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Politics DA

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

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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

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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

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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 for the private sector 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

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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]

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T-Mergers

#### Practices are ongoing conduct---mergers violate---the merger itself is a one-off event, even if they’re evaluated because of their effects on ongoing practices.

Stanley Mosk 88, Judge, California Supreme Court, “Cal. ex rel. Van De Kamp v. Texaco,” 46 Cal. 3d 1147, Lexis [italics in original]

The statute defines "unfair competition" to mean, as relevant here, "unlawful, unfair or fraudulent business *practice* **. . . ." ( Bus. & Prof. Code, § 17200,** italics added**.)** In so doing it effectively requireswhat the court variously described in the leading case of Barquis **v. Merchants Collection Assn. (1972) 7 Cal.3d 94 [101 Cal.Rptr. 745, 496 P.2d 817],** as "a 'pattern' . . . of conduct**" ( id. at p. 108), "**ongoing . . . conduct**" ( id. at p. 111), "**a pattern of behavior**" ( id. at p. 113),** and, "a course of conduct**" (ibid.).**

What the Attorney General challenges in this actionis the **Texaco-Getty** merger**.** Under the Barquis court's construction **of the statute,** however, the merger itself cannotbe characterized as "a 'pattern' . . . of conduct," "ongoing conduct," "a pattern of behavior," "a course of conduct," or anything relevantly similar: it is rather a single act.That the complaint, under **[\*\*\*\*156]** the Attorney General's reading, alleges that Texaco engaged in certain unlawful, unfair, or fraudulent business practices in the past and may engage in other such practices in the future is simply not enough: the complaint attacks not those past or future practices, but only the merger**.**

#### Voting issue---forcing AFFs to regulate ‘patterns of conduct’ locks in NEG defenses of ways of doing business---any other interp allows review of individual transactions and decisions which are impossible to negate.

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Regneg CP

#### The United States federal government should convene binding negotiated rulemaking over whether to recognize protection of competition as the purpose of antitrust law for the private sector and favor structural remedies, including blocking mergers and instituting breakups, over conduct remedies and implement the outcome.

#### The CP competes and solves by giving industry genuine input in antitrust design AND avoids reflexive opposition and a wave of litigation in response to mandatory prohibitions

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2. Negotiated Rulemaking

Negotiated rulemaking (also referred to as regulatory negotiation or "reg. neg.") is a statutorily-defined process by which agencies formally negotiate rules with regulated industry and other stakeholders as an alternative to conventional notice-and-comment rulemaking. The core insight underlying negotiated rulemaking is that conventional rulemaking discourages direct communication among the parties, often leading to misunderstanding and costly litigation over final rules. In contrast, negotiated rulemaking brings together agency personnel and representatives of the affected interested groups to negotiate the text of a proposed rule based on (more honestly presented) shared information and willingness to compromise. If the negotiations succeed by achieving a consensus on a proposed rule, the resulting final rule should be of better quality, easier to implement, enjoy greater legitimacy, and lead to fewer legal challenges.

The Negotiated Rulemaking Act of 1990 (NRA) establishes a statutory framework for negotiated rulemaking under which agencies have the discretion to bring together representatives of the affected parties in a negotiating committee (for example, industry, environmental and consumer groups, and state and local governments) for face-to-face discussions. If the committee reaches a consensus, the agency can then issue the agreement as a proposed rule subject to normal administrative review processes. Proposed rules emerging from a negotiated rulemaking process are also subject to judicial review. While the NRA augments Administrative [\*378] Procedure Act (APA) rulemaking, it does not replace it. Indeed, most of the language of the Act is permissive. If negotiations fail to reach a consensus, the agency may proceed with its own rule.

The promise of negotiated rulemaking is that by enlisting diverse stakeholders in the rulemaking process, responding to their concerns, and reaching informed compromises, better quality rules will emerge at a lower cost and with greater legitimacy. Critics counter that the process not only fails to deliver its purported benefits (and then only rarely) but that its very use undermines the foundations of administrative law by shifting the decision-making function from agencies tasked with protecting the public interest to a collection of interest groups with their own private agendas. In 2000, Jody Freeman and Laura Langbein published a comprehensive analysis and summary of an empirical study of negotiated rulemaking. The study compared participant attitudes toward negotiated versus conventional rulemaking. Based on their analysis, they concluded that "reg. neg. generates more learning, better quality rules, and higher satisfaction than conventional rulemaking" as well as increasing legitimacy, which they defined as "the acceptability of the regulation to those involved in its development." But even if this very positive analysis is taken at face value, Lubbers shows that the EPA use of negotiated rulemaking is in fact quite limited, having fallen off in recent years by almost two-thirds. Despite this decline, which Lubbers attributes to budgetary issues and the burdens of complying with federal advisory committee [\*379] requirements, Lubbers insists upon the proven value of reg. neg. in providing creative solutions to regulatory problems.

Other environmental law scholars have identified a few situations where negotiated rulemaking should provide the EPA with significant advantages. For example, Andrew Morriss and his colleagues point to situations "where the substance of the regulation requires the credible transmission of information between the regulated entities and other interest groups, and where the agency's preference for a particular substantive outcome is weak." Reg. neg. also requires "a relatively high degree of shared interest among the groups participating, the existence of gains from trade to allow parties to compromise, and a willingness by interest groups to reject the role of spoiler." These views are largely consistent with the findings of Daniel Selmi, who conducted a detailed study of the negotiation of a regional air quality rule. Selmi explained that the parties were willing to compromise for several reasons: (1) the industry believed that regulation was inevitable; (2) the environmental groups recognized that even though they preferred an outcome based on new and expensive technology, they lacked the political capital to achieve this result; and (3) the agency was not locked into a rigid, initial position, but remained open towards finding a solution that responded to information acquired during the negotiations. But the key factor in reaching a compromise was a very practical one-namely, that the facilitator had the necessary skills to assist the parties in identifying their priorities and to help them make tradeoffs in which they each achieved some of their goals.

In sum, both Project XL and negotiated rulemaking have strengths and weaknesses. Key strengths of a well-designed covenanting approach include innovation (because covenants invite firms to tap [\*380] into their own ingenuity); flexibility (in the form of tailored rules that either match the circumstances of an individual firm, as in Project XL, or the underlying conditions faced by a regulated industry based on superior expertise, as in negotiated rulemaking); greater commitment (because companies write or at least negotiate their own rules rather than having them imposed externally); more effective compliance (because internal discipline as practiced by firms that agree to rules of their own devising is likely to be more extensive and cheaper for everyone than government investigations and prosecutions); and, as a result of these benefits, lower-cost solutions. On the other hand, covenants have a number of obvious weaknesses, including higher administrative burdens associated with negotiating the rules (although this might be mitigated by lower overall costs for compliance and litigation); legal uncertainty in the case of Project XL; and a bias against small firms, which typically lack the resources necessary to negotiate facility-based standards or to participate in a negotiating committee.

C. Normative Framework for Assessing Self-Regulatory Initiatives

Having identified different types of self-regulation and their co-regulatory characteristics, and having investigated environmental covenants such as Project XL and regulatory negotiations (in keeping with Hirsch's suggestion that such covenants may provide the basis for innovative approaches to privacy regulation), this Article now presents a normative framework for evaluating the effectiveness of co-regulatory programs. Part III will apply this normative framework to four instances in which regulators have used co-regulation in the field of information privacy and assess their relative merits. The normative framework developed here melds the discussion of standard public policy criteria in Part II.A with the central features of second- generation strategies as reflected in the analysis of covenants in Part II.B. The resulting framework consists of six elements that are critical to the success of co- regulatory initiatives: efficiency, openness and transparency, completeness, strategies to address free rider problems, oversight and enforcement, and use of second-generation design features.

[\*381]

1. Efficiency

Efficiency may be defined as "achieving regulatory objectives at the lowest attainable cost." For all forms of self-regulation, efficiencies arise from harnessing industry expertise in the development of industry codes, which are inherently more flexible than legislation and may be tailored to the circumstances of individual firms, or adjusted to changes in market conditions or new technologies. In general, self-regulation costs less for government than regulatory rulemaking and enforcement because it shifts costs to industry. Whether it costs less for industry depends on the form of self-regulation and whether industry passes on its costs to consumers.

2. Openness and Transparency

Openness refers to whether the self-regulatory system allows the public to play any role in developing the underlying rules and enforcement mechanisms. Transparency, on the other hand, is a function of a system's ability "to produce and promulgate two kinds of information: (1) information about the normative standards the industry has set for itself; and (2) information about the performance of member companies in terms of those standards." In general, self-regulatory schemes publicize the existence and content of their principles (especially if their rules are determined by statute and hence publicly available). Purely voluntary codes may involve public interest groups at the discretion of member firms. When firms decide to develop codes using a consensus-based process, however, a wider range of interests is likely to be represented. Finally, performance data is not usually shared with the public and most self-regulatory organizations treat enforcement proceedings as private, but may publicly announce the outcome of any enforcement actions involving member firms.

[\*382]

3. Completeness

Completeness is the straightforward matter of whether a self-regulatory code of conduct addresses all relevant aspects of the standards governing industry practices. In privacy terms, these standards are embodied in the FIPPs, which are the benchmark against which the FTC and privacy advocates evaluate any self-regulatory privacy scheme. Unless they adhere to a pre-existing industry standard, voluntary codes often omit principles or practices that their members find too burdensome. In contrast, where government establishes default requirements on a statutory basis, incompleteness is rarely an issue.

4. Strategies to Address Free Rider Problems

Free riding occurs in voluntary programs when members enjoy the benefits of a program without having to meet its obligations. As Fiorino notes, "It reduces confidence in the reliability and quality of participants and thus affects the program's credibility." There are two main versions of the free rider problem. First, some firms may agree to join a program but merely feign compliance. And second, certain firms in the relevant sector may simply refuse to join at all. Both versions are potentially fatal to self-regulatory programs because they create a competitive disadvantage for honest participants. The first version may be counteracted by "peer group pressure, shaming, or more formal sanctions" while the second may require that "government intervenes directly to curb the activities of non-participants." Obviously, free rider problems dissipate when regulated entities are required to participate in a self-regulatory program or when codes of conduct are subject to government review and approval. Self-regulatory initiatives need to incorporate such strategies in order to prove effective.

5. Oversight and Enforcement

At an early stage of the U.S. government's support for self-regulatory privacy guidelines, the DOC commissioned a study of the [\*383] criteria for effective self-regulation. In addition to substantive criteria based on FIPPs, the DOC study identified three oversight and enforcement criteria: (1) consumer recourse, or the availability of affordable mechanisms for resolving complaints and perhaps awarding some compensation to an injured party; (2) verification, or the nature and extent of audits or more cost-effective ways to verify that a companies' assertions about its privacy practices are true and to monitor compliance with a program's requirements; and (3) consequences for failure to comply with program requirements, such as cancellation of the right to use a seal, public notice of a company's non-compliance, or suspension or expulsion from the program. Voluntary codes are often deficient in all three components. Once again, required government approval of these oversight and enforcement mechanisms ensures that baseline regulatory objectives are met.

6. Use of Second-Generation Design Features

The central features of second-generation environmental strategies are discussed at considerable length by Stewart and Fiorino. For present purposes, their insights may be boiled down (however inadequately) to the following catch phrase: self-interested mutual promises that reward good actors for superior performance. These strategies presuppose direct bargaining, information sharing, and the affected parties buying-in to cost-effective and innovative regulatory solutions. In view of these characteristics, second-generation strategies such as environmental (or privacy) covenants should achieve better outcomes than either conventional rulemaking or voluntary self-regulation.

III. Four Case Studies

This Article now presents four case studies of self-regulatory privacy schemes. The first case study focuses on the Network Advertising Initiative (NAI) Principles, a voluntary code established by an ad hoc industry advertising group that also oversees members' compliance. The second case study looks at a safe harbor solution for [\*384] U.S. firms needing to transfer data from the E.U. to the U.S. without running afoul of E.U. data protection requirements. To benefit from the safe harbor, firms have to certify that they will comply with privacy principles negotiated between the U.S. and E.U. but administered by industry seal programs. The third case study deals with FTC- approved safe harbor programs under COPPA, focusing, in particular, on that of the Children's Advertising Review Unit (CARU). Each of these three self-regulatory schemes will be classified using Priest's typology and evaluated in terms of the six factors identified above in Part II.C. The fourth and final case study begins with a brief overview of privacy covenants, both in the U.S. and abroad, and then turns to a very recent example of a voluntary covenanting approach to privacy. This last case study is less a detailed description and analysis of a specific program, and more a transitional step towards second-generation strategies.

A. The Network Advertising Initiative

On November 8, 1999, the DOC and the FTC held a public workshop on online profiling, which the FTC defined as the collection of data about consumers using cookies and web bugs to track their activities across the web. Although much of this information is anonymous in the narrow sense of not including a user's name, profiling data may include both personally identifiable information (PII) and non-personally identifiable information (non-PII). This data may also be "combined with 'demographic' and 'psychographic' data from third- party sources, data on the consumer's offline purchases, or information collected directly from consumers through surveys and registration forms." The resulting profiles often are [\*385] highly detailed and revealing yet remain largely invisible to consumers, many of whom react negatively when informed that their online activities are monitored.

The FTC recognized several benefits in the use of cookies and other technologies to create targeted ads, such as providing information about products and services in which consumers are interested and reducing the number of unwanted ads. More importantly, targeted ads increase advertising revenues, which subsidize free online content and services. On the other hand, the FTC acknowledged several major privacy concerns raised by online profiling such as the lack of consumer awareness; the scope of the monitoring activities, which occurs across multiple websites for an indefinite period of time; the potential for associating anonymous profiles with particular individuals; and the risk of companies using profiles to engage in price discrimination. Despite these concerns, the Commission, in June 2000, encouraged the network advertising industry to craft an industry-wide self-regulatory program.

Eight firms responded by announcing the formation of the NAI. Their key tenets included notice to consumers of what information network advertising firms collect and how that information is used, the ability to opt out of receiving tailored ads, and consumer outreach and education. Less than a year later, the NAI completed a [\*386] voluntary code of conduct that won the FTC's praise and informal endorsement. Under the original NAI Principles, network advertisers engaging in online preference marketing (OPM) are required to offer consumers notice and choice, both of which vary depending on whether the data collected is non-PII or a combination of PII and non-PII. The use of non-PII requires member firms to post on their websites "clear and conspicuous" notice of profiling activities, including what type of data is collected and how it is used; procedures for opting out of such uses; and the retention period for such data. The opportunity to opt-out must be accessible on the firm's or the NAI's website. Moreover, NAI firms that enter into a contract with a publisher for OPM services must require that they offer similar privacy protections to consumers. The merger of PII and non-PII for OPM purposes are subject to substantially similar notice requirements, but the choice options are more complex. Network advertisers merging PII with previously collected non-PII must first obtain a consumer's affirmative (opt-in) consent, whereas mergers of PII and non-PII collected on a going forward basis must afford consumers "robust notice" and an opt-out choice; the latter rule also applies to using PII collected offline when merged with PII collected online. Enforcement is another requirement that applies to [\*387] all NAI members, and the NAI offers several additional consumer protections as well.

For the next seven years, the NAI principles remained unchanged until two highly publicized incidents sparked renewed concerns over online profiling practices. The first incident involved a civil subpoena to Google seeking search query records. The second involved disclosure of millions of search queries by AOL. Both incidents involved leading search firms, whose business models are premised on providing free searches and a host of related services in exchange for serving targeted ads to customers based on their search queries and other data collected from users of these services. Over the next two years, consumer privacy organizations began filing complaints regarding online advertising practices and the proposed mergers between industry giants such as Google and DoubleClick. Both E.U. data protection agencies and the FTC started reviewing these activities, while the industry responded to the regulatory pressure by proposing new practices and technologies for improving search [\*388] privacy and addressing online profiling practices. Then, in 2007, the FTC held a two-day workshop focused on behavioral targeting. In connection with this workshop, the World Privacy Forum (WPF) prepared a highly critical report attacking the effectiveness of the NAI's self-regulatory scheme during the previous seven years. NAI responded to these and other criticisms by releasing a draft update to its original NAI Principles (this time soliciting public comments on the proposed changes). The newly expanded organization then published its revised code of conduct to mixed reviews.

Clearly, the NAI Principles constitute a voluntary code of conduct, exhibiting virtually all of the relevant characteristics as described in Part II.A. As such, do the original (or revised) NAI principles suffer from the shortcomings associated with voluntary codes, or do they live up to their promise of protecting consumer privacy? In other words, how do the principles fare when assessed against the six elements of the normative framework described in Part II.C?

To begin with, the principles are efficient for member firms, but less so for government (given the ongoing costs of FTC oversight) and for the public (given the negative externalities associated with behavioral profiling). Second, when the original principles were [\*389] issued in 2000, privacy advocates complained about the NAI's lack of transparency. Although the principles were posted online, the preliminary discussions between the NAI firms and the FTC were far less transparent-they took place largely behind closed doors. Third, the original principles were considered weak on notice, choice, and access; and critics were not much happier with the retrograde forms of notice, choice, and access permitted under the 2009 revised Principles. Fourth, at least in the early years, network advertising firms suffered from both versions of the free rider problem (feigned compliance and non-participation) and the NAI program did not include any mechanisms that capably addressed them. It remains to [\*390] be seen whether these issues will persist now that the FTC is again encouraging self- regulation, although current policy may change depending on whether or not Congress enacts new privacy legislation. Fifth, the NAI program is also deficient with respect to all three oversight and enforcement criteria identified in the DOC study referred to above. In terms of consumer recourse, the NAI Principles make formal provision for consumers to file complaints (which are now handled in-house) but are silent on remedies. As to verification and consequences for failure to comply, the NAI track record is extremely poor both on auditing compliance and invoking remedies (such as revocation, public suspension of membership, and referral to the FTC). Indeed, it is not clear whether such actions have occurred during its previous nine years of operation, although NAI's approach to audits seems to be changing for the better. Finally, although the more open process NAI used in revising its principles in 2009 is a good first step towards using second-generation strategies, it is still deficient in terms of direct negotiations, Coasian bargaining, and mutual buy-in.

