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#### Multilat CP

#### The United States federal government should establish and advocate a framework for contingent international cooperation that recognizes protection of competition as the purpose of antitrust law and favors structural remedies, including blocking mergers and instituting breakups, over conduct remedies.

#### The CP’s framework multilateralizes antitrust---explicit reciprocity bypasses generic barriers AND spills over to deep economic integration

Dr. Daniel Francis 21, Climenko Fellow and Lecturer on Law at Harvard Law School, Doctorate of Laws Degree from the NYU School of Law, Master of Laws Degree from Harvard University, JD from Trinity College at Cambridge University, Former Deputy Director of the Federal Trade Commission, “Choices and Consequences: Internationalizing Competition Policy after TPP”, in Megaregulation Contested: The Global Economic Order After TPP, Ed. Kingsbury, Revised 8/26/2021, p. 40-48

B. Between Contracts and Networks: Frameworks

Another dichotomy that dominates the integration of competition policy pertains to the forms of internationalization, which in the competition policy space have generally been dominated by contract-style treaties on the one hand and by open networks on the other.166 Between these two models lies what seems to be an under-utilized alternative, which I call a “framework for contingent cooperation.”

[FOOTNOTE] 166 This binary view dominates the literature. See, e.g., Edward M. Graham, “Internationalizing” Competition Policy: An Assessment of the Two Main Alternatives, 48 Antitrust Bull. 947, 949 (2003) (“[M]echanisms [for antitrust internationalization] range from bilateral treaties creating arrangements for cooperation between or among national competition law enforcement agencies to informal working arrangements among agencies.”); Eleanor M. Fox, International Antitrust and the Doha Dome, 43 Va. J. Int’l L. 911, 912 (2003) (contrasting “horizontalism” with “globalism”); Anu Piilola, Assessing Theories of Global Governance: A Case Study of International Antitrust Regulation, 39 Stan. J. Int'l L. 207, 247 (2003) (“Rather than drafting overarching multilateral agreements on antitrust laws, cooperation efforts in the immediate future are more likely to succeed in managing existing diversity and promoting voluntary convergence based on approximation of domestically applied standards. Networks of antitrust authorities are well-suited to facilitate this process of cooperation and voluntary convergence.”). [END FOOTNOTE]

A “framework” in the sense that I am using that term is a facilitative arrangement that does not constitute a treaty under international law,167 and which does not carry the charge of international legal obligation, but which involves an exchange of specific and reciprocally contingent commitments by participant jurisdictions to engage in mutually beneficial conduct. Specifically, each party states that it will extend certain benefits to each other party so long as each other does likewise; the parties may also create supplementary mechanisms to monitor and/or adjudicate compliance with these commitments.168

A framework of this kind is not a treaty: it is what Kal Raustiala calls a “pledge,”169 and what Charles Lipson calls an “informal” agreement,170 involving no legal obligation, and it involves no commitment of the parties’ reputation for law-abiding behavior.171 On the other hand, it differs from an open, information-sharing network because it precisely specifies behavioral commitments, and because each of the parties shares an understanding that concrete consequences will promptly follow—exclusion from the benefits provided by others—if its behavior materially deviates from the terms of the commitment.172 A framework is therefore essentially a specific declaration of intention to engage in conduct that benefits others, contingent upon parallel behavior by other participating states, without obligatory status under international law.

This is, in some sense, the direct opposite of the approach typically taken in competition policy chapters in trade agreements. The provisions of competition policy chapters partake of the substance of treaty law, but are generally framed in broad terms rather than specifics, and generally do not reflect a shared understanding that specific consequences will attend breach. By contrast, frameworks do not bind in international law, are framed in specific terms than aspirational generalities, and reflect an understanding that the benefits of cooperation will be withdrawn in the event of violation.

Contingent cooperation thus depends for its effectiveness primarily upon three important dynamics. The first and most important of these is the rationality of strategic cooperation. A familiar mainstream view holds that to a significant extent states behave in international society in ways that rationally serve their interests.173 And when cooperation over a series of interactions is overall in the interests of each member of a group, but when each member faces a rational incentive to defect from the terms of cooperation in individual cases, familiar economic theory teaches that a strategic cooperative equilibrium can be maintained among the parties.174 In contingent cooperation, each party understands that if it defects materially from the terms of the framework, the other participants will withdraw the excludable benefits of cooperation, and this provides the incentive to comply.175

Contingent cooperation can be made more stable by the introduction of certain structures designed to monitor compliance (just as with a cartel among private companies).176 This might among other things involve the creation of a central “facilitator” that is responsible, in a general sense, for obtaining, collecting, and processing information necessary to sustain a cooperative equilibrium.177 Depending on the purpose and scope of the cooperation project, this could include (for example): reviewing the text of laws, regulations, and policy documents for consistency with the terms of the framework; conducting peer-review-style evaluations and certifications; hosting voluntary dispute resolution processes, including mediation and/or arbitration, to determine whether and when the framework has been violated; or even receiving and handling complaints of violations ombudsman-fashion (i.e., receiving the complaint, giving the subject of the complaint an opportunity to respond, and publishing findings and conclusions). A central facilitator could also go beyond a policing function and offer a common forum for certain forms of cooperation and information sharing. The nature of such broader functions, and the extent to which they would be useful or desirable, would depend on the nature and purpose of the cooperation.

The second dynamic that powers contingent cooperation is the normative appeal of the project itself. The point here is not unlike what Gráinne de Búrca calls “mission legitimacy”: the normative force of the underlying purpose of a cooperative project, and specifically the power of that normativity to secure the acceptance and cooperation of those who participate.178 Parties joining projects of contingent cooperation can be expected to be in some sense self-selecting: they join such endeavors because, in part, they are genuinely committed to promoting and achieving the ends that the project represents, and they embrace the project of cooperation as worthwhile.179 It may sound a little naïve to suggest that a project of cooperation may be more likely to “stick” if it has some normative appeal to the participating polities, but legal scholarship has long recognized that states do what they undertake to do more often than strictly rational analysis would predict.180 And I think the proposition that genuine commitment to a goal can contribute to compliance is in truth somewhat less naïve than the converse idea that compliance is just as likely without it.

The third source of a framework’s effectiveness is to be found in the acculturative and socializing effects of interaction in an environment in which values and practices are shared and reinforced as normative, and in which attention is paid to the existence and nature of violations. There is a rich and complex literature on the ways in which states, state actors, and the individuals within them may be “socialized” or “acculturated” by repeated engagement with others through common institutions and shared environments of normativity, eventually contributing to the emergence of obligations with genuine normative force.181 Jutta Brunnée and Stephen Toope have pointed out ways in which the force of legal obligation itself arises from shared communities of practice grounded in social reality and shared understandings, not formal commitments.182 As they put it, “[s]tability may be aided by explicit articulation of a norm in a text, but it is ultimately dependent upon [an] underlying shared understanding and a continuous practice of legality.”183

Participation in an endeavor of contingent cooperation may help to engender the development of such understandings and practices, and these may contribute to the effectiveness of the framework. In the longer term, this may even result in the creation of a legal instrument. But this progression is not necessary for acculturation to exert a reinforcing effect: for, as Anu Bradford accurately notes, there is no reason to think that “the pathway from nonbinding to binding rules” is an inevitable or even a natural one.184

The distinctive value of a framework is that it provides a low-cost way for jurisdictions to explore and participate in possible arrangements of mutual benefit that depend upon shared concrete understandings regarding future behavior, but without bearing the burden of an obligation under international law, without running the reputational risk of having to break a treaty, and without facing the domestic hurdles (or political scrutiny) that a treaty would necessitate.185 Use of such a framework may help to reduce the concerns grounded in political morality that might otherwise attend inter-jurisdictional action in sensitive areas:186 to use a term I have coined elsewhere, as contingent practices from which states could withdraw at any time, frameworks would benefit from considerable resources of “exit legitimacy.”187

Frameworks are not suited to every application. They seem particularly apt for types of international cooperation that generate excludable benefits for other participants and can be reasonably well monitored: in the sphere of competition policy, for example, this would include commitments to provide nondiscriminatory access to procurement markets as well as many forms of antitrust cooperation (including cooperation with one another’s investigations, coordination of enforcement activity, the operation of joint filing systems for merger review and cartel leniency programs, and so on). Certain guarantees of nondiscriminatory treatment by SOEs could also be extended on a selective basis. On the other hand, contingent cooperation is much less suitable for projects that require strong and highly credible guarantees of commitment from the participants (in which case a traditional treaty-contract would seem more appropriate188) or groups of parties still lacking the prerequisite agreement on the terms and ambit of desirable cooperation. Nor is it suitable in the absence of sufficient confidence in the ability or incentive of other parties to deliver on their commitments: in these cases, open dialogue and information exchange through a network would seem preferable. Nor, obviously, is it a good fit for projects in which the benefits of cooperation are non-excludable.189 To pick an obvious example, contingent cooperation would not recommend itself as a natural choice for an international project to introduce SOE discipline: the benefits are non-excludable (there is no obvious way to withdraw them selectively in the event of defection) and compliance is very difficult to monitor, so the use of a framework is unlikely to make much of a contribution.190

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#### Trade DA

#### The plan sends a protectionist shockwave that ends the last semblance of global free trade

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INTRODUCTION

Trump. Le Pen. Brexit. Protectionist rhetoric has consumed the international political stage. Western countries and their leaders were once the drivers of economic globalization, relying on free-market speeches and the prospect of removing trade barriers to appeal to their constituents. 1They pointed fingers at other countries engaging in or encouraging protectionist behavior and challenged them in the court of public opinion and elsewhere to stop their antics. The "our country first, world trade after" mentality was widely politicized and vilified. Now, it seems that Western national leaders are championing the very protectionism that they once criticized. 2

Although a system of truly free world trade has never been perfected, past world leaders have eliminated most of the protectionist trade mechanisms that once ran rampant in the international economy. They did so by implementing multilateral and bilateral trade agreements. These webs of agreements have bolstered decades of support for free trade, or at least some version of it. By and large, tariff policies and other forms of protectionism were either eliminated or dramatically reduced. [\*118] Now, as we have seen in the media, when a government imposes a tariff, it becomes a rather extreme political statement which sends a shockwave of significant global consequences.

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

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

Trump is not the only high-profile leader flirting with staunch protectionism. Western leaders in the E.U. appear to be growing more comfortable than their predecessors with considering similar policies. However, Western lawmakers themselves do not seem as persuaded by the statements of their leadership. The general sentiment among international policymakers is that there has been too much political wherewithal spent on loosening international trade barriers to take actions [\*119] that could counteract that progress. 6Presidential actions taken because of dissatisfaction with current global trade relations aside, a complete overhaul of trade agreements may be too daunting and difficult a task, especially absent ample political support in legislative bodies.

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

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

#### Nuclear war

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

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

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

Secular Stagnation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Illiberal Globalization

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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#### Infra PTX

#### Infrastructure will pass but continued “good faith” negotiations over the social spending bill are key

Burgess Everett et. Al 10/27, Burgess Everett is the co-congressional bureau chief for POLITICO, specializing in the Senate since 2013, Heather Caygle is a Congress reporter for POLITICO, Sarah Ferris covers the House for POLITICO’s Congress team, focusing on the Democratic caucus, “Liberal frustration imperils quick Dem social spending deal”, <https://www.politico.com/news/2021/10/27/top-dems-social-spending-deal-manchin-sinema-517332>, October 27th, 2021

Manchin argued that "good faith" negotiations about a forthcoming climate and social spending bill are enough to unstick the Senate’s infrastructure bill. Sinema said she's "doing great, making progress."

“The president has made that very clear: He wants to move forward. And we owe it to the president to move forward, take a vote on the infrastructure bill,” Manchin told reporters on Wednesday morning. “He believes 100 percent of nothing is nothing.”

Where are Democrats in the tax hike fight?

Manchin explained that when a deal is cut, Biden will “go over to the House, and he’ll basically explain to the House: ‘I have a framework, but there's still an awful lot of work to be done,’” Manchin said.

Speaker Nancy Pelosi told House Democrats on Wednesday morning that her party is “in pretty good shape.” Even so, Pelosi continues to face an intense push-pull from liberals — who want to see a full social spending bill before voting on the Senate's bipartisan infrastructure deal — and moderates who want to get the infrastructure vote finally set, as soon as possible.

“It’s lamb eat lamb. There is no bad decision. We have to choose,” Pelosi told her members, according to a source familiar with her remarks. Senate Democrats say it’s highly unlikely bill text will be totally finalized this week, however.

Progressives have also blanched at Sinema’s efforts to avoid raising tax rates and Manchin’s move to cut the bill's top line. Those moves have prompted a deal on a corporate minimum tax and tenuous negotiations on a billionaires tax, as well as potential cuts to plans for Medicare expansion, Medicaid expansion and paid leave. Efforts to lower drug prices through Medicare negotiations are headed toward a more limited approach, Democrats said.

By midday Wednesday, the billionaire tax was out of the mix, according to multiple sources familiar with the talks. Manchin said the tax on billionaire’s assets is “convoluted” and instead pitched a “patriotic” 15 percent tax on wealthy people. He said he did not want to target a certain class of people through the tax code.

His comments complicated negotiations, some Democrats said.

"I continue to be optimistic that on the spending side, there are pathways toward closing the remaining gaps," said Sen. Chris Coons (D-Del.). "But I recognize that Sen. Manchin's just made a comment that made some of the revenue side" more complex.

With the billionaires tax out, Democrats are now taking another look at a surtax on people making more than $5 million a year that the House Ways and Means Committee passed last month.

Manchin also continued to throw cold water on health care proposals, which Sanders said was not negotiable and “must” be in the bill. His colleague, Sen. Raphael Warnock (D-Ga.), said he’d spoken to Manchin and is “encouraged” that Democrats can find a way to cover Georgians and other Americans who live in states that have not expanded Medicaid but would otherwise be eligible.

Democrats are more confident about climate subsidies and universal pre-K making it into in the package, along with an extension of the Child Tax Credit. But it all comes down to where Manchin and Sinema fall — and whether the rest of the party’s thin majorities go along with Biden's dealmaking. Chairmen of the Senate's climate-related committees met again on Wednesday afternoon, according to Democratic sources.

#### The plan trades-off

Peter C. Carstensen 21, Fred W. & Vi Miller Chair in Law Emeritus at the University of Wisconsin Law School, LL.B. from Yale Law School, MA in Economics from Yale University, “The “Ought” and “Is Likely” of Biden Antitrust”, Concurrences – Antitrust Publications & Events, February 2021, https://www.concurrences.com/en/review/issues/no-1-2021/on-topic/the-new-us-antitrust-administration-en

14. Similarly, despite bipartisan murmurs about competitive issues, the potential in a closely divided Congress that any major initiatives will survive is limited at best. In part the challenge here is how the Biden administration will rank its commitments. If it were to make reform of competition law a major and primary commitment, it would have to trade off other goals, which might include health care reform or increases in the minimum wage. It is likely in this circumstance the new administration, like the Obama administration’s abandonment of the pro-competitive rules proposed under the PSA, would elect to give up stricter competition rules in order to achieve other legislative priorities.

15. Another key to a robust commitment to workable competition is the choice of cabinet and other key administrative positions. Here as well, the early signs are not entirely encouraging. In selecting Tom Vilsack to return as secretary of agriculture, the president has embraced a friend of the large corporate interests dominating agriculture who has spent the last four years in a highly lucrative position advancing their interests. Given the desperate need for pro-competitive rules to implement the PSA and control exploitation of dairy farmers through milk-market orders, the return of Vilsack is not good news. Who will head the FTC and who will be the attorney general and assistant attorney general for antitrust is still unknown, but if those picks are also centrists with strong links to corporate America the hope for robust enforcement of competition law will further attenuate!

16. In sum, this is a pessimistic prognostication for the likely Biden antitrust enforcement agenda. There is much that ought to be done. But this requires a willingness to take major enforcement risks, to invest significant political capital in the legislative process, and to select leaders who are committed to advancing the public interest in fair, efficient and dynamically competitive markets. The early signs are that the new administration will be no more committed to robust competition policy than the Obama administration. Events may force a more vigorous policy—I will cling to that hope as the Biden administration takes shape.

#### Key to grid modernization AND cybersecurity

David Smith 21, Marketing Director at Grid Forward, VP of Creative Services for Publitek North America, “The Grid in the Infrastructure Package – What’s In, What’s Out, What’s Next,” Grid Forward, 8/19/21, https://gridforward.org/the-grid-in-the-infrastructure-package-whats-in-whats-out-whats-next/

By now you are well aware that the U.S. Senate has passed a mammoth $1.2T bill investing in infrastructure. You may even know that the energy investments were around $100B – a lot of funds no doubt. What you may not have been able to sparse out in the 2700 pages and various steps is exactly what’s in there and what isn’t. Even with funding of this level, there are aspects of the energy grid that made it in the package and some that did not.

What’s In the Bipartisan Package

Resiliency

Right off the top of the energy title are a few sections that invest $11B over the next five years to fund deployments that harden our grid to increasing disturbances and disruptions. In 2020 alone, over 20 $1B+ events occurred impacting our lives and communities deeply, so this is a starting point for proactive investment to address the downside of these events. Additional aspects in the package invest in wildfire mitigation efforts including treatment of forest and new commission for coordinated planning. Sen Wyden of Oregon called for funding of $50B in his Disaster Safe Power Grid Act for wildfire work alone, so while this funding is a great start it is not enough to meet the needs of the grid.

Hydrogen

Much talk in the industry surrounds the concept of longer duration storage and one solution may come in the form of a dramatic expansion of hydrogen capacity. The bipartisan bill places a big bet with research, demos, and regional hubs totaling upwards of $10B in this area. It’s not quite as big as the investments that Europe is making in the area but it would be an unprecedented infusion of funds into this space in No. America.

Nuclear

There has been wide coverage of the inclusion of nuclear support in the infrastructure package. Funds to help the few remaining resources in development in this capital intensive sector are somewhat significant, however, for the future of this industry, even an investment of over $9B for demos and projects (including smaller scale modular) may only make a moderate impact.

Carbon Capture

Another area that got a rather significant boost in this package is carbon capture, sequestration, storage and utilization. Between demos and other funding support this area receives about $12B. Finding effective ways to use and store carbon is certainly going to play a central role in our future, but hopefully, this will not be an uneconomic use of extending assets on our system.

What’s In There but Only Somewhat

Modernization

One of the central aspects of the 2008 ARRA stimulus related to energy was a program that funded grid advancements via the smart grid investment grant projects. One section of the bipartisan bill rekindles this program with $3B in funding. What constitutes a smart, modern grid to help develop necessary grid flexibility has advanced quite a lot in the last 13 years, so this program may be a bit limited in scope but has a good starting place. The needs for the grid to instrument expanded flexibility have also advanced, so while this offers critical investment, significant expansion will be necessary for the near term.

Electric Vehicles

Much has been noted about how the package will transform electrified transportation. Yes, there is $7.5B for charging infrastructure, and yes there is another $2.5B for electrified buses (other portions are for other clean transit). But in the overall scheme of what it will take to transition the transportation system, this is a rather minor commitment.

Is the bipartisan package a major investment in our grid? YES! Is this something that the House should take up and pass as soon as possible? YES!

Bryce Yonker, executive director, Grid Forward

Energy Storage

Any energy insiders know that one of the keys to a smoother transition of our energy system is a dramatic expansion of energy storage. This package indeed includes $3B for second use and recycling demos and another $3B for supply chain materials support. However, by way of accelerating deployments of grid storage, this package actually does quite little. Even in the promising area of longer duration demos it only allocates a minor $150M and another section calls for one demonstration project.

Buildings and Efficiency

The overall level of funding and support for efficiency and buildings was somewhat limited in the package. Sure, there was the nearly $500M for revolving loan fund and building codes, and $500M for efficiency and renewables on schools, $3.5B for weatherization funds, and some funds for states that could go to these areas, but it overall was a rather small level of support. The concept of the first resource being the one you don’t build – Amory Lovins now famous negawatt – needs to remain a central part of the grid we are making.

Transmission

Political talking points play up how much support the package has for building out transmission infrastructure. There is a section that identifies critical transmission corridors, but it does not fund them. There is another section that creates a new authority with the ability to offer loans up to $2.5B to support transmission programs with early commercial interest. But this package does not fund, for example, long high-voltage transmission projects or create significantly streamlined processes for these areas moving ahead. Rolling up sleeves to get into the details on permitting and siting on transmission will remain critical and didn’t seem to substantially move in this package.

Cybersecurity

It really has been shocking under investment in grid cyber hygiene and hardening over recent years from federal resources and that cyber funding has not been part of any major energy legislation for over a decade. This package does have $250M that will help small, mostly rural utilities with the cyber capabilities and another $350M that will go quite a way to support other cybersecurity programs, but this is not an area to under invest in and it seems it was under invested in the package.

What’s Not In The Package

Demand-Side Flexibility

Demand response and wider demand side management capabilities are essentially not funded in the bi-partisan package. One section encourages utility demand side management considerations, but no real funding goes to bringing demand side resources on the grid. With the potential of FERC 2222 to bring aggregated demand side and distributed resources into markets, much more widely available and adopted controllable devices, and other market developments necessitating the type of resource coming on the grid, this is a bit striking.

Building Automation

Support to ensure that buildings have higher level controls and capabilities to respond to grid signals was also not in the package. See comments in demand side and DER integration above and below.

Distributed Resource Integration

It’s not a future state, but a current need, in which aggregated edge resources can provide significant value to the grid. Turning distributed assets (solar, storage, EVs, thermostats, generators, hot water heaters, and much more) into a resource requires new technology, evolved models, new partnerships and more. Support to help this transition is essential. When well established values can be equitably dispersed to owners and all grid customers (and for the benefit of the system itself), we will have reached a new milestone in the evolution of our energy system – the grid has not reached this place yet and investing to get there is critical.

Analytics & Digital Infrastructure

Real-time grid telemetry to better understand and optimize the dynamics of the system was essentially not in the package and is also not present in most parts of the grid. What’s the saying ‘you can’t manage what you don’t measure?’ Are there exciting things you can do with the roughly 70% of advanced meters that are now deployed? Absolutely! But additional investments are required to apply a suite of capabilities, largely powered by the cloud, to the grid and it’s time that we take them off the shelf and use them.

Renewable Energy

Remember that part of the grid that actually creates the energy we need to run our economy? There are a handful of minor areas of investment in targeted deployments and demonstrations here and there offering a few hundred million dollars. But this package does not help fund the build-out of clean energy resources, nor the grid capabilities to help facilitate it. Economics of resources like wind and solar in many jurisdictions are just so cost-effective that their additions have largely won out over recent years, but if we want a lower carbon society we have to dramatically expand renewable resources. And, importantly, we must build a grid that ensures affordable, reliable power gets to people and businesses when they need it. It seems that the reconciliation package may have central aspects to helping support the further build-out of clean energy resources, but if the IPCC report that came out this week didn’t wake you up to the needs I’m not sure what else may.

What’s Next

The House looks like it will be coming back from recess early later this month to continue work on the infrastructure package. Details of the reconciliation package may be together by mid-September. Early outlines show that of the $198B in energy, the clean energy spending may be a significant portion there and in the $67B for the environment, the clean energy accelerator may be a central feature there.

There are rumblings of the reconciliation package having aspects such as:

More significant support for electrified transportation

Tax and other incentives for storage, transmission and other grid infrastructure

Deeper support for efficiency, connected building and related areas

In Summary: Pass This Package

Is the bipartisan package a major investment in our grid? YES! Is this something that the House should take up and pass as soon as possible? YES! Would another $200B (or more) for energy and grid in a reconciliation package help move the functionality of our system ahead? YES! Should the reconciliation package take areas of grid modernization and flexibility further? ABSOLUTELY. Should the bi-partisan package wait and risk not coming across the line as the reconciliation package comes together? We say no, but understand that there are significant political dynamics in play. If the bi-partisan package falls through and so does the reconciliation package, support for the nation’s electric grid and the functionally we want (and really need) during the energy transition will be far below where it needs to be. It’s time that we dig into modernizing our energy system, let’s get this bill across the line and get to work.

#### Extinction

Benjamin Monarch 20, University of Kentucky College of Law, J.D. May 2015, LLM in Energy, Natural Resources, and Environmental Law and Policy from the University of Denver Sturm College of Law, Deputy District Attorney at Colorado Judicial Branch, and Term Member at the Council on Foreign Relations, “Black Start: The Risk of Grid Failure from a Cyber Attack and the Policies Needed to Prepare for It,” Journal of Energy & Natural Resources Law, vol. 38, no. 2, Routledge, 04/02/2020, pp. 131–160

In the industrial world, when a switch is flipped, we take for granted that it will produce light, boot a computer, illuminate a stadium or activate a power plant. We know, of course, that power losses can and do occur. Many of us have lit candles during a thunderstorm or brought out extra blankets when a blizzard takes down transmission lines. As of this writing, the most populated state in the United States, California, is experiencing rolling blackouts.1 Yet even in prolonged power outages, we expect that electricity will be restored and, consequently, life will return to normal. Perhaps we need ask, however, what if power cannot be restored in a timely manner? Concern is growing that in the not-too-distant future our electricity supply could be irreparably compromised by a cyber attack. The issue when considering a systemic grid failure of this nature is twofold: how did we reach a point where something so critical to routine life now presents an existential threat, and what can we do to mitigate the risk of a catastrophic grid attack?

This article posits that the emergence of cyber attacks on industrial control systems, as a means of war or criminal menace, have reached a level of sophistication capable of crippling those systems. This article argues that a new grid security policy paradigm is required to thwart catastrophic grid failure – a paradigm that recognises the inextricable link between commercial power generation and national security. In section 5, seven policy recommendations are outlined that may, in part, mitigate a future where grid attacks pose existential risk to nations and their citizenry. Those recommendations are: first, develop a comprehensive insurance programme to minimise the financial risk of grid disruption; second, train more cybersecurity professionals with particular expertise in industrial control systems; third, institute a federally mandated information-sharing programme that is centralised under United States Cyber Command; fourth, subsidise and/or incentivise cybersecurity protections for small to mid-size utilities; fifth, provide university grants for grid security research; sixth, integrate new technologies with an eye towards securing the grid; and, lastly, formulate clear rules of engagement for a military response to grid disruption.

The purpose of this article is to provide the reader with an introduction to this complex topic. It is the aim of the author to give orientation to this issue and its many branches in the hope that better understanding will animate further curiosity and, ultimately, positive action on the part of the reader. Although many skilled and earnest people work tirelessly to prevent a grid failure scenario, it is essential that more be added to their ranks each day. Advisors, engineers, regulators, private counsel to power generators, and many others who play roles in electric power production are crucial to this subject. So, while this article provides entrée to the topic of grid security, its long-term objective is to spur action by the entire energy-related community. In the end, no one is immune to consequences of grid failure and, therefore, everyone is responsible, in part, for promoting grid integrity.2 In this regard, lawyers who represent various actors in the energy sector are going to be faced with questions and potential legal risks of a magnitude that they have never experienced before.

1.2. Turning the power back on in a powerless world

‘Black start’, not to be confused with the term ‘blackout’, is the name given to the process of restoring an electric grid to operation without relying on the external electric power transmission network to recover from a total or partial shutdown.3 At first glance, this description is unremarkable, but it implies a disturbing catch-22 – how might one restore power if the entire external transmission network is compromised?

If an electric disruption occurs at a household level, some homes may be equipped with a modest gasoline generator to temporarily restore power. If a hospital loses power, it will almost invariably be resupplied by automatic, industrial-scale generators. These micro considerations hardly give anyone pause; they are hiccups on a stormy night or a snowy day. In other words, their ‘black start’ is a quick and effective process for restoring power. But what happens, at a macro level, when an electric grid supplying power to large portions of the United States goes black, or worse, what happens if all of the United States’ electric grids go down simultaneously?4 In that scenario, how might enough non-grid power be harnessed and transmitted to turn the United States’ lights back on? Moreover, how might such a catastrophe occur in the first place? Perhaps the more ominous question is not how, but whether or not we can survive such circumstances if they persist in the long term.

The United States electric grid (‘the grid’) is the ‘largest interconnected machine’ in the world.5 It consists of more than 7000 power plants, 55,000 substations, 160,000 miles of high-voltage transmission lines and millions of low-voltage distribution lines.6 The scale and complexity of the grid in the context of the modern digital world are beyond comprehension because within it are innumerable industrial control systems; incalculable connections to digital networks; millions, if not billions, of analogue or digital sensors; many thousands of human actors; and trillions of lines of programming code.7 Further complexifying the grid is that it is comprised of generations of technologies, stitched together in ways that are not inherently secure in a world of cyber threats.8 The vastness of the grid makes security of it challenging. Likewise, the vastness of the grid makes the opportunities for intrusion seemingly infinite.

By any measure, grid failure will unleash a parade of horrors. Stores would close, food scarcity would follow, communication would cease, garbage would pile up, planes would be grounded, clean water would become a luxury, service stations would yield no fuel, hospitals would eventually go dark, financial transactions would stop, and this is only the tip of the iceberg – in a prolonged grid failure social chaos would reign, once-eradicated diseases would re-emerge and, increasingly, hope of returning to a normal life would fade.9 The notion of complete grid failure, once relegated to science fiction comics or James Bond movies, is now not only possible but also one of the most pressing national security threats today.10

### 1NC

#### States CP

#### The 50 state governments and relevant sub-federal territories, in coordination through the National Association of Attorneys General, should recognize protection of competition as the purpose of antitrust law and favor structural remedies, including blocking mergers and instituting breakups, over conduct remedies.

#### State action solves, won’t be preempted, and causes federal follow-on

Juan A. Arteaga 21, Partner at Crowell & Moring LLP, Former Senior Official in the Antitrust Division of the US Department of Justice, JD from Columbia Law School, and Jordan Ludwig, Counsel in the Antitrust Group at Crowell & Moring LLP, JD from Loyola Law School, “The Role of US State Antitrust Enforcement”, Private Litigation Guide – Second Edition, Global Competition Review, 1/28/2021, https://globalcompetitionreview.com/guide/private-litigation-guide/second-edition/article/the-role-of-us-state-antitrust-enforcement

Prior to the enactment of the first federal antitrust law – the Sherman Act – in 1890, state antitrust enforcement was quite robust in the United States because at least 26 states had already enacted some form of antitrust prohibition.[2] In addition, state enforcers had often used general corporation law and common law restraint of trade principles to regulate anticompetitive business practices and transactions.[3] This well-established state antitrust enforcement infrastructure – coupled with the fact that the Antitrust Division and FTC had only recently been created – permitted state attorneys general to continue playing a leading enforcement role for the first 30 years after the Sherman Act’s passage.[4] Indeed, state attorneys general successfully prosecuted a number of the most consequential antitrust enforcement actions during this period.[5]

In the early 1920s, however, state antitrust enforcers began playing a less prominent role because ‘the national dimension of the most important trusts, . . . as well as their ability to restructure in order to evade problematic state laws’, made clear that the federal government needed to step forward in order to adequately protect consumers and the competitive process.[6] As a result, the DOJ and FTC – whose national jurisdiction and greater resources enabled them to tackle the most pressing competition issues of the time – displaced state attorneys general as the primary source of government antitrust enforcement within the United States.[7] This largely remained true until the mid-1970s when Congress, in response to the DOJ and FTC’s perceived inactivity, passed two laws that expanded the authority of state attorneys general to enforce the federal antitrust laws and provided them with financial resources to do so.[8]

In 1976, Congress passed the Hart-Scott-Rodino Antitrust Improvement Act, which, among other things, authorised state attorneys general to bring *parens patriae* suits (i.e., legal actions brought on behalf of natural persons residing within their states) seeking monetary (treble damages) and injunctive relief for Sherman Act violations.[9] Congress also passed the Crime Control Act of 1976, which, among other things, provided state attorneys general with tens of millions in federal grants as ‘seed money’ for the creation of antitrust bureaus within their offices.[10] These laws had their intended effect of reinvigorating state antitrust enforcement.

During the 1980s, for example, state attorneys general once again emerged as vigorous antitrust enforcers, especially with respect to the prosecution of resale price maintenance practices and other vertical restraints.[11] The rise in the level and prominence of state antitrust enforcement during this period was largely due to a perceived enforcement void at the federal level, where the DOJ and FTC had mostly limited their focus to ‘prohibiting cartels and large horizontal mergers’.[12] No longer content with ceding antitrust enforcement to federal enforcers, state attorneys general expanded their antitrust dockets from prosecuting purely ‘local matters, such as bid-rigging on state contracts’, to actively investigating and litigating matters with multistate and national implications.[13] To help ensure that they had a larger seat at the antitrust enforcement table, state attorneys general also increased the coordination of their enforcement efforts and competition advocacy through organisations such as the National Association of Attorneys General (NAAG), which created a Multistate Antitrust Task Force and issued state Vertical Restraints and Horizontal Merger Guidelines during this period.[14]

Since the reawakening of state antitrust enforcement nearly 30 years ago, state attorneys general have continued to play an important role in the enforcement of both state and federal antitrust laws. During periods of lax federal antitrust enforcement, state attorneys general have often ramped up their enforcement activity in order to protect consumers from anticompetitive transactions and business practices.[15] During periods of vigorous federal antitrust enforcement, they have often served as strong partners for the DOJ and FTC by, among other things, offering valuable insights about competitive dynamics in local markets, assisting with obtaining information from key market participants (including state governmental entities that are direct purchasers of goods and services), and helping develop and implement litigation strategies for cases being tried before federal judges presiding in their states.[16]

Since January 2017, state attorneys general have increasingly played a leading and independent antitrust enforcement role. State antitrust enforcers have significantly increased their enforcement activity and willingness to act separately from their federal counterparts because many of them believe that there has been ‘under-enforcement’ by the DOJ and FTC.[17] State antitrust enforcers have also been able to enhance their influence over key competition policy issues and the antitrust enforcement agenda within the United States because there appears to have been a significant decline in the coordination and relationship between the DOJ and FTC.[18]

In once again flexing their enforcement muscle, state attorneys general have shown a willingness to publicly disagree with the DOJ and FTC on both policy and enforcement decisions, and have also sought to pressure their federal counterparts into more aggressively policing certain industries. Recent examples of the increased independence and assertiveness of state antitrust enforcers include:

* The DOJ, FTC and several state attorneys general have been actively investigating and prosecuting ‘no-poach’ agreements (i.e., where competitors for employees agree not to recruit or hire each other’s employees) in recent years. However, the DOJ and state attorneys general have taken directly opposing positions in private litigation challenging the legality of ‘no-poach’ clauses in corporate franchise agreements. The DOJ has argued that courts should review these clauses under the rule of reason whereas various state attorneys general have argued that these clauses should be deemed per se unlawful.[24]
* In their joint investigation into the T-Mobile/Sprint merger, nearly 20 state attorneys general sued to block the transaction in September 2019 even though the DOJ, along with seven state attorneys general, approved the deal after securing certain structural and behavioural remedies.[19] After the DOJ announced its proposed settlement with the companies, the Attorney General for New York, who led the states’ challenge to the merger, issued a press release dismissing the adequacy of the remedies negotiated by the DOJ: ‘The promises made by [the divestiture buyer] and [the merging companies] in this deal are the kinds of promises only robust competition can guarantee. We have serious concerns that cobbling together this new fourth mobile [phone] player, with the government picking winners and losers, will not address the merger’s harm to consumers, workers, and innovation.’[20] Thereafter, the DOJ opposed the states’ enforcement action by, among other things, moving to disqualify the private counsel hired by the states to represent them[21] and filing submissions that argued against the states’ requested injunction.[22] Ultimately, the state attorneys general were unsuccessful in their bid to block the deal.[23]
* None of the more than 20 state attorney general offices that actively investigated the AT&T/Time Warner merger joined the DOJ’s unsuccessful challenge to the transaction despite the DOJ’s concerted effort to secure their support.[25] In fact, nine state attorneys general filed an amicus brief opposing the DOJ’s appeal of the trial court’s decision.[26]
* After the FTC declined to seek any Colorado-related remedies in connection with Optum’s acquisition of DaVita Medical Group, the Attorney General for Colorado required the merging companies to lift the exclusivity provisions in contracts with certain healthcare providers and to extend their existing contracts with certain health insurers. In announcing this settlement, the Colorado Attorney General stated: ‘I recognize that this case marks an important step in state antitrust enforcement . . . . I am committed to protecting all Coloradans from anticompetitive consolidation and practices, and will do so whether or not the federal government acts to protect Coloradans.’[27]

After voicing displeasure with federal antitrust enforcement in the technology sector, numerous state attorneys general launched their independent investigations into ‘Big Tech’ companies even though the DOJ and FTC have ongoing investigations into these companies.[28]

### 1NC

#### T Per Se

#### ‘Business practices’ are ongoing conduct defined by the behaviors of many market participants

Kerry Lynn Macintosh 97, Associate Professor of Law, Santa Clara University School of Law. B.A. 1978, Pomona College; J.D. 1982, Stanford University, “Liberty, Trade, and the Uniform Commercial Code: When Should Default Rules Be Based On Business Practices?,” 38 Wm. & Mary L. Rev. 1465, Lexis

These new and revised articles reflect a strong trend toward choosing default rules 4 that codify existing business practices. 5 [FOOTNOTE 5 BEGINS] In this Article, the term "business practices" is used to refer to practices that emerge over time as countless market participants exercise their freedom to engage in profitable transactions. For an account of the evolution of business practices, see infra Part II. As used here, "business practices" is broader and less technical than "trade usage," which the Code narrowly defines as "any practice or method of dealing having such regularity of observance in a place, vocation, or trade as to justify an expectation that it will be observed with respect to the transaction in question." U.C.C. 1-205(2). [FOOTNOTE 5 ENDS] This is particularly true of the recent revisions to Articles 3 (Negotiable Instruments), 4 (Bank Deposits and Collections) and 5 (Letters of Credit).

#### ‘Prohibition’ must ban anticompetitive practices without exception

E. Norman Veasey 95, Chief Justice on the Delaware Supreme Court, “Snell v. Engineered Sys. & Designs”, Supreme Court of Delaware, 669 A.2d 13, 17-18, 1995 Del. LEXIS 338, 9/13/1995, Lexis

The interpretation of the statute is aided by the synopsis to a recent amendment to Section 2825. This synopsis states [\*\*12] that the amendment "clarifies the limitations on the public use of the word engineering by those not authorized to practice engineering for the general public." 68 Del. Laws, c. 24 (emphasis added). Had the General Assembly intended to ban all uses of the word "engineer" by those not certified, it would have been more logical for it to have used the word "prohibition" (or the equivalent) rather than the word "limitations" in the synopsis. Section 2825 must be analyzed, therefore, with the understanding that it bans only uses of the term "engineer" which would "lead to the [\*18] belief that such person is entitled to practice engineering"--i.e., a misleading use of any derivative of the word "engineer."

#### That means the only topical mechanism is to apply per se illegality

John Paul Stevens 90, Justice, Supreme Court of the United States, “FTC v. Superior Court Trial Lawyers Ass'n,” 493 U.S. 411, Lexis

LEdHN[3C] [3C]LEdHN[14] [14]Equally important is the second error implicit in respondents' claim to immunity from the per se rules. In its opinion, the Court of Appeals assumed that the antitrust laws permit, but do not require, the condemnation of price fixing and boycotts without proof of market power. 15 The opinion further assumed that the per se rule prohibiting such activity "is only a rule of 'administrative convenience and efficiency,' not a statutory command." 272 U.S. App. D. C., at 295, 856 F. 2d, at 249.This statement contains two errors. HN10 [\*\*\*\*42] The per se [\*433] rules are, of course, the product of judicial interpretations of the Sherman Act, but the rules nevertheless have the same force and effect as any other statutory commands. Moreover, while the per se rule against price fixing and boycotts is indeed justified in part by "administrative convenience," the Court of Appeals erred in describing the prohibition as justified only by such concerns. The per se rules also reflect a long-standing judgment that the prohibited practices by their nature have "a substantial potential for impact on competition." Jefferson Parish Hospital District No. 2 v. Hyde, 466 U.S. 2, 16 (1984).

[\*\*\*\*43] LEdHN[15] [15]As we explained in Professional Engineers, HN11 the rule of reason in antitrust law generates

"two complementary categories of antitrust analysis. In the first category are agreements whose nature and necessary effect are so plainly anticompetitive that no elaborate study of the industry is needed to establish their illegality -- they are 'illegal per se.' In the second category are agreements whose competitive effect can only be evaluated by analyzing the facts peculiar to the business, the history of the restraint, and the reasons why it was imposed." 435 U.S., at 692.

[\*\*\*873] "Once experience with a particular kind of restraint enables the Court to predict with confidence that the rule of reason will condemn it, it has applied a conclusive presumption that the restraint is unreasonable." Arizona v. Maricopa County Medical Society, 457 U.S. 332, 344 (1982).

[\*\*781] LEdHN[16] [16] [\*\*\*\*44] The per se rules in antitrust law serve purposes analogous to per se restrictions upon, for example, stunt flying in congested areas or speeding. Laws prohibiting stunt flying or setting speed limits are justified by the State's interest in protecting human life and property. Perhaps most violations of such rules actually cause no harm. No doubt many experienced drivers and pilots can operate much more safely, even at prohibited speeds, than the average citizen.

[\*434] If the especially skilled drivers and pilots were to paint messages on their cars, or attach streamers to their planes, their conduct would have an expressive component. High speeds and unusual maneuvers would help to draw attention to their messages. Yet the laws may nonetheless be enforced against these skilled persons without proof that their conduct was actually harmful or dangerous.

In part, the justification for these per se rules is rooted in administrative convenience. They are also supported, however, by the observation that every speeder and every stunt pilot poses some threat to the community. An unpredictable event may overwhelm the skills of the best driver or pilot, even if the [\*\*\*\*45] proposed course of action was entirely prudent when initiated. A bad driver going slowly may be more dangerous that a good driver going quickly, but a good driver who obeys the law is safer still.

#### Vote:

#### 1) GROUND---key to link uniqueness and a unidirectional topic. Fringe standards dodge topic links, AND they can pick a broader but more permissive standard, making the topic bidirectional.

#### 2) LIMITS---too many possible standards, each requiring distinct answers, makes the topic unmanageably large.

### 1NC

#### Jackson K

#### The only outcome of their advocacy is monstrous global militarism and incalculable violence---vote Neg to give up the impulse for policy relevance.

Jackson 16 – Richard Jackson, Director of the National Centre for Peace and Conflict Studies, the University of Otago and Former Professor of International Politics at Aberystwyth University, “To Be or Not To Be Policy Relevant? Power, Emancipation and Resistance in CTS Research”, Critical Studies on Terrorism, Vol. 9, No. 1, p. 120-125

Today, it is nothing more than common sense that academic research ought to be “policy relevant”, and academics have a duty to make themselves available as “expert” advisers to policymakers and practitioners. In fact, within the academy, achieving some form of “impact” on the policymaking or policy enactment process is held up as a kind of gold standard for academic research. The opportunities to engage with, or speak directly to, the powerful are highly sought after by scholars (and their institutional managers), and reflect a widely-held belief that one of the prescribed roles of academics is to assist the state in its regulation and management of society. Certainly, within International Relations more broadly, and security studies and terrorism studies more specifically, engagement with powerful officials and influence on policy is viewed as a key goal of academic research, and scholars who gain access to power in this way are held in high esteem by their peers and society in general – notwithstanding critical questions surrounding the politics of security “expertise” (see Berling and Bueger 2015).

