to discern the means to champion **transformation in other facets, such as human rights**, before internalizing international trade laws. Or, given the **high stakes**, it needs to learn how to **leverage trade cooperation to internalize other domains of laws and regulations as a part of Transnational Legal Process**. On the surface, it may appear that faith in Transnational Legal Process has collapsed in the domain of international trade. Critics argued that the world is experiencing a new situation where there is no international law to apply, or the existing WTO law may not precisely cover this new situation. I contend, however, that the influence of Transnational Legal Process is still at work, even **as the world experiences its longest-ever trade tensions**. Transnational Legal Process remains standing in good faith among the opportunities **for the U**nited **S**tates to strengthen free trade and competition—by translating the spirit and **intent of existing law to govern it.**

#### It's the core test for overall legitimacy of the process --- Success spills over to other domains

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

Nevertheless, the influence of **T**ransnational **L**egal **P**rocess is still very much **at work**, even as the world is experiencing its worst “slowbalisation.” 299 What is at stake is that the success experienced in the international trade regime **did not replicate itself in other international law domains**. In particular, when this theory comes to human rights, the government would block them out. As such, having secured the legal certainty and economic benefits of most-favored-nation treatment through WTO accession, the failed internalization parts embarked on a mission to ensure that the economic transformation would not upend its political control. V. CONCLUSION This article seeks to explore the roles of Transnational Legal Process in the realm of trade and competition systems. It is mainly focused on how US courts and the executive branch in a synergistic relationship enforce WTO obedience and **competition policy** convergence as part of **Transnational Legal Process**. I have given concrete examples of Transnational Legal Process actively working and reforming China’s industry to comply with rules of free trade and competition. Transnational Legal Process is a wise strategy to negotiate with China through a combination of self-interest and legal process, which could contribute to long-term national obedience with international law. **A spirit of openness** and regard for the broader community is likely to promote **economic welfare** as a whole, create **more harmony**, and take an edge off the world’s **conflicts**. Time will tell whether Transnational Legal **Process can meet this challenge**. What is certain, though, is that the unique nature of the Chinese economy creates new tensions for interpreting **WTO law and the roles of Transnational Legal Process**. In the future, Transnational Legal Process may need to discern the means to champion transformation in other facets, such as human rights, before internalizing international trade laws. Or, given the **high stakes**, it may need to learn how to leverage **trade** cooperation to internalize **other domains of laws** and regulations **in the process** of Transnational Legal Process. In any event, the U.S. is not the only proponent of Transnational Legal Process. All allies should support the system of global governance and address the real problems of the world.

#### That’s key to an effective form of multilateralism

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

From this perspective, I have already argued that **transnational actors** (in this Article, U.S. courts and the USTR) **preserved international law** by participating in **Transnational Legal Process** by **working together** and encouraging each other through a complex **norm internalization**. They were not only spurred by self-interest; more importantly, these transnational actors also promoted WTO law compliance and competition policy convergence. In the next section, I propose transnational actors’ suggestions that together would constitute positive next steps for this critical economic relationship. The core is to avoid fostering a relationship shaped only by competition and identifying where mutually beneficial outcomes are possible. As the U.S. Department of Defense has pointed out, while China is a critical long-term strategic competitor, “competition does not mean conflict is inevitable, or preclude cooperation with China on areas of mutual interest.”276 B. What’s at Stake: Transnational Legal Process, Free Trade, and Competition The **cooperation of the 21st century was dominated by international organizations** created by formally negotiated and legally binding treaties.277 To maintain this structure of global cooperation, **the U**nited **S**tates supported the creation of an elaborate **legal framework to constrain illiberal actions** and encourage the notion of using global collaboration to solve global problems, such as **war** crimes, **trade** imbalances, **climate change**, immigration, and refugees. As the primary pioneer of liberal internationalism, this approach adopted by the United States was simple: **more diplomacy, more human rights, more democracy, and more legal process**.278 For example, the Paris Deal about climate change was negotiated under the auspices of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (“UNFCCC”), a treaty with 196 state parties to which the U.S. Senate gave its consent in 1992. Indeed, the evolution of the Paris Deal “graphically illustrated the engage-translate-leverage framework.”279 This deal also allows the U.S. to engage with countries around the world, such as G-20 members, members of the Major Economies Forum (“MEF”), and members of BASIC (Brazil, South Africa, India, and China) to frame the global deal. As Professor Koh commented: Instead of treating **climate change** as an area without law, the United States translated from **norms** inchoate in the rigid, legally binding, top-down Kyoto architecture, which specified internationally negotiated emissions targets that applied only to developed countries, to a much more informal, politically binding, bottom-up Copenhagen blueprint infused with stronger norms and with greater symmetry between the duties of developed and developing nations. 280 Likewise, the theory of Transnational Legal Process is significant in trade domains as well.281 The world is in a system of international commercial transactions that operates mostly with the hope of more and more market opening and less governmental intervention. The WTO is the only multilateral set of agreed-upon rules and norms of behavior to evaluate the Chinese economic structure’s impact on the international level. Seeing the WTO in this way **grants the U.S. authority** to confirm where China fails to comply with **existing commitments** and indicate where WTO laws are unable to discipline China on unfair trade practices and where bilateral or unilateral action may be necessary.

#### That solves numerous global risks and pathways for extinction

Yuval Noah Harari 18, Professor of History at Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 9/26/18, “We need a post-liberal order now,” The Economist, <https://www.economist.com/open-future/2018/09/26/we-need-a-post-liberal-order-now>

The second thing to note about this vision of friendly fortresses is that it has been tried—and it failed spectacularly. All attempts to divide the world into clear-cut nations have so far resulted in war and genocide. When the heirs of Garibaldi, Mazzini and Mickiewicz managed to overthrow the multi-ethnic Habsburg Empire, it proved impossible to find a clear line dividing Italians from Slovenes or Poles from Ukrainians. This had set the stage for the second world war. The key problem with the network of fortresses is that each national fortress wants a bit more land, security and prosperity for itself at the expense of the neighbors, and without the help of universal values and global organisations, rival fortresses cannot agree on any common rules. Walled fortresses are seldom friendly. But if you happen to live inside a particularly strong fortress, such as America or Russia, why should you care? Some nationalists indeed adopt a more extreme isolationist position. They don’t believe in either a global empire or in a global network of fortresses. Instead, they deny the necessity of any global order whatsoever. “Our fortress should just raise the drawbridges,” they say, “and the rest of the world can go to hell. We should refuse entry to foreign people, foreign ideas and foreign goods, and as long as our walls are stout and the guards are loyal, who cares what happens to the foreigners?” Such extreme isolationism, however, is completely divorced from economic realities. Without a global trade network, all existing national economies will collapse—including that of North Korea. Many countries will not be able even to feed themselves without imports, and prices of almost all products will skyrocket. The made-in-China shirt I am wearing cost me about $5. If it had been produced by Israeli workers from Israeli-grown cotton using Israeli-made machines powered by non-existing Israeli oil, it may well have cost ten times as much. Nationalist leaders from Donald Trump to Vladimir Putin may therefore heap abuse on the global trade network, but none thinks seriously of taking their country completely out of that network. And we cannot have a global trade network without some global order that sets the rules of the game. Even more importantly, whether people like it or not, humankind today faces three common problems that make a mockery of all national borders, and that can only be solved through global cooperation. These are nuclear war, climate change and technological disruption. You cannot build a wall against nuclear winter or against global warming, and no nation can regulate artificial intelligence (**AI) or bio**engineering single-handedly. It won’t be enough if only the European Union forbids producing killer robots or only America bans genetically-engineering human babies. Due to the immense potential of such disruptive technologies, if even one country decides to pursue these high-risk high-gain paths, other countries will be forced to follow its dangerous lead for fear of being left behind. An AI arms race or a biotechnological arms race almost guarantees the worst outcome. Whoever wins the arms race, the loser will likely be humanity itself. For in an arms race, all regulations will collapse. Consider, for example, conducting genetic-engineering experiments on human babies. Every country will say: “We don’t want to conduct such experiments—we are the good guys. But how do we know our rivals are not doing it? We cannot afford to remain behind. So we must do it before them.” Similarly, consider developing autonomous-weapon systems, that can decide for themselves whether to shoot and kill people. Again, every country will say: “This is a very dangerous technology, and it should be regulated carefully. But we don’t trust our rivals to regulate it, so we must develop it first”. The only thing that can prevent such destructive arms races is greater trust between countries. This is not an impossible mission. If today the Germans promise the French: “Trust us, we aren’t developing killer robots in a secret laboratory under the Bavarian Alps,” the French are likely to believe the Germans, despite the terrible history of these two countries. We need to build such trust globally. We need to reach a point when Americans and Chinese can trust one another like the French and Germans. Similarly, we need to create a global safety-net to protect humans against the economic shocks that AI is likely to cause. Automation will create immense new wealth in high-tech hubs such as Silicon Valley, while the worst effects will be felt in developing countries whose economies depend on cheap manual labor. There will be more jobs to software engineers in California, but fewer jobs to Mexican factory workers and truck drivers. We now have a global economy, but politics is still very national. Unless we find solutions on a global level to the disruptions caused by AI, **entire countries might collapse**, and the resulting chaos, violence and waves of immigration will destabilise the entire world. This is the proper perspective to look at recent developments such as Brexit. In itself, Brexit isn’t necessarily a bad idea. But is this what Britain and the EU should be dealing with right now? How does Brexit help prevent nuclear war? How does Brexit help prevent climate change? How does Brexit help regulate artificial intelligence and bioengineering? Instead of helping, Brexit makes it harder to solve all of these problems. Every minute that Britain and the EU spend on Brexit is one less minute they spend on preventing climate change and on regulating AI. In order to survive and flourish in the 21st century, humankind needs effective global cooperation, and so far the only viable blueprint for such cooperation is offered by liberalism. Nevertheless, governments all over the world are undermining the foundations of the liberal order, and the world is turning into a network of fortresses. The first to feel the impact are the weakest members of humanity, who find themselves without any fortress willing to protect them: refugees, illegal migrants, persecuted minorities. But if the walls keep rising, eventually the whole of humankind will feel the squeeze.

#### Antitrust on Chinese gaming induces economic liberalism and compliance with the WTO --- The process of the plan is empirically successful

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

V. THE IMPLICATIONS OF TRANSNATIONAL LEGAL PROCESS FOR TRADE AND COMPETITION There are potential implications of Transnational Legal Process for WTO compliance. Suppose a WTO member country moves in a legally noncompliant direction. In that case, other member countries can legally challenge that country in a WTO dispute and generate an interaction that yields a settlement (interpretation) that the government defendant must then obey as a matter of domestic law (internalization).252 I already discussed how US **courts** and both **governmental** and non-governmental **actors** were part of the Transnational Legal Process. In this Chapter, I examine important normative questions **via Transnational Legal Process**. I argue that Transnational Legal Process has laid the groundwork for China’s economic transition. What is at stake is that the international trade regime’s success did not replicate itself in other international law domains. The appropriate solution, in my view, remains Transnational Legal Process. I then apply Transnational Legal Process to current international trade, focusing particularly on the trade war rages between the US and China. As we shall see, Transnational Legal Process remains alive and significant opportunities exist for US transnational actors if they remain active **participants**. A. The Fruits of Transnational Legal Process There are at least three practical reasons that Transnational Legal Process can be robust, even in a place where judicial institutions are weak and governmental openness limited.253 First, the heart of effective internalization depends on the degree to which particular rules are or are not internalized into the domestic legal structure, instead of the particular domestic legal system in question.254 Second, Transnational Legal Process is a constructivist process by which it serves to reorder not just national interests but even national identity. 255 Third, Transnational Legal Process actually could help to explain why nations obey and why nations do not obey. 256 The United States has encouraged the Chinese agencies to enforce the Anti-monopoly Law (“AML”) to work with Chinese regulatory agencies with sectoral responsibilities to emphasize the importance of trade associations refraining from engaging in **conduct that would violate antitrust** law.257 On 30 August 2007, China promulgated the AML, shortly after antitrust class actions brought against Chinese defendants.258 The AML delineates the legal framework for the prohibition of cartels. Article 11, for example, stated that “[t]rade associations shall tighten their selfdiscipline, give guidance to the undertakings in their respective trades in lawful competition, and maintain the market order in competition.”259 Article 16 makes explicit that trade associations may not make arrangements for undertakings within their respective trades to engage in monopolistic practices.260 Article 46 increases the maximum fines imposable on trade associations from 500,000 yuan to 5 million yuan.261 The same article also stated that if the circumstances are serious, the administrative department for the registration of public organizations may cancel the registration of the trade association per the law.262 Since the initial implementation of the AML in 2008, several price-related investigations involving trade associations were conducted by the country’s antitrust agencies, including fields of papermaking, sea sand, gold jewelry, construction equipment, insurance, brick manufacturing, tourism and so on.263 Action accompanied the commitment that China will implement its DSB rulings and recommendations on May 2, 2015.264 According to State Councilor Wang Yong: “The separation of industry associations and chambers of commerce from the government represents a major reform measure that China is currently carrying out.”265 On July 8, 2015, the General Office of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and the General Office of the State Council released the “Overall Plan for the Decoupling of Chambers of Commerce of Industry Associations and Administrative Organs” to promote the decoupling of industry associations from administrative agencies. 266 The plan is considered to be a first step for the Chinese government to formally clarify the functional boundaries between administrative agencies and industry association chambers of commerce. 267 It includes 1) cancellation of the sponsorship, supervisory, and affiliation relationship between the administrative organ (including subordinate units) and the industry associations and the chamber of commerce; 2) clarification of the functions of the industry associations and the chamber of commerce, including removing the existing administrative functions of the industry associations and the chamber of commerce, except as otherwise provided by laws and regulations; 3) separation of assets and finance, and standardization of property relations; and 4) separation the personnel management of these industry associations and the chamber of commerce from the government, and define their relationship regarding personnel; and 5) separation Communist Party of China affairs and international exchanges of these organizations from the government and define their relationship regarding administration.268 By the end of 2018, 422 national-based industry associations had been decoupled from administrative agencies, which exceeded 50% of the total number.269 On June 14, 2019, the Central Office announced the decoupling of the remaining 373 national-based industry associations.27 All the above changes show that the government delineated a robust enforcement system against protectionist and other abusive government restraints. In fact, the fruits of Transnational Legal Process are visible on the streets of any major Chinese metropolis. With the WTO accession and **Transnational Legal Process** application, **thousands of Chinese laws and regulations were rewritten**. 271 Chinese legal scholars, international lawyers, law students, and government officers acquired knowledge about the rules necessary for their country to **reengage with the global trade regime**. They, in turn, widely disseminated this knowledge internally.272 Yet it would be **incorrect to assume that Transnational Legal Process is always perfect**. As many scholars argued, the enforcement powers of the AML are so **weak** as to nearly undermine the effort.273 **Nevertheless**, it is essential to step back and be clear that China is currently the United States’ largest merchandise trading partner, its third-largest export market, and its most significant source of imports. The economic costs of the bilateral economic relationship are genuine. Meanwhile, the **WTO** is the only international body dealing with trade rules between the U.S. and China that reflect core U.S. values. It “**form[s]** a baseline . . . to build **global support** to **critique** and **push back** against **Chinese** economic **practices**.” 274 In the context of comprehensively addressing China’s challenges, **the WTO is** still a **central** system, and subject to the strong leadership of the U.S. Viewed through the optic of a Transnational Legal Process, legal internalization occurs when an international norm is incorporated into the domestic legal system and becomes domestic law through executive action, judicial interpretation, legislative action, or some combination of the three.275 That is, the U.S. should take a comprehensive approach to the negotiations based on market-oriented solutions, **strengthening the global trading system and the rule of law.** Progressing on China’s WTO commitments will be most **effective** where the U.S. is also complying with its WTO commitments.