B. The U.S.-E.U. Safe Harbor Agreement

Article 25 of the European Union Data Protection Directive (E.U. Directive) limits the transfer of personal data to a third country unless it provides an "adequate" level of privacy protection. Unlike the E.U. Directive, which is an omnibus statute protecting all personal information of European citizens, U.S. privacy protection relies on a combination of sectoral laws, FTC enforcement powers, and self-regulation. As a result of these differences, U.S. firms were uncertain about the legality of data flows from the E.U. to the U.S. under the [\*391] Article 25 adequacy standard. After several years of discussion, the European Commission (EC) and the DOC entered into a Safe Harbor Agreement (SHA) spelling out Privacy Principles that would apply to U.S. companies and other organizations receiving personal data from the E.U.

The SHA creates a voluntary mechanism enabling U.S. organizations to demonstrate their compliance with the E.U. Directive for purposes of data transfers from the E.U. They must self-certify to the DOC that they adhere to the Privacy Principles that mirror the core requirements of the E.U. Directive (i.e., notice, choice, onward transfer, security, data integrity, access, and enforcement), and repeat this assertion in their posted privacy policy. Although the FTC has agreed to treat any violation of the Privacy Principles as an unfair or deceptive practice, the SHA also defines the mechanism that firms should use to ensure compliance with these principles. These include: (1) readily available and affordable independent recourse mechanisms for investigating and resolving individual complaints and disputes; (2) verification procedures regarding the attestations and assertions businesses make about their privacy practices, which may include self- assessments (which must be signed by a corporate officer and made available upon request) or outside compliance reviews; and (3) remedies for failure to comply with the Privacy Principles, including not only correction of any problems, but also various sanctions such as publicizing violations, suspension, removal from a seal program, and compensation for any harm caused by the violation. Truste, [\*392] BBBOnline, and several other self-regulatory privacy programs already in operation when the SHA took effect then developed Safe Harbor programs specifically designed to satisfy (1) and (3). The verification requirement is satisfied by self-assessment or third-party compliance reviews.

The SHA has been described as an "uneasy compromise" between the comprehensive regulatory approach of the E.U. and the self-regulatory approach preferred by the U.S. This partly reflects the fact that in providing the Privacy Principles and related documents that form the SHA, the DOC lacked any direct statutory authority to regulate online privacy and therefore had to rely solely on its enabling statute, which only grants authority to foster, promote, and develop international commerce. Applying Priest's typology, it is clear that SHA seal programs more closely resemble regulatory self-management programs than voluntary codes of conduct. One might expect, therefore, that such programs would fare better than NAI in demonstrating greater transparency, fewer free rider issues, better coverage, and meaningful oversight and enforcement. Unfortunately, this is not borne out by the available evidence.

First, as a government initiative, the SHA Privacy Principles are highly transparent, at least in terms of DOC announcing the relevant standards that industry would need to follow. But second, as noted below, virtually no information is available regarding the performance of firms in terms of these standards. Third, SHA seal programs fare better than NAI in terms of formulating program guidelines that-at least in theory-adhere to all of the Privacy Principles. However, both the E.U. Study and the Galexia Study found that a high percentage of [\*393] participating firms did not incorporate all seven of the agreed upon Privacy Principles in their own posted privacy policies. Fourth, the SHA, like the NAI agreement, also suffers from both versions of the free rider problem- many firms self-certify their adherence to the Privacy Principles without even revising their posted privacy policies in accordance with SHA requirements and, even if one excludes firms that rely on alternative methods for demonstrating adequacy, the roughly 2,000 participants on the DOC's Safe Harbor List represent only a tiny fraction of firms that transfer data from the E.U. to the U.S. Fifth, as to oversight and enforcement, the E.C. Study noted that no complaints have been received and handled "despite frequent and even flagrant inconsistencies and violations in implementation," while according to the Galexia Study, fewer than one in four companies registered for safe harbor were in compliance with the Enforcement Principle and even fewer offered an affordable dispute resolution process. Indeed, it was not until the summer of 2009 that the FTC announced its first enforcement action against a U.S. company for violation of the SHA.

The SHA allows firms to meet the verification requirements of the Enforcement Principle either through self-assessment or outside [\*394] compliance reviews. Under the former, the firm must have in place "internal procedures for periodically conducting objective reviews" and must retain any relevant records. They must make the records available upon request in the context of an investigation or a complaint, but have no obligation to share this information with third parties. The same record-keeping requirement applies in the case of outside reviews subject to the same limitation. Thus, both internal and external compliance reviews remain opaque, making it difficult to draw any firm conclusions. Finally, while the SHA in theory fits neatly under Priest's regulatory self-management category, in practice it more closely resembles a voluntary code of conduct given the lack of accountability to government, the free rider problems, the lax monitoring of compliance by seal programs and government agencies, and until quite recently, the absence of enforcement actions or sanctions. In short, it displays none of the characteristics defining second-generation strategies.

C. The COPPA Safe Harbor

Congress enacted the Children's Online Privacy Protection Act of 1998 (COPPA) to prohibit unfair or deceptive acts or practices in connection with the collection, use, or disclosure of personal information from and about children on the Internet. The statute and Final Rule require operators of websites directed at children and of general audience websites with actual knowledge that a user is a child to meet five requirements: (1) notice; (2) parental consent prior to the collection, use, and/or disclosure of personal information from a child; (3) a right of parental review of such information; (4) proportionality; and (5) reasonable security policies.

[\*395]

COPPA provides both federal and state enforcement mechanisms and penalties against operators who violate the provisions of the implementing regulations. The statute by its terms also establishes an optional safe harbor program as an alternative means of compliance for operators that follow self-regulatory guidelines, which must be approved by the FTC under a notice and comment procedure. There are three key criteria for safe harbor approval. Self-regulatory guidelines must (1) meet or exceed the five statutory requirements identified above; (2) include an "effective, mandatory mechanism for the independent assessment of . . . compliance with the guidelines" such as random or periodic review of privacy practices conducted by a seal program or third-party; and (3) contain "effective incentives" to ensure compliance with the guidelines such as mandatory public reporting of disciplinary actions, consumer redress, voluntary payments to the government, or referral of violators to the FTC.

The avowed purpose of the COPPA safe harbor is to facilitate industry self- regulation, and it does so in two ways. First, operators that comply with approved self-regulatory guidelines are "deemed to be in compliance" with all regulatory requirements. To benefit from safe harbor treatment, operators need not individually apply for approval as long as they fully comply with approved guidelines that are applicable to their business. According to the COPPA Final Rule, such compliance serves "as a safe harbor in any enforcement action" under COPPA unless the guidelines were approved based on false or incomplete information. Second, the safe harbor allows "flexibility [\*396] in the development of self-regulatory guidelines" in a manner that "takes into account industry-specific concerns and technological developments." Industry groups interested in providing safe harbors must submit their self- regulatory guidelines to the FTC for approval. To date, the FTC has reviewed six safe harbor programs and approved four of them. With all of the approved safe harbor programs satisfying the three criteria set out in the preceding paragraph, the COPPA safe harbor exemplifies Priest's regulatory self-management category insofar as the statue sets regulatory policy and rules but assigns program sponsors the responsibility for drafting self-regulatory guidelines, implementing and operating the program, and enforcement. A brief assessment of CARU's monitoring and complaint-handling system shows the success of the safe harbor program from an enforcement standpoint.

Between 2000 and 2008, CARU reported on almost 200 cases; a few originated in consumer complaints and the rest resulted from CARU's routine monitoring of any website that may be reasonably expected to attract children or teen users. Issues ranged from inadequate privacy policies to the lack of a neutral age-screening process to collection or disclosure of PII from children without parental consent. The companies resolved all of the cases in question by agreeing to change their practices as directed by CARU. In [\*397] addition, CARU referred one case to the FTC that resulted in a $ 400,000 settlement. In a second case, the respondent entered into a consent decree with the FTC that included signing up for the CARU safe harbor. And in a third case, the FTC initiated a COPPA lawsuit based in part on CARU's determination of compliance shortcomings. This is an impressive record considering that since 2000, the FTC has brought a total of only fifteen COPPA enforcement cases. In short, CARU's compliance review and disciplinary procedures clearly have been successful in complementing the FTC's enforcement of COPPA, due in no small measure to its policy of engaging in widespread monitoring of child-oriented websites as opposed to members' sites only. This, in turn, allows the Commission to focus its resources on higher profile matters.

How well do COPPA safe harbor programs (and CARU, in particular) fare when evaluated against the now familiar normative criteria? Clearly, CARU harnesses industry expertise, but probably costs more to operate than the NAI or SHA seal programs given its extensive enforcement activities. Second, like the SHA, COPPA is very strong on producing and reporting information regarding relevant legal standards but weak on performance data. Third, as compared to both the NAI and SHA, only the COPPA safe harbor programs achieve full coverage of substantive privacy requirements as might be expected given the FTC's mandatory review of program guidelines, all of which must offer principles that "meet or exceed" statutory [\*398] requirements. Fourth, free rider problems are minimal in the COPPA safe harbor program because firms that resist joining an approved program remain subject to the statutory requirements, thereby deriving little competitive advantage from free riding. Additionally, the number of CARU investigations seems high enough to discourage feigned compliance by participating firms, especially given CARU's willingness to refer cases to the Commission, and the FTC's aggressive enforcement stance with respect to children's privacy issues. Fifth, as to oversight and enforcement, COPPA requires that approved safe harbor programs engage in ongoing monitoring of their members' practices to ensure compliance with program guidelines and the participant's own privacy notices. CARU's strong record of investigating compliance issues identified in complaints or as a result of routine monitoring (coupled with FTC's higher profile enforcement actions) rebuts the usual charge that self-regulatory programs are weak on enforcement. To the contrary, the COPPA safe harbor programs, like other well-organized and committed industry groups, "help free up scarce government regulatory resources to address the recalcitrant few rather than the compliant majority." The CARU program stands out both for publishing case reports on non-member compliance issues and for having, in fact, referred several cases to the FTC.

Finally, while the CARU program is far superior to either the NAI or SHA in terms of the preceding five criteria, it lacks many of the attributes of second- generation regulatory strategies. There is no [\*399] Coasian bargaining and too little industry buy-in. Moreover, the COPPA regulations are neither very flexible nor do they take into account "industry- specific concerns and technological developments." Although the Commission expressly characterized the assessment mechanisms and compliance incentives described in the Final Rule as "performance standards" that may be satisfied by equally effective alternatives, a review of the self-regulatory guidelines of CARU, Truste, ESRB and Privo shows relatively little differentiation by sector, technology, or innovative methods of assessment or compliance. This is at least partly the result of the safe harbor approval process, which requires a side-by-side comparison of the substantive provisions of the COPPA rule with the corresponding provisions of the guidelines. The reason firms participate in safe harbor programs is probably due less to regulatory flexibility, and more to a desire to share in the brand recognition of the program seal, to develop a closer working relationship with FTC staff, and to draw on the additional expertise of program staff.

\*\*\*\*\* [\*400]

The three preceding case studies all describe well-established self-regulatory programs and evaluates them against five public policy criteria and a sixth criteria focusing on second-generation regulatory strategies. This next section is different. It explores a few overseas cases of privacy covenants under law and then hones in on a very recent case in which U.S. firms, when threatened with prescriptive regulation, chose to engage in a multi-stakeholder process (known as the Global Network Initiative or GNI) to define privacy and free speech principles for the Internet. While it is too soon to assess the GNI against the public policy criteria, and while the GNI might fare poorly in operational terms when compared to a statutory safe harbor such as CARU, the GNI nevertheless points the way to the use of mutually self- interested bargaining to achieve superior performance by good actors.

D. Privacy Covenants

In his article discussing innovative environmental privacy tools, Hirsch's primary examples of a privacy covenant are the Dutch codes of conduct. Dutch data protection law (which is a comprehensive statute implementing the E.U. Data Directive) allows industry sectors to draw up codes for processing of personal data, which are then submitted to the Dutch Data Protection Authority (DPA) for review and approval. Specifically, organizations considered "sufficiently representative" of a sector and that are planning to draw up a code of conduct may ask the DPA for a declaration that "given the particular features of the sector or sectors of society in which these organizations are operating, the rules contained in the said code properly implement" Dutch law. Article 25(4) of the PDPA further provides that such declarations shall be "deemed to be the equivalent to" a binding administrative decision, making it similar in effect to FTC approval of COPPA safe harbor guidelines. According to Hirsch, the DPA has approved at least twelve such codes covering various industry sectors, each with its own tailored compliance plan that is nevertheless consistent with the broader requirements of the Dutch data protection law. Outside of Europe, other countries have [\*401] adopted a similar approach to privacy covenants. For example, Australian privacy law also permits organizations to develop sectoral privacy codes for the handling of personal information "designed to allow for flexibility in an organization's approach to privacy," while at the same time guaranteeing consumers "that their personal information is subject to minimum standards that are enforceable in law." Finally, New Zealand privacy law also treats approved codes of conduct as instruments of law with binding effect.

In the U.S., where comprehensive privacy law is lacking, there is no possibility of firms or industry negotiating privacy covenants with regulators, unless one wants to treat FTC consent decrees as a type of covenant. Thus, the covenanting approach in the U.S. arises only when there is a credible threat of federal privacy regulation and firms sit down with regulators to negotiate a code of conduct in lieu of regulation. In his article, Hirsch cites the OPA Guidelines as an "incomplete" step towards a covenanting approach, and gives three [\*402] reasons for this incompleteness. A more recent and telling example of a privacy covenant came about when three leading Internet firms were accused of Internet censorship in China, resulting in a very public controversy and threatened legislation.

In the winter of 2006, Yahoo!, Google and Microsoft had to contend with highly unfavorable publicity and Congressional hearings over their controversial roles in cooperating with Chinese government efforts to monitor and censor the Internet and persecute dissidents. A few months later, Rep. Chris Smith introduced a bill that would have rendered such practices illegal and forced U.S. companies to confront a Hobson's choice: disregard restrictive Chinese licensing requirements imposed on foreign companies as a condition of providing Internet services in the Chinese market or obey Chinese censorship rules in violation of U.S. law. The companies then sat down with a cross-section of human rights organizations, socially responsible investment firms, and academics, and agreed to work on voluntary guidelines for protecting freedom of expression and privacy on the Internet. After eighteen months of negotiations and defections by several NGOs, the multi-stakeholder group reached agreement and launched the GNI, jointly committing to a set of principles and implementation guidelines as well as an accountability [\*403] system based on independent, third-party assessments. More recently, a GNI member (Google) announced that it would shut down its Chinese search engine rather than continuing to censor the results, and began automatically redirecting Chinese customers to an uncensored version of Google search hosted in Hong Kong.

Why did Yahoo!, Google, and Microsoft agree to participate in a multi-stakeholder process in which a successful outcome required convening a group of actors with divergent interests (often at loggerheads with each other), engaging in difficult and protracted negotiations, and staying at the table until a consensus was forged? As described above, the GNI negotiations were an entirely voluntary effort, with no legal mandate as to process or substance. Rather, the parties proceeded on an ad hoc basis and agreed to principles that, while based on international human rights instruments, were not subject to any formal approval criteria or government oversight. Although the U.S. State Department welcomed the GNI initiative, it did not participate in any stakeholder meetings. Cynics may say that the three firms were merely responding to a public relations crisis related to their business operations in China, which forced them to pursue a covenanting approach not only to improve their public image, but to restore public faith in their company integrity and [\*404] mollify Congressional demands for government intervention. But even if GNI was initially spurred by negative publicity and a threat of government intervention, it represents a moderately successfully example of the covenanting approach at work.

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

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

A. Summary Judgment Can Cut Short Extreme Costs

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Intellectual Property in “Interesting Times”

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

The Changes In Intellectual Property Law

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

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

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

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

Patents

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

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

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

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

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

Copyrights

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

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

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

Trademarks

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

Trade Secrets

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

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

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

Privacy Rights

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

America’s Need For Strong Intellectual Property Protection

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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#### The plan spills over, decimating business confidence and overall economic recovery

Trace Mitchell 21, Policy Counsel at NetChoice, JD from the George Mason University, Antonin Scalia Law School, Former Research Associate at the Mercatus Center at George Mason University, BA in Political Science and Government from Florida Gulf Coast University, “Weaponizing Antitrust to Attack Big Tech Is a Bad Idea”, Morning Consult, 3/3/2021, https://morningconsult.com/opinions/weaponizing-antitrust-to-attack-big-tech-is-a-bad-idea/

From the House Judiciary report calling for dramatic antitrust reform to federal antitrust regulators and state attorneys general initiating lawsuits against Facebook and Google, government officials are once again calling for more aggressive antitrust enforcement to go after America’s tech businesses.