Critical Terrorism Studies (CTS) has broadly followed in this path since the beginning, adopting the normal academic priority of trying to ensure that its research goes beyond critique and has “policy relevance”. In an early volume laying out the new CTS research agenda, we stated that there was a need to continue developing and articulating the CTS normative agenda … within the confines of the need for both critical distance from the status quo and policy relevance. […] In particular, CTS scholars will need to think through the practicalities, ethics, and modalities of negotiating the delicate balance between normatively-oriented independent scholarship that promotes emancipation and the security of humans in general, and the demands of being “policy relevant” … We believe that it is possible to maintain access to power and critical distance at the same time … In addition, we feel that the current political and intellectual climate, in which there is growing disappointment with the effects and outcomes to date of the “war on terror”, and where security practitioners are actively searching for new ideas and approaches to thinking about counter-terrorism, provides a ripe moment for critically-oriented scholars to offer their knowledge and expertise. (Jackson, Breen Smyth, and Gunning 2009, 235, emphasis added)

Looking back, I would suggest that there was always a potential contradiction, or point of tension, between the contrasting aspirations for policy relevance and access to power, and CTS’s commitment to emancipation and critical distance. For example, in the same volume, we stated that a commitment to emancipation implied a commitment to praxis as organic intellectuals to help bring about concrete utopias out of the fissures and contradictions of existing structures …; a continuous process of “immanent critique” of existing power structures and practices in society; the moral and intellectual questioning of the instrumental rationality paradigm of political violence …; the prioritising of human security over national security and working towards minimising all forms of physical, structural, and cultural violence …; and the serious scholarly and practical exploration of non-violence, conflict transformation, and reconciliation as practical alternatives to terrorist and counter-terrorist violence. From this perspective, we believe that CTS is at heart an anti-hegemonic project, and a kind of “outsider theorising” which seeks to go “beyond problem-solving within the status quo and instead …to help engage through critical theory with the problem of the status quo” (Booth 2007). (Jackson, Breen Smyth, and Gunning 2009, 225)

It now seems clear that believing we could balance access to policymakers and having policy relevance with prioritising human security, critiquing the use of violence (including by the state), the promotion of nonviolence, “outsider theorising”, and antihegemony, was a little naïve. At the very least, it failed to fully appreciate that such a stance rested on a series of implicit assumptions about states as benign institutions and policymaking as a fairly open, rational process.

Moreover, I would argue that since we wrote this, both the global context of counterterrorism, and our understanding of its nature, have changed greatly, and as a consequence, the contradictions are now too sharp to maintain any kind of balance between our stated aspirations. In the first instance, the past few years have seen the mutation of counterterrorism from a fairly narrowly-defined set of security measures designed to deal with the threat of sub-state political violence in individual states, to a monstrous global machine implicated in military invasions, wars, militarisation and arms races, rendition and torture, drone assassination, mass surveillance, the suspension of law, the policing of thought crime, social engineering of entire populations, and the suppression of increasingly widely-defined forms of dissent and protest – among others. These aspects of counterterrorism are well documented in the broader CTS literature, and earlier volumes of this journal.

Moreover, all of this has been done in the name of preserving a global system dominated by entrenched economic and political interests. Further, such an assessment does not include indirect effects such as: regional instability, the rise of violent groups like Islamic State, the intensification of sectarian rivalries, increased flows of refugees and displaced persons, the undermining of numerous peace processes, and the diversion of scarce resources from humanitarian and development activities to security. Overall, there is no question that counterterrorism – notably, the so-called “war on terror” since 2001 – has killed and injured over a million people (immeasurably more than those killed by substate terrorism), caused incalculable suffering directly to millions more, put obstacles in the way of progressive movements and conflict transformation, and is one of the most effective tools of hegemonic domination by Western states in the present era, and of domination in general by state ruling elites against their own populations. In short, it is not too extreme to say that the global counterterrorism regime is, in its philosophy, practice, and effects, inherently violent, oppressive, and life-diminishing; it is a set of practices that is deeply anti-emancipatory, anti-human, and regressive. Certainly, no one would argue that contemporary counterterrorism fits the definition of emancipation adopted by CTS, in which emancipation “seeks the securing of people from those oppressions that would stop them from carrying out what they would freely choose to do, compatible with the freedom of others. It provides … progress for society, and a practice of resistance against oppression. Emancipation is the philosophy, theory, and politics of inventing humanity” (Booth 2007, 112). Counterterrorism is today the direct antithesis of emancipation.

In such conditions, where counterterrorism causes widespread suffering and is an obstacle to progressive change and social justice, it can be argued that working directly with state counterterrorism is akin to medical professionals who collaborate with torturers in an effort to improve prisoner welfare; while there may be some benefit to individual prisoners who perhaps suffer less as a consequence, the broader impact of their participation is the perpetuation and legitimisation of the overall system of torture, and their involvement does nothing to fundamentally change an inherently immoral set of practices. In other words, it can be argued that scholars who work with the state in either designing or enacting its counterterrorism practices – through advising practitioners working on the implementation of counter-radicalisation programmes, for example – may result in reducing harms to some potential victims. However, the overall primary effect is the legitimisation and perpetuation of the broader system of counterterrorism, rather than its dismantling or destruction.

I would suggest that under these conditions it is virtually impossible to maintain an ethical commitment to human rights, human welfare, non-violence, and progressive politics – that is, emancipation – while simultaneously participating in an inherently violent and counter-emancipatory regime of counterterrorism. It does not seem possible to work simultaneously for state counterterrorism (which is inherently violent, physically and epistemically, and aimed at maintaining a system of elite domination), and human emancipation.

In addition, I would argue that what we have learned about counterterrorism policy and practice in the years since the establishment of CTS strongly suggests that the “ripe moment” for offering expertise and guidance to policymakers and practitioners which we perceived at the time is now gone, if it ever really existed. In contrast, all the evidence we have from the last 14 years of the war on terror clearly show that policymakers are, for the most part, uninterested in evidence-based policy, or in the rigorous evaluation of counterterrorism policy, or in listening to reasonable, evidence-based suggestions about how to more effectively, and more ethically, respond to acts of terrorism (see, for example, Mueller and Stewart 2011). Rather, what we have increasingly witnessed is state officials and security practitioners – for a variety of sometimes but not always well-meaning reasons, including becoming trapped in the “epistemological crisis of counterterrorism” (Jackson 2015a) – engaging in ever-more egregious and nefarious practices, frequently followed by attempts to cover up their abuses when public scrutiny brings them to light. New allegations and evidence of human rights abuses seem to emerge weekly, and wasteful, ethically dubious, and ineffective counterterrorism practices are only grudgingly abandoned (such as torture and mass surveillance) under enormous pressure from human rights activists, public opinion, and judicial review.

I would add that these kinds of abuses are not the result of “a few bad apples” within the counterterrorism system, but are the direct consequence of the system itself; they are inherent to the system. In this context, it is extremely naïve to think that CTS scholars will first of all, be invited into the real chambers of power where policymaking occurs, and second, that once in the chamber, their suggestions will be taken seriously. The fact is that CTS scholars have warned and criticised and made alternative suggestions for years now, without any measurable effect; CTS scholars, by and large, have no voice in the current counterterrorism system. It is probably closer to reality that so-called “terrorism expertise” (most often of the more mainstream, orthodox kind) is primarily called upon and utilised by the state to legitimise already decided courses of action and to bolster its public reputation. Once again, there is here an ethical dilemma surrounding participating in what is largely a performance designed primarily to bolster and uphold state power, rather than protect or emancipate people.

Finally, I would argue that the effect of holding up “policy relevance” as a measure of good research can, and most often does, have a distorting effect on the research itself. This is because framing the end-point of the research in this way pushes us towards asking particular kinds of questions and looking for particular kinds of evidence. Primarily, it frames the research question in a “problem-solving” mode, conforming to the way that policymakers view reality. To illustrate this, consider the potential impact of asking, “How could my research assist counterterrorism officials to respond to terrorism more effectively?”, compared to the question, “How could my research assist ordinary people or oppressed groups achieve greater social justice and emancipation?” Research on the same topic, but pursued under the rubric of these two contrasting questions, will result in quite different sets of findings, I would argue.

It is for these reasons – the inherently oppressive nature of contemporary counterterrorism, the legitimising role of academics in maintaining state power, the potentially distorting effects of policy-oriented research, and the incompatibility of a commitment to both emancipation and the maintenance of the current elite-dominated system – that I have come to believe that the time for any kind of significant engagement with policymakers and counterterrorism practitioners is now over. The pitfalls and dangers for normatively oriented and committed scholars are too great to warrant risking it. We are now in a historical period where blunt and sustained opposition to the war on terror and state counterterrorism, plus the broader questioning of neoliberal capitalism and the state, is an overriding ethical imperative, in order to protect the innocent from foreseeable harms, advance social justice, respond to climate change, and promote emancipation.

So what is the alternative? What should we do? Are there no circumstances under which we should engage with the state, or with policymakers and practitioners? What I would like to suggest is not a prescriptive prohibition on trying to produce “policy relevant” research, or engaging with policymakers and practitioners. There may be scholars who genuinely do believe they can avoid the obvious dangers, maintain their commitment to emancipation, and feel that they are making a positive difference to counterterrorism policies and practices. It may also be that in some circumstances, officials genuinely will listen to academic suggestions and put them into practice (although I suspect the possibility of this occurring only applies at the levels of politics furthest from the centre of power). I therefore don’t want to say that we should refuse all invitations or opportunities to engage with the state; each instance should be evaluated on its merits. I also don’t want to say that state officials or security practitioners are bad people who we shouldn’t ever associate with; most are honest, intelligent individuals working in a flawed, dysfunctional system. Instead of a blanket prohibition then, what I suggest instead is that CTS scholars try and adopt a new broader orientation and set of priorities, and then see how this might change our research and scholarly practices. In other words, I am arguing for an epistemic reorientation and a value re-commitment, which I believe will then result in the sociological transformation of our practice. Such a reorientation comes, first of all, from re-committing ourselves to a strong and relentless “immanent critique” of the current system and its oppressive power structures, and avoiding any sense of deference towards, or privileging of, existing power structures.

In fact, given the role the state plays in maintaining the current system of elite domination, its proven record of power abuse and impunity, and its violent propensities, as well as the failure of the mainstream media to perform its watchdog role (at least in relation to security and foreign policy), it is our duty to adopt a sceptical attitude and to continuously hold them to account – to be part of an “anti-hegemonic project”, as we expressed it in the early days of CTS. From this perspective, there is room to engage with the state, as long as it is on the basis of highlighting the state’s crimes and plainly stating that state actors need to end their violence, structural and direct, and begin to dismantle the inherently counter-productive and counter-emancipatory counterterrorism regime. In other words, we are willing to engage with the state in the process of deconstructing the counterterrorism system, and undoing the harm caused by the war on terror. Clearly, such a confrontational and critical attitude is somewhat at odds with the current dominant attitude of embracing policy relevance as the gold standard and pinnacle of academic practice. It will require mental discipline to consider state officials, policymakers, and security practitioners as agents of a violent and oppressive system, rather than as benign actors in an institution committed to the social good.

Second, we should our embrace our “outsider theorising”, “anti-hegemonic” identity, recognising that in truth we have no voice in the structures of power anyway, nor are we likely to ever have any real influence over the way state power operates. Again, this involves giving up our institutionally-conditioned aspirations towards a state-based form of “impact”, and our continuous striving to catch the eye of the powerful and perhaps be invited into the inner sanctum where “real” power is wielded. Rather, we should commit to the outsider’s role of critic and conscience, radical and rebel, dissident and protestor, prophet crying in the wilderness. In part, this involves a recognition of a point that Noam Chomsky and others have made for many years, namely, that there is little point in “speaking truth to power”, because the powerful already know the truth and they don’t particularly want to hear it. Therefore, it is better to seek to work with progressive forces outside of the existing structures of power, not least because this is historically how significant change has frequently been engendered. While broad social movements have often forced the political classes to enact social change (most recently, we might consider the marriage equality, environmental, and racial equality movements), it is rare to find cases where well-meaning insiders to power systems succeeded in generating progressive social change.

Lastly, I would suggest that the reorientations I am suggesting here can be accommodated within the original concept and values of emancipation, which as Booth reminds us, “provides … a practice of resistance against oppression” (2007, 112, emphasis added). In other words, as I have argued elsewhere in relation to peace studies, I believe that “an explicit commitment to adopting the language, ontology, epistemology and praxis of ‘resistance’ could potentially reinvigorate the critical orientation of the field” (2015b, 31). Apart from the numerous potential theoretical benefits which would come from adopting a “resistance studies” framework within CTS (terrorism and counterterrorism are forms of resistance, after all), such a framework would also reorient our academic research and practice towards the powerless, the oppressed, the subaltern, the more numerous victims of counterterrorism and state terrorism – rather than towards the powerful, the influential, the state. Instead of thinking about how our research could be useful to the state and its policymakers, it would force us to think about how our research could be useful to social movements, human rights groups, protestors, oppressed groups, and humanity at large. Instead of valuing rubbing shoulders with the powerful and having “policy relevance” as the gold standard, it would make us value working with local communities and progressive groups and movements; it would provide a new aspirational gold standard based on how relevant and useful our research was to ongoing struggles for social justice. This would, I believe, over time, help CTS as a field to find a more balanced and consistent relationship to power than we currently have, and a better position or standpoint from which to engage in research and political practice.

### 1NC

#### CIL CP

#### Without reference to the laws of the United States, the United States federal government should determine that that protection of competition is the purpose of pro-competitive common law and favor structural remedies, including blocking mergers and instituting breakups, over conduct remedies.

#### The United States Congress should restrict the scope of its core antitrust laws to exclude recognition of protection of competition as the purpose of antitrust law and favoring structural remedies, including blocking mergers and instituting breakups, over conduct remedies.

#### The CP creates statute-independent common law with the same effect as the plan

HLR 20 – Harvard Law Review, “Antitrust Federalism, Preemption, and Judge-Made Law”, Harvard Law Review, 133 Harv. L. Rev. 2557, Lexis

None of this is to say that ERISA preemption fails to raise federalism concerns or that the concerns addressed in Part II are unique to anti- trust. In its decision to expressly preempt state law in ERISA, a wise Congress should have considered the difficulties of preemption via judge-made law. Part II’s concerns with preemption via judge-made law could be applied to any delegation to the judiciary that overrides the states’ will. But given the brevity of federal antitrust statutes and the relative lack of executive branch involvement, Congress should be even more wary if it decides to preempt state antitrust law.159 [FOOTNOTE 159 BEGINS] 159 Complaints about brevity and lack of executive branch involvement land an even stronger blow against preemption via statute-independent federal common law. A grant of federal common lawmaking power does not have to be statutory. All that is needed to support the development of federal common law is “some expressed or implied affirmative grant of power to the national government by the Constitution or a statute enacted pursuant to it.” 19 MILLER, supra note 132, § 4514. When courts make law from a constitutional grant, there may not even be a brief statute. See, e.g., Clearfield Tr. Co. v. United States, 318 U.S. 363, 366–67 (1943) (“When the United States disburses its funds . . . it is exercising a constitutional function or power. . . . In absence of an applicable Act of Congress it is for the federal courts to fashion the governing rule of law according to their own standards.”); see also 19 MILLER, supra note 132, § 4515; Volokh, supra note 94, at 1429 (discussing courts’ “statute-independent federal common-lawmaking powers”). Because statute-independent common law is created completely by the courts, preemption via statute- independent common law will preempt the states while also excluding the federal executive branch.

Part II’s critique then undermines statute-independent common law preemption even more than it undermines a preemptive Sherman Act. But Part II proffers only an argument that weighs against preemption; that argument must be balanced against the various pro-preemption critiques of Part I. When it comes to statute-independent common law, the pro-preemption arguments may simply be greater than they are in the antitrust arena. After all, such statute-independent common-lawmaking power exists only “in suits implicating a sufficiently strong interest of the national government.” 19 MILLER, supra note 132, § 4515. And it makes sense that common law grounded in the Constitution has more sway than does common law grounded in statute. Although antitrust law has sometimes been likened to the Constitution or other founding documents, see United States v. Topco Assocs., Inc., 405 U.S. 596, 610 (1972) (“Antitrust laws . . . are the Magna Carta of free enterprise.”); Thomas B. Nachbar, The Antitrust Constitution, 99 IOWA L. REV. 57, 69 (2013), courts simply give its commands less weight than those of the Constitution. Compare, for example, the (limited) deference given to professionals in the antitrust sphere, see Nat’l Soc’y of Prof’l Eng’rs v. United States, 435 U.S. 679, 696 (1978) (analyzing agreements by professionals under the rule of reason), to the zero deference given to professionals under the First Amendment, see Nat’l Inst. of Family & Life Advocates v. Becerra, 138 S. Ct. 2361, 2371–72 (2018). Even if statute-independent common law’s complete lack of input from the democratic branches increases the power of the federalism critique, that increase is rebutted by an increase in the power of the pro-preemption arguments. [FOOTNOTE 159 ENDS]

Of course, there is reason to believe that if Congress were to expressly preempt state antitrust law, it would do so as part of a more major antitrust reform effort. Recently, federal antitrust policy has been the subject of critique. Fed up with the seeming omnipresence of corporate giants, some scholarly160 and journalistic161 discourse has turned on the federal government’s antitrust policies. As things stand, if Congress decides to preempt state antitrust law with current federal antitrust jurisprudence, it would have to decide that the pros of preemption mentioned in Part I outweigh the federalism cons of Part II. But if Congress were to reform antitrust law by creating a new, detailed antitrust regime for courts to interpret, preemption of state antitrust law could avoid the perils of preemption via judge-made law.

#### Common law’s currently limited by precedent that requires courts to have explicit statutory delegation

Caleb Nelson 15, Emerson G. Spies Distinguished Professor of Law and Elizabeth D. and Richard A. Merrill Professor, University of Virginia School of Law, “The Legitimacy of (Some) Federal Common Law,” Virginia Law Review, 101 Va. L. Rev. 1, Lexis

This conclusion, however, potentially leaves a lot of room for federal common law. On any question that the Constitution, a federal statute, or a federal treaty prevents state law from answering but does not itself resolve, courts might be able to articulate a rule of decision as a matter of unwritten law. 11 Indeed, according to one commentator who takes a [\*5] fairly broad view of federal common law, that is essentially what the Supreme Court did in the initial decades after Erie: Judges felt free to recognize federal common law "whenever either the Constitution or Congress has "federalized' an area of the law but has failed to provide rules of decision for all issues that may arise." 12

Many modern federal judges deny that unwritten law can operate so broadly at the federal level. Their concerns revolve around the idea that articulating rules of decision as a matter of unwritten law entails a robust type of "lawmaking," analogous to the power that a legislature exercises when it enacts a written law. 13 After Erie, federal judges are used to acting as if state courts enjoy this sort of power (on matters as to which the states have lawmaking authority), but the Supreme Court has said that federal courts are different (even in areas of federal preemption). In Justice Rehnquist's words, "Federal courts, unlike state courts, are not general common-law courts and do not possess a general power to develop and apply their own rules of decision." 14

For many federal judges and commentators, it follows that every rule of decision that has the status of federal law must be traced in some way to a written federal enactment - not simply in the sense that the written enactment preempts state law, but in the sense that the written enactment either establishes the rule itself or authorizes the judiciary to do so. 15 To be sure, this idea leaves room for disagreement about when a particular statute or constitutional provision should be understood to authorize "federal common lawmaking." 16 But some distinguished commentators [\*6] have advocated restrictive approaches. 17 Justice Scalia has drawn the logical conclusion: "In the federal courts, … with a qualification so small it does not bear mentioning, there is no such thing as common law. Every issue of law resolved by a federal judge involves interpretation of text - the text of a regulation, or of a statute, or of the Constitution." 18

Academic critics of this logic have tended to accept the premise that all common-law decisionmaking entails robust lawmaking power, while arguing that federal courts can assert more such power than skeptics of [\*7] federal common law think. 19 This Article suggests exactly the opposite criticism. Like Justices Rehnquist and Scalia, I am reluctant to interpret either the Constitution or the typical federal statute as giving federal courts sweeping authority to invent new rules of decision out of whole cloth, even in the service of policies established by Congress. Nonetheless, I see a substantial role for certain types of federal common law in areas of federal preemption, because I do not think that modern federal courts are inventing rules of decision out of whole cloth whenever they articulate and apply any legal doctrines that have not been codified.

I am not trying to revive the old rhetoric that judges simply "discover" the common law and play no role in "making" it. But to say that courts participate in "making" the common law is to speak ambiguously, for there are different senses in which law can be made. 20 As a result, even if all common law is properly characterized as "judge-made," 21 one should not leap to the conclusion that each individual court brings common-law rules into being in the way that a legislature might enact a new statute. 22 While some prominent commentators have indeed spoken of the common law as "judicial legislation," 23 that way of talking is at best "a metaphor," 24 and the comparison that it draws is [\*8] controversial. 25 Part I of this Article therefore summarizes a few other ways of thinking about the common law.

Of course, common-law decisionmaking is extraordinarily complex, and it may not lend itself to a unitary description. In practice, rules of decision recognized by common-law courts presumably reflect a mix of sources, including precedents established by prior courts, customs and other social practices followed in the real world, policies reflected in written laws, modes of reasoning commonly used by lawyers, values widely shared by the public, and the policy preferences of individual judges. The relative importance of each of these inputs may well vary for different judges and in different areas of law. Still, the idea that all common-law decisionmaking is quasi-legislative strikes me as an exaggeration.

Part II discusses some of the questionable conclusions that have flowed from this idea. For instance, skeptics of federal common law sometimes suggest that in the absence of a special delegation of lawmaking authority, federal courts cannot legitimately recognize any rules of decision as a matter of unwritten law in areas of federal [\*9] preemption. This way of talking elides the potential distinction between rules that the courts would be creating out of whole cloth and rules that are firmly grounded in sources outside the federal judiciary (such as widespread customs, traditional principles of common law, or the collective thrust of precedents from across the fifty states). Likewise, to account for the role that unwritten law plays at the state level, many skeptics of federal common law suggest that state law gives state courts robust lawmaking power of a sort that federal law withholds from federal courts. Not only is this distinction implausible, but it may have the unintended effect of encouraging state judges to behave more like legislators when articulating rules of decision as a matter of state common law. By the same token, the premise that all common-law decisionmaking is quasi-legislative may affect how judges behave in the enclaves of federal common law that courts do recognize. The more judges think that articulating rules of decision as a matter of common law entails unfettered discretion to create whatever rules they please, the less they will feel bound to respect either the traditional content of the common law or the trend of opinions from other jurisdictions.

Part III calls attention to a subtler consequence of the skeptics' position: To the extent that judges refuse to recognize federal common law, they may end up compromising their normal approach to the interpretation of written federal laws. Many modern skeptics of federal common law embrace textualism in statutory interpretation and originalism in constitutional interpretation. As a practical matter, however, reluctance to recognize federal common law creates pressure to interpret written federal laws in ways that depart from the tenets of textualism and originalism. In a prior article, I suggested that the felt need to attribute federal rules of decision to written enactments has caused post-Erie judges to expand the domains of individual federal statutes to encompass issues that might more naturally be seen as matters of unwritten law. 26 Consistent with a recent observation by Professor Stephen Sachs, 27 Part III argues that a similar dynamic is at work in constitutional law.

[\*10]

I. Different Senses in Which Judges Might "Make" the Common Law

Over the years, accounts of the nature and sources of the common law have varied. From at least the seventeenth century on, though, many authors associated the common law with customs followed by people in the real world. 28 Proponents of this view tended to be vague about whether real-world customs always preceded the rules of decision that judges and juries applied in court, or whether judicial decisions and custom sometimes had a more symbiotic relationship; perhaps some rules of decision that were recognized as part of the common law had originated in one or more court cases, but customs had grown up around those rules in such a way as to validate them and to dictate the use of the same rules in later cases. 29 On either account, though, the content of the common law was said to reflect social practices rather than simply the ideas of individual judges.

For enthusiasts of the common law, this feature was one of the system's main strengths. To the extent that the rules applied by courts derived from the customs of the people, those rules enjoyed a species of democratic legitimacy. 30 What is more, the processes by which customs [\*11] developed were said to filter out bad ideas and to refine good ones, producing better rules than any single lawmaker could invent on his own. According to this hopeful story, a practice would not gain widespread acceptance unless it seemed sensible to enough people, and people would not continue to follow it unless it stood the test of experience. 31

Of course, widely accepted practices are more likely to resolve some kinds of legal questions than others. In the eighteenth century, perhaps the English rule allowing three "days of grace" for payment on a bill of exchange could plausibly be attributed to the customs of merchants. 32 But judges and juries surely confronted many questions that existing practices did not specifically resolve.

Still, what Professor Gerald Postema calls the "classical" conception of the common law had an answer to this potential objection. 33 According to a substantial group of seventeenth-and eighteenth-century thinkers, the common law reflected not only specific practices but also "the social habits of a people," on the basis of which judges (over time) identified principles that were organic to the community. 34 Even with respect to novel issues, then, these thinkers characterized judges as [\*12] deriving or "discovering" the principles of the common law on the basis of sources external to the courts. 35

Most modern lawyers do not see those sources as being so determinate. In Justice Souter's words,

The prevailing conception of the common law has changed since 1789 … . Now, … in most cases where a court is asked to state or formulate a common law principle in a new context, there is a general understanding that the law is not so much found or discovered as it is either made or created. 36

Unfortunately, the modern consensus that judges "make law" obscures potential disagreements about what that means. 37

[\*13] On one possible view, unwritten law does indeed rest partly on sources that exist outside of the courts, such as real-world customs and other social practices, 38 but these sources are only partially determinate. Any time a judge formulates a rule of decision on the basis of these raw materials, or applies a previously recognized rule in a context where its import is uncertain, there is a sense in which the judge has made new law. 39 Still, unlike legislatures (which "make law in the primary literal sense of selecting a norm on the basis simply of its merits and prescribing it ex nihilo" 40), judges who articulate and apply rules of unwritten law are not necessarily asserting authority to enact whatever rules they please. The more one believes that unwritten law has external sources that substantially constrain judicial discretion, the more one might think that common-law decisionmaking entails only a subsidiary type of "lawmaking." At least in the areas where such external sources exist, perhaps common-law decisionmaking is less analogous to legislation than to a species of interpretation. 41

A second possible view maintains that instead of having external sources, the common law "has been made from first to last by judges." 42 In that respect, some commentators have long described the common [\*14] law as "the stupendous work of judicial legislation." 43 But unlike a true legislature (which can repeal existing laws at will), common-law courts are thought to be bound at least to some extent by their own precedents. In a federal system like the United States, moreover, courts in one jurisdiction might also feel some obligation to follow the consensus of decisions by courts in other American jurisdictions. 44 Thus, although proponents of the second view describe the common law as entirely judge-made, they do not believe that current judges have freewheeling power to articulate whatever rules they like. Despite the absence of external sources, common-law decisionmaking is said to be constrained by sources internal to the courts - the precedential effect of "the mass of decisions" that, on this account, "constitute the common law." 45 To the extent that precedents help to "define and point out [the courts'] duty" in particular cases, 46 even someone who thinks that courts made the common law out of whole cloth might not think that any current common-law court enjoys quasi-legislative authority. 47

Jeremy Bentham famously offered a third and more radical view of common-law decisionmaking. To begin with, Bentham vigorously mocked the idea that the common law rests on external sources. [\*15] Throughout his writings, he insisted that "common law" is nothing but an alias for "judge-made law." 48 But he went farther: He suggested that rather than simply having been created by judges in the past, much of what we think of as common law is continually being made by current judges. While Bentham believed that judges in a common-law system should rigidly follow established precedents, 49 he did not think that the doctrine of stare decisis operated as a substantial constraint on judicial discretion. 50 Among other things, common-law courts tended to make [\*16] law for the particular cases that they were adjudicating, and such case-specific law did not provide determinate rules for other cases. 51 Thus, Bentham believed that the common law routinely operated ex post facto: Courts were perpetually making new law, and they announced and applied that law in the context of cases about conduct that had already occurred. 52

Bentham himself did not refer to the common law as "judicial legislation," perhaps because he did not want to dignify the common law by comparing it to written enactments. Indeed, Bentham sometimes wrote as if what common-law judges made was not "law" at all, in the sense of rules applicable to more than a single case; although judges issued orders "bearing upon the individual persons and things in question," and although judges might purport to articulate rules to justify those orders, Bentham argued that the purported rules created so little certainty about the likely resolution of future cases that they were only "sham law." 53 Still, Bentham described common-law judges as usurping the legislative function by inventing the law that they purported to apply. 54

At the time that Bentham was writing, orthodox common lawyers might still have insisted that courts merely discover the common law [\*17] and play no creative role of any sort. Bentham ultimately was very successful in helping to banish that view. 55 Even if some common-law rules are grounded in social practices that exist outside the courts, modern accounts of the common law emphasize the courts' contribution, and participants in the legal system routinely characterize the common law as judge-made law. 56 But while conventional wisdom has shifted toward Bentham on this point, one should not assume that modern lawyers also share Bentham's understanding of the precise sense in which courts "make" the common law. On many modern accounts, common-law judging tends to be more constrained than Bentham suggested. 57

Nonetheless, Bentham's views certainly have modern adherents. Textualists, in particular, have embraced various aspects of his critique of unwritten law. Indeed, an essay that Justice Scalia published in 1997 has accurately been called a "neo-Benthamite attack on the common law." 58 In the essay, Justice Scalia associated common-law decisionmaking with largely unfettered discretion to make policy. 59 He specifically denied that common-law rules have much connection to real-world customs or other social practices; 60 he portrayed the common [\*18] law as essentially anti-democratic, 61 and he quoted extensively from an 1836 speech in which a Benthamite reformer denounced the common law as purely "judge-made." 62 Like Bentham, moreover, Justice Scalia suggested that even the law made by courts in the past does little to prevent current courts from making new law. While Justice Scalia portrayed stare decisis as an essential feature of a common-law system, he also described common-law judges as masters of "the technique of … "distinguishing' cases" in the service of making what they regard as "the best rule of law for the case at hand." 63 In his view, common-law judges have "the mind-set that asks, "What is the most desirable resolution of this case, and how can any impediments to the achievement of that result be evaded?'" 64

II. The Implications of the Idea that All Common-Law Decisionmaking Entails Robust Lawmaking Power

Appreciating the different senses in which judges might be said to "make" common-law rules is not simply an academic exercise. In combination with one's views of the separation of powers, where one falls on the spectrum described in Part I can affect one's conclusions about the conditions under which common-law decisionmaking is legitimate.

Suppose that with respect to a particular legal question, one accepts the first view of the common law described in Part I: One thinks that the courts' project is to distill a rule of decision from real-world customs and other external sources. If those external sources of law are "in force" (in the sense of informing the legal rights and duties of the parties to particular transactions) even before judges encounter them, and if they [\*19] are sufficiently determinate to operate like other kinds of law, one might well conclude that common-law decisionmaking needs no special justification. On this way of thinking, a simple grant of jurisdiction can be warrant enough for courts to seek to identify rules of decision supplied by the common law. After all, whenever a court has jurisdiction over a case, the court is presumably supposed to decide the case according to the applicable rules of decision. In the Anglo-American tradition, moreover, that obligation does not depend on whether the applicable rules of decision come from written law (like a statute) or unwritten law (like principles established by social practices). Thus, in cases where the applicable rules of decision come from real-world customs, courts might have not only the power but the duty to investigate those customs and to try to identify the rules of decision that they support.

Someone who accepts the second view of the common law described in Part I - someone who doubts that the common law ever had external sources, but who believes that common-law precedents are internal sources of law for the courts - might reach much the same conclusion. To be sure, such a person might have doubted the legitimacy of common-law decisionmaking in its early days, because "the field of judicial discretion" would have been "almost boundless at first." 65 But as precedents accumulated, they might steadily provide sources of law to future courts, and they might also shape people's expectations in the real world. In both of these respects, judicial precedents might operate in much the same way as real-world customs. Nowadays, then, someone who accepts the second view of the common law could offer much the same justification for its continued applicability as someone who accepts the first view. 66

That is not surprising, for these two views share some important features. If the common law has either external or internal sources that courts have a duty to respect, common-law rules can be thought of as [\*20] existing in at least semi-determinate form before current judges crystallize them in particular cases. Even though the judges are transforming semi-determinate sources of law into fully formulated rules, and even though the judges can therefore be said to be "making" or developing new law, one might think that the judges are doing exactly what they must always do in cases over which they have jurisdiction: They are attempting to determine the rights and duties of the parties according to the applicable rules of decision. If doing so sometimes requires the judges to resolve lingering indeterminacies about the content of those rules, the judges are still adjudicating rather than legislating.

That account, however, will ring false to people who hold the third view described in Part I - people who agree with Jeremy Bentham that the common law has neither external sources nor strong internal sources, and that each new set of common-law judges therefore has freewheeling discretion to make law in the guise of applying it. If that is one's image of all common-law decisionmaking, one might well conclude that courts need more than a simple grant of jurisdiction before they can properly participate in "making" the common law. Unless a court can point to some special delegation of lawmaking power, perhaps the court should confine itself to interpreting and applying laws made by others, and perhaps the court therefore should not purport to articulate rules of common law.

At least as far as federal courts are concerned, Justice Scalia and others have taken positions of this sort. This Part discusses both the premises and the implications of those positions.

A. Federal Common Law as "Delegated Lawmaking"

Federal courts are happy to apply the common law of a particular state (as the highest court of that state would declare it) in cases that lie within the reach of that state's law. But on topics that the Constitution or other aspects of federal law put beyond the states' lawmaking powers, some modern federal judges suggest that courts need special authorization in order to articulate any substantive rules of decision that cannot be traced to a written federal enactment. In Justice Scalia's words, a court that articulated this sort of federal common law would be exercising "substantive lawmaking power," and federal courts enjoy such power only to the extent that something in written federal law [\*21] delegates it to them. 67 A mere grant of jurisdiction, moreover, typically does not confer such lawmaking power. 68

People who hold these views often attribute them to Erie Railroad Co. v. Tompkins. 69 At first glance, the attribution is puzzling. Rather than considering questions that lie beyond the states' lawmaking powers, Erie addressed the relationship between state and federal courts on questions as to which the states do have lawmaking authority. Erie's holding, moreover, can plausibly be understood to have rested on two key propositions: (1) On matters that lie within the reach of the states' lawmaking powers, the unwritten law in force in each state is best regarded as being part of "the law of that State," 70 and (2) in our system of federalism, federal judges should defer to each state's highest court about the content of all aspects of that state's law. 71 These propositions do not tell federal courts how to behave in realms that lie beyond the reach of state law.

Still, Erie can be read to have broader ramifications. Although Justice Brandeis's rhetoric was noncommittal about the sources of the common law, 72 many commentators take his logic to reflect "the recognition that courts "make' law when they engage in common law [\*22] decisionmaking." 73 The more robust one's sense of the relevant "lawmaking," the more likely one is to characterize Erie's holding in these terms: Rather than speaking of deference to the state courts' views about the content of state law, one will speak of the state courts as themselves making laws that federal courts are obliged to follow. Indeed, from the perspective of federal judges, acting as if state courts have very robust lawmaking authority may be the simplest way of conforming to Erie and its progeny. On substantive matters that come within the reach of the states' lawmaking powers, federal courts will not run afoul of Erie if they think of each state's judiciary as "making" the state's common law in much the same sense that the state legislature makes the state's statutes.

For federal judges who are used to acting as if state courts have quasi-legislative power, it may seem but a small step to the proposition that state courts do have quasi-legislative power. Conversely, the fact that federal courts must accept the substantive laws formulated by state courts, rather than being able to formulate laws of their own, might seem to imply that federal courts lack this sort of power. To be sure, in areas where the federal government shares lawmaking authority with the states, Congress can certainly enact written federal laws that will take precedence over any contrary rules of state law (whether written or unwritten). But if Congress has not acted, Erie tells federal courts to apply state law as articulated by the highest court of the relevant state. Erie might therefore seem to carry important lessons not only about federalism but also about the allocation of lawmaking authority within the federal government. Specifically, various scholars have associated Erie with the idea that "principles related to the separation of powers … limit … the authority of federal courts to engage in lawmaking on their own (unauthorized by Congress)." 74

[\*23] There is little question that certain kinds of "lawmaking" are indeed off limits to federal courts. After all, Article I of the Constitution vests the federal government's "legislative Powers" in Congress, not the federal courts. 75 Federal courts therefore lack comprehensive authority to create new rules of decision out of whole cloth, in the way that a legislature might. If that is one's image of common-law decisionmaking, one might conclude that federal courts have no inherent authority to draw rules of decision from the common law. What is more, one might take Erie to support that conclusion. On this way of thinking, one reason why Justice Brandeis refused to treat federal courts as equal partners with state courts in articulating common-law rules on topics that lie within the concurrent legislative powers of the federal government and the states is that separation-of-powers principles ordinarily keep federal courts from participating in the sort of "lawmaking" that common-law decisionmaking entails.

In the late 1970s or early 1980s, some Justices began invoking Erie in just this way. 76 Thus, when Justice Rehnquist proclaimed that "federal courts … are not general common-law courts and do not possess a general power to develop and apply their own rules of decision," he cited Erie. 77 In his view, Erie recognized that "the enactment of a federal rule" is usually a matter for Congress rather than the federal judiciary, and hence that "a federal court could not generally apply a federal rule of decision … in the absence of an applicable Act of Congress." 78

For people who think of the common law in these terms, Erie potentially matters even in realms that lie beyond the reach of state law and that therefore do not implicate Erie's specific holding. 79 Justice [\*24] Scalia has explained that after Erie, "federal common law [is] self-consciously "made' rather than "discovered[]' by judges," and so "federal courts must possess some federal-common-law-making authority before undertaking to craft it." 80 According to Justice Scalia, moreover, Erie establishes that neither the typical jurisdictional statute nor the general language of Article III confers such authority. 81 For a number of federal judges, the upshot seems to be that unless some other written federal law gives the federal courts lawmaking authority in a specific area, courts cannot legitimately articulate any federal rules of decision as a matter of unwritten law, even on questions that the common law or equity jurisprudence has traditionally been understood to address. 82

#### Revitalizing non-statutory common law as binding spurs climate mitigation---extinction

Mark P. Nevitt 19 & Robert V. Percival, Mark P. Nevitt is the George Sharswood Fellow at the University of Pennsylvania Law School and a former active duty Navy Judge Advocate General (JAG) officer who served in the rank of commander; Robert V. Percival is the Robert F. Stanton Professor of Law & Director of the Environmental Law Program, University of Maryland Francis King Carey School of Law, “Could Official Climate Denial Revive the Common Law as a Regulatory Backstop?,” Washington University Law Review, Vol. 96, No. 3, pp 441-494

“Global warming may be a ‘crisis,’ even ‘the most pressing environmental problem of our time.’ Indeed, it may ultimately affect nearly everyone on the planet in some potentially adverse way, and it may be that governments have done too little to address it. It is not a problem, however, that has escaped the attention of policymakers in the Executive and Legislative Branches of our Government, who continue to consider regulatory, legislative, and treaty-based means of addressing global climate change.”

— Chief Justice John Roberts, dissenting in Massachusetts v. EPA (2007)1

“The concept of global warming was created by and for the Chinese in order to make U.S. manufacturing non-competitive.”

— Donald J. Trump, Nov. 6, 20122

INTRODUCTION

Prior to the advent of comprehensive regulatory programs to protect the environment, the common law served as the primary vehicle for redressing environmental harm. More than a century ago, states used the common law of interstate nuisance to seek redress for the most serious transboundary pollution problems.3 Exercising its original jurisdiction over disputes between states, the U.S. Supreme Court issued injunctions limiting smelter emissions4 and requiring cities to build sewage treatment plants5 and garbage incinerators.6

Today the common law has been eclipsed by the enactment of federal legislation requiring agencies to regulate sources of pollution. These statutes have been interpreted broadly to give agencies great power to respond to emerging problems. For example, in Massachusetts v. EPA the U.S. Supreme Court held that the Clean Air Act (CAA) gives the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) the authority to regulate greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions if they “endanger public health or welfare”7 by contributing to global warming and climate change.8 The Court rejected not only the claim that EPA lacked such authority, but also the agency’s other rationales for refusing to take action. 9 Following the ruling, EPA had to decide “whether sufficient information exist[ed] to make an endangerment finding.”10 It made the endangerment finding two years later.11

In a series of cases beginning in the 1970s, the Court has held that the comprehensive regulatory programs erected by the Clean Water Act (CWA) and the CAA displace federal common law nuisance claims.12 When states sought to use public nuisance law to address the threats posed by climate change, industry groups urged the Court to bar such actions on constitutional grounds. 13 Instead, in June 2011 the Court held in American Electric Power Co., Inc. v. Connecticut (AEP) that the CAA displaced federal common law nuisance claims in the context of regulating GHG emissions. At the time of the ruling, the Obama Administration EPA was moving aggressively to regulate GHG emissions. But, writing for a unanimous Court, Justice Ginsburg warned that a decision by the EPA not to regulate greenhouse gas emissions would invite litigation and would be subject to judicial review.14

With the election of President Trump, federal environmental policy has sharply shifted. The President has announced his intent to withdraw the U.S. from the Paris Agreement that every other country in the world has accepted as a global response to climate change.15 EPA is moving aggressively to repeal the Obama Administration’s Clean Power Plan, 16 roll back Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards, and attempt to preempt state programs to reduce GHG emissions. 17 Many Trump supporters want EPA to reverse its finding that GHG emissions endanger public health and welfare by contributing to climate change.18

If the Trump EPA reverses the 2009 endangerment finding, this would foreclose the EPA’s ability to use the CAA to regulate GHG emissions. This Article considers whether such an action unwittingly could revive the federal common law of nuisance as a regulatory backstop. While the Supreme Court ruled in AEP that the CAA displaces any federal common law right to seek abatement of carbon-dioxide emissions from fossil fuelfired power plants, this was predicated on EPA actually making a reasoned and informed judgment of GHG emission dangers—not jettisoning agency expertise in favor of politics.19 This litigation, particularly if brought by states as quasi-sovereigns against EPA, could serve as a powerful prod to force federal action on climate change. After all, states have the “last word as to whether [their] mountains shall be stripped of their forests and [their] inhabitants shall breathe pure air.”20

In light of the Trump EPA’s current stance on environmental regulations, the Court’s decision in AEP, and other nuisance cases decided by federal appellate courts, 21 this is a propitious time to reconsider the use of public nuisance law to redress environmental problems. This Article focuses on what we call “the common law of interstate nuisance”—a body of law developed when states, acting in a parens patriae capacity, sought to protect their citizens from environmental harm originating in other states through public nuisance actions under either federal or state common law.22

## Case

### Advantage 1

#### Antitrust destroys AI innovation---that gives China AI dominance.

Jonathan Vanian 20, Writer for Fortune Magazine, “How antitrust investigations impact U.S. A.I. supremacy,” Fortune, 08-04-2020, https://fortune.com/2020/08/04/how-antitrust-investigations-impact-u-s-a-i-supremacy/

Antitrust inquiries into U.S. tech giants could upend the development of artificial intelligence.

Last week, lawmakers interrogated the CEOs of Apple, Alphabet, Amazon, and Facebook about whether their companies have become too powerful. House members drilled in on Big Tech's acquisitions (they allegedly stifle innovation) and their collection of huge amounts of data (it gives the companies a huge advantage over rivals in developing A.I. and improving their products).

But even if lawmakers agree Big Tech is too big, they are in a quandary about what to do about it. Should they break the companies up? Fine them? Do nothing?

As antitrust expert Dakota Foster recently explained in a paper for Georgetown University's Center for Security and Emerging Technology, what Congress decides could be critical to the federal government. Research and technology from major tech companies both directly and indirectly benefits the Pentagon. Tech giants often open source their A.I. research, which means that the federal government can use the findings for free. The companies also sell cloud computing and A.I. services to government agencies.

By taking action, lawmakers risk hurting the ability of tech companies to develop A.I., Foster warned Fortune. They may end up cutting spending into A.I. research, and thereby achieve fewer technological breakthroughs.

In the past, the government would have been easily able to dump Big Tech in favor of contractors like Lockheed Martin and Raytheon, Foster explained. But in recent years, the tech giants have leapfrogged the defense industry's A.I. skills, she said.

Members from both political parties are concerned that slowing progress by Big Tech in A.I. may benefit China. That country is investing heavily in A.I., with the goal of becoming the world’s leader 2030.

Whatever the case, the federal government shifting to using smaller U.S. tech companies as an alternative to Big Tech isn't particularly realistic. The data used by the upstarts for A.I. projects isn't as complete as what the tech giants have. Furthermore, the small fry lack the money to pay for the tremendous amount of computing power required for A.I. projects. At the same time, they face a tougher time attracting the necessary talent, she explained.