#### That’s key to global trade --- Otherwise Chinese cartels will increase populism and spread mercantilism that will rip apart free trade

Petit, 16 (Nicolas Petit, Nicolas Petit is Joint Chair in Competition Law at the Department of Law and at the Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies. He is also invited Professor at the College of Europe in Bruges. Prof at and phd from University of Liege, 6-21-2016, accessed on 7-8-2021, Papers.ssrn, "Chinese State Capitalism and Western Antitrust Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=2798162)//Babcii

II. MORAL IMPERATIVE The moral case for an antitrust reaction is easier to lay out. In recent years, public confidence in open markets that bring in foreign competition has been **fraying at the seams**. The growing opposition to ongoing trade partnership negotiations in the West is **a visible symptom** of this. The increasing political **clout** of anti-establishment and populist parties with anti-free trade agendas is another indicator of the public’s diminishing confidence in open markets. Chinese competition in Western markets has likely **meant distortions** in the level playing field, engineered by systemic subsidization, currency manipulation and extractive labor market relations.50 This has **eroded the political capital of the West’s “open door” trade policies**. A widespread realization that doing **business with China means** opening the door to a syndicate of firms, coordinated backstage by the CCP, could be **the final nail in the coffin for our current free trade system**. The collateral damage of doing business with the Chinese supertrust could indeed fuel further demands for a blanket abandonment of free and competitive **trade across the board**, including with nations which, unlike China, do have effective market governance institutions. This would in practice deny Western citizens the benefits of legitimate competitive imports. The risk of a backlash reinforces the pressing **need for antitrust** attention to the CCP-led supertrust, and may help forestall the emergence of an even **greater anti-free trade** platform than we presently observe. After all, the core raison d'être of antitrust regimes is reflective of Western societies’ moral commitment to promote competition in all of its forms. The **objection that this is a trade issue is** in our view **irrelevant**. As George Stigler wrote in a paper titled “The Economists and the problem of monopoly”: “**Free trade is** a sort of international **antimonopoly program in itself**”

#### Covid is uniqueness --- Only restraining mercantilism can prevent a full collapse

Sally, 20 (Razeen Sally, Visiting Associate Professor, Lee Kuan Yew School of Public Policy, National University of Singapore. Sally taught at the London School of Economics, where he received his PhD., Sep-24-2020, accessed on 11-19-2021, Hinrich Foundation, "Deglobalization and the new mercantilism | Hinrich Foundation", <https://www.hinrichfoundation.com/research/article/us-china/deglobalization-new-mercantilism/)//Babcii>

Three eras of international trade preceded the present pandemic. The first – the quarter-century until the GFC – was an era of unprecedented liberalisation and globalisation. The second – the near-decade after the GFC – saw globalisation stall, though not reverse, and trade growth stagnate alongside [“creeping” protectionism](https://www.ft.com/content/4ee2d69a-6aa3-11e4-bfb4-00144feabdc0). The third, [starting in early 2017](https://www.china-briefing.com/news/the-us-china-trade-war-a-timeline/), was triggered by President Trump, partly to retaliate against increasing Chinese protectionism. It centred on a US-China trade war but rippled out into copycatting protectionism by other countries. Protectionism went from creeping to galloping. This **pandemic has triggered the worst deglobalisation since 1945**. International trade may shrink by up to a third, foreign direct investment by up to 40 per cent, and international remittances by 20 per cent, this year. The trade outlook is worse than it was during the GFC in two ways. Now economic contraction is synchronised around the world; during and after the GFC, fast growth in emerging markets, [**led by China**](https://www.bbc.com/news/business-45493147)**,** cushioned the fall in trade and enabled a recovery. Now services trade is suffering even more than goods trade; travel and tourism have collapsed. The GFC, in contrast, hit goods trade hard but services trade was more resilient, especially fast-growing travel and tourism. Now there are signs of a protectionist upsurge, starting with export bans on medical equipment, with new restrictions on foreign ownership in the pipeline. What is the medium-term – post-vaccine – trade outlook? First, protectionism is likely to increase as a spillover of domestic state – particularly industrial-policy – interventions that last beyond the present crisis. Crisis-induced subsidies will be difficult to reverse wholesale and will **have trade-discriminating effects**. New screening requirements might have a chilling effect on foreign investment. These and other **interventions to protect domestic sectors** and national champions have a home-production bias. **The list of “strategic” sectors to protect** on “national security” grounds **against foreign competition will likely expand**. There will probably be more restrictions on migration and the cross-border movement of workers. Two precedents are relevant: the “new protectionism” of the 1970s and ‘80s, which partly resulted from bigger, more interventionist government in domestic markets; and, more perniciously, the expansion of government after the first world war, which empowered interest groups to lobby effectively for restricted imports, foreign investment and immigration. Second, national unilateralism – this time “illiberal unilateralism” – will likely expand and make effective regional and global policy cooperation more difficult. It bodes ill for the WTO, APEC and the G20, also for regional organisations such as ASEAN, and will cramp the liberalising effects of stronger preferential trade agreements. This only increases the prospect of tit-for-tat retaliation, starting with the Big Three (the US, EU and China), and **copycatting protectionism that will spread around the world.** Third, the reorientation of global value chains will accelerate. Western multinationals will relocate parts of their **production from China** to other countries on cost grounds, as they have been doing, but increasingly **on political-risk and security grounds** as well. There will be a combination of onshoring, near-shoring and regionalisation of value chains, which will vary widely by sector. But the **overall effect will be to raise costs for producers and consumers.** Fourth, international trade will be hit harder by a more fractured and conflictual geopolitical environment, especially US-China rivalry, but not helped either by an inward-looking and divided EU. It will be squeezed between more unstable geopolitics and the recalibration of states and markets – more “state” and less “market” – domestically. All the above points to a new mercantilist trade order that might be more malign than benign, echoing the “new protectionism” of the 1970s and early ‘80s, or, even more worryingly, the 1920s and ‘30s. My ideal world is a classical-liberal one: limited government, free markets and free trade, underpinned by appropriate domestic and international rules. I would add political liberalism and legally protected individual freedoms. The post-1945 global order was some distance from this classical-liberal ideal, but it was liberal enough to deliver unprecedented freedom and prosperity. From this vantage point, the new mercantilist order, with emerging malign characteristics, is alarming – bad economics, politics and international relations; bad for individual freedoms and global prosperity. As a realist, however, I must take the world “as it is” rather than indulge in wishful thinking. To improve the world, principled liberalism must be combined with practical realism. I believe **the two biggest threats to global order are rising illiberal populism in the West**, endangering the West’s adherence to its own liberal values, **and the increasingly aggressive illiberalism of the Chinese party-state**. Both have mercantilist features that spill over the border into protectionism and restricted globalisation. Both feed off each other in a global negative-sum game. Hence both must be resisted: naivety and complacency should apply to neither. China under Xi Jinping, with its mix of authoritarianism, a state-directed market economy and external assertiveness, is **becoming a classic mercantilist power**, like Germany and Japan in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century. Its external power projection, especially in the last decade, looks quite different to that of the US in the Pax Americana. Of course, at times, here and there, the US threw its weight about unilaterally and arbitrarily. But the essence of US leadership was to provide public goods for a stable, **open and prosperous world order**. It did so by organising concerts of international and regional cooperation. **In international trade,** that took the form of the GATT, later the WTO, and the multilateral rules it administers. **China**, in contrast, prioritises a combination of unilateral and bilateral **action to expand and entrench its power**. That subsumes the expansion of the PLA Navy in the East China Sea, South China Sea and Indian Ocean; and tight, asymmetric bilateral relations with smaller, weaker states in a twenty-first century recreation of the ancient tributary system. The Belt and Road Initiative should be seen in this frame: a network of hub-and-spoke bilateral relationships in which China wields power over dependent states. This is classic mercantilism. It privileges discretionary power, exercised unilaterally and bilaterally, over plurilateral and multilateral rules that constrain such power. **China** – meaning the Chinese Communist party state – **presents a pressing challenge to the liberal world order**. Dealing with this challenge will require some trade, technological and investment restrictions, and **limited supply-chain decoupling**. But that could easily descend into an all-round mercantilist and deglobalisation spiral. Hence China must be engaged at the same time, not least to preserve existing links that are mutually beneficial. Engagement and strategic decoupling need not be mutually exclusive. Still, this will prove an incredibly difficult, perhaps elusive, balancing act.

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

Kampf ’20 [David; June 16; PhD Fellow at the Center for Strategic Studies at The Fletcher School, MA in International Affairs from Columbia University; World Politics Review, “How COVID-19 Could Increase the Risk of War,” https://www.worldpoliticsreview.com/articles/28843/how-covid-19-could-increase-the-risk-of-war]

But that overlooked the ways in which the risk of interstate war was already rising before COVID-19 began to spread. Civil wars were becoming more numerous, lasting longer and attracting more outside involvement, with dangerous consequences for stability in many regions of the world. And the global dynamics most commonly cited to explain the falling incidence of interstate war—democracy, economic prosperity, international cooperation and others—were being upended. If the spread of democracy kept the peace, then its global decline is unnerving. If globalization and economic interdependence kept the peace, then a looming global depression and the rise of nationalism and protectionism are disconcerting. If regional and global institutions kept the peace, then their degradation is unsettling. If the balance of nuclear weapons kept the peace, then growing risks of proliferation are disquieting. And if America’s preeminent power kept the peace, then its relative decline is troubling. Now, the pandemic, or more specifically the world’s reaction to it, is revealing the extent to which the factors holding major wars in check are withering. The idea that war between nations is a relic of the past no longer seems so convincing. The Pessimists Strike Back More than any other individual, it was cognitive scientist Steven Pinker who popularized the idea that we are living in the most peaceful moment in human history. Starting with his 2011 bestseller, “The Better Angels of Our Nature: Why Violence Has Declined,” Pinker argued that the frequency, duration and lethality of wars between great powers have all decreased. In his 2019 book, “Enlightenment Now: The Case for Reason, Science, Humanism, and Progress,” he wrote that war “between the uniformed armies of two nation-states appears to be obsolescent. There have been no more than three in any year since 1945, none in most years since 1989, and none since the American-led invasion of Iraq in 2003.” Optimists like Pinker held that, rather than the world falling apart, as a quick glance at headline news might suggest, the opposite was true: Humanity was flourishing. More regions are characterized by peace; fewer mass killings are occurring; governance and the rule of law are improving; and people are richer, healthier, better educated and happier than ever before. In their book, “Clear and Present Safety: The World Has Never Been Better and Why That Matters to Americans,” Michael A. Cohen and Micah Zenko argued that the evidence is so overwhelming that it is difficult to argue against the idea that wars between great powers, and all other interstate wars, are becoming vanishingly rare. Even when wars do break out, they tend to be shorter and less deadly than they were in the past. John Mueller, a senior fellow at the Cato Institute, also reasoned that the idea of war, like slavery and dueling before it, was in terminal decline, while Joshua Goldstein, an international relations researcher at American University, credited the United Nations and the rise of peacekeeping operations for helping win the “war on war.” But in recent years, a range of critics have begun to poke holes in these arguments. Tanisha M. Fazal, an international relations professor at the University of Minnesota, contends that the decline in war is overstated. Major advances in medicine, speedier evacuations of wounded soldiers from the field of battle and better armor have made war less fatal—but not necessarily less frequent. Fazal and Paul Poast, who is at the University of Chicago, further assert that the notion of war between great powers as a thing of the past is based on the assumption that all such conflicts resemble World War I and II—both are historical anomalies—and overlooks the actual wars fought between great powers since 1945, from the Korean War and the Vietnam War to proxy wars from Afghanistan to Ukraine. Meanwhile, Bear F. Braumoeller, an Ohio State political science professor, analyzed the same historical data on conflicts used by Pinker, Mueller and Goldstein, and found no general downward trend in either the initiation or deadliness of warfare over the past two centuries. What’s more, Braumoeller contends that the so-called “long peace”—the 75 years that have passed without systemic war since World War II—is far from invulnerable, and that wars are just as likely to escalate now as they used to be. Just because a major interstate war hasn’t happened for a long time, doesn’t mean it never will again. In all probability, it will. And by focusing solely on interstate wars, the optimists miss half the story, at least. Wars between states have declined, but civil wars never disappeared—and these internal conflicts could easily escalate into regional or global wars. The number of conflicts in the world reached its highest point since World War II in 2016, with 53 state-based armed conflicts in 37 countries. All but two of these conflicts were considered civil wars. To make matters worse, new studies have shown that civil wars are becoming longer, deadlier and harder to conclusively end, and that these internal conflicts are not really internal. Civil wars harm the economies and stability of neighboring countries, since armed groups, refugees, illicit goods and diseases all spill over borders. Some 10 million refugees have fled to other countries since 2012. The countries that now host them are more likely to experience war, which means states with huge refugee populations like Lebanon, Jordan and Turkey face legitimate security challenges. Even after the threat of violence has diminished in refugees’ countries of origin, return migration can reignite conflicts, repeating the brutal cycle. A Yugoslav Federal Army tank. Perhaps most importantly, recent research indicates that civil wars increase the risk of interstate war, in large part because they are attracting more and more outside involvement. In a 2008 paper, researchers Kristian Skrede Gleditsch, Idean Salehyan and Kenneth Schultz explained that, in addition to the spillover effects, two other factors in civil wars increase international tensions and could possibly provoke wider interstate wars: external interventions in support of rebel groups and regime attacks on insurgents across international borders. Immediately after the Cold War, none of the ongoing civil wars around the world were internationalized. According to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program, there were 12 full-fledged civil wars in 1991—in Afghanistan, Iraq, Peru, Sri Lanka, Sudan, and elsewhere—and foreign militaries were not active on the ground in any of them. Last year, by contrast, every single full-fledged civil war involved external military participants. This is due, in part, to the huge growth in U.S. military interventions abroad into civil conflicts, but it’s not only the Americans. All of today’s major wars are in essence proxy wars, pitting external rivals against one another. Conflicts in Syria, Yemen and Libya are best understood not as civil wars, but as international warzones, attracting meddlers including the United States, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, Iran, France and many others, which often intervene not to build peace, but to resolve conflicts in a way that is favorable to their own interests. These internationalized wars are more lethal, harder to resolve and possibly more likely to recur than civil wars that remain localized. It is not that difficult to imagine how these conflicts could spark wider international conflagrations. Wars, after all, can quickly spiral out of control. As Risks Increase, Deterrents Decline To make matters worse, most of the global trends that explained why interstate war had decreased in recent decades are now reversing. The theories that democracy, prosperity, cooperation and other factors kept the peace have been much debated—but if there was any truth to them, their reversals are likely to increase the chance of war, irrespective of how long the coronavirus pandemic lasts. Democracy is often considered a prophylactic for war. Fully democratic countries are less likely to experience civil war and rarely, if ever, go to war with other democracies—though, of course, they do still go to war against non-democracies. While this would be great news if democracy and pluralism were spreading, there have now been 14 consecutive years of global democratic decline, and there have been signs of additional authoritarian power grabs in countries like Hungary and Serbia during the pandemic. If democracy backslides far enough, internal conflicts and foreign aggression will become more likely. Other theories posit that economic bonds between countries have limited wars in recent decades. Dale Copeland, a professor of international relations at the University of Virginia, has argued that countries work to preserve ties when there are high expectations for future trade, but war becomes increasingly possible when trade is predicted to fall. If globalization brought peace, the recent wave of far-right nationalism and populism around the world may increase the chances of war, as tariffs and other trade barriers go up—mostly from the United States under President Donald Trump, who has launched trade wars with allies and adversaries alike. The coronavirus pandemic immediately elicited further calls to reduce dependence on other countries, with Trump using the opportunity to pressure U.S. companies to reconfigure their supply chains away from China. For its part, China made sure that it had the homemade supplies it needed to fight the virus before exporting extras, while countries like France and Germany barred the export of face masks, even to friendly nations. And widening economic inequalities, a consequence of the pandemic, are not likely to enhance support for free trade. This assault on open trade and globalization is just one aspect of a decaying liberal international order, which, its proponents argue, has largely helped to preserve peace between nations since World War II. But that old order is almost gone, and in all likelihood isn’t coming back. The U.N. Security Council appears increasingly fragmented and dysfunctional. Even before Trump, the world’s most powerful country ratified fewer treaties per year under the Obama administration than at any time since 1945. Trump’s presidency only harms multilateral cooperation further. He has backed out of the Paris Agreement on climate change, reneged on the Iran nuclear deal, picked fights with allies, questioned the value of NATO and defunded the World Health Organization in the middle of a global health crisis. Hyper-nationalism, rather than international collaboration, was the default response to the coronavirus outbreak in the U.S. and many other countries around the world. It’s hard to see the U.S. reluctance to lead as anything other than a sign of its inevitable, if slow, decline. The country’s institutionalized inequalities and systemic racism have been laid bare in recent months, and it no longer looks like a beacon for others to follow. The global balance of power is changing. China is both keen to assert a greater leadership role within traditionally Western-led institutions and to challenge the existing regional order in Asia. Between a rising China, revanchist Russia and new global actors, including non-state groups, we may be heading toward an increasingly multipolar or nonpolar world, which could prove destabilizing in its own right. Finally, the pacifying effect of nuclear weapons could be waning. While vast nuclear arsenals once compelled the United States and the Soviet Union to reach arms control agreements, old treaties are expiring and new talks are breaking down. Mistrust is growing, and the chance of an unwanted U.S.-Russia nuclear confrontation is arguably as high as it has been since the Cuban missile crisis. The theory of nuclear peace may no longer hold if more countries are tempted to obtain their own nuclear deterrent. Trump’s decision to abandon the Iran nuclear deal, for one thing, has only increased the chance that Tehran will acquire nuclear weapons. It’s almost easy to forget that, just a few short months ago, the United States and Iran were one miscalculation or dumb mistake away from waging all-out war. And despite Trump’s efforts to negotiate nuclear disarmament with Kim Jong Un’s regime in Pyongyang, it is wishful thinking to believe North Korea will give up its nuclear weapons. At this point, negotiators can only realistically try to ensure that North Korea’s nuclear menace doesn’t get even more potent. In other words, by turning inward, the United States is choosing to leave other countries to fend for themselves. The end result may be a less stable world with more nuclear actors. If leaders are smart, they will take seriously the warning signs exposed by this global emergency and work to reverse the drift toward war. If only one of these theories for peace were worsening, concerns would be easier to dismiss. But together, they are unsettling. While the world is not yet on the brink of World War III and no two countries are destined for war, the odds of avoiding future conflicts don’t look good. The pandemic is already degrading democracies, harming economies and curtailing international cooperation, and it also seems to be fostering internal instability within states. Rachel Brown, Heather Hurlburt and Alexandra Stark argue that the coronavirus could in fact sow more civil conflict. If this proves accurate, the increase in civil wars is likely to lead to more external meddling, and these next proxy wars could soon precipitate all-out international conflicts if outsiders aren’t careful. With the usual deterrents to conflict declining around the world, major wars could soon return

#### Recent, robust studies prove our impact

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

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

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

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

To trade or to raid

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

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

Trading partners

The causal arrow

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

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

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



#### Unchecked Chinese cartels create escalating deficits that encourage aggressive mil-mod and nuclear war

Collins, 16 (Michael Collins, Michael P. Collins is President of MPC Management, was Vice President and General Manager of two divisions of Columbia Machine in Vancouver, Washington. He has more than 35 years of experience in Manufacturing., 6-13-2016, accessed on 6-9-2021, Industry Week, "It is Time to Stand Up to China", <https://www.industryweek.com/the-economy/trade/article/21974236/it-is-time-to-stand-up-to-china)//Babcii>