And while critics from all sides are reaching for any and all tools to go after “Big Tech,” weaponizing antitrust will only end up harming American consumers and the American economy at a time when we’re still trying to keep our heads above water.

Using antitrust to go after American tech won’t stop at Silicon Valley. Every sector of our economy will be at risk of politically motivated antitrust enforcement. And that won’t just hurt consumers searching for information on Google or shopping for products on Amazon — America’s economy could lose its global competitiveness amid a global pandemic.

In fact, the recent cases against Google from the Department of Justice and state attorneys general are a great example of just how this misuse of antitrust could harm Americans across the country and halt innovation in its tracks.

These suits conveniently forget how consumers benefit from Google’s suite of products in attempts to claim that Google unfairly monopolized the search and search advertising markets. Even worse, by claiming consumer harm, the government fails to truly grasp what consumers actually want.

You see, under the consumer welfare standard, antitrust enforcement is built to focus on what consumers want and whether consumers benefit. When the government argues Google is harming Americans because its products are preinstalled and even the default search engine on Apple, the government forgets that American consumers don’t think this is a problem.

The vast majority of search users prefer Google to its competitors. And through preinstallation, we get free-to-use products, quick searches and near-limitless information in an integrated system with the click of a mouse. It isn’t a problem; it’s a time saver. Further, because Google can reinvest in developing more user-friendly tech in a preinstalled ecosystem, we get interoperable apps that make our experience that much more convenient and intuitive. And even if consumers do want a different app, they can fix this problem with no heavy leg work or travel — just the swipe of a finger.

But if the government gets its way, the message could be disastrous for innovation: Even if your business benefits Americans and improves the user experience, the government can still put a target on your back. Not to mention, the government would be more likely to put a target on your back if you’re large and politically disfavored. Consumers across the internet and the American economy would be hurt and left without more accessible and more affordable technology as options.

We should be working to reward, not punish, innovation. Otherwise, the next Google may just decide it isn’t worth the time and effort.

Similarly, the Federal Trade Commission’s recent case against Facebook also puts the wants of policymakers above the actual interests of consumers.

Here, the government claims that Facebook harms consumers by acquiring and then integrating services like Instagram and WhatsApp. So harmful, the Federal Trade Commission says, that Facebook must divest from these services, even if that would harm American consumers, innovation and entrepreneurship for decades to come.

But this is not a case of consumer harm or bad behavior — Facebook’s acquisition of Instagram and WhatsApp helped ensure that consumers’ desires were prioritized. Through millions of investment dollars into research and development, Facebook turned good services into great services that consumers actively keep coming back to.

Through relentless product improvement, WhatsApp became a free-to-use platform and Instagram became one of the most successful photo-sharing social media apps in the world. In both cases, consumers benefited from convenient and state-of-the-art advancements. No longer do we have to pay to use messaging or search through multiple results to shop our influencer feed.

As it stands, the Federal Trade Commission case could splinter one successful tech company into multiple, less efficient organizations, setting a precedent that could affect every American industry. Consumers would not only lose Facebook’s free-to-use services but also potentially the next big clothing brand or the next hit microbrewed beer.

By impeding mergers, the sheer fear of potential antitrust enforcement would shutter the doors on small businesses from all sectors of the economy. So much investment in innovation is built on the possibility of being acquired by a larger player. Entrepreneurs and innovators from manufacturing, automotive and tech alike would be left with an unfortunate takeaway — succeed and benefit consumers, but not too much.

And with an economy still struggling to recover, the absolute last thing we need is to leave consumers without innovative and affordable choices, small businesses without key investment opportunities and our economy without a competitive edge globally.

But by weaponizing antitrust, we’ll get neither thoughtful intervention nor consumer benefits. Instead, the United States will lose ground to foreign competitors and American consumers will ultimately pay the price.

#### Decline cascades---nuclear war

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Various scholars and institutions regard global social instability as the greatest threat facing this decade. The catalyst has been postulated to be a Second Great Depression which, in turn, will have profound implications for global security and national integrity. This paper, written from a broad systems perspective, illustrates how emerging risks are getting more complex and intertwined; blurring boundaries between the economic, environmental, geopolitical, societal and technological taxonomy used by the World Economic Forum for its annual global risk forecasts. Tight couplings in our global systems have also enabled risks accrued in one area to snowball into a full-blown crisis elsewhere. The COVID-19 pandemic and its socioeconomic fallouts exemplify this systemic chain-reaction. Onceinexorable forces of globalization are rupturing as the current global system can no longer be sustained due to poor governance and runaway wealth fractionation. The coronavirus pandemic is also enabling Big Tech to expropriate the levers of governments and mass communications worldwide. This paper concludes by highlighting how this development poses a dilemma for security professionals.

Key Words: Global Systems, Emergence, VUCA, COVID-9, Social Instability, Big Tech, Great Reset

INTRODUCTION

The new decade is witnessing rising volatility across global systems. Pick any random “system” today and chart out its trajectory: Are our education systems becoming more robust and affordable? What about food security? Are our healthcare systems improving? Are our pension systems sound? Wherever one looks, there are dark clouds gathering on a global horizon marked by volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity (VUCA).

But what exactly is a global system? Our planet itself is an autonomous and selfsustaining mega-system, marked by periodic cycles and elemental vagaries. Human activities within however are not system isolates as our banking, utility, farming, healthcare and retail sectors etc. are increasingly entwined. Risks accrued in one system may cascade into an unforeseen crisis within and/or without (Choo, Smith & McCusker, 2007). Scholars call this phenomenon “emergence”; one where the behaviour of intersecting systems is determined by complex and largely invisible interactions at the substratum (Goldstein, 1999; Holland, 1998).

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic is a case in point. While experts remain divided over the source and morphology of the virus, the contagion has ramified into a global health crisis and supply chain nightmare. It is also tilting the geopolitical balance. China is the largest exporter of intermediate products, and had generated nearly 20% of global imports in 2015 alone (Cousin, 2020). The pharmaceutical sector is particularly vulnerable. Nearly “85% of medicines in the U.S. strategic national stockpile” sources components from China (Owens, 2020).

An initial run on respiratory masks has now been eclipsed by rowdy queues at supermarkets and the bankruptcy of small businesses. The entire global population – save for major pockets such as Sweden, Belarus, Taiwan and Japan – have been subjected to cyclical lockdowns and quarantines. Never before in history have humans faced such a systemic, borderless calamity.

COVID-19 represents a classic emergent crisis that necessitates real-time response and adaptivity in a real-time world, particularly since the global Just-in-Time (JIT) production and delivery system serves as both an enabler and vector for transboundary risks. From a systems thinking perspective, emerging risk management should therefore address a whole spectrum of activity across the economic, environmental, geopolitical, societal and technological (EEGST) taxonomy. Every emerging threat can be slotted into this taxonomy – a reason why it is used by the World Economic Forum (WEF) for its annual global risk exercises (Maavak, 2019a). As traditional forces of globalization unravel, security professionals should take cognizance of emerging threats through a systems thinking approach.

METHODOLOGY

An EEGST sectional breakdown was adopted to illustrate a sampling of extreme risks facing the world for the 2020-2030 decade. The transcendental quality of emerging risks, as outlined on Figure 1, below, was primarily informed by the following pillars of systems thinking (Rickards, 2020):

• Diminishing diversity (or increasing homogeneity) of actors in the global system (Boli & Thomas, 1997; Meyer, 2000; Young et al, 2006);

• Interconnections in the global system (Homer-Dixon et al, 2015; Lee & Preston, 2012);

• Interactions of actors, events and components in the global system (Buldyrev et al, 2010; Bashan et al, 2013; Homer-Dixon et al, 2015); and

• Adaptive qualities in particular systems (Bodin & Norberg, 2005; Scheffer et al, 2012) Since scholastic material on this topic remains somewhat inchoate, this paper buttresses many of its contentions through secondary (i.e. news/institutional) sources.

ECONOMY

According to Professor Stanislaw Drozdz (2018) of the Polish Academy of Sciences, “a global financial crash of a previously unprecedented scale is highly probable” by the mid- 2020s. This will lead to a trickle-down meltdown, impacting all areas of human activity.

The economist John Mauldin (2018) similarly warns that the “2020s might be the worst decade in US history” and may lead to a Second Great Depression. Other forecasts are equally alarming. According to the International Institute of Finance, global debt may have surpassed $255 trillion by 2020 (IIF, 2019). Yet another study revealed that global debts and liabilities amounted to a staggering $2.5 quadrillion (Ausman, 2018). The reader should note that these figures were tabulated before the COVID-19 outbreak.

The IMF singles out widening income inequality as the trigger for the next Great Depression (Georgieva, 2020). The wealthiest 1% now own more than twice as much wealth as 6.9 billion people (Coffey et al, 2020) and this chasm is widening with each passing month. COVID-19 had, in fact, boosted global billionaire wealth to an unprecedented $10.2 trillion by July 2020 (UBS-PWC, 2020). Global GDP, worth $88 trillion in 2019, may have contracted by 5.2% in 2020 (World Bank, 2020).

As the Greek historian Plutarch warned in the 1st century AD: “An imbalance between rich and poor is the oldest and most fatal ailment of all republics” (Mauldin, 2014). The stability of a society, as Aristotle argued even earlier, depends on a robust middle element or middle class. At the rate the global middle class is facing catastrophic debt and unemployment levels, widespread social disaffection may morph into outright anarchy (Maavak, 2012; DCDC, 2007).

Economic stressors, in transcendent VUCA fashion, may also induce radical geopolitical realignments. Bullions now carry more weight than NATO’s security guarantees in Eastern Europe. After Poland repatriated 100 tons of gold from the Bank of England in 2019, Slovakia, Serbia and Hungary quickly followed suit.

According to former Slovak Premier Robert Fico, this erosion in regional trust was based on historical precedents – in particular the 1938 Munich Agreement which ceded Czechoslovakia’s Sudetenland to Nazi Germany. As Fico reiterated (Dudik & Tomek, 2019):

“You can hardly trust even the closest allies after the Munich Agreement… I guarantee that if something happens, we won’t see a single gram of this (offshore-held) gold. Let’s do it (repatriation) as quickly as possible.” (Parenthesis added by author).

President Aleksandar Vucic of Serbia (a non-NATO nation) justified his central bank’s gold-repatriation program by hinting at economic headwinds ahead: “We see in which direction the crisis in the world is moving” (Dudik & Tomek, 2019). Indeed, with two global Titanics – the United States and China – set on a collision course with a quadrillions-denominated iceberg in the middle, and a viral outbreak on its tip, the seismic ripples will be felt far, wide and for a considerable period.

A reality check is nonetheless needed here: Can additional bullions realistically circumvallate the economies of 80 million plus peoples in these Eastern European nations, worth a collective $1.8 trillion by purchasing power parity? Gold however is a potent psychological symbol as it represents national sovereignty and economic reassurance in a potentially hyperinflationary world. The portents are clear: The current global economic system will be weakened by rising nationalism and autarkic demands. Much uncertainty remains ahead. Mauldin (2018) proposes the introduction of Old Testament-style debt jubilees to facilitate gradual national recoveries. The World Economic Forum, on the other hand, has long proposed a “Great Reset” by 2030; a socialist utopia where “you’ll own nothing and you’ll be happy” (WEF, 2016).

In the final analysis, COVID-19 is not the root cause of the current global economic turmoil; it is merely an accelerant to a burning house of cards that was left smouldering since the 2008 Great Recession (Maavak, 2020a). We also see how the four main pillars of systems thinking (diversity, interconnectivity, interactivity and “adaptivity”) form the mise en scene in a VUCA decade.

ENVIRONMENTAL

What happens to the environment when our economies implode? Think of a debt-laden workforce at sensitive nuclear and chemical plants, along with a concomitant surge in industrial accidents? Economic stressors, workforce demoralization and rampant profiteering – rather than manmade climate change – arguably pose the biggest threats to the environment. In a WEF report, Buehler et al (2017) made the following pre-COVID-19 observation:

The ILO estimates that the annual cost to the global economy from accidents and work-related diseases alone is a staggering $3 trillion. Moreover, a recent report suggests the world’s 3.2 billion workers are increasingly unwell, with the vast majority facing significant economic insecurity: 77% work in part-time, temporary, “vulnerable” or unpaid jobs.

Shouldn’t this phenomenon be better categorized as a societal or economic risk rather than an environmental one? In line with the systems thinking approach, however, global risks can no longer be boxed into a taxonomical silo. Frazzled workforces may precipitate another Bhopal (1984), Chernobyl (1986), Deepwater Horizon (2010) or Flint water crisis (2014). These disasters were notably not the result of manmade climate change. Neither was the Fukushima nuclear disaster (2011) nor the Indian Ocean tsunami (2004). Indeed, the combustion of a long-overlooked cargo of 2,750 tonnes of ammonium nitrate had nearly levelled the city of Beirut, Lebanon, on Aug 4 2020. The explosion left 204 dead; 7,500 injured; US$15 billion in property damages; and an estimated 300,000 people homeless (Urbina, 2020). The environmental costs have yet to be adequately tabulated.

Environmental disasters are more attributable to Black Swan events, systems breakdowns and corporate greed rather than to mundane human activity.

Our JIT world aggravates the cascading potential of risks (Korowicz, 2012). Production and delivery delays, caused by the COVID-19 outbreak, will eventually require industrial overcompensation. This will further stress senior executives, workers, machines and a variety of computerized systems. The trickle-down effects will likely include substandard products, contaminated food and a general lowering in health and safety standards (Maavak, 2019a). Unpaid or demoralized sanitation workers may also resort to indiscriminate waste dumping. Many cities across the United States (and elsewhere in the world) are no longer recycling wastes due to prohibitive costs in the global corona-economy (Liacko, 2021).

Even in good times, strict protocols on waste disposals were routinely ignored. While Sweden championed the global climate change narrative, its clothing flagship H&M was busy covering up toxic effluences disgorged by vendors along the Citarum River in Java, Indonesia. As a result, countless children among 14 million Indonesians straddling the “world’s most polluted river” began to suffer from dermatitis, intestinal problems, developmental disorders, renal failure, chronic bronchitis and cancer (DW, 2020). It is also in cauldrons like the Citarum River where pathogens may mutate with emergent ramifications.

On an equally alarming note, depressed economic conditions have traditionally provided a waste disposal boon for organized crime elements. Throughout 1980s, the Calabriabased ‘Ndrangheta mafia – in collusion with governments in Europe and North America – began to dump radioactive wastes along the coast of Somalia. Reeling from pollution and revenue loss, Somali fisherman eventually resorted to mass piracy (Knaup, 2008).

The coast of Somalia is now a maritime hotspot, and exemplifies an entwined form of economic-environmental-geopolitical-societal emergence. In a VUCA world, indiscriminate waste dumping can unexpectedly morph into a Black Hawk Down incident. The laws of unintended consequences are governed by actors, interconnections, interactions and adaptations in a system under study – as outlined in the methodology section.

Environmentally-devastating industrial sabotages – whether by disgruntled workers, industrial competitors, ideological maniacs or terrorist groups – cannot be discounted in a VUCA world. Immiserated societies, in stark defiance of climate change diktats, may resort to dirty coal plants and wood stoves for survival. Interlinked ecosystems, particularly water resources, may be hijacked by nationalist sentiments. The environmental fallouts of critical infrastructure (CI) breakdowns loom like a Sword of Damocles over this decade.

GEOPOLITICAL

The primary catalyst behind WWII was the Great Depression. Since history often repeats itself, expect familiar bogeymen to reappear in societies roiling with impoverishment and ideological clefts. Anti-Semitism – a societal risk on its own – may reach alarming proportions in the West (Reuters, 2019), possibly forcing Israel to undertake reprisal operations inside allied nations. If that happens, how will affected nations react? Will security resources be reallocated to protect certain minorities (or the Top 1%) while larger segments of society are exposed to restive forces? Balloon effects like these present a classic VUCA problematic.

Contemporary geopolitical risks include a possible Iran-Israel war; US-China military confrontation over Taiwan or the South China Sea; North Korean proliferation of nuclear and missile technologies; an India-Pakistan nuclear war; an Iranian closure of the Straits of Hormuz; fundamentalist-driven implosion in the Islamic world; or a nuclear confrontation between NATO and Russia. Fears that the Jan 3 2020 assassination of Iranian Maj. Gen. Qasem Soleimani might lead to WWIII were grossly overblown. From a systems perspective, the killing of Soleimani did not fundamentally change the actor-interconnection-interaction adaptivity equation in the Middle East. Soleimani was simply a cog who got replaced.

### 1NC

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 for the private sector and favor 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

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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

#### Only harmonized transnational antitrust solves the case---compliance and competition require streamlining the regulatory drag of conflicting legal systems, but the plan’s ad hoc unilateralism proliferates it

Camilla Jain Holtse 20, Associate General Counsel in Maersk Line, LL.M in European Law from King’s College, Master’s Degree from University of Aarhus, “Navigating Through Uncertain Waters—The Importance of Legal Certainty, Predictability, and Transparency in Future Antitrust Enforcement”, Journal of European Competition Law & Practice, Volume 11, Issue 8, October 2020, p. 446-447

I. Global developments suggest increased need for legal certainty in rulemaking and enforcement

Companies today operate in an increasingly globalised world, interconnected via digital platforms and ecosystems. The technological revolution is accelerating at an ever-increasing speed. It promises to fundamentally alter both the competitive landscape and the tools by which competition is regulated. Against this backdrop, the world is facing substantial environmental challenges with mounting pressure on businesses to change the way they operate, including an increasing need for firms to collaborate to achieve social goals and increased efficiency that no one firm could achieve independently.