Still, smaller businesses could get some lift if Big Tech had its wings clipped. As Foster said, "there's definitely an argument to be made" that the mere presence of Big Tech is curtailing innovation by smaller companies.

"If Facebook was founded today would it become the Facebook we now know?" Foster asked. "Some people say it’s just not possible given the [tech giants'] presence."

#### The plan’s new scope trades-off with FTC’s ongoing outreach to globally coordinate investigations---that crushes cooperative controls of AI and innovation broadly

Matthew Boswell 19, Commissioner of Competition of the Competition Bureau Canada; Laureen Kapin, Practiced Consumer Protection Law with the U.S. Federal Trade Commission, Molly Askin, Counsel for International Antitrust at the U.S. Federal Trade Commission’s Office of International Affairs, Fiona Schaeffer, Antitrust Partner at Milbank LLP, Maria Coppola, Counsel for International Antitrust at the U.S. Federal Trade Commission, Marcus Bezzi, Executive General Manager at the Australian Competition and Consumer Commission (ACCC), “FTC Hearing #11: The FTC’s Role in a Changing World,” 3/26/19, https://www.ftc.gov/news-events/events-calendar/ftc-hearing-11-competition-consumer-protection-21st-century

MR. BOSWELL: Oh, okay. Well, I'll go back to what has been a common theme, which is supporting the ongoing personal relationships between people around the world. You know, people move in and out of jobs. You have to keep those relationships, and it can be expensive. And it can be to certain outside parties hard to justify to expend those resources on having people attend, for example, ICN workshops so that they know people around the world, they're sharing best practices, we’re not reinventing the wheel. Somebody has come up with a good way to do something, we should have those relationships where we can learn it, but it costs money to invest and to always invest in relationships.

MS. KAPIN: Well, I want to thank everyone. I think we heard a recognition that we should recognize the value of infrastructure, some common protocols and definitions and best practices can also help us overcome the challenges for international cooperation. But first and foremost, what I heard echoed was the recognition that this human glue really is the stuff that lets us stick together and accomplish our common goals. So, Molly?

MS. ASKIN: I think one thing I've also heard is the importance of the networks that we have seen evolve over, if we’re looking at the past 25 years, either be founded in the first instance or have changed in their mission to really be able to be nimble enough to address some of these important issues and give agencies a forum for interaction that can facilitate both the tools and the relationships. So thank you all very much for participating. And we are now going to go into a 15- minute break and return for the next panel at 11:30. Thank you.

MS. KAPIN: Thank you.

CONSUMER PROTECTION AND PRIVACY ENFORCEMENT COOPERATION

MS. FEUER: Okay, it’s about one minute early, but we’d like to get started. I’m Stacy Feuer. I’m the Assistant Director for International Consumer Protection and Privacy here at the FTC’s Office of International Affairs. This entire morning we’ve heard about a number of very interesting enforcement developments and challenges all over the world. Now we’re going to take a deeper dive into enforcement cooperation in the area of consumer protection and privacy. One of the most interesting aspects of our work here at the FTC on international consumer protection and privacy matters is the very wide range of issues we cooperate on, everything from telemarketing scams to online subscription traps to cross-border data transfer mechanisms, and to other privacy law violations. Equally remarkable to me is the incredibly wide range of authorities that we cooperate. So, for example, we cooperate with not only consumer protection agencies but data protection authorities, criminal regulators, and sometimes telecommunications and financial regulators. Our panelists that we have here today represent these different strands of our enforcement cooperation activities. They will highlight the issues involved in some of these different cooperation strands, and I will introduce them individually as we move through this panel. I do want to remind you at the outset that we have comment cards available, and please do send up questions. We’ll try and be a little interactive and ask some of your questions during the panel and not just wait until the end. So please ask away. So we’ve segmented our panelists into mini- groups so as to better draw out some of the cooperation strands. I’ll turn first to James Dipple- Johnstone who is the Deputy Commissioner at the UK’s Information Commissioner’s Office and ask him, and then followed by Deputy Assistant Secretary Jim Sullivan from the Department of Commerce’s International Trade Administration for their thoughts about cooperation and particularly focusing on the privacy sphere. We are so pleased that you are both here. So, Commissioner Dipple-Johnstone, can you begin?

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Yes, and thank you, Stacy, and thank you to FTC colleagues for your invite and the opportunity to speak with you today. I’m looking forward to our discussion of these important issues, and it was interesting to hear the different perspectives from the previous panel. A little bit about the Information Commissioner’s Office first, given there’s a range of different types of organizations on the panel, in case it helps with my comments later on. With the implementation of the GDPR, which has already been referenced this morning, I’m pleased to hear, and the new equivalent legislation in the UK, the ICO has been through a significant growth process over the past 12 to 18 months. We’ve taken on new powers, and as has been mentioned this morning, as many other organizations, we’ve been through a capability growth over the past few months, which has begun to see us work more internationally and deal with more complex and challenging caseload. This reflects in part the importance the UK Government places on data protection and consumer protection, but also the seriousness of some of the recent scandals we’ve seen, for example, that involving Cambridge Analytica recently. In granting powers, the UK Parliament has gone further than many other EU legislatures to ensure that the ICO has both the funding through its funding regime to give us the financial resources, but also the new powers to do its work in the digital age. There was significant national debate in the UK about these new powers, many of which are actually quite intrusive and are more common in law enforcement agencies than in a traditional data protection authority and the balances in checks and balances being put in place to go with those powers through the UK’s Information Rights Tribunal who oversee our work and our individual case judgments. I couldn’t come here and talk to you without recognizing there’s quite a lot of difference within the ICO as well. As well as our data protection remit, we have a remit for access to information. So one part of the office is working very hard around keeping privacy concerns and how data can be safeguarded and secured and only disclosed where appropriate; another side of the office is hearing appeals about how to make public information more widely available. We have around 700 officers and new powers to seize equipment, search premises, examine algorithms in situ for bias to make sure that they are working effectively, and audit company systems and processes. We also have powers which were touched upon this morning as well, around the power to compel provision of information from wherever and whomever holds it, which is quite a wide remit for an office of our type. We deal with around 50,000 citizen complaints each year and undertake around 3,500 investigations across different parts of our office. And we cover both the commercial sector, but also the public and law enforcement sector. In many ways, as colleagues are, we're learning as we go with these powers and these new resources. And one of those key areas of learning has been that which has been touched upon this morning. And that’s the importance of working collaboratively with others internationally. Many of the most significant files on my desk -- and I have responsibility for the enforcement and investigation arms of the office -- in the last 12 months, we’ve engaged with 50 international colleagues on various different files. And most of the major cases we have on at the moment are involving international colleagues, either as joint investigations, seconding staff to and from other offices, or sharing information and intelligence about the work we're doing. As our citizens become more aware and concerned about the use of data and as the digital economy becomes the economy, people expect this kind of international engagement. And with this in mind, we value hugely the UK's positive relationship with its colleagues on this side of the Atlantic, the FTC, but also our colleagues in Canada who have been speaking this morning. We value the different networks we're involved in. There have been mention of some of those networks already, but in particularly GPEN, the Global Privacy Enforcement Network, but also those networks which involve looking at unsolicited communications, which continues to be a significant part of my office's work. We learn a huge amount from these relationships, as well as the sort of human glue that was described this morning, just the opportunity to discuss tactics, approaches, to understand how each other work is a real positive that comes out of that work and allows us to do our jobs more effectively. To support this, we have a number of legal gateways to share and receive information. These are backed by strict protections within UK domestic law, which bite both collectively on the organization but also the individual officials within that. They are backed by criminal sanctions, and nothing focuses the mind like those. In the course of our investigation, we could use one or any of MOUs, MLATs, and we’ve heard about the challenges with the time scales that MLATs take. Membership arrangements, such as GPEN or the International Conference of Data and Privacy Commissioner arrangements or, indeed, Convention 108. This very much depends on the exchange of information, what's involved, who it’s going to, who’s asked for it, and what we need to do our work. Of particular note are the DPA 2018, which is the Data Protection Act in the UK. That contains formal information gateways. That allows us to share information for law enforcement purposes or for regulatory purposes where there’s an overlap and there’s a public interest. Of relevance to the FTC in particular is Schedule 2 of the DPA. That sets out the conditions for public interest and information- sharing within the UK law. And I understand the UK has been working through these for a number of years from the 1998 act and now into the 2019 act and working with colleagues at the FTC through the SAFE WEB Act provisions and the criteria for sharing information there with foreign enforcers. And that's been a huge positive. Just in the short time I've been with the Office over the last two years, there have been a number of cases that we've been working on, on sharing information and understanding. And, of course, this goes alongside our EU work. We mustn’t forget that. We are a competent authority under the GDPR, the EU provisions for the one-stop-shop mechanism. And around a fifth of those cases in the mechanism over the past year have involved the UK as either a lead supervisory authority or a concerned supervisory authority. Many of the big issues we are grappling with is privacy authorities, algorithmic transparency, adtech, microtargeting and profiling of citizens, part of the bread and butter of those cases we're working through. And our ability to work with international colleagues, in particular the FTC, has been really helpful in us discharging our role, notably on the Ashley Madison file, but also on other confidential matters more recently, where we found the insight afforded by our bilateral arrangements with the FTC help us fill in the missing pieces. They help us make better investigations. We know that the FTC has helped us by using its SAFE WEB powers to obtain information for us, in particular with some of the -- I think you call them robocalls here, but unsolicited communications in the UK, and that information has been hugely beneficial in protecting UK citizens. And we hope the reciprocal has been helpful to the FTC and colleagues here. And I’m mindful of time, but in closing, I'd just like to say we're very keen in the ICO to continue to use these positive engagements and continue to build them, particularly as you come to look at the renewal of the SAFE WEB Act. Thank you. MS. FEUER: Thank you very much. Deputy Assistant Secretary Sullivan, how does the issue of privacy enforcement cooperation come within your purview at the Department of Commerce?

MR. SULLIVAN: So in my role, I'm in the International Trade Administration, which is one of the agencies at the Commerce Department, and one of the offices that I oversee is responsible -- they are the US Government Administrator for and our interagency lead on different privacy frameworks -- international privacy frameworks, including both privacy shield frameworks, the EU and US Privacy Shield and the Swiss-US Privacy Shield. We're also very actively engaged in promoting the expansion of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation and Cross-Border Privacy Rule system, APEC CBPR as it’s called. And we work extremely closely with the FTC on those issues around the world as we see a growing number of countries grappling with privacy while trying to balance innovation at the same time, which as everyone here knows, I'm sure it's not always the easiest formula. So that's a quick summary of what we do at Commerce. I'll leave it at that for now.

MS. FEUER: Great, great. Well, it's interesting to hear you both speak about the importance of enforcement cooperation in the privacy area, James, for your agency on many, many individual files and Jim as the sort of overarching systemic systems for cross-border transfers. So I want to follow up with a few questions. So, James, sort of the elephant in the room, we've heard a lot this morning in the first panel about privacy as a "barrier" to regulatory enforcement cooperation. And I’m wondering what your view is of that statement or assertion and what kinds of tools do agencies need to cooperate effectively given some of these limitations and, of course, in privacy enforcement investigations?

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Yes, yes. And it's not something we've -- you know, which is uncommon to us. We get that call often. I mean, we want to be clear, we're not the “ministry of no.” But, actually, what’s really important in this space is to do that groundwork and that thinking about what information do you need, how is it going to be transmitted, how is it going to be secured, what purpose is it going to be used for. And we often find there are many avenues and routes to be able to share information. We also get the -- interesting when we ask for information, we sometimes get from colleagues internationally, we can't because of privacy. And, oh, that's an interesting concept. How do we work through that? We've often found there is a way through. Sometimes where these arrangements are being agreed internationally and where, for example, it was mentioned this morning about the challenge with the advent of the GDPR, IOSCO working with colleagues at the EDPB and needing to sort of tease through that, it can sometimes be tough to be the first going through that process, but once those processes are in place, people understand how they work, those relationships are built, that common understanding is built. Things do flow a lot quicker and a lot easier in subsequent cases. And so very much it’s that sort of keep talking, keep engaging. And, importantly, I've recently come back from an international conference working group, where one of the key challenges has been that with the scale and pace of change internationally with enforcement agencies and enforcement bodies, some of which, again, was referenced this morning, just keeping pace of who can do what where and with what data is really important. So if those international networks can really help their members understanding where the right levers are and how their respective national laws work, that can only be a good thing.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. Well, Secretary Sullivan, in your experience, how important has the issue of enforcement cooperation been with the foreign governments and stakeholders that you have negotiated these international data transfer mechanisms with, and how important are the powers that the FTC has in those discussions?

MR. SULLIVAN: So, again, I'm going to refer to the three frameworks that I cited just a moment ago. And both the enforcement power and the international cooperation authority granted to the FTC under the SAFE WEB Act are both integral to the functioning of those frameworks, I think. Without them, they would lack legitimacy or credibility. You have to have some teeth behind these frameworks so that folks know that companies are going to be held accountable for the pledges and the promises and commitments they're going to make to comply with the principles or the practices that they have pledged to comply with in accordance with these frameworks. I don't know how that would be possible without what we just cited to, both the powers to enforce but also to coordinate with other enforcement agencies cross-border.

MS. FEUER: Thanks. As a follow-up, I asked you about how important this is for foreign governments, but I'm wondering what you hear from your industry stakeholders here in the US.

MR. SULLIVAN: I don't want to generalize. We certainly hear a lot. I think there's a strong recognition among most of the stakeholders that we engage with, sort of along the lines of what I just said. I mean, first of all, what would be the incentive to comply with something that really didn't have any teeth? I think they know increasingly how important it is to align their practices with these frameworks, given a lot of the developments. We’ve seen recently, and it's I think -- they generally -- and I am generalizing -- they do want to see strong frameworks that are actually enforceable and, they do want to see, as I think James just alluded to, greater collaboration because that’s going to lead to more consistent best practices or principles and approaches to a lot of these issues as opposed to just this fragmented, diverse, ad hoc approach to a lot of these same dilemmas that we're all facing.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. I want to ask my fellow panelists, while we're talking about privacy, whether there was anything that they want to add in sort of response to what Commissioner Dibble-Johnstone and Secretary Sullivan were talking about. So does anyone want to -- it looks like Marie-Paule wants to hop in.

MS. BENASSI: Yes. What I would like to say is that we should make a difference between issues related to privacy and to the confidentiality of investigations. And very often, indeed, it is quite a common answer to refuse cooperation, to say, oh, no, we cannot share information because of problems of privacy. But in the European Union, first of all, I think we have solved this, and I think that our GDPR itself helps a lot to clarify that authorities can exchange information, including information which contains personal data. And so this enables, in principle, very seamless type of cooperation in the European Union, because for law enforcement purposes, we can exchange this information between authorities in one member state or in other member states. And this -- I think in this way, the GDPR is an enabler. And when we look into the implementation of the GDPR for international cooperation, we should also look at it in the same way as an abler and enabler, because if it is respected; then exchange of information for law enforcement purposes should be facilitated. And, for example, we are also doing adequacy decisions, for example, with some other countries in order to also create the seamless facilities, including for law enforcement purposes.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. Anyone else? Kurt.

MR. GRESENZ: So I agree with Marie-Paule's sentiments there. You know, the issue that we encountered at the SEC as a civil agency with administrative investigatory powers, while the Department of Justice was out in front with an umbrella agreement to facilitate cooperation in the criminal sphere under the public interest mechanism, which is something that James talked about at the beginning, it was less clear how that applies in the civil or administrative context. So the step that IOSCO took to negotiate what is the first administrative arrangement under the GDPR will enable the second step of what Marie-Paule talked about, which are transfers of personal data from the EU to jurisdictions and authorities outside the EU. And now with that process, as Jean-François in the earlier panel talked about, having been blessed by the European Data Protection Privacy Board, we in the security space are looking forward to the data protection authorities in the 28, possibly 27, EU members states adopting that and approving that and so it can be the standard with the securities authorities who are IOSCO members.

MS. FEUER: Thanks. So I want to shift us now from what has been a privacy-heavy conversation to more of a focus on consumer protection. Our second pair of panelists represent two of the different strands of the kind of consumer protection enforcement cooperation we do here. So to hear about the EU enforcement model, we'll have Marie-Paule Benassi from the European Commission’s DG Justice, and to hear about our cross-border work with our Canadian criminal counterparts, we'll hear from Jeff Thompson, Acting Superintendent in Charge of the RCMP's Canadian Anti- Fraud Centre. So, Marie-Paule, can you start us off?

MS. BENASSI: So thank you, Stacey and thank you for the FTC to invite me. So, first of all, I would like to remind you that the European Union is currently counting 28 member states, and it's very well known for being something very complicated, and I would like to try to break that myth. But unfortunately, I think, or fortunately for a better understanding of the complexity of the Union, I think that Brexit and the interest which this is bringing in the headlines is also maybe shedding some light on why it is so complicated. So we have an integration of EU-level and national laws, a model, and this is where I think it’s simple. It's based on a very simple principle. We have one EU law in a certain domain, and it tries to harmonize national laws using key high-level principles. What is not harmonized is how this law is implemented. So it is -- except in a very few cases, it is implemented nationally. It is enforced nationally, and we try to do this in a way which preserves the diversity of the enforcement model in the member states. And so in the area of consumer protection, it is how it works. And the European Commission for which I'm working has no direct enforcement power. It is the member states which have the enforcement powers. So when I speak of enforcement, it means enforcement of the law towards businesses and other possible subjects because the European Commission is in charge of checking that the member states are enforcing the laws correctly, but we are not directly involved to stamp out illegal practices. In the area of consumer protection, so we have a strong role. And this role has been strengthened in the recent past. What is our role? Our role is to facilitate the cooperation of the member states because this is a EU, I would say, a harmonized law, and we want it to be implemented in a consistent manner in all the member states. And to do this, the only solution is cooperation. So we have a long tradition of cooperation inside the European Union and now we are doing it via a law which is called the Consumer Protection Cooperation Regulation. This law is establishing the framework for cooperation. So we start by first saying even if the member states are very different, they should have similar type of powers, so investigative powers. For example, the power for mystery shopping, the power to request information on financial flows, the power to obscure illegal content online. Another thing, also, is the framework for cooperation. So we have two types of cooperation now in our new legislation. One is what we call the bilateral cooperation, the more traditional cooperation, where one member state asks -- requests enforcement cooperation from another member state. But now we have this new system which is E- level coordination. And there, the European Commission has a new role because we have a role of market surveillance. And from this role, we can ask the member states to check some practices that we think are likely to be illegal. And if the member states find that there is sufficient evidence to start an investigation, then the Commission is coordinating this investigation. We also have a new power in terms of intelligence I mentioned. And we are also doing coordination of priorities. So, in fact, the role which we have is quite strong. And the new model, which we are going to implement from January next year, in fact, is already functioning, maybe in a lighter way. And it's working. So we have in the past done some coordinated actions, which are concerning. For example, illegal practices by big companies operating at the level of the European Union. Today, we are publishing a press release on an action done in the field of car rental, for example. So with the authorities, we have been working together with the authorities to find -- to analyze bad practices of the five leaders of this sector, and we wrote a common position asking these companies to change their practices. They made commitments, and now we have been monitoring the commitments and concluding that finally these companies are implementing these commitments. This is a negotiated procedure, so this is another element I would like to stress. These EU-level actions are not based on strong enforcement means because they don't exist at the European level. They are based on a coordinated approach and the cooperation with the traders. If the traders refuse to cooperate, do not cooperate sufficiently, or do not follow their commitments, then what is going to happen is coordinated enforcement action by the member states. And we have just added something very recently which is a system of fining that can be applied for this kind of EU-level infringement and coordination of the fines. And this is a big -- it's not yet completely finalized, but it's going to be a big step forward because in certain member states, they don't even have a fining system for consumer offenses. So we are building the system. So for the future, what is -- what can we do? We can do international agreements. So there is a possibility on the basis of this framework to agree international cooperation agreements with certain countries. And the framework which I've described can be applied also with the said countries to the extent possible, of course, depending on the type of base laws that exist in the member states. And what I could say is that we would like to start discussing on the basis of this new regulation with the FTC, if we can progress such an agreement. Why an agreement would be necessary? Because it's important that the formal part is there. Because as we heard from various speakers, the formal part is an enabler also for an efficient cooperation. This system, however, has several challenges. One of the challenges, as I said, it’s based on negotiation with traders. So it doesn't work when there is fraud, fraudulent operators. This is really required to develop additional cooperation, for example, with police forces because in most of our EU member states, they don't have this possibility of going against fraudulent operators. They need the cooperation of police, so this is an area where we need to develop in the future. And then relation with competition, relation with data protection, these are the future avenues for our cooperation. Thank you.

MS. FEUER: Thank you very much, Marie- Paule. And that was the perfect segue to Jeff Thompson, who is from the RCMP's Canadian Anti-Fraud Centre. And, Jeff, maybe you can sort of talk us through a little bit about what some of the tools and challenges you face and we face in cooperating on US- Canada cross-border fraud matters.

MR. THOMPSON: Sure. Thank you, Stacy. It's a pleasure to be here today to talk about international cooperation and consumer protection. Since the start of my career, I've learned that cross- border fraud was an evolving criminal market that cannot be tackled by any one country alone and even more so today. Consumer Sentinel reporting shows more than 1.4 million reports were received in 2018, up from 433,000 in 2005. Similarly, the Canadian Anti- Fraud Centre data shows annual losses to fraud continues to increase, reaching 119 million in 2018, a 495 percent increase since 2005. So it's easy to say that mass marketing fraud and cross-border fraud continues to be a threat to the economic integrity of Canada and the US, furthermore, if you consider technology, voice-over- net protocols, social media, virtual currencies, money service businesses, and other key facilitators that continue to provide criminals and criminal organizations behind a scam opportunities to operate across multiple international jurisdictions. And as we heard this morning, while this is an evolving threat, there is good news. There are, indeed, existing strategies that do exist and tools that provide an effective approach to attack on this criminal market. In fact, as we heard this morning again, the history between Canada and the US is long. It dates back to 1997, when Former President Clinton and Prime Minister Chretien met at the first US Cross- Border Crime Forum. It was at this meeting that telemarketing fraud first got identified as a major Canada-US cross-border crime concern. And it also made a number of recommendations, including the establishment of a multiagency task force, the development of consumer reporting and information- sharing systems, enforcement actions, and better public education and prevention measures. Since then, both US and Canada cooperate to implement and refine a number of these strategies, and while all recommendations made are important, I'm going to focus my discussion on the existing multiagency task force, or in today's terms, strategic partnerships. This case and work that the partnerships have done showcase an effective enforcement approach. They highlight intelligence-led policing and integrated policing models, along with providing insight into some of the tools and approaches to consumer protection. So if we consider the cross- border fraud partnerships as an intelligence-led approach, what we see is a group of key stakeholders joining efforts to achieve a common enforcement objective, namely, reducing fraud. To give you a practical idea of this, I think back to some of my early meetings at the Toronto Strategic Partnership. I did not fully recognize or appreciate the significance of the discussions held around the table. Members from several different agencies and organizations discussed top reported scams, scam trends, top offenders, current investigations, and gaps and challenges in enforcement options. Oftentimes, this intelligence-led approach was started by members from the Federal Trade Commission or the Canadian Anti-Fraud Centre, bringing intelligence developed from their respective central databases, Consumer Sentinel and the Anti-Fraud Centre database. This dialogue helped identify the new and emerging scam trends and discussion around the key facilitators to the scams. It also helped to coordinate joint priority setting, identify lead agencies, investigative assistance, and actions required to complete the files, and in many cases helps with deconfliction amongst the agencies. Sharing information around the table was a key factor, and as long as there’s a willingness to share, there is a way to share. There is also a common trust and understanding amongst the partners to share information within the confines of law. Thus, the partnerships serve as an intelligence-led approach in as far as they create a platform to share and synthesize information from multiple perspectives. Turning now to consider the partnerships as an integrated policing approach, we begin to realize that criminals and criminal markets can be disrupted through civil, regulatory, or criminal investigations and that different agencies and different laws all play a role. If we dissect again the Toronto Partnership, we have a minimum of eight different organizations: the Federal Trade Commission, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the United States Postal Inspection Service, Toronto Police, the Ontario Provincial Police, the Ministry of Consumer and Government Services, the Competition Bureau of Canada, and the Ministry of Finance. The FTC alone has 70 different laws that it enforces. Who really knew that the Ministry of Consumer and Government Services enforces numerous consumer protection laws such as the Loan Brokers Act, which can be used to go after the advance-fee loan scammers? Or that, again, as we heard this morning, CASL legislation also has clauses that allow for foreign enforcement to request assistance from respective Canadian law enforcement partners? At the heart of an integrated policing model is a give-and-take approach. And in the US-Canada cross-border partnership context, this approach is formalized by MOUS. As recent as 2017, the Federal Trade Commission and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police formalized an MOU that identifies best efforts that participants can use to further the common interest of combating fraud. The language used highlights the foundation of information-sharing and cooperation. Participants shall share materials, provide assistance to obtain evidence, exchange and provide materials, coordinate enforcement, and meet at least once a year. So, again, if we take a practical view, the strategic partnership model against cross-border fraud uses intelligence-led and an integrated policing approach that allows investigators from Canada and the US to move beyond simply coming together to talk about cross-border fraud concerns to developing investigative plans that identify investigative steps and processes needed to gather that evidence. Each participant brings a range of tools that can be leveraged to ensure the effective cooperation. One such tool that we’ve heard plenty of today is the US SAFE WEB Act. From a Canadian-US perspective or from the Canadian perspective, I mean, it provides us an avenue to formally seek investigative assistance in the US from the FTC. It also formally acknowledges by name some of the regional partnerships that exist today. This act alone has assisted strategic partnerships in countless cases, at least 22 by my count since 2007, and as we’ve heard, a lot more. These cases have led to arrests -- civil arrest charges, civil forfeitures, and, most importantly, victim restitution, which in the Canadian context is often rare to see. This includes Operation Telephony, which involved more than 180 actions brought by the Federal Trade Commission, including actions in Canada and the US, and it also includes the Expense Management Case that we heard about in the last panel involving $2 million that was eventually turned over to the FTC for consumer redress. And while there's a history of success and continuing work and outcomes to look forward to, we know that the criminals adapt. Today's frauds typically involve solicitations coming from one country targeting consumers in another country and funds going to yet another one. Mass marketing fraud is truly a transnational crime. We know that in a number of cases, the criminals and criminal groups involved are deeply rooted in Canada and the US and that moreso today, the work being done by these partnerships exposes these international networks who are also providing each other an opportunity to leverage our international networks to tackle this problem collectively. And we’re already doing this to some extent. The International Mass Marketing Fraud Working Group is another example of how Canada and the US cooperation has extended beyond North America. As recently as March 7th, this group announced -- or the US Department of Justice announced the largest ever nationwide elder fraud sweep, and the International Mass Marketing Fraud Working Group played a role. At least eight different countries were engaged. At the same time, there are other challenges, such as the willingness of other countries to identify mass marketing fraud as a transnational threat, whereas in many cases fraud or financial crime is not a priority. And this even holds true today to some extent. The parties and law enforcement agencies are subject to change, and the ability of any one agency to solely lead a partnership can be impacted by this change. Albeit, there's still partnership models that work in which chairs to partnerships rotate and changing priorities are acknowledged. In May of 2018, the RMCP coordinated a national mass marketing fraud working group meeting whereby we acknowledged the changing nature of mass marketing fraud and sought to renew our efforts. We also sought input from key US stakeholders. The Federal Trade Commission and the United States Postal Inspection Service were at these meetings. And while work continues to renew this renewal, such as the emergence of a Pacific partnership to replace Project Emptor, there's still work to be done. So in concluding, there’s a long and successful history of Canada-US enforcement in consumer protection, and that demonstrates effective cooperation through integrated and intelligence-led approaches and that this continued cooperation is integral to combating this transnational crime today. Thank you.

MS. FEUER: Thank you very much, Jeff. So I think that we now have a couple of very interesting issues out on the table about consumer protection and enforcement cooperation, both the EU model of the CPC network and the FTC Canada model, which focuses on these seven strategic partnerships that exist in Canada. So I want to ask a few questions of our panelists, Marie-Paule and Jeff Thompson, and then I do want to turn back to Secretary Sullivan. But, first, Marie-Paule, I did want to ask you one thing. I know that the CPC network uses a technological tool to facilitate the cooperation among the 28 member agencies. I'm wondering your thoughts about how well that works and how it might work in a more multilateral context.

MS. BENASSI: Thank you, Stacy, for this. So, first of all, I think I would like to make two types of tools. One is the system which we use to network, and I would say this is based on technologies of collaborative websites. And we have been using them now since several years and we are quite confident that it is safe for exchanging information and including information on containing personal data, for example, on businesses or on witnesses, and also it can be adapted. But currently, the CPC system doesn't contain a lot of cases. So it's growing organically, I would say. And it's also very much used to exchange information, best practices, for example. In the future, we are building something which is going to be a case management system and it will contain several modules, including a module for our external [indiscernible]. So we are going to open this to various entities -- NGOs, entities. And so we are going to build doors, in fact, in such a way that the two systems can communicate, but without having [indiscernible] you know, for -- so that the stakeholders will only see their external areas. And I'm quite confident that we can build the same type of modules for international cooperation with our technology. But what I would like to say is that we are also developing technologies for online enforcement tools. And what we want is to create, for example, a system where we would have an internet lab that could be used by the various member states, and we are also building capacities of administration in the EU countries. We are developing training, and we think also that this kind of tools could benefit from pooling of expertise from various agencies, including in an international context.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. So I want to turn -- before I turn back to Jeff Thompson, I want to turn back to Secretary Sullivan and ask what are the tools that can be used to facilitate cooperation under the various cross-border mechanisms? And why are they important?

MR. SULLIVAN: So in terms of why they’re important, I mean, again, a lot of this is probably self-evident to those in this room, but the data explosion we've seen is only going to continue. And we now have these cross-border data flows that really do benefit stakeholders across our societies and our economies. So you’ve seen these cross-border data flows help enable consumers, for example, to access more and better services and products. They help our companies to increase the efficiency of operations and innovation, and they help nations in terms of their competitiveness and their ability to help create jobs and facilitate economic growth. So this is all great. The problem we're dealing with is that different counties now take very different approaches to how they regulate these data flows specifically on privacy. And so what I wanted to just touch on a bit was what we do, the Commerce Department, in conjunction and partnership with the FTC to deal with this issue, this dilemma. How do you continue to facilitate these cross-border data flows when you are dealing with countries that have all adopted varying approaches, legal regimes, or policy priorities. I touched on the three frameworks, and I just quickly wanted to go through some of the tools within those frameworks, if I could, which from our perspective are absolutely critical to digital trade because, again, right now, there is no single comprehensive binding multilateral approach governing these cross-border data flows. So you know, again, I'm repeating myself a bit but we have stakeholders that we meet with all the time coming in, telling us about this constantly shifting and evolving and rapidly accelerating policy landscape that they have to deal with. So in response to this challenge, one approach that we've taken, as I alluded to earlier, for example, is the APEC CBPR system. And it's basically a voluntary enforcement code of conduct based on internationally recognized data protection guidelines. It establishes principles for both governments and for businesses to follow to protect personal data and to allow the data flows between APEC economies. To join this system, an APEC economy has to designate a third party called an accountability agent. And that accountability agent is empowered to audit a company's privacy practices and take enforcement action as necessary in some instances, but if that accountability agent cannot do that, resolve a particular issue, an APEC economy, their domestic enforcement authority serves as a backstop for dispute resolution. And in the United States, the FTC is our designated regulator, obviously, and enforcement authority for the CBPR system. And they enforce the commitments that are made by the CBPR participating companies to comply with the principles that they have committed to comply with. I do want to note all CBPR participating economies also have to join the cross-border privacy enforcement arrangement, CPEA, to ensure cooperation and collaboration among their designated enforcement authorities. To date, if memory serves, I know the FTC has brought four enforcement actions against companies for making deceptive statements about their participation in CBPR, and it’s also used its authority under the SAFE WEB Act to enhance cooperation with other privacy and data protection regulators within APEC. So, again, as I noted at the outset, FTC enforcement and international cooperation are absolutely critical to the credibility, to the integrity, and the success of the CBPR system. There are currently eight economies in APEC of the 21 economies participating in the system: the US, Japan, Mexico, Canada, South Korea, Singapore, Australia, and Chinese Taipei. And the Philippines is currently working on joining the system as well. I want to underscore that if this system were to scale across APEC, the framework would help underpin over a trillion dollars in digital trade. So we regard that as a very big priority and, again, we cannot emphasize enough just how critical the FTC is to that framework. And it's also a similar dynamic with the EU. It's been, the FTC, extremely integral to the success of both privacy shield frameworks. We all know, and it’s been touched on, about a year ago, GDPR was put into effect in Europe. And like the predecessor directed before it, it imposes certain restrictions on the ability of companies to transfer certain data from Europe to other jurisdictions, so we have Privacy Shield. And, again, like CBPR, it's a voluntary enforceable mechanism that companies can use to promise certain protections for data transferred from Europe to the United States, and the FTC enforces those promises made by Privacy Shield-participating companies in its jurisdiction. Again, I talked about how big APEC was and how these data flows underpin trade there. The EU is actually the largest bilateral trade investment relationship with the US in the world. That, too, is valued at over a trillion dollars. And I know the Transatlantic economy accounts for about 46 percent of global GDP, about one-third of global goods trade, and the highest volume of cross-border data flows in the world. And the Privacy Shield program is absolutely key to underpinning this economic relationship. We have about 4,500 companies now participating in the program. They've all made these legally enforceable commitments to comply with the framework, and they range from startups and small businesses to Global 1000 and Fortune 500 companies across every sector, from manufacturing and services to agriculture and retail. And I do want to note that about 3,000 -- nearly 3,000 -- of those companies are actually SMEs, so it’s not just the big tech companies that we're talking about. So to help protect data against improper disclosure or misuse, the Commerce Department and the FTC do work together, and they move swiftly to ensure that participating businesses who join Privacy Shield and certify under Privacy Shield are complying with their obligations. And over the last two years, Commerce, for example, has implemented a buying arbitration mechanism and new processes to enhance compliance oversight and reduce false claims. And by the same token, the FTC has enforced companies’ Privacy Shield declarations and commitments by bringing several cases pursuant to Section 5 of the FTC Act, which prohibits unfair and deceptive acts. We also refer false claims participation in the program to the FTC, which have often resulted in FTC settlement agreements. And under those agreements, the FTC can obtain certain remedies such as remediation measures and compliance monitoring that are, I think, generally otherwise unavailable in an enforcement action. And to date, the FTC has brought about four false claims cases. So, again, as with CBPR and APEC, the FTC has been just an essential element in bridging the gap between the EU and the US approaches to privacy. And, again, I'll just end by saying you're not going to get buy-in legitimacy or credibility without that enforcement power and that collaboration and cooperation that we're all talking about today. So thank you.

MS. FEUER: Thank you very much. I want to turn back to Jeff for a minute. So everyone has done, I think, a really fantastic job of outlining the tools. And, Jeff, you talked about these partnerships, and I guess I'd like to know a little bit more about the partnerships in terms of their status today, whether you think that they kind of could be adapted for a more, I guess, global enforcement model and whether you have any ideas about how cross-border cooperation and consumer protection matters could be improved.

MR. THOMPSON: Sure. Thanks, Stacy. So, yeah, the status of the partnerships -- as I mentioned, the partnerships stem from a 1997 meeting. There were three partnerships created across Canada -- one in Vancouver, one in Toronto, Ontario, and one in Montreal, Quebec. At one point in time, we saw this increase to seven Canada-US cross-border partnerships, but that wasn't maintainable for a number of reasons, primarily being there wasn't a lot of enforcement work in Atlantic Canada and Saskatchewan, for instance. So, I mean, things changed. And, again, as I said, priorities change. So right now we have three partnerships, including the new Pacific partnership which replaced Project Emptor. The Montreal Canada project, Project Colt is also defunct currently, but I mentioned we're working on renewing these efforts and coordinating something there. So, right now, as it stands, there’s the Alberta Partnership and the Toronto Strategic Partnership, and the Montreal Partnership. As far as improvements go, one area for I think more global enforcement cooperation that we discuss a lot at the office is disruption. And by disruption, I'm not talking about actual enforcement action. I'm talking about cooperation with private sector partners, using the data that we capture in our central fraud databases to block, say, shut down foreign numbers, to get bank accounts blocked. In Canada, we're sharing information with banks and credit card providers to go after the subscription traps, the continuity schemes, the counterfeit sales of other goods online and nondelivery goods. So the information we house that there's other alternatives to enforcement, and those are some of the areas that need to be improved on internationally.

MS. FEUER: Thank you very much. I now turn to Kurt Gresenz, who is the Assistant Director at the SEC’s Office of International Affairs. And, Kurt, as we heard earlier from Jean-François Fortin, securities enforcement collaboration is truly global and truly impressive, I have to say. I'm interested in hearing more from your perspective to inform our thinking about the cooperation in the areas that fall within the FTC's jurisdiction.

MR. GRESENZ: Thank you, Stacey. Let me start out by giving the disclaimer I’m required to give, that these are my views, only my views, and not necessarily those of the Securities and Exchange Commission, its Commission, or its staff, which I like doing because that frees me up now to say what I would like to say, which hopefully follows what the SEC would say. Okay, so let me start out with building on some of the themes that have been talked about. One of the reasons, I think, that we have been successful in forging a pretty broad alliance of securities authorities around the world that are cooperating is by virtue of the fact that the IOSCO principles of securities regulation are part of what national economies are assessed against as part of the financial sector assessment program that is done by the IMF. So essentially when the IMF and team comes into a jurisdiction to grade you on your financial resiliency and financial regulation, they're going to look at the IOSCO principles. And the IOSCO principles say that your securities has to have certain minimum powers and also the ability to share information across borders for enforcement purposes. And I think that has been one of the key tools that has caused one of the things that Jean-François talked about from early adoption, say two dozen countries in 2002 under the MMOU to where we are now as 121, that it's an easy way to getting a failing grade by not being signed up to the MMOU. And national legislatures have, for the most part, made the amendments to their domestic law to enable them to meet the MMOU standards. So in the scale of cooperation, Jean- François talked about over 5,000 requests that were made under the MMOU last year. The SEC is, as you might expect, a big user of those, probably 600 to 800 of those were ours. So we have an incentive in that process working smoothly. And where the parallels are, I think, for me is when I talk to my colleagues at the FTC, we're talking about consumer protection. And the concept of investor protection is essentially the same concept. The investor is our consumer. And one of the focuses of our enforcement priorities is on the mom-and-pop investor, the retail investor who really is somebody that will benefit from an active securities authority acting in their stead. In the securities context, one of the things Jeff talked about was he mentioned you have people set up in one country, you have targeting of investors somewhere else and then you have sending the funds elsewhere. I would actually build on that. In an ICO case for example, the entities might be incorporated in two or three different jurisdictions. The investors might be targeted in the UK, Australia, and the US. They might be storing their documents in a fourth or fifth jurisdiction or in the cloud so it’s very difficult to, you know, figure out where those are to begin with. So those are the challenges, and building through those, and I think we've had a good discussion of the privacy challenges, but two things I want to mention that also came up in the earlier points is one is what I call regulatory arbitrage, which somebody called regulatory competition. Cooperation works very well, but we also have to be cognizant that there are competing policy concerns with how we approach our enforcement tasks. So for example, a sophisticated fraudster is going to have some basic awareness of what the regulatory scope is in a given jurisdiction. And these people may set up shop in particular places and do things in particular places for taking advantage of whatever the legal system is there, and often that legal system may be one that is less conducive to cross-border sharing. So then as we advance down the path of the investigation, either related to that or other things, regulators move at different speeds. They may have different approaches as to how they approach witnesses. Are we going to go let everybody know in advance? I will tell you that from an SEC investigative perspective, which I'm sure people around the room and at this table would share, that people acting in a manner that is entirely consistent with their own investigative processes and procedures, but that may be contrary to what somebody is doing elsewhere. Those are things that are going to almost always result in people wanting to control their own investigation, perhaps at the expense of greater coordination. And I think that's where, you know, discussion is certainly important. And I don't know if this is really privacy. Maybe this goes to confidentiality. Also, different authorities have different legal requirements when it comes to what types of information they have to disclose in a particular setting. So let's say that we transmit files to an authority who assigned assurances of confidentiality and then we read a newspaper report that talks about things that we disclosed on a confidential basis, and then we drill down and it turns out that, well, yes, they kept it confidential but not from a lawful request, and it might be a Freedom of Information Act request or something like that. So that’s obviously going to be something that maybe you don't anticipate on the front end, but it might chill information exchanges going forward. And then the case of the ambitious prosecutor, he or she who may leak to the press. I know that that’s always a source of great consternation, whether it's the SEC or DOJ or elsewhere, when you read confidential details that are unattributed by a source who’s not authorized to speak about something that you thought you transmitted in confidence. So I do want to talk about those. I think the last thing I want to talk about in challenges is one of the things that we are dealing with frequently at the SEC, and I think we sort of have a little bit of a handle on it, and I know it must be something that the FTC confronts, also, but the law has been unsettled for a number of years as it relates to the Electronic Communications Privacy Act and what type of records we can get from internet service providers, and maybe who a subscriber is, who is the identity of a particular account. Maybe that’s something that is reachable, but what about the cases where you know there's communications and you want those communications, and maybe there's impediments there. I know that the criminal authorities can go through a warrant process for things like that. What is the recourse of an administrative agency where we don't necessarily have recourse to a criminal mechanism to show just cause, due cause, probable cause, reasonable suspicion, whatever the standard is. So cooperation works, but we have to be, I think, vigilant of the challenges to that, and like we’ve already talked about in the GDPR space, how do we get to a solution that works for most people most of the time.

MS. FEUER: Thank you very much. So let me ask you one follow-up, which is about your statutory authority which underlies your ability to cooperate. I know that you have some tools that you've had since the 1970s that are somewhat similar to what we have in SAFE WEB. And I'm wondering how they actually underpin what you do and how effective you think having that statutory authority has been.

MR. GRESENZ: So there are three sections that I'll talk about. And absent these three things, we would not be able to meet the IOSCO principles, which means we wouldn't be able to sign the MMOU, which means the Treasury Department would be unhappy when we were adjudged to be noncompliant in an FSAP in these areas. The first one is what I call our access request authority, and what this says is the Commission has discretion to share confidential file materials with any person, provided that person demonstrates need and can make appropriate provisions of confidentiality. And I think more or less that tracks what the FTC can do, although maybe the Safe Web is restricted to regulatory authorities, where the SEC, in theory, has discretion to share with any person. Our Commission has delegated that authority to exercise the discretion to the staff in the area where I work with, which is cross-border enforcement cooperation. Now, typically, my office will look at any request for access for SEC files that comes from a foreign authority, and we will make a baseline determination of whether sharing is appropriate with that organization or not. Obviously, if they’re an MMOU signatory, that question is easier. So that's the first one, the ability to give access to materials and files. The second one is to use our compulsory power on behalf of a foreign authority. And I think, again, here, there's probably parallels all down the line with the FTC's existing authority, is we have to make sure that there's -- well, for us to start with, the requesting authority has to be a foreign securities authority, which means do they enforce laws that fall within their securities regulation. Number two, the authority has to be able to provide reciprocal assistance. And, again, if it’s an MMOU party, that's already written in and baked into our principal cooperation mechanism. The sharing has to be consistent with the public interest of the United States, and we go through that process of the deconfliction process with the US Department of Justice. So that's something else that is taken care of. And one interesting fact here is it's not necessary for the conduct to be a violation of US law. So, for example, if it's illegal in Country X but it may not be illegal here, we do have the authority to assist in appropriate circumstances. The third piece after the access request and the compulsory authority, you know, of course, you list three and then you forget the third one. Let me come back to that one. I should have made a note when I was thinking about this.