The U.S. has been an **enabler** to China’s approach. **China continually** challenges the U.S. by **ignoring** free-market **rules** and doing whatever it takes to **capture market share.** Meanwhile, the U.S. **looks the other way** when China breaks the rules, thus encouraging them to do it again. The most recent example is the steel industry. According to The American Steel and Iron Institute, American steel mills have had to layoff 13,500 employees because China has been dumping steel in the U.S. The Chinese steel companies can sell steel at below-market prices because they are state-owned and, by definition, are subsidized by the government. [[The U.S. in May affirmed that China had been dumping cold-rolled steel;](http://www.industryweek.com/competitiveness/us-affirms-266-dumping-margin-cold-rolled-steel-imports-china) the International Trade Commission will make public its ruling on the case on June 30.] Further, a recent lawsuit by [United States Steel Corp. (IW500/91)](http://www.industryweek.com/resources/us500/2016/United-States-Steel) charges China with price fixing, stealing the company’s trade secrets, and shipping steel to the U.S. through other countries so buyers won’t know the country of origin. China is not a market economy, much less a free-market economy. Still, the U.S. continues to treat China as a free-market economy, with the hope that it will somehow encourage them to **begin playing by the** same **rules** governing the rest of the world. But, alas, it's not happening. Here is a short list of some of China's strategies. Currency Manipulation – China manipulates its currency to keep the U.S. dollar value high, so that Chinese companies have a 30% to 40% cost advantage. This undervaluation is illegal and should be considered to be a direct export subsidy, yet the Commerce Department has refused to treat currency undervaluation as actionable under the law. State-Owned Enterprises (SOE) – China owns and subsidizes many companies, as in the steel industry example, above. Through the subsidized companies, China can target a market with low-cost products, capture market share and drive competitors out of business. Technology Theft – China knows that technology and innovation is what can make them the No. 1 manufacturer in the world, and they are prepared to get it any way they can. They have been accused of using espionage, counterfeiting and buying American technology companies as standard strategies. According to the [US-China Economic Panel Security Commission](https://www.industryweek.com/the-economy/trade/article/21974236/US-China%20Economic%20Panel%20Security%20Commission)’s [2015 report to Congress,](http://www.uscc.gov/Annual_Reports/2015-annual-report-congress) “China’s government conducts and sponsors a massive cyber espionage operation aimed at stealing trade secrets and intelligence from U.S. corporations and the government.” This includes blocking U.S. company websites, revoking business licenses and censoring the internet. Technology Transfer - As a condition of accessing the Chinese markets, China requires U.S. companies that build plants in China to create joint ventures with local companies—and share with them their latest technologies. [Testimony to Congress by Patrick A. Mulloy](https://books.google.com/books?id=rkbfsgEACAAJ&dq=%22Across+the+Pond+U.s.+Opportunities+and+challenges+in+the+Asia+Pacific&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwi-lL_ui9jMAhVN4GMKHX5fCAAQ6AEIHDAA) asserts that we are slowly losing the Advanced Technology Products industries to China. Advanced technology products includes the more advanced elements of the computer and electronics industry as well as life sciences, biotechnology, aerospace and nuclear technology, all of which are central to U.S.'s own innovation strategy. In 2014, the U.S. trade deficit with China in advanced technology products was $123 billion. Research & Development Facilities - China requires foreign companies with plants in China set up R&D facilities in China. As a result, foreign companies have built more than 1,000 R&D labs in China. The Results of China's Unfair Trade Practices & U.S.'s Weak Response So what are the results of China's unfair trade practices? First, by now, everyone knows that trade agreements do not benefit all citizens; there are winners and losers. The **winners are** the multinational corporations who have plants in **China**. The losers are American small businesses and workers. The initial promotion of China trade promised that consumers would be better off because of the cheap imported products. However, China trade created a $**3.6 trillion deficit**, which eliminated **jobs** and stagnated **wages**. It is part of the reason the rich have gotten richer and the poor poorer. Second, the **economic strength** built upon these practices has helped China **grow** its **military might**. According to the U.S.-China Commission, China continues to modernize its forces "... creating additional challenges for the United States and its allies. Most notably, China conducted its first test of a new **hypersonic** missile vehicle, which could enable China to conduct kinetic strikes anywhere in the world within minutes to hours, and performed its second flight test of a new **road-mobile intercontinental missil**e that will be able to strike the entire continental United States and could carry up to 10 independently maneuverable warheads. “China is making **big investments** in modern **submarines, ships** and combat **aircraft**. For the first time, its Navy began combat patrols in the Indian Ocean. Its first aircraft carrier has conducted a long-distance deployment. China is exerting force to control its claims in the **East and South China Seas**. "Perhaps of most concern is Beijing's apparent **willingness to provoke incidents** at sea and in the air that could lead to a **major conflict** as China's maritime and air forces expand their operations beyond China's immediate periphery."

### 1AC --- Adv --- Development

#### Contention 2 is DEVELOPMENT:

#### Post-hoc defenses spillover to undermine deterrence globally and encourages states to follow in the footsteps

Brunell and Stutz, 18 (Richard Brunell and Randy Stutz, Richard Brunell previously served as the General Counsel of the American Antitrust Institute. In 2012-13, he served as Senior Advisor for Competition Matters in the chairman’s office at the Federal Trade Commission. graduate of Swarthmore College and the Harvard Law School, Randy M. Stutz is Vice President of Legal Advocacy at the American Antitrust Institute. Stutz is a graduate of Washington University in St. Louis and the Catholic University Columbus School of Law., 3-5-2018, accessed on 11-18-2021, Antitrust institute, "BRIEF FOR THEAMERICAN ANTITRUST INSTITUTEAS AMICUS CURIAE INSUPPORT OF PETITIONERS", <https://www.antitrustinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/16-1220-tsac-AmericanAntitrustInst.pdf)//Babcii>

C. The Lack of Transparency of a Foreign Government’s Law is Grounds for Less, Not More, Deference The Second Circuit thought the fact that “‘Chinese law is not as transparent as that of the United States’” made it particularly important to defer to the Ministry’s interpretation. Pet. App. 29a (quoting district court). But the opposite is true. A lack of transparency should be grounds to call into question a **post hoc statement** that price fixing of exports has been compelled. To facilitate its entry into the WTO, China made representations to the world trading body **that it “gave up export administration” of vitamin C** and many other products. JA 319; see also 2001 WTO Report ¶¶ 50, 56, 62, at 10-12 (China represented that it had sharply reduced the number of products subject to government price control—identifying those products in an annex—and that “price controls would not be used for purposes of affording protection to domestic industries”). **Then, in this case, MOFCOM claimed to have directed its exporters to fix prices** and restrict the supply of vitamin C. The district court concluded that China’s **representations to the WTO “appear to contradict** the Ministry’s position in the instant litigation,” which was a further reason not to defer to the Ministry’s position. Pet. App. 120a-121a. More generally, the very fact that China’s minimum export price system is “largely opaque” and “highly non-transparent,” according to the U.S. Trade Representative,9 is itself grounds for affording less deference. Cf. Int’l Guidelines § 4.2.2 n.124 (ambiguous statements regarding compulsion not given dispositive weight). As in the state-action context, it is important that foreign sovereigns that mandate anticompetitive export restraints “**accept political responsibility** for actions they intend to undertake” **in the worldwide trading arena**. Fed. Trade Comm’n v. Ticor Title Ins. Co., 504 U.S. 621, 636 (1992). A foreign government should “make clear that [it] is responsible for the price fixing it has sanctioned and undertaken to control.” Id. at 633. Its failure to do so militates against affording conclusive deference to its post hoc statements. D. Weakening Deterrence Is Unwise in an Era of Rampant International Cartels International cartels are a scourge of the global economy. Known international cartels have been estimated to cost consumers around the globe more than $1.5 trillion since 1990, with North American consumers paying more than $400 billion.10 The Justice Department has prosecuted dozens of international cartels, obtaining fines of over $12 billion, and jail time for over 88 foreign nationals.11 See generally Minn-Chem, Inc. v. Agrium Inc., 683 F.3d 845, 860 (7th Cir. 2012) (“Foreign cartels . . . have often been the target of either governmental or private litigation.”). But despite stepped up U.S. and foreign anti-cartel enforcement, international cartels continue to proliferate. See Connor at 22-23 (75 discovered per year); Scott D. Hammond, Deputy Ass’t Attorney General, The Evolution of Criminal Antitrust Enforcement Over the Last Two Decades 1, 3 (Feb. 25, 2010) (50 DOJ investigations open at a time). Deterrence remains insufficient. See John M. Connor & Robert H. Lande, Cartels as Rational Business Strategy: Crime Pays, 34 Cardozo L. Rev. 427, 429 (2012). Conclusive deference, by making it easier to prove a foreign sovereign compulsion or “true conflict” defense, will only **undercut deterrence**, making cartels that harm U.S. consumers **more likely. “The host country** for the cartel will often **have no incentive to prosecute it”** and “would logically be pleased to reap the economic rents from other countries . . . [that] their exporters collect.” Minn-Chem, 683 F.3d at 860. The same **incentive may lead foreign governments to lend their support to export cartels** when challenged in U.S. courts. And even if such support is not forthcoming, deterrence is lessened if foreign **firms believe that they can immunize their** export **cartels** under U.S. law by obtaining a statement from their government that their conduct was compelled.

#### Specifically, that causes sprawling cartels in the global south --- The question of antitrust immunization is key

Martyniszyn, 12 (Marek Martyniszyn, PhD Candidate, Ad Astra Scholar, University College Dublin School of Law, 2012, accessed on 1-3-2022, Queens University, "Export Cartels: Is it Legal to Target your Neighbour? Analysis in Light of Recent Case Law", https://pureadmin.qub.ac.uk/ws/portalfiles/portal/13701517/SSRN\_id2012838\_1.pdf)//Babcii

VI. Conclusion The **creativity of the corporate world seems unlimited**. There is no reason to believe that businesses around the world would refrain from taking advantage of the present **regulatory system allowing for export cartels**. The absence of empirical data should not lead to the conclusion that the issue is nonexistent. The unique treatment accorded to export cartels at the moment, as compared to other types of cartels, by their tolerance or encouragement, and the immunity from domestic antitrust laws, is not a beneficial policy in the long-run. The recent case law illustrates the deficiencies of the present regulatory framework. The lack of an international mechanism addressing export cartels forces targeted states to rely on extraterritorial application of national competition laws. In general this unilateral route, from a practical perspective, requires expertise and resources, which are scarce in many jurisdictions. As the Indian ANSAC case shows, the lack of an explicit legal basis in national legislation providing for extraterritoriality may hinder such actions. It also underlines that when binding international mechanisms in competition law are lacking, the matter will be addressed through trade policy when important economic interests are at stake. It suggests that it is in the best interest of the less powerful states who are interested in legal resolution of controversies arising from transnational anticompetitive conduct and who lack trade muscle, to work towards international consensus in this area. At the same time, the South African case shows that when competition law is free to take its course unobstructed, extraterritoriality may lead to positive outcomes and may be a useful tool in the fight with export cartels. It is noteworthy that both cases concerned the same officially registered and publicly known export cartel, which was earlier challenged in a developed competition law regime. This seems to be the only case of this nature. **The Chinese**/US **cases**, in general, point out that export **cartels** may come also **from the global South**. If this development becomes **a large**r **phenomenon**, it could, in principle, reframe the discussion on export cartels in terms of possible tradeoffs. Some economists suggested tying a general prohibition of export cartels in developed countries227 with market access concessions on behalf of and transfers from developing world as a form of reciprocation.228 Were export cartels to become more widespread in the global South, any such ‘package deal’ would require reconsideration. Moreover, the Chinese export cartel cases show that government’s **involvement** in transnational anticompetitive conduct, like export cartels, **poses a challenge to antitrust regimes**. If the bulwark of sovereignty proves to provide a **shelter** in such scenarios, then there is a risk that state-protected **export cartels become more prevalent, undermining** not only the competition laws, but also the **rules of international trade**, by according entities engaged in such anticompetitive conduct **a comparative advantage**. This perspective may in fact incentivize international community to look for a solution to the issue of both private and public, state(s)-driven, export cartels. While it is unlikely to reach a compromise prohibiting public export cartels dealing with natural resources,229 this as such should not restrain us from placing them on the international agenda as well, looking for a mutually beneficial solution with an intention to tighten up the gaps in the current regulatory framework.

#### Now is key ---The pandemic spurs massive incentives for cartelization

World Bank Group ’21 [The World Bank Group; “FIXING MARKETS, NOT PRICES Policy Options to Tackle Economic Cartels in Latin America and the Caribbean,” <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/35985/Fixing-Markets-Not-Prices-Policy-Options-to-Tackle-Economic-Cartels-in-Latin-America-and-the-Caribbean.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>;]

Collusive agreements among competitors create unmitigated harm. When competitors agree to limit competition, i.e. to form economic cartels, the poor pay up to 50 percent more for essential goods, growth is stymied as competitiveness and productivity declines, and public policies become less effective. Such collusion undermines citizens’ trust in market economies and in the role of the private sector as an engine of growth.

And yet, cartels are common across many markets, mostly undetected and likely on the rise in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. Cartels affect hundreds of markets from milk and poultry to oxygen and cement. Only a fraction of such secretive agreements is detected each year. In the aftermath of the COVID-19 crisis, the corporate sector is consolidating, and governments are intervening more in markets. Increasing corporate market power is associated with lower business dynamism.1 More concentrated and less dynamic markets create fertile ground for even more cartels. All the while, cartel detection has come to a virtual halt since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic.

#### Cartelization undermines sustainable development

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III. Market failures and the need for regulation to avoid firms' misconduct Collusion is a market failure that occurs when firms in a market coordinate, restricting competition and negatively affecting prices, outputs, and innovation. Public institutions are making a great effort in detecting firms' collusion practices that harm competition. Research on cartel overcharge shows a significant increase in price attributable to collusion (Connor 2010; Smuda 2014; Boyer and Kotchoni 2015). Among other adverse effects, collusion may provoke an extraction of consumers' welfare in favor of the cartel firms, reducing firms' incentives to invest in innovation. It is important to contextualize the relevance of collusion agreements. Private International Cartels (PIC) database, developed by Professor John M. Connor, contains detailed information for price-fixing cartels detected between 1990 and 2017. Relative to the GDP, cartels operating in Europe are triple those operating in North America, while the affected sales' size is equal between both markets, with affected sales' totaling about $900 billion, of which global cartels account for 37%. One clear example of market manipulation is the truck cartel. In July 2016, the European Commission ("E.C.") imposed a record fine of €3 billion to MAN, Volvo/Renault, Daimler, Iveco, and DAF for continuing collusion in the medium and heavy truck market. Over 14 years, the firms colluded on pricing, the introduction of new emission technologies, and passing on compliance costs with stricter emission rules. Scania was part of the cartel practices but did not accept the fine and initiated a separate legal proceeding to defend itself from the accusations. Scania was eventually declared guilty by the E.C. and received a fine of €880m2. One essential piece to improving good faith competition is an efficient competition law that avoids firms' misconduct. Antitrust is considered as one of the most important public policies that has aimed at protecting a public good as well as protecting consumers from predatory business practices: good faith competition. There are substitute arguments on the necessity of governments' intervention. The theory of "public interest" is based on the assumption that government can solve inefficiencies caused by monopolistic conduct and externalities through intervention. The second stream of thought states that competition and private enforcement mitigate market failures within strong legal systems and well functioning courts (Coase 1960). Shleifer (2005) highlights that the enforcement environment determines the optimal intervention system (public regulation or court-based system). In antitrust cases, victims can initiate an action from scratch (stand-alone) or after the competition body adopts an infringement decision (follow-on). Claimants initiating a standalone action have to prove the infringement, while in follow-on actions, the claimants benefit from the antitrust resolutions. Stand-alone damage actions have high barriers for victims due to the difficulties obtaining evidence of the infringement conduct. These actions are highly costly and risky. Therefore, it may not achieve the deterrence function for colluding firms. Private enforcement is the necessary complement for public enforcement to have efficient competition law. However, a study commissioned by the EU in 2004 identified actions for damages against antitrust infringement were totally undeveloped. In 2014, the EU adopted antitrust actions for damages to eliminate obstacles to compensation for antitrust victims and better define the relationship between public and private enforcement. The Directive 2014/104/EU facilitates private enforcement through follow-on actions for damages on European Commission or national competition bodies' resolutions. Among other changes, the Directive establishes that the competition regulators' final decision is binding before courts. It also states that there is a presumption that cartels cause harm3 , and cartel victims have to prove in national courts the amount of loss they suffered from an infringement. The Directive establishes a time-barred period of five years to bring cases to courts since the infringement has ceased, so victims will have had sufficient time to bring an action. Before the Directive enaction, limitation periods differed considerably among member states, and the starting period cannot be precisely identified. While this new regulation facilitates victims' actions and incentivizes private enforcement, it is still complex in time and cost. The main difficulties that claimants face are related to proving and quantifying this misconduct's effects on their specific situation. The quantification of the economic effects usually requires a large sample of data and a high level of expertise to deal with it properly. It is difficult to prove the economic effects of the misconduct with single-case data. The limitations associated with single enforcements have generated an opportunity for funds who are willing to invest in damage claims. Currently, litigation funds provide complete financing for the process under a profit-sharing structure, and even some investors are directly acquiring such claims4 . In December 2020, the European Union adopted the Directive 2020/1828 on representative actions to protect consumers' collective interests. It is one additional step in the regulation process to protect consumers' interests against infringement actions. The new regulation, jointly with the interest of funds to support these claims, enhances private enforcement in Europe, and it is an important element in promoting the good faith competition disincentivizing firms to collude. IV. Conclusion Within perfect competition, profits are zero at the maximum, and firms have little or no incentives to innovate because they cannot create sustainable competitive advantages. However, most industries have some degree of heterogeneity and differentiation. In product-differentiation markets and under good faith competition, profit-maximization firms have incentives to obtain abnormal returns through value-creating strategies that competitors cannot replicate. This search for competitive advantage creates a virtuous cycle of innovation, which is the pillar for economic growth, employment, and welfare enhancement. Poverty reduction is one of the main goals of governments and multilateral organizations. Sustained economic growth is a powerful mechanism to reduce poverty providing new employment opportunities and making education more accessible to the wider population. It also incentivizes entrepreneurship. All these factors improve competitiveness, which results in more economic growth. Markets have to operate in good faith to achieve the advantages of innovation. Governments have to ensure the fair-functioning of the markets. However, firms may try to extract consumers' welfare through anti-competitive agreements. Cartels are situations in which firms decide to cooperate and not compete, thereby injuring customers by rising prices, restricting production, or reducing their investments in R&D. These anti-competitive agreements reduce innovation and negatively affect economic growth. Competition law plays an essential role in disincentivizing firms to collude. The interaction of antitrust regulation and private enforcement is a powerful instrument in deterring future antitrust violations and supporting good faith competition. Sustainable growth is one dimension of sustainable development. The evaluation of sustainable development requires the inclusion of other relevant factors in the equation, such as reducing carbon emissions and global warming, reducing « with-in » countries' inequality, and ensuring equal opportunities for all. There is an open discussion on the correct balance between the three dimensions of sustainable development- economic, environmental, and social. One example of the adequacy of the sustainability indicators is the recent research developed by Einsenmenger et al. (2020) that criticizes the overweight of economic growth versus ecological integrity in the SDGs of the U.N.'s 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Some economic models offer a new approach for including sustainability factors in the equation. The so-called Doughnut Economy (Raworth 2017) includes planetary and social as upper and lower boundaries for economic growth. The planetary boundaries assure that economic growth does not put too much pressure on the planet's health and includes, among other concepts, climate change, ocean acidification, and the loss of biological diversity. The social boundaries include life's essentials, from food to healthcare and education. Lastly, there is a sweet spot area for economic growth within those two boundaries, environmentally friendly and socially. In sum, there are multiple potential trade-offs between economic growth and social and environmental impacts, and each generation will have to decide what is the right balance. But whatever the chosen balance is, we argue that good faith competition is still a minimum requirement to promote long-term sustainable growth that helps reduce poverty and improve people's standard of living and well-being around the world.