While some progress has been made towards a unified view of competition law, companies are also facing rising geopolitical tensions that have led to protectionist measures and the pursuit of industrial policy objectives under the guise of competition law enforcement. Concepts including national security, full employment, and ‘fair’ or ‘level’ pricing frequently introduce domestic protection concerns into traditional economic tests. With the proliferation of competition regimes, now well over 100, the potential for regulatory drag on the global markets increases exponentially. Having spent the last two decades as competition counsel, I can say with certainty that the complexity of the legal landscape and uncertainty and unpredictability as to compliance with competition law regulations have increased dramatically in recent years both at a global and EU level. Companies are struggling to achieve legal competition law compliance despite consistent efforts including scaling up their compliance departments.

As our markets continue to evolve in the face of technology and sustainability and other social goals, it is now more important than ever for the European Commission (‘the Commission’) to ensure legal certainty, both in rulemaking and in enforcement. The costs associated with uncertainty should not be underestimated, particularly as the Commission considers new enforcement tools designed to address competition structures and practices that may fall outside of traditional economic analyses. Not only is transparency and predictability vital for the proper functioning of the European Economic Area, but it would also send a much-needed signal to the rest of the world. Conversely, if, in any new enforcement system transparency and predictability do not prevail, the Commission’s efforts would likely serve to indirectly legitimise non-transparent and unpredictable protectionist systems in other countries, not founded on the rule of law and due process.

Even if one of the key roles of the Commission is to enforce competition law, it is important to keep in mind that competition policy and enforcement are tools of economic policy. Implemented well, competition policy can stimulate economic growth and competitiveness but, if not, it can be a significant regulatory brake on investment, economic development, and sustainability advances.

#### Normative convergence through antitrust harmonization prevents extinction from resource depletion, human rights abuse, and war

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A. The international political environment

At the root of international political theory is the fundamental maxim that relations between sovereign nations in the absence of mitigating factors is characterized by intense competition, mutual distrust, the inability to make credible commitments, and war.20

[FOOTNOTE] 20 Political scientists characterize the international system as “anarchic.” In the absence of world government (or other mitigating force), competition between states is largely unregulated by external laws or enforcement. The world is characterized by mistrust, the inability to contract, and the ultimate reliance on a state’s own devices. See THOMAS HOBBES, LEVIATHAN 80 (Edwin Curley ed., 1994) (in the state of nature “the condition of man . . . is a condition of war of everyone against everyone”). In fuller terms:

There is no authoritative allocator of resources: we cannot talk about a ‘world society’ making decisions about economic outcomes. No consistent and enforceable set of comprehensive rules exists. If actors are to improve their welfare through coordinating their policies, they must do so through bargaining rather than by invoking central direction. In world politics, uncertainty is rife, making agreements is difficult, and no secure barriers prevent military and security questions from impinging on economic affairs.

ROBERT O. KEOHANE, AFTER HEGEMONY: COOPERATION AND DISCORD IN THE WORLD POLITICAL ECONOMY 18 (1984). Efficiency-enhancing gains from trade are difficult to appropriate because trade itself (and any other form of exchange or agreement between nations) is characterized by the absence of credible commitments to future behavior. And underlying the problem is the ever-present threat of the use of force. See, e.g., Kenneth N. Waltz, Anarchic Orders and Balances of Power, in NEOREALISM AND ITS CRITICS 98, 98 (Robert O. Keohane ed. 1986) (“The state among states . . . conducts its affairs in the brooding shadow of violence . . . . Among states, the state of nature is a state of war.”). Although this dire characterization of the international environment is, of course, a stylized approximation of the real world—there are always overlying constraints on sovereign behavior in the form of norms, reputational effects, and customary international law, HEDLEY BULL, THE ANARCHICAL SOCIETY: A STUDY OF ORDER IN WORLD POLITICS (1977)—it is a useful and widely accepted heuristic for crafting a theory of international politics. [END FOOTNOTE]

As one commentator notes, “Nations dwell in perpetual anarchy, for no central authority imposes limits on the pursuit of sovereign interests.”21 And states are “unitary actors who, at a minimum, seek their own preservation and, at a maximum, drive for universal domination.”22 As a result, states operating on the international stage are unable to judge the sincerity of each others’ stated intentions when those intentions are contrary to this manifest interest. Because of self-help rules, states are forced in the main to assess their own security environment by assessing the capabilities of competitors, downplaying their motives. Given that the nature of the competition can implicate the fundamental survival of one (or more) of the actors, actions taken by one state to improve its own security must necessarily decrease the security of its competitor; in the absence of mitigation, security is a zero-sum game.23 In a world where cooperation is exceedingly difficult (because there is no authority to enforce agreements, nor any basis for assessing the reliability of another state’s commitments), international relations are characterized by a continuous race to the bottom, a mindless arms race rather than the opportunity to realize gains from cooperation.

It is obvious that not all relations between states are characterized by the security dilemma, however. Canada, for example, shares an unprotected border with the most powerful nation in the world without degenerating into a destructive and costly arms race. By some mechanism, then, Canada must be able reliably to judge U.S. intentions, even absent the apparent ability by the United States credibly to bind itself to a nonaggressive policy toward Canada. The key to mitigating the pressures of the security dilemma is the ability to distinguish a state with aggressive and expansionist tendencies from a benign one.24 States can be distinguished by their fundamental type. They can be classified as “revisionist,” that is, they seek to subvert the dominant order, or they can be classified as “status quo,” that is, they seek to support it.25 But, as noted, a state’s ability to judge another’s intentions (as opposed simply to counting its armaments) is extremely tenuous and comes at great cost. In fact, political science offers few well-understood mechanisms for judging a state’s propensity for aggression.

At the same time, hegemonic states have an abiding interest in spreading and maintaining their dominant worldview.26 Not only is it imperative that dominant states receive credible signals about other states’ intentions, but it is also important that dominant states attempt to inculcate their norms within other states that, over time, might mount credible challenges to the dominant states’ security.27 The spread of hegemony through internalization of norms occurs for three reasons. First, states with similar institutions and sympathetic domestic norms are simply better and more reliable trading partners, and it is in the hegemon’s economic interest to instill its norms.28 Second, states with defensive military postures and that adhere to the status quo present significantly less security risk to dominant states.29 And finally, the hegemon has a normative interest in the spread of its culture, its worldview, and its norms.30 This conception of the playing field upon which states interact leads to the conclusion that, entirely apart from the immediate and substantial economic benefits to a state from well-ordered interactions with other states, hegemonic states also have a national security and a normative interest in the information to be gleaned from the fact that these interactions are, in fact, well ordered.

In the absence of centralized enforcement, privately held and nonverifiable information as to a state’s fundamental type is the critical problem in assessing motives.31

[FOOTNOTE] 31 See KEOHANE, supra note 20, at 31 (“Order in world politics is typically created by a single dominant power [or hegemon].”). States are consequently classified as one of two types, “revisionist” or “status quo,” based on their acceptance and adherence to the political norms, institutions, and rules created by the hegemon. Status quo states are those that try to improve their condition from within the framework of the accepted world order. Revisionist states, by contrast, seek to gain position both by working outside that order and by working to subvert the hegemonic order itself. For instance, the existing world order is generally accepted to be that created by the United States after World War II. It comprises a liberal international economic order, the use of multilateral institutions (such as the United Nations and the WTO), negotiation for dispute resolution rather than the threat of violence, and the promotion of liberal democratic moral norms. See, e.g., Schweller, supra note 24, at 85; HANS J. MORGENTHAU, POLITICS AMONG NATIONS: THE STRUGGLE FOR POWER AND PEACE 32 (1948). Trade disputes between status quo states (like tariff disputes between the United States and Europe) are resolved through peaceful negotiation rather than the threat of war. Although status quo states do not entirely eschew the use of violence, they typically seek international authorization and legitimization before employing military force, as in the multilateral operations in Iraq, Kosovo, and Afghanistan. Revisionist states, on the other hand, such as North Korea, Iran, and China, will more readily use military force as a bargaining tool and are more reluctant fully to participate in transparent military, economic, and political negotiations. [END FOOTNOTE]

States wishing to escape the pressures of the security dilemma and engage in cooperative behavior need a means of conveying their preferences to others in a credible manner. There are, in general, two means by which such information can be transmitted: states can either bind themselves in such a way that they are unable to deviate from a stated behavior (known as “hands tying” in Schelling),32 or they can signal their intention to engage in a specified course of action by incurring costs sufficiently large that they discourage the misrepresentation of preference.33

International institutions can play a crucial role in facilitating the transmission of this information.34 In particular, international agreements over the terms of trade, even without binding supranational enforcement authority, provide a means for states to bind themselves to a desirable course of behavior in the short run and, more importantly, to signal their acquiescence to the ruling world order in the long run. Because compliance with treaty obligations often requires signatories to alter their domestic laws to reflect the terms of the treaty, the costs of compliance can be substantial. In the short run, to the extent that states enforce their domestic laws they can bind themselves to a certain course of behavior. In the long run, a state’s willingness to incur the substantial costs of changing its laws, both the transaction costs inherent in changing domestic laws and the even more substantial costs in domestic political capital, signals a willingness to engage other states on the terms set by the reigning international power. Moreover, there may be unintended effects, as changes in domestic laws result in a new set of domestic incentives to which actors respond, and new windows of opportunity may open up through which policy entrepreneurs can push for the internalization of new norms.35 Competition laws in particular are susceptible to this mode of analysis.

Most nations have adopted competition laws as a way to actualize (as well as to symbolize) a degree of commitment to the competitive process and to the prevention of abusive business practices . . . . The introduction of competition laws and policies has also gone hand in hand with economic deregulation, regulatory reform, and the end of command and control economies.36

The surest way to remove the threat of war, increase wealth, conserve resources, and protect human rights is through fundamental agreement between all states (or at least effective agreement between verifiably status quo states) under a normative umbrella that promotes all of those values. This normative convergence can be effected through the stepwise internalization of the sorts of economic and democratic values inherent in international economic liberalization, perhaps most notably through the adoption of principled international antitrust standards.37

### 1NC

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

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.

### 1NC

Advantage CP

#### The United States federal government should:

#### ---financially induce dominant firms to not engage in anticompetitive behavior;

#### ---establish a Technology Competitiveness Council, Digital Service Academy, and civilian National Reserve;

#### ---incentivize the development of the domestic chip industry;

#### ---increase investment in federal artificial intelligence research, including making all finding available on an open-source platform;

#### ---covertly restrict the use of force until an armed attack has occurred;

#### ---increase international engagement consistent with existential multilateralism;

#### ---conduct a binding impact assessment over all legislative proposals, including an account for existential risk;

#### ---implement fiscal responsibility reforms.

## Innovation ADV

### Innovation---1NC

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

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.

#### Concentration is a myth---every shred of data goes neg.

Robert D. Atkinson 21, President of the Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, founding member of the Polaris Council who advices the U.S. Government Accountability Office’s Science, Technology Assessment, and Analytics team, Ph.D. in City and Regional Planning from the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, “No, Monopoly Has Not Grown,” National Review, 10-18-2021, https://www.nationalreview.com/2021/10/no-monopoly-has-not-grown

Over the past several years, advocates of much stricter antitrust laws and enforcement have grounded their case on a simple claim: U.S. industry concentration (monopoly) has increased to crisis proportions and the only solution is a radical overhaul of our nation’s antitrust laws, imposing much stricter limits on mergers and breaking up leading companies.

There is only one problem: Concentration has not increased, even though the “fact” of rising concentration has been picked up by a large number of pundits and commentators. The Economist got the ball rolling in 2016, concluding that two-thirds of the economy’s roughly 900 industries had become more concentrated between 1997 and 2012. Paul Krugman writes that “growing monopoly power is a big problem for the U.S. economy.” The anti-business advocacy group Open Markets refers to “America’s concentration crisis.” And now leading politicians parrot the claims. Senator Amy Klobuchar (D., Minn.), chair of the Senate Subcommittee on Competition Policy, Antitrust, and Consumer Rights, states: “We are seeing higher levels of market concentration across our economy.” Congressman David Cicilline (D., R.I.), chair of the House Antitrust Subcommittee, warns that America has a “monopoly problem.” And new Federal Trade Commission chair Lina Khan alleges that the United States faces a “sweeping market power problem.”

You’d think that pundits, advocates, and public officials would make some attempt to rely on data. But alas, that is not the case. The definitive source of data to measure economic concentration comes from the U.S. Census Bureau’s newly released 2017 Economic Census data for over 850 industries, from cane-sugar manufacturing to cable-TV providers. Comparing data from 2017 (the most recent year for which figures are available) and 2002 shows what has really happened with industry concentration. And the data are quite clear: This is much ado about little.

Just 35 of 851 industries are highly concentrated, with the top four firms’ sales accounting for more than 80 percent of industry sales (this is called the C4 ratio). In 2002, 62 percent of industry output was from industries with low levels of concentration (a C4 ratio below 50 percent), but by 2017, 80 percent of industries had low concentration. Moreover, of the 115 industries with a C4 ratio of 60 percent or more in 2002, the majority got less concentrated. Overall, the average C4 ratio for American industry increased only slightly, from 34.3 percent to 35.3 percent.

In addition, many highly concentrated industries, such as luggage and leather-goods stores (a C4 ratio of 81 percent), performing-arts companies, geothermal power generation, and paint and wallpaper stores, all face significant competition from firms in other industries, such as movie theaters, department stores, and natural-gas power generation. Moreover, over those 15 years, imports as a share of GDP have increased, adding even more competition in many sectors. And technology has created new competitors in different industries. Satellite radio and smartphones now compete with over-the-air radio stations, for example.

Anti-corporate populists have taken particular aim at “Big Tech.” However, of the 135 advanced-technology industries, only eight have C4 ratios above 80, with a majority of sectors becoming less concentrated by 2017. And most sectors still face tough competition. For example, even with the rise of Amazon, the C4 ratio of electronic shopping and mail-order houses increased, but only from 24 percent to 37 percent.

Finally, even in sectors where concentration grew to high levels, consumers usually benefited. The C4 ratio in the wireless-telecommunications industry increased from 63 percent to 86 percent. But industry productivity grew 84 percent faster than economy-wide productivity, while capital-investment rates doubled and nominal prices fell by 31 percent from 2011 to 2020.

But surely firms in the few concentrated industries must be making huge profits and jacking up prices, right? In fact, prices rose less from 2002 to 2017 in industries with higher levels of concentration than did the overall producer price index. And looking at the 80 industries for which both IRS profit data and Census Bureau concentration data were available, it turns out that there is no statistical relationship between profits and concentration. This is consistent with the finding that U.S. non-financial domestic business profits were no higher in the few years before COVID than in the late 1970s, when antitrust regulations were supposedly more vigorously enforced.

As Daniel Patrick Moynihan once famously stated, everyone is entitled to his own opinion, but not his own facts. It is time for the debate about “monopoly” and industry concentration to be grounded in facts.

#### The US remains ahead in AI because big tech is thriving.

Tristan Greene 21, covers human-centric artificial intelligence advances for The Next Web, “Here’s why the US continues to beat China in the AI race,” The Next Web, 06-02-2021, https://thenextweb.com/news/heres-why-the-us-continues-to-beat-china-in-the-ai-race

The global AI race was supposed to be a sprint. Back in 2017 when driverless cars and domestic robots were thought to be just around the corner, the promise of deep learning made it seem like we were mere months away from living in an AI-powered utopia.

As it turns out, the global AI race is more of a marathon. And the US has a huge lead that’ll be difficult to overcome for any country, but especially China.

The setup

It was easy to believe China would pull ahead a few years ago. US big tech companies such as Microsoft and Apple had always co-existed with eastern outfits. But, once deep learning exploded in 2014, many experts believed China would use its government influence to direct the flow of research in ways the EU and US’ respective leaders simply couldn’t.

And, for a while, it looked like that was going to be enough to propel the PRC to the top of the global AI leaderboards.

In the west, a lion’s share of AI research ends up patented by businesses who keep their algorithms in a walled-garden. But in the east things are different.

Per an article in the Harvard Business Review:

Unlike in Western developed economies where companies are the primary holders of AI patents, in China, the majority of AI patents are filed by universities and research institutes, most of which are government owned or sponsored.

China’s big problem

The biggest problem China has when it comes to AI is a lack of innovation. Consumer demand is at an all-time high for deep learning technologies in China, but this social trend isn’t translating into breakthroughs.

In essence, China is still playing catch up. The Chinese government may be pouring more money into research and producing more of it, but US tech companies are raising and spending more on research outside of academia.

The US government still spends more on defense AI than China, and US businesses spend more money on cutting-edge research than Chinese companies do.

Simply put, the biggest technology companies in the US can afford to invest in breakthrough research even when such research leads nowhere. The profit margins are much leaner at most Chinese firms so the incentive is typically on producing a profit.

Unfortunately for China, much of its AI position is rooted in developing Chinese-language versions of language recognition software and creating surveillance technology – neither of those are very marketable outside of places where Chinese is spoken or where privacy laws exist.

What it all means

Deep learning might not be the best path forward for artificial intelligence technologies. This is great news for big tech companies in the US. But it’s bad news for China.