MS. FEUER: Okay. Well, that's great. So we have a lot here to work with to start us off on questions, and there are so many strands to the strands that we've brought out that it's hard to know where to start, but I am going to start with two questions that have come in. And the first really builds on, Kurt, what you were just talking about, that your investigative assistance power doesn't require the law violation to be a law violation in the United States if it is a law violation in another country. And we actually have a question on that. And this is, I think, to the consumer protection and privacy areas where I think laws diverge more than they do in the securities arena. But the question is this, when an act or practice would violate consumer protection law in a consumer's home country but it isn’t against the law in the seller's country, should agencies cooperate? When there is a conflict of laws, what should consumer and privacy agencies do? And I'm going to throw that out to the panel and see who hops on it. James?

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Is it helpful to say just in terms of our experience at the ICO's offices for that very reason is our legal gateways are framed with a public interest test? And that's a very widely drawn public interest test, so it doesn't need to be a specific offense in the UK for us to be able to cooperate and exchange information, for that very reason is there is quite a variety.

MS. FEUER: So that's helpful to know. By way of background, the FTC's -- yes, I work for the FTC -- the FTC’s authority to obtain investigative assistance for foreign counterparts relates to unfair or deceptive acts or practices, as well as violations of laws that are substantially similar to those that the FTC enforces. So we have a little bit more defined statutory language, although as you can see here, it allows to us cooperate with a wide variety of agencies. Anyone else want to opine on this first question from our audience? Marie-Paule?

MS. BENASSI: Yes, thank you. It's a very important and interesting question. So in the European Union, we have laws which are harmonized, fully harmonized, or minimum harmonization. So our system of cooperation for enforcement actions are based on the minimum harmonization, when it is minimum harmonized. So it means that you cannot take an enforcement action for a violation which goes beyond the minimum harmonization and which would not be the same in one -- in your member state where the trader is established compared to the member states of the consumer. But requests for information and other types of assistance I think can function. And what we see when we work with cooperation in an informal setting with other jurisdictions outside of the European Union is that very often the principles -- at least the principles are quite the same. And so it’s on this basis, I think, that in many cases exchange of information can be possible.

MS. FEUER: Jeff.

MR. THOMPSON: Yeah, I think this touches a little bit on what I was referring to with disruption as well. Enforcement is not the only answer where we can't enforce the law in another country or a law doesn't exist that prohibits a certain action. However, we may be able to work with, again, private sector partners or other agencies to block these services from being offered in Canada. Binary options was a great example in Canada where we worked with credit card companies, and Canadian law prohibits the sale of securities if somebody is not registered. So, therefore, there was no binary options. Companies registered in Canada, therefore, any sales to Canadians are against our laws. So we're able to work with Mastercard and Visa and the credit card companies to prevent any Canadian transactions for binary options.

MS. FEUER: So that’s very interesting. So there are really a range of options here from a very broadly defined public interest standard to the European Union's concept of minimally or maximally harmonized laws, which essentially means whether every EU country has the exact same law or whether they have more leverage and freedom to implement laws differently. To the example that Jeff has given with disruption and also being able to cooperate across the civil and criminal divide, because we obviously cooperate with the RCMP as a criminal agency, and many of our colleagues, for example, the UK ICO, has criminal authority as well as civil authority. Kurt, I saw you want to say one more thing here.

MR. GRESENZ: Yes, I was actually thinking about a topic that you and I have talked about. So one of the questions that can come up in the work that I do is there might be a hesitation on the part of some of our foreign counterparts to work with us in some cases if they are afraid that an SEC outcome will foreclose them from acting. And I think this is the result of different legal interpretations of what amounts to double jeopardy. So you know, in the US, depending, we have different sovereigns for different purposes. What some of my colleagues overseas have said that essentially should the SEC take some action, even administrative action against an actor where the conduct is based on something the foreign authority is looking at that that could potentially preclude the foreign authority from doing any action at all? So that's in one direction we have to be sensitive to that. You know, the question there is let's say we ask for help in a case and they're looking at it and they say, well, we don't want to tell you because you're going to take action and then we're going to be left with nothing. And, again, we would work through that stuff, but it's a real issue. You know, from our side, we take Foreign Corrupt Practices Act violations seriously. And from an economic perspective, my personal view is there's a really good strong reason to do that. That's not always the approach that some foreign jurisdictions take. And we have from time to time encountered hesitancy to help us on our FCPA investigations on the SEC side, not speaking for the Department of Justice, because of a view that well, you know, I don't understand how that falls into a securities violation. It could be just code for, well, we don't really look at it in that way from our country. So we don't think we can help you. Again, people have to decide are they going to step up and are they going to help.

MS. FEUER: Right. So really interesting question and really interesting responses. I want to turn to another question that sort of focuses on one of the hot topics of today, which is this. Congress is considering passage of a comprehensive data protection and privacy law. How might that change or affect the relationship between US regulators and those in Europe and elsewhere, particularly as it relates to privacy investigations and litigation? And I'm going to put James on the spot first.

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Okay. Well, I think in many ways, you know, we should look at the opportunities. There are many countries around the world which are looking either at their first data protection act or privacy act or enhancing the one they’ve got. And I think the key things are to make sure that, you know, as referenced by the international conference, that there are those opportunities to collaborate and cooperate to ultimately do what we’re all there to do, which is to keep our citizens safe. And this will continue to be a theme as we go forward. Countries like India are looking at the data protection bill, going through their Parliament and their legislative process. They will be significant, given the scale and size of their economies and their country. So we should look for the opportunities to work better together.

MS. FEUER: And I thought you were going to mention GPEN again.

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Well, GPEN provides a great opportunity to do that, both in terms of the cooperation, but also more importantly the technical challenges, the assistance. One of the great things GPEN does, if I can make a plug for it, is coordinate around sweeps, so looking at upcoming threats and risks that might affect privacy authorities and sharing that load out and sharing that learning out in terms of all of us looking consistently at threats within each of our nations and then bringing together the results of that for a common discussion.

MS. FEUER: So any other observations on the question? It focuses on whether changes in privacy laws might affect cooperation, but I think the question is really broader. As we talked about this morning, many countries are in the process of updating their laws, whether it be consumer protection laws, privacy laws, securities laws, maybe? And so I wonder how this whole issue of changing laws, changing standards affects the way or the opportunities or the challenges for cooperation. And I'll throw that out to whoever wants to go first. Secretary Sullivan.

MR. SULLIVAN: So I'll just say, we in the International Trade Administration have been working with the National Telecommunications Information Administration and the National Institute of Standards and Technology, also sister agencies at the Commerce Department, to evaluate what, if anything, the Federal Government should do to address some of the privacy concerns that have certainly captured a lot of attention in the last couple of years. I think this goes back to what I was talking about. This is my personal opinion. I think we're probably quite a long ways off from any global standard. I think -- you know, you talked about India, Brazil. A lot of countries, you know, many have been looking to GDPR as an example, but no one is replicating GDPR exactly. There are still these differences, and those are going to continue because, as I think I said earlier, different countries have different cultural norms and legal traditions and histories, and they have different policy priorities that are all going to, you know, result in differences of kind if not degree. Again, I sound like a one-trick pony, but this goes back to the APEC CPBR system because what that basically is, is it takes these internationally recognized norms that we all agree on, which came from the OECD guidelines and the fair information principles before that and said let's all agree to these baselines, because you are going to have these differences. And we have to find a way to bridge these differences between these different regimes that countries have. I think, again, you know, there are aspirations for a single global standard. I don't think that’s about to happen anytime soon, so we’ve got to figure out, you know, how these different regimes can be made to work together. The approach in APEC is this interoperability approach, which I really think has a lot of appeal, is very well developed, and has been embraced, as I said, by a lot of countries in APEC, and we’ve heard a lot of interest from other countries around the world because it really is very flexible and can be adapted. On the one hand, it definitely protects privacy, but it can deal with technology because we in government are always going to be one step behind in regulation and legislation to begin with, but in this space in particular with the technology evolving so quickly, I really think there’s great appeal there.

MS. FEUER: Thanks. Anyone else? Marie-Paule?

MS. BENASSI: I agree with what James Sullivan said. I think it's going to be really incredibly difficult to sort of have a very harmonized universal framework for that data protection but also for consumer protection. And in the European Union, we are -- we have these principle-based laws and even in case of maximum harmonizations, there remain some differences. So our reply is to work on common enforcement actions and develop these actions in a way that they have become also guidance in a way. So -- and they are less theoretical than the law because they are applied to practical problems, practical practices. And in the future, what we want to do is to do more of these actions where, in fact, we have -- we publish the common position of the CPC network in the form of a guidance that can be applied by all the different operators in a certain industry. The other point I wanted to mention is notice and action procedures. So in the European Union, we have a law which is called the E-Commerce Directive, and which provides that marketplaces and social networks do not have a duty to monitor illegal practices, but they have a duty to act upon notification against an illegal practice. And this means, for example, withdrawing the account, obscuring the information. One of the problems of these operators, because we are now discussing a lot with them, is that, first of all, the domain of laws, which should apply, which is enormous and then it's -- for them, it's very difficult in a way to have an efficient action when the domain of law is so big and also the enforcement type are very big. And so I think that also cooperation on common notice and action procedures at the international level with a certain level of recognition, so this is what Jeff is saying about this disruption, so looking into also other type of models which are more based on practical enforcement tools, systems.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. Anyone else? So in the few minutes we have remaining, what I'd like to do is turn to each of the panelists and, similar to the first panel today, ask for a one-, maybe two-minute takeaway of what you see as the most important tools for international cooperation, what you see as your main challenges, and how you might remedy them. So I'm going to put Kurt on the spot and ask our SEC colleague to start first.

MR. GRESENZ: So when you started with tools, I did remember the third tool that was so important that I forgot it, but it actually is very important. So we have two provisions of law which help us protect information we receive from foreign authorities. The first one is a statutory protection that protects from any third parties any materials that we receive from foreign securities authorities. So outside of the litigation context, that essentially gives us ironclad protection for SEC files for enforcement purposes. But more recently, we added a legal amendment, a new tool that protects in litigation any material that would be privileged in the foreign jurisdiction. So let's say, for example, we get confidential financial intelligence from a foreign authority, and as a condition of receiving that, the foreign authority makes a good faith representation that this is for intelligence purposes, and it is privileged from disclosure in our jurisdiction. Under Section 24(f) of our 34 act, that protection would carry over into US law, and there is an absolute privilege it would stand discovery, for example, that it will carry over the foreign privilege to US law. And it could be anything. It could be financial intelligence, it could priest-penitent. I mean, if there is a privilege that is recognized in the foreign jurisdiction and we receive materials pursuant to that privilege without waiver, then there's no examination behind the statute for the court to make. It just has to be the representation. So that, I think, gives us added teeth when it comes to representations that we, in fact, can protect things in our files. So, you know, the takeaway for me is the big difference that I see is it looks like what we do in the security space is much more concentrated. You know, we know exactly who the players are. We see them all the time. There's crossover to some criminal authorities and other domestic agencies, but by and large, we seem to be in a more narrow lane. And I think my takeaway would be that listening to my colleagues here is there's a lot of lanes running in parallel and overlapping and overpasses and other sides that I think that we just don't have that much of in the security space in my view.

MS. FEUER: Thanks. And that raises two interesting points. I think this afternoon we'll have a panel on competition enforcement, and I think there might be a few less lanes, although I know there are some. And, also, your mention of your statutory ability to protect information, we have an analog in the SAFE WEB context for information provided by foreign law enforcement agencies when they ask for confidentiality that gives a privilege against FOIA disclosure. So turning now to Jeff, your top takeaway.

MR. THOMPSON: At the end of the day, what I got out of this is, I mean, there's an increasing abundance of information in the world, and we need to be able to prioritize our enforcement efforts. So it's processing all that information that’s certainly a challenge, and there’s all kinds of technology tools to help us. But not only that, it’s setting the right priorities and working smarter. So the intelligence- led approach, where we’re using the central fraud databases such as Consumer Sentinel or Anti-Fraud Centre to start driving enforcement action in a more targeted and effective manner.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. So intelligence is key to international cooperation. Marie-Paule?

MS. BENASSI: So I wanted to say two things. The first thing Jeff said it already, which is about prioritization. And I think that fraud is becoming internet fraud, all the different facets of it, and its internationalization, I think, is becoming a very big problem in terms of the harm caused to consumers and collectively in the world. And also in this respect, the role of the big platforms, you know? And if we don't prioritize and don't find efficient ways, building also on what this platform can do, I think is going to become more and more difficult to prevent fraud. And we see organized crime moving into these kind of activities, which seems to be giving them the possibility to earn a lot of money very easily. But then we have a different type of problem which we didn't discuss much, because also we have a bit -- had discussions a bit in silos here, but which is how to tackle the new types of misleading practices which are developing and which are based on the data economics. So on this we need to build links between competition, data protection, and consumer protection in order to understand this and see how -- what are the impact on consumers in terms of also the possible harm and also for businesses, possible lack of competition that this type of new data models are creating.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. Secretary Sullivan.

MR. SULLIVAN: So, again, for me, my perspective, the biggest challenge we're dealing with right now is the fragmentation or the vulcanization of the internet around the globe. You're seeing rising delocalization, which, again, I think that just impoverishes everybody, those within the country that have imposed delocalization measures, those that have overly strict restrictions on data flows. I think certainly we share a legitimate and strong desire for consumer privacy with a lot of other countries. And as I noted earlier, we take different approaches. I do think we need to be very wary because these issues, the way we're headed and in the coming years, we're going to be looking at, you know, more and more connected devices that are transmitting data, and this data has to be protected on the one hand, but it can lead to such tremendous opportunities. I mean, in the public sphere, in terms of smart cities and efficiencies and health breakthroughs and precision medicine and detecting disease patterns. And we want to be very wary of going too far in one direction, I think. So I agree with you about the balancing of these interests. And, again, I'll go back to my -- I really think, you know, the EU, for example, and the US do take different approaches, but we ultimately share, at eye level, the very same goal. And I think interoperability between GDPR on the one and CBPR on the other could be a very positive development. I know there was a referential a few years ago with BCRs, binding corporate rules, which is an EU proof mechanism for data transfers and mapping it relative to CBPRs. And, again, these all derive from the same OECD guidelines, and I think there's a lot of overlap. And I know GDPR allows for certification mechanisms, and I think there's a tremendous opportunity there for us to make these systems work together and make sure that we are extending privacy protections around the globe, while at the same time making sure that we're not quashing or squashing innovation and, again, doing damage to our long-term interests. So I think interoperability would be my solution there. And as, again, I've said a couple times already, you know, the FTC is probably the preeminent privacy data protection authority, as it were, in the world going back to the 1970s, has been a great partner as we go around the world and talk to countries on this. And so we should continue to do that. And I hope we can partner with other like- minded countries to that end.

MS. FEUER: Thank you. And the clock is quickly counting down, so I’ll ask Commissioner Dipple-Johnstone to say a final word.

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: I will be very quick, then. I mean, I can almost echo the comments of others. I think it’s that keeping updated and keeping pace with vast changes in the landscape and technology and making sure that we don't become the ministries of no, that we support innovation in a very practical sense. And as part of that, it’s making sure we make the right links both internationally with each other but also in each of our respective homes with the other agencies and authorities we have to work with so that the offer we can make internationally is the right one.

MS. FEUER: So thank you very much to the panel for some incredibly thought-provoking ideas. Before we break for lunch, I just want to mention that the Top of the Trade on the 7th floor has catering available for you to purchase. There's a handout on the table just outside with information about nearby restaurants. If you leave the building, you will have to go through security again unless you are an FTC employee. And be mindful that there is a small group of protesters outside the building, so leave ample time to get back in for our fascinating afternoon panels. Thank you. (Applause.)

AFTERNOON SESSION

COMPETITION ENFORCEMENT COOPERATION

MS. COPPOLA: Okay. I’m getting the green light from Bilal Sayyed, our head of Policy. So I think we should get started. Thank you all for coming to this afternoon’s panel. Today, we’re going to talk about enforcement cooperation on the competition side. You’ve just heard, in the break before lunch, about cooperation on the consumer side. It has a very different nature on the competition side. So we’ll be talking about that this afternoon. I’d like to introduce my panelists briefly. Starting with -- going in alphabetical order, Nick Banasevic. Nick is from the European Commission’s DG Competition where he heads the unit that covers IT, internet, and consumer electronics. So we’ve had the very good fortune to cooperate with Nick on a number of cases. Next to Nick is Marcus Bezzi. He is the Executive Director at the Australian Competition and Consumer Commission, where, among other things, he oversees all of the ACCC’s international engagements. So I also have had a great time working with him, even though very often the calls were extremely early for us and extremely late for him. We still have a terrific relationship. Then we have Fiona Schaeffer, who is an Antitrust Partner at Milbank LLP. She has practiced on both sides of the Atlantic. So she brings unique perspective in that sense and has lot of experience in multijurisdictional mergers in particular. Then just to my left -- I was a little thrown off because I thought it was alphabetical and that’s why I was -- yeah, you didn’t look like Jeanne, anyway. So Jeanne Pratt, who is Senior Deputy Commissioner from the Canadian Competition Bureau. She oversees their abuse of dominance and mergers and noncartel horizontal conduct matters. She also has experience at the ACCC. So I’m sure that she will bring that to the discussion today. So those are our panelists and you’re going to hear from them, not from me. Just by way of background, a lot of the cooperation issues that are relevant to the competition enforcement discussion were addressed in this morning’s session. So we’ll try to get into a little bit more granular level so that we don’t repeat what was discussed this morning. Just I guess to set the stage in thinking about cooperation in general, we engage in enforcement cooperation for a number of reasons. Often, we find that it will improve our own analyses. It allows us to identify issues where we have a common interest, it allows us to avoid inconsistent outcomes, and perhaps, most importantly, for the outcome to coordinate remedies. So with that in mind, I have asked the panel to start off -- we’re trying to understand strengths and weaknesses of enforcement cooperation, get some advice for the FTC. So before we delve into specific questions, I’ve asked each of the panelists to deliver the headline of their story. What is your elevator speech? Starting with Nick.

MR. BANASEVIC: Thank you, Maria. Thank you to you and to the FTC. It’s really a great pleasure to be here and, hopefully, share some interesting insights. My elevator ride is 27 floors up and it takes about half a minute. So I don’t know if that’s how long I’ve got. But I think my five-second message is don’t neglect cooperation, it can really bring benefits. Of course, I think the first instinct that we have and what we’re responsible for by definition is our own jurisdiction, and the bread and butter of that is doing individual cases and that’s what we focus on. That’s, as I say, the bread and butter of our work. Beyond that we have our policy, guidance, soft law role which is complementary to the actual case enforcement. I think my core message and, hopefully, I’ll illustrate it during the panel is, although you’re not going to necessarily spend the majority of your time, although you might spend a lot in an individual case on cooperation, I think it’s trying really -- in terms of what agencies can gain and benefit mutually. Don’t view it as add-on activity, something extra that you have to do. It can really bring organic benefits to either an individual case -- and, hopefully, I’ll give some examples -- and also to policy to avoid misunderstandings, to converge where possible. It’s really something that should be fostered over the years. I’ve known Maria and her colleagues and colleagues at the DOJ for many years, and it’s really very useful in terms of building trust, facilitating relationships, and understanding where each of us are coming from. So from my perspective, I’ve had very good experiences over the years and I will give some more insights as we go on.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks. Marcus?

MR. BEZZI: Well, if Nick had been standing next to me in the elevator, I would say I agree with all of that. I’d also say -- make the point that was made a lot this morning, that commerce is now more global than ever and, indeed, that’s a trend that’s significantly enhanced by the digital economy. And the corollary of that is that enforcers have to respond to the pace of change and globalization by working more closely together. We have to be more joined up and timely. And we need to do this for three reasons. Firstly, because I believe that in doing so, we will facilitate more efficient commerce. It will actually be better for the commercial parties if we are more joined up. Secondly, it will make us better at our jobs. We’ll be more effectively able to police compliance with laws in our jurisdictions. And, finally, because we’ve got scarce resources and working closely together is likely to prevent us from reworking issues, from seeking to reinvent the wheel or overlapping each other’s work. It will make us more efficient. Thanks.

MS. COPPOLA: Great.

MS. SCHAEFFER: Well, hopefully, we’re not in a Dutch elevator so there’s room for me as well. I certainly agree with everything that both Nick and Marcus have just said. I particularly like the idea that cooperation is not the icing on the cake, but, hopefully, the glue, as Kovacic would say, or the icing in the middle. What does cooperation mean? It doesn’t mean achieving the same result on the same timetable in every transaction or investigation. That’s not cooperation. That’s utopia. And that’s never going to exist. But I do think it can and often does mean a greater understanding of the issues, an enhanced understanding, as you said, Maria, for your own investigation and how to address concerns. And it, hopefully, can be used to maximize all of the efficiencies in the process given the substantive constraints and the procedural limitations that each jurisdiction has to live within. So I think from a private practitioner perspective, I agree there is a lot to be gained from cooperation. And I would love to use this panel to talk about practical ways that we can enhance cooperation, again using Kovacic’s human glue analogy, more at that human level than at the formal, procedural MLAT kind of level that I think we’ve all worked with or had our frustrations with over the last decade or so, and have found that it is these informal connections and understandings that have facilitated greater cooperation more than the very formalistic process.

MS. PRATT: Well, I agree with everything that everyone said. The only thing I would add is I don’t think cooperation is only good for enforcement agencies, I think it’s good for business. It allows competition law enforcement agencies to benefit from the experience of one another, reach conclusions quicker, and with less probability of conflict and ultimately, hopefully, increased timeliness and effectiveness of the outcome. But it’s -- as all of these people have said, it’s more than about sharing information, it’s that human glue. It’s having the trust amongst agencies to be able to have productive discussions, to be able to exchange theories of harm, to talk about what they’re hearing from the marketplace, to sort of be in a united front with the businesses so that they understand that it is in their benefit and it will be more efficient for them to cooperate with all of us together. And so I think the result, hopefully, is that investigations aren’t longer, are more focused, and the probability of outcomes being conflicting outcomes is minimized, and ultimately for all of us, the predictability, consistency, and effectiveness of outcomes across jurisdictions is maximized. The Canadian Competition Bureau, as you heard from Commissioner Boswell this morning and as you heard from some of my colleagues from the RCMP, I think Canada generally is a strong advocate for international cooperation and we’re always looking for opportunities to cooperate further, including with respect to not just merger cases, but unilateral conduct cases as well.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks, Jeanne. Okay. So there’s a lot of human glue. So we seem to all agree that there’s a lot of great things that come out of cooperation, cooperation is very important. I guess drilling down to the next level, what can parties expect for agencies, and I guess for Fiona, what can agencies expect at a more detailed level from cooperation. Why don’t we start with Marcus this time.

MR. BEZZI: Thanks, Maria. Well, there are things like sharing case theories, if waivers are given there will be sharing of information. If we use our formal processes, they can expect them to take a long time. In our experience, MLATs -- well, I’ll just relate one story. We used an MLAT in a criminal matter recently and were absolutely stunned to get a result from the process in one year or a little bit less than one year. That’s the fastest that anyone can ever think of. Mostly, they take two years, three years, four years. We’ve got 19th Century formal cooperation procedures, 19th Century timetable for our formal cooperation procedures. So really we spend most of our time on the informal. And I must say, I listened to some of the sessions this morning and heard people talking about the IOSCO MMOU. I was very envious hearing about how quickly their processes work. They really do seem to operate at a more reasonable speed given the speed of commerce today. I should say that in mergers, the informal cooperation works extremely well and we don’t have to rely upon the formal. A lot of the time in Australia, we use the processes to coordinate remedies and people can reasonably expect us to do that in a fairly efficient way. I think that is a good aspect of the current system.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks. Jeanne, do you want to –

MS. PRATT: Sure. I mean, we cooperate very closely with the Federal Trade Commission and with the US Department of Justice and the DG Comp. Those are the three jurisdictions or three agencies that we cooperate most with. And if you’re a party either on the merger side or on the conduct side, you can expect that we would have in-depth discussions related to investigative approach, theories of harm, market definition, concerns expressed by market contexts in the various jurisdictions and, frankly, our analysis of the data and evidence that we’ve seen. In some cases, you will see us do joint market interviews of joint market context. We’ll have sometimes joint calls with the parties and we’ll coordinate that interaction with the parties to make sure that the risk of uncertain or conflicting messages is minimized. And where cross border competition concerns are identified, you can expect the Canadian Competition Bureau to engage agencies in remedy discussions, because we need to make sure that those remedy discussions are considered in the broader context, including the need for remedies in one or more jurisdictions and whether a remedy in one jurisdiction may actually be sufficient to address concerns in another, so that we may not need our own consent agreement in Canada. We also look at whether a common monitor should be appointed or looking at the consistency of the language around preservation of assets or hold separate arrangements. And in some cases that cooperation with the Canadian Competition Bureau may ultimately lead to us accepting a remedy that is proposed from a sister agency and it can, where appropriate, ensure the most efficient and least intrusive form of remedy for market participants. So we do cooperate very deeply with our agency. And that, again, is based on a strong foundation of trust that has been built over 20 years of cooperating with the counterparts with whom we cooperate most frequently.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks, Jeanne, very much. I’m very sorry to have to ask Nick to add to that because I think you about covered the universe. But, Nick, what do you think that parties can expect from cooperation and thinking specifically about your perspective from a shop that deals with conduct matters?

MR. BANASEVIC: I agree with everything so far. So not –

MS. COPPOLA: Okay. Can we be clear? You have to disagree at some point. This would be like dreadfully boring if you –

MR. BANASEVIC: In the post-panel, perhaps. No, but I think, as Jeanne said -- and perhaps -- and this is something I think we’ll develop perhaps as a difference in terms of incentives in conduct in mergers. Most of what my experience, in terms of what parties have incentive-wise, is in conduct. I’ve worked on a few mergers where the incentives have been aligned. We’ve had issues with parties where sometimes they don’t want to give waivers in conduct cases because they feel that that would somehow not be beneficial to them. That is, of course, their prerogative. My personal view is that actually, you know if they’ve got a good story to tell, there’s no issue with giving away, but because it’s precisely those things that we can discuss openly with them and with our colleagues, our sister agencies. But I think exactly the kinds of things that -- whether or not there is a waiver, because I think even without a waiver we’re able to, from our perspective, in terms of what we can gain, talk about theories of harm in the abstract and general levels, test, test theories, test realities. So I think if we’re doing that anyway, there is an interest for parties to give us a waiver. Again, that’s my personal view. But as I say, we’ve had some cases where we haven’t had waivers. To switch, in terms of what -- because I think we do have that responsibility ourselves to parties. And, again, maybe it’s more in mergers that it happens that they have these incentives where they’re aligned in terms of timing, coordination. In terms of what we can expect as an agency, just to develop a bit what I was saying at the beginning, I think, again, it’s not that we must always dream of having the uniform solution worldwide. We all have different legal traditions, different systems. Having said that, I think where we can achieve at least a high level of convergence where possible, I think that’s something that is desirable. So I think we, in terms of both policy development -- and then when we’re doing cases, I think it is invaluable and we each have a lot to gain in terms of, again, coming back to some of the things I’ve said in terms of case specifics, theories of harm, making sure that we’ve got a reality check on whether something is correct or not, testing these theories with each other, and if appropriate, moving the cases forward in the same or similar direction. If not, at least understanding the background to where we’re each coming from and why we may take a different approach. And I found that invaluable over the years in many cases, and I’ll develop that a bit more a bit later.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks. I think that the last point you mentioned, this idea that the effects of case cooperation are not just contained to the case itself, but to a longer-term story of deepening the understanding between agencies is really important. Fiona?

MS. SCHAEFFER: Sure. Well, I think from the parties’ perspective -- and my comments are primarily in the context of merger reviews -- the goals of what can realistically be achieved from cooperation include reducing duplicative effort, reducing the burdens of investigation, convincing the agency, through cooperation, that just because there is a hill there to climb doesn’t mean that everyone has to climb it. One can climb and report, assuming, of course, it is a similar hill. We hope to have consistent, if not identical, outcomes and that includes, where possible, hopefully convincing an agency that they don’t need to have the same remedy as everyone else just because someone else has a remedy. We don’t have to have every jurisdiction reviewing, believing that it needs to have its pound of flesh in order to believe that it’s conducted an effective review. And that, of course, involves some levels of trust between the different agencies as well, that the enforcement of a remedy in one jurisdiction is going to be sufficiently robust to protect others. And, you know, that may not always be the case and it may vary by jurisdiction. We hope, also, that through cooperation we will, if not have a shorter overall timetable, certainly not a longer one. I think that is sometimes a concern that private parties feel is that a potential cost of cooperation is that you may be put on, in essence, the timeline of the slowest jurisdiction, rather than promoting efficiency throughout the process. I guess a word on waivers just to Nick’s point. In principle, I agree that knowledge is power and I like everyone at the table to have a similar level of knowledge, if we have good substantive points and arguments and documents to share, or even if not so good. The agency can do a better job armed with that knowledge than if there is some game-playing and trying to orchestrate the process and manage who knows what. I do think that that calculus is quite different in merger versus conduct cases. And it’s not a question of giving different agencies the same level of knowledge, necessarily, although in some cases it can be. But I think for us there is a bigger concern in conduct cases that information provided to one regulator and then shared more broadly increases the risk of discovery obligations and private class action consequences that aren’t so much of a practice concern in a merger context. So it’s not the sharing within the agencies necessarily that is the biggest challenge there; it’s what can be done with the information once it is within multiple agencies. We know that we’re dealing with jurisdictions that have very different levels of confidentiality protection, and in some instances, for example, are required to give third parties due process or other government agencies access. So I think there’s a greater feeling of concern about being able to manage the flow of that information in the conduct arena.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks, Fiona. I think we’ll come back to that point about information exchange in a moment. But I think, before that, I want to pick up on Marcus’ point about keeping pace. I don’t know that -- the 19th Century might be a bit of an exaggeration, but I think even 20th Century tools are not fit for purpose. Last night, I was watching All the President’s Men with my 12-year-old son and they were trying to find the phone number for someone and they had a room full of phone books, and he just kind of said, what’s that, what are they doing? Anyhow, what types of things, what kind of -- what would a tool look like that was fit for the 21st Century? Are these more in the realm of informal cooperation? What tools do you use? What tools do you wish you had? What can we learn from you?

MR. BEZZI: Would you like me to go first?

MS. COPPOLA: Yes. That’s why I’m looking at you. I’m sorry. (Laughter.)

MR. BEZZI: Well, where do I start. So informal -- I’ll start on the informal. And, look, I should say 95 percent of the cooperation that we’re involved in -- probably more than 95 percent is informal and it’s very effective and it involves engagement with the various agencies that we’ve got excellent relationships with. We have many counterpart agencies that we’ve got second generation cooperation agreements with or first generation cooperation agreements with. And they help to create a formal framework in which we can engage in informal cooperation. And I should actually just go back a step. The formal arrangements really do enhance the informal. We have a very formal arrangement with the United States. We have a treaty with the US. I think we’re the only country that has an antitrust cooperation treaty with the US. We rarely use it. I think the number of times it’s been formally used you could probably count on probably less than two hands. But I believe that it promotes the use of waivers, it promotes the cooperation of witnesses, the cooperation of parties with our investigations, and it really facilitates and creates the atmosphere in which informal cooperation works very, very well. So what does that actually mean? It means that we can have case teams that have regular phone calls if we’ve got a common investigation or we’re investigating common or related issues. We can talk about case theories. We can talk about practical things like when we’re going to interview common witnesses. We can talk about lines of inquiry that have not been successful that have been a waste of our time and suggest to each other perhaps don’t bother going there, it won’t lead anywhere or, actually, look here, it’s a better place to look. Those sorts of discussions happen between case teams and they are really valuable. The exchange of information when we’ve got waivers -- confidential information when we’ve got waivers is very, very useful. I should emphasize that we very, very rarely -- in fact, I can’t think of a single occasion that we’ve done it using a waiver, but we very rarely exchange evidence. I can think of two cases where we’ve done that using formal processes. If we want evidence, we will go to the source and get the evidence from the source if we possibly can. It’s much more valuable to us that way, anyway. So I think you said, what would be better? Well, some of the processes that exist under IOSCO where -- and, indeed, exist under the antitrust treaty that we have with the US -- where we can ask counterpart agencies to compel testimony, we can ask counterpart agencies to compel the production of evidence or production of information and to do so in a very timely way, to put in a request that can be responded to in days or weeks rather than months or years. Those sorts of things are things that we aspire to. We get a lot of it informally, I should emphasize that. I don’t want to understate the importance of the informal. But having a more formal framework which would enable more of that -- and I think they have in IOSCO context -- would really be a facilitator of even greater informal cooperation.

MS. COPPOLA: I think we heard on the consumer protection and privacy panel that some of that investigative assistance is already happening on that side. So it’s –

MR. BEZZI: Very much so, yes.

MS. COPPOLA: Since we’re all -- many of us have it housed in the same agency, you would hope that we can have that transfer over to the competition side. Jeanne, could you pick up a little bit on the informal cooperation point and tools?

MS. PRATT: Yeah, I’ll try not to do –

MS. COPPOLA: So we can just –

MR. PRATT: I, again, agree with everything that Marcus said. And I think what I would say is it only works -- those informal cooperation tools, again, only work if you’ve got trust in the legitimacy, the competence, the candor and, frankly, the ethics of your counterparts in the other agency. And you can’t develop that necessarily in the context of just having a case discussion. You’ve got to take the time to have the conversations to understand different frameworks, to understand how they go about doing their work. And, frankly, that in our experience has led to us getting to learn some of the lessons from our colleagues so that we don’t have to repeat the same mistakes and, hopefully, we have also shared some of those with our foreign counterparts. So some of the mechanisms that we use outside of informal cooperation on a case to try and do that are the case team leader meetings that you heard Commissioner Boswell talk about this morning, which I find incredibly useful because it is our officers who are doing the work, that are leading those cases, that will take some time out to talk about how they do their work, what issues they are facing. Sometimes it’s talking about a particular case development or a lesson learned that they have from their jurisdiction. And that builds relationships amongst our staff, it builds trust, it builds confidence in our counterpart’s abilities as economists and lawyers doing the same type of work. Exchanges are another tool. And as was mentioned this morning, I am the very lucky candidate who got to go to the ACCC for a full year and see how they do their merger work, and I benefitted greatly as an individual. But I also I think benefitted the Bureau because we got to see not just how a particular case unfolds, but how you actually manage the organization, how you do your work, what tools you use and, frankly, seeing how something can be so different in some areas, but there’s a lot of commonality in the analysis that we do in mergers.

MR. BEZZI: We loved having you, too, Jeanne. It was great having you.

MS. PRATT: It was a tough winter in Ottawa, I have to say. The other thing that we have found valuable is taking some time out, maybe more publicly, to have workshops on particular issues. The FTC and the DOJ and the Competition Bureau in 2018 had a joint workshop on competition in residential real estate brokerage. And, you know, we had eight years of litigation in the real estate industry surrounding the use and display of critical sales information through digital platforms that wasn’t resolved until years after the US. But because we had taken so long, there had been a lot of evolution in the law and the economy. And so some of the lessons that we learned along the way were also informative to update since the fight in the US. So the only other formal thing that I think I would I say, not the informal, is we have a gateway provision in the Canadian Competition Act, Section 29. So when we’re doing mergers, we don’t ask for waivers in Canada. As long as we’re working on a case and we feel that that cooperation is necessary for enforcement of the Competition Act in Canada, we feel that that gives us the ability to have that conversation with our counterparts. So if you -- and I think this would be particularly useful in the unilateral conduct side where you may be looking at different incentives. The merging parties may want to get through our process as quickly as possible. They, I think, have come to see more of the benefits of our cooperation to get them where they need to get to with less conflict and quicker results. But, you know, that kind of a gateway provision could allow us to have discussions on the unilateral conduct side because the discussion is only as good as the two-way communication allows.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks. The senior level exchange, I think, would be a big hit here if the destination was Australia. But I guess kidding aside, it’s interesting because what you learn there, you’re coming back and you’re in charge so you can actually implement the changes. So that must have had a terrific effect. Okay, Nick, just thinking a bit more about cooperation in conduct investigations. I almost said antitrust investigations because I was looking at you. What kind of practical experience tips do you have that you would like to share?

MR. BANASEVIC: So I’m going to go back in time a bit and give you a couple of examples of very intense cooperation with the FTC and the DOJ. Actually, let me first say, to go back a step even, for us, cooperation starts at home in the sense that we’ve got the European Competition Network, which in -- I don’t know if “unique” is the word, but it’s the network of us, the European Commission with all the national member state competition authorities in the EEA, the European Economic Area, all applying European competition law. And so we first need to cooperate at home in terms of both just allocating cases and, of course, generally the European Commission does the cases that are over a broader geographic scope, whereas the national agencies tend to focus on more national ones and in terms of substance coordination as well. Beyond that, I think we have extensive international cooperation with all the major competition authorities around the world, including Canada and Australia. But to give the two examples that, for me, have been personally particularly instructive over the years, going back to the beginning of the century is first the Microsoft case with DOJ, where, as background, you remember that the D.C. Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed a monopoly maintenance finding here under Section 2. And that was while our case was still ongoing in Europe. We had an interoperability and a tying abuse, tying of Media Player. And then there was a remedy implemented in the US that changed the way that some things were done. So it had a kind of factual impact on some of the things that we were doing in our case while it was still ongoing. And the issues were also -- even though the liability case here was little bit different, through the remedy, there was an interoperability element as well. So the kinds of issues were very similar. We met, I think, for a period of a few years twice a year. We would come here once a year and the DOJ would come to see us in Brussels. And it was invaluable just to exchange theories, to understand where each side was coming from, and to develop a trust and understanding over the years. So I think it’s fair to say that even though the issues were different, there wasn’t always perfect agreement, but it was a relationship that we valued and that really brought a lot in terms of understanding where we were coming from and in my view, at least, having a solution that was not necessarily exactly the same, didn’t lead to an overt situation of conflict, which, again, in my view was greatly facilitated by these contacts. The second example is the kind of policy and case area standard essential patterns. This goes back to even Rambus with the FTC where we had a similar case ourselves in Europe. But more generally and more recently, or five, six years ago, I guess, this issue of injunctions based on standard essential patterns. The FTC -- I think it was 2013 you had the consent decree with Motorola and we had a prohibition decision against Motorola a year earlier on the same kind of issue. And, again, take a step back or try and remember, this is a very -- I don’t know if “novel” is the word, but it was a controversial area of law. And perhaps it still is. For us in Europe, at least, we adopted a prohibition decision, which said that injunctions against willing licensees, based on standard essential patterns where you’ve given a commitment to license on FRAND terms, are an abuse. That was confirmed by our Supreme Court, the European Court of Justice, in a separate case, but the principle was confirmed. But it was, and still is, a subject that attracts a great deal of attention and a great deal of controversy. There were many people -- and that debate still goes on. But there were many people saying, how can you possibly do this? There are some people saying that. But against that background of that -- again, I’m not sure if “novel” is the word, but a very complex, important issue, it was really invaluable to have both the case coordination with the FTC on Motorola, where we had regular contact in terms of meetings and calls, and then on the policy level with both the FTC and the DOJ, where essentially we were on the same page in terms of developing this policy and this approach towards how we deal with the specific issue of injunctions based on standard essential patterns. I think particularly because it was an area that was so complex and controversial, my personal view is that we all mutually benefitted from being able to really share these experiences and insight. So those are two examples and there are many more, but it’s really, for me, a manifestation of just concrete case teams talking to each other regularly, being open, exchanging ideas, evidence if appropriate, if you have the waiver, and it’s been a great benefit.

MS. COPPOLA: Yeah, I think interplay of the case level and the policy level is a really good point that really deepens greatly the discussion and understanding. Fiona, we’ve heard kind of rah-rah-rah cooperation and lots of pluses on cooperation. You’ve talked about how cooperation doesn’t mean getting to the finish line at the exact same time. What are some of the practical limitations on cooperation from a private practitioner’s perspective?

MS. SCHAEFFER: Well, I think we start out with very different procedural frameworks in different jurisdictions. We happen to have probably two of the closest jurisdictions here in Canada and the US, on process. But others look quite different in terms of the amount of prefiling work in a merger context that needs to be done, the time that that will take, the uncertainty around when you actually get on the clock in say Europe or China versus in the US. And all of that leads to, you know, in many cases, if not an impossibility, certainly, all of the stars would have to align for the timing to actually be the same. So we are working with different processes, different timetables, and I think we have to accept that the timing is not going to be the same. The question is, can we make it sufficiently compatible that we can have substantive discussions at a similar time frame, particularly on remedies. That will, you know, minimize inefficiencies and maximize the ability to have a consistent compatible remedy. And even when you’ve done all of those things and there’s been I think an earnest, concerted goodwill effort to align those discussions, you’re inevitably going to have cases where, you know, something surprising happens like one jurisdiction decides, yes, we like the remedy package that everyone else has agreed to, but lo and behold, we think there ought to be a different purchaser in our jurisdiction, which shall remained unnamed, than in the rest of the world, which as you can imagine when you’re dealing with products that are sold around the globe under one brand name can be pretty challenging. I’m not sure that cooperation could have changed that result. But you’re always going to have these unpredictable aspects of a multijurisdictional merger review that can occur right up until the end. What can we do to enhance practical day-to- day cooperation, I think your earlier question. A lot of the time when we talk about cooperation, it’s really in a bilateral context. You’ve got parties speaking with Agency A, parties speaking with Agency B, parties speaking with Agency C, and then similar conversations happening between those agencies who are essentially, you know, in some cases, playing Chinese whispers, but reporting on conversations they’ve had trying to find common approaches, common understandings. I wonder sometimes can we expedite -- streamline those conversations to have fewer bilateral conversations and more multilateral conversations in the same room. Just as when we are faced with a conduct or a merger investigation ourselves, trying to understand better the facts, what’s going on, where, we often have multijurisdictional, multicounsel calls. I don’t see why we couldn’t do more of that involving multiple agencies on the same video conference or the same phone call. There is a limit, of course, where you get these huge conversations that, you know, are impossible to schedule, and no one says anything because there’s 100 people on the line. So yes, that level of cooperation can be unwieldy, but I think we can do more to explore having simultaneous conversations. I think there’s been a mindset probably maybe more in the minds of -- well, maybe equally in the minds of the companies and counsel, as well as agencies, that everyone needs to have their kind of process, everyone needs to have their separate meeting, everyone needs to have the merger explained to them, you know, Australian or in Canadian or in -- (Laughter.)

MS. SCHAEFFER: But I don’t think that that’s necessarily the case, not for all meetings or forms of cooperation. So that’s something I think we could do more with.

MS. COPPOLA: That’s a really interesting idea. I mean, we’ve heard earlier, and on this panel, that there’s a lot of joint third party calls. I know at the FTC we have limited experience with joint party calls, but that’s a really neat idea and it’s certainly very 21st Century if it’s video. So thinking I guess -- so those are some of the practical limitations on the practitioner’s side. Thinking about some of the practical limitations on the agency’s side, it seems like the one that has appeared a few times in this discussion is confidentiality. Nick has already talked a little bit about what we can exchange when we don’t have waivers. So what falls within the realm of public or agency nonpublic information, so, as he said, theories of harm, market definition, kind of basic thinking on remedies. But, of course, those discussions are much more robust when we’re saying because of evidence of X, Y, and Z. Marcus, you had mentioned that you have an information gateway in Australia. What does that mean and what can the FTC learn from that?

MR. BEZZI: So an information gateway is a legislative provision that enables our Chairman to make a decision to release material that we’ve obtained through some confidential process either a compulsory power, exercise of a compulsory power, requiring compelled production of information, or otherwise, and it enables us to release that information without the consent of the party whose information it is. So it’s something we don’t do lightly and it’s something we don’t do often. And it’s something we’ll only do if there are -- if we’re really 100 percent confident that people are going to comply with the conditions that are imposed on the release of the information. So if we’re dealing with a trusted agency, and we are confident that they will maintain the confidentiality of the information that we disclose, then we have got the capacity to release it. As I say, it doesn’t happen very often. There will be more than just a set of conditions imposed. There’s usually a fairly rigorous process that we put in place to ensure that the conditions are complied with. So there’s reporting. And after the agency that’s received the information has finished with it, we’ll require them to give the information back. And I should say this is a very similar provision to a provision that the CMA has in the UK and that Canada has. And it, as I say can be -- it’s more useful in being there than in being used, if I could put it that way.