#### AND causes government capture and state collapse

Khameni 7, \*R. Shyam, Advisor, Competition Policy, in the Financial and Private Sector Development Vice-Presidency of the World Bank Group, Washington D.C., 2007, (“Competition Policy and Promotion of Investment, Economic Growth and Poverty Alleviation in Least Developed Countries,” (<https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/397801468174885108/pdf/413340FIAS1Competition1Policy01PUBLIC1.pdf>)

A persistent challenge that faces the governments of least-developed countries as well as policy advisors at the Bretton Woods Institutions, the United Nations, and aid agencies is: how to foster sustainable broad-based economic growth, development, and poverty reduction. During the past two decades or more, various policy approaches have been explored. In the “first-generation reforms,” the World Bank Group and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), among others, focused on promoting the macroeconomic stability and trade integration of countries. Second-generation reforms moved from the broad policy environment to encourage more microeconomic changes, namely, improvements in the administrative, legal, and regulatory functions of the State. Of late, particular emphasis has been placed on the role of the public sector in establishing an “investment climate” conducive to promoting private sector-led investment, growth, and poverty alleviation. The quality of a country’s investment climate determines the risks and transaction costs of investing in and operating a business. These risks and costs are in turn determined by the legal and regulatory framework, barriers to entry-exit, and conditions prevailing in markets for labor, finance, infrastructure services, and other productive inputs. Essentially, the quality of the investment climate will determine the mobility and speed with which resources can be redeployed from lower to higher productive uses. For this to occur effectively, the nature and degree of competition in markets plays a pivotal role. In this regard, there is significant economic evidence suggesting that private investment has grown faster in countries with better investment climates. Also, economies with competitive domestic markets tend to attract more domestic and foreign direct investment, have higher levels and rates of growth in per capita gross domestic product (GDP), and lower rates of poverty.1 Promoting effective competition is often argued on grounds that it spurs firms to focus on efficiency and improve consumer welfare by offering greater choice of higher-quality products and services at lower prices. However, it also promotes greater accountability and transparency in government-business relations and decision making, and contributes to reducing corruption, lobbying, and rent-seeking behavior. Additionally, by lowering barriers to entry, it provides opportunities for broad-based participation in the economy and for sharing in the benefits of economic growth. Without effective competition, firms are more likely to possess considerable market power, which enables them to earn excess profits and wield political influence to tilt public policy in their favor. There are also likely to be distorted price and profit signals and increased risk of misguided investment and output decisions, which can lead to economy-wide repercussions. The merits and benefits of fostering open and competitive markets have been recognized in many countries that have adopted various macro- and microeconomic reforms. However, there is wide variation in the economic growth and development of nations. Casual observations indicate that there is also a wide variation in the nature and extent of competition prevailing within and across countries. Moreover, notwithstanding the merits and benefits of competition, there is no consensus or widespread support for promoting competition within and across countries—especially developing nations. This stems in part from the lack of understanding or appreciation of what effective competition can tangibly contribute to the betterment of the lives of ordinary citizens, and in part from ideological differences and the influence wielded by vested interest groups in both government and the economy at large. Although the differences in the economic growth and development of nations cannot purport to be explained by the differences in the prevailing degrees of competition, this paper argues that it is one of the important, if not critical explanatory factors. It is well established that least-developed economies are encumbered by limitations of human and physical capital, governance and institutional structures, and other resource constraints. But they are also prevented from achieving their potential by various types of public policy-based and private sector anticompetitive business practices. The primary message of this paper is that these countries need to take concrete, consistent, and coherent measures to integrate and promote effective competition policy as part of their overall government economic and regulatory framework. An effective competition policy should be viewed as the “fourth cornerstone” of this framework— along with sound monetary, fiscal, and commercial (international trade) policies.

#### Sustainable development prevents global existential risks

Cernev and Fenner, 20—Australian National University AND Centre for Sustainable Development, Cambridge University Engineering Department (Tom and Richard, “The importance of achieving foundational Sustainable Development Goals in reducing global risk,” Futures, Volume 115, January 2020, Article 102492, dml)

4. Risks from failure to meet the SDGs 4.1. Cascading failures Fig. 3 demonstrates that cascade failures can be transmitted through the complex inter-relationships that link the Sustainable Development Goals. Randers, Rockstrom, Stoknes, Goluke, Collste, Cornell, Donges et al. (2018) have suggested that where meeting some SDGs impact negatively on others, this may lead to “crisis and conflict accelerators” and “threat multipliers” resulting in conflicts, instability and migrations. Ecosystem stresses are likely to disproportionately affect the security and social cohesion of fragile and poor communities, amplifying latent tensions which lead to political instabilities that spread far beyond their regions. The resulting “bad fate of the poor will end up affecting the whole global system” (Mastrojeni, 2018). Such possibilities are likely to go beyond incremental damage and lead to runaway collapse. The World Economic Forums’ Global Risks Report for 2018 shows the top five global risks in terms of likelihood and impact have changed from being economic and social in 2008 to environmental and technological in 2018, and are closely aligned with many SDGs (World Economic Forum, 2018). The report notes “that we are much less competent when it comes to dealing with complex risks in systems characterised by feedback loops, tipping points and opaque cause-and-effect relationships that can make intervention problematic”. The most likely risks expected to have the greatest impact currently include extreme weather events natural disasters, cyber attacks, data fraud or theft, failure of climate change mitigation and water crises. These are represented in Fig. 3 by the following exogenous variables. “Climate change” drives the need for Climate Action (SDG 13), “Cyber threat” may adversely impact technology implementation and advancement which will disrupt Sustainable Cities and Communities (SDG 11); Decent Work and Economic Growth (SDG 8) and the rate of introduction of Affordable and Clean Energy (SDG 7), with reductions in these goals having direct consequences in also reducing progress in the other goals which they are closely linked to. “Data Fraud or Threat” has the capacity to inhibit innovation and Industrial Performance (SDG 9), reducing competitiveness (and having the potential to erode societal confidence in governance processes). “Water Crises” (linked with climate change) have a direct impact on Human Health and Well Being (SDG 3) as well as reducing access to Clean Water and Sanitation (SDG 6) and reducing agricultural production which increases Hunger (SDG 2). The causal loop diagram also highlights “Conflict” as a variable (driven by multiple environmental-socio-economic factors) which together with regions most impacted by climate degradation will lead to an increase in migrant refugees enhancing the spread of disease and global pandemic risk, thus impacting directly on Human Health and Well Being (SDG 3) 4.2. Existential and catastrophic risk The level and consequences of these risks may be severe. Existential Risks (ER) have a wide scope, with extreme danger, and are “a risk that threatens the premature extinction of humanity or the permanent and drastic destruction of its potential for desirable future development” (Farquhar et al., 2017,) essentially being an event or scenario that is “transgenerational in scope and terminal in intensity” (Baum & Handoh, 2014). With a smaller scope, and lower level of severity, global catastrophic risk is defined as a scenario or event that results in at least 10 million fatalities, or $10 trillion in damages (Bostrom & Ćirković, 2008). Global Catastrophic Risk (GCR) events are those which are global, but they are durable in that humanity is able to recover from them (Bostrom & Ćirković, 2008; Cotton-Barratt, Farquhar, Halstead, Schubert, & Snyder-Beattie, 2016) but which still have a long-term impact (Turchin & Denkenberger, 2018b). Achieving the Sustainable Development Goals can be considered to be a means of reducing the long-term global catastrophic and existential risks for humanity. Conversely if the targets represented across the SDGs remain unachieved there is the potential for these forms of risk to develop. This association combined with the likely emergence of new challenges over the next decades (Cook, Inayatullah, Burgman, Sutherland, & Wintle, 2014) means that it is of great value to identify points within the systems representations of the Sustainable Development Goals that could both lead to global catastrophic risk and existential risk, and conversely that could act as prevention, or leverage points in order to avoid such outcomes. This identification in turn enables sensible policy responses to be constructed (Sutherland & Woodroof, 2009). Whilst existential threats are unlikely, there is extensive peril in global catastrophic risks. Despite being lesser in severity than existential risks, they increase the likelihood of human extinction (Turchin & Denkenberger, 2018a) through chain reactions (Turchin & Denkenberger, 2018a), and inhibiting humanity’s response to other risks (Farquhar et al., 2017). It is necessary to consider risks that may seem small, as when acting together, they can have extensive consequences (Tonn, 2009). Furthermore, the high adaptability potential of humans, and society, means that for humanity to become extinct, it is most likely that there would be a series of events that culminate in extinction as opposed to one large scale event (Tonn & MacGregor, 2009; Tonn, 2009).

### 1AC --- Plan

#### The United States federal government should increase its prohibitions on anticompetitive business practices by the private sector by expanding the scope of its core antitrust laws to restrict exemptions under act of state, foreign sovereign compulsion, and international comity where the private party and foreign sovereign did not affirmatively disclose their intent to act in an anti-competitive nature

### 1AC --- Solvency

#### Contention 3 is SOLVENCY:

#### The plan institutes a transparency requirement for future exemptions which is goldilocks --- Requiring ex-ante consent for exemptions deters gaming by ensuring that they are liable to either WTO OR Antitrust law BUT retains legitimate deference

Fox and Healey, 14 (Eleanor Fox and Deborah Healey, Eleanor Fox is Walter J. Derenberg Professor of Trade Regulation at New York University School of Law, Deborah Healey is Associate Professor on the Faculty of Law at the University of New South Wales, Austra, 2014, accessed on 11-15-2021, ABA - Antitrust Law Journal, Vol. 79, No. 3, "WHEN THE STATE HARMS COMPETITION—THE ROLE FOR COMPETITION LAW on JSTOR", https://www.jstor.org/stable/43486966)//Babcii

In terms of the defense, which if allowed would validate the state action, we might frame the principal choice in broad terms: **Should private parties**, acting anticompetitively, **be accorded a broad or a narrow state action defense**? Under a broad defense, private parties could defend their anticompetitive behavior if a state policy **merely encouraged it. Under a narrow defense** private parties would be responsible for their behavior **unless the state specifically ordered it** or the state clearly expressed a policy that depended upon the anticompetitive behavior and closely supervised the private anticompetitive acts. (The latter conditions are akin to those required by U.S. law.) The European Union has a very narrow defense: the private **party must have had no autonomy to act competitively.** A yet narrower defense could in theory **require** one more condition - **transparency**. Let us suppose that the offense was price fixing. Contemporaneously with its agreeing to fix prices the implicated firm could be **required to make a public disclosure: "I have just agreed to fix the price of x. The state required me to do it**." This condition would not only provide transparency but would **smoke out latter-day contrived contentions**: "The state made me do it." A narrow defense favors more **market**, less state. A broad defense favors more state, less market. A **broad defense has significant costs.** It errs on the side of vested interests. It would give private firms generous leeway to act **anticompetitively** for their private benefit, which may be **far beyond** what the state contemplated and not remotely needed by the state for its public objectives, as the uranium firms attempted to do in carrying out their cartel in the late 1970s.153 But what costs might a narrow defense impose upon state autonomy? Might it chill the adoption of programs that are (according to the state) good for the people and that the state cannot effectively execute by itself? China made such a claim in an international context in litigation in a U.S. court charging Chinese **vitamin C** makers with price fixing of vitamin C for sale into the United States. China argued that the pharmaceutical trade associations - which became the forum for the private price fixing - were infused with a governmental character, and that China ordered the price fixing of vitamin C in order to shield its firms from dumping claims and to ease them into a market economy.154 **We prefer a narrow defense**. The state can almost always carry out its desired state policy efficiently without enlisting private firms in otherwise **illegal conduct**, and the gains from a broad defense are almost always private. We now turn to fairness. If a defendant firm followed the policy of its state and could not have known that it was doing wrong, there would be a fairness concern. That situation will be rare. If unfairness would occur - e.g., treble damages liability for following an apparent command of the state - **it could normally be addressed in the remedy**. The court could issue an injunction against future price fixing, and perhaps (if allowed by law) could limit damages to the amount of the price fixers' windfall profits. The needs of the state, not the fairness claims of defendants, would lead the search for a wise rule.

#### The only comprehensive studies prove the plans expansion of antitrust successfully deters cartels and induces state compliance with transnational law

\*Card is based  
\*These are the most specific studies to the aff possible --- Found that extraterritorial US antitrust induced both private and state compliance with transnational law --- It also found that exterritorial application deterred vitamin cartels, which are the main question of the Animal Science rulings

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In maintaining a legal and institutional capacity to apply U.S. law **extraterritorially** on the basis of U.S. effects, U.S. courts have prompted a broad spectrum of private entities – American and foreign – **to give U.S. rules substantial weight** in their **transnational operations**. Of course, foreign governments can block their own domestic institutions from enforcing unwelcome U.S. court judgments, which restricts the efficacy of U.S. courts to situations where the United States has independent enforcement power. Foreign governments also retain the option to engineer legal grounds for defendants in U.S. litigation to claim “**sovereign compulsion**” by enacting laws expressly requiring private entities inside their territories to take actions that violate U.S. law. In many instances, however, taking such steps would narrow options for private actors in foreign jurisdictions in ways that would have large commercial and economic downsides (as, for example, if the Swiss government had changed its laws to require, rather than merely to permit, domestic watchmakers to restrict the production and sale of watch parts). In sum, the ability and **willingness** of U.S. courts to apply U.S. antitrust laws extraterritorially has shaped not only the **incentives** of private **entities but also** the menu of domestic legal options available to **foreign governments** whose citizens have U.S. ties. In contrast, the legal and administrative tools for effects-based extraterritoriality have existed in German, British, and EEC law since the 1950s and have been used at a modest but growing rate since the late 1960s. Over this period, European competition rules and practices, particularly with respect to anti-cartel policies, have increasingly come to resemble those of the United States.200 Economic integration achieved through the EEC, and now the EU, correspondingly, has given European regulators and courts an enforcement capacity analogous to that of the United States. However, this equality of capacity has not yet translated into extraterritorial regulatory claim-making on a scale approaching that of the United States. A key reason why is that the power to initiate competition enforcement in Europe remains, in many practical respects, under the near-exclusive control of EU and member state regulators. The hypothesis that U.S. **extraterritoriality** influences private strategic behavior in the antitrust realm is further confirmed by other **empirical work** that focuses on firm behavior. One study, by Julian Clarke and Simon Evenett (2003), examines the effects of international anti-cartel enforcement on the decisions of private entities about whether and on what level to engage in legally prohibited activities in particular settings. Their approach uses a gravity trade model and **data from the World Trade Analyzer database** to measure actual trade flows for a specific commodity (**vitamins**) for nine countries on three continents. They then compare those results with estimated benchmarks in the absence of a cartel constructed from OECD budget and enforcement records. Overall Clarke and Evenett **find that robust enforcement of antitrust rules has deterrent effects on international cartel activity**. **Another study** by John M. Connor (2007) compares the effectiveness of U.S., Canadian, and EU anti-cartel enforcement in the period between 1990 and 2008 along two dimensions. The first is the likelihood of detecting illegal behavior. The second concerns the harshness of penalties. Connor **finds** the U.S. system both more likely to **detect** **wrongdoing** and more likely to produce a **swift and harsh response** when wrongdoing is identified, for example, by imposing large corporate fines or individual criminal penalties. Among the observable ways in which this affects private strategic behavior is in the selection of locations for cartel meetings. Connor finds that conspirators generally avoid U.S. territory, preferring instead to meet “in Switzerland, Mexico, Japan, Hong Kong, and several EU cities that were regarded as less risky.” 201 Still more to the point, he finds that, although the U.S. and EU economies have become roughly equal in terms of GDP, 62 percent of the enterprises that were the target of criminal antitrust enforcement during his study were headquartered in Europe, and only 16 percent were headquartered in the United States. This **implies a high degree of awareness** among U.S. enterprises about the outer limits of U.S. antitrust rules and a healthy **respect for U.S. enforcement** power. To summarize, U.S. government regulators and many key private constituencies inside the United States stand to gain little from a more internationally centralized approach to antitrust enforcement. As Europeans have edged ever closer to U.S.-style antitrust rules and practices, EU regulators and those in Europe’s larger states have learned to wield the effects doctrine to their advantage. At the same time, the integration of European markets has given those regulators increasing leverage to use it effectively. European extraterritorial enforcement, however, has been, with few exceptions, limited in comparison to U.S. practice. If this were to change substantially in the future with the growth of private enforcement in Europe, the result could be an increase in clashes over the authority and appropriateness of extraterritorial regulation and the erosion of the long-standing U.S. preference for unilateralism in international antitrust enforcement.