In the US, where most of the AI breakthroughs tend to come from big tech companies with large enough coffers to afford supercomputers and high enough salaries to lure away academia’s brightest, scientists won’t miss a beat if we transition away from deep learning.

But China’s heavily-saturated market likely won’t extend beyond its own bubble, much less the deep learning bubble that could pop and leave AI-only companies behind. There’s a reason why there’s only one Chinese firm among the top five richest technology companies in the world.

It’ll be tough for academia in China to keep up with big tech in the US no matter how much data it can generate or acquire.

We’re more likely to see these kinds of catch-up cycles end in cooling-off cycles when heavy government investment doesn’t pay off. China could be headed for an AI winter.

#### 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.

## Inequality ADV

### Inequality---1NC

#### New standards get bogged down in courts.

Wright et al. 19, Joshua D. Wright, former Commissioner of the Federal Trade Commission, Ph.D. in Economics from the University of California, Los Angeles; Elyse Dorsey, Adjunct Professor at the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, Deputy Chair of the Antitrust & Consumer Protection Working Group at the Regulatory Transparency Project, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University; Jonathan Klick, Professor of Law at the University of Pennsylvania Carey Law School, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University; Jan M. Rybnicek, Adjunct Professor and Senior Fellow at the Global Antitrust Institute at the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, “REQUIEM FOR A PARADOX: The Dubious Rise and Inevitable Fall of Hipster Antitrust,” Arizona State Law Journal, Vol. 51, Spring 2019, accessed via Lexis

Replacing the well-established consumer welfare standard would necessarily require courts to trade off some amount of consumer welfare for some other set of values, thereby throwing open the door to uncertainty and to exploitative behavior. As has been discussed above, decades of debate and case law has worked to refine the precise contours of the consumer welfare standard and to bring consensus about the types of evidence that are indicative of harm to competition and consumers. 273 The consumer welfare standard employs a variety of economic tools to evaluate the effect transactions and business practices may have on consumers in the form of increased prices, reduced output, reduced innovation. By using current economic theory and empirical evidence as the starting point for creating liability rules and subsequently conducting an evidence-based inquiry into the welfare effects of a particular practice, the consumer welfare model offers a tractable method for weighing procompetitive and anticompetitive effects.

If consumer welfare were to be replaced by some other set of values, the result explicitly would be for courts and enforcers to elevate other factors above consumer welfare and to reach different conclusions about liability. Under a "public interest" or "citizen interest" approach, a transaction that would reduce prices to consumer, increase output, or spur innovation may be prohibited under the antitrust laws for failing to satisfy any number of other vague factors, including failing to leave some arbitrary number of competing firms in the market despite the clear presence of competition or create a more efficient albeit consolidated supply chain. Even more dramatically, a new standard also may result in a transaction that increases prices, reduces output, or stifles innovation to not necessarily run afoul of the antitrust laws if a court concludes that such consumer harm can be tolerated to satisfy other aspects of the multidimensional standard, such as income equality. In light of these very real concerns, a subjective, multiprong antitrust standard untethered from economics offers nothing beyond speculative benefits. Accordingly, it would be imprudent to abandon the consumer welfare standard.

[\*365] The same is true of proposals by some Hipster Antitrust advocates who seek not to implement a new public or citizen interest standard, but rather wish to see the Antitrust Agencies and courts return to the DOJ's 1968 Horizontal Merger Guidelines and a focus on market structure and concentration. These critics of the consumer welfare standard argue that modern antitrust has become far too complicated and, as a result, defendants all too frequently are capable of avoiding liability. To increase the probability of success under the antitrust law, they argue for a return to the days where an eight percent combined market share was sufficient grounds on which to block a transaction. Although this new structuralist approach has the benefit of clarity that the multi-dimensional public and citizen welfare tests lack, it is no better a replacement for the consumer welfare standard because it sacrifices accuracy for administrative simplicity. Although the economic foundation of the structuralist approach of the premodern era were robust, it has since been debunked and today no longer is treated credibly by industrial organization economics. Therefore, although replacing the consumer welfare standard with the 1968 structuralist approach may yield faster answers that are more frequently favorable to plaintiffs, the probability that those antitrust outcomes are in line with the actual competitive realities of whatever market is being examined is low.

# 2NC

## Bizcon DA

### Econ---Impact---2NC

#### It causes terrorism, civil wars, and diversion that go global---nothing checks

Dr. Qian Liu 18, PhD in Economics from Uppsala University, Former Visiting Researcher at the University of California, Berkeley, Managing Director for Greater China at The Economist Group, Guest Lecturer at New York University, Tsinghua University, the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences and Fudan University, “The Next Economic Crisis Could Cause A Global Conflict. Here's Why”, World Economic Forum, 11/13/2018, https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/11/the-next-economic-crisis-could-cause-a-global-conflict-heres-why

The next economic crisis is closer than you think. But what you should really worry about is what comes after: in the current social, political, and technological landscape, a prolonged economic crisis, combined with rising income inequality, could well escalate into a major global military conflict.

The 2008-09 global financial crisis almost bankrupted governments and caused systemic collapse. Policymakers managed to pull the global economy back from the brink, using massive monetary stimulus, including quantitative easing and near-zero (or even negative) interest rates.

But monetary stimulus is like an adrenaline shot to jump-start an arrested heart; it can revive the patient, but it does nothing to cure the disease. Treating a sick economy requires structural reforms, which can cover everything from financial and labor markets to tax systems, fertility patterns, and education policies.

Policymakers have utterly failed to pursue such reforms, despite promising to do so. Instead, they have remained preoccupied with politics. From Italy to Germany, forming and sustaining governments now seems to take more time than actual governing. And Greece, for example, has relied on money from international creditors to keep its head (barely) above water, rather than genuinely reforming its pension system or improving its business environment.

The lack of structural reform has meant that the unprecedented excess liquidity that central banks injected into their economies was not allocated to its most efficient uses. Instead, it raised global asset prices to levels even higher than those prevailing before 2008.

In the United States, housing prices are now 8% higher than they were at the peak of the property bubble in 2006, according to the property website Zillow. The price-to-earnings (CAPE) ratio, which measures whether stock-market prices are within a reasonable range, is now higher than it was both in 2008 and at the start of the Great Depression in 1929.

As monetary tightening reveals the vulnerabilities in the real economy, the collapse of asset-price bubbles will trigger another economic crisis – one that could be even more severe than the last, because we have built up a tolerance to our strongest macroeconomic medications. A decade of regular adrenaline shots, in the form of ultra-low interest rates and unconventional monetary policies, has severely depleted their power to stabilize and stimulate the economy.

If history is any guide, the consequences of this mistake could extend far beyond the economy. According to Harvard’s Benjamin Friedman, prolonged periods of economic distress have been characterized also by public antipathy toward minority groups or foreign countries – attitudes that can help to fuel unrest, terrorism, or even war.

For example, during the Great Depression, US President Herbert Hoover signed the 1930 Smoot-Hawley Tariff Act, intended to protect American workers and farmers from foreign competition. In the subsequent five years, global trade shrank by two-thirds. Within a decade, World War II had begun.

To be sure, WWII, like World War I, was caused by a multitude of factors; there is no standard path to war. But there is reason to believe that high levels of inequality can play a significant role in stoking conflict.

According to research by the economist Thomas Piketty, a spike in income inequality is often followed by a great crisis. Income inequality then declines for a while, before rising again, until a new peak – and a new disaster. Though causality has yet to be proven, given the limited number of data points, this correlation should not be taken lightly, especially with wealth and income inequality at historically high levels.

This is all the more worrying in view of the numerous other factors stoking social unrest and diplomatic tension, including technological disruption, a record-breaking migration crisis, anxiety over globalization, political polarization, and rising nationalism. All are symptoms of failed policies that could turn out to be trigger points for a future crisis.

Voters have good reason to be frustrated, but the emotionally appealing populists to whom they are increasingly giving their support are offering ill-advised solutions that will only make matters worse. For example, despite the world’s unprecedented interconnectedness, multilateralism is increasingly being eschewed, as countries – most notably, Donald Trump’s US – pursue unilateral, isolationist policies. Meanwhile, proxy wars are raging in Syria and Yemen.

Against this background, we must take seriously the possibility that the next economic crisis could lead to a large-scale military confrontation. By the logic of the political scientist Samuel Huntington , considering such a scenario could help us avoid it, because it would force us to take action. In this case, the key will be for policymakers to pursue the structural reforms that they have long promised, while replacing finger-pointing and antagonism with a sensible and respectful global dialogue. The alternative may well be global conflagration.

#### Turns every impact

Geoffrey Kemp 10, Director of Regional Strategic Programs at The Nixon Center, Served in the White House Under Ronald Reagan, Special Assistant to the President for National Security Affairs and Senior Director for Near East and South Asian Affairs on the National Security Council Staff, Former Director, Middle East Arms Control Project at the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 2010, The East Moves West: India, China, and Asia’s Growing Presence in the Middle East, p. 233-234

The second scenario, called Mayhem and Chaos, is the opposite of the first scenario; everything that can go wrong does go wrong. The world economic situation weakens rather than strengthens, and India, China, and Japan suffer a major reduction in their growth rates, further weakening the global economy. As a result, energy demand falls and the price of fossil fuels plummets, leading to a financial crisis for the energy-producing states, which are forced to cut back dramatically on expansion programs and social welfare. That in turn leads to political unrest: and nurtures different radical groups, including, but not limited to, Islamic extremists. The internal stability of some countries is challenged, and there are more “failed states.” Most serious is the collapse of the democratic government in Pakistan and its takeover by Muslim extremists, who then take possession of a large number of nuclear weapons. The danger of war between India and Pakistan increases significantly. Iran, always worried about an extremist Pakistan, expands and weaponizes its nuclear program. That further enhances nuclear proliferation in the Middle East, with Saudi Arabia, Turkey, and Egypt joining Israel and Iran as nuclear states. Under these circumstances, the potential for nuclear terrorism increases, and the possibility of a nuclear terrorist attack in either the Western world or in the oil-producing states may lead to a further devastating collapse of the world economic market, with a tsunami-like impact on stability. In this scenario, major disruptions can be expected, with dire consequences for two-thirds of the planet’s population.

#### Turns China.

Dr. Brandon **Tozzo 18**. Ph.D in Political Studies. Commentator. Political Science Professor at Trent University. 2018. “The Demographic and Economic Problems of China.” American Hegemony after the Great Recession, Palgrave Macmillan UK. CrossRef, doi:10.1057/978-1-137-57539-5.