MS. COPPOLA: Right, right. Thanks, Marcus. I think, Jeanne, I’ll have you answer next because he’s just talked about your information gateway. Does this have an impact on kind of target parties, third parties’ willingness to provide information, and what kind of notice do they get before you share the information? What are some of the consequences?

MS. PRATT: Yeah, I mean with great -- it’s -- we have to take that very, very seriously. So when we’re using our gateway provision, we have very transparent policies to stakeholders. It’s written in a confidentiality bulletin what the conditions of sharing are. Every time we do a market contact, it is disclosed to that market contact that we do have the information gateway, that we may use it obviously in an international merger context, that we may share it with our counterpart agencies and discuss it where they have waivers. So I think the lesson for us is transparency is really important to maintain your reputation because without our reputation to maintain the confidential information, we won’t be able to do our job and the effectiveness of our agency is diminished. It’s fundamental, frankly, to how we do our job. So in our confidentiality bulletin, we do set out the conditions quite clearly and we do say that we will seek to maintain the confidentiality of information through either formal international instruments or assurances from a foreign authority. And the Bureau also requires as a condition that the foreign authority’s use of that information is limited to the specific purpose for which it was provided. So our information gateway provides that we can use it for enforcement of the Act, which, for us, means if we’re working on a common case with an agency with whom we have a foreign -- or an instrument and we’ve got those certainties that that is when we will do so. Where there is no bilateral-multilateral cooperation instrument in force, the Bureau does not communicate information protected by Section 29 unless we are fully satisfied with the assurances provided by the foreign authority with respect to maintaining the confidentiality of the information and the uses to which it will be put. And this, again, is where trust becomes key for us, we’re not going to put our reputation and our effectiveness on the line if we are not certain that those conditions will be satisfied. In assessing whether to communicate the information and the circumstances, we do also consider the laws protecting confidentiality in the requesting country, the purpose of the request, and any agreements or arrangements with the country or the requesting authority. If we are not satisfied that it will remain protected, it is not shared. Likewise, when foreign authorities are typically communicating confidential information to the Bureau, they are doing so on the understanding that the information will be treated confidentiality and used for the purposes of administration and enforcement of the Act. I should mention, too, we do have another provision in our Act which ensures that all inquiries conducted by the Competition Bureau are conducted in private and that provides some legislative certainty that it will be maintained in confidence on our end. So I guess I would say the gateway for us, while similar to Australia, I think has been used a little bit different and that mostly is a result of practice, our transparency, the market having a lot of faith in our practices and procedures, to maintain confidentiality. And without it, I don’t think it would be as effective.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks very much. Nick, turning to the European Commission, I mean, you have sort of the highest level of information sharing and investigative assistance with the ECN and you also have things like the second generation agreement that you have with Switzerland. Do you want to share a little bit of your experience with those?

MR. BANASEVIC: Sure. Again, the ECN is -- again, I don’t want to say it’s the highest level of cooperation, but everything is open there.

MS. COPPOLA: Right, right.

MR. BANASEVIC: There’s automatic transmission of everything, there is -- I mean, that’s a consequence of what the EU or the EEA is in a sense. So it’s critical that we share up front information just about who’s got what case so that we can allocate them most efficiently and to coordinate on issues of substance because we’re all applying the same law. In terms of outside the ECN and outside the EEA, I -- as a general point, I think the main issues have been outlined in terms of maybe there being different incentives -- I’m talking outside Switzerland, which I’ll mention briefly now in terms of different incentives maybe between mergers and conduct. I take Fiona’s point about -- concern about disclosure in another jurisdiction. I understand that. I think the instances that I have referred to in some conduct cases have rather been a concern about not wanting agencies to discuss theories of harm even. So that’s a different thing. And in terms of Switzerland, actually, I think it resonated. I mean, we have a second generation agreement with Switzerland, which means in practice that we can transmit evidence between us without consent. Obviously, we’re talking about where the same conduct has been investigated. And what we found -- and this resonated when Marcus was talking about it -- is actually we haven’t needed to use -- to invoke those provisions. And it’s actually encouraged that that framework, and maybe the trust or the mechanics of how things work, have encouraged information provision without needing to use the formal provisions under the agreement. So I think that’s an interesting point.

MS. COPPOLA: Right, yeah, yeah. Fiona, you’ve touched on this a tiny bit already, but what are -- can you bring out a little bit some of the concerns that agencies might have either about these types of agreements or about granting waivers in the nonmerger context? What are some of the red flags?

MS. SCHAEFFER: From a merging party’s perspective or from an investigated party’s perspective?

MS. COPPOLA: From both.

MS. SCHAEFFER: Yeah, I think there is -- certainly in terms of the exchange of confidential information as opposed to permitting agencies to discuss case theories, I think there is an understandable sense that if an agency really needs that kind of information and has a right to obtain that kind of information domestically, then they should just ask the parties for it directly rather than get it -- you know, it sounds a bit pejorative -- but through the back door. I do think, on the merger side, the incentives are greater to provide it anyway. But I think, also, at the same time, the actual exchange of confidential information is relatively rare and I think its use is overrated. I think the biggest benefit that I’ve seen from cooperation from a private party’s perspective -- and I suspect the agencies might agree with this -- is just being able to discuss the case, the theories, the investigation, the legal analysis, the basic understanding of how the products work, what third party concerns are without, you know, revealing any confidential information. And all of that dialogue I’ve found in all of the deals I’ve worked on, and maybe I’ve just been lucky, but I can’t recall a single case where we facilitated cooperation and we suddenly found that Agency C, that had been going on its normal course of business and investigating without big concerns, suddenly had a new theory of the case that was going to put them into an extended review. I’ve always had the opposite. Namely, Agency C, when we have facilitated contact with Agency A and B, typically has been relieved to know that Agency A and B is investigating these particular various areas, that it doesn’t necessarily have to cover all of the same ground. And I have found that it’s expedited, not prolonged, the review or started new lines of attack that didn’t exist before. And I think that could also hold true, although it’s less tested in conduct cases where some of the theories of harm are just more wacky or radical. And I think agencies that have been at it for a longer period of time, in that investigation or generally, may be able to help other agencies understand what are the real issues here, what are some of the false paradigms or paths that, you know, we looked at five years ago but discovered really weren’t productive.

MS. COPPOLA: Right, right. Sometimes that thinking can go the other way, too. The learning can go the other way. I think I want to circle back on your point on forbearance. But before I do that, does anyone have any reactions to what Fiona was saying about information sharing and thinking of it as a backdoor way when it’s done -- the confidential information between agencies?

MS. PRATT: Well, I think it’s -- I guess from my perspective it would -- I’ve never seen that risk become realized. Because each of our agencies are very concerned about the confidential forecast that we have, that we want to minimize the risk of that because, otherwise, it would be a reputational risk for us doing our job.

I do think a lot of the value, unless you are doing a joint investigation where there is evidence that you need in another jurisdiction, most of the value of that cooperation can come from not providing confidential, competitively-sensitive third party information. So if you have waivers or you have a gateway provision, that facilitates that cooperation quite well.

MR. BEZZI: I agree with that. I mean, parties know -- if ever we are using an information gateway, and it happens rarely, but they know. It’s not done secretly; it’s done in their knowledge; it’s done transparently.

MS. COPPOLA: Fiona, I may have misinterpreted you. When you were talking about backdoor, I think you meant even in the presence of waivers. You didn’t mean out extralegally, right?

MS. SCHAEFFER: Yeah, I meant exchange of confidential information, where there are waivers, but the agency couldn’t get the information directly.

MS. COPPOLA: Right, right. Nick, do you have anything you wanted to add here?

MR. BANASEVIC: Nothing spectacular.

MS. COPPOLA: Okay. I have one question from the audience, but before we -- and I encourage other questions. So now is the time to write them. But before we get to that, I wanted to talk, I think because at the end of the day, the immediate goal in a particular case of cooperation is making sure that you don’t have conflicting remedies, that you have remedies that are, if not identical, at least interoperable. And we’ve heard some discussion today that, you know, there’s been a lot of agencies, more agencies looking at things than there used to be. And sort of the question about should we be giving more attention to cooperation, in the form of forbearance, than coordination. And, Fiona, if you could start that discussion for us.

MS. SCHAEFFER: Sure. Well, we were having a discussion at lunch and Marcus mentioned the magic pudding story. I said to Marcus, will this audience understand the magic pudding story? And looking around the room, I see there are bemused faces. Well, it’s a story we all told our children growing up in Australia where, as a child, I really enjoyed it. The magic pudding just never stopped producing pudding until the entire town was flooded with porridge and pudding everywhere. Well, no agency is a magic pudding. Agencies have limited resources. They can’t just keep on producing. And I think from an agency perspective, as well as from the parties’ perspective, one always ought to ask what are the incremental benefits of this additional investigation we’re doing over -- you know, on top of what five other agencies are doing? What are the incremental benefits of a remedy that is the same or virtually identical to what another agency has obtained as opposed to taking our limited resources and using them for investigations and transactions that these other five agencies couldn’t review? And it’s been interesting to me just to look at how different agencies have been allocating their resources over time. Brazil is an agency that comes to mind. When I come to think about some of the cartel investigations, the merger investigations they focused on maybe ten years ago, my anecdotal perception is that there was a lot more of an international dimension to them than there is today. I think some of the larger Brazilian investigations have involved, in more recent times, transactions in the educational sector and the health care sector, in the domestic financial services sector. And their bang for their buck in those investigations I think is significantly higher than it would be if they were another me-too in a global transaction. Having said that, is it realistic to say if the US is looking at a deal or the EU is looking at a deal or Canada and they’ve got remedies, that everyone else should just back off? No, of course not. But I think at each stage of the investigation, it’s useful for the agencies to ask themselves, what is the incremental value and what are the areas of this transaction that may be specific to our jurisdiction that the other people aren’t covering? What are the holes that we need to fill potentially for our jurisdiction that the others aren’t worrying about as opposed to retreading the same ground? And as counsel to parties to transactions and conduct investigations, we ought to be asking ourselves those same questions about what are the specific impacts of this transaction or our conduct on this jurisdiction.

MS. COPPOLA: Mm-hmm, mm-hmm. That’s very interesting. Thank you, Fiona. Marcus, what did you say to the magic pudding discussion and what are your thoughts on the topic more generally?

MR. BEZZI: Well, exactly, we are not a magic pudding. We have limited resources. We’ve got to use them intelligently. So we’ve got to focus on the things that are most important within our jurisdiction.

Fiona raised the cartel issue and international cartels. We could all spend all of our time doing international cartels and nothing else. But -- and they’re important, don’t get me wrong. Many international cartels have a big impact in Australia. But we’ve explicitly said in our enforcement and compliance policy, which sets out our priorities for enforcement and is adjusted each year, that we will focus on international cartels that have an impact on Australians and Australian consumers. It’s the detriment in Australia that is the focus. If there’s no detriment in Australia, then we’ll let other agencies deal with those cartels.

Similarly, in mergers, we will focus on the detriment in Australia. We’ll focus on a remedy that can fix the problems we have identified in Australia, and if it happens that that remedy has already been devised somewhere else and the remedy somewhere else will completely fix the problem in Australia, then what we can do is accept what’s called an enforceable undertaking, which is essentially a statutory promise, which requires the parties to give effect to whatever the commitment that’s being given outside Australia is, give them -- they are required to give that commitment to us in Australia, and that essentially is -- deals with the problem that we’ve got jurisdiction to deal with.

MS. COPPOLA: Right. That allows you to have something that you can enforce of there is a –

MR. BEZZI: We’ve got something that we can enforce.

MS. COPPOLA: Right.

MR. BEZZI: And we’re recognizing that our resources will be managed in a better way.

MS. COPPOLA: Better focused. Right, right.

Jeanne?

MS. PRATT: Well, I guess speaking -- the Canadian approach in mergers in particular, we actually have accepted and gone probably one step further than what Marcus was saying and not even put a consent agreement in place in Canada because we have been satisfied that the remedy mostly in the United States addresses our concern.

The only way we get there, though, is, again, to have really close cooperation. We need to understand the scope of the issues, we need to understand the scope of the remedy, and, frankly, we also need to have trust in the agency that they are going to enforce that remedy at the end of the day, which we have full faith in the US Department of Justice and the US Federal Trade Commission to do that.

One of the primary reasons that we do use comity and forbearance is because we think it allows a more effective and streamline remedy that’s least intrusive to business, avoids conflict, and simultaneously allows us, as a very small agency north of the 49th Parallel, to focus our scarce enforcement resources.

So two examples I would give, we had one where we accepted the US FTC’s remedy in the GSK/Novartis merger in 2015. So we were satisfied there. We didn’t even need a me-too registered consent agreement. We were fully satisfied that the scope of the remedy addressed our concerns and would address the anticompetitive effects on the Canadian market.

The second one, which is more recent, was a case we cooperated on with the US Department of Justice, UTC/Rockwell last year, which was an aerospace systems review, and in that case just to underscore the importance of the cooperation to get us to the comity, we cooperated closely with the US DOJ and the DG Comp throughout the review.

There were waivers in place in both those jurisdictions by all the parties. We shared information and conducted some joint market calls. We discussed issues of market definition, presence of global effective remaining competition and remedies. And we determined that there were likely a substantial lessening of competition in two product markets for pneumatic ice protection system and trimmable horizontal stabilizers actuators, THSAs.

And Rockwell’s relevant business -- they were located primarily in the US and Mexico and these products were distributed on a global basis. So we got to a place where we didn’t have any assets relevant to the remedy in our jurisdiction and we were fully satisfied that the remedy addressed our concerns.

The other side of comity, which, you know, I’m not sure the parties appreciated at the time, Commissioner Boswell talked about our simultaneous filing of litigation in the Staples/Office Depot merger a couple of years ago. Part of that was we did not see the need to file an injunction the same day because we knew that there would be an injunction proceeding by the FTC. So the parties did actually benefit because they didn’t have to face an injunction proceeding north of the border as well as south of the border. We benefitted greatly from cooperation in that case.

Again, we had one of our Department of Justice lawyers come and was seconded and was actually part of the FTC counsel team to see how the injunctive process worked, to see the evidence go in, and at the end of the day, the injunction in the United States took care of the issues in Canada. So they still benefitted. They probably didn’t like it because it was in the form of litigation, but it could have been worse.

MS. COPPOLA: You know, in GSK/Novartis, it’s interesting, we did a lot of trilateral calls in that case with the EC, Canada, and the US. And that’s not obvious in a pharmaceutical case where you expect the markets to be very different. But, certainly, in trying to understand the markets, I think the third parties were very happy to have one call and not three. So that’s an interesting case.

Nick, we haven’t heard from you yet on remedies coordination or forbearance. Is there anything you want to add?

MR. BANASEVIC: The first thing I want to say is I’m going to look up, after this panel, what a trimmable horizontal actuator is.

(Laughter.)

MS. SCHAEFFER: I was going to say, that’s what you need cooperation for. It takes three agencies to understand that.

MS. COPPOLA: Right.

MR. BANASEVIC: And there was another adjective there as well. But, anyway, for us, I mean, if you look at mergers and conduct, of course, we have an obligatory notification system in mergers, once you reach certain thresholds. I mean, you have to reason every decision whether it’s a clearance of remedies or a prohibition. So there’s no discretion as such in that sense. But, of course, there’s great benefit in the cases that we’re looking at more closely and we’ve got many examples that have been mentioned in terms of coordinating on the substance, on the timing, and, if appropriate, the remedies and the potential impact and how that might read across. Where we have the discretion in terms of choosing which cases we do and which cases we don’t,

with scarce resources that any public body has by definition, is a number of things, but not least the impact -- the potential impact in our market, in our jurisdiction. We’re responsible for a jurisdiction of 500 million people.

So I think it’s likely if we believe that there is an issue in that market that we are going to want to look at it more closely, even if there are similar investigations going on or not around the world. So I think that’s the first thing to say.

That being said, I think I understand as well the argument, particularly in the sector for which I’m responsible, the high-tech sector, companies operate globally, so the issue is raised, well, could you have different solutions in different jurisdictions? I actually think this risk of diversion is somehow overblown in terms of just perception. It’s not that this is going around willy- nilly in every case in every sector. I think that’s slightly a perception issue and, actually, more generally illustrates my core point in the benefits of really having up front, preemptively with partner agencies, discussions about the approach to be taken.

Again, it’s not that one can or need guarantee precisely the same outcome, given the differences possibly in even conduct. I mean, some of our markets are national for some of the products even if the companies are operating globally. But I think there is a great benefit in this up-front shaping, sharing thoughts to, to the extent possible, minimize the risk of divergences.

MS. COPPOLA: We have a question from the audience about the ongoing investigations of the tech platforms. The EC, the Japan Fair Trade Commission, are already investigating these firms. What’s important to effectively investigate, including cooperation? Another question, what you can expect from the FTC, but as I’m not a speaker, but a moderator, I think I will punt that to what can you expect from the investigating agencies. And, Nick, according to this week’s Economist, you guys are the determinators. So I’m going to let you answer that question.

MR. BANASEVIC: Is that a type of actuator? A determinator?

MS. COPPOLA: There’s these like big guns and, yeah, sledgehammers.

MR. BANASEVIC: I’m not allowed to say anything about ongoing cases, so –

MS. COPPOLA: Right.

MR. BANASEVIC: So what was the –

MS. COPPOLA: The question was, how can -- I think the question is, how can those agencies effectively investigate? What kind of joint –

MR. BANASEVIC: I think I have to go back to my examples from the past. I think that’s the most instructive thing. I mentioned two. There have been others where in the US and in the -- particularly the same cases or the same issues have been looked at. In some, we’ve had waivers; in others, we haven’t. I don’t want to monopolize the last 2 minutes and 30 seconds.

MS. COPPOLA: Right.

MR. BANASEVIC: It’s really been of tremendous use. And it’s my opening statement, it’s not an add-on. It can really -- for these big cases where they’re very important, sensitive, and you want to get it right, there’s just a great benefit in sharing experiences, knowledge, with colleagues who have the same -- who want to get it right as well and get the best result. So it’s a very good thing that we shouldn’t have just as just a bolt-on.

MS. SCHAEFFER: Can I just add on to that? Maybe the Cooperation 2.0 for digital platform investigations is not necessarily between antitrust agencies, but between antitrust agencies, consumer protection, and privacy agencies. Because -- and I think the term “forbearance” might come in there as well, in that not everything involving a digital platform is necessarily an antitrust issue.

And we certainly have a lot of intermelding of privacy and consumer protection concerns, as we see with the Australian ACCC report. And how do we jointly investigate those issues or maybe have antitrust not be the primary investigation and enforcement mechanism there?

MS. COPPOLA: We are very close to the end of the session. So I guess, Marcus and Jeanne, starting with you, and if there’s time, we’ll move on to Fiona and Nick. What are your last words of advice for the FTC in the area of enforcement cooperation?

MS. PRATT: I’m not sure I have advice. I think, as you’ve heard, I have found or we have found that gateway provision in our legislation to be particularly useful and, you know, it might be interesting to consider that in your context and whether it’s appropriate.

And I would just want to lastly say thank you very much for having us here. I know the FTC can continue to rely on the Canadian Competition Bureau’s commitment to continuing to build upon the solid cooperation foundation that we have and in particularly dynamic fast-moving markets that we have today. I think the business case for cooperation is only getting stronger and will only get better from here.

MR. BEZZI: So I won’t advise the FTC, but the advice that I’ll give to the ACCC is that we need 21st Cooperation and mutual assistance frameworks.

MS. COPPOLA: Thanks.

Nick, Fiona, anything to add?

MR. BANASEVIC; I’ve said it all, I don’t want to repeat. I think it’s don’t underestimate it, use it, and benefit from the interactions and the knowledge you can have with colleagues.

MS. COPPOLA: Well, thank you all very much for your insights. These have been tremendous. Coming into the panel, I wasn’t sure I would learn anything since I spend most of my day engaged in enforcement cooperation. But I did. So bravo. Thanks so much for participating. I think we’ll move on to the next panel now.

(Applause.)

(Brief break.)

INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT AND EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES: ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE CASE STUDY

MS. WOODS BELL: Hello, everyone. Welcome back from break. I’m Deon Woods Bell. I’m a lawyer in the Office of International Affairs at the Federal Trade Commission. I’m so excited to be here today.

It is my extreme pleasure to introduce Julie Brill. Julie is Corporate Vice President and Deputy General Counsel for Global Privacy and Regulatory Affairs at Microsoft. Of course, everybody in the building knows her as a former Commissioner and friend of the Federal Trade Commission. She’s widely recognized for her work on internet privacy and data security issues related to advertising and financial fraud.

She’s received so many awards we could not list them all in her bio, nor could I enumerate them here today. One of my favorite is the Top 50 Influencers on Big Data in 2015. And one of my favorite memories is working together with her in Brussels on these same issues. Thank you, and please welcome Julie.

(Applause.)

MS. BRILL: Thank you, Deon. I remember that event, too, and it was great to work with you there. And it’s really an honor to be here today to contribute to today’s important discussions on the FTC’s international role in a world transformed by digital technology.

I am particularly excited to begin this session today that focuses on artificial intelligence. We have a truly distinguished panel, some of whom are -- here they come -- of experts from around the world, who will explore the implications of artificial intelligence at a time when innovative technology calls for innovative thinking about policy and regulation.

Today’s discussion comes at a critical moment. During the past few years, how people work, play, and learn about the world has been transformed. Industries have been reinvented. New ways to treat diseases emerge almost every day. Driving all this change are groundbreaking technologies like cloud computing that enable us to collect and analyze data scale that has never before been possible. But what we have experienced so far is just the beginning.

Rapid progress in the field of artificial intelligence has delivered us to the threshold of a new era of computing that will transform every field of human endeavor. Already, almost without us noticing, AI has become an essential part of our day- to-day lives. It powers the apps that help us get from place to place, predict what we might want to buy, and protects our systems from malware and viruses.

This is just a hint of what’s possible. Artificial intelligence has the potential to improve productivity, drive economic growth, and help us address some of the most pressing challenges in accessibility, health care, sustainability, poverty, and much more. Yet, history teaches us that change of this magnitude has always come with deep doubts and uncertainty.

I believe that if we are to realize the promise of artificial intelligence, we must acknowledge these doubts and work to build trust, trust that technology companies are working not just to maximize profits, but to improve people’s lives; trust that we use the personal data we collect safely, responsibly, and respectfully. But as we are learning the hard way, in the technology industry, trust is fragile.

In the wake of the Cambridge Analytica scandal and the spectacle of tech industry experts being hauled before Congress to answer for their business practices, people wonder if technology and technology companies can be trusted. The truth is that technology is neither inherently good nor bad. Cloud computing and artificial intelligence are just tools that people can use to be more productive and effective, basically the equivalent of the first Industrial Revolution’s steam engine. But it is also true that because technology has never been more powerful, the potential impact, both positive and negative, has never been greater.

So where does trust come from? It begins when companies like Microsoft, that are at the forefront of the digital revolution, acknowledge that in this time of sweeping change, we must consider the impact of our work on individuals, businesses, and societies. Today, we must ask ourselves not just what computers can do, but what they should do. This means there may be times when we have to be willing to decide that there are things that they should not do as well.

To guide us as we weigh these decisions at Microsoft, we have adopted six ethical principles for our work on artificial intelligence. It starts with transparency and accountability. We know that trust requires clear information about how AI systems work, coupled with accountability for the people and companies who develop them. We believe strongly in the principles of fairness which means AI must treat everyone with dignity and respect and without bias.

Our fourth principle encompasses reliability and safety, particularly when AI makes decisions that affect people. We also are strongly committed to the principles of privacy and security, for people’s personal information. And we believe that AI solutions should be built using inclusive design practices that affect the full range of experiences of all who might use them.

Now, while these principles are at the center of every decision we made about artificial intelligence research and development, we also know that the issues at stake are simply too large and too important to be left solely to the private sector. Trust also requires a new foundation of laws.

Here in the United States, right now, one area of the law demands our attention above all others. That area is privacy. Because so much of who we are is expressed digitally and so much of how we interact with each other and the world is captured and stored in digital form, how people think about privacy has changed. For more than a century, our understanding of this most fundamental human right has been shaped by the definition set forth by the great American legal thinker and fathers of the FTC, Louis Brandeis, who defined privacy as the right to be let alone. That right will always be important. But, by itself, it is no longer sufficient.

Now, modern privacy law must embrace two essential realities of life in the digital age. The first is that people expect to use digital tools and technologies to engage freely and safely with each other and with the world.

The second is that people expect to be empowered to control how their personal information is used. Whether we protect these two things is one of the critical challenges of our time. What we need is a new generation of privacy policies that embrace engagement and control without sacrificing interoperability or stifling innovation.

This is why we were the first company to extend the rights that are at the heart of the European general protection regulation, and we extended those to our customers around the world, including the right to know what data is collected, to correct that data, and to delete it or take it somewhere else. And over the last year, we’ve seen

the rise of a global movement to adopt frameworks that enhance consumer control mechanisms modeled on those required by Europe’s GDPR.

With participants here from India, Kenya and Brazil, this panel of distinguished guests is a perfect illustration of this important trend. Brazil’s general data protection law, which goes into effect a year from now, includes provisions that extend new privacy rights to individuals and mandates new requirements for notification, transparency, and governance for organizations. All of these requirements that will be new in Brazil are tightly aligned with GDPR.

In India and Kenya, new privacy laws modeled on GDPR are also currently moving through the legislative process.

Here in the United States, the California Consumer Privacy Act includes provisions that give people more control over their data. And Washington State is considering legislation based on consumer rights protected by GDPR as well.

As part of Microsoft’s commitment to privacy, we offer a dashboard where people can manage their privacy settings. Since May of last year, more than 10 million people around the world have used this tool, with the number growing every day. I think it is telling that while millions of people around the world are using our tool, our data demonstrates that US citizens are the most active in controlling their data. All of this should serve as a wakeup call for US companies and the US Government.

At Microsoft, we believe it is time for United States to adopt a new legal framework for access and use of data that reflects our new understanding of the right to privacy. To achieve this, I believe a strong US framework -- frankly, a strong privacy framework anywhere in the world -- should incorporate four core elements, transparency through robust standards that include and appropriate privacy statements within user experiences, individual empowerment that grants people meaningful control of their data and privacy preferences, corporate responsibility that is built on rigorous assessments that weigh the benefits of processing data against the risk to individuals whose data may be processed, and strong enforcement and rule-making. And, here, that means in the United States that should be all embedded at the US Federal Trade Commission.

While updated privacy laws are essential to building trust, new uses for artificial intelligence are emerging that will require special consideration for their own specific regulations. Facial recognition is a prime example. This technology has shown that it can provide new and positive benefits when used to identify missing children or diagnose diseases. But there is a real risk that -- there is a real risk which includes the danger that it will reinforce social bias and be used as a surveillance tool that encroaches individual freedom.

This is why Microsoft has called on the US Government to regulate facial recognition with a focus on preventing bias, preserving privacy, and prohibiting government surveillance in public places without a court order. It is also one of the reasons we have testified in support of the Washington State privacy bill, which includes provisions that address many of these important concerns about facial recognition technology.

We need laws that place appropriate guardrails to ensure that companies don’t take unfair advantage of individuals or violate people’s fundamental rights. That is the essence of trust. We believe that guardrails can be designed in ways that facilitate global interoperability and promote innovation so we can all work together to continue to harness the potential of the digital revolution to improve people’s lives and drive economic growth.

This will require a commitment from all of us to engage in ongoing discussions and consultations that span governments and sectors. This means it’s essential for the US Government and its agencies, including the FTC, to engage in a broad range of discussions with other governments on digital issues like we are doing with the honored guests here today.

Just as important are gatherings like this that will bring people together from around the world to explore policy approaches to new emerging technologies like artificial intelligence. More than 100 years ago, when Brandeis defined the right to be let alone in his famous Law Review article, The Right to Privacy, he described, with great eloquence, the ongoing process by which rights evolve as humanity progresses and how the law adopts and adapts in response.

“Political, social, and economic changes entail the recognition of new rights,” Brandeis wrote, “and the law in its eternal youth grows to meet demands of society.” Brandeis was moved to write this article because of the impact of photography, mechanical printing presses, and other disruptive new technologies of his time.

Today, we stand at the beginning of a new era of disruption and change, a time of technology- driven transformation that will require the recognition of new rights and the development of new laws to meet the demands of our societies. It’s a task that will ask us to convene in hearings like this one and in forums, meetings and conferences around the world to grapple openly and honestly with a host of issues that will touch on virtually every aspect of our lives and our businesses.

We, at Microsoft, look forward to being a part of these conversations and to working in close partnership with all of you to make sure that technology moves forward within a framework of respect for human dignity and with the goal of serving the greater good. Thank you.

(Applause.)

INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT AND EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES: ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE CASE STUDY (PANEL)

MS. WOODS BELL: Thank you. Thank you very much, Julie, for those remarks. You outlined very well the tremendous potential of AI and that’s one of the reasons why we’re here today, to discuss them even further.

Well, I’m still Deon Woods Bell. And my co- moderator here is Ellen Connelly, an Attorney Adviser in the Office of Policy and Planning. And, together, we want to welcome you to our panel on international engagement and emerging technologies focusing on artificial intelligence.

You’re in for a treat. As Julie described, we have quite a panel assembled for you here today. This session is a follow-on to the hearings in November, which focus on the same topic. And following the November meetings, colleagues here at the FTC -- and a lot of influence from Ellen here -- said we should go deeper, we should focus on international issues. So today, we’re thrilled to have this impressive group of international officials, practitioners, and academics here and on the line from Harvard.

During this panel, we’ll touch upon a variety of issues and we’ll go deeper and let you see what these colleagues have to offer. We won’t go into great detail on their bios, but we couldn’t resist showing off a little bit for you and letting you know who they are.

On the line from Harvard is Chinmayi Arun. She’s a fellow at the Harvard Berkman Klein Center for Internet & Society, and she’s the Assistant Professor of Law at the National Law University in Delhi. Her chair is there and her picture will soon be on the line as she can hear us right now.

Next, we have, again, he’s still James Dipple-Johnstone. You saw him earlier. He’s a Deputy Commissioner from the UK’s ICO, and prior to the ICO, he was in the Solicitor’s Regulatory Authority where he had been Director of Investigation and Supervision, and he’s not from the ministry of no.

(Laughter.)

MS. WOODS BELL: Next, Francis Kariuki, Director General of the Competition Authority of Kenya. Mr. Kariuki is the founding member and the current Chairman of the African Competition Forum. He’s also an expert in FinTech.

Next over to Marcela. She’s a partner at VMCA Advogados in Brazil focusing on data protection and antitrust. She’s served as Advisor and Chief of Staff for the President of Brazil’s famous CADE.

Over to Isabelle. She’s President and Member of the Board Autorité de la Concurrence, as she was previously the President of the Sixth Chamber of the Conseil d'État, the French Supreme Administrative Court, and other governmental capacities.

And last but not least, we have Omer Tene. Omer is a Vice President and Chief Knowledge Officer at the International Association of Privacy Professionals. He wears so many hats, we couldn’t list them either. He’s an Affiliate Scholar at Stanford and Senior Fellow at the Future of Privacy Forum.

So, before we get started, we want you to be open to looking to questions. We have our colleagues here. We’re going to have short introductory comments from each colleague, and then after this, we’ll have a moderated panel discussion, and we hope that you enjoy.

MS. CONNELLY: Great. So I will start us off by giving each of our panelists a chance to make a brief introductory statement to describe for us the key competition, consumer protection and privacy issues that they see emerging around the artificial intelligence field. We will start with Chinmayi.

MS. ARUN: Thank you for having me. It’s such an honor to be a part of this panel, and I’m happy to see that the FTC is listening to voices from around the world.

If I were to give you the three or four big highlights of how I would think about AI and the right to privacy in data sets in India, it would be -- the first would be in terms of global companies, usually American companies, operating in India versus Indian companies operating both in India, as well as elsewhere in places like Kenya.

The second would be in terms of data because, as you know, it’s a very big country and it provides large and rich data sets that can be complicated in ways that I’m going to describe to you shortly.

The third is that perhaps some of you have heard that there has been a rich and, again, contentious conversation about the right to privacy in India in the context of state surveillance, but also in the context of state protection. So we’ve had a major case on the right to privacy, and we’ve also got a data protection bill, which is very interesting, so I’m going to describe the highlights of that for you.

And the final -- because we’re discussing this in such an international context is this sort of almost a clash of jurisdictions that arises from the Indians, for example, floating proposals of data localization in certain contexts, but also the ways in which India is coping with norms that are emerging from the US and from Europe.

So the first is very simple, which is that as you know the major technology platforms, like Facebook and WhatsApp and Google, are used extensively in India and they have huge user bases in India, but there are also many Indian citizens that access them and have their data on them. Although I will focus a little bit more on the information platforms, it’s good to know that Airbnb, Uber, and other technology platform companies are also offering services in India.

So our legislation, our new privacy act, our proposed amendment to our information technology act are all coping now with the very real idea that there are many Indian citizens whose lives are affected by these technologies that are designed elsewhere based on rules from elsewhere. At the same time, they’re also trying to keep Indian companies competitive because there are Indian companies offering similar services in India.

Our NITI Aayog, which is sort of our version of the planning commission, has described India as the AI garage for 40 percent of the world, and they’ve got a strategy paper on AI. As you know, the big data set question, it’s complicated because, again, India is looking at it as a way towards machine learning, but there are also concerns of data protection and privacy that arise in that context.

And the big tension really is that, on one hand, the policymakers want to leverage this and have this data and sort of learn from it and, on the other, of course, there’s the question of the privacy rights of Indian citizens and especially of marginalized citizens, people who are not able to assert their rights in the consumer forum.

And the final -- so none of this is law yet, but both in the proposed privacy legislation and in the proposed IT amendment act, the question has arisen of whether foreign companies with a sizable user base in India should be asked to localize data in India. So both these proposed legislations have suggested that these companies might be made to host their data sets in India, and I think that that also is cause for concern if they’re thinking about it from a privacy and data protection point of view.

I’m going to stop here. I just wanted to flag all of this in case anyone has questions later. Thank you so much.

MS. CONNELLY: Thank you very much for those really interesting comments.

We’ll move down the line and next up is James.

MR. DIPPLE-JOHNSTONE: Thank you very much and thank you. It’s an honor to be here on this panel with you today.

So I’ve got four issues. And I think the first, which has already been very ably covered, which is that about public trust and the risk of losing public trust in the rollout of AI systems and the role of regulators needing to work together both within country, but also internationally, which is my second theme.

This is an emerging area, one where I don’t think we still have a clear picture of what AI’s impact on our societies will be. And with that in mind, it’s important that regulators keep themselves up to date, keep relevant and work together with others. And that’s very much the approach we’ve taken in the UK. The ICO has a remit in some of the technology, but actually, we work very closely with, for example, colleagues at the Competition and Market Authority, the Financial Conduct Authority, the Center for Data Ethics and Innovation and the Alan Turing Institute to look at the common issues that face us all and how we can improve our regulation.

An important third issue is to look at not only whether the data’s held -- and when we talk about big data sets, we sometimes think of the big tech companies, but in the UK context, the state has large and valuable data sets, too. The UK National Health Service and the UK Education Service have very comprehensive data sets with millions of data points, which would be of value to a number of organizations around the world.

And we are seeing increasing use of AI in the public sector as a model of efficiency and to help us all strive to meet our budget considerations. AI is being looked at for use to decide whether UK citizens are likely to commit crimes, which crimes should be investigated, who’s likely to reoffend, who’s likely to pay their rent on time. And that is beginning to introduce issues of fairness, accountability, and transparency.

And so that’s why, as a regulator, we are really keen to keep abreast of developments. So we are putting a lot of effort into doing that. We are recruiting post-doctoral researchers to help us look at how to regulate AI. We’ve taken new powers to examine AI’s use and look at AI systems in practice and in operation and we’ve reconfigured the office to set up an entire part of the office that will just focus on innovation and technology.

I said it this morning; I’ll keep saying it. We’re not the ministry of no, but we think the GDPR provisions around data protection impact assessments and our work around, for example, regulatory sand boxes and innovation hubs with other regulators. We’re trying to encourage early dialogue to tease through some of these issues together, because I’m not sure any one of us has the perfect answer for all the scenarios.

MS. CONNELLY: Thank you.

Francis?

MR. KARIUKI: Thank you, Ellen and Deon. It’s a pleasure for me to be here and to share my thoughts in regard to AI.

And my view is as a competition and consumer protection regulator, what am I worried about? And I have about four issues, and these are transparency and information asymmetries. What I would like to say is that AI has both created positive and external -- externalities. And in terms of competition and consumer protection, there’s an argument which has been found that they bring more efficiency in terms of prices and greater transparency compared to the traditional retail sales channels, and this is an inquiry which has been conducted in Europe and it has shown that. And, also, they provide additional benefits on these platforms. For example, AI [indiscernible], such platforms could improve choice and value for consumers.

However, the other challenge of -- an encountered challenge in regard to we don’t appreciate the criteria behind the decisions of AI, they are only known to the designer of these systems, and, therefore, the merchant or the consumer may not be aware of how the system has been created and it’s allocating the prices. So there’s the risk of intentional design of the systems in favor of certain participants in the market.

And this could be quite catastrophic in the continent I come from where there’s a lot of market concentration, and, therefore, the companies which are in Africa then can expand their space by being biased against the consumers in Africa.

The other areas that’s also barriers or pathways to entry are, in Kenya, I’ve seen some positive externalities especially AI has enabled new innovations, where in Kenya we have seen recent expansion of financial services for people who are not included in the financial services. And, therefore, companies have been enabled to expand financial services through lending positions for previously people who were not captured in the financial services and also in the insurance sector.

The challenge I see also from the AI is the line between open and proprietary data. AI often creates what is called, in fair data, an individual that is not perhaps -- not factual but opinion based, and, therefore, we may not get an optimal position for the product which is being offered or the prices which are being offered in the market. And, therefore, the challenge going forward is how do we determine data which is a product and which data is an input, and this choice of where the line is will have significant competitive implications as we move.

Besides information asymmetry, I’ve seen AI can also be used in consumer protection issues, discrimination based on other social issues like the region where people come from or even race, as I had mentioned earlier, and these are some of the things where we need, as regulators, both competition and consumer, to look before we fly, because right now is that we are flying blindly and we might be flying into a storm.

MS. CONNELLY: Thank you.

Marcela?

MS. MATTIUZZO: So first of all, thank you, Deon and Ellen, for the invitation for the FTC, to you both for inviting me personally, but also Brazil to be a part of this discussion.

A lot of the points that have been raised here focus on procedural challenges of AI. What I would like to also mention is perhaps the difficulty in both attaining international convergence in these topics, not necessarily laws that are exactly the same, but that point in the same direction, and also convergence within the many fields of law that are connected to AI.

So here, at the FTC, we’re naturally discussing antitrust, consumer protection, and privacy. And even when we’re speaking only of these three areas of law, we can already see that sometimes the objectives of these policies are not always totally convergent.

So, what I would like to -- just to give an example, I guess, that is comparing privacy and antitrust that to me is very clear. What technology has enabled today is for many companies to unilaterally access information and AI has also allowed that information, this data, to be combined and used efficiently for many purposes. So now we can know who bought something, how that person bought it, and so forth, and create, for example, consumer profiles.

Perhaps from an antitrust point of view, one of the solutions to a potential problem of unilateral abuse of this information would be to share the databases with other companies. So we would have many companies that have the access to the same set of data and, therefore, of course, we can have problems of collusion. But leaving that aside, we would have a level playing field.

If, however, we look from the consumer or data protection side of the discussion, we may come to a very different conclusion. And we may come to realize that, perhaps, consumers don’t want their data shared across different platforms and shared across many companies. So, naturally, both objectives pursued by either antitrust or privacy and consumer protection agencies, in the case of Brazil specifically as I hope to make clear throughout my interventions, we are at very different development stages. When it comes to antitrust and consumer protection, we are much more developed and, as you may be aware and former Commissioner Julie Brill already mentioned, in regards to data protection legislation, our specific legislation was approved just last August, August 2018, and has not yet come into force.

So building policy that brings all of these areas of law together in a coherent fashion to address AI challenges seems to me to be a particularly important goal and a particularly important topic for us to focus on.

MS. CONNELLY: Thank you, Marcela. Isabelle?

MS. DE SILVA: Thanks a lot to the FTC for the invitation. I’m really glad to be here.

I would like to say that, for me, the main point is that we think data, artificial intelligence, algorithm, are really key to the competitive process and that is why we must look at it closely. Of course, those processes affect also the way the state is being run. They also affect and they change society, but for us, the main issue is how do they affect the competitive process and the way companies do business?

So what we see is that we really need to invest a lot more than before in understanding what is going on in the market, in the companies, and also to use all our different tools, legal tools, to gain a better understanding and also to give better vision to the market, and I will try to illustrate this with some examples.

So first of all, we use sector inquiries. That is a tool that is common among agencies. But how do we use it? We really take a lot of time to understand a specific market that we deem to be interesting or a process. So that’s what we did with online advertising last year, and, of course, we had very interesting dialogue and followup with Australia, who has finished a very interesting report on online advertising.

And in this way, we get a lot of information from companies. They are sometimes reluctant to give information, but we have the legal framework that enable us to get a lot of information.

And also we give information back to the market. I think this is really something interesting because some sectors are moving so fast that even the companies engaging in the sector don’t always have the big picture, and that is something that has been deemed very useful in the field of what we did about programmatic advertising and the way it’s being run because it’s a very complex and new ecosystem.

Another type of tool we are using very much is the joint studies with other agencies. That’s what we did with the CMA about closed ecosystem in 2014, what we did with the German agency in 2016 about big data, and what we are doing right now about algorithm still with the German agency.

So what is the interest of this? It’s really to show the impact we see that algorithms have on the competitive process and maybe I will tell about a little bit more about this later. This is really something where we draw about, of course, what the experts have written about algorithm, but also in a very practical manner how do companies use algorithm and how does it change the way they do business in the market?

And, finally, another tool that we use is the conference or hearings like you have today at the FTC, but really focusing on what is new, for example, in the field of algorithm. Last year, we had lots of meetings with scientists, sociology experts about what is new about algorithm and also about companies. For example, we had meetings with Google and Facebook to know how they use algorithm in a very precise and detailed matter to help us to understand how it’s being used.

#### Innovation is high because of large firms.

Thomas A. Lambert 20, Wall Chair in Corporate Law and Governance and Professor of Law at the University of Missouri School of Law, J.D. from the University of Chicago, “The Case Against Legislative Reform of U.S. Antitrust Doctrine,” University of Missouri School of Law Legal Studies Research Paper No. 2020-13, 05-12-2020, https://ssrn.com/abstract=3598601

Reduced Investment in Innovation? Proponents of reforming the antitrust laws have also pointed to reductions in the level of venture capital investment as indicative of a market power crisis in the U.S. Such investment slowed somewhat after 2015 (though it appears to have rebounded),27 and some venture capitalists have referred to a “kill zone” around dominant technology firms.28 The claim is that big technology firms either usurp small firms’ innovations or use their power over platforms to force smaller firms that need access to those platforms to sell out at a bargain price. Venture capitalists are less inclined to invest if such outcomes are likely, and innovation therefore suffers.

The evidence, however, does not support the view that lax U.S. antitrust is reducing innovation. Eleven of the top sixteen global spenders on research and development are U.S. firms,29 and six of those—Amazon, Alphabet, Intel, Microsoft, Apple, and Facebook—are “Big Tech” firms that have been accused of acting like monopolists. Moreover, the U.S. is home to half (178 of 356) of the world’s so-called “unicorn” companies—i.e., private companies valued at greater than $1 billion. China ranks second with 90, and all of Europe contains a fraction of that number. The U.S. also far outpaces Europe in terms of venture capital spending, with 10,777 investments in 2019 worth $136.5 billion compared to Europe’s 5,017 deals worth $36.3 billion. Finally, the fact that large American technology firms are purchasing smaller producers of complementary products or technologies in no way implies that the incentive to innovate is thereby reduced. Many start-ups are organized with the goal of being bought out by a larger firm; a buy-out option allows the initial investors in a company to enjoy a return on their investment without the company’s having to incur the significant cost of a public offering.