#### No DA’s --- Even a full rejection of deference to future foreign sovereign cartels would be within the world welfare

\* No Econ DA --- The defense was a massive risk that companies assumed they would lose  
\* No Trade DA --- It’s not a jurisdictional question, controversy isn’t derived from the “direct” question in the FTAIA

Fox, 19 (Eleanor M. Fox, Walter J. Derenberg Professor of Trade Regulation, New York University School of Law. , 2019, accessed on 11-12-2021, Awards.concurrences, "ANTITRUST: UPDATING EXTRATERRITORIALITY", https://awards.concurrences.com/IMG/pdf/4.\_updating\_extraterritoriality.pdf55787/361912bf66b468d8848477187d73628b861dbf86)//Babcii

4. CHINESE VITAMIN C EXPORT CARTEL: CAN A FOREIGN SOVEREIGN IMMUNIZE ITS COMPANIES FROM THE IMPORTING NATION’S ANTI-PRICEFIXING LAW? A limited foreign sovereign compulsiondefense is available under US **antitrust law**. Defendants can defend that they did the violative act solely on their own soil, they had to do it because their government ordered them to do it, and the penalties they faced from violating the order were so great that they could not afford to violate the order. 29 There is also the possibility of dismissal of a private action on comity grounds. It is unclear and much debated as to whether this ground is available in antitrust cases where the anticompetitive effects in the U.S. are direct, substantial and foreseeable, and indeed the intended and the only harm is local.30 Comity is a domestic law concept and, if available, is intended to be applied where foreign interests outbalance US interests and assertion of the US interests will interfere with the foreign relations of the United States.31 The Chinese vitamin C makers fixed the export price of vitamin C to the United States. They admitted it. The price fixing took place within the Chinese trade association, the Association of Importers and Exporters of Medicines and Health Products. Trade associations in China were infused with the presence of government officials, who typically guided the firms in the interests of China.32 US direct buyers sued. The defendants pled foreign sovereign compulsion and comity. The Chinese Ministry of Commerce (MOFCOM) told the federal district court that it ordered the firms to fix their export prices. MOFCOM explained: The firms needed to adjust to a market economy, and MOFCOM wanted them to avoid a US antidumping action. Did MOFCOM really order the firms to fix prices? The jury found that it had not; a Chinese notice invited industry self-regulation, and the notice did not appear to be an order. The jury returned a large award to the overcharged buyers. The Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit reversed. It held that comity required the court to accept China’s word (China’s interpretation of its notice) and that the Chinese interests outweighed the US interests, and it dismissed the case. The Supreme Court vacated the decision and remanded the case because the appellate court improperly treated as conclusive China’s declaration to the court that it ordered the cartel.33 The Vitamin C case—also called Animal Science—**is not about extraterritorial jurisdiction**. There was clearly jurisdiction. The case is about an **alleged** clash of sovereigns. The analysis applicable to the cases of extraterritoriality is equally applicable to resolve the clash. 1. Were the effects of the price-fixing direct, substantial and reasonably foreseeable? The answer is, yes, without question. 2. Was the US enforcement proportionate to the interests of the United States? Again, yes, without question.34**\*\*\*FOOTNOTE BEGINS\*\*\*** 34 Moreover, enforcing the price-fixing **law would create no business uncertainty**. The Chinese firms would surely have known of the strict US law and the uncertainty of a foreign sovereign compulsion defense, and must have taken the risk. If they did not want to take the risk, **they could have** refrained or (if really compelled) **asked for a business review letter rather than keeping their conduct secret**. In a credible case for China’s overriding interest, a favorable business review letter should issue; transparency would facilitate the process of clarifying the law. **\*\*\*FOOTNOTE ENDS\*\*\*** 3. Where did the world welfare interests lie? **This was a naked export cartel**—to the US and the other countries as well. **World welfare lay with the enforcement**. 4. How should the conflict of sovereigns be resolved? China wanted to shield its firms from the US antitrust system. But so did Saskatchewan and maybe Canada (in the potash situation), and so did Korea and Taiwan (in LCD panels); they just did not claim that they said to their firms: “I order you to cartelize.” Why should a country’s order to its firms (let alone its claim that it ordered its firms) to violate the regulating country’s law be enough to differentiate the Potash case (where the US harming conduct was not even as direct) and to immunize the price-fixers? What gives China a greater interest in shielding its firms from the US anti-price-fixing law than the US interest in enforcing its world-standard law against pricefixing?35 If China did order its firms to fix prices in violation of US law and in violation of **the principles of all antitrust jurisdictions including its own internal market rules**, this was a frontal assault on US law and **world norms**. China’s own domestic law not only prohibits pricefixing but even prohibits government officials from ordering firms to price-fix.36 Even if there was a clash of sovereigns in Vitamin C, **the US and world interests easily outweigh China’s**, in the view of this author37 (albeit not in the view of the Court of Appeals of the Second Circuit, which is now reconsidering the case on remand from the Supreme Court).38

#### BUT they are also thumped --- The Supreme court’s decision in Vitamin C smashed foreign deference and comity --- Ensures infinite uncertainty

Bu, 20 (Qingxiu Bu, Commercial Law @ University of Sussex, formerly professor of transnational business @ Georgetown Law Center, 4-30-2020, accessed on 11-30-2021, Oxford University Press, "Respectful Consideration, but Not Deference: Chinese Sovereign Amici in the US Supreme Court Vitamin C Judgment", https://academic.oup.com/jeclap/article-abstract/11/5-6/274/5827020)//Babcii

VI. Conclusion

The US Supreme Court’s **Vitamin C** ruling clarifies that international **comity does not require a court to give binding deference** to a foreign sovereign’s interpretations of its own laws **has far-reaching and significant consequences**. The Supreme Court certified only a narrow question, and offered several (non-exhaustive) criteria the courts should consider. The standard of **respectful consideration** leaves open the possibility that federal courts may reach decisions that completely or partially **reject positions of foreign governments, and that they may do so on inconsistent grounds.** The ruling is focused more on qualitative analysis, there is no much difference in procedures though. Such a multipronged balancing approach **casts more uncertainty for litigants**. Although it addresses the long-standing split in the deference level, this ruling will not change the federal court’s practice dramatically. In this vein, the ruling does not constitute a significant departure from the current approaches by the federal court. It is not a revolution, but a milestone of the evolution of the deference standard.

# 2AC

## 2AC --- Adv --- TLP

### 2AC --- Trade DA --- F/L

#### 1. It’s thumped --- The Supreme court’s rejection of conclusive deference was a slap in the face to China AND opened the floodgates for future litigation to any foreign action --- That’s Bu --- Here is more of the article

**Bu 20** “Respectful Consideration, but Not Deference: Chinese Sovereign Amici in the US Supreme Court Vitamin C Judgment” Qingxiu Bu - University of Sussex, Journal of European Competition Law & Practice, Volume 11, Issue 5-6, May-June 2020, Pages 274–286, April 30, 2020, https://academic.oup.com/jeclap/article-abstract/11/5-6/274/5827020

V. Reshaping he landscape of deference practice? US courts should show appropriate respect to foreign governments, but how much deference will depend on the circumstances. A foreign sovereign’s interpretation of its laws is **not automatic**ally entitled to conclusive deference, but still carry signifcant weight.105 The Supreme Court’s ruling does not provide an absolute rule of udicial obligation, but immense discretion for a federal court to determine foreign law.106 Due to the ill-defned con cept of respectful consideration, it remains uncertain as to how the newly established standard will be applied. Adoption of the less deferential approach would create greater uncertainty as to whether the views expressed by a foreign government will be accepted by US courts.107 Furthermore, in discerning the meaning and credibility of a foreign law, the transparency of the foreign legal system is one relevant consideration in evaluating the foreign sovereign’s interpretation.108 This inevitably creates a de facto hierarchy between foreign legal regimes. 109 **The Supreme Court’s ruling** could **heighten the current tensions,** which could also facilitate more sophisticated laws to mitigate future litigation risks.110 A. Potential reciprocal concern in the context of trade war It is reciprocity that makes comity work. As Weinberg said: ‘if comity is reciprocal, both states are better of than they would have been if each simply applied its own law.’ 111 The US Supreme Court is less ulnerable to the politics of foreign relations than the other US government branches.112 Its decision in Vitamin C is a reassertion of US judicial sovereignty to afrm that a fed eral court reserves the right to disregard foreign regimes’ characterisation of their law as it sees fit. 113 **The ruling itself raised considerable controversy** in declining to defer to MOFCOM’s interpretation. The decision may have implications of reciprocity for the USA when appearing before a foreign court. It may impact international liti gation as well as US foreign relations **for many years to come.** 114 In addition, the Supreme Court leaves open an inquiry of whether foreign courts’ interpretation of their nations’ laws will be diferentiated from those interpreted by their governmental agencies. 1. A variable of foreign relations The Vitamin C ruling has broader ramifications, since the Supreme Court provided less than full deference to China’s interpretations of its own laws. The application of the standard of respectful consideration may be detrimental to the US foreign relations,115 which could have serious consequences.116 Foreign law could compel the very conduct that US law prohibits, and udicial inter ference may infringe on the executive function to handle international relations. 117 Inevitably, there is an impact on foreign diplomacy and trade relations.118 As Eichensehr observed: ‘it would be a mistake for the Court to iew the brief as a representation that disagreement with the foreign sovereign’s iew of international law would provoke serious foreign policy consequences for the United States.’119

#### 3. There is 0 risk of a link in regard to Vitamin C

**Brunell and Stutz, 18** (Richard Brunell and Randy Stutz, Richard Brunell previously served as the General Counsel of the American Antitrust Institute. In 2012-13, he served as Senior Advisor for Competition Matters in the chairman’s office at the Federal Trade Commission. graduate of Swarthmore College and the Harvard Law School, Randy M. Stutz is Vice President of Legal Advocacy at the American Antitrust Institute. Stutz is a graduate of Washington University in St. Louis and the Catholic University Columbus School of Law., 3-5-2018, accessed on 11-18-2021, Antitrustinstitute, "BRIEF FOR THEAMERICAN ANTITRUST INSTITUTEAS AMICUS CURIAE INSUPPORT OF PETITIONERS", <https://www.antitrustinstitute.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/16-1220-tsac-AmericanAntitrustInst.pdf)//Babcii>

The necessity for strict compliance with the requirements of the foreign sovereign compulsion defense or a “true conflict” not only reflects the wide scope of Sherman Act jurisdiction and our national policy favoring competition, but it also **is consistent with the worldwide trend to** favor open markets and **punish price fixing**. “As more jurisdictions have adopted and enforce antitrust laws that are compatible with those of the United States, it has become increasingly common that **no conflict exists between U.S.** antitrust enforcement **interests and the laws** or policies **of a foreign sovereign**.” Int’l Guidelines § 4.1, at 28-29; id. at 28 (“conflicts of law are rare”). Indeed, “**over 130 jurisdictions have enacted antitrust laws** as a means to ensure open and free markets, promote consumer welfare, and prevent conduct that impedes competition.” Id. § 1, at 2. The proliferation of antitrust regimes around the world has been described by scholars as “**astonishing**.” E.g., William E. Kovacic & Marianela Lopez-Galdos, Lifecycles of Competition Systems: Explaining Variation in the Implementation of New Regimes, 79 Law & Contemp. Probs. 85, 86 (2016).6 Among the countries to adopt robust antitrust laws **is China**, which enacted its Anti-Monopoly Law in 2007. Even before then, “[i]mportant laws and administrative regulations involving anti-monopoly issues were adopted in the 1990s” in pursuit of establishing a “socialist market economy.” Zhenguo Wu, Perspectives on the Chinese Anti-Monopoly Law, 75 Antitrust L.J. 73, 74 (2008); see also World Trade Org., Report of the Working Party on the Accession of China ¶ 65, at 12, WT/ACC/CHN/49 (Oct. 1, 2001) (hereinafter 2001 WTO Report) (Chinese government represented that it “encouraged fair competition and was against acts of unfair competition of all kinds”). Price fixing in particular **is universally condemned** and increasingly subject to harsh penalties around the globe. See DLA Piper, Cartel Enforcement Global Review–June 2017. To be sure, government price regulation of some markets is not uncommon in the United States and elsewhere. However, it is a basic principle in the United States that a state may not “simply authorize[] price setting and enforce[] the prices established by private parties.” Cal. Retail Liquor Dealers Ass’n v. Midcal Aluminum, Inc., 445 U.S. 97, 105 (1980); Parker v. Brown, 317 U.S. 341, 351 (1943) (“a state does not give immunity to those who violate the [antitrust law] by authorizing them to violate it, or by declaring that their action is lawful”). A similar **principle against delegating “regulatory” authority to companies to fix prices applies in many countries**. See, e.g., Org. for Econ. Co-operation and Dev., Directorate for Fin. & Ent. Affairs Comp. Comm., The Regulated Conduct Defence at 38, DAF/COMP(2011)3 (Sep. 1, 2011) (“regulated conduct defense” applies “only restrictively” and does not permit “private actors to determine when marketplace outcomes are unacceptable or not”). Moreover, protectionist, **state-sponsored export cartels are afforded little respect among the community of nations**. See, e.g., Org. for Econ. Co-operation and Dev., OECD Business and Finance Outlook 2017 § 4.5, at 155-57 (2017) (calling for “elimination of explicit export cartel exemptions in competition laws,” competition authorities “sharing information and collaborating in investigations” of export cartels, and “positive comity” whereby “exporting competition authorities alert[] importing country authorities about potential harmful export cartel conduct”).7

## 2AC --- Adv --- Development

### 2AC --- AT --- Potash

#### Potash cartels are over.

Rob Wile 13, Energy and Economics Reporter at Business Insider, “A Russian Megafirm Just Blew Up The Potash Market — Which Could Be Great For Anyone Who Buys Food,” Business Insider, 08-04-2013, https://www.businessinsider.com/cartel-ends-grip-of-potash-market-2013-8

Potash is the key ingredient in fertilizer. It would very difficult to grow food without it.

Like oil, there is a finite supply of potash, which contains potassium.

And like oil, the a major portion of the potash market has been controlled by a cartel of Russian, Eastern European and Canadian firms.

Until this week.

Uralkali, the world's biggest potash supplier, announced it was leaving Belarus Potash Co, the European side of the potash cartel.

The move sent shares in potash suppliers tumbling.

The Toronto Globe and Mail's Michael Babad says there's an outside chance Urakali is bluffing to force fellow cartel member Belaruskali to get in line.

But if it proves to be true, the price of potash is going to collapse — which would be brutal for the industry, but great for consumers.

Babad quotes Joel Jackson of BMO Nesbitt Burns' price estimate:

Our analysis is preliminary, but our initial bear case is that global price estimates could fall by $100/tonne (down closer to marginal European costs), which will impact all producers, though companies such as [Potash Corp. and Uralkali] have the most spare capacity to partially offset lower prices and might relatively fare the least worse.

Besides shareholders of potash firms, the other big loser would be the province of Saskatchewan, where Potash comprises 18% of all exports, Babad says.

#### No resource wars

Tetrais 12 – Senior Research Fellow at the Fondation pour la Recherche Stratgique (FRS). Past positions include: Director, Civilian Affairs Committee, NATO Assembly (1990-1993); European affairs desk officer, Ministry of Defense (1993-1995); Visiting Fellow, the Rand Corporation (1995-1996); Special Assistant to the Director of Strategic Affairs, Ministry of Defense (1996-2001).(Bruno, The Demise of Ares, csis.org/files/publication/twq12SummerTertrais.pdf)

The Unconvincing Case for ‘‘New Wars’’ ¶ Is the demise of war reversible? In recent years, the metaphor of a new ‘‘Dark Age’’ or ‘‘Middle Ages’’ has flourished. 57 The rise of political Islam, Western policies in the Middle East, the fast development of emerging countries, population growth, and climate change have led to fears of ‘‘civilization,’’ ‘‘resource,’’ and ‘‘environmental’’ wars. We have heard the New Middle Age theme before. In 1973, Italian writer Roberto Vacca famously suggested that mankind was about to enter an era of famine, nuclear war, and civilizational collapse. U.S. economist Robert Heilbroner made the same suggestion one year later. And in 1977, the great Australian political scientist Hedley Bull also heralded such an age. 58 But the case for ‘‘new wars’’ remains as flimsy as it was in the 1970s.¶ Admittedly, there is a stronger role of religion in civil conflicts. The proportion of internal wars with a religious dimension was about 25 percent between 1940 and 1960, but 43 percent in the first years of the 21st century. 59 This may be an effect of the demise of traditional territorial conflict, but as seen above, this has not increased the number or frequency of wars at the global level. Over the past decade, neither Western governments nor Arab/Muslim countries have fallen into the trap of the clash of civilizations into which Osama bin Laden wanted to plunge them. And ‘‘ancestral hatreds’’ are a reductionist and unsatisfactory approach to explaining collective violence. Professor Yahya Sadowski concluded his analysis of post-Cold War crises and wars, The Myth of Global Chaos, by stating, ‘‘most of the conflicts around the world are not rooted in thousands of years of history--they are new and can be concluded as quickly as they started.’’ 60¶ Future resource wars are unlikely. There are fewer and fewer conquest wars. Between the Westphalia peace and the end of World War II, nearly half of conflicts were fought over territory. Since the end of the Cold War, it has been less than 30 percent. 61 The invasion of Kuwait--a nationwide bank robbery--may go down in history as being the last great resource war. The U.S.-led intervention of 1991 was partly driven by the need to maintain the free flow of oil, but not by the temptation to capture it. (Nor was the 2003 war against Iraq motivated by oil.) As for the current tensions between the two Sudans over oil, they are the remnants of a civil war and an offshoot of a botched secession process, not a desire to control new resources.¶ China’s and India’s energy needs are sometimes seen with apprehension: in light of growing oil and gas scarcity, is there not a risk of military clashes over the control of such resources? This seemingly consensual idea rests on two fallacies. One is that there is such a thing as oil and gas scarcity, a notion challenged by many energy experts. 62 As prices rise, previously untapped reserves and non-conventional hydrocarbons become economically attractive. The other is that spilling blood is a rational way to access resources. As shown by the work of historians and political scientists such as Quincy Wright, the economic rationale for war has always been overstated. And because of globalization, it has become cheaper to buy than to steal. We no longer live in the world of 1941, when fear of lacking oil and raw materials was a key motivation for Japan’s decision to go to war. In an era of liberalizing trade, many natural resources are fungible goods. (Here, Beijing behaves as any other actor: 90 percent of the oil its companies produce outside of China goes to the global market, not to the domestic one.) 63 There may be clashes or conflicts in regions in maritime resource-rich areas such as the South China and East China seas or the Mediterranean, but they will be driven by nationalist passions, not the desperate hunger for hydrocarbons.