So far, China’s high level of economic growth has meant that widening social cleavages have not presented a serious threat to the rule of the CCP, which has managed to bolster its legitimacy by positioning itself as a regime capable of delivering prosperity to its people.14 However, it must be kept in mind that China’s developmental model is predicated on economic growth and positive relations with the USA, the country that its rise is supposedly threatening to unseat as hegemon of the international system. Despite the global economic downturn, the USA remains China’s most important export market, making up close to 20% of China’s foreign trade in 2010.15 There are two major reasons why this is the case. The frst has to do with the value of the Renminbi vis-à-vis the US dollar. By comparative standards, China’s currency is pegged well below its US counterpart, providing an immediate economic incentive to American consumers to buy Chinese goods. The second has to do with the low wages paid to Chinese workers. Although the wages of China’s urban workforce have increased over the past decade, they still remain extremely low by American standards. These low wages decrease production costs, which further lowers the price of goods and encourages US consumption.16 As a result of these factors, Washington has been placing pressure on China to revalue the Renminbi, arguing that it provides an unfair advantage to Chinese producers while at the same time hindering domestic production and consumption.17 Beijing’s resistance to this pressure stems from its fear that increasing the value of the Renminbi too rapidly could serve as a disincentive for investment, slowing exports to the USA and leading to unemployment to China. Since a major downturn in the economy could lead to protests and riots against the ruling party, as well as reducing the resources available for programs designed alleviate China’s social ills, the Chinese government remains dependent on US consumer demand in order to provide the prosperity that it uses to justify its rule. One consequence of China’s reliance on American consumption to ensure its own economic prosperity has been willingness of the Chinese government to invest heavily in US debt. Throughout the 2000s, Americans were able to borrow massive sums of money at low interest rates without having to worry about a negative reaction from fnancial markets, and much of that money was provided by Chinese banks. The Chinese were willing to invest in American debt for a number of reasons, the most important being that US Treasury bonds were seen as a safe investment, but also because buying up these assets allowed American consumers to keep spending money on Chinese goods. The trillion dollar obligation the US owes the Chinese places Washington in a weakened position, and on the surface, it does seem as if China holds a great deal of economic leverage over the USA. However, China’s vast exposure to American debt is a double-edged sword. The Chinese are too invested in the USA to withdraw their fnancing, which in turn decreases any leverage Beijing might have over American economic policy. This reason behind this entrapment has to do with several important pathologies of Chinese development. Stateowned enterprises continue to be a key component of China’s domestic economy; they depend upon growth in China’s privately owned foreign investment for growth and proftability (Vermieren 2014). This has led to a broad penetration of the use of fxed assets in both state-owned enterprises and in private enterprises that rely upon exports (Ibid 2014). Deleveraging itself from the USA would be diffcult. Even if the government slowly started selling off Treasury bonds, it would shake the confdence of international investors, leading to an increase in interest rates as the USA struggled to fnance its defcit and avoid default.18 Higher interest rates would also slow US consumer spending, hurting Chinese exports and its state-owned enterprises and leading to unemployment as factories close and workers are laid off. In addition to the domestic repercussions, any remaining US debt held by the Chinese government would decline in value, since it would become harder to sell off bonds as US interest rates rose. China’s economic future is therefore tightly bound to that of America, since any action that undermined the US economy would have dire consequences for the Chinese economy as well. Also, China has not completely insulated itself from domestic and international economic turmoil. It has started to reach a development plateau with its low-wage workforce requiring higher value-added industries in order to keep up its economic growth.19 Similar to other Asian countries, China must diversify its economic and political system if it wants to continue to develop. This does not suggest China will democratize in the near future, however, China’s continued development requires increasing the value of the Renminbi to lower the cost of purchasing foreign technology and reducing the intervention of the Chinese government in order to better meet domestic and foreign consumer demand.20 Thus far, the CCP has been willing to gradually increase the Renminbi but has been far more reluctant to withdraw its control from the economy—a testament to a regime that is highly self-conscious. Though China’s growth since 2008 had been mainly due to domestic consumption, there are limits on how protracted this recovery can be if the EU and America fall back into recession. Despite a burgeoning middle class, China still relies on foreign exports in order to keep its job market growing. If another major fnancial crisis hits a major trading partner, despite the resources of the CCP, it could hamper China’s economic growth. There are also fears China could experience a housing market collapse similar to the USA and Europe. Since the crisis occurred in 2008, the CCP introduced a series of stimulus measures coupled with low interest rates on loans from Chinese banks.21 The intent of these policies was to prevent a protracted economic recession from threatening China’s growth and ipso facto the legitimacy of the regime. Similar to the USA in the early 2000s, many Chinese people took out cheap loans and began to speculate on the value of their property.22 This has led to a housing market boom in areas of China, but has led many to worry that a collapse of the market may harm the Chinese economy. The government has begun to raise interest rates to lower demand, but a correction in the value of the market of this scale could represent the loss of the billions in equity for many Chinese people. While China’s banks have considerable government oversight—preventing a similar bankruptcy to Lehman Brothers in the USA—there is potential for a major recession to hit the Chinese economy. So, despite its institutional barriers in place by the CCP, the liberalization of the economy has made China vulnerable to fnancial markets. This could have massive potential consequences on the stability of the Chinese regime and on global economic stability. More recently, China’s economy has experienced a stock market crisis in 2015, though this has not translated into a broader economic downturn in the economy. There is, of course, some diffculty in relying upon government-based reports, since the government has a political incentive to promote data favourable to the regime. Nonetheless, despite the lack of reliable information there has been a slowdown in private-sector investment, from growth of more than 40% in 2011 to just 2.8% in the frst half of 2016 (Economist 2016). Rather than an anomaly, the lack of private-sector investment is indicative of other worrying signs in the economy. Although the Chinese economy is still growing, there are other sign of underlying economic strain. The credit market in China is on a sharp increase compared to nominal growth, growing at 16% this year, meaning loose monetary policy set by the central bank is allowing for both private and state-owned enterprises to leverage at a rapid pace. Moreover, China’s debt-to-GDP level has exploded—from roughly 150% before the 2008 global fnancial crisis to more than 250% in 2016 (Economist 2016). This puts it similar to countries such as Spain and Japan, both have long-term structural economic problems that will undermine growth for the foreseeable future. In a period of eight years since the onset of the fnancial crisis, China has gone from a country that was praised for its resilience, to one of the most in debt large economies in the world. While it would be premature to suggest China will face similar economic problems, the sheer amount of debt in China has led the IMF to publish a working paper on how to ease China’s debt problems before they lead to a crisis that will affect the domestic and international economy. The IMF report identifed several measures to ease China’s debt burden and aid its economy to transition from a middle-income country to a higher income country. The paramount recommendation is that the Chinese government must recognize and cease supporting, through favourable loans and government-backing, failing and bankrupt companies (IMF 2016). The Chinese government has long protected industries that have close ties to the party. Though there has been a recognition by the Chinese government to tackle corruption within state-owned enterprises, there is still a reluctance by offcials to let companies go bankrupt if they face signifcant economic problems. There is excessive corporate debt and a reluctance among the political establishment to lift the implicit guarantees on SOEs and make the necessary structural changes to reform China’s economy including the privatization of telecommunications and energy sectors (Economist 2016). While these economic recommendations may be necessary to avoid a crisis in China’s economy by providing some “short-term pain for long-term gain”, the political will to implement them is lacking (IMF 2016). There is a reluctance within the Chinese political establishment to accept policies that may undermine economic growth for fear of causing political strife in the country, even if in the long-term it may be benefcial to the country. These economic problems have not gone unnoticed by the people of China—there has been an exponential increase in the quality and quantity of strikes and protests from Chinese workers and social groups. As economic growth has slowed, wages and job growth have declined as well—many workers have been denied wages, leading to strikes and labour protests erupting across the country (Hernandez 2016). A labour rights group based in Hong Kong—the Chinese Labour Bulletin— recorded more than 2700 strikes and protests in 2015, more than double the number in 2014; the strife appears to have intensifed in the early months of 2016, with more than 500 protests in January alone (Ibid). Yet again, we get a signifcant tension between the top-down policy from the Chinese government and the response from people who are faced with precarious working conditions and less pay. If the Chinese government does implement structural reform to the economy, it will lead to the failure of many SOEs that have been propped up through favourable conditions by the Chinese government. However, if they are allowed to fail, more protests with erupt from angry workers who are either unemployed or must continue to accept less wages. Despite the sophisticated mechanisms for repression from the Chinese government, the protests are becoming increasingly better organized and sophisticated. Since protests have become widespread, protesters have been using social media as an organizational tool (Minter 2016). The response of the Chinese government to these protests across stateowned and private enterprises has been the same: to arrest dissidents, clamp down on social media and delete news reports on strikes (Ibid). In particular, the Chinese government has devoted more resources to limiting social media and quickly deleting protests and anti-government riots from dissenting workers. The Chinese government has a long-standing policy to block platforms that may be used to organize dissent or spread messages that threaten its legitimacy. For example, some of the largest social media sites used in the West, like Facebook and Twitter, have been blocked by the Chinese government and politically sensitive phrases are often quickly deleted from blogs and other websites (Bamman 2012). Even with these obvious impediments, labour groups use social media platforms to organize and spread their discontent. Some of the largest and well-organized protests, typically numbering in the thousands though diffcult to confrm, have come from China’s north-eastern state-owned coal industry, which has been hit by the slowing of the Chinese economy. The demands of the workers are commonplace payment of wages and better working conditions. However, the state-owned coal industry is caught in a bind: demand for coal has declined by 6% in 2015, while the industry must provide the supply at below market prices to keep energy prices low for other Chinese industries and for growing cities (Hornby 2016). The case of the coal worker strike highlights a growing tension within China: between the economic restructuring that is necessary to prevent a widespread recession throughout the country and the expedient political and economic policies that maintain control for the Communist Party. Indeed, the crackdown on worker protests and censorship is not a sign of strength, but speaks to the fragility of the regime: Despite appearances, China’s political system is badly broken, and nobody knows it better than the Communist Party itself. China’s strongman leader, Xi Jinping, is hoping that a crackdown on dissent and corruption will shore up the party’s rule. He is determined to avoid becoming the Mikhail Gorbachev of China, presiding over the party’s collapse. But instead of being the antithesis of Mr. Gorbachev, Mr. Xi may well wind up having the same effect. His despotism is severely stressing China’s system and society—and bringing it closer to a breaking point. (Shambaugh 2015: 2) The actions of the Chinese party against dissent are not a testament to its power, but a sign of its weakness. Unlike democratic countries, where people can voice their dissent and periodically vote their leaders out, the Chinese government is unwilling to tolerate political opposition to the regime. While the methods to combat protesters are getting more sophisticated, every time the Chinese government intervenes, it shows the vulnerability of the government: it is a self-conscious regime that is aware that its own legitimacy may be threatened. The actions of the business elite in China are another sign of discontent with the regime: 64% of 393 millionaires and billionaires polled by the Hurun Research Institute are currently emigrating or planning to leave China, and they are sending their children to study abroad (Shambaugh 2015). While it is far too premature to tell if the regime is threatened, the protests from industrial workers and the reluctance of elites to commit to the country’s future offer worrying signs for the regime. Moreover, China’s rapid development has not gone unnoticed by the American security establishment. Currently, two contradictory streams of thought about the relative rise of China are common among Washington policy-makers. First is that a prosperous China will be a positive outcome for regional and global security and development.23 Some policy-makers argue China has already integrated peacefully into the international institutions and a wealthier China could be a large market for imports from the USA. Thus far, at least, Beijing has been relatively accommodating to Western interests and open to Western investment. Even when tension has occurred in the past, such as when the Americans bombed a Chinese embassy in Kosovo, the close economic ties have been a stabilizing force in China’s relationship to the West.24 Thus China’s ascent could be peaceful if both sides are willing to continue compromising on economic and security matters. Indeed, thus far, the relationship between China and the USA has been called “interdependent hegemony”: the two powers have built a political and economic framework that provides accommodation and integrates China into the pre-existing hegemonic system where confict can be resolved through institutional channels (Christensen and Xing 2016). On the other hand, some in the security establishment believe it is only a matter of time before China becomes more assertive over Taiwan and scarce oil and other natural resources.25 They argue a rising China will displace the contemporary balance of power and instigate conflict with the USA. The past may not be indicative of the future and China is facing a series of domestic and international challenges moving from a middle-income to high income country. Also due to US pressure, China is facing growing pressure to realign its currency, a greater number of trade investment and intellectual property disputes, a more hostile security environment and exclusionary regional trans-Pacifc and transAtlantic trade agreements, such as the Trans-Pacifc Partnership (Glenn 2017). While US–China relations have been relatively stable for the past 40 years, it is not necessarily an indication that they will remain so inevitably as China continues to grow as a global power and the USA becomes more protectionist. With recent historical examples such as the ascent of Germany leading to the two world wars or the Soviet Union’s 50-year Cold War, they argue Washington should take precautions over a rapidly developing China. These policy-makers advocate heightened preparedness with increased military spending and stronger ties to allies in Southeast Asia.26 Washington should not be reluctant to take a hard line to defend its economic and security interests when they will be, inevitably, threatened by Beijing. This has led to a contradiction between those in the security establishment and those in the economic and business community. China is both a potential threat and a potential stabilizing force. As discussed earlier, China and the USA are highly interdependent with the Chinese holding trillions in US debt while relying upon the Americans to consume Chinese-made products. Many realists often point out Europe was highly integrated prior to the First World War, particularly Britain and Germany, but this did not prevent a catastrophic conflict from engulfing the continent.27 This ignores the fact many European leaders believed the war would be short and inexpensive, and not a long, protracted, violent affair that left millions dead and four empires in ruins.28 The war also displaced international economic integration for the next 50 years— not exactly a predictable outcome from a confict that was supposed to be over by the Christmas of 1914. Few, if any, scholars or policy-makers are under the illusion that a confict between China and the America would be cheap in terms of materiel or human lives or easily resolvable once started. Both Beijing and Washington recognize their mutual economic reliance and the advent of nuclear weapons, perhaps a key reason the Cold War did not cascade into a full out war, raises the costs of great power confict even further. Yet, many in Washington still view China as threat to American interests. While seemingly unaffected by the fnancial crisis, by 2015, China began to experience an economic downturn of its own. In many ways, China is a victim of its own economic model. Its stock market, which continued to grow after many in the West were mired in recession, experienced a rapid decline in the summer of 2015, losing almost $5 trillion in value. While stock markets are not the only, or even the best, test of a country’s economic vitality, there are other worrying signs China may be in for a diffcult period. The very industrial process behind China’s economic development—manufacturing goods for export—is being adopted by other countries in the region with cheaper labour markets, such as Vietnam. Though China is still a strong regional power, it seems to be experiencing a middle-income country trap. It is fnding the transition from middle-income status to high income, diffcult for a series of international and domestic economic problems. The rise of China could lead to tension with the USA, but conflict between these two countries would have dire economic consequences for the global economy. It is possible that domestic or international factors could lead Beijing to be more aggressive on issues such as Taiwan leading to a direct confrontation with the USA, but if the economic consequences of 9/11 or the fnancial crisis are any indication, fnancial markets will limit the policies of these countries. Both countries are reliant upon the free mobility of goods and fnance to maintain economic growth and prosperity. In China’s case, the regime depends on job creation for stability. The international economy in this case has conditioned the two countries to, at least thus far, peacefully co-exist with each other, with neither country willing to destabilize the global economy. Financial markets have the capacity to punish countries for acting contrary to the demands of capital and the USA and China are no exception.

### Econ---Impact---2NC---Turns Case---1

#### Decline turns the case---agencies will cease enforcement during the downturn

Anika Dandekar 21, Political Science at University of California, San Diego, “Politics of Antitrust Enforcement: The Influence of Ideology and Party Control on Regulatory Behavior”, Senior Thesis, 3/29/2021, https://polisci.ucsd.edu/undergrad/departmental-honors-and-pi-sigma-alpha/A.Dandekar\_Senior-Honors-Thesis.pdf

1.3.3 Bureaucratic Approach

Some scholars have tried to explain varying antitrust by changing makeup or preferences of regulatory agencies themselves.

Some suggest that the agencies respond to external factors. Amacher et al. (1985) examined FTC enforcement of the Robinson- Patman Act and found that it was influenced by economic conditions, decreasing during business contractions and increasing during periods of expansion. They suggested that this means "the FTC moves to cushion producer losses" during hard economic times, but transfers "wealth to consumers" during economic upswings. Lewis-Beck (1979) found that while small increases in the division's budget did not reduce anticompetitive behavior, a major increase in the division's budget might significantly stem merger activity because of a "threshold effect”.

### Econ---Impact---2NC---Turns Case---2

#### War rolls back antitrust reform AND enforcement

Dr. Bruce A. Khula 3, Juris Doctor Candidate at Notre Dame Law School, Ph.D. and MA from The Ohio State University, Associate General Counsel at Progressive Insurance, “Antitrust at the Water's Edge: National Security and Antitrust Enforcement”, Notre Dame Law Review, Volume 78, Issue 2, 78 Notre Dame L. Rev. 629, January 2003, Lexis

A comprehensive historical analysis of the origins and development of antitrust law is clearly beyond the scope of the present work. [\*632] Besides, other scholars have already written quite excellent ones. Instead, this Note will address a specific and often under-appreciated element of antitrust politics: the intersection between antitrust law and national security. Underscoring the narrative that follows is the conviction that national security issues exert a powerful - indeed, in a great many cases, inexorable - influence on the enforcement of antitrust laws, often forcing aside domestic political considerations and efficiency goals alike. In the years since World War II, national security issues have become extremely pervasive and far-reaching, permeating many aspects of American politics and culture. The immediate concerns of national security include foreign relations, defense policy, and internal security, and this Note will limit itself to a consideration of these issues. It will demonstrate that the national security ethos acts as a political check of the highest level on antitrust law - and, in so doing, it will make plain that, like it or not, politics does indeed play a role in antitrust enforcement.

Part I of this Note briefly lays out the history and development of antitrust, placing particular emphasis on the political nature of the law. Part II considers the historical impact of foreign policy and national security concerns on antitrust law. Such an impact necessarily includes a brief assessment of the development of foreign antitrust traditions, as well as the obstacles to enforcement stemming from comity or the involvement of multinational enterprise. The narrative and descriptive heart of this Note lies in Part III. This Part contains a case study of the dynamics of national security upon antitrust law, focusing on litigation against the United Fruit Company during the 1950s. Finally, Part IV serves as an epilogue of sorts, providing an unfinished contemporary outline of the possible political effect of national security on the Microsoft litigation.

[\*633]

I. Antitrust Law: History and Development

A good starting point for examining the origins of antitrust law might fruitfully be found in the etymology of the word "antitrust" itself. The study of etymology is not history per se, of course, but it is the history of words. And such a history - even an amateurish history, like that which follows - may be useful if one is to consider how the concept of antitrust developed as a legal and political concept. Postmodernist concerns aside, one can still assume that what a group of people call a thing can provide insight into the nature of that thing. Proceeding on this assumption, it is instructive to dissect the word "antitrust" and attempt to place the word into the context of the late nineteenth century.

Thankfully, one does not have to be a practiced etymologist to pull content out of the word "antitrust," for it breaks down quite neatly into two distinct parts. The meaning of the first part, "anti," is obvious enough, and the Oxford English Dictionary (OED) describes it as a Greek derivative, meaning "opposed, in opposition, opponent, rival." The second half of the word "antitrust" is clearly the more significant of the two.

In the 1840s, the word "trust" was a "duty or office … entrusted to one" that was commonly thought to be "created for the benefit of the whole people, and not for the benefit of those who may fill them." Rudolph Peritz claims that by the 1880s and 1890s, in the minds of Americans, the word "trust" lost this former meaning and acquired a radically different one: "trust as a fearsome concentration of economic power that unjustly enriched a select few at the expense of the commonwealth." The OED affirms this claim, and cites a passage from late nineteenth century writer James Bryce as exemplary of the transformation of the meaning of "trust." Because of its descriptive nature, Bryce's passage is worth quoting in full:

Those anomalous giants called Trusts - groups of individuals and corporations concerned in one branch of trade or manufacture, which are placed under the irresponsible management of a small knot of persons, who, through their command of all the main producing or distributing agencies, intend and expect to dominate the market.

[\*634] Peritz's claims and Bryce's diction suggest that the public discourse regarding the so-called "trust" in the late nineteenth century went far beyond concern for mere economic efficiency. Judging from the tone and insistence of Bryce's writing alone, it seems clear that the motivating sense of fear, anguish over unjust enrichment, and concern for the well-being of democratic society did not emanate from a desire for economic efficiency or consumer choice. The object of such language was concentrated power, not efficiency. Hofstadter makes this same connection, seeing fear of concentrated power as the logical thread running from "pre-Revolutionary tracts through the Declaration of Independence and The Federalist to the writings of the states' rights advocates, and beyond the Civil War into the era of the antimonopoly writers and the Populists."

This observation removes us from etymology and brings us back to history itself. As a matter of history, nineteenth century public discourse over concentrated power and the transformation of the word "trust" was rooted specifically in the rise of big business. It is difficult to date the beginnings of big business in the United States, but a general historical consensus holds that large-scale enterprise began to rise in the aftermath of the Civil War and grew almost exponentially in the following decades. Facilitated by the advent and spread of the telegraph and railroad, big business germinated in the United States and gradually acquired the following traits or characteristics: capital-intensiveness, economy of scale, separation of ownership from management, enhanced geographic scope, vertical integration, complex managerial organization, and impersonal labor relations. Technical words such as these may provide a fairly accurate description of what big business was, but they utterly fail to capture the enormous social, political, and economic impact that such business had on Americans.

The establishment of big business "constituted a massive social change" and provided a "seedbed of a new social and economic order." [\*635] Richard Hofstadter notes that the "American tradition of democracy was formed on the farm and in small villages, and its central ideas were founded in rural sentiments and on rural metaphors." The very nature of big business explicitly challenged time-honored traditions, for it accelerated urbanization, encouraged mass immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe, established new classes of industrial laborers and middle-class managers, and ultimately jarred the nation's sensibilities by creating a mass society built around mass consumption. Though not all of these transformations happened at once, most all of them were underway by the late nineteenth century and were deeply felt by Americans at all levels of society. The most important political and social movements of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century - namely, the labor movement, agrarian Populism, and Progressivism - all originated in the dislocations brought by the rise of big business. By the 1880s and 1890s, Americans were therefore struggling to place their lives back in order and reestablish control over their nation's economic institutions, particularly the new and fearsome "trusts."

Exactly what blame, one might ask, did Americans affix to the "trusts"? Or more fruitfully, what social, political, or economic ill did Americans not blame on them? William Letwin sums up nicely the broad range of anger that Americans harbored for big business:

trusts, it was said, threatened liberty, because they corrupted civil servants and bribed legislators; they enjoyed privileges such as protection by tariffs; they drove out competitors by lowering prices, victimized consumers by raising prices, defrauded investors by [\*636] watering stocks, put laborers out of work by closing down plants, and somehow or other abused everyone.

Fair or not, a significant number of Americans blamed big business for the totality of woes stemming from modern society. And just as their accusations were loud and clear, so too was their preferred remedy: "a law to destroy the power of the trusts."

It was in such an environment that modern-day American antitrust law was born. It is necessary to add such qualifiers as "modern-day" and "American" because competition law developed long before the 1890s as an element of English common law. In its incipiency, competition law sought "to encourage competitive forces by its traditional emphasis on individual liberty and economic independence." As early as the 1500s, English common law attempted to fulfill this charge by curtailing practices such as "forestalling, engrossing, and regrating," which sought to manipulate prices at the wholesale stage of the distributive process. This doctrine evolved such that its eventual usage in American common law treated "combination" or "restraint of trade" as a tort, and suits based on this kind of tort theory were brought almost exclusively by private litigants, not by municipalities or states. As Hans Thorelli notes, neither in England nor the [\*637] United States did common law competition policy accomplish very much. Enforcement was scattershot, penalties were inadequate, litigation was driven only by private parties, and results fluctuated considerably. The rise of big business and the "trusts" made all too clear the inadequacy of the common law, even if the values of liberty and economic independence that animated the common law remained as strong as ever.