#### The status quo solves---anti-trust is dynamic and applied consistently---changes destroy balance.

Thomas A. Lambert 20, Wall Chair in Corporate Law and Governance and Professor of Law at the University of Missouri School of Law, J.D. from the University of Chicago, “The Case Against Legislative Reform of U.S. Antitrust Doctrine,” University of Missouri School of Law Legal Studies Research Paper No. 2020-13, 05-12-2020, https://ssrn.com/abstract=3598601

To understand why the current antitrust statutes should be left as they are, it may help to revisit what the antitrust laws do and how they do it. Experience has taught us that market competition is the best way to secure low prices, high-quality goods and services, and product variety. Not only do competitive markets benefit consumers, they also ensure that society’s productive resources are put to their highest and best ends.2 The goal of antitrust, then, is to promote consumer and societal welfare by ensuring that markets remain competitive.3

To secure that goal, antitrust polices the situations in which competition breaks down, chiefly monopoly (or monopsony), where there is a single seller (or buyer), and collusion, where nominal competitors agree not to compete. The two primary provisions of the Sherman Act correspond to these two paradigmatic defects in competition: Section 1 aims at collusion, declaring “[e]very contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce ... to be illegal”; Section 2 seeks to prevent firms from attaining monopoly power, making it illegal to “monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire ... to monopolize” any market. Section 7 of the Clayton Act bolsters these provisions by forbidding business combinations (mergers and asset acquisitions) that are likely to cause a substantial lessening of competition in a market.

Given the sparseness of the statutory text (not to mention the fact that a literal reading of some provisions is nonsensical),4 determining the scope of antitrust’s prohibitions has largely been left to the judiciary. Indeed, most commentators view the antitrust statutes as an implicit delegation of authority to the federal courts to craft a common law of competition, one that evolves according to our ever-expanding learning about the effects of different business practices.

The courts have responded by positing (mainly) standards—not rules—for determining the legality of challenged business practices.5 They have interpreted Section 1 of the Sherman Act to forbid agreements that unreasonably restrain trade and Section 2 to condemn unreasonably exclusionary unilateral conduct by firms possessing market power.6 In both cases, reasonableness is determined by assessing the actual or likely effect of the challenged behavior on quality-adjusted market output. For a few business behaviors (e.g., naked price-fixing among competitors), experience has shown that the conduct is always or almost always output-reducing, so such practices are deemed per se unreasonable. Such ex ante rules, though, are the exception in antitrust; for the most part, the law consists of ex post standards that require case-by-case assessment. Courts have posited different standards for different types of business behavior, calibrating them (by adjusting the elements of liability, burdens of proof, available defenses, etc.) to reflect judicial experience and economic learning.

In so doing, the courts have been rightly concerned with the costs of the standards they set. One set of relevant costs consists of the welfare losses that result when a standard makes a mistake on liability. The behaviors antitrust polices—agreements that restrain trade, single-firm acts that make life hard for rivals, business combinations—can sometimes enhance market output and sometimes reduce it.7 If a legal standard mistakenly allows conduct that is, on net, anticompetitive, consumers will face higher prices and/or reduced quality, and a deadweight loss will occur. But if the standard wrongly forbids conduct that is, on balance, procompetitive, market output will be lower than it otherwise would be and, again, consumers will suffer. Both false convictions (Type I errors) and false acquittals (Type II errors) generate losses.

In addition to these so-called “error costs,” regulating competitive mixed bags entails significant costs of simply deciding whether contemplated or actual conduct is forbidden or permitted. Such “decision costs” must be borne by business planners (who are attempting to avoid liability), by litigating parties (who are trying to prove their case), and by adjudicators (who must decide whether the law has been broken).

Type I error costs, Type II error costs, and decision costs are intertwined. If courts try to reduce the risk of false conviction (Type I error) by making it harder for a plaintiff to establish liability or easier for a defendant to make out a defense, they will increase the risk of false acquittal (Type II error). If they ease a plaintiff’s burden or cut back on available defenses to reduce false acquittals, they will tend to enhance the social losses from false convictions. And if they make the rule more nuanced in an effort to condemn the bad without chilling the good, thereby reducing error costs overall, they enhance decision costs. As in a game of whack-a-mole, driving down costs in one area will cause them to rise elsewhere.

In light of the inevitable and intertwined costs that will result from any effort to police market power-creating conduct, antitrust standards should be crafted so as to minimize the sum of error and decision costs. The institutions charged with crafting antitrust policies—under the status quo, the courts—should not strive to prevent every anticompetitive act, to allow every procompetitive one, or to keep the rules as simple as possible. In keeping with Voltaire’s prudent maxim, “the perfect is the enemy of the good,” they should eschew perfection along any single dimension in favor of overall optimization. Such an approach ensures that antitrust accomplishes as much good as possible.

As I have elsewhere documented, this prudent approach has largely been embraced by the U.S. Supreme Court in recent years.8 Time and again, the Court has examined the economic learning on different business practices and crafted “structured” rules of reason aimed at separating the procompetitive wheat from the anticompetitive chaff, while keeping decision costs in check. For some practices (e.g., tying) the legal rules have not caught up with economic understanding, but the system as a whole is sound, and one would certainly expect the doctrine to evolve in a salutary direction. With respect to mergers and other business combinations, the judicial precedents are less sound, largely because few merger decisions are appealed to allow for an updating of controlling precedents in light of current economic understanding. In the merger context, though, the federal enforcement agencies (the Federal Trade Commission and the Antitrust Division of the U.S. Department of Justice) have taken the lead in updating the standards so as to minimize the sum of error and decision costs; the agencies’ enforcement guidelines, crafted with an eye toward optimizing antitrust interventions and regularly updated to reflect new economic learning, have been extremely influential among the lower courts and have largely remedied the deficiencies in controlling precedents.

To summarize this section, any effort to regulate potentially market power-creating conduct (collusion, exclusionary conduct, business combinations) is sure to create some losses in terms of errors (wrongful acquittals of harmful behavior and wrongful convictions of beneficial conduct) and administrative costs. The approach currently prevailing under the federal antitrust laws—an output-focused, standards-based, common law approach under which courts craft policies in light of evolving understandings of economics and with an eye toward minimizing the sum of error and decision costs—is generally working well.

#### No Internal Link---Nowhere in their Schmidt ev does it say winning the race is reverse causal---OBOR and their warrants are all alt causes.

#### No impact to authoritarianism---Trump’s populism, Putin revisionism, and Kim missile tests thump OR prove it’s overblown---They have no scenario for escalation.

#### Big companies are inevitable

Steve Denning 21, Senior Contributor at Forbes, formerly held management positions at the World Bank, “Why Biden’s War On Big Tech Is Misguided,” Forbes, 07-11-2021, https://www.forbes.com/sites/stevedenning/2021/07/11/why-bidens-attack-on-big-tech-is-misguided/?sh=42b3681261e0

We are living in a new economic age—the age of digital—and digital giants are an emblem of this fact. They reflect the immense benefits and revenue that digital can generate, in the exponential growth that digital enables and in the competitive threat they represent to traditionally managed firms.

Bigness is an inherent in the digital economy. “In markets with highly scalable assets,” write Haskell and Westlake write in Capitalism Without Capital, (Princeton, 2017) “the rewards for runners-up are often meager. If Google’s search algorithm is the best and is almost infinitely scalable, why use Yahoo’s? Winner-takes-all scenarios are likely to be the norm.” Breaking up Google into ten little Googles, requiring users to go to a different little Googles for different kinds of searches, would destroy much of the ease and convenience of Google.

#### Courts circumvent.

Newman 19, University of Miami School of Law professor and a former attorney with the U.S. Department of Justice Antitrust Division. (John, 4-5-2019, "What Democratic Contenders Are Missing in the Race to Revive Antitrust", *Atlantic*, https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2019/04/what-2020-democratic-candidates-miss-about-antitrust/586135/)

But the federal courts represent a massive stumbling block for any progressive antitrust movement. Reformers have identified two paths forward; both lead eventually to the court system. The first is relatively moderate: appoint regulators who will actually enforce the laws already on the books. Warren’s plan rests in part on this straightforward idea. The second, more audacious path requires congressional action to amend and strengthen our current laws. Warren’s call for a new ban on technology companies’ buying and selling via their own platforms falls into this category. Klobuchar has also proposed new antitrust legislation that would make it easier to block harmful mergers and acquisitions. But no matter its content, enforcing a law requires persuading a judge. When it comes to U.S. antitrust laws, federal judges—not Congress, and not regulatory agencies—are the ultimate arbiters. The Department of Justice Antitrust Division, one of our two public enforcement agencies, files all its cases in federal courts. And although the Federal Trade Commission (the other) can decide cases internally, the inevitable appeals eventually end up in court as well. No matter how strongly worded a law may be, ideologically driven judges can usually find a way around enforcing it. The cyclical history of U.S. antitrust law is proof that judges wield nearly limitless institutional power in this area. Soon after Congress passed the Sherman Act in 1890, a conservative Supreme Court began to chip away at its effectiveness. Congress reacted in 1914 with the Clayton Act, which sought to ban anticompetitive mergers. In 1936, at the height of the New Deal era, Congress passed the Robinson-Patman Act, which prohibits price discrimination (charging different prices to different buyers for the same product). These laws were actively enforced for decades. But starting in the late 1970s, conservative judges began to erode the Clayton Act. Today, megamergers among competitors such as Bayer and Monsanto barely raise eyebrows. So-called vertical mergers, which combine suppliers and their customers, are now all but immune from antitrust enforcement—see the DOJ’s failed challenge to AT&T and Time Warner’s recent tie-up. Under the business-friendly Roberts Court, the Robinson-Patman Act has similarly been eviscerated. By the 2000s, the ideas of the conservative Chicago School had become mainstream in antitrust circles. Robinson-Patman, a law intended to protect small businesses, was an easy target for Chicago School critics narrowly focused on efficiency and low consumer prices. Their attacks found a receptive audience in the federal judiciary. Among insiders, Robinson-Patman is now known as “zombie law.” It remains on the books, but regulators no longer bother trying to enforce it. If Democrats want to change antitrust law, they will first and foremost need to change the judges who apply it. Yet none of the 2020 contenders championing antitrust reform have even mentioned the possibility of appointing progressive antitrust thinkers to the bench. Conservatives, on the other hand, have long recognized the centrality of antitrust to broader questions about the apportionment of power in society. In his seminal work, The Antitrust Paradox, Robert Bork called antitrust a “microcosm in which larger movements of our society are reflected.” Battles fought in this arena, Bork wrote, “are likely to affect the outcome of parallel struggles in others.” Strong antitrust enforcement keeps powerful monopolies in check. Toothless antitrust allows the unlimited accumulation of corporate power. Recognizing the high stakes, the Republican Party has gone to great lengths to appoint conservative antitrust experts to the federal judiciary. Bork was an antitrust professor at Yale Law School before becoming an appellate judge in 1982.\* Frank Easterbrook practiced and taught antitrust before donning the black robe in 1985. Douglas Ginsburg served as the head of the Justice Department’s Antitrust Division before he became a federal judge in 1986. None of the three managed to join the Supreme Court, but not for lack of trying. Reagan nominated both Bork and Ginsburg to serve as justices, though Ginsburg withdrew and Bork was famously rejected after a contentious Senate hearing. And whom did the GOP select as its very first U.S. Supreme Court nominee during the Trump Administration? None other than Neil Gorsuch, who practiced antitrust law for more than a decade before joining the Tenth Circuit. Even as a judge, Gorsuch continued to teach a law-school course on antitrust until his confirmation to the Supreme Court in 2017. Once upon a time, progressives demonstrated similar concern about judicial treatment of antitrust laws. Justice Stephen Breyer, for example, served as special assistant to the head of the DOJ Antitrust Division before his judicial appointment by President Jimmy Carter. Earlier still, Justice John Paul Stevens was an antitrust lawyer, scholar, and professor before his appointment to the bench. Today’s Democratic 2020 hopefuls seem to have forgotten the lessons of history. Their antitrust proposals focus exclusively on appointing the right regulators and amending our current statutes. These are right-minded ideas, but they overlook the central role judges play in our political system. There is an old saying in the legal community: “Hard cases make bad law.” That may be true, but it is just as often the case that bad judges make bad law. Real antitrust reform will require more than regulatory and legislative tweaks; it will require the right judges.

### Advantage 2

#### Antitrust is developed by adjudication---that creates an ineffective, unpredictable, and unenforceable patchwork

Rohit Chopra 20, Commissioner of the Federal Trade Commission, and Lina M. Khan, Academic Fellow at Columbia Law School, Counsel to the Subcommittee on Antitrust, Commercial, and Administrative Law, US House Committee on the Judiciary and Former Legal Fellow at the Federal Trade Commission, “The Case for "Unfair Methods of Competition" Rulemaking”, University of Chicago Law Review, 87 U. Chi. L. Rev. 357, March 2020, Lexis

I. THE STATUS QUO: AMBIGUOUS, BURDENSOME, AND UNDEMOCRATIC?

Antitrust law today is developed exclusively through adjudication. In theory, this case-by-case approach facilitates nuanced and fact-specific analysis of liability and well-tailored remedies. But in practice, the reliance on case-by-case adjudication yields a system of enforcement that generates ambiguity, unduly drains resources from enforcers, and deprives individuals and firms of any real opportunity to democratically participate in the process.

One reason that antitrust adjudication suffers from these shortcomings is that courts analyze most forms of conduct under the "rule of reason" standard. The "rule of reason" involves a broad and open-ended inquiry into the overall competitive effects of particular conduct and asks judges to weigh the circumstances to decide whether the practice at issue violates the antitrust laws. Balancing short-term losses against future predicted gains calls for "speculative, possibly labyrinthine, and unnecessary" analysis and appears to exceed the abilities of even the most capable institutional actors. 1 Generalist judges struggle to identify anticompetitive behavior 2 and to apply complex economic criteria in consistent ways. 3 Indeed, judges themselves have criticized antitrust standards for being highly difficult to administer. 4 And if a standard isn't administrable, it won't yield predictable results. The dearth of clear standards and rules in antitrust means that market actors face uncertainty and cannot internalize legal norms [\*360] into their business decisions. 5Moreover, ambiguity deprives market participants and the public of notice about what the law is, thereby undermining due process--a fundamental principle in our legal system. 6

Decades ago, former Commissioner Philip Elman observed that case-by-case adjudication "may simply be too slow and cumbersome to produce specific and clear standards adequate to the needs of businessmen, the private bar, and the government agencies." 7Relying solely on case-by-case adjudication means that businesses and the public must attempt to extract legal rules from a patchwork of individual court opinions. Because antitrust plaintiffs bring cases in dozens of different courts with hundreds of different generalist judges and juries, simply understanding what the law is can involve piecing together disparate rulings founded on unique sets of facts. All too often, the resulting picture is unclear. This ambiguity is compounded when the Supreme Court assigns to lower courts the task of fleshing out how to structure and apply a standard, potentially delaying clarity and certainty for years or even decades. 8

#### Attempting to use antitrust as a tool to reduce inequality stunts economic growth and enforcement

Carl Shapiro 18, Professor of the Graduate School at the Haas School of Business and the Department of Economics at the University of California at Berkeley, “Antitrust in a time of populism”, <https://faculty.haas.berkeley.edu/shapiro/antitrustpopulism.pdf>, February 27th, 2018

I take as my starting point the core principle guiding antitrust enforcement in the United States that has served us well for so many years: antitrust is about protecting the competitive process so consumers receive the full benefits of vigorous competition. None of the empirical evidence relating to growing concentration and growing corporate profits, which I have discussed at length in this article, provides a basis for abandoning this core principle. Applying this core principle, we understand quite well how to use antitrust to protect competition and consumers, at least conceptually. This enterprise centers on the economic notion of market power, and relies heavily on industrial organization economics. Of course, there is always room for improvement in practice, and right now that means stricter merger enforcement and vigilance regarding acts of monopolization, as already discussed. The fundamental danger that 21st century populism poses to antitrust in that populism will cause us to abandon this core principle and thereby undermine economic growth and deprive consumers of many of the benefits of vigorous but fair competition. Economic growth will be undermined if firms are discouraged from competing vigorously for fear that they will be found to have violated the antitrust laws, or for fear they will be broken up if they are too successful. Populism poses this danger in part because today’s populism is in many ways animated more by concerns about the political power of large corporations than by concerns about their economic power. In this sense, there is a mismatch between 21st century populism and modern antitrust. More specifically if antitrust policy is altered to serve goals other than the economic goals of promoting competition and protecting consumers, the core principle articulated above would have to be modified or abandoned. Examples of alternative goals for antitrust are the goal of having more small local businesses, the goal of raising wages or employment, and the goal of reducing the political power of large businesses. I am deeply concerned about the current state of the American political system, and specifically about the political power of large corporations and the cramped definition of corruption that has been adopted by the Supreme Court.65 Readers may be interested to learn that the original Chicago School, back in the 1920s and 1930s, which was associated with Frank Knight and Henry Simons, was also deeply concerned about the political power of large organizations. Here is what Henry Simons had to say in 1934: “The representation of laissez faire as a merely do-nothing policy is unfortunate and misleading. It is an obvious responsibility of the state under this policy to maintain the kind of legal and institutional framework within which competition can function effectively as an agency of control. Thus, the state is charged, under this ‘division of labor,’ with heavy responsibilities and large ‘control’ functions: the maintenance of competitive conditions in industry”…66 Simons went on (p. 4) to state that “the great enemy of democracy is monopoly, in all its forms”. As a practical matter, I do not see that antitrust can do a great deal to solve the deep problems we face relating to the political power of large corporations and the corruption of our political system. And I fear that assigning those massive tasks to antitrust will be counterproductive. My hope is that the intense energy of populism will empower stronger antitrust enforcement policy in the United States with the goal of protecting the competitive process and channeling more of the benefits of economic growth to consumers. To protect and preserve this mission, it is important to recognize that antitrust cannot be expected to solve the larger political and social problems facing the United States today. In particular, while antitrust enforcement does tend to reduce income inequality, antitrust cannot and should not be the primary means of addressing income inequality; tax policies and employment policies need to play that role. Nor can antitrust be the primary policy for dealing with the corruption of our political system and the excessive political power of large corporations; that huge problem is better addressed by campaign finance reform, a better-informed citizenry, stronger protections for voting rights, and far tougher laws to combat corruption. Trying to use antitrust to solve problems outside the sphere of competition will not work and could well backfire.

#### No empirical data to support a linkage between antitrust and inequality

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Second, consider the empirical evidence supporting a causal link between antitrust enforcement and inequality. This proffered link remains, thus far, largely theoretical and undeveloped empirically. Populist papers advocating for increased antitrust as a salve for increasing inequality do not offer empirical support for their preferred course of treatment. But other authors have begun to explore empirically the proposed tie between antitrust enforcement and inequality. Wright et al., for instance, present time series regressions relating measures of inequality to antitrust enforcement measures. While the authors acknowledge the standard reasons that these analyses cannot isolate, with confidence, causation, their work provides a useful foray into the empirical basis for the notion that antitrust enforcement and inequality are causally linked. The authors examine data from DOJ investigations between 1984 and 2016, focusing first on merger investigations, given the populist emphasis on merger activity, and then broadly examine all DOJ investigations for a more general enforcement measure. Their results do not offer “much empirical evidence to substantiate the proposed correlation between antitrust enforcement activity and inequality.” Populist claims that increased antitrust enforcement is necessary to combat a severe trend of increasing inequality thus appear to be overstated. While inequality appears to be increasing, the rate is likely more modest than the populist movement implies. And there is, as of yet, no empirical support for the underlying proposition that increasing antitrust enforcement levels would slow, stop, or reverse this trend.

#### COVID thumps

Felix Salmon & Stef W. Kight 21, Salmon is the chief financial correspondent at Axios, Stef is a politics reporter at Axios, “Coronavirus has inflamed global inequality”, <https://www.axios.com/coronavirus-global-economy-inequality-worse-bde02bc8-a35f-4dd7-ad15-d386cb149c9d.html>, January 25th, 2021

History will likely remember the pandemic as the "first time since records began that inequality rose in virtually every country on earth at the same time." That's the verdict from Oxfam's inequality report covering the year 2020 — a terrible year that hit the poorest, hardest across the planet. Why it matters: The world's poorest were already in a race against time, facing down an existential risk in the form of global climate change. The coronavirus pandemic could set global poverty reduction back as much as a full decade, according to the World Bank. The virus has exposed how work, health and education systems create additional disadvantages for low-income families and minorities, while allowing the most wealthy to recover quickly. A majority of nearly 300 economists from around the world surveyed by Oxfam said they expect the virus to exacerbate gender (56%), racial (66%), wealth (78%) and income (87%) inequalities in their countries. By the numbers: The number of people living on less than $1.90 per day might have increased by more than 400 million last year. That's a larger number of people than the population of the U.S. More than 3 billion people had no access to healthcare, and three quarters of workers had no access to sick pay. Meanwhile, the wealth of the top 1% continued to rise. How it works: In the U.S., 22,000 Black and Latino Americans would still be alive today if their coronavirus mortality rates were the same as white people — a result of unequal access to health care, disproportionate rates of preexisting conditions and other compounding disadvantages in communities of color, as Axios has reported. The biggest banks on Wall Street are reporting record earnings, while more than four in five small businesses have been hit hard by the pandemic.

#### Global populism won’t cause war

Niall Ferguson 16, Senior Fellow at Stanford University’s Hoover Institution, Senior Fellow of the Center for European Studies at Harvard University, and Visiting Professor at Tsinghua University in Beijing, Autumn 2016, “Populism as a Backlash against Globalization - Historical Perspectives,” <https://www.cirsd.org/en/horizons/horizons-autumn-2016--issue-no-8/populism-as-a-backlash-against-globalization>

Such comparisons between the United States today and Germany in the 1930s are becoming commonplace. As a professional historian, I would like to offer what seems to me a better analogy. Our Tranquil Times Journalists are fond of saying that we are living in a time of “unprecedented” instability. In reality, as numerous studies have shown, our time is a period of remarkable stability in terms of conflict. In fact, viewed globally, there has been a small uptick in organized lethal violence since the misnamed Arab Spring. But even allowing for the horrors of the Syrian civil war, the world is an order of magnitude less dangerous than it was in the 1970s and 1980s, and a haven of peace and tranquility compared with the period between 1914 and 1945. This point matters because the defining feature of interwar fascism was its militarism. Fascists wore uniforms. They marched in enormous and well-drilled parades and they planned wars. That is not what we see today. So why do so many commentators feel that we are living through “unprecedented instability?” The answer, aside from plain ignorance of history, is that political populism has become a global phenomenon, and established politicians and political parties are struggling even to understand it, much less resist it. Yet populism is not such a mysterious thing, if one only has some historical knowledge. The important point is not to make the mistake of confusing it with fascism, which it resembles in only a few respects. Rather like a television chef, I shall describe a recipe for populism, based on historical experience. It is a simple recipe, with just five ingredients. Five Ingredients for A Populist Backlash The first of these ingredients is a rise in immigration. In the past 45 years, the percentage of the population of the United States that is foreign-born has risen from below 5 percent in 1970 to over 13 percent in 2014—almost as high as the rates achieved between 1860 and 1910, which ranged between 13 percent and an all-time high of 14.7 percent in 1890. So when people say, as they often do, that “the United States is a land based on immigration,” they are indulging in selective recollection. There was a period, between 1910 and 1970, when immigration drastically declined. It is only in relatively recent times that we have seen immigration reach levels comparable with those of a century ago, in what has justly been called the first age of globalization. Ingredient number two is an increase in inequality. Drawing on the work done on income distribution by Thomas Piketty and Emmanuel Saez, we can see that we have recently regained the heights of inequality that were last seen in the pre-World War I period. The share of income going to the top one percent of earners is back up from below 8 percent of total income in 1970 to above 20 percent of total income. The peak before the financial crisis, in 2007, was almost exactly the same as the peak on the eve of the Great Depression in 1928. Ingredient number three is the perception of corruption. For populism to thrive, people have to start believing that the political establishment is no longer clean. Recent Gallup data on public approval of institutions in the United States show, among other things, notable drops in the standing of all institutions save the military and small businesses. Just 9 percent of Americans have “a great deal” or “quite a lot” of confidence in the U.S. Congress—a remarkable figure. It is striking to see which other institutions are down near the bottom of the league. Big business is second-lowest, with just 21 percent of the public expressing confidence in it. Newspapers, television news, and the criminal justice system fare only slightly better. What is even more remarkable is the list of institutions that have fallen furthest in recent times: the U.S. Supreme Court now has just a 36 percent approval rating, down from a historical average of 44 percent, while the Presidency has dropped from 43 percent to 36 percent approval. The financial crisis appears to have convinced many Americans—and not without good reason—that there is an unhealthy and likely corrupt relationship between political institutions, big business, and the media. The fourth ingredient necessary for a populist backlash is a major financial crisis. The three biggest financial crises in modern history—if one uses the U.S. equity market index as the measure—were the crises of 1873, 1929, and 2008. Each was followed by a prolonged period of depressed economic performance, though these varied in their depth and duration. In the most recent of these crises, the peak of the U.S. stock market was October 2007. With the onset of the financial crisis, we essentially replayed for about a year the events of 1929 and 1930. However, beginning in mid to late 2009, we bounced out of the crisis, thanks to a combination of monetary, fiscal, and Chinese stimulus, whereas the Great Depression was characterized by a deep and prolonged decline in stock prices, as well as much higher unemployment rates and lower growth. The first of these historical crises is the least known: the post-1873 “great depression,” as contemporaries called it. What happened after 1873 was nothing as dramatic as 1929; it was more of a slow burn. The United States and, indeed, the world economy went from a financial crisis—which was driven by excessively loose monetary policy and real estate speculation, amongst other things—into a protracted period of deflation. Economic activity was much less impaired than in the 1930s. Yet the sustained decline in prices inflicted considerable pain, especially on indebted farmers, who complained (in reference to the then prevailing gold standard) that they were being “crucified on a cross of gold.” We have come a long way since those days; gold is no longer a key component of the monetary base, and farmers are no longer a major part of the workforce. Nevertheless, in my view, the period after 1873 is much more like our own time, both economically and politically, than the period after 1929. There is still one missing ingredient to be added. If one were cooking, this would be the moment when flames would leap from the pan. The flammable ingredient is, of course, the demagogue, for populist demagogues react vituperatively and explosively against all of the aforementioned four ingredients. Kearney’s Cause Now, my argument is not intended to dismiss or downplay those elements of Donald Trump’s campaign for President of the United States that have been implicitly, if not explicitly, racist. Nor do I treat lightly the various signals he has given of indifference to, or at least ignorance of, the U.S. Constitution. My point is that these demerits do not by themselves qualify Trump for comparison with Mussolini, much less with Hitler. Rather, I want to argue that Trump has much more in common with the demagogues of the earlier, lesser depression of the late nineteenth century, and that it is to that period that we should look for historical analogies and insights. The best illustration of my case is the now forgotten figure of Denis Kearney, leader of the Workingmen’s Party of California and the author of the slogan “The Chinese Must Go!” Himself an Irish immigrant to the United States—as opposed to the son of a Scottish immigrant and grandson of a German, which is what Donald Trump is—Kearney was part of a movement of nativist parties and “Anti-Coolie” clubs that sought to end Chinese immigration into the United States. The report of the Joint Special Committee to Investigate Chinese Immigration in 1877 gives a flavor of the times. “The Pacific coast must in time become either Mongolian or American,” was the committee’s view. The report argued that the Chinese brought with them the habits of despotic government, a tendency to lie in court, a weakness for tax evasion and “insufficient brainspace […] to furnish [the] motive power for self-government.” Moreover, Chinese women were “bought and sold for prostitution and treated worse than dogs,” while the Chinese were “cruel and indifferent to their sick.” Giving such inferior beings citizenship, the committee’s report declared, “would practically destroy republican institutions on the Pacific coast.” The realities were, it scarcely needs to be said, very different. According to the “Six Companies” of Chinese in San Francisco—corporate bodies that represented the Chinese population of the city—there was compelling evidence that Chinese immigration was a boon to California. Not only did the Chinese provide labor for the state’s rapidly developing railroads and farms; they also tended to improve the neighborhoods in which they settled. Moreover, there was no evidence of a disproportionate Chinese role in gambling and prostitution. In fact, statistics showed that the Irish were more of a charge on the city’s hospital and almshouse than the Chinese. Nevertheless, a powerful coalition of “laboring men and artisans,” small businessmen and “grangers” (the term used to describe those who aimed to shift the burden of taxation onto big business and the rich) rallied to Kearney’s cause. As one shrewd contemporary observer noted, part of his appeal was that he was attacking not just the Chinese, but also the big steamship and railroad companies that profited from employing Chinese labor, not to mention the corrupt two-party establishment that ran San Francisco politics: Neither Democrats nor Republicans had done, nor seemed likely to do, anything to remove these evils or to improve the lot of the people. They were only seeking (so men thought) places or the chance of jobs for themselves, and could always be bought by a powerful corporation. Working men must help themselves; there must be new methods and a new departure […] The old parties, though both denouncing Chinese immigration in every convention they held, and professing to legislate against it, had failed to check it […] Everything, in short, was ripe for a demagogue. Fate was kind to the Californians in sending them a demagogue of a mean type, noisy and confident, but with neither political foresight nor constructive talent. Kearney may have lacked foresight and “constructive talent,” but there is no gainsaying what he and his ilk were able to achieve. Beginning with the Page Law (1875) prohibiting the immigration of Asian women for “lewd or immoral purposes,” American legislators scarcely rested until Chinese immigration to the United States had been stopped altogether. The Chinese Exclusion Act (1882) suspended immigration of Chinese for 10 years, introduced “certificates of registration” for departing laborers (effectively re-entry permits), required Chinese officials to vet travelers from Asia, and, for the first time in American history, created an offense of illegal immigration, with the possibility of deportation as a part of the penalty. The Foran Act (1885) banned all contract laborers from immigrating to America. Legislation passed in the Scott Act (1888) banned all Chinese from travel to the United States except “teachers, students, merchants, or travelers for pleasure.” In all, between 1875 and 1924, more than a dozen pieces of legislation served to restrict and finally end altogether Chinese immigration. No one should therefore underestimate the power of populism. For all his coarseness and bombast, Denis Kearney and his allies effectively sealed the American border along the Pacific coast of the United States; indeed, one cartoon of the time depicted them constructing a wall across the San Francisco harbor. In the 1850s and 1860s, as many as 40 percent of all Chinese emigrants had travelled beyond Asia, though the numbers arriving in the United States had in fact been relatively small (between 1870 and 1880, a total of 138,941 Chinese immigrants came, just 4.3 percent of the total, a share dwarfed by the vast European exodus across the Atlantic in the same period). What exclusion did ensure in the late nineteenth was that Chinese immigration would not grow, as it surely would have, but instead dwindled and then ceased. Ironies Populism, then, is not just a form of political entertainment. One sometimes hears it said of Donald Trump: “Ah, he says wild things on the campaign trail, but when he is president it will be fine.” History suggests otherwise. It suggests that men who threaten to restrict immigration—as well as to impose tariffs and to discourage capital export, as populists generally do—mean what they say. Indeed, populists are under a special compulsion to enact what they pledge in the campaign trail, for their followers are fickle to begin with. In the case of Trump, most have already defected from the Republican Party establishment. If he fails to deliver, they can defect from him, too. Of course, populists are bound eventually to disappoint their supporters. For populism is a toxic brew as well as an intoxicating one. Populists nearly always make life miserable for whichever minorities they chose to scapegoat, but they seldom make life much better for the people whose ire they whip up. Whatever the demagogues may promise—and they always promise “jam today”—populism tends to have significantly more economic costs than benefits. Restricting immigration, imposing tariffs on imported goods, penalizing firms for investing abroad: such measures, if adopted by an American government in 2017, would be almost certain to reduce growth and employment, rather than the reverse. That has certainly been the Latin American experience—and few regions of the world have run the populist experiment more often. The foreign dimension brings us to a final irony. Despite their habitual insistence on narrow national self-interest, populists are nearly always part of a global phenomenon. Globalization had been making enormous strides prior to 1873, with world trade, migration, and international capital flows growing at unprecedented rates. But the crisis of that year generated a populist backlash against globalization that was itself global in its scope. Then, just as now, the principal targets of the demagogues were immigration, free trade, and high finance. Just as the United States excluded immigrants and raised tariffs, so did European countries by adopting similar discriminatory measures. In Bismarck’s Germany, populism was often antisemitic—as it was in the France of the Dreyfus Affair—while in late Victorian Britain it was anti-Irish. Tariffs went up almost everywhere except in Britain. Populism today has a similarly global quality. In June, the British vote to leave the European Union was hailed by populists right across the European continent as well as by Donald Trump in the United States and, implicitly, by Vladimir Putin in Russia. Yielding to the Complicators Let me conclude with a note of qualified optimism. Because populism is not fascism, populist victories should not be construed as harbingers of war—if anything, the opposite is true. In the 1870s and 1880s, populists did achieve significant reductions in globalization: not only immigration restrictions, but also higher tariffs. But they did not form many national governments, and they did not subvert any constitutions. Nor were populists much interested in starting wars; if anything, they lent towards isolationism and viewed imperialism as just another big business racket. In most countries, the populist high tide was in the 1880s. What came next—in many ways as a reaction to populism, but also as an alternative set of policy solutions to the same public grievances—was Progressivism in the United States and socialism in Europe. Perhaps something similar will also happen in our time. Perhaps that is something to look forward to. Nevertheless, we would do well to remember that World War I broke out during the progressive not the populist era. The world today is, as I observed at the outset, in much less turmoil than one might infer from television news. Nevertheless, the economic and social consequences of globalization and the most recent financial crisis sowed the seeds for the populist backlash that we now see. Populists are not fascists. They prefer trade wars to actual wars; administrative border walls to more defensible fortifications. The maladies they seek to cure are not imaginary: uncontrolled rising immigration, widening inequality, free trade with “unfree” countries, and political cronyism are all things that a substantial section of the electorate have some reason to dislike. The problem with populism is that its remedies are wrong and, in fact, counterproductive. What we most have to fear—as was true of Brexit—is not therefore Armageddon, but something more prosaic: an attempt to reverse certain aspects of globalization, followed by disappointment when the snake oil does not really cure the patient’s ills, followed by the emergence of a new and ostensibly more progressive set of remedies for our current malaise. The “terrible simplifiers” may have their day then. But they will end up yielding power to well-intentioned complicators, those more congenial to educated elites, but probably every a bit as dangerous, if not more so.

#### Alt causes to polarization

David Blankenhorn 18, political writer @ American Interest, “The Top 14 Causes of Political Polarization”, American Interest, <https://www.the-american-interest.com/2018/05/16/the-top-14-causes-of-political-polarization/>, May 16th, 2018

Why do Americans increasingly believe that those in the other party are not only misguided, but are also bad people whose views are so dangerously wrong-headed and crazy as to be all but incomprehensible? What has created what Arthur Brooks in his forthcoming book calls a “culture of contempt” in American politics and public life? I’m glad you asked! Behold a bakers-dozen worth of causes. 1. The end of the Cold War. The West’s victory in the Cold War means that (with the possible exception of jihadi terrorism) there is no longer a global enemy to keep us united as we focus on a powerful and cohesive external threat. 2. The rise of identity-group politics. On both the Left and the Right, the main conceptual frameworks have largely shifted in focus from unifying values to group identities. As Amy Chua puts it in Political Tribes (2018): “The Left believes that right-wing tribalism—bigotry, racism—is tearing the country apart. The Right believes that left-wing tribalism—identity politics, political correctness—is tearing the country apart. They are both right.” (Never mind here the possibly problematic usage of the terms “tribe” and “tribal.”) 3. Growing religious diversity. Current trends in American religion reflect as well as contribute to political polarization. One trend is growing secularization, including a declining share of Americans who are Christians, less public confidence in organized religion, and rising numbers of religiously unaffiliated Americans. One consequence is an increasingly open contestation of Christianity’s once-dominant role in American public and political culture. But another trend is the continuing, and in some respects intensifying, robustness of religious faith and practice in many parts of the society. This growing religious divide helps to explain the rise of several of the most polarizing social issues in our politics, such as gay marriage and abortion. It also contributes to polarizing the two political parties overall, as religious belief becomes an increasingly important predictor of party affiliation. For example, among Democrats and Democratic-leaning U.S. adults, religiously unaffiliated voters (the “nones”) are now more numerous than Catholics, evangelical Protestants, mainline Protestants, or members of historically black Protestant traditions, whereas socially and theologically conservative Christians today are overwhelmingly Republican. 4. Growing racial and ethnic diversity. In the long run, increased racial and ethnic diversity is likely a strength. But in the short run—which means now—it contributes to a decline in social trust (the belief that we can understand and count on one another) and a rise in social and political conflict. 5. The passing of the Greatest Generation. We don’t call them the greatest for no reason. Their generational values, forged in the trials of the Great Depression and World War II—including a willingness to sacrifice for country, concern for the general welfare, a mature character structure, and adherence to a shared civic faith—reduced social and political polarization. Thus, note: I didn’t vote for him but he’s my President, and I hope he does a good job. —John Wayne (b. 1907) on the election of John F. Kennedy in 1960 I hope he fails. —Rush Limbaugh (b. 1951) on the election of Barack Obama in 2008 6. Geographical sorting. Americans today are increasingly living in politically like-minded communities. Living only or mainly with like-minded neighbors makes us both more extreme and more certain in our political beliefs. As Bill Bishop and Robert Cushing put it in The Big Sort (2008): “Mixed company moderates; like-minded company polarizes. Heterogeneous communities restrain group excesses; homogeneous communities march toward the extremes.” Percent of U.S. voters living in counties in which a presidential candidate won by a “landslide” margin of 20 percent or more of the vote: 1976: 25 2016: 60 7. Political party sorting. Once upon a time, there were such creatures as liberal Republicans and conservative Democrats. No longer. The parties have sorted philosophically such that today almost all liberals are Democrats and all conservatives are Republicans. One main result is that the partisan gap between the parties is wide and getting wider. Across 10 measures that Pew Research Center has tracked on the same surveys since 1994, the average partisan gap has increased from 15 percentage points to 36 points. —Pew Research Center, 2017 8. New rules for Congress. The weakening and in some cases elimination of “regular order”—defined broadly as the rules, customs, and precedents intended to promote orderly and deliberative policymaking—as well as the erosion of traditions such as Senatorial courtesy and social fraternization across party lines—have contributed dramatically to less trust and more animosity in the Congress, thus increasing polarization. It’s hard to exaggerate how much House Republicans and Democrats dislike each other these days. —Juliet Eilperin, Fight Club Politics (2006) 9. New rules for political parties. Many reforms in how we nominate, elect, and guide our political leaders—shifting the power of nomination from delegates to primaries, dismantling political machines, replacing closed-door politics with televised politics, and shrinking the influence of career politicians—aimed to democratize the system. But these changes also replaced the “middle men” who helped keep the system together with a political free-for-all in which the loudest and most extreme voices are heard above all others. As these intermediaries’ influence fades, politicians, activists, and voters all become more individualistic and unaccountable. The system atomizes. Chaos becomes the new normal both in campaigns and in the government itself. —Jonathan Rauch, “How American Politics Went Insane,” 2016 10. New political donors. In earlier eras, money in American politics tended to focus on candidates and parties, while money from today’s super-rich donors tends to focus on ideas and ideology—a shift that also tends to advance polarization. 11. New political districts. Widespread gerrymandering—defined as manipulating district boundaries for political advantage—contributes significantly to polarization, most obviously by making candidates in gerrymandered districts worry more about being “primaried” by a more extreme member of their own party than about losing the general election. 12. The spread of media ghettoes. The main features of the old analog media—including editing, fact-checking, professionalization, and the privileging of institutions over individuals—served as a credentialing system for American political expression. The distinguishing feature of the new digital media—the fact that anyone can publish anything that gains views and clicks—is replacing that old system with a non-system that is atomized and largely leaderless. One result made possible by this change is that Americans can now live in media ghettoes. If I wish, I can live all day every day encountering in my media travels only those views with which I already agree. Living in a media ghetto means less that my views are shaped and improved, much less challenged, than that they are hardened and made more extreme; what might’ve been analysis weakens into partisan talking points dispensed by identity-group leaders; moreover, because I’m exposed only to the most cartoonish, exaggerated versions of my opponents’ views, I come to believe that those views are so unhinged and irrational as to be dangerous. More broadly, the new media resemble and reinforce the new politics, such that the most reliable way to succeed in either domain is to be the most noisesome, outrageous, and polarizing. 13. The decline of journalistic responsibility. The dismantling of the old media has been accompanied by, and has probably helped cause, a decline in journalistic standards. These losses to society include journalists who’ll accept poor quality in pursuit of volume and repetition as well as the blurring and even erasure of boundaries between news and opinion, facts and non-facts, and journalism and entertainment. These losses feed polarization.

# 2NC

## CP---Multilat

### Perm: Do Both---2NC

#### Each action must be interlinked and conditional---otherwise, it’ll collapse

Dr. Daniel Francis 21, Climenko Fellow and Lecturer on Law at Harvard Law School, Doctorate from the NYU School of Law, Master of Laws Degree from Harvard University, JD from Trinity College at Cambridge University, “Choices and Consequences: Internationalizing Competition Policy after TPP”, in Megaregulation Contested: The Global Economic Order After TPP, Ed. Kingsbury, Revised 8/26/2021, p. 40-48

A “framework” in the sense that I am using that term is a facilitative arrangement that does not constitute a treaty under international law,167 and which does not carry the charge of international legal obligation, but which involves an exchange of specific and reciprocally contingent commitments by participant jurisdictions to engage in mutually beneficial conduct. Specifically, each party states that it will extend certain benefits to each other party so long as each other does likewise; the parties may also create supplementary mechanisms to monitor and/or adjudicate compliance with these commitments.168

[FOOTNOTE] 168 It is almost universally appreciated that reciprocal behavior plays a crucial rule in compliance with international law more generally. See, e.g., Andrew T. Guzman, HOW INTERNATIONAL LAW WORKS: A RATIONAL CHOICE THEORY (Oxford 2008) 42 (“Reciprocity can serve as a powerful compliance-enhancing tool in the right circumstances.”). [END FOOTNOTE]

A framework of this kind is not a treaty: it is what Kal Raustiala calls a “pledge,”169 and what Charles Lipson calls an “informal” agreement,170 involving no legal obligation, and it involves no commitment of the parties’ reputation for law-abiding behavior.171 On the other hand, it differs from an open, information-sharing network because it precisely specifies behavioral commitments, and because each of the parties shares an understanding that concrete consequences will promptly follow—exclusion from the benefits provided by others—if its behavior materially deviates from the terms of the commitment.172 A framework is therefore essentially a specific declaration of intention to engage in conduct that benefits others, contingent upon parallel behavior by other participating states, without obligatory status under international law.

This is, in some sense, the direct opposite of the approach typically taken in competition policy chapters in trade agreements. The provisions of competition policy chapters partake of the substance of treaty law, but are generally framed in broad terms rather than specifics, and generally do not reflect a shared understanding that specific consequences will attend breach. By contrast, frameworks do not bind in international law, are framed in specific terms than aspirational generalities, and reflect an understanding that the benefits of cooperation will be withdrawn in the event of violation.

Contingent cooperation thus depends for its effectiveness primarily upon three important dynamics. The first and most important of these is the rationality of strategic cooperation. A familiar mainstream view holds that to a significant extent states behave in international society in ways that rationally serve their interests.173 And when cooperation over a series of interactions is overall in the interests of each member of a group, but when each member faces a rational incentive to defect from the terms of cooperation in individual cases, familiar economic theory teaches that a strategic cooperative equilibrium can be maintained among the parties.174 In contingent cooperation, each party understands that if it defects materially from the terms of the framework, the other participants will withdraw the excludable benefits of cooperation, and this provides the incentive to comply.175

#### Including the plan shreds U.S. leverage

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Congress can always eliminate the President's agenda-setting power by engaging in unilateral trade policies. The Constitution allocates to Congress the power to set international commercial policy. The President only has significant trade-policy power (beyond his veto power) because the United States has chosen to engage in multilateral trade negotiations. 84 If Congress wished to undertake unilateral free trade policies, then the President's bargaining leverage would be reduced to threatening a veto, the same as in the realm of domestic legislation. Congress is unlikely to take such steps, however, because reciprocal agreements are valuable political commodities. 85 International agreements offer domestic exporters greater access to foreign markets, which could be lost if Congress were to pursue the unilateral route.