## 2AC --- OFF

### 2AC --- T --- Prohibit

#### We meet --- cartel price fixing is per se

Mohr et al 94, Assistant Professor of Marketing in the College of Business at the University of Colorado-Boulder. (Jakki, with Gregory T. Gundlach is an Associate Professor of Marketing in the College of Business Administration at the University of Notre Dame and Robert E. Spekman is Professor of Business Administration at the University of Virginia, Legal Ramifications of Strategic Alliances; Legal ambiguity muddies the waters for collaborative ventures. SECTION: RELATIONSHIP MARKETING; Vol. 3, No. 2; Pg. 38, https://www.unf.edu/~ggundlac/pdfs/pub\_42.pdf)

Many cooperative ventures between competing firms give way to greater competition, even though the absolute number of competing firms might be reduced. A collaborative effort would be labeled as a cartel if horizontal competitors collaborated with respect to price or some other market policy that had a direct and substantial effect on price. Collaboration for such purposes has in the past been declared per se illegal, without elaborate inquiry as to the precise harm caused, or the business' reasons for collaborating.

#### Prohibit can mean ‘severely hinder’---doesn’t necessitate a ban.

Washington Court of Appeals 19 (KORSMO-judge. Opinion in State v. Kimball, No. 35441-5-III (Wash. Ct. App. Apr. 2, 2019). Google scholar caselaw. Date accessed 7/13/21).

His argument runs counter to the meaning of the word "prohibit." It means "1. To forbid by law. 2. To prevent, preclude, or severely hinder." BLACK'S LAW DICTIONARY 1405 (10th ed. 2014). As "severely hinder" suggests, a "prohibition" need not be an all or nothing proposition.

#### **Anticompetitive practices are strategies that have anticompetitive effects.**

Wells 16, Executive Notes Editor, Washington University Global Studies Law Review, J.D., Washington University in St. Louis. (Todd Wells, “Exploring the Space for Antitrust Law in the Race for Space Exploration,” Washington University Global Studies Law Review, Vol. 15, 2016, LexisNexis)

Antitrust law attempts to fight anti-competitive actions. "Anticompetitive practices refer to a wide range of business practices in which a firm or group of firms may engage in order to restrict inter-firm competition to maintain or increase their relative market position and profits without necessarily providing goods and services at a lower cost or of higher quality." The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, Glossary of Statistical Terms, Anticompetitive Practices http://stats.oecd.org.proxy.library.georgetown.edu/glossary/detail.asp?ID=3145. Obviously, with such a broad definition of anticompetitive practices, many types of actions can fall under the regulation of anticompetitive law. This can cover forms of collusion, price fixing, bid rigging, bid suppression, complementary bidding, bid rotation, subcontracting, and market divisions. Price Fixing, Bid Rigging, and Market Allocation Schemes: What They Are and What to Look For, U.S. Dep't of Justice, http://www.justice.gov/atr/ public/guidelines/211578.htm. An even broader approach would put patents under antitrust law. "All of these developments, in Congress and the Courts, are in the spirit of harmonizing patent and antitrust law, generally in the direction of subsuming patent law under antitrust law. From the perspective of providing clarity and certainty for those who are the targets of patent and antitrust suits, harmonization has much appeal." Robin Feldman, Patent and Antitrust: Differing Shades of Meaning,13 Va. J.L. & Tech. 1, 7 (2008).

### 2AC --- WTO CP --- F/L

#### Their evidence will cite “*Raw materials I*” --- The WTO appellate court overturned it and legalized Core aspects of the cartel

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

The **Panel released its report** on July 2011. In the section discussing whether the measures at issue may be subject to WTO dispute settlement, the Panel held that evidence presented-by China’s MOFCOM (“Ministry”) in the context of U.S. domestic court proceedings appeared to confirm the fact that China acknowledges that through the Ministry, it delegated certain implementing authority to the CCCMC to coordinate export prices. 234 According to the Panel, this confirmed that actions undertaken by the CCCMC are therefore measures that can be challenged under the WTO dispute settlement proceedings. 235 Accordingly, the United States won the raw materials case in **the WTO** proceeding even though **the Appellate Body voided the findings** of the Ministry’s amicus brief and decided the case based upon other evidence.23 **\*Footnote 236 begins\*** Specifically, the Appellate Body concluded that China’s system of export duties and quotas on nine industrial raw materials, including certain forms of bauxite and magnesium, violated China’s Accession Protocol and the GATT. However, the Appellate Body vacated the **panel’s findings that China’s minimum export price requirements, export quota administration, and export licensing system were WTO inconsistent** based on an insufficient demonstration of the specific connection between each of the group of diverse, disparate export regulatory measures and China’s different types of WTO commitments. See Appellate Body Report, China-Measures Related to the Exportation of Various Raw Materials, ¶¶ 226-35, 362-63, WTO Doc. WT/DS394/AB/R (adopted Jan. 30, 2012) [hereinafter WTO Appellate Body Report]. **\*Footnote 236 ends\***

#### Antitrust courts will explicitly ignore evidence from the WTO

Wesley, 8/10 (Richard C. Wesley is a Judge of the United States Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit. At the time of his appointment in 2003, he was a Judge of the New York Court of Appeals. Judge Wesley received his B.A. degree summa cum laude from the State University of New York at Albany in 1971, and his J.D. degree from Cornell Law School in 1974., 8-10-2021, accessed on 11-29-2021, Cases.justia, "Animal Sci. Prods. v. Hebei Welcome Pharma. Co. Ltd. 2021 Dissenting Opinion", <https://cases.justia.com/federal/appellate-courts/ca2/13-4791/13-4791-2021-08-10.pdf?ts=1628605810)//Babcii>

Did “Chinese law require[] the Chinese sellers’ conduct[?]” Animal Sci. Prods., Inc. v. Hebei Welcome Pharm. Co., 138 S. Ct. 1865, 1875 (2018). **The majority never** really **answers. Instead, it improperly applies** the doctrine of **international comity to avoid a finding it cannot contest**: that Chinese law did not require the defendants to fix prices above the minimum of $3.35/kg, which is what Hebei and NCPG (the “defendants”) did. Because it was not impossible for the defendants to comply with both Chinese and U.S. law, this case should not be dismissed on international comity grounds. See Hartford Fire Ins. Co. v. California, 509 U.S. 764, 799 (1993). Section 1 of the Sherman Act prohibits “[e]very contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several [s]tates, or with foreign nations.” 15 U.S.C. § 1. “[P]rice-fixing agreements are unlawful per se under the Sherman Act.” Arizona v. Maricopa Cty. Med. Soc., 457 U.S. 332, 345 (1982). It is well established that § 1 proscribes only concerted, not unilateral, action. See Fisher v. City of Berkeley, Cal., 475 U.S. 260, 266 (1986). “Even where a single firm’s restraints directly affect prices and have the same economic effect as concerted action might have, there can be no liability under § 1 in the absence of agreement [with another, separate entity].” Id. As a threshold matter, the plain text of the regulations and agency charter demonstrates Chinese law did not require the defendants to coordinate vitamin C prices and quantities at all. The 2002 Notice establishing the Price Verification and Chop (“PVC”) system stated “the relevant chambers must . . . submit to [Customs] information on industry-wide negotiated prices.” Sp. App’x 302. The 2003 Announcement explained “the Chambers shall . . . affix the . . . chop . . . to the export contracts at the blocks where the prices and quantities are specified” and “verify the submissions by the exporters based on the industry agreements.” Id. at 310. The Vitamin C Subcommittee, “a self-disciplinary trade organization jointly established on [a] voluntary basis” to, inter alia, “coordinate and guide vitamin C import and export business,” expressly gave members “[f]reedom to withdraw from the Subcommittee” in its amended 2002 Charter. Id. at 325–26. The 2003 Announcement acknowledged membership was optional, instructing the Chambers to “give [non-member exporters] the same treatment as to member exporters.” Id. at 311. In other words, under the PVC regime, the defendants were not legally required to engage in any concerted action. They could have complied with Chinese law without violating the Sherman Act by resigning from the Subcommittee and thereby independently setting their prices at or above the industry-coordinated minimum price, abstaining from any “meeting of the minds” to agree on price.1 See Fisher, 475 U.S. at 267. The Ministry and defendants do not dispute this conclusion. The Ministry explicitly agreed that “[u]nder the [Vitamin C Subcommittee’s] 2002 Charter . . . [Subcommittee] membership was no longer necessary to export vitamin C.” Ministry’s Letter Br. at 5. Its argument that “through the PVC system . . . the Chamber . . . ensured that each manufacturer complied with the industry’s price and volume restrictions,” id., does not amount to a violation of the Sherman Act. See Fisher, 475 U.S. at 267 (holding that “the mere fact that all competing property owners must comply with the same provisions of the [city’s rent control] [o]rdinance is not enough to establish a conspiracy among landlords”). The defendants concede members were able to freely resign, but contend they could not because they were members of the executive “Council” elected to four-year terms. See Appellants’ Letter Br. at 3. However, there is no indication their status impeded their legal right to resign. Their argument they could not as “a practical matter,” id., is inapposite; we are concerned only with what Chinese law required. Despite recognizing that members could resign from the Subcommittee, the Ministry avers that the PVC regime required the defendants to violate the Sherman Act. I do not think the Ministry’s submissions merit deference under the Supreme Court’s five-factor test. See Animal Sci. Prods., 138 S. Ct. at 1873. They lack sufficient “clarity, thoroughness, and support,” id., as they conflate China’s 2002 PVC regime with its 1997 regime and fail to address salient issues such as the “suspension provision” of the 2002 Notice permitting “the customs and chambers [to] suspend export price review,” Sp. App’x 302, and the right under the 2002 Charter to freely resign from the Vitamin C Subcommittee. The “context and purpose” factor, Animal Sci. Prods., 138 S. Ct. at 1873, cuts strongly against the Ministry; I do not see how this being the Chinese government’s first official appearance in a U.S. court mitigates the fact that the Ministry has only taken this ––**as the majority recognizes**––self-serving position for the first time in the context of this litigation. See Maj. Op. at 47–48. Its view **conflicts** with China’s public representation to the World Trade Organization (“**WTO**”) in 2002 **that it “gave up export administration of . . . vitamin C,**” noted under the heading “any restrictions on exports through non-automatic licensing or other means . . . .” World Trade Organization, Transitional Review under Art. 18 of the Protocol of Accession of the People's Republic of China, G/C/W/438, at 2–3 (2002) (some emphasis omitted). Upon careful and respectful consideration, these deficiencies prevent me from finding the submissions worthy of deference.

### 2AC --- States CP --- F/L

#### 3. L2NB --- They’ll remove it to federal courts

Crowell and Moring 8 [Crowell and Moring LLP provide legal services across the world and specialize in antitrust, “THE ABCs OF CROSS-BORDER LITIGATION IN THE UNITED STATES”, https://www.crowell.com/files/ABC-Guide-to-Cross-Border-Litigation\_Crowell-Moring.pdf] IanM

It is important to bear in mind that some **federal statutes** may **apply to conduct** abroad of both **foreign** and U.S. **corporations**. For example, certain federal antitrust laws may apply where the **conduct** was meant to **produce** and in fact did produce a **substantial effect** in the United States. Other examples of laws that may be applied extraterritorially include certain federal securities and international banking laws, the Alien Tort Claims Act, suits against foreign states, various federal civil rights acts, and claims related to international arbitration agreements.

REMOVAL FROM STATE COURT TO FEDERAL COURT

“**Removal**” **permits** **defendants** sued in **state court** to “remove” the case from state court, in certain circumstances, so that it may be adjudicated by a federal court. A **party sued** in **state court** may **favor proceeding** in **federal court** for many reasons: federal courts may be more predictable, consistent, and experienced in **certain matters** than state courts; however, federal court litigation also may be more expensive and time-consuming than litigation in the state courts. As usual, with each rule there are exceptions. For example, **federal courts** in the Eastern District of **Virginia** are **known for moving extremely quickly** while some judges in other jurisdictions can take months or even years to resolve threshold questions in a case.

#### 4. It’s pre-empted

**Greenfield et al. ’15** [Leon Greenfield, Steven Cherry, Perry Lange, Jacquelyn; Spring 2015; Partner at WilmerHale; Partner at Wilmerhale; Counsel at Wilmerhale; Asscoiate at WilmerHale; Antitrust, “Foreign Component Cartels and the U.S. Antitrust Laws: A First Principle Approach,” vol. 29, no. 2]

Moreover, the principle that U.S. antitrust laws regulate only U.S. markets should apply even more strongly to state antitrust laws because the states do not have **any role** in regulating **commerce involving foreign nations**, much less the wholly foreign commerce involved in many component **cartels**. 60 If state antitrust laws were permitted to reach into foreign markets when federal laws do not, that would circumvent national policy regarding the appropriate bounds of U.S. antitrust laws established by Congress and the President, which have exclusive authority over foreign commerce and U.S. foreign policy. 61 Allowing the antitrust laws of the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and U.S. territories to regulate purely domestic conduct within other countries’ economies would result in a cacophony of uncertainty to the application of U.S. antitrust laws overseas, precisely the problem that Congress enacted the FTAIA to address. 62 It is beyond the scope of this article to discuss the constitutional issues that could arise if state antitrust laws were construed to extend to foreign commerce that Congress has declared beyond the reach of federal antitrust law. But there are, at the least, very serious questions about whether constitutional provisions fundamental to our system of federalism—such as the **Supremacy** Clause, the Dormant Foreign **Commerce Clause**, and the “**one voice” doctrine**—**would bar state law** from interfering with Congress’s decision to limit the extraterritorial reach of U.S. laws through the FTAIA. 63

#### 5. Consistent application in federal courts is key to deterring cartel practices internationally

Leonardo ’16 [Lizl Leonardo, J.D. Candidate, DePaul University College of Law, 2018; B.S., 2011, De La Salle University-Manila, Philippines. "A Proposal t oposal to the Se o the Seventh and Ninth Cir enth and Ninth Circuit Split: Expand the cuit Split: Expand the Reach of the U.S. Antitrust Laws to Extraterritorial Conduct that Impacts U.S. Commerce." https://via.library.depaul.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=4008&context=law-review]

International commerce has expanded over time. Accordingly, the U.S. courts’ interpretation of antitrust laws must keep up with this rapid growth. It is time to apply a consistent rule that will solve the convoluted body of law and conflicting application of that body of law by the courts. U.S. courts must be able to reach foreign companies’ extraterritorial conduct that have wrongfully affected the U.S. economy. Though international comity may have been a concern in years past, deterrence should bear a greater weight in determining whether a foreign company is subject to the United States’ jurisdiction. After all, antitrust laws are geared towards protecting consumers. Ex panding the reach of the FTAIA to include transactions that occurred outside of the United States, but still have direct and significant effects in the United States, will allow for a more rigid yet necessary rule in the age of increasing international commerce. Consistency across all federal courts will provide foreign companies greater transparency with regard to the laws that govern both their import and non-import trade transactions; formation of cartels will be minimized; price-fixing of products will be easily detected and stopped; innovation and creativity will be encouraged; competition will increase; and prices of goods will likely decrease. Consequently, the United States and the global economy will be favorably impacted.

#### 6. State antitrust nukes global trade

O’Rourke 10 - (Ken O'Rourke, lawyer for O'Melveny & Myers LLP specializing in Antitrust and Competition, Electronic Discovery and Document Retention, Intellectual Property and Technology, and Patent and Technology Litigation; 3-3-2010, Mondaq, "The FTAIA In State Court: A Defense Perspective," doa: 6-2-2021) url: https://www.mondaq.com/unitedstates/trade-regulation-practices/95030/the-ftaia-in-state-court-a-defense-perspective

There are policy reasons for this result as well. Claims arising from international cartel conduct or overseas monopolistic behavior arguably seek to apply state antitrust law to decide the legality of foreign conduct (e.g., communications between English and Japanese manufacturers about industry standards, or discussions between Chinese and Korean buyers, or joint ventures in Singapore investing in South America) regardless of whether such conduct was legal when and where it occurred. Such claims threaten much more than an "incidental or indirect effect" on foreign trade and the internal affairs of foreign countries exercising their sovereign rights to regulate their own markets.25 To assert a state's antitrust law as an all-encompassing international antitrust statute available to police alleged restraints of trade in every country would contravene the federal policy, reflected in the FTAIA, of promoting international comity in this area.26 And allowing one state to apply its antitrust laws to foreign transactions paves the way for every other state to apply its antitrust statutes beyond the limits of the FTAIA.27 Exposure to a thicket of state antitrust regimes would drive foreign companies to avoid doing business that even tangentially affects U.S. commerce.

### 2AC --- Comity CP (UTD) --- F/L

#### 3. They won’t prosecute domestically

Dr. Brian Ikejiaku 21, Senior Lecturer in Law at Coventry University, PhD from the Research Institute of Law, Politics, & Justice (RILPJ) at Keele University, and Cornelia Dayao, LL.M in International Business Law, “Competition Law as an Instrument of Protectionist Policy: Comparative Analysis of the EU and the US”, Utrecht Journal of International and European Law, Volume 36, Issue 1, http://doi.org/10.5334/ujiel.513

(iii) Export cartels

A cartel is an association of rivals agreeing to fix prices above the competitive level, limit output below the competitive level or allocate markets between or amongst themselves in order to maximise their profits.49 Cartels, generally, have been labelled as the ‘supreme evil of antitrust’50 and the ‘primary evil of global trade’.51 On the other hand, export cartels are cartels that only operate in foreign markets and do not directly affect the markets in the jurisdiction where the cartel members are located.52 While there is a consensus among the world’s competition authorities to prohibit hard-core cartels,53 there is lack of clarity and transparency surrounding the treatment of export cartels. It is argued that export cartels receive considerable political support,54 not only because of its benefits to the exporting country, but also because it is argued that export cartels are not necessarily pure evil like hard-core cartels.55 Export cartels may have the same goals as hard-core cartels – to fix prices or allocate markets – but they may also have strictly efficiency-enhancing goals such as sharing marketing and transportation costs.56

According to economic theory, export cartels raise domestic producer welfare without diminishing domestic consumer welfare.57 Additional export revenues and increases in national welfare incentivises exporting States to tolerate, if not promote, export cartels.58 Furthermore, since the adverse effects of export cartels are externalised or felt exclusively by importing States, exporting States possessing the territorial jurisdiction over the cartel have very little interest in disciplining the conduct.59 On the other hand, importing States which have the motivation to prevent the conduct due to its anticompetitive effect and corresponding reduction in their consumer welfare do not have the territorial jurisdiction and must rather apply their competition laws extra-territorially to sanction the cartel.60 However, since exporting States are not motivated to sanction the cartel, or even induced to promote or tolerate the cartel because of its positive domestic effect, they may block any extraterritorial enforcement by the importing States through exemptions or non-cooperation.61 This conflicting interest presents a competition law enforcement dilemma on export cartels

#### 4. Negative incentives outweigh

Gerber 18 [David J Gerber is the University Distinguished Professor, at the Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago-Kent College of Law, “Competitive harm in global supply chains: assessing current responses and identifying potential future responses”, Journal of Antitrust Enforcement, Volume 6, Issue 1, April 2018, Pages 5–24, https://doi.org/10.1093/jaenfo/jnx015]

Other jurisdictions: divergent interests

**Other countries** could also reduce the potential harms associated with GSCs, but here the interests of individual countries diverge. Destination countries may have much to gain by pursuing more effective competition law responses to GSC harms, but source countries may have much to lose. Destination countries could increase public enforcement, but, as noted above, this is likely to have limited effect. They could also increase private enforcement by enabling it where it is not currently available or providing incentives for plaintiffs to use private enforcement tools where they do exist. As we have seen, however, experience with private enforcement outside the United States is limited and developing very slowly.