The first seeds of modern antitrust law grew at the state level. Before 1890, and particularly from 1888 through 1890, a total of twenty-one states and territories adopted provisions against restraints of trade. These sorts of laws attempted to deal with the trust problem by undercutting means of collusion, holding agreements and contracts in restraint of trade to be void and unenforceable. Thorelli attributes this rush of state legislative action to strongly felt "public agitation" and adds that the state-level effort "was not enough to satisfy popular opposition to 'trusts.'" Such dissatisfaction and continued anxiety about big business surely set the stage for the passage of the Sherman Act in 1890. The specific machinations that led Sen. John Sherman to introduce his antitrust resolution on July 10, 1888, and that culminated in its enactment as law two years later is a long story, interesting in its own right, yet not the province of this Note. It suffices to note that deeply felt public sentiment - drawing upon a venerable history of antimonopoly tradition steeped in a desire for liberty and a sense of commonweal - animated Congress and the President to ensure that a federal antitrust statute became law on July 2, 1890.

In the decades following passage of the Sherman Act, the development of antitrust was pulled thither and yon by various, explicitly [\*638] political currents. The "trusts" did not, of course, immediately recede into the darkness following passage of the Sherman Act, and neither did public agitation - ostensibly the "antitrust movement" of which Hofstadter writes - dissipate. Antitrust remained one of the highest priorities in the United States well into the Progressive Era, eclipsing other social welfare issues. Early on, the battle took the form of literalists (who sought enforcement of the Sherman Act without regard to the "reasonableness" of restraints) against restorationists (who wanted the common law distinction between reasonable and unreasonable restraints restored to the Sherman Act). In essence, literalists wanted the jurisprudence of United States v. Trans-Missouri Freight Ass'n to prevail, whereas the restorationists championed the Sixth Circuit's jurisprudence in United States v. Addyston Pipe & Steel Co. This debate, it must be emphasized, was by no means strictly - or even principally - judicial; rather, it was carried on with great vigor by political figures, businessmen, farmers, labor leaders, and scholars, in addition to jurists and lawyers. The restorationists ultimately won this battle in 1911, with the establishment of the "standard of reason" in Standard Oil Co. v. United States and the contemporaneous case, United States v. American Tobacco Co.

By the time antitrust law passed its third decade and entered the 1920s, the mood of the nation had changed. The "trust" issue had been thrust aside by the First World War, and an "ethic of cooperative competition," championed by Herbert Hoover and the Republican Party more generally, prevailed. Under Hoover's secretariat, the newly invigorated Department of Commerce took the lead in creating a closer and more cooperative relationship between big business and government, and the importance of the Sherman Act waned and became principally a means to rein in those businesses whose bigness was obtained with few benefits to society at large. Hooverian politics and "cooperative competition" managed to survive the early dark days [\*639] of the Great Depression and to a considerable degree manifested themselves in the codes of competition of the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 (NIRA).

In the years after the U.S. Supreme Court scuttled NIRA, however, the administration of Franklin Roosevelt began to take a very different approach to antitrust law. In April 1938, Roosevelt informed Congress that his administration was concerned that the persistence of depression was abetted by monopolistic practices, and he recommended suitable action. Congress responded by creating the Temporary National Economic Committee (TNEC), and for three years the TNEC worked hand-in-hand with the Assistant Attorney General for Antitrust, Thurman Arnold, to launch a "barrage of antimonopoly action." As with most New Deal policies, this "barrage" was calculated to win political support, and, in this respect it did not fail. But this born-again antitrust zeal would not survive the coming of yet another global war.

### U---Growth---2NC

#### Recovery’s sustainable because CEO remain confident---new regulatory risks end the upswing

Lananh Nguyen 10-19, Wall Street Reporter for the New York Times, BA from Tufts University, “Wall Street Sees a Record Deal Spree as a Reason for Optimism”, New York Times, 10/19/2021, https://www.nytimes.com/2021/10/15/business/wall-street-banks-earnings-mergers.html

The dealmakers at the nation’s biggest banks are the busiest they’ve ever been. Interest rates are low, private equity firms flush with cash are looking for promising investments, and companies are aggressively pursuing mergers at a breakneck pace.

Wall Street banks announced blockbuster quarterly profits this week from a record wave of transactions that shows no signs of ebbing: Even in the face of surging inflation and shaky consumer sentiment, corporate clients are ready to deal — and bank leaders say that’s a reason to be optimistic about the economic recovery.

“Whenever C.E.O. confidence is high, M&A activity increases,” David M. Solomon, Goldman Sachs’s chief executive, said in an interview Friday after the bank reported third-quarter earnings of $5.38 billion, surpassing analyst forecasts. “The world’s resettled a bit coming out of the pandemic, and that is now giving a lot of companies an opportunity to really take note of where they want to go.” A record $1.6 trillion in mergers and purchases were struck worldwide in the quarter, according to a research report from Refinitiv. That, in turn, set records for advisory businesses across Wall Street: Goldman Sachs and Morgan Stanley tallied record revenues, JPMorgan Chase and Bank of America announced all-time high fees, and Citigroup’s mergers and acquisitions bankers had their best quarter in a decade.

Goldman Sachs has already had the most profitable year in its history — earning $17.7 billion so far — with three months to go. In the most recent quarter, its bankers closed transactions including the $32 billion spinoff of Universal Music Group by the French conglomerate Vivendi and Salesforce.com’s $28.1 billion purchase of Slack Technologies. Those were two of the 10 biggest deals completed in the three-month period ending in September, according to Dealogic.

Morgan Stanley also had two top-10 deals: the chip maker Analog Devices’s $20 billion acquisition of a competitor, Maxim Integrated, and the $12.3 billion purchase of Proofpoint, a cybersecurity company, by the private equity firm Thoma Bravo.

Sharon Yeshaya, Morgan Stanley’s chief financial officer, said the financial, health care and technology industries in the Americas and Europe have been the hottest areas, but momentum was building elsewhere, too.

“What we’re seeing is really strong pipelines,” Ms. Yeshaya said in an interview after the bank reported a jump in profits to $3.7 billion. “The strength is broadening.”

The frenetic pace has persisted despite the economic upheaval caused by the pandemic, trade disputes and geopolitical tension, Matt Toole, director of deals intelligence at Refinitiv, wrote about the record quarter. Buoyant stock markets, low borrowing costs and the emergence of new buyers from special purpose acquisition companies will continue to prop up activity, he wrote.

“With the all-time full-year deal making record broken in less than nine months and five consecutive quarters of more than $1 trillion in M&A activity, we have very little data to make true historical comparisons,” Mr. Toole wrote.

Even so, there are plenty of factors that could put the brakes on. Tougher regulators in the United States, rising prices for goods and services and central banks’ moves to cut back on stimulus efforts “will all contribute to how much further this cycle has to go,” he wrote.

Even as they maintained an optimistic outlook, bank chiefs acknowledged there were many factors that could slow things down, including supply-chain problems that have lasted for months and driven up prices for materials and goods. And economic indicators remain mixed: While bank bosses cited increasing consumer spending as a positive sign, consumer confidence is falling.

Perhaps the biggest potential disrupter remains the Federal Reserve. Officials at the central bank could dial back some of their support measures for the economy as soon as next month, and have begun debating when they might need to raise interest rates to tame inflation.

But Jason Goldberg, an analyst at Barclays, said the uneven recovery just isn’t a major concern for the banks right now, especially when it comes to the deals they’re helping line up. Volatility is historically the biggest hurdle to dealmaking, he said, so analysts are watching the stock market closely. But he expected global deal activity to remain high for some time.

“You’re seeing many companies across industries re-examining their business models coming out of the pandemic,” Mr. Goldberg said. And they have a range of reasons to strike deals, he said: building scale, bolstering their digital operations, smoothing out their supply chains and making use of stockpiled cash.

Mr. Solomon of Goldman Sachs says the number of deals the bank is working to complete is evidence of an “extraordinarily robust” climate. Still, he cautioned that deal making may recede slightly from its breakneck pace.

“We’re clearly recovering coming out of the pandemic, but it’ll be interesting to see the trajectory of the recovery” and what other economic factors come into play, Mr. Solomon said. “But at the moment, with high corporate confidence, that’s having an impact on M&A in a positive way.”

#### Global growth is stable but the next month is key

Eric Winograd 10-29, Senior Vice President and Senior Economist for Fixed Income at Alliance Bernstein, MA in international studies from the Paul H. Nitze School of Advanced International Studies, BA in Asian Studies from Dartmouth College, “For The Global Economy, It's Next Stop... Policy Normalization”, Seeking Alpha, 10/29/2021, https://seekingalpha.com/article/4463112-global-economy-policy-normalization

November is likely to mark the start of a transition phase for the global economy. For almost two years, major central banks have thrown extraordinary waves of support into shoring up economic activity and financial markets against the COVID-19-induced crisis. Now, officials in many countries seem ready to begin the march back toward a more normal policy setting.

At the conclusion of its November 3 policy meeting, we expect the Federal Reserve to announce the start of tapering: reducing the pace of its quantitative easing purchases and signaling a return to using interest rates as the primary monetary policy tool. The Bank of England (BoE) meets the next day, and may raise interest rates - or at least signal that a rate hike is imminent. Many smaller central banks are embarking on the same transition.

Why Start Normalizing Monetary Policy Now?

Why the change? We see both good and bad reasons. The good reason is that the world economy has, by most measures, largely recovered from the trials of the pandemic. US and global gross domestic product (GDP) are well on their way back to, or even above, pre-crisis levels. With growth recovered and likely to remain strong in 2022, there’s not as much need to lean heavily on policy support.

#### Rebound’s accelerating, driven by U.S. business output, BUT fragile due to corporate debt---stable policy is key

Caroline Miranda 21, Consultant for the International Finance Corporation at the World Bank Group, Fernando Blanco, Principal Economist for Europe and Central Asia of the IFC, and Tatiana Nenova, IFC ECA/LAC Regional Economics Manager, Country Economics (CELCE), “An Uneven Global Economic Recovery in 2021 Promises to Invert a Longstanding Principle of Success and Failure”, World Bank Blogs, 5/7/2021, https://blogs.worldbank.org/developmenttalk/uneven-global-economic-recovery-2021-promises-invert-longstanding-principle-success

While every national recovery will hinge on country characteristics, the success or failure of major economies and economic blocs will profoundly influence the outlook for smaller economies and developing countries. Recent progress in the vaccination rollout in the United States and other advanced economies has raised expectations for the global economic recovery. According to the Spring 2021 edition of the IMF’s Word Economic Outlook, the global economy is projected to expand at a rate of 6 percent in 2021, up from the 5.5 percent growth rate projected in January, due to the faster-than-expected recovery of advanced economies.[1] Bolstered by unprecedented fiscal and monetary stimulus, the United States, China, and Western Europe are poised for a swift rebound: annual GDP growth in the United States, China, and Western Europe are projected to reach 6.4, 8,4 and 4.5 percent, respectively, in 2021. Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and Europe and Central Asia (ECA) are projected to grow by 4.4 percent and 3.6 percent, respectively, albeit with large disparities across countries.

Differences in vaccination rates are driving the divergence in growth projections, as the easing of pandemic-related restrictions and the resumption of mobility, production, trade, and travel all hinge on widespread vaccination. While good progress has been achieved overall, vast disparities in vaccination coverage align closely with national income levels. The slow progress of vaccination efforts in developing countries threatens to hinder their recovery while also exacerbating the global risk of virus mutation. Several countries that are currently facing renewed waves of contagion and/or new viral strains have been forced to reimpose restrictions and delay the return of normal economic activity.

A second driver of divergent recovery trends is the extent of each country’s integration into international value chains linked to advanced economies. As global economic activity rebounds, the World Trade Organization projects that merchandise trade will grow at a rate of 8.0 percent in 2021. The reestablishment of global and regional value chains is also boosting trade in capital goods and intermediate inputs. For example, the growth of US industrial output is expected to accelerate the recovery in Mexico’s manufacturing sector due to the strong synchronicity between the business cycles of the two countries. Similarly, given the close integration of many developing countries in ECA with the European Union, the restoration of European regional value chains is expected to enhance growth prospects across ECA. As global economic activity recovers, prices for oil, metals, food and other commodities are expected to rise. Recovering commodity prices have already bolstered growth in some ECA countries, including Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, as well as in LAC countries such as Brazil, Colombia, Chile, and Peru. Although higher commodity prices will be tailwinds for resource-rich commodity exporters, they will be headwinds for net importers, especially developing countries that rely on oil imports. Trade in services will likely remain subdued and is not expected to return to pre-pandemic levels before 2022. The hospitality and travel sectors continue to be the most severely affected by the crisis, and tourism-dependent countries in the Caribbean and the Balkans face a slow and uncertain recovery.

A third source of divergence is in the policy response adopted by fiscal and monetary authorities. Several counties are confronting inflationary pressures that will limit the ability of their central banks to maintain accommodative monetary policies. Expansionary monetary stances, rapid credit growth, exchange-rate depreciation, and rising commodity prices have amplified inflationary pressures in Brazil, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Russia, Turkey, and Ukraine. Many central banks either already hiked benchmark policy rates in Q1 2021 or have signaled the end of their easing cycles. Though necessary to manage inflation, monetary tightening could dampen prospects for a swift recovery by putting pressure on interest rates, spurring capital outflows, or weakening exchange rates. Tighter monetary policies in advanced economies could also worsen financing conditions for emerging markets and intensify the volatility of capital flows, especially to the most vulnerable ECA and LAC economies. Even in the absence of monetary tightening, US 10-year bond yields have risen sharply in Q1 2021, putting pressure on emerging-market exchange rates that may need to accelerate the tightening of their monetary policy stance.

Fiscal pressure has also intensified as governments strive to extend emergency economic support without undermining investor confidence. The pandemic-induced recession has triggered a surge in deficits and debt levels in many economies, especially LAC and ECA countries, many of which had already experienced a rapid debt buildup prior to 2020. Unsustainable debt dynamics could compel governments to rescind vital fiscal support before a broader recovery has fully consolidated. While fiscal deficits are projected to narrow, on balance, between 2020 and 2021, they are expected to remain large by historical standards. Narrowing fiscal space will weaken the ability of many governments to provide further cyclical support, though Chile and Peru are notable exceptions in the LAC region which have some additional room to continue to foster economic activity. In ECA, while fiscal space is narrowing in many countries including the Western Balkans and Ukraine, the EU Recovery & Resilience Facility will provide sizeable grants to Romania, Bulgaria, and Poland. Resource economies in Central Asia can continue to provide stimulus financed by high commodity prices. If public debt trajectories become unsustainable, some countries may resort to financial repression to prevent a surge in borrowing costs, accelerating inflation and weakening their currencies.

A final contributor to the uneven global recovery is the relative vulnerability of each country’s private sector. Corporate debt burdens in emerging markets and developing economies (EMDEs) were already at historic elevated levels before the COVID-19 outbreak: with easy access to international credit markets, foreign-denominated liabilities accumulated over the last decade, resulted in a currency mismatch between earnings and debt service that heightened corporates vulnerability to exchange-rate shocks and rising global risk aversion. By the end of 2019, corporate debt levels in Ukraine, Poland, the Slovak Republic, and Slovenia were close to 50 percent of annual GDP, while in Bulgaria, Russia, and Turkey this ratio had reached more than 70 percent. Corporate debt levels are relatively low in the LAC region, except Chile, where corporate debt exceeds 100 percent of GDP. Corporate vulnerabilities in EMDEs have risen sharply during the pandemic, especially among firms with high preexisting debt burdens and those operating in sectors that were particularly exposed to the economic impact of COVID-19. In the aftermath of the pandemic, policymakers in many EMDEs have focused on preventing firms from being prematurely driven into insolvency through an unprecedented injection of liquidity and the adoption of forbearance measures to enable banks to expand credit to the real sector. However, government forbearance has obscured the line between firms that are illiquid and firms that are insolvent (i.e., “ghost firms”), and nonperforming loan indicators do not fully capture the deterioration of asset quality in the financial sector. High corporate risk premiums indicate an elevated risk of debt defaults, and firms facing large debt overhangs may reduce future investment and grow more slowly over the medium term. The divergence in recovery paths will reflect the relative ability of national policymakers to facilitate smooth debt workouts and ensure that debt-restructuring mechanisms and solvency frameworks function effectively. These conditions are especially crucial in EMDEs, where bankruptcy frameworks are generally weaker and where inefficient debt resolution often leads to the excessive destruction of capital, even under normal circumstances.

### U---Growth---AT: Inflation---2NC

#### Best models prove inflation’s low and transitory

Mark Hulbert 10-26, Regular Contributor to Barron’s, Author of Hulbert Ratings, “These Economists Aren’t Worried About Inflation. Here’s Why.”, Barron’s, 10/26/2021, <https://www.barrons.com/articles/inflation-economists-51635264860?mod=hp_LATEST&tesla=y> [typo corrected]

The consumer price index is likely to rise next year by about 3%—and perhaps even less.

If so, of course, inflation in 2022 could be much less the[n] 5.4% rate at which the CPI has risen over the past 12 months.

This rosy projection comes from the inflation models that have the best historical track records, according to a new study.

Focusing on the models with the best track records would seem to be an obvious approach to the debate over whether inflation’s recent spike is transitory. But surprisingly few commentators have done so. Many appear to have instead based their projections on little more than intuitions and hunches, picking and choosing among the myriad pieces of available economic data and anecdotal evidence to find what supports their prior beliefs.