### Solvency---AT: Water Down---2NC

#### No Water down

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The opposite fear is also common, ie that a multilateral agreement will create a ‘watered down’ competition regime, because it would have to include and accommodate weak competition regimes, and this would lower the standards for all.²⁷ This criticism might apply to traditional forms of agreement, but it does not apply to a pathway strategy. Some obligations might become effective immediately and may even support greater enforcement than is currently provided, whereas others can be phased in later.

### Solvency---AT: Delay---2NC

#### It's fast

Emilio E. Varanini 20, Deputy Attorney General, Antitrust Section, California Office of the Attorney General; Chair, International Committee and Health-Care Working Group, Antitrust Task Force, National Association of State Attorneys General; Chair of China Working Group & Vice-Chair, Communications and Digital Technologies Industries Committee, American Bar Association, “Running Soft Convergence Into The Ground: The Case for an International Antitrust Treaty” in Chinese (Taiwan) Yearbook of International Law and Affairs, Volume 28, eBook Version, p. 157-158 [grammar edit]

Finally, soft convergence is slow to begin with; the multiplication of antitrust regimes only increases the time needed for soft convergence of norms, processes, and objectives. For example, merger processes and standards converged between the EU and the US to a large extent over a four year period as a result of a concerted effort by both entities.106 However, though the EU and China have made great progress in fleshing out the process and standards for civil damage claims arising out of violations of their antitrust laws, neither of these antitrust jurisdictions have yet finished that task. Japan apparently has yet to address making actions for civil damages more effective, including, but not limited to, recognizing representative actions.107

V. THE NEED FOR A NEXT STEP:

AN INTERNATIONAL ANTITRUST TREATY

These limits to soft convergence - the increase in the potential for differing judgments and remedies, the slow nature of the convergence process, and remaining (but probably intractable) differences in global norms - are all the kind of factors that justify an international antitrust treaty of some kind.108

[FOOTNOTE] 108 See AMC, supra note 14, at 222-25 (proposing that the United States enter into agreements with other nations' antitrust enforcements that would institute harmonization, joint action, and complex deferral requirements based on the strength of nexus of a transaction or complaint to a given country). C/. Ching-Fu Lin, "Global Food Safety: Exploring Key Elements for an International Regulatory Strategy", 51 Va. /. Int'l. L. 637, 694 (2011) ("The two most striking examples of global food-borne illnesses—the case of BSE-vCJD and the case of melamine-contaminated products from China—show how food safety crises permeate national boundaries and demonstrate the lack of current institutional capacity to handle future crises. As shown in Parts II and III of this Article, national legislation and regulation alone are insufficient to address global food safety problems. Furthermore, the sole reliance on private forms of governance to regulate cross-border food-supply chains is similarly an unsatisfactory answer to the complex problem. Instead, effective regulatory strategy must go beyond the use of such unilateral measures."). [END FOOTNOTE]

This proposed international antitrust treaty with its call for an expert panel to judge referred cases, as well as its call for mandated cooperation between signatory nations, is admittedly most akin to a framework convention approach, e.g., a process of incremental regime development that evolves over time.109 However, this approach, though not new in terms of international law, has advantages in addressing the present environment: it can avoid political bottlenecks on remaining differences on antitrust norms can be avoided; and it can ensure that uncertainties regarding differing judgments and remedies are addressed in an incremental fashion so as [to] build a global consensus in the longer-term.110

#### The plan’s slow---enforcement takes decades

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The current approach to antitrust also makes enforcement highly costly and protracted. In 2012, the American Bar Association (ABA) published the report of a task force that sought to "study ways to control the costs of antitrust litigation and enforcement." 9The task force, the authors explained, was "a response to concerns" about both "the costs imposed on businesses by the American system of antitrust enforcement" and "the length of time required to resolve antitrust issues both in litigation and in enforcement proceedings." 10 Out-of-control costs undermine effective antitrust enforcement by agencies and private litigants, but [\*361] may advantage actors who profit from anticompetitive practices and can treat litigation as a routine cost of business.

Professor Michael Baye and Former Commissioner Joshua Wright have noted that generalist judges may be ill-equipped to independently analyze and assess evidence presented by economic experts. 11 Because determining the legality of most conduct now involves complex economic analysis, courts have effectively "delegate[d] both factfinding and rulemaking to courtroom economists," making courtroom economics "not just inevitable but often dispositive." 12In fact, paid expert testimony now is often "the 'whole game' in an antitrust dispute." 13

Paid experts are a major expense. Some experts charge over $ 1,300 an hour, earning more than senior partners at major law firms. 14Over the last decade, expenditures on expert costs by public enforcers have ballooned. 15In a system that incentivizes firms to spend top dollar on economists who can use ever-increasing complexity to spin a favorable tale, the eye-popping costs for economic experts can put the government and new market entrants at a significant disadvantage. 16

Another component of the burden is that antitrust trials are extremely slow and prolonged. 17The Supreme Court has criticized antitrust cases for involving "interminable litigation" 18and the [\*362] "inevitably costly and protracted discovery phase," 19yielding an antitrust system that is "hopelessly beyond effective judicial supervision." 20That it can easily take a decade to bring an antitrust case to full judgment means that by the time a judge orders a remedy, market circumstances are likely to have outpaced it. 21The same 2012 ABA report suggested that lengthy, costly litigation may be contributing to reduced government-enforcement efforts over time relative to the expansion of the US economy. 22

#### Simply initiating the process solves

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An international antitrust treaty carries substantial benefits for the development of free markets and free trade, helping if even in a small way to contribute to the necessary rebalancing of the world economy.185 Construing those benefits in the most narrow light possible, the signing of an international antitrust treaty would signal one's commitment to antitrust principles and thus to the free markets safeguarded by such principles. After all, backtracking on soft convergence is easier than renouncing an international treaty that one has signed. Construing those benefits in more expansive ways, the signing of an international antitrust treaty would signal one's commitment to set of standards and procedures for implementing antitrust principles, thereby furthering the application of rule of law on matters of global import. Phrased another way, the sending of such a signal further increases the confidence of investors and businesses in global markets that the commercial behavior of countries and global firms alike will conform to international commercial standards. Investors and businesses in global markets will be more confident either that they will not subject to antitrust decisions that may reflect nothing more than political vicissitudes or that they will be victimized, directly or indirectly, from world- wide anti-competitive conduct by private or state-owned companies. As the confidence of investors and businesses increase that competition concerns in the global marketplace will be addressed in accordance with the rule of law and shared antitrust principles, worldwide trade and investment should, in turn, be enhanced.186

### Solvency---AT: Say No---2NC

#### It creates a coalition of the willing that bypasses general obstacles

Dr. Daniel Francis 21, Climenko Fellow and Lecturer on Law at Harvard Law School, Doctorate of Laws Degree from the NYU School of Law, Master of Laws Degree from Harvard University, JD from Trinity College at Cambridge University, Former Deputy Director of the Federal Trade Commission, “Choices and Consequences: Internationalizing Competition Policy after TPP”, in Megaregulation Contested: The Global Economic Order After TPP, Ed. Kingsbury, Revised 8/26/2021, p. 52-53

Conclusion

I have argued that strong, universalistic prescriptions regarding the internationalization of competition policy are unlikely to be very convincing or very interesting. Polities and societies have sharply differing accounts of what “free” and “fair” competition might mean, and when and how the state should shape it, interfere with it, or exclude it altogether. Liberalization and competition offer tremendous benefits to jurisdictions that embrace them; but no jurisdiction does so entirely, and each polity must find its own optimal balance between competition and the values that—so to speak—compete with it. This makes international action a very complex affair in which internationalization is likely to happen slowly when it happens at all. Sometimes it will be simply unavailable: “state preferences may be configured in such a way as to make cooperation unprofitable for all, in which case it will not occur, no matter what international mechanisms are in place.”204

As “[d]isagreement on matters of principle is . . . not the exception but the rule in politics,”205 I have suggested that there is considerable value in the provision of a wide range of tools and forms to facilitate international action. The bigger and more diverse the toolkit, the greater the likelihood of finding a solution that will serve the turn. To that end, I have emphasized the value of three forms of flexibility in this area: regionalism as a complement to bilateralism and multilateralism; frameworks as a complement to treaties and networks; and a willingness to explore cooperation on competition policy both alongside and separately from the liberalization of trade.

All the hard questions remain. But, as policymakers and scholars survey the wreckage of megaregionalism, I think there are plenty of reasons for optimism. I have emphasized that when grand megaregional bargains wrought in binding international law fail, other paths may remain open. Other combinations, other configurations, can offer the prospect of “progress”—in the right sense—to coalitions of the willing. At the time of writing, there is some evidence that many of the TPP’s parties continue to see value in deep cooperation in matters of trade and competition policy, even without the participation of the United States.206 With some creativity and imagination, and in partnership with like-minded jurisdictions, there is every reason to expect that they will achieve it.

#### Europe and China will say ‘yes’

Michael Ristaniemi 20, PhD Candidate in Commercial Law at the University of Turku, Vice President for Sustainability at the Metsä Group, Participant in the Visiting Scholar Programme at the University of California, Berkeley, “International Antitrust: Toward Upgrading Coordination and Enforcement”, Doctoral Dissertation, October 2020, https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/347180879.pdf

Despite the above, the major powers do have an interest in cooperating internationally in competition issues. The EU and the US appear to desire further convergence of practices and substantive thinking. Officially, China does not appear to have a strong stance on convergence, but recent practice shows that it too has engaged in an increasing amount of dialogue on competition matters. Indeed, there is an increasing amount of cooperation in relation to investigating international cartels, referring to cartels that operate in several nations concurrently and which seek to cartelize them.208

Further, the competition authorities of major powers have an incentive to ensure that merger control procedures affecting mergers benefiting their respective regions are as internationally streamlined and coordinated as possible given the number of multinationals that originate from each of their respective territories. Nonetheless, there are a few hurdles for streamlining international merger control. First is the dichotomous leadership of the US and the EU systems, with no single leading standard to become the global standard. Second, there are clear differences in nations’ scope of merger review that may arise from partially differing sets of goals should they attempt to address public interest or other non-competition related concerns concurrently with competition concerns.209 In any case, the aggregate cost of a fragmented system of international merger control is arguably higher than it would need to be. Improved, more structured coordination could help, as discussed further in Chapters 5 and 6 below.

#### That’s sufficient

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2. This will be done by analysing the recent stances that major world economic powers have taken as well as longer trends in their actions and inactions in terms of international cooperation on competition issues. The guiding assumption is that whatever actions such major powers decide to employ, they will significantly affect the kind of cooperation undertaken by other nations in the world in trade policy generally as well as in competition policy as a part of it. Bradford & Posner argue that “international law is best understood as the result of overlapping consensus” of the otherwise conflicting views of major powers, at the core of which nations consider themselves bound, that such consensus is a fluid concept and is subject to change at the whim of each major power, and that it would be wrong to consider otherwise.3 This is a relevant backdrop also in relation to assessing potential for international cooperation in the realm of competition policy. 1

3. The paper’s focus is on three major economic powers: The United States (US), the European Union (EU), and China.4 Collectively they account for over 60% of the global economy and are consequentially all major economic powers.5 Each of them has a differing historical background to competition and competitive markets, and each has a unique presence and unique intentions in policy questions affecting competition globally. The three major powers are all exceptional states.6 This refers to a state which believes its values should form part of the global framework and has the power to influence this. This is particularly true now that the US’s influence is decreasing and there is room for a more diverse world order, in which China will likely be an increasingly important actor.7

#### Core agreement snowballs, but isn’t all-or-nothing OR a comprehensive settlement of all antitrust issues---tacit deals on specific issues make hold-outs impossible

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2. Participation

An effective global strategy for combating anti-competitive conduct will eventually require the participation of all or at least most significant participants in the global economy. There is, however, no need for all such states to accept identical obligations or for all obligations to become effective at the same time. For example, agreement among the major trading states and a broad group of states representing the main categories of interests in the global economy (eg high income countries and developing countries of various types) would create incentives for other states to participate in the process in order to influence its development. If broader agreement does not initially prove feasible, agreement could be limited initially to particular regions (eg West Africa) or groups (eg developing countries relying on the export of one or a few extractive industries). This could help to prepare the way for a global agreement by revealing issues and problems likely to be common in any transnational competition law context. International organizations and non-governmental organizations could be included in such an agreement and bring significant value to it.

#### Status-seeking drives agreement AND overwhelms economic costs

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The United States has an interest in obtaining credible long-term commitments from other states—particularly developing states—to the dominant norms of global economic and political liberalization preferred by the United States. To the extent that adherence to the tenets of economic liberalization preferred by the United States is costly, adherence to those standards conveys a measure of long-term commitment. Similarly, to the extent that states can be made to adapt their domestic infrastructure and institutions to conform with the United States’ preferred institutions of economic liberalization (an undoubtedly costly proposition8), the United States can credibly hope to initiate a process of internalization, whereby the adaptations made create a “lock-in” effect which helps to further the processes of market liberalization and democratization that the United States believes are essential for the maintenance of its preferred international order.9 In short, the more difficult and costly it is for a state to adhere to an international agreement, the more its continued, costly adherence signals the state’s long-term commitment to the underlying tenets with which the agreement is imbued.

Moreover and not least, the process of harmonization through successive, bilateral (or narrow, regional) agreements, particularly in the economic sphere, permits the measured, evolutionary adoption of international standards. The crass realpolitik of multilateral international institutions, even though imbued with desirable normative constraints, suggests that the product of their deliberations will be less economic than political. Many have suggested, however, that regulatory competition in an arena like antitrust (where laws are invariably applied extraterritorially and where states have no ability to lure incorporations with attractive antitrust laws) makes an evolutionary, competitive approach infeasible.10

The recognition of political costs, however, and a consideration of the broader political environment in which international economic laws are negotiated, suggest that an evolutionary, competitive approach is in fact possible. As described in more detail below,11 nations compete for favorable trade and other status. To the extent that their position in the normative order is affected favorably by incurring the costs of compliance with the dominant economic norms as embodied in particular agreements (because of the internalization effect), some measure of competition is possible. By this we mean that, rather than a race for the top (or bottom) engendered by the competition for incorporation fees, for example, states will compete in a race for political status. Because political status is conferred by entering into agreements with dominant economic powers, developing countries (and other states that have not yet solidified their political or economic positions) will enter into agreements without direct transfer payments in order to receive the benefits of credibility, normative change, and international acceptance. The net effect should be the effective export of consistent American (or, more recently, European) antitrust policy. Notably, because harmonization can be achieved over time, through limited agreements, the substance of the dominant international law can also be honed over time as experience proves it necessary.12

### Solvency---AT: Say No---Ext

#### There’s unique global momentum for opt-in

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Further, a renewed interest in multilateral, structured resolutions should be encouraged. The realities of international antitrust have changed since the past true attempt in the early 2000s. In particular, the number of competition authorities has increased drastically, as has the amount of competition law they enforce. Also, many more nations nowadays possess substantial experience in international cooperation in competition matters than ever before, which has led to an arguably higher level of trust. The time may be right to consider multilateral initiatives with a stronger level of commitment than those based purely on voluntary cooperation, an example of which is a so-called “opt-in” model. Initiatives aiming at streamlining procedural matters and preventing cross-border anticompetitive conduct could and should be considered – ones that would, however, not result in a transfer of nations’ sovereignty over their domestic markets.

#### ‘Opt-in’ frameworks create global buy-in by maximizing harmonization with minimal intrusion into sovereignty

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In concrete terms, a potential way forward could be that of further structured transgovermentalism. Networks between competition agencies, particularly the ICN, arguably have substantial buy-in given their vast member base and its active participation. Government networks facilitate understanding and trust but also fulfil necessary coordination needs in a globalized world – in the absence of a ‘better’ option. This kind of cooperation works as a voluntary discussion forum to improve mutual understanding, but it also presents the potential to coordinate matters where a high level of consensus exists. The opt-in Frameworks the ICN has launched in recent years are examples of such a structure and seem to have support from both competition agencies and other stakeholders alike.

Concerning non-state actors, a key point is how to better include them in ways that are actually useful. The current organizations in international antitrust are mainly geared towards government officials, albeit some allow other competition experts to participate.279 Their efficacy could arguably be improved, should firms and NGOs be better embraced. The UN Global Compact has arguably been a major success in the realm of corporate responsibility in meaningfully engaging firms, as mentioned in Section 2.4. Building on both mentioned successes, perhaps an opt-in network for firms – similar to the Global Compact – could be helpful within international antitrust. Such shared governance could help ease tensions between trade policy and competition policy.

In any case, in order to function, advancing international antitrust cooperation should focus on bringing maximum coordination benefits with minimal intrusion into a nation’s domestic affairs. As discussed in Section 4.4 and in the underlying article, further harnessing MNCs to take on the societal role they have in preventing anticompetitive conduct could consequentially ease the capacity restraints of competition enforcers and – also – arguably bridge gaps between jurisdictions of varying antitrust maturity.

Structured cooperation, such as opt-in frameworks could be feasible, although binding commitments are likely to be difficult to agree on multilaterally. Such an approach could be particularly effective if combined with reporting obligations as is with the Global Compact – firms who have signed up must report annually on their efforts to comply in order to remain a member of the framework. Such comply-and-explain mechanisms are arguably effective, even if on a voluntary basis.280 Structured cooperation should focus on where sufficient common ground can be found, such as in procedural matters and concerning hard-core cartels. Other, more suitable fora exist for discussing points of divergence, such as how to treat firms in strong market positions, or how to address state aid and other industrial policy questions.

It is important for international antitrust to remain responsive. In the pluralist and polycentric environment that it is, norm collision will continue to occur. As such, fixed and binding constitutionalism is neither possible nor desirable, but rather ways should be found which preemptively coordinate the conduct of actors – competition agencies, policymakers, and firms alike – to avoid unnecessary conflict and to develop tools in which to reconcile and manage the remaining inevitable norm collision.281

### AT: Links

#### Agreement on antitrust causes normative and political internalization of shared economic values

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As discussed earlier, legal negotiations have both a micro and a macro nature with which our theory is concerned. The relationship between the two levels helps to provide the critical dynamic that we examine here. Although a state may be seeking only to capitalize on the short-term gains likely to flow from the adoption of the particular laws in question, doing so opens the state to the process of internalization. The laws promulgated by the hegemon may very likely also serve to advance the normative values espoused by the dominant state, as is evidenced by the claims of U.S. politicians and negotiators.157 International law, and especially trade negotiations such as competition policy, is particularly relevant for such a task. The state likely enjoys support from members of the elite who benefit from the existing competition laws and may be loath to see them change.158 However, successfully changing the laws may empower an entirely new set of interests with stakes in the new laws, which can result in social internalization of the new norms.159

And, of course, successful legal harmonization will entail both legal and political internalization, as the new laws must both be accepted by the ruling political elite and enshrined in the domestic legal codes. A hegemonic state has tools at its disposal by virtue of its dominance in the international system. Hegemonic states are responsible for maintaining order and stability in the system, and since the end of World War II, the United States has sought to utilize international institutions to obtain moral legitimacy for its dominance,160 as well as to distribute the costs of system maintenance to other states.161 However, as discussed earlier, the hegemon must be picky about who is allowed to reap the benefits of its order, as revisionist states seek to strengthen themselves at the expense of others and to undermine the established rules of the game.162 Not only does the hegemon wish to identify potential revisionist states, but the dominant state also seeks to inculcate its values into the domestic orders of others. By utilizing both the short- and long-term dimensions of the signaling mechanism extant in international legal negotiations, the hegemonic state may be able to achieve both goals.

## CP---States

## K

## Advantage 1

### Innovation---UQ---2NC

#### Digital economy strong now---studies.

Baye ’20 [Michael Baye, James Cooper, Kenneth Elzinga, Deborah Garza, Thomas Hazlett, Benjamin Klein, Tad Lipsky, Scott Masten, Maureen Ohlhausen, James Rill, Vernon Smith, Robert Willig, Joshua Wright, and John Yun, with some professors omitted for convenience; May 20; Former Director of the FTC’s Bureau of Economics, Bert Elwert Professor of Business at Indiana University; Former Acting and Deputy Director of the FTC’s Office of Policy Planning; Economics Professor at the University of Virginia; Chair of the Antitrust Modernization Commission, Former Acting and Deputy Assistant Attorney General of the DOJ’s Antitrust Division; Former Chief Economist of the FCC, Economics Professor at Clemson University; Economics Professor at UCLA; Former Acting Director of the FTC’s Bureau of Competition, Former Deputy Assistant Attorney General of the DOJ’s Antitrust Division; Business Economics and Public Policy at the University of Michigan; Former Acting Chairman & Commissioner of the FTC; Former Assistant Attorney General of DOJ’s Antitrust Division; Nobel Laureate in Economics and Professor at Chapman University; Former Deputy Assistant Attorney General for Economics at the DOJ’s Antitrust Division, Economics and Public Affairs Professor at Princeton University; Former Commissioner of the FTC, Law Professor at George Mason University; Former Acting Deputy Assistant Director of the FTC’s Bureau of Economics, Law Professor at George Mason University; “Joint Submission Of Antitrust Economists, Legal Scholars, And Practitioners To The House Judiciary Committee On The State Of Antitrust Law And Implications For Protecting Competition In Digital Markets,” <https://laweconcenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/house_joint_antitrust_letter_20200514.pdf>]

I. The Digital Economy is Healthy, Competitive, and Benefits Consumers

We do not recount here the extensive literature calling into question claims that market power and concentration have been systematically increasing, resulting in serious consequences for consumers, workers, innovation, economic inequality, and more. 9 At best, we have an incomplete and imperfect understanding of recent market trends; there is undoubtedly more research to do. But the weight of the literature today—much of which is no more than a couple of years old and some of which is still in working paper form—does not support the conclusion that the economy has been trending inexorably toward increased market power and greater consumer harm, especially for the purpose of justifying dramatic legislative changes to the antitrust framework. It is certainly not the case that “any conclusion to the contrary reflects either an incomplete or incorrect understanding of economics and the economic literature from the last several decades.”10

The most recent studies suggest that the observed changes in national-level concentration are brought about by the expansion of more productive large firms into local markets leading to, in these economists’ own words, “more, rather than less, competitive markets.”11 Further, despite occasional claims to the contrary, the literature has not uncovered systematic competition problems in digital markets. The best interpretation of existing evidence is that the deployment of new technology by traditional industries has increased economies of scale and scope and enhanced local competition.12 None of the economic evidence supports claims about generally enhanced market power in markets inhabited by the companies that develop such technological tools.

Prominent economists across the political spectrum have offered similar analyses, all of which serve to call into question the certitude of the assertions underlying the calls for radical antitrust reform.13

The digital economy is rife with competition and innovation, and consumers are benefitting in meaningful and remarkable ways from dynamic rivalry among companies big and small. That does not mean the digital economy is, or should be, immune from antitrust scrutiny. But recent scholarship strongly suggests that competition in that sector of the economy has thrived under the existing antitrust laws, which can and should be applied when those laws are violated.

#### U.S. innovation is high and globally dominant---big business is key.

Wolf ’21 [Martin; April 27; Chief Economics Commentator, M.A. in Economics from Oxford University; Financial Times, “China is wrong to think the US faces inevitable decline,” <https://www.ft.com/content/8336169e-d1a8-4be8-b143-308e5b52e355>]

The Chinese elite are convinced that the US is in irreversible decline. So reports Jude Blanchette of the Center for Strategic and International Studies, a respected Washington-based think-tank. What has been happening in the US in recent years, particularly in politics, supports this perspective. A stable liberal democracy would not elect Donald Trump — a man lacking all necessary qualities and abilities — to national leadership. Nevertheless, the notion of US decline is exaggerated. The US retains big assets, notably in economics.

For one and half centuries, the US has been the world’s most innovative economy. That has been the basis of its global power and influence. So how does its innovative power look today? The answer is: rather good, despite competition from China.

Stock markets are imperfect. But the value investors put on companies is at least a relatively impartial assessment of their prospects. At the end of last week, 7 of the 10 most valuable companies in the world and 14 of the top 20, were headquartered in the US.

If it were not for Saudi Arabian oil, the five most valuable companies in the world would be US technology giants: Apple, Microsoft, Amazon, Alphabet and Facebook. China has two valuable technology companies: Tencent (at seventh position) and Alibaba (at ninth). But those are China’s only companies in the top 20. The most valuable European company is LVMH at 17th. Yet LVMH is just a collection of established luxury brands. That ought to worry Europeans.

When we look only at technology companies, the US has 12 of the top 20; China (with Hong Kong but excluding Taiwan) has three; and there are two Dutch companies, one of which, ASML, is the largest manufacturer of machines that make integrated circuits. Taiwan has the Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing Company, the world’s biggest contract computer chipmaker, and South Korea has Samsung Electronics.

Life sciences are another crucial sector for future prosperity. Here there are seven European companies (with Switzerland and the UK included) in the top 20. But the US has seven of the top 10, and 11 of the top 20. There is also one Australian and one Japanese company, but no Chinese businesses.

In sum, US companies are globally dominant and nearly all the most valuable non-US firms are headquartered in allied countries.

### Breakups

#### Breakups empirically fail

Zachary Karabell 20, WIRED contributor, President of River Twice Research, “Don't Break Up Big Tech,” WIRED, 01-23-2020, https://www.wired.com/story/dont-break-up-big-tech/

The problems fueling “break them up” are valid; breaking them up is not the solution. To begin with, antitrust enforcement has been romanticized well in excess of its accomplishments. The breakup in 1984 of the monopolistic AT&T into eight companies unleashed competition for a time, lowering prices and improving services. Eventually, however, as landlines gave way to wireless, the industry reconsolidated and regulators relaxed. Today telecom is dominated by a reconstituted AT&T along with Verizon, with Sprint as a distant third (yet still immense) player. The court-mandated breakup of Standard Oil in 1911 was the culmination of the most significant antitrust action ever, but the company’s dozens of offshoots eventually recombined into massive oil companies that maintain tremendous power. (ExxonMobil and Chevron are the two most notable.) That breakup also made the wealthy Rockefeller family even wealthier, as their shares in one company became shares in many—almost all of which doubled quickly and then continued their upward trajectory from there.

It’s debatable whether antitrust enforcement has ever been particularly effective. Even a charitable reading of its legacy suggests that the first effect of disrupting Big Tech might be to enrich the oligopoly’s shareholders, which is certainly not what advocates would want. In fact, as I argued in that earlier WIRED column, industrial conglomerates often spin off businesses strategically. For instance, United Technologies is about to cut loose its multibillion-dollar divisions Otis Elevators and Carrier (one of the world’s largest HVAC companies) as a means of unlocking shareholder value. One wonders why Silicon Valley executives haven’t gone down this path; perhaps the mantras of integration and a hubristic belief that they will never actually be forced to break up has shut down consideration of those strategies.

Would a forced breakup at least be effective at dispersing power? Let’s say that Facebook were strong-armed into disassembling itself. Its logical components would be legacy Facebook (individual pages), Facebook for business, Instagram, WhatsApp, and Oculus. You might be able to slice it even thinner, but assume Facebook would become five companies. Facebook currently has a market capitalization of just over $600 billion. That total market cap wouldn’t be divided equally among the five new companies; WhatsApp might struggle given its lack of discernible income, while Instagram might soar. It’s likely, however, that the resulting businesses would have a combined valuation greater than $600 billion, assuming it follows past patterns and that the tech industry remains robust.

Now imagine each of the Big Tech giants gets disassembled in this way. We might end up with a landscape of 30 companies instead of half a dozen. A quintupling of industry players would, by definition, create a more competitive field. But competition in the antitrust framework, stretching back to the original Sherman Anti-Trust Bill in 1890 and then subsequent legislation such as the Clayton Bill in 1914, is not a virtue or need in and of itself. It is the means to a set of ends—namely, “economic liberty,” unfettered trade, lower prices, and better services for consumers. By itself, competition does not guarantee anything.

Meanwhile, it’s hard to see how going from six companies to 30 would give consumers any more choice of services or more control over their data, or how it would help to nurture small businesses and lower costs to consumers and society. Perhaps there would be openings for companies with different business models, ones that brand themselves as valuing privacy and empowering individual ownership of data. This can’t be ruled out, but the nature of data selling and data mining is so embedded in the current models of most IT companies that it is very hard to see how such businesses could thrive unless they charged more to consumers than consumers have so far been willing to pay. In the meantime, the 30 new megacompanies would still have immense competitive advantages over smaller startups.

Would the market frictions and disruptions caused by a breakup be worth the possibility that such privacy-focused companies might succeed? Would cracking the current megacompanies into a set of slightly smaller ones effectively balance consumer needs and economic liberty? You may need to break eggs to make an omelet, but breaking eggs alone doesn’t make one.

### Link---2NC

#### The aff destroys the possibility of transformative innovation.

Daniel Castro 21, Director of the Center for Data Innovation, Vice President of the Information Technology and Innovation Foundation, M.S. in Information Security Technology and Management from Carnegie Mellon University, “Antitrust Regulators Should Not Fear ‘Big AI’,” Center for Data Innovation, 08-05-2021, https://datainnovation.org/2021/08/antitrust-regulators-should-not-fear-big-ai/

First, he wants antitrust authorities to imagine the worst and take preemptive action designed to stop “dystopian” scenarios. Doing so would require antitrust regulators to take preemptive action against companies even when there is no evidence of anticompetitive conduct. The problem with embracing the precautionary principle, which says that policymakers should consider new technologies risky until proven otherwise, is it may be possible to mitigate some risks, but this prevention comes at the expense of economic growth, social progress, and competitive advantage in AI. In other words, regulators may prevent the worst, but they also prevent the best—they are throwing the baby out with the bathwater. A better approach is to embrace the innovation principle, which holds that the vast majority of innovations are beneficial for society and pose little risks, so policymakers should wait to craft targeted solutions for specific problems if they occur.

Second, Chakravorti wants policymakers to use tax policy to push corporate investments away from what he terms “value-destroying” AI and towards “value-enhancing” AI, such as by changing tax policies that incentivize “excessive automation” that replaces labor. Unfortunately, his premise is inherently flawed—AI is simply a tool, like many other technologies, and there is no way to separate out good or bad AI. Moreover, AI that enhances productivity, even if it might reduce jobs in certain occupations, is still beneficial AI as it leads to economic growth and increased competitiveness.

Third, he wants antitrust regulators to “scrutinize acquisitions of AI startups by the major tech companies more closely.” Chakravorti offers no details on what exactly closer scrutinization would entail, but presumably it would involve denying more mergers and acquisitions of AI startups. Yet doing so would have a negative impact on the U.S. AI startup ecosystem as finding a buyer is one of the main exit strategies for startups, and if this option is less viable, investors may be unwilling to fund U.S. firms.

Fourth, Chakravorti wants policymakers to “establish a ‘creative commons’ for AI R&D” including by having antitrust authorities “mandate open IP” for AI patents. But again, this is a poor reading of the facts on the ground. The World Intellectual Property Organization reports that of the top 500 AI patent applicants globally, 167 are universities and public research organizations, meaning a significant amount of AI R&D occurs outside of businesses. Moreover, the AI community already has deep roots in supporting open innovation, with the two most popular machine learning libraries, Tensorflow (created by Google) and PyTorch (created by Facebook), available as open source.

Having antitrust regulators force companies to share patents has backfired in the past on U.S. competitiveness. In the 1950s, the Justice Department forced RCA to license its patents, leading to the rise of Japanese color TVs, and in the 1970s, the Federal Trade Commission forced Xerox to share its patents with its competitors, causing it to eventually lose market share to competitors like Canon and Toshiba. Forcing U.S. companies to share their AI patents with competitors will only make it easier for Chinese competitors to take over the industry.

The hipster antitrust movement has always posed a threat to American AI innovation because many of the targets of its fury are large tech companies and these companies tend to use AI. But this latest attack shows that some want to specifically go after “Big AI” even if there is no “Big AI” for regulators to break up.

#### It cedes broad dominance to China, even if companies are still in tact.

King & Spalding 21, American international corporate law firm, “NATIONAL SECURITY ISSUES POSED BY HOUSE ANTITRUST BILL,” Computer & Communications Industry Association, 09-13-2021, https://www.ccianet.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/CCIA-KS-NatSec-White-Paper.pdf

While the United States has long served as the global leader in technology, China has made no secret of its efforts to achieve technological superiority in many key areas, including semiconductors, artificial intelligence, 5G, digital services, and cloud data storage and management. Through heavy subsidization and protection of its companies from foreign competition, China now has nine of the world’s top 20 technology giants. The CCP believes that these long-term technology investments not only will allow the country to perfect the surveillance state inside its borders, but also to achieve military and economic dominance against Western countries. Economies of scale are significant for the innovation race. In other words, the breadth of U.S. online platforms is an important strategic advantage in our technological arms race with China. The National Commission on AI put it simply: “more and better data, fed by a larger consumer/participant base, produce better algorithms, which produce better results, which in turn produces more users, more data, and better performance—until, ultimately, fewer companies will become entrenched as the dominant platforms. If China’s firms win these competitions, it will not only disadvantage U.S. commercial firms, it will also create the digital foundation for a geopolitical challenge to the United States and its allies.”

As noted above, the House bills’ operative provisions include general limits on acquisitions, broad conflicts of interest procedures designed to disaggregate platforms, and data interoperability requirements that might give foreign competitors broader access to U.S. data than they previously enjoyed. Collectively, these bills could undermine those critical economies of scale and thus diminish U.S. competitiveness in this crucial area. U.S. tech leaders targeted by the House bill are the same companies who are the primary investors in R&D in many critical sectors and rank among the top corporate investors in R&D globally. Passage of these bills would undercut the United States’ ability to continue to lead on global tech competitiveness and tech R&D; alternatively, these bills would restrict and/or dismantle the most successful U.S. tech companies and cede U.S. tech leadership to foreign competitors.

## Advantage 2

### Adjudication---Patchwork---Link---2NC

#### Every antitrust action is brought to federal judges---but, they’re incapable of getting tough economic calls right

Dennis W. Carlton 6, Professor of Economics at the The University of Chicago Graduate School of Business and Research Associate at NBER, and Randal C. Picker, Paul and Theo Leffmann Professor of Commercial Law at the The University of Chicago Law School and Senior Fellow at The Computation Institute of the University of Chicago and Argonne National Laboratory, “Antitrust and Regulation”, John M. Olin Law & Economics Working Paper No. 312, October 2006, p. 10

As noted in the introduction, antitrust and regulation have different comparative advantages. To grossly simplify, while both antitrust and regulation are a mix of economics and politics, antitrust is now organized around an economic core, while regulation is frequently shaped by the political process. To draw that out, while the decision by the Antitrust Division in the Department of Justice or by the Federal Trade Commission to bring a case may be influenced by politics, once a case is brought, the ultimate decision regarding the case is made by a federal judge.

Federal courts are a poor forum for reflecting democratic values. Federal judges are supposed to enforce the law, not make political judgments. Judges implementing the Sherman Act are poorly situated to make assessments about the “right” price or quality for anything, be it a cup of coffee or a kilowatt of electricity. Pricing in electricity, for example, will depend on our willingness to endure blackouts, and if we think that at least parts of the electricity system are a natural monopoly—the transmission grid itself—the government will almost certainly be involved in price setting. Judges have little if any ability to determine the public’s tolerance for blackouts and we should want that to be determined as part of a political process. That means industry-specific regulation and accountable regulators, and not general rules for competition implemented by judges separated from democratic forces.

### Inequality---SQUO Solves---1NC

#### Future investments solve inequality, climate and growth

David Lawder 21, Trade and Global Economy Correspondent at Reuters, “U.S. Treasury's Yellen touts infrastructure bill as reducing economic inequality”, <https://www.reuters.com/world/us/us-treasurys-yellen-touts-infrastructure-bill-reducing-economic-inequality-2021-08-04/>,

U.S. Treasury Secretary Janet Yellen on Wednesday traveled to Atlanta to call for passage of the $1 trillion bipartisan infrastructure bill, saying it would help reverse wage and racial inequalities and start to mitigate climate change. Yellen, in excerpts of remarks to be delivered at the city of Atlanta's economic development authority, called the bill, now under debate in the U.S. Senate, the largest infrastructure investment since the construction of the interstate highway system began in the 1950s under the Eisenhower administration. "Funding for transit and road projects that will connect more people to communities that are growing – and bring growth to the communities that aren’t," she said. Investments in a half a million electric vehicle charging stations will accelerate a transition to a greener, more resilient economy, she said. But Yellen added that Congress needs to push ahead with other investments in President Joe Biden's "American Families Plan," including increased access to education and child care, a permanently expanded child tax credit, more affordable housing and healthcare improvements. Democrats plan to pursue these as part of a $3.5 trillion spending package under budget reconciliation rules requiring only a simple majority in the Senate - allowing the party to potentially approve it without Republican support. "There is a good faith discussion about how much spending is too much. But if we are going to make these investments, now is fiscally the most strategic time to make them," Yellen said, adding that the cost of federal debt payments is expected to be below historical levels for the next decade. "Over the longer-term there’s a plan to pay for these investments through a long overdue reformation of the tax code, particularly the corporate tax code, which will make it fairer without touching the vast majority of Americans, those who make less than $400,000 a year," she said. Such investments will help the United States remain the world's preeminent economic power, she said. "We have a chance now to repair the broken foundations of our economy, and on top of it, to build something fairer and stronger than what came before."

### Inequality---Antitrust Fails---2NC

#### Recent studies prove no correlation

Joshua D. Wright et. al 18, Wright is an American economist and legal scholar who served as a commissioner of the U.S. Federal Trade Commission from 2013 to 2015. He has been a professor of law at George Mason University's Antonin Scalia Law School since 2004, and is the executive director of its Global Antitrust Institute, “The Dubious Rise and Inevitable Fall of Hipster Antitrust”, <https://arizonastatelawjournal.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Wright-et-al.-Final.pdf>, August 10th, 2018

Based on potentially better (i.e., more complete) measures of income and better metrics of welfare (i.e., consumption), perhaps the concerns raised in the papers discussed above are a little overblown. If so, perhaps the calls for a ramp-up of antitrust enforcement are not justified (at least on inequality grounds). That said, even by these measures, it appears inequality is growing, albeit slightly; therefore, it is worth discussing whether there is any association between antitrust enforcement and inequality. 3. Does Antitrust Enforcement Affect Inequality? The papers advocating for increased enforcement do not provide evidence that enforcement is, in fact, related to reductions in inequality. What follows is our preliminary attempt to make progress in this regard. We approach this task descriptively, since strong research designs are elusive here given the national nature of enforcement. Left without a plausible comparator, we present time series regressions relating measures of inequality to antitrust enforcement measures. For all of the standard [\*335] reasons, 175Link to the text of the note what follows cannot isolate causation with any confidence, but it is a useful first step to see if there appears to be any association between antitrust enforcement and inequality measures. For enforcement measures, we use DOJ investigation data, which are available for the period 1984 to 2016 and are broken down by § 1 investigations, § 2 investigations, merger investigations, and other investigations. 176Link to the text of the note We initially focus on consumption for our outcome measures for the reasons discussed above. In Table 1 below, we focus on merger investigations, given the focus on increasing market concentration in the papers calling for increased antitrust enforcement. Again, the enforcement data determine our sample period which covers 1984 through 2016. Our outcome variable is the ratio of average consumption expenditures among those in the fifth income quintile to the consumption expenditures of those in the first income quintile. This ratio appears to be AR(1) so we allow for a one period autoregressive term in each of the regressions. Presumably past enforcement is as important or more important than current enforcement, so we provide distributed lag specifications. In Table 2, we control separately for a linear trend to account for nonenforcement factors involved in pushing inequality up over the period. [\*337] Distinct from the merger investigation results, which were uniformly negative though insignificant, in the specifications using total investigations the sign of the effect of investigations on the ratio of quintile five consumption to quintile one consumption switches from lag to lag. To unpack these results, Table 5 presents the effect of investigations on real average consumption expenditures for the first and fifth quintile households by income. For brevity, we only present the specifications with two lags and the time trend. On the whole, the relationship between the enforcement metrics and consumption is comparable for the households in both the first and fifth income quintiles. There is not much empirical evidence to substantiate the proposed correlation between antitrust enforcement activity and inequality. And certainly not evidence significant enough to justify the aggressive policy proposals recently injected into discussion of competition policy. Stepping away from this aggregate analysis for a moment, it is interesting to note that the new (-old) focus on "big is bad" when it comes to inequality ignores an impressive literature on the effects of one of the biggest players in the US in recent decades-Walmart. Work by Jerry Hausman and Ephraim Leibtag shows that when Walmart Supercenters enter a market, food prices paid by consumers in the market drop by about three percent, and because they have detailed longitudinal data on [\*338] household expenditures, they are able to estimate household welfare effects due to this price decrease. They find that the welfare effects are substantial and they are most pronounced for those at the lower end of the socioeconomic spectrum. In addition to this price effect, David Matsa shows that Wal-Mart's entry into a market induces competitor supermarkets to improve the quality of their service so as to avoid losing even more business to Wal-Mart and its lower prices. Thus, in the posterchild case for big is bad, the behemoth Wal-Mart would appear to improve inequality by its very existence. Although we believe consumption is the most relevant measure for assessing the welfare effects (in absolute or, as here, in relative terms) of antitrust policy, we provide similar analyses of income and wealth. Using Census data, in Table 6, we again provide estimates from an AR(1) distributed lag model examining the effects of DOJ investigations, both merger specific and total, on the income shares received by those individuals in the first quintile and the fifth quintile, while also controlling for a background linear trend. [\*339] As with consumption measures, there is generally no statistically significant effect (individually or jointly) of current or past investigations (regardless of whether we focus on merger-specific or total investigations) on the income shares of those at the bottom or the top of the income distribution. Putting aside statistical significance, while past investigations are associated with increases in the income share received by those at the bottom of the distribution, current investigations have the opposite effect. Further, many of the investigation coefficients are positive for the fifth quintile income share as well. If we examine combined ratios of the shares as we did with the consumption data, we still find no support for the assumption that an increase in antitrust enforcement has any systematic effect on inequality.

#### Antitrust not key

Joe Kennedy 18, senior fellow at ITIF. For almost 30 years he has worked as an attorney and economist on a wide variety of public policy issues. His previous positions include chief economist with the U.S. Department of Commerce and general counsel for the U.S. Senate Permanent Subcommittee on Investigations, “Why the Consumer Welfare Standard Should Remain the Bedrock of Antitrust Policy”, https://docs.house.gov/meetings/JU/JU05/20181212/108774/HHRG-115-JU05-20181212-SD004.pdf, October 2018

Again, this report is not arguing that other issues, such as income inequality and political influence, are not important. But antitrust’s connection to these and other issues is tenuous. Other policies are better suited to handle them. Privacy can be adequately protected with consumer protection laws and regulations. Job training, tax policy, and public subsidies can be more effectively focused on income inequality and unemployment. The Federal Communications Commission can take media diversity into account when it is reviewing mergers. Campaign finance reform can help improve both political transparency and democratic processes.