**Source countries**, on the other hand, have quite different incentives that often clash sharply **with** the incentives of **destination states**. They may benefit, for example, from cartel agreements **among domestic firms**, because **these agreements** tend to **yield higher profits** for such firms as well as **more jobs** for inhabitants. This **results in benefits for the state** itself (eg, through **higher tax revenues** and **increased employment**, etc.) and its officials. As a result, such countries have few, if any, incentives to apply their own competition laws, if any, to GSCs or to aid enforcement by destination countries.

The divergence in interests is rooted in the structure of the global economy. **Large discrepancies** in **labour** and other **production costs** between **high-income** countries and **low-income** countries **mean** that **resources** for the production of goods and services tend to **flow** from the **former** to the **latter**. The lower the obstacles to the movement of capital, persons and goods, the more rapid and extensive this flow is likely to be. These **contrasting** and conflicting interests meet and interact to **forge global supply chains**, and law, perhaps especially competition law, necessarily influences the shape of those interactions.

#### 5. Zimmerman cites AML --- Proves circumvention

**Murray, 19** (Allison Murray, y, Loyola Law School, Los Angeles, Juris Doctor,, 2-28-2019, accessed on 1-1-2022, Digitalcommons.lmu, "Given Today's New Wave of Protectionism, Is Antitrust Law the Last Hope for Preserving a Free Global Economy or Another Nail in Free Trade's Coffin?", https://digitalcommons.lmu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1785&context=ilr)//Babcii

C. China China’s Anti-Monopoly Law (“**AML**”) went into effect in 2008.106 A newcomer to the area of antitrust, China’s “core provisions of the AML were modeled largely on E.U. competition law and, to a lesser extent, on the laws of the United States, Germany, Japan, and other countries.”107 On its face, the **law appears neutral;** “[i]t subjects foreign and domestic corporations to anti-trust scrutiny” and “promote[s] economic efficiency” as its policy motive.108 However, the Chinese law is different from the U.S. and the E.U. laws in that it widely reserves the government’s right to reject foreign acquisitions because of national security concerns; these concerns are both national and “economic” ones.109 To be fair, other countries, including the U.S. and E.U., reserve this right as well.110 However, scholars say that the scope of China’s “national security” concerns is much broader than the interpretations of other countries.111 China’s antitrust laws, unlike the E.U. and U.S., are **not primarily enacted to promote market efficiency**. Instead, there is a focus on national economic security, which serves to protect “‘strategic and sensitive’ **industries** and Chinese **national champions**.”112 China’s leadership has long feared “that Western critics ‘aim to change [China’s] economic infrastructure and weaken the **government’s control** of the national economy.’”113 So, the leadership has gone to great lengths to avoid these changes. China’s political system does not share the same Western democracy and rules of law as the U.S. and the E.U.114 Further, China does not share the same economic ideology of the U.S. and E.U. protectionism. “Market manipulation” is not a dirty phrase with negative connotations in China. By virtue of China’s communist system, its **government bodies are expected to intervene and insulate the country** in ways that Western capitalists would not. Unlike the U.S., China’s people have not been trained to trust a “market” but a government. It is likely that Chinese antitrust laws will never mimic any Western economic view of **free markets**.115 Setting political systems aside, the Eastern world’s concept of free trade is more concerned with notions of fairness between nations.116 This may explain why China places significantly high strategic value on not becoming overly dependent on imports. Conversely, the Western view of free trade, at least in theory, does not concern itself with national fairness or import dependency as much as it does with global market efficiency.

#### 6. Zero risk of multilat agreements

Stephan 5, Professor and Hunton & Williams Research Professor, University of Virginia School of Law. (Paul, “Global Governance, Antitrust, and the Limits of International Cooperation,” <https://scholarship.law.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1635&context=cilj>)

The broad definition of competition policy not only makes sense logically, but underscores the difficulties of achieving an international consensus about its content. Even if states could agree that efficiency optimization of the sum of consumer and producer welfare-is the only legitimate objective of competition policy, agreement as to whether a particular regime advances or detracts from efficiency would remain elusive. Specifying the optimal mix of competition and cooperation in a particular economic sector is inevitably controversial. 23 Technological innovation and other kinds of change, as well as shifting consumer preferences, limit the lessons one can learn from a sector's history. Once legitimate differences over the optimal level of competition arise, it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to determine whether a regulator is pursuing efficiency-driven competition policy. The proliferation of alternative objectives for competition policy multiplies the difficulty of finding common ground. Given the difficulty of fixing optimal levels of competition, we should expect much competition law to take the form of elastic standards rather than of precise and constraining rules. With increased discretion comes inconsistency. For example, one cannot insist on maximizing consumer welfare and still promote national champions or protect inefficient small producers. In turn, tolerance of inconsistency opens the door to discrimination. Regulatory choices driven by animus towards foreign producers can be reconciled with other, permissible rationales. The more open-ended and multi-factored the policy and the greater the discretion of regulators to decide where and how to apply competition policy, the easier it becomes to disguise trade protection as competition policy. 24 Strategic deployment of competition law would be most feasible where governments have exclusive enforcement authority. 25

### 2AC --- Court Ptx --- F/L

#### 1. Court PTX is dead --- Roberts lost control --- Barrett and Kavanaugh could care less about legitimacy

\* Answers Roe and EPA cause both are from red states

Lithwick, 12/10 (Dahlia Lithwick, Dahlia Lithwick is a Canadian-American lawyer, writer and journalist. Lithwick is currently a contributing editor at Newsweek and senior editor at Slate. She primarily writes about law and politics in the United States., 12-10-21, accessed on 1-3-2022, Slate, "John **Roberts has lost control**", <https://slate.com/news-and-politics/2021/12/texas-abortion-john-roberts-lost-control-supreme-court.html)//Babcii>

Perhaps now is as good a time as any to put to rest the soothing notion, floated last spring, of a [**3–3–3** court](https://www.economist.com/united-states/2021/06/24/americas-supreme-court-is-less-one-sided-than-liberals-feared), with a temperate and amiable Brett Kavanaugh as the median justice and a youthful Amy Coney Barrett inclined to pump the brakes on the most radical elements of the Federalist Society’s pet projects. Neither Barrett nor Kavanaugh appears to be swayed by the chief justice’s concerns for **institutional legitimacy** or even, in fact, **institutional supremacy**. If red states want to go ahead and **choke off fed**erally protected rights, they have been given the comprehensive road map. We will certainly see red states do precisely **this**.

The **mistake** we’ve been making for over a year lay in believing that John Roberts’ worries with respect to the **reputation, independence, and legitimacy** of the court were both an end in themselves and **shared** by the imaginary centrists Barrett and Kavanaugh. We have for too long confused Roberts’ concern for the appearance of temperate independence (the [“lie better next time” instruction to litigants](https://slate.com/news-and-politics/2019/06/john-roberts-supreme-court-census-case-well-played.html)) with a concern for actual temperate independence. Faced with public outcry about the way in which S.B. 8 was handled on its emergency docket in September (in the dark of night, without explanation), the court scheduled real-life arguments and real-life briefings, then waited yet another month, and then somehow produced a decision with substantially the same outcome. This time it came with an elaborate warning to abortion providers that they can go ahead with their lawsuit but they will likely fail again in the future—while the majority still congratulated itself on having treated the plaintiffs with “extraordinary solicitude at every turn.”

I have used up my quota of the word [gaslighting](https://slate.com/news-and-politics/2021/12/scotus-will-gaslight-us-until-the-end.html) for 2021, but to be clear, abortions after six weeks are still unlawful in Texas. Real people are suffering the real consequences, as Justice Sonia Sotomayor opens in her own partial dissent: “For nearly three months, the Texas Legislature has substantially suspended a constitutional guarantee: a pregnant woman’s right to control her own body.”  Five conservative justices think this is just fine. Clever, even. The stratagems by which Texas’ abortion ban was diabolically effectuated have been blessed yet again by five justices on the Supreme Court, who tell you once again that this enforcement mechanism was just too brilliantly innovative to be enjoined and possibly even too brilliant to be successfully challenged in the future. And only the chief justice seems to be willing to say that this constitutes “nullification” of a fundamental constitutional freedom, and should perhaps be addressed accordingly.

The problem at the heart of the perception of John Roberts’ moderating influence on the court was that it was always about public perception. When he was still theoretically in charge of the conservative supermajority, his approach was in fact that it could do anything, so long as it didn’t look too radical. Some of us came to **confuse** that **with moderation**. But public perception is malleable and can be measured on a sliding scale. Five justices want you to call a narrow loss a “win” for abortion rights, and they want you to think of state nullification as “novel.” They will keep saying that **over and over** until one concedes that it’s true, and **when Dobbs comes down** this summer, **they will tell you there is nothing radical** in doing away with the right to choose. They will assume that if you accepted nullification in September, you’ll be open to overt bans come spring.

#### 2. Won’t be inter-issue spillover

Redish 91 MARTIN H., Louis and Harriet Ancel Professor of Law and Public Policy, Northwestern University. ELIZABETH J., Law Clerk to Chief Judge William Bauer, United States Court of Appeals, Seventh Circuit. “CONSTITUTIONAL PERSPECTIVES: ARTICLE: "IF ANGELS WERE TO GOVERN": THE NEED FOR PRAGMATIC FORMALISM IN SEPARATION OF POWERS THEORY.”Duke Law Journal, 41 Duke L.J. 449, Lexis

Choper's assumption that the judiciary's institutional capital is transferable from structural cases to individual rights cases is no more credible. Common sense should tell us that the public's reaction to controversial individual rights cases -- for example, cases concerning abortion, n240 school prayer, n241 busing, n242 or criminal defendants' rights n243 -- will be based largely, if not exclusively, on the basis of its feelings concerning those particular issues. It is unreasonable to assume that the public's acceptance or rejection of these individual rights rulings would somehow be affected by anything the Court says about wholly unrelated structural issues.

#### 3. Tons of thumpers

Gorod 9-9 [Brianne Gorod is chief counsel for the Constitutional Accountability Center. 9-9-2021https://newrepublic.com/article/163519/roe-wade-supreme-court-fall-term]

The new Supreme Court term is about to begin, and it promises to be a blockbuster. With cases involving abortion and guns already on the docket, and the possibility that an affirmative action case may be added as well, this term will present the court’s new six-member conservative supermajority with the opportunity to usher in major shifts in the law. What the justices do with those opportunities will be a test of their commitment to precedent and, for many of them, their self-professed commitment to originalism.

Perhaps the biggest issue on the court’s docket this term will be abortion. A little over a year ago, in a case called June Medical Services LLC v. Russo, the Supreme Court gave abortion rights advocates a win when it held unconstitutional a Louisiana law that required physicians who perform abortions to have admitting privileges at a nearby hospital. In his opinion concurring in the ruling, with which he joined the court’s (then) four liberal members, Chief Justice John Roberts extolled the importance of precedent, observing that “for precedent to mean anything, the doctrine must give way only to a rationale that goes beyond whether the case was decided correctly.” Because the Louisiana law was identical to a Texas law the court had previously struck down, the chief justice voted to strike down the Louisiana law.

But with the replacement of Justice Ruth Bader Ginsburg by Justice Amy Coney Barrett, the chief justice’s vote will not be dispositive when the court hears Dobbs v. Jackson Women’s Health Organization this term. In Dobbs, the court will be considering a challenge to the constitutionality of a Mississippi law that, with limited exceptions, bans abortions after the fifteenth week of pregnancy. The lower courts rightly concluded that this pre-viability ban on abortion was unconstitutional under the Supreme Court’s precedents, and Mississippi now asks the court to overrule those precedents.

According to Monica Simpson, executive director of SisterSong, a Southern-based, national reproductive justice organization that works to improve policies that affect the reproductive lives of women of color, “If the Supreme Court decides to overturn ... precedent under Roe v. Wade, the consequences will be devastating for communities like mine in Georgia, where we are currently fighting against a six-week abortion ban in court.” As she further explained, “The right to access abortion care is a crucial aspect of bodily autonomy, which is too often denied to Black people and others from marginalized backgrounds.”

This case is a huge test for the court and its newest justices, all three of whom—Barrett, Brett Kavanaugh, and Neil Gorsuch—professed a commitment to precedent at their confirmation hearings. Repeatedly, the Supreme Court has been asked to overrule Roe, and repeatedly it has reaffirmed that decision. But in an ominous sign, the court, over the dissents of Chief Justice John Roberts and Justices Breyer, Sotomayor, and Kagan, recently refused an emergency request to block Texas’s six-week abortion ban from going into effect, thus functionally gutting Roe. In doing so, the court not only undermined the right to abortion, but also its own legitimacy. If the new conservative supermajority does, in fact, vote in Dobbs to fully jettison Roe and the other long-standing precedents that recognize a constitutional right to access abortion simply because they were not, in the views of those justices, “decided correctly,” it will deliver an even more significant blow not only to the right to abortion, but also to the legitimacy of the court.

It should also deliver a blow to the claims by many members of the court that they follow the text and history of the Constitution, wherever it leads. When the Reconstruction framers drafted the Fourteenth Amendment, they chose sweeping language to protect the full panoply of fundamental rights for all, and they viewed both personal liberty and control over one’s body as among those fundamental rights. The Fourteenth Amendment thus guarantees the right to access abortion, and the court’s originalists should recognize that.

Dobbs is not the only blockbuster case on the court’s docket. In New York State Rifle & Pistol Association Inc. v. Bruen, the court will be considering whether New York’s denial of two individuals’ applications for concealed-carry licenses for self-defense violates the Second Amendment. In 2008, in a case called District of Columbia v. Heller, the Supreme Court held that the Second Amendment protects an individual right to own guns for self-defense, but also made clear that “[l]ike most rights, the right secured by the Second Amendment is not unlimited.”

In the years since Heller, it has fallen to the lower courts to determine what gun regulations are constitutional, with very little guidance from the Supreme Court. The Second Circuit Court of Appeals concluded that the New York law was constitutional, explaining that because “our tradition so clearly indicates a substantial role for state regulation of the carrying of firearms in public, ... [the law] passes constitutional muster if it is substantially related to the achievement of an important governmental interest.” The circuit court went on to conclude that “New York has substantial, indeed compelling, governmental interests in public safety and crime prevention,” and the law is “substantially related” to those interests. When the Supreme Court decides Bruen, how it rules may ultimately be as important as what it rules, because the guidance it provides about how courts should decide the constitutionality of gun regulations could have ramifications that extend far beyond the New York law at issue in the case.

As if these two huge cases were not enough, the court may add another big issue to the docket before the term ends: affirmative action. And as in the abortion case, the court is being asked to overrule a long-standing precedent: Grutter v. Bollinger, the 2003 case that held that universities may consider race as a factor in admissions. In Students for Fair Admissions Inc. v. President & Fellows of Harvard College, an organization called Students for Fair Admissions sued Harvard under a federal law that prohibits entities that accept federal funds from discriminating on the basis of, among other factors, race. The lower courts rejected the challenge, concluding that Harvard’s “limited use of race in its admissions process in order to achieve diversity ... is consistent with the requirements of Supreme Court precedent.” The group challenging Harvard’s admissions policy has asked the court to hear the case, and the court has called for the views of the solicitor general.

Here, as in Dobbs, both constitutional text and history, as well as the court’s own precedent, require the same result—upholding the lower court decision. After all, at the same time the framers of the Fourteenth Amendment drafted that amendment, they also enacted a long list of race-conscious legislation designed to guarantee equality of opportunity for all persons regardless of race. The Supreme Court’s repeated rulings upholding universities’ use of race as one factor in admissions decisions are entirely consistent with that history. In other words, if the court ultimately decides to take up this case, it—no less than Dobbs—will be a real test of the justices’ commitment to the text and history of the Constitution, as well as to the court’s own precedent.

While those three cases are likely to dominate headlines about the court this term, they’re hardly the only important ones on the docket. The court will also be deciding, among many other matters, whether individuals can challenge conduct that has a disparate impact on the basis of disability, whether an important federal civil rights law allows plaintiffs to recover damages for emotional distress, and whether it is constitutional for a state to provide students with funding for private schools but prohibit them from attending schools that provide religious instruction.

#### 4. Antitrust under the radar

Baum and Devins 10 – Lawrence Baum is a professor emeritus in the Department of Political Science at Ohio State University; his primary research focus is judges’ behavior in decision making. Neal Devins is Sandra Day O’Connor Professor of Law and Professor of Government at William and Mary Law School.

Lawrence Baum and Neal Devins, “Why the Supreme Court Cares About Elites, Not the American People,” *The Georgetown Law Journal*, vol. 98, 2010, pp. 1549-1550, https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2149&context=facpubs.