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## Trade DA

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#### Trade DA

#### The plan sends a protectionist shockwave that ends the last semblance of global free trade

Allison Murray 19, JD from the Loyola Law School, Los Angeles Law School, BS in Business Administration from the University of Redlands, Judicial Law Clerk at the U.S. Bankruptcy Courts, Former Corporate Paralegal at Boeing, Degree in Economics and Management from the University of Oxford, “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?”, Loyola of Los Angeles International and Comparative Law Review, Volume 42, Number 1, 42 Loy. L.A. Int'l & Comp. L. Rev. 117, Winter 2019, p. 117-119

INTRODUCTION

Trump. Le Pen. Brexit. Protectionist rhetoric has consumed the international political stage. Western countries and their leaders were once the drivers of economic globalization, relying on free-market speeches and the prospect of removing trade barriers to appeal to their constituents. 1They pointed fingers at other countries engaging in or encouraging protectionist behavior and challenged them in the court of public opinion and elsewhere to stop their antics. The "our country first, world trade after" mentality was widely politicized and vilified. Now, it seems that Western national leaders are championing the very protectionism that they once criticized. 2

Although a system of truly free world trade has never been perfected, past world leaders have eliminated most of the protectionist trade mechanisms that once ran rampant in the international economy. They did so by implementing multilateral and bilateral trade agreements. These webs of agreements have bolstered decades of support for free trade, or at least some version of it. By and large, tariff policies and other forms of protectionism were either eliminated or dramatically reduced. [\*118] Now, as we have seen in the media, when a government imposes a tariff, it becomes a rather extreme political statement which sends a shockwave of significant global consequences.

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

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

Trump is not the only high-profile leader flirting with staunch protectionism. Western leaders in the E.U. appear to be growing more comfortable than their predecessors with considering similar policies. However, Western lawmakers themselves do not seem as persuaded by the statements of their leadership. The general sentiment among international policymakers is that there has been too much political wherewithal spent on loosening international trade barriers to take actions [\*119] that could counteract that progress. 6Presidential actions taken because of dissatisfaction with current global trade relations aside, a complete overhaul of trade agreements may be too daunting and difficult a task, especially absent ample political support in legislative bodies.

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

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

#### Nuclear war

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

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

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

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

Secular Stagnation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Illiberal Globalization

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### \*\*\*U---AT: Antitrust Now---2NC

#### The next few months before the WTO ministerial meeting is unique and make-or-break

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The World Trade Organisation faces a critical period until the end of the year to re-establish itself as an accepted and functioning global umpire, Australian Trade Minister Dan Tehan has said.

Mr Tehan emerged from intensive talks with WTO officials in Geneva at the end of last week, on his first trip overseas in his new portfolio, with a rough deadline of July for the world’s like-minded trade ministers to devise a roadmap for reforming the beleaguered body.

That would form the basis for wider agreement at a much-delayed conference of up to 164 trade ministers set for the end of the year.

That summit could clarify whether the WTO can fully recover its role at the apex of the world trade system, after the battering it received during the Trump presidency and throughout the US-China trade frictions.

“The ministerial meeting at the end of this year, it’s going to be absolutely vital that we can all demonstrate that some progress has been made on key issues,” Mr Tehan said.

“Really, we have, what, six to 12 months to show that the WTO can work; that it can provide the global rules that businesses need to be able to operate, and also that it can ensure that once countries agree to rules, they also adhere to them.”

Mr Tehan said he was encouraged at the prospects for WTO reform after his 2½-hour meeting with the body’s new director general, Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala.

He said her initiative and drive in convening governments, industry and NGOs to give the WTO a role in boosting COVID-19 vaccine production was a promising sign of her intent and capabilities.

“What that showed was a real desire and willingness to challenge the difficult issues; to put the WTO back in the pre-eminent place that it needs to be, as we deal with the current changing complexity in the geostrategic environment,” he said.

Mr Tehan acknowledged that the in-tray looks daunting. The Appellate Body, which is the appeals mechanism in the WTO’s dispute settlement process, has been frozen for almost a year after US President Donald Trump refused to allow any new judges to be appointed to replace those rotating off.

Mr Trump said the tribunal was straying beyond its remit and behaving like a court. His successor, Joe Biden, appears to share some of these concerns but at least looks to be taking a more consultative approach.

WTO negotiations on a treaty to curb damaging fisheries subsidies are stalled, and talks on an e-commerce agreement have slowed. Festering disputes on subsidies to agriculture, steel and aluminium seem to go round and round.

The US and the EU are chafing at China’s advantageous WTO status as a developing country, and at the body’s seeming reluctance to up the pressure on Beijing over industrial subsidies.

Tehan to tackle vaccines, WTO reform on first overseas trip

“These are all really important issues that are going to require strong leadership not only from like-minded countries, but from the director-general herself,” Mr Tehan said.

He hoped Australia could play its traditional brokering role on trade talks, “to work in small groups with other countries who are keen for reform, to shape up the issues and shape up negotiations so that they can be presented in a way that it’s very clear to ministers where progress can be made and how progress can be made”.

Australia, though, is at the epicentre of trade tensions between the West and China, raising questions over whether it can still be an effective bridge-builder and deal-shaper.

Mr Tehan said one of his first acts as trade minister when appointed last December was to contact his equally newly minted Chinese counterpart and propose areas where they could work closely together, including on WTO reform.

“My view is given our leadership of the Cairns Group [of large agricultural exporters] and the way that we’ve historically acted as an honest broker at the WTO in bringing countries together, there is nothing that stops us continuing to play that role. I look forward to doing that myself.”

Global trade rebound rests on widespread vaccine rollout, WTO says

He said he hoped he and other trade ministers would be able to identify which issues the year-end ministerial summit could fix, and which would be given a 2022 timeframe or deadline to be finalised.

“I know that these issues are not easy. The level of difficulty is quite high. But there does seem to be a willingness and an understanding at this moment that it’s probably more important than it’s ever been that we can we can set global trade rules and have the mechanisms in place to ensure countries adhere to them,” he said.

#### Antitrust will stall in the courts---only the plan’s success signals a sea change in the law

Tara L. Reinhart 10-6, Partner for Antitrust/Competition at Skadden, Arps, Slate, Meagher & Flom LLP, J.D. from the Catholic University of America Columbus School of Law, B.A. from the University of North Carolina, et al., “FTC Chair Khan Highlights Key Policy Priorities Going Forward, but Aggressive Agenda Faces Uphill Climb”, JD Supra – Newstex Blogs, 10/6/2021, Lexis

Practical Limitations on Implementation of Chair Khan's Policy Priorities

Chair Khan describes the antitrust agenda outlined in her memorandum as 'robust,' and the memo communicates her intention to attempt to reshape antitrust policy and enforcement. However, a revolutionary shift in antitrust enforcement by the FTC will face substantial practical challenges.

Most significantly, the path to reshaping antitrust enforcement will be constrained by the substantial body of existing antitrust law and the need to convince a federal judge that the conduct in question is unlawful. Chair Khan's memo generally advocates for a new, more expansive and holistic approach to identifying antitrust harms beyond the traditional focus on consumer welfare and price effects. However, courts have — and will likely continue to — rely on existing standards developed in the case law over many decades. Those standards focus on consumer welfare and predominantly price effects. Absent legislative change, then, a practical gap will persist between Chair Khan's vision of refocused and more assertive antitrust enforcement, on the one hand, and the law that would apply to any FTC enforcement action, on the other.2[2]

Moreover, Chair Khan's plan to revise the merger guidelines and her desire to target 'facially illegal deals' will also face constraints based on current law. First, the antitrust guidelines typically incorporate existing legal standards, making radical change difficult to achieve. The 1982 Guidelines, which impactfully affected merger enforcement with the implementation of the hypothetical monopolist test, provide the last dramatic revision. Whether courts will accept major revisions at this stage will be an open question. Second, agency merger review is shaped by the existing review process enacted by the Hart-Scott-Rodino Act, regardless of whether the FTC believes a deal is facially illegal. Unlike regulators in other jurisdictions, the FTC must file a lawsuit and prevail in court if the agency wants to block a pending transaction.

Relatedly, Ms. Khan's ability to implement her ambitious agenda will be subject to the fact that changing these legal frameworks will depend on either Congressional action, which is far from certain, or litigation victories, which require the commitment of significant resources at a time when the FTC claims to already be stretching its capacity. Despite her recognition of the demands already imposed on FTC staff and plan for 'intentional' resource allocation, Chair Khan envisions the FTC undertaking increased vigilance and a more assertive agenda. If the existing resource constraints grow in response to Chair Khan's enhanced enforcement ambitions, the FTC could face difficulty balancing its investigatory agenda with the ability to litigate those cases, particularly considering the complex nature of antitrust matters, which often take years to resolve and require millions of dollars for experts and other related costs as well as a large team of attorneys and staff to manage. In addition, though Chair Khan referenced her hope for increased cross-bureau coordination in cases, it is unclear that such coordination would be efficient or create the capacity needed to fulfill the new agenda, especially when attorneys from other government divisions have already been recruited to help reduce burdens on matters of antitrust enforcement.

Finally, Chair Khan's desire to expand the agency's regional footprint and supplement the staff with various nonlawyer roles may further strain the budgetary resources needed to keep pace with the new agenda and present their own management challenges. Whether funding from Congress is imminent, whether it would be used to onboard lawyers or the other potential staff Ms. Khan desires, and how quickly hiring could reach the scale necessary to support the FTC's newly announced enforcement priorities are not yet clear.

Conclusion

Given the challenges to implementing the generalized policy goals set by Chair Khan, we do not expect an immediate fundamental sea change in antitrust enforcement. The practical obstacles described above mean that Chair Khan's FTC will be unable to contest every instance of what the agency might perceive to be unlawful conduct or unfair competition. We expect that the FTC will need to continue to be selective in the cases that it brings, which may mean that in the near-term, it will focus available resources on sectors of the economy perceived as involving 'the most significant actors,' such as large technology firms that Chair Khan has frequently referenced, particularly to the extent they engage in transactions that implicate the novel considerations under the proposed 'holistic' approach to identifying antitrust harms.3[3] We still expect to see some matters receive extensive investigations and proceed to litigation, and the outcomes of these matters will likely partially signal the success of the new agenda.

### \*\*\*Link---2NC

#### Unilateral antitrust will be manipulated AND perceived as protectionist---that shatters co-op and is the nail in trade’s coffin---only prior harmonization avoids the link

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VI. CONCLUSION

There is a clear "conflict between the evolving economic and technical interdependence of the globe and the continuing compartmentalization of the world political system composed of sovereign states . . . ." 196 This conflict can breed protectionist political views. Unless and until there is a complete paradigm shift away from protectionism, which is impossible, the global economy will not meet the "rational" assumptions necessary to preserve free market efficiency.

Some amount of protectionism is inevitable. Although "inefficient" in economic and academic circles, protectionism preserves the sovereign powers enjoyed by certain countries. In this way, it is a necessity of free [\*146] trade. This paper is not intended to be a commentary on whether protectionism is right or wrong, but rather a demonstration and prediction that antitrust law, a tool of political and economic power, can and will be wielded by individual countries to promote protectionist policies that will affect the international trade landscape in the near term.

While attempting to act on this protectionism is difficult because of the web of international trade agreements currently in existence, individual countries may still use domestic antitrust law to meet protectionist aims, especially given that an international authoritative body governing the use of antitrust does not exist. Countries serious about preserving free trade may cooperate with one another to adopt realistic economic policies that serve to dull the blade of antitrust law through regional agreements, but ought not to attempt to eliminate it altogether.

Antitrust law, like medicine, must be used appropriately to be effective. While antitrust laws generally should encourage free trade, as promoting competition is the aim of their enforcement, they are also at risk of being used to thwart free trade. That risk is further exacerbated by perceptions of unfair enforcement and the divisive rhetoric of world leaders. In this way, antitrust law has the potential to weaken the already delicate international cooperative framework that exists to foster free trade. Absent a change in perceptions and the protectionist rhetoric fueling the current political landscape, antitrust law is likely to be manipulated to serve protectionist viewpoints, making it increasingly likely to become a nail in free trade's coffin, instead of the key to its preservation. It may be a nail that nations are able to ignore for the sake of its benefit, or it may be the one that finally puts an end to the pursuit of truly international free trade. Only time will tell, but one thing is clear: anti-trust law is a field that will impact the international economic community significantly for years to come.

#### \*\*\*It’s especially likely now, post-COVID, Brexit, and in the wake of China disputes

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, Gale Academic Complete

Today, there is a growing fear of resurfacing protectionism, from United States’ trade-war with China, to UK’s Brexit, to the less known trade-restricting measures adopted by countries globally. The General Agreement on Trade & Tariff (GATT), superseded by the World Trade Organisation (WTO) since 1995, rendered the classic forms of protectionism such as tariffs obsolete. However, it did not defeat protectionism; instead, protectionism has evolved through its protean capacity to adapt into new and often undetectable forms, now labelled as ‘murky’ protectionism (e.g. competition law enforcement and the recent bailout packages). It is argued that there are two ways in which States can utilise competition law to impair free-trade and restrict foreign firms’ access to domestic markets: the exemption of certain anticompetitive conduct under national competition law and the strategic application of domestic competition law. This article considers competition law as an instrument of protectionist policy with comparative analysis of the US and the European Union. Using an international political economy (IPE) perspective underpinned by overlapping theories of (legal/political) realism, this article establishes that, while no direct robust empirical evidence of protectionist motivations on competition law enforcement exists, particularly on ‘merger regulation and export cartel exemptions’, the presence of political elements on the decision-making, the wide discretion granted to competition authorities and the ‘sponge’ nature of competition law present an opportunity for the use of competition law for protectionist tendencies.

#### Business lobbies will push for and receive protection to balance increased antitrust enforcement

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The Day After COVID-19

Some countries are beginning to ease their lockdowns. The fear of a deeper recession put pressure on governments to reduce shutdowns in order to revive the economy. Unemployment is particularly worrisome in many countries, even in the United States, where unemployment claims have reached 22 million.4 Latin American countries with already relatively high unemployment rates – on average 8.1 percent in 20195 – are particularly vulnerable in this respect.

Such a disturbing outlook brings me to some competition concerns for three reasons.

Firstly, competition authorities have begun to relax the enforcement of some competition rules. For example, on March 19, the UK Competition and Markets Authority (“CMA”) stated that it had no intention of taking competition enforcement action against cooperation between businesses to the extent necessary to protect consumers or ensure supplies.6 The Mexican Competition Authority (“COFECE”) recently took a similar approach.7 Nevertheless, the urgency of acting now might pave the way for setting aside future competition policies necessary for healthy markets. Therefore, in my view, it should be clear that the current approach of dealing with the emergency must be temporary.

Secondly, after the spread of COVID-19 slows, governments will prioritize the recovery of local markets even if that implies embracing extreme protectionism, which in turn will reduce foreign competition. This is important because this trend would be a force in the same direction as relaxing the enforcement of some competition rules. Competition authorities must bear this in mind for post-COVID-19 times.

Thirdly, and closely related to the two previous concerns, domestic corporations will have strong incentives to lobby for softer enforcement of competition law and might request additional protectionist measures as compensation for corporate generosity and flexibility during the pandemic. If some protectionist measures are arguably acceptable for some time, they should not be at the expense of strict enforcement of competition law in domestic markets.

In such a context, my concern is that competition policy might become excessively lenient. This would be a questionable policy choice. If protectionism was winning supporters before the pandemic, a post-COVID-19 world will tolerate more protectionism in order to back domestic industries and businesses.

#### \*\*\*The prospect of discrimination causes investor pull-out---the threshold’s low due to systematic overestimation of antitrust’s costs

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After setting our theoretical priors, we empirically test our two hypotheses on sector-level data covering 53 U.S. industries over the 2002–2017 period. Our panel-data empirical results indicate that merger policy investigative activities disproportionately deter foreign acquirers in local M&A markets. Specifically, increases in merger policy risk and merger policy uncertainty lead to reduced foreign acquirer presence in the U.S. markets for corporate control. The empirical evidence then suggests that merger policy enforcement is protectionist in effect, as foreign investment activities are more adversely affected by the application of merger policy as compared to domestic investment activities. These results yield salient implications for the international business literature on hostcountry characteristics and foreign investment activities.

In order to comprehensively examine the relationship between merger policy enforcement and foreign acquirer presence in local M&A markets, we structure the remainder of this paper as follows. We present a theoretical framework that focuses on the salience of policy risk and policy uncertainty in generating two hypotheses regarding the relationship between the enforcement of merger policy and the participation of foreign acquirers in domestic M&A markets. After setting out our theoretical priors, we describe our sector-level data on U.S. merger control and acquisition activities, formulate our estimation strategy, present our empirical results, and discuss robustness testing. The last section concludes.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

A considerable amount of IB literature has examined the impact of country-level political risk and uncertainty on inward FDI activities – see the literature reviews by Kobrin (1979), Fitzpatrick (1983) and Liesch, Welch, and Buckley (2011). The basis behind this literature is that political risks and uncertainties can ‘‘arise from the actions of national governments which interfere with or prevent business transactions’’ (Weston & Sorge, 1972: 60). Firms generally react to such political hurdles by reducing their willingness to make investments as the option value of delaying investment becomes higher under such risks and uncertainties (Bloom, 2014; Brouthers, Brouthers, & Werner, 2008). While political hurdles and hazards can negatively influence the investment activities of all firms, foreign firms are generally considered to be more sensitive to such shocks. For one, foreign firms might be more frequently targeted when burdensome laws, regulations and policies are implemented by national governments; e.g., Eden (1994) observes that national policies practiced in a parochial manner represent fundamental threats to multinationals. Furthermore, foreign firms often lack the local information, legitimacy and contacts which might help them properly assess and mitigate political constraints. As Werner, Brouthers, and Brouthers (1996: 572) underscore, ‘‘firms commonly find international business opportunities to be inherently more risky than domestic ones’’ due to the stark differences in political environments and the inherent legal uncertainties characteristic of foreign investment endeavors. It is no surprise then that a great deal of empirical literature (e.g., Delios & Henisz, 2000, 2003b; Henisz & Delios, 2001) indicates that uncertainty in the political environment substantially deters foreign investment activities. Indeed, Kobrin (1979) highlights how the response to political risk and uncertainty is frequently avoidance, as multinationals simply do not get involved in countries perceived as risky.

While macro-level studies regarding the relationship between political risk and FDI tend to dominate the literature (Vadlamannati, 2012), there have been efforts to follow the prescriptions of Kobrin (1979) to consider the industry-, firm-, and project-specific factors relating to political risk and uncertainty. For one, Miller (1993) breaks down the salient host-country environmental uncertainties into six different dimensions – where uncertainties with respect to specific government policies represent the first dimension. Werner et al. (1996) follow in this line of research by considering the national laws which affect foreign firms; and Grosse (1985) and Bonaime, Gulen, and Ion (2018), respectively, consider the impact of regulatory policies and uncertainties on FDI and M&A activities. The conduct of national merger policy represents a particular regulatory policy that involves a direct threat to the participation of foreign firms in local M&A markets. Specifically, the presence of a national merger policy can negatively impact foreign acquirers by slowing down the consummation of their cross-border acquisitions via antitrust investigations, curtailing the profitability of these cross-border acquisitions by requiring structural remedies, and by even outright prohibiting them. Thus, merger control is a specific and salient government barrier that foreign acquirers must successfully navigate in order to gain access to local M&A markets (Brouthers et al., 2008; Clougherty, 2005).

While the IB literature lacks empirical scholarship concerning this topic, many IB scholars (e.g., Brewer, 1993; Buckley & Casson, 1996; Hymer, 1970; Spar, 2001) have posited that the national enforcement of merger policy potentially restrains the level of inward FDI. It is with these concerns in mind that many policy advisors recommend that countries do not prioritize competition policy, as it could discourage inward FDI via the creation of additional regulatory barriers and uncertainties for foreign investors (Oliveira et al., 2001). Moreover, the conduct of national merger policy lends itself well to analyzing the deterrence effects with respect to acquisition activities in a manner that is consistent with the pre-existing literature on political risk and uncertainty. First, merger policy is conducted at the industry level and exhibits cross-sector variation in antitrust scrutiny (Clougherty & Seldeslachts, 2013); thus, it represents an industryspecific policy context worth analyzing for policy risk factors in line with Kobrin’s (1979) prescriptions. Second, merger policy involves both policy risk and policy uncertainty – both of which may disproportionately deter foreign acquirers as compared to domestic acquirers. We turn now to a discussion of these concepts and to the formulation of our theoretical priors.

Merger Policy Risk

The concept of risk goes back to Knight’s (1921) fundamental insights, where he considered risk to be a known probability distribution over a set of events; for example, flipping a coin involves risk, but with known odds. In moving from the concept of risk to its application in IB political risk, Kobrin (1979) observes that risk is at play when managers have knowledge regarding the possibility and probability of different political outcomes via either calculations or past experience statistics. While the relevant information is available with political risk, and observers generally agree with respect to the probabilities of different outcomes, foreign investors are often considered to be at a disadvantage as compared to domestic investors due in part to inherent information asymmetries (Gehrig, 1993; Gordon & Bovenberg, 1996; Liesch et al., 2011). As Gehrig (1993: 98) makes clear, ‘‘information may have to be interpreted in the light of the legal conventions and business culture of a particular community, which may be difficult for foreigners to assess’’. Thus, domestic investors are better informed and better able to interpret the relevant probabilities as compared to foreign investors, and, as a result, foreign managers tend to overestimate the risks and underestimate the benefits involved with host-country investment activities (Liesch et al., 2011). Simply put, the lack of information, knowledge, and experience with respect to the intricacies of host-country activities accentuates the perceptions of risk when considering foreign investments. A great deal of the political risk literature accordingly focuses on the probabilistic estimates of different policy outcomes and how increased risk leads to decreased foreign investment activities. With the above as a backdrop, we consider how the policy risk involved with merger control might disproportionately affect foreign investors considering participating in the local markets for corporate control.

#### \*\*\*FDI independently stops global war

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Brooks builds on Kirshner’s argument to assert that in the present era, economic actors in mature capitalist economies no longer need to actively lobby against war “because economic globalization—the accumulation of decisions by economic actors throughout the globe—now has sufficiently clear economic incentives for leaders” (2013, 867). He notes that while wars may have once been a useful means of gaining territory and resources, trade and, perhaps more potently, FDI is a cost-effective substitute for conflict. To support his claim, he points to states’ increased willingness to enact regulatory changes to make themselves more attractive to investment (876). To wit, most modern trade agreements, such as the TPP, are less about decreasing the barriers to imports but are designed to address the regulatory hurdles to trade and investment. Additionally, he points to the fact that in the current environment “governments who are host to FDI have generally shown a great willingness to act against threats to MNC [Multinational Corporations] assets that emerge from nonstate actors within their territory,” whereas in previous eras, “powerful states where MNCs were based that often were the ones who had to intervene to protect MNC assets from nonstate actors” (Ibid.). This thesis is buoyed by the multiplicity of studies that have found a link between FDI and reduced militarized conflict, for example (Bussmann 2010; Gartzke, Li, and Boehmer 2001; Kim 2013; H. Lee and Mitchell 2012; Masterson 2012; Rosecrance and Thompson 2003; Suzuki 1994). Furthermore, Brooks’s argument illustrates the need to look beyond activities of direct lobbying as a means of influence to the power of agenda setting and personal networks.

#### Foreign discrimination against U.S. firms causes American retaliation---harmonization solves

Michael Ristaniemi 18, PhD Candidate in Commercial Law at the University of Turku, Vice President for Sustainability at the Metsä Group, Participant in the Visiting Scholar Programme at the University of California, Berkeley, “Convergence, Divergence or Disturbance – How Major Economic Powers Approach International Antitrust”, Concurrences, Number 3, September 2018, https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=3266018

2. Means to reach goals

16. The US aims at securing its companies’ interests abroad in a number of ways. At its most aggressive, it has several times applied its antitrust laws extraterritorially when its markets have been impacted by foreign conduct—acts which risk sparking trade friction.21 A more amiable way of ensuring favourable conditions abroad is contractually agreeing with foreign governments and enforcers to, respectively, enact or maintain certain standards with relation to antitrust in their domestic legislation and enforcement thereof as well as cooperate in investigations and otherwise share relevant information, whether as a part of broader trade agreements or in agreements dedicated to antitrust enforcement cooperation.

### \*\*\*Impact---2NC

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

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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.

### U---Yes Global Trade---AT: COVID

#### COVID was a temporary dip that’s already recovered AND vaccine progress is rapid, making future trade prospects strong

Dr. Arvind Panagariya 21, Professor of Economics at Columbia University, PhD in Economics from Princeton University, M.A. in Economics from Rajasthan University, “How US has Weakened WTO: The Multilateral Trading System is Under Stress, Member Countries Must Repair It”, Times of India, 5/26/2021, https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/blogs/toi-edit-page/how-us-has-weakened-wto-the-multilateral-trading-system-is-under-stress-member-countries-must-repair-it/?source=app&frmapp=yes

As we prepare to enter post-Covid-19 era, an important question concerns the future of the global trading system, which has been under stress since well before the onset of the dreadful pandemic.

Though global merchandise trade took a significant hit in the first half of 2020 and fell as much as 15% in the second quarter, it exhibited astonishing recovery in the second half of the year. According to a March 31, 2021, press release by the World Trade Organisation (WTO), merchandise exports fell by only 5.3% over the full year. This compares with a whopping 12% fall in 2009 following the global financial crisis. WTO predicts that merchandise exports volume would rise by 8% in 2021.

Global merchandise exports have thus survived well the onslaught of Covid-19. With vaccine supplies expected to rise at an accelerated pace globally, prospects for the WTO forecast coming true are excellent. While this fact removes weak global market as a source of worry in the immediate aftermath of Covid-19 crisis, we would still face challenges posed by the fissures and fractures in the WTO system.

#### Their Legrain evidence is a thought experiment---it concedes most expect a rebound

2AC Legrain, 20 -- senior visiting fellow at the London School of Economics' European Institute

[Philippe Legrain, former economic advisor to the president of the European Commission from 2011 to 2014, "The Coronavirus Is Killing Globalization as We Know It," Foreign Policy, 3-12-2020, https://foreignpolicy.com/2020/03/12/coronavirus-killing-globalization-nationalism-protectionism-trump/, accessed 6-25-2021] Kentucky Reads Blue

The Coronavirus Is Killing Globalization as We Know It

The outbreak has been a gift to nativist nationalists and protectionists, and it is likely to have a long-term impact on the free movement of people and goods.

Until recently, most policymakers and investors remained complacent about the potential economic impact of the coronavirus crisis. As late as the end of February, most wrongly assumed that it would have only a brief, limited, China-specific impact. Now they realize that it is generating a global shock, which may be sharp—but which most still expect to be short. But what if the economic disruption has an enduring impact? Could the coronavirus pandemic even be the nail in the coffin for the current era of globalization?

The coronavirus crisis has highlighted the downsides of extensive international integration while fanning fears of foreigners and providing legitimacy for national restrictions on global trade and flows of people.

All sorts of businesses have suddenly realized the risks of relying on complex global supply chains that are specific not just to China—but to particular places such as Wuhan, the epicenter of the pandemic. Chinese people—and now Italians, Iranians, Koreans, and others—have become widely seen as vectors of disease; senior Republican politicians in the United States have even labeled the disease the “Chinese coronavirus.”

Meanwhile, governments of all stripes have rushed to impose travel bans, additional visa requirements, and export restrictions. The travel ban on most arrivals from Europe that U.S. President Donald Trump announced on March 11 is particularly broad, but far from unique. All of this is making economies more national and politics more nationalistic.

Much of this disruption may be temporary. But the coronavirus crisis is likely to have a lasting impact, especially when it reinforces other trends that are already undermining globalization. It may deal a blow to fragmented international supply chains, reduce the hypermobility of global business travelers, and provide political fodder for nationalists who favor greater protectionism and immigration controls.

### U---Yes Global Trade---AT: China---2NC

#### The U.S. is committed to de-escalation and re-opening talks with China---protectionist rhetoric is purely a domestic political gesture AND China understands this

Tom Fowdy 10-12, British Political and International Relations Analyst and MSc in China Studies from Oxford University, Degree from Durham University, “US Must Drop Zero-Sum Mentality About China”, China Daily, 10/12/2021, Lexis

Last week, US trade representative Katherine Tai made a speech which set out the Biden administration's trade policy towards China. To the surprise of few, the speech inevitably abided by the rhythm of "America First," pushing protectionist themes while blaming China for the depletion of US jobs and industries. Tai went on to demand more preferential economic concessions.

However, the speech also sent signals that Washington is open to dialogue with Beijing, with Tai saying that the US would start excluding certain tariffs in accordance with its economic interests.

Overall, while being marketed to a domestic audience, the speech was a veiled message for the US and China to commence trade talks. The Biden administration aptly recognizes that the Trump strategy is failing, but can't admit it.

The US and China compose the single largest economic and trade relationship in the world. No matter how US politicians frame it, both countries are ultimately interdependent on the success of each other and therefore hold a set of common interests. However, the center ground of US political debate has moved away from this reality and incentivized a mythology that this relationship is fundamentally unequal and that the US is "losing" to China on trade. The Trump administration subsequently created a new political consensus of protectionism which saw him place enormous tariffs on Chinese imports under the misleading premise that it would bring back jobs.

However, the tariffs were not a game changer and manufacturing jobs didn't return. This was never the economic reality. In the global capitalist economic system, private companies inevitably seek out the cheapest and most sustainable options in order to avoid rising costs. Manufacturing in the US declined as the country became richer and more developed, shifting in a cycle to other countries, first Japan and then China. Many of China's exports to the US are in fact US products, from US companies, who invested in China to import back into America.

The caricature which Trump painted of Chinese businesses becoming wealthy at the zero-sum loss of America is economically illiterate and deliberately misleading. It's always been about cost effectiveness on the supply side, and that's why the tariffs did not change anything and instead US-China trade continues to boom, albeit with the cost of inflation surging with the levies having accumulated in price rises by companies.

But why did companies not leave China to avoid tariffs? The answer is that China's manufacturing, logistics, shipping and supply chain infrastructure are more developed, larger and thus affordable, which keeps costs down in the bigger picture. China's resilient supply chain has given the country a competitive advantage.

Irrespective of the political rhetoric, Tai's speech can be seen as a positive development. It signals a shift towards dialogue from confrontation, a shift towards pragmatism from the fantasy of so-called decoupling, and illustrates that economic compromise between the US and China may still be possible, despite everything going on. It is a very subtle form of de-escalation in this area.

#### Trump was a brink---the world was on the cusp of protectionist wars, but backed off AND it’s now recovering

Andrew Rosenbaum 21, Business Editor at Cyprus Mail, Journalist, Editor, Copywriter and Content Strategist, Focusing on Finance, Former Correspondent for Business Week, “International Trade Forgets Trump, Grows Stronger in 2021”, Cyprus Mail, 8/22/2021, https://cyprus-mail.com/2021/08/22/international-trade-trump-grows-stronger-in-2021/?fr=operanews

Amid economic disruptions from Covid-19, global trade on the whole held up relatively well in 2020 and moved on to greater strength in 2021, according to a report by United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD).

The World Trade Organisation’s Goods Trade Barometer has hit a record high in its latest reading issued on 18 August.

The Goods Trade Barometer is a composite leading indicator providing real-time information on the trajectory of merchandise trade relative to recent trends ahead of conventional trade volume statistics. The latest barometer reading of 110.4 is the highest on record since the indicator was first released in July 2016, and up more than 20 points year-on-year.

“ Much of the trade resilience was due to East Asian economies, whose early success in pandemic mitigation allowed them to rebound faster and to capitalise on booming global demand for COVID-19 related products. The positive trends from the last few months of 2020 grew stronger in early 2021. In the first quarter of 2021, the value of global trade in goods and services grew by about 4 per cent quarter-over-quarter and by about 10 per cent year-over-year. Importantly, global trade in Q1 2021 was higher than pre-crisis levels, with an increase of about 3 per cent relative to Q1 2019.”

Trade in services has not rebounded as strongly, and this hits Cyprus for which the export of services is much more important than the trade in goods.

But we are seeing a welcome rebound from the period in which former US president Donald Trump maintained policies that caused a steep decline in global trade.

The United States, the world’s largest importer, started a bitter tariff war with China and with its European allies in 2018. Then US President Donald Trump upended longstanding trade relationships with many of Washington’s top trading partners.

The fallout: Global growth in 2019 fell to 3.0 per cent, the slowest pace in a decade, before the pandemic started, the International Monetary Fund said.

Trump caused further disruption by attempting to undermine the World Trade Organization. He refused to name new judges to its hearings, and this effectively made it impossible for the organisation to operate.

“The world came perilously close to a return to what we saw in the 1930s. In response to the outbreak of the Great Depression, countries imposed trade barriers, blocking imports from other state, and a general escalation of tit-for-tat protectionism which hurt economic growth for many years,” according to analysts at Chatham House.

All this has changed today.

### U---2NC

#### Trade’s growing but fragile

Nikos Roussanoglou 10-27, Financial Journalist at Kathimerini Newspaper, Editor-In-Chief at Hellenic Shipping News Worldwide, “Dry Bulk Market: Riding on the Global Economy’s Rebound”, Hellanic Shipping News, 10/27/2021, https://www.hellenicshippingnews.com/dry-bulk-market-riding-on-the-global-economys-rebound/

The dry bulk market has managed to capitalize from the global economy’s rebound. In part this is due to the demand growth, but also thanks to a moderate growth of supply, a trend expected to continue thanks to high newbuilding prices and shipbuilders’ preference towards more profitable sectors.

In its latest weekly report, shipbroker Allied Shipbroking said that “the year so far has been a remarkable one for dry bulk owners. The BDI has climbed during the year to its highest point since 2008 and still looks to be holding on a bullish tone. However, how sustainable are these levels and will 2022 be equally strong? It is evident that the strong rebound in demand has been led by an excessive rebound in global trade this year, overwhelming tonnage availability and boosting freight premiums. According to the WTO, global trade is expected to rise by around 10.8% this year and another 4.7% in 2022”.

Chart, waterfall chart

Description automatically generated

According to Mr. Yiannis Vamvakas, research analyst with Allied, “as impressive as these figures may be, we should take note that we start from the catastrophic 2019-2020 period, when the pandemic and its production disruptions pushed global trade into negative growth figures. However, despite the optimistic outlook, there are still concerns over the global economy. Adding on to these concerns, China announced that economic growth slid to its slowest pace in a year during the 3rd quarter (4.9%), while industrial production rose by just 0.1% in September. This comes just a few weeks after the increased concerns over an energy “crisis” and a slowdown in production in several industrial facilities in Asia and Europe”.

#### Governments are avoiding protectionism, the key threat

Dr. Daniel Gros 21, Director of the Centre for European Policy Studies, Ph.D. in Economics from the University of Chicago, Fulbright Scholar, Former Visiting Professor at the University of California at Berkeley, BA in Economics from the University of Rome, Former Economic Advisor to the Directorate General II of the European Commission, “The Great Lockdown and Global Trade”, Project Syndicate, 6/8/2021, https://www.project-syndicate.org/commentary/how-globalization-and-trade-survived-the-pandemic-by-daniel-gros-2021-06?barrier=accesspay

Global supply chains have weathered the pandemic intact, and the deep recession has not unleashed a wave of protectionism. That is good for global trade, and probably for foreign direct investment, too, and suggests that predictions of globalization’s demise were premature.

Trade is recovering robustly alongside the upticks in growth in major economies. This good news deserves more attention. Less than 12 months ago, many observers were predicting an end to globalization. The pandemic disrupted supply chains, and governments, suddenly confronted with the resulting vulnerabilities and dependencies, encouraged “reshoring” production of critical goods.

Today, the outlook is much brighter. There is little indication of a sustained movement away from global supply chains. And many governments have realized that trade is more of an opportunity than a threat to national sovereignty. As a result, the World Trade Organization expects the volume of global trade to increase by 8% in 2021, more than offsetting last year’s 5.3% decline.

True, foreign direct investment (FDI) still lags, having plummeted 42% in 2020. Europe actually recorded a negative flow. But the pandemic’s differential impact on trade and investment is not surprising. Transporting goods around the world requires little physical human interaction. Giant cranes, often remotely operated, load and unload containers, and supertankers pump oil ashore.

In contrast, acquiring a firm or establishing a new production facility in another country requires travel to meet potential partners, and in many cases close contact with foreign governments to obtain permits. Pandemic-induced border closures and travel restrictions obviously made this much more difficult.

But FDI is notoriously volatile, often plunging one year and recovering the next, so it could still bounce back strongly in 2021. In fact, the OECD has already detected signs of a recovery.

Moreover, global supply chains have proved to be less vulnerable than many had feared. The notion of a “supply chain” conjures up an image of a fragile arrangement, with each enterprise depending on inputs from the adjacent link. And a chain is only as strong as its weakest link.

The global trading system’s vulnerability to choke points seemed to be driven home in March, when a single large freighter blocked the Suez Canal, after sandstorms restricted visibility and transformed the huge stack of containers on board into sails. But this incident, which was resolved relatively quickly, is not representative of how global trade works.

It is more accurate to talk of interrelated networks of suppliers than supply chains. Most enterprises have more than one supplier of key components, and multinational companies with operations in many countries source supplies from many other countries. The pandemic has reinforced multi-sourcing, rather than triggering a retrenchment from the division of labor.

Yes, governments almost everywhere have interfered with trade during the pandemic to address acute shortages of key products, such as personal protective equipment in 2020 and COVID-19 vaccines during the first few months of 2021. But both of these products, while vital in the context of the pandemic, play only a marginal role in the wider economy. The rich countries could vaccinate the entire world for less than a dollar a week from each citizen.

The main danger is that governments, fearing similar dependence on foreign suppliers for many other key products, introduce protectionist measures. Prompted by the EU’s concern that such dependence could leave the bloc vulnerable to political pressures from hostile governments, the European Commission has recently completed a fascinating study of strategic dependencies and capacities.

The Commission examined more than 5,000 products and found only 137 in the most sensitive sectors, accounting for about 6% of all EU imports by value, for which the EU is highly dependent on imports from outside the bloc. For 34 of these products, constituting only 0.6% of all imports, the EU could be more vulnerable, owing to the low potential for further import diversification or substitution through EU production.

In other words, for the overwhelming majority of products, large economies like the EU have a sufficiently diversified supply base to make them independent of any single supplier. And broad protectionist measures like tariffs or quotas would have little impact on the few goods for which only a single source may exist.

Moreover, most of the 137 sensitive products that the Commission identified are raw materials and related commodities that are easy to store. It would thus be relatively straightforward for the EU to build up strategic stockpiles of those goods.

In the end, governments do not appear to have resorted to protectionism in response to the COVID-19 crisis. Although precise data on new trade barriers erected last year are not yet available, the strong expansion of trade in 2021 implies that the use of such measures must have been limited.

#### Open trade barriers are being curtailed by generalized agreements and the WTO---antitrust is a unique threat

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

(ii) Competition law and protectionism

In the United States, some scholars claim that antitrust law is rooted in protectionist institutions.113 Evidence reveals that the political impetus for antitrust law originated from lobbying farmers of several agricultural states;114 however, the majority views of scholars differs on this.115 Inefficient businesses misused antitrust laws by suing their efficient competitors for lower prices, increase in output and product or process innovation116 Today, the use of antitrust law for protectionism is no longer limited to the protection of an industry from another within the domestic sphere; it extends to the international level and transcends international trade. Similarly, in the European Union, remnants of industrial policy abound in the EC competition law.117 The European Commission has been attacked on the ground of ‘disguised protectionism’, protecting EU-based competitors and furthering the single market objective rather than seeking to uphold competition in strict terms.118 This is clearly demonstrated in the proposed Siemens-Alstom merger. In prohibiting the proposed consolidation of Siemens and Alstom, the European Commission unleashed a turmoil of political discontent; arguably, this is more the manifestation of longstanding frustration with certain underlying asymmetries within merger regulation which impede the ascendancy of the European industry on the world stage than an issue with the Commission’s decision itself.119

Competition law, as a political creation, is inherently susceptible to ‘instrumentalisation’ for protectionist ends. Competition law is at risk of being misused to advance industrial policies, political agendas and protectionist policies in the guise of competition enforcement, thus bypassing the scrutiny of international trade agreements.120 The existing legislative framework of competition law enhances this risk, as it provides for greater discretion in decision making and political involvement in the enforcement of competition law.121 While open-ended discretionary standards are laudable because economic analysis cannot be put into rigid standards as each competition case is unique, it also creates opportunities for abuse. Discretion may be abused to allow regulators to pursue their own private interests, shirk unpleasant duties, augment their regulatory authority in hopes of increasing monopoly rents which they can trade to interest groups in return for personal benefits, and act in other ways that are contrary to the public good.122 In the context of merger law, for instance, discretion may incentivise regulators to pursue protectionism – in particular, new protectionism. Trade agreements and institutions such as the WTO have made traditional protectionism through open trade discrimination challenging. Yet, the underlying political dynamic driving protectionism has not gone away. Hence, while jurisdictions do not forbid certain mergers, they can still discriminate against them. For instance, regulators can require more onerous ‘fixes’ for mergers that threaten local producers such as requiring the merging parties to divest assets in a way that benefits the domestic competitor.123

Indeed, the argument that competition law may be a tool to pursue a protectionist end is commonly premised upon the possibility that competition law – especially through selective, discriminatory enforcement – might actually be abused as a trade barrier.124 National protectionism is often demanded by certain industries or interest groups.125 However, a competition regime that favours domestic firms such as local producers hurt not only the producers and consumers of other countries, but also the domestic consumers.

### U---AT: Antitrust Now---Biden XO

#### The XO is empty talk that’s years from being implemented

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Despite its breadth, the immediate effect of the EO on law or regulation is less clear. The EO itself does not enact any new law or regulation. Rather, the EO often uses vague language in instructing or guiding the actions of agencies. This is likely purposeful in many instances, including when the EO refers to independent agencies, like the FTC, Federal Communications Commission, Maritime Commission, Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, and the Surface Transportation Board. Nonetheless, for almost every initiative, there is likely to be a significant gap between the action directed or encouraged by the EO and the time it will take for the relevant agency to investigate, evaluate, and potentially implement a new rule or policy. Even where the direction to an agency is explicit, issuing a new rule or regulation takes time. An agency must first draft a rule, allow for a notice-and-comment period, make any necessary revisions, and then issue and start to enforce a final rule. And this does not account for likely legal challenges. In some instances, the EO directs the agencies to submit a report on the issue first rather than make any immediate changes, pushing any resulting regulatory activity out at least until the period following completion of the report.

#### It's non-binding AND will be blocked by the court and Congress

Lewis Brisbois 21, JD, Lewis Brisbois Bisgaard & Smith LLP, “President Biden Signs Executive Order on Promoting Competition in the American Economy”, 7/12/2021, https://lewisbrisbois.com/newsroom/legal-alerts/president-biden-signs-executive-order-on-promoting-competition-in-the-american-economy

On July 9, 2021, President Biden signed an “Executive Order on Promoting Competition in the American Economy.” According to a Fact Sheet released in advance of the signing, the Executive Order takes “decisive action to reduce the trend of corporate consolidation, increase competition, and deliver concrete benefits to America’s consumers, workers, farmers, and small businesses.”

Among other things, the Executive Order encourages the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) and the Antitrust Division of the Department of Justice (DOJ) to focus enforcement efforts on problems in key markets and coordinate other federal agencies’ responses to corporate consolidation. Further, the Executive Order calls on the FTC and DOJ to “enforce the antitrust laws vigorously.” The Executive Order would also make it easier for high tech workers to change jobs by banning or limiting non-compete agreements, lower prescription drug prices by supporting programs to import cheaper prescription drugs from Canada, make it less expensive to repair products by limiting manufacturers from barring self-repairs or third-party repairs of their products, and increase opportunities for small businesses by directing all federal agencies to promote greater competition through procurement and spending decisions. In all, the Executive Order outlines 72 initiatives that attempt to rein in corporate powerhouses that control markets.

In the Fact Sheet, the Biden Administration compared its Executive Order to the responses of previous Administrations to “growing corporate power,” expressly citing the trust-busting efforts of the Theodore Roosevelt and FDR Administrations’ “supercharged antitrust enforcement” agendas.

Although Democratic lawmakers and union leaders have cheered the Executive Order, some business advocacy groups have reportedly warned that such measures as those in the Executive Order could slow the economy.

Executive Orders are expressions of policy intent that have no actual binding legal force. Their ability to change the law lies in follow-up implementation by federal agencies that act to implement presidential initiatives. Those changes are limited by the extent of underlying statutory authority, and the courts in recent years have appeared reluctant to expand the scope of what is considered anticompetitive activity under the antitrust laws. Business interests should keep a close eye on the regulatory proposals that result from this Executive Order and consider engaging on those that affect their business operations.