It is worth underlining the point that a great deal of the

Court’s work is essentially invisible to the public. Decisions in fields such as antitrust and patent law may be highly consequential, but it seems unlikely that there are strong public feelings about those decisions. Even if Justices seek to maintain the Court’s legitimacy, they have no reason to worry that public outrage in decisions in those fields will damage this legitimacy.170 More telling, the Rehnquist Court’s federalism revival was unnoticed by most of the mass public. During the period from 1992 to 2006, the Court invalidated eleven federal statutes on federalism grounds,171 thereby shifting the balance between the federal government and the states substantially. Nevertheless, these decisions (although prompting significant law review commentary) appeared to have low political salience.172 Of 229 Gallup Poll questions that explicitly referenced the Supreme Court during this period, there was not a single question concerning these decisions or any other Supreme Court invalidations of federal statutes.173

### 2AC --- EPA

#### Major questions thumps

Millhiser 11-3 [Ian Millhiser is a senior correspondent at Vox, where he focuses on the Supreme Court, 11-3-2021 https://www.vox.com/2021/11/3/22758188/climate-change-epa-clean-power-plan-supreme-court]

A more moderate approach that still isn’t especially moderate In 2016, when Obama was still president and Kavanaugh was still a lower court judge, the DC Circuit Court heard another case involving the Clean Power Plan, which was also known as West Virginia v. EPA. At the time, Gorsuch was also still a lower court judge, and the nondelegation doctrine was still just a reactionary idea touted at Federalist Society conferences. And yet, then-Judge Kavanaugh also suggested at oral arguments in this first West Virginia case that the Clean Power Plan must fall. He rested his arguments largely on something known as the major questions doctrine. This doctrine derives from the Supreme Court’s decision in FDA v. Brown & Williamson Tobacco (2000). Although federal law gives the FDA broad authority to regulate drugs and devices used to deliver drugs, a 5-4 Court concluded in Brown & Williamson that this power does not extend to tobacco. Though courts should typically defer to an agency’s regulatory decisions, Brown & Williamson concluded that “in extraordinary cases ... there may be reason to hesitate before concluding that Congress has intended” to delegate authority to a federal agency. In asserting the power to regulate tobacco, the Court claimed, “the FDA has now asserted jurisdiction to regulate an industry constituting a significant portion of the American economy.” Congress, moreover, had previously “rejected proposals to give the FDA jurisdiction over tobacco.” So, in light of that history, the Court determined that the federal law permitting the FDA to regulate drugs should not be read so broadly as to allow it to target nicotine. Although Brown & Williamson placed a great deal of emphasis on the fact that Congress had rejected prior efforts to allow the FDA to regulate tobacco, the Court expanded the major questions doctrine in Utility Air Regulatory Group v. EPA (2014). Under Utility Air, any significant regulation pushed out by an agency is potentially suspect, regardless of whether Congress had given some outward sign that it disapproved of that regulation. “We expect Congress to speak clearly if it wishes to assign to an agency decisions of vast ‘economic and political significance,’” Scalia wrote for the Court in Utility Air. The Court, in other words, imposed a new restriction on Congress. It could delegate broad powers to agencies, but any statute that did so had to be written with an unspecified amount of precision. And courts were free to invalidate regulations if they deemed the statute authorizing that regulation to be insufficiently precise. The major questions doctrine is, in some ways, weaker than the nondelegation doctrine. For one thing, it doesn’t purport to be a constitutional doctrine. Because nondelegation claims that there are constitutional limits on Congress’s ability to delegate power, it is likely that justices loyal to this doctrine would declare some delegations invalid no matter how carefully Congress drafted a law. The major questions doctrine, by contrast, theoretically can be overcome by precise draftsmanship. After Brown & Williamson was decided, for example, Congress enacted the Family Smoking Prevention and Tobacco Control Act of 2009, which explicitly gave the FDA the power that the Court denied it in 2000. At least so far, the Court has permitted the FDA to regulate tobacco under this statute. But the major questions doctrine also suffers from many of the same problems as nondelegation. It is vague, so judges can easily read their policy preferences into decisions challenging agency regulations. And it changed the rules governing statutory drafting long after many important laws were enacted. Again, if Congress had known, in 1970, that it had to draft the Clean Air Act in a certain way to prevent the Supreme Court from dismantling the EPA’s powers, it could have done so. It’s simply not reasonable to expect Congress to comply with a rule of statutory construction invented decades after Congress enacts a law. Doctrines like nondelegation and major questions, in other words, threaten to retroactively undo decades of legislation. And, while these doctrines might hypothetically permit Congress to restore at least some old laws by enacting new versions that comply with the new rules, the filibuster all but ensures that no bill will become law. Now, the Supreme Court appears likely to wield these doctrines to invalidate key provisions of the Clean Air Act. That means the federal government may soon have to fight climate change with both hands tied behind its back. And, if the Court does invigorate these doctrines, countless other laws could be next on the chopping block.

#### Warming doesn’t trigger extinction

* peer-reviewed journal shows IPCC exaggeration
* history proves resilience
* no extinction- warming under Paris goals
* rock breaking strategy could offset warming

IBD 18 [Investors Business Daily, Citing Study from Peer reviewed journal by Lewis and Curry, “Here's One Global Warming Study Nobody Wants You To See”, 4/25/18, https://www.investors.com/politics/editorials/global-warming-computer-models-co2-emissions/]

Settled Science: A **new study published in a peer-reviewed journal finds** that **climate models exaggerate** the global warming from CO2 emissions by as much as 45%. If these findings hold true, it's huge news. No wonder the mainstream press is ignoring it.

In the study, authors Nic Lewis and Judith Curry looked at actual temperature records and compared them with climate change computer models. What they found is that the planet has shown itself to be far less sensitive to increases in CO2 than the climate models say. As a result, they say, the planet will warm less than the models predict, even if we continue pumping CO2 into the atmosphere.

As Lewis explains: "Our results imply that, for any future emissions scenario, future warming is likely to be **substantially lower** than the central computer **model-simulated** level projected by the (United Nations **I**ntergovernmental **P**anel on **C**limate **C**hange), and highly unlikely to exceed that level.

How much lower? Lewis and Curry say that their findings show temperature increases will be 30%-45% lower than the climate models say. If they are right, then there's **little to worry about**, even if we don't drastically reduce CO2 emissions.

The planet will warm from human activity, but not nearly enough to cause the sort of end-of-the-world calamities we keep hearing about. In fact, the resulting warming would be **below the target** set at the Paris agreement.

This would be tremendously good news.

The fact that the Lewis and Curry study appears in the peer-reviewed American Meteorological Society's Journal of Climate lends credibility to their findings. This is the same journal, after all, that recently published widely covered studies saying the Sahara has been growing and the **climate boundary** in central U.S. **has shifted 140 miles to the east** because of global warming.

The Lewis and Curry findings come after another study, published in the prestigious journal Nature, that found the **long-held view that a doubling of CO2 would boost global temperatures** as much as 4.5 degrees Celsius **was wrong.** The most temperatures would likely climb is 3.4 degrees.

It also follows a study published in Science, which found that rocks contain vast amounts of nitrogen that plants could use to grow and absorb more CO2, potentially offsetting at least some of the effects of CO2 emissions and reducing future temperature increases.

### 2AC --- China DA --- F/L

#### 1. It’s thumped --- The Supreme court’s rejection of conclusive deference was a slap in the face to China AND opened the floodgates for future litigation to any foreign action --- That’s Bu --- Here is more of the article

**Bu 20** “Respectful Consideration, but Not Deference: Chinese Sovereign Amici in the US Supreme Court Vitamin C Judgment” Qingxiu Bu - University of Sussex, Journal of European Competition Law & Practice, Volume 11, Issue 5-6, May-June 2020, Pages 274–286, April 30, 2020, https://academic.oup.com/jeclap/article-abstract/11/5-6/274/5827020

V. Reshaping he landscape of deference practice? US courts should show appropriate respect to foreign governments, but how much deference will depend on the circumstances. A foreign sovereign’s interpretation of its laws is **not automatic**ally entitled to conclusive deference, but still carry signifcant weight.105 The Supreme Court’s ruling does not provide an absolute rule of udicial obligation, but immense discretion for a federal court to determine foreign law.106 Due to the ill-defned con cept of respectful consideration, it remains uncertain as to how the newly established standard will be applied. Adoption of the less deferential approach would create greater uncertainty as to whether the views expressed by a foreign government will be accepted by US courts.107 Furthermore, in discerning the meaning and credibility of a foreign law, the transparency of the foreign legal system is one relevant consideration in evaluating the foreign sovereign’s interpretation.108 This inevitably creates a de facto hierarchy between foreign legal regimes. 109 **The Supreme Court’s ruling** could **heighten the current tensions,** which could also facilitate more sophisticated laws to mitigate future litigation risks.110 A. Potential reciprocal concern in the context of trade war It is reciprocity that makes comity work. As Weinberg said: ‘if comity is reciprocal, both states are better of than they would have been if each simply applied its own law.’ 111 The US Supreme Court is less ulnerable to the politics of foreign relations than the other US government branches.112 Its decision in Vitamin C is a reassertion of US judicial sovereignty to afrm that a fed eral court reserves the right to disregard foreign regimes’ characterisation of their law as it sees fit. 113 **The ruling itself raised considerable controversy** in declining to defer to MOFCOM’s interpretation. The decision may have implications of reciprocity for the USA when appearing before a foreign court. It may impact international liti gation as well as US foreign relations **for many years to come.** 114 In addition, the Supreme Court leaves open an inquiry of whether foreign courts’ interpretation of their nations’ laws will be diferentiated from those interpreted by their governmental agencies. 1. A variable of foreign relations The Vitamin C ruling has broader ramifications, since the Supreme Court provided less than full deference to China’s interpretations of its own laws. The application of the standard of respectful consideration may be detrimental to the US foreign relations,115 which could have serious consequences.116 Foreign law could compel the very conduct that US law prohibits, and udicial inter ference may infringe on the executive function to handle international relations. 117 Inevitably, there is an impact on foreign diplomacy and trade relations.118 As Eichensehr observed: ‘it would be a mistake for the Court to iew the brief as a representation that disagreement with the foreign sovereign’s iew of international law would provoke serious foreign policy consequences for the United States.’119

#### 2. The plan builds long term relations

Shen, 20 (Weimin Shen, L.L.M, J.S.D., Washington University School of Law, 8-2-2020, accessed on 11-24-2021, Papers.ssrn, "The Role of Transnational Legal Process in Enforcing WTO Law and Competition Policy", https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3785688)//Babcii

Indeed, China’s economic structure is **unique** and **controversial**. The resulting structure “embraces the benefits of market competition without relinquishing political oversight over capital and other key economic elements.” 288 This is also **a risky environment** that has caused continuous complaints and disadvantaged foreign companies. However, the difficulties arising from China’s interactions and the international trade regime are not necessarily entirely **fatal** to the current international regime and collection of rules. Instead, **the U.S. needs to stay true to its values**; that is, traditional structures have to become more efficacious as more areas become simultaneously unregulated and more economically significant. Recently, a trade war launched between the U.S. and China, and the economic consensus is that sustaining open trade is breaking down. Global trade tensions and their aftermath have increased States’ tendencies to disengage and be attracted to self-interested measures hoping that nationalism might solve their problems. Meanwhile, other countries have stepped up their efforts to fill the leadership void. On the surface, it may appear that faith in the utility of Transnational Legal Process has collapsed in today’s international trade domain.

In this respect, I argue that any outcome, even though it achieves short-term wins, such as a trade deal with China agreeing to buy more, but does so in ways that undermine **WTO legitimacy**, would come at an enormous strategic cost. Instead, a positive, **long-term outcome** for the U.S.-China **relationship** should **strengthen the WTO and the rules-based system**. I propose transnational actors as part of Transnational Legal **Process** should accomplish the following goals as a comprehensive approach between the US-China economic **relationship**.

#### 4. Infinite thumpers

Palmer 12/29 (Jason Palmer, a deputy editor at *Foreign Policy*, “U.S.-China Relations Hit a Nadir in 2021”, Foreign Policy , 12-29-21, <https://foreignpolicy.com/2021/12/29/u-s-china-relations-2021-biden-xi-jinping-taiwan/>)//babcii

Relations between the world’s two largest economic powers, the United States and China, are at lows not seen since the aftermath of 1989’s **Tiananmen Square** massacre. China’s human rights abuses, especially in Hong Kong and Xinjiang, border aggressiveness, and “wolf warrior” diplomacy, combined with the Trump administration’s legacy and the ongoing pandemic, have left bilateral relations at a nadir.

If China hoped for a reset from the Biden administration, it hasn’t been forthcoming. Although President Joe Biden’s language is more tempered than former President Donald Trump’s was, the United States has pushed forward the [Uyghur Forced Labor Prevention Act](https://www.state.gov/the-signing-of-the-uyghur-forced-labor-prevention-act/), continued to sanction Chinese firms, announced a diplomatic boycott of the 2022 Beijing Winter Olympics, and pushed for further investigation into COVID-19’s possible ([though unlikely](https://foreignpolicy.com/2021/06/15/lab-leak-theory-doesnt-hold-up-covid-china/)) origins in a Chinese lab. Tensions over Taiwan have also come to the fore, with China’s language and actions increasingly aggressive and the United States signaling a willingness to defend the island.

# 1AR

## A1

### 1AR --- No Link

#### The plan is aligned with every antitrust jurisdiction in the world

Fox, 18 (Eleanor Fox, Walter J. Derenberg Professor of Trade Regulation at New York University School of Law, 3-13-2018, accessed on 11-15-2021, Competition Policy International, "China, Export Cartels and Vitamin C: American Second? - Competition Policy International", <https://www.competitionpolicyinternational.com/china-export-cartels-and-vitamin-c-american-second/)//Babcii>

Resetting the Stage When reading the opinion of the Court of Appeals of the Second Circuit, one can lose sight of the facts that this is a case of a **naked cartel**, and China’s whole role in the picture is to free its manufacturers from the consequences of violating the clear and notorious rule of US law forbidding price fixing. **The US rule is in line with virtually every one of the 130 antitrust nations of the world including China**.7 It is understood that **price fixers have to pay for their offense.** Can a country step forward and say to its exporting price fixers: “Not to worry. I can immunize you. I just have to say the word.” If the answer is no, the **question of who interprets foreign law is irrelevant**. If the answer is sometimes, and even if China gets to say that its regulation and scheme amounted to an order to its firms to fix prices, then we should ask whether China’s command and the manufacturers’ behavior surrounding it amounted to foreign sovereign compulsion under US law. **Extraterritoriality** The Second Circuit opinion centrally invokes Timberlane8 and Mannington Mills,9 presenting the problem in Vitamin C as one of extraterritoriality requiring a comity balancing as an initial screen. But **Vitamin C is quintessentially territorial** in today’s shared understanding of the reach of a nation’s law. **It does not raise territorial issues**. The only, and the only intended, effects were in the United States, not in China (except as the home of extra profits). The offense in Vitamin C is the converse of the offense in Mannington Mills, which was fraudulent procurement of foreign patents blocking Mannington Mills from foreign markets. It has no resemblance to Timberlane, in which plaintiff lost a chance to buy a Honduran lumber mill because of a conspiracy in Honduras between Honduran rivals and a bank. The territorial grounding in Vitamin C is the reverse of Empagran,10 where buyers in South America and Australia sued cartelists from Europe and Asia in the US under US law. In short, in Vitamin C, the Sherman Act clearly applies.

#### Everyone wants the plan

Fox and Janow, 12 (Eleanor Fox and Merit Janow, Walter J. Derenberg Professor of Trade Regulation at New York University School of Law, l Professor, Columbia University, 2012, accessed on 2-8-2022, Its.law.nyu, "", https://its.law.nyu.edu/faculty/profiles/representiveFiles/fox%20-%20China\_%20the%20WTO\_%20and%20Statesponsored%20export%20cartels\_FED2F0A6-A495-4641-11BC016851056F31.pdf)//Babcii

The counterpart to a state commitment to play by rules of free trade (not to restrain exports) is the private firm commitment to play by the rules of competition (not to cartelize). The **anticartel rule is strong** and **stronger** than it ever has been in the history of the world. Why? Because more and more nations appreciate the value of markets; they are in search of growth, and they are committed to building environments in which their producers can flourish and in which consumers can get fair deals. All antitrust nations of the world recognize that hard core **cartels are heinous**; cartels rob the people; they degrade competition, chilling the incentives that lead firms to invent and produce, create jobs and create wealth. There is no international law of competition, but there is one principle of antitrust law that can be found in all national antitrust regimes: **No** hard core **cartels**.9

## CP

### 1AR --- Advantage 2

#### Specifically, Developing countries fail at enforcement --- means the CP can’t solve advantage 2

Michaels ’16 [Ralf; 2016; Arthur Larson Professor of Law, Duke University School of Law; “Supplanting Foreign Antitrust,” <https://scholarship.law.duke.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=4808&context=lcp>; KS]

A. Challenges

Once, establishing antitrust regimes was thought not to benefit developing countries.8 That view is no longer prevalent. Today, more than half of the developing countries in the world have antitrust regimes.9

Having laws on the books represents, however, only a first step. A greater problem for many developing countries lies in building institutions10 and enforcing existing antitrust laws. Here, the data are somewhat unclear. Levenstein and Suslow found in 2004 that actual enforcement of existing antitrust law was widely lacking.11 Waked, by contrast, suggests that developing countries do allocate resources to the enforcement of antitrust laws, though the degree depends on, amongst others, general macroeconomic development, openness to trade and imports, and level of corruption.12 Buthe and Aydin identify several factors that constrain developing countries: limits in financial resources and expertise, unsupportive or hostile political-legal environments, limitations to legal culture, a lack of competition culture, and underdeveloped markets13

The enforcement problem is exacerbated for transboundary cartels with actors from outside the developing countries targeting the country's markets.14 Often, less developed countries do not even appear to recognize the impact these cartels have on their economies.15 If cartel members act outside the country, agencies have difficulties detecting and scrutinizing the cartel.16 Where they do, the global market power of firms is often badly matched by the antitrust regimes of developing countries.17 Even if developing countries have the resources and expertise to regulate small and midsize local cartels, they may well be unable to regulate bigger and transnational or multinational cartels.18 It may often be preferable for them to allocate scarce resources to the regulation of domestic cartels.