Their approach, in effect, is: “Here’s the conclusion on which I will base my facts.”

The new study that instead focuses on historical track records is written by two economists at the Cleveland Federal Reserve Bank, Randal Verbrugge and Saeed Zaman. Their study is entitled “Whose Inflation Expectations Best Predict Inflation”? (Note that the conclusions of their study are theirs, they write, “and not necessarily those of the Federal Reserve Bank of Cleveland or the Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System.”)

After studying a number of competing models, the economists found that the models based on the forecasts of “professional economists and businesses have tended to provide more accurate predictions of future inflation than the [models based on] expectations of households and of financial market participants.”

That’s good news because households are among those who currently believe that inflation’s recent spike will be more than transitory. Consider the University of Michigan’s Survey of Consumers, which finds that consumers on average expect the CPI to rise 4.7% over the coming year. That’s only slightly below the 5.4% rate at which the CPI has risen over the trailing year.

#### It’ll stabilize at 2%

Dr. Tyler Cowen 10-28, Professor of Economics at George Mason University, Ph.D in Economics from Harvard University, “Three Reasons Inflation Isn’t Here to Stay”, Bloomberg Opinion, 10/28/2021, https://www.bloombergquint.com/gadfly/inflation-isn-t-here-to-stay-and-here-are-three-reasons-why

With inflation reports coming in so high, it’s getting harder to defend my membership on “Team Transitory.” Yet I remain committed to the view that higher inflation is, in fact, transitory: After a few years of above-average price inflation, prices will return to a steady state of about 2% annual growth, as has mostly been the case since the early 1990s.

The case for Team Transitory is not about whether the next pending inflation numbers will come in high or low. Instead it consists of the following two propositions:

The Federal Reserve can control the rate of price inflation.

The Federal Reserve does not want inflation to be very high.

The first claim seems obviously true. Central banks aimed for rates of price inflation at 2% or slightly below for many years. They achieved them regularly — even though, after the Great Recession, some academics insisted that the Western economies were stuck in liquidity traps.

But central banks have many policy instruments at their disposal, including the management of expectations, and it is usually a mistake to bet against them. And the implication of a liquidity trap is that the Fed cannot increase the rate of inflation in deflationary times, not that the Fed cannot reduce it in inflationary times.

If there is a reason to take issue with Team Transitory, it is with the second claim. That the Fed wants to reduce inflation is true in the abstract, but the political price of doing so may be too high. After all, bringing down price inflation requires the Fed to engage in contractionary monetary policy, which runs the risk of a recession. Contractionary monetary policy lowers aggregate demand, and in a world of sticky wages and prices this can lead to lower output and employment, as indeed it did in the early 1980s.

The key question, then, is whether the Fed, at current margins, is more concerned with fighting inflation or lowering the chance of a recession. Admittedly there is uncertainty about the answer to this question, as there should be, but still I end up on Team Transitory.

One way to view the Fed is as an independent institution with a mandate (half of a dual mandate) to maintain stable prices. Chair Jerome Powell has made this goal more flexible, by instituting “average inflation targeting,” and this policy does give the Fed some leeway in deciding when the rate of price inflation should fall. But it doesn’t grant the Fed license to allow 5% annual inflation for the next five or 10 years. If the Fed broke with its mandate, it would lose much of its credibility. So from a policy and institutional standpoint, it is in the Fed’s interest to control inflation.

An alternative way to view the Fed is as a political entity, motivated by self-preservation or a desire to help the incumbent Democratic Party. Putting aside whether this is true, voters correctly perceive higher inflation as lowering their living standards. A marginal rise in unemployment might affect 5% of the electorate, and may disproportionately affect low-skilled individuals, who are also less likely to vote. In contrast, inflation affects all voters, and most of them hate it. So even a cynical calculus also suggests the Fed will bring down inflation rates.

Perhaps most important, there is the market’s perspective — and the market expects the Fed to bring down inflation rates. As I write, the 10-year Treasury yield is 1.64%. That yield has been rising, but it hardly seems to predict hyperinflation, or even 5% inflation for the next 10 years. The most negative piece of evidence so far is from the TIPS market, which is predicting inflation of about 3% over the next five years.

You might be wondering whether “the market” understands inflation and the Fed. Well, investors are obsessed with the Fed and study it closely. When I encounter Team Transitory skeptics, I ask them: “What is it that you understand about the Fed that the broader market does not?” I have yet to receive a compelling answer.

In contrast, the case for “Team Permanent” relies on a series of unlikely events: The Senate is unable or unwilling to confirm new candidates to the Fed’s Board of Governors (there are currently two open seats, plus the chair and vice-chair positions). Meanwhile, a political crisis strikes the White House, say perhaps President Joe Biden falls ill, and it does not offer any new candidates. There is then a power vacuum at the Fed, which is less able to take decisive action. In such a world, all bets would be off. But for now — in consideration of the Fed’s institutional and political incentives, as well as the market forecast — I am sticking with Team Transitory.

#### Inflation is under control

Simon Kennedy 21, Executive Editor for Economics at Bloomberg News, Degree in Economics and Journalism from the City University of London and Concordia University, “The Global Economy Is Shrugging Off the Delta Variant, For Now”, Bloomberg News, 8/11/2021, https://www.bloomberg.com/graphics/global-economic-recovery-q3-nowcast/

As for inflation, some worry its rebound from the recession will prove long-lasting, limiting the scope for central bankers to maintain stimulus and distracting them from their focus on healing labor markets and the broader economy.

But the Bloomberg Economics nowcast models suggest some room for confidence:

- In the U.S., summer readings for the consumer price index pushed past 5% year on year — way outside the Federal Reserve’s comfort zone. The nowcast suggests pressures are set to peak and begin edging down in the third quarter.

- The euro-area — further behind in the recovery but with the pace of growth still accelerating — is expected to see inflation picking up, but not to such elevated levels as those seen in the U.S.

- In Japan, price gains in the third quarter are expected to flatline at 0.1% — a reminder that after temporary frictions from reopening have dissipated, the more serious problem for the world’s central bankers may still be not too much inflation but too little.

Chart, line chart

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For the world’s biggest central banks, a recovery on track and inflation risks passing means they will be in no hurry to make major moves.

Even as interest rates stay on hold, though, officials are starting to shift other pillars of economic support.

### U---Yes Biz Con---2NC

#### Business confidence is strong, driving economic recovery

Michael Halloran 9-14, M.B.A. from Carnegie Mellon University, Former Aerospace Research Engineer, Equity Strategist; Janney, “Despite Potential Headwinds, Key Labor Market Indicators Bode Well for the Economy,” https://www.janney.com/latest-articles-commentary/all-insights/insights/2021/09/14/despite-potential-headwinds-key-labor-market-indicators-bode-well-for-the-economy

However, we remain encouraged by the recovery that has been unfolding since the economy began reopening. We continue to see improvement in important cyclical sectors of the economy while consumers are historically healthy and still have pent-up demand. Business confidence has rebounded with strong corporate profits that should support further capital spending and hiring (there are now more job openings than there are unemployed people by a record amount).

We expect to see further improvement in the international backdrop, supported by unprecedented fiscal and monetary stimulus and accelerating rates of vaccination. Although the impact of the Delta wave is still being felt, recent evidence confirms the effectiveness of vaccines in limiting deaths and hospitalizations. With the pace of vaccination now picking up in the areas most impacted by this wave—Asia and Australia—the case for fading headwinds leading to improving economic growth later this year remains positive.

The signals from financial markets themselves remain positive. Despite consolidating last week, stocks remain near record highs while the 10-year Treasury remains well above the lows of earlier this summer when concerns about Delta first emerged.

These factors support our view of a durable economic recovery from the pandemic that should continue supporting stock prices. A healthy labor market is a critical element for a sustainable recovery that supports profit growth and last week’s news from the labor market remains encouraging.

#### Business optimism is strong and growing---this is paving the way for investment and expansion

Jeff Hubbard 21, Chair of the Connecticut Business & Industry Association, Senior Vice President and Regional Manager of Liberty Bank, “Survey: U.S. Business Optimism Hits Record High”, 8/5/2021, https://www.cbia.com/news/economy/survey-us-business-optimism-hits-record-high/

Nearly nine in 10 U.S. business leaders are optimistic about their company's performance over the next six months according to a new survey.

The JPMorgan Chase 2021 Business Leaders Outlook Pulse survey found 88% of business leaders were bullish about their company's immediate future, the highest percentage recorded in the survey's 11 years, and up from 56% a year ago.

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Released last month, the survey also showed that 82% of business leaders are optimistic about their industry’s performance, a significant jump from 45% a year ago.

“After enduring the challenges of the last year and a half, businesses are feeling overwhelmingly positive about what’s ahead,” JPMorgan Chase Commercial Banking head economist Jim Glassman said.

“The focus now is on navigating growing pains to harness the momentum of the economic recovery, which is comparatively a good problem to have.”

U.S. Economy

Survey findings reveal growing confidence in the national economy, with 75% of survey respondents expressing optimism with the recovery, a 40 percentage point increase from a year ago.

Just over half (53%) said they were optimistic about the global economy, the highest level since 2018 and up from just 17% last summer.

JPMorgan Chase says that confidence is driving ambitious growth plans, with 80% of business leaders expecting increased revenues and/or sales.

Almost half (46%) expect to make increased capital investments—a 28-point jump from a year ago—while 38% say their credit needs will increase over the rest of 2021.

#### Businesses are confident because Biden seems predictable

Nicole Goodkind 21, Politics and Business Reporter at Fortune Magazine, BS in International Relations from Cornell University, “Business Leaders Hope They Can Satisfy Biden’s Big Climate Goals With Their Own Promises—Not Regulation”, Fortune Magazine, 2/16/2021, https://fortune.com/2021/02/16/biden-climate-change-goals-business-leaders-regulations/

And even while staring down the barrel of new regulations and standards, business leaders say they feel good with Biden at the helm: His consistency and lack of ambiguity create a safe, or at least a less volatile, environment to conduct business in.

Sure, some companies took advantage of the lack of oversight by the Trump administration, but many expressed dismay about the former President's unpredictability. His big-picture views on climate policy were unclear and subject to change. The rapid undoing of Obama-era regulations, which manufacturers had spent money and time to meet, sent them into a tailspin.

Corporate confidence fell to its lowest level in a decade under Trump, an astounding feat considering that the stock market was simultaneously hitting new highs, inflation was low, and interest rates were low.

#### Polling proves

Verdict 21 – Verdict Retail Research Service, “Business Optimism Improves for the Second Straight Month in July: Poll”, Pharmaceutical Technology, 8/5/2021, https://www.pharmaceutical-technology.com/news/business-optimism-improves-for-the-second-straight-month-in-july-poll/

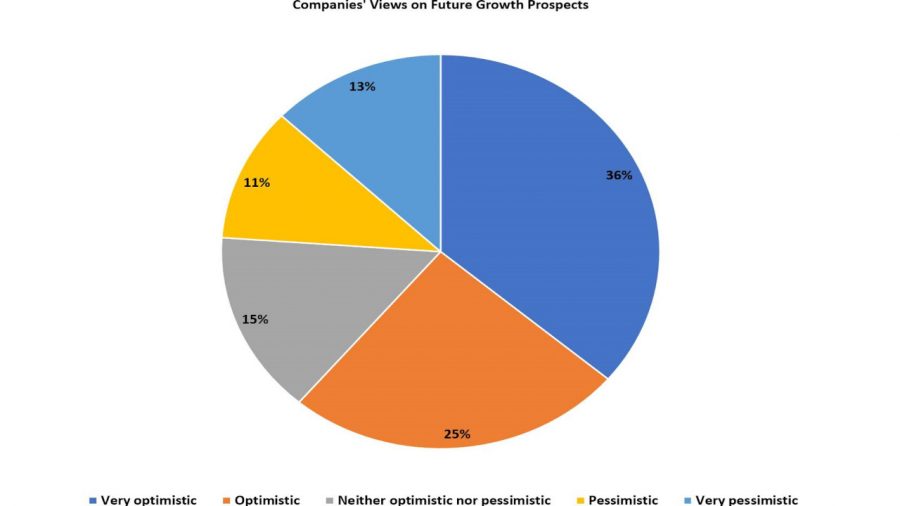
Verdict has been conducting a poll to study the trends in business optimism during COVID-19 as reflected by the views of companies on their future growth prospects amid the pandemic.

Analysis of the poll responses recorded in July shows that optimism regarding future growth prospects increased to 61% from 60% in June marking the second straight month of improvement in business optimism. Easing of COVID restrictions and increase in the rate of vaccination had led to improvement in business optimism in June.

The respondents who were optimistic increased by two percentage points to 25% in July, while those very optimistic decreased by one percentage point to 36%.

The respondents who were pessimistic increased by one percentage point to 11%, while those who were very pessimistic declined by two percentage points to 13%, from 15% in June.

The percentage of respondents who were neutral (neither optimistic nor pessimistic) remained unchanged at 15%.



The analysis is based on 1,697 responses received from the readers of Verdict network sites between 01 July and 31 July 2021.

Increase in consumer expenditure and hiring boost optimism

Optimism among small businesses in the US increased for the first time since January this year, according to the National Federation of Independent Business report. The optimism increased from 103.6 in June to 105.2 in July owing to improved economic outlook, strong consumer demand, and solid hiring activity.

Consume confidence in the US improved from 128.9 in June to 129.1 in July and was the highest recorded since February 2020, according to the Conference Board’s Consumer Confidence Survey®. Consumer optimism continued to increase as a large percentage of consumers plan to increase expenditure and purchase homes and major appliances.

### Link---2NC

#### Modifying the CWS blasts uncertainty throughout the economy

Will Hild 21, Executive Director of Consumers’ Research, J.D. from Georgetown University Law Center, B.A. in Political Science from the University of Florida, Licensed to Practice Law in the Commonwealth of Virginia, Former Deputy Director of the Regulatory Transparency Project, Former Director of External Affairs for the Culture of Freedom Initiative at the Philosophy Roundtable, “Congress’ Misguided ‘Big Tech’ Antitrust Efforts Are No Win For Consumers”, Washington Times, 3/16/2021, https://www.washingtontimes.com/news/2021/mar/16/misguided-big-tech-antitrust-efforts-are-no-win-fo/

Adopted decades ago in a series of U.S. Supreme Court decisions — many unanimous — the consumer welfare standard ended an era of confusion for business and abuse by regulators. Before adopting the consumer welfare standard, antitrust law included numerous competing justifications for enforcement actions against businesses. Often it was impossible for companies to determine with reasonable certainty whether a potential merger, acquisition or expansion was legal or not. This hampered capital investment, restricted consumer choice and hindered the streamlining of business operations even when it was to the consumer’s benefit.

Existing antitrust regulations based on the consumer welfare standard already provide the government the enforcement tools necessary to protect consumers from price collusion, unfair competitive practices and abuse. New antitrust legislation that creates additional justifications for intervention into the market would only politicize our economy, reduce legal clarity and discourage investment.

Mr. Lee is also correct that lawmakers must no longer ignore Big Tech’s ability and willingness to censor disfavored viewpoints to bolster preferred political expressions and outcomes. There certainly seems to be an industrywide effort to silence voices accused of “wrong think.” When the handful of companies that make up Big Tech collectively decided they didn’t like Parler, the social media network systemically removed from app stores, and even its webserver within 24 hours.

Unlike the infamous 19th and 20th century instances abuses by monopolists that gave rise to our nation’s foundational antitrust legislation, these synchronized assaults on consumer choice are not aimed at raising prices. Instead, they are meant to punish companies and silence consumers who dare disagree with the prevailing politics of Big Tech.

That falls straight into the domain of Section 230 of the Communications Decency Act (Section 230), not antitrust law.

Section 230 is the law that protects Twitter from civil action for blocking or banning content Twitter deems inappropriate, even if that content favors one political ideology over another. Mr. Lee writes, “The Silicon Valley fairytale of innovation and technological progress sold to Americans has turned into a corporatist nightmare of censorship and hypocrisy.” If that’s the case, Section 230, not antitrust law, is the culprit. Discarding the consumer welfare antitrust standard to attack censorship would be a mistake.

I share Sens. Klobuchar’s and Lee’s concerns about the market power of large technology firms. However, shifting the focus of antitrust law away from the consumer would open a Pandora’s box of regulatory uncertainty and turmoil onto the nation’s economy. Such a change is wholly unnecessary. If censorship is the concern, better to consider reform of Section 230 than toss the consumer welfare standard. Moving to a risk-based antitrust system will eventually lead to increased operating and litigation costs for the nation’s businesses, the vast majority of whom have nothing to do with censorship by Big Tech. In the end, that cost will ultimately be passed along to the consumer.

American consumers have been bullied enough by these would-be Silicon Valley tyrants. Congress must find another way to curb their abuses than sacrificing the consumer welfare standard.

#### Studies prove biz con’s key AND depends on perceptions of political stability

Gabriel Caldas Montes 21, PhD Candidate in the Department of Economics at Fluminense Federal University and Fabiana da Silva Dr. Leite Nogueira, PhD in Economics from Universidade Federal Fluminense, Professor of Economics at the Universidade de Vassouras, “Effects of Economic Policy Uncertainty and Political Uncertainty on Business Confidence and Investment”, Journal of Economic Studies, April 2021, Emerald Insights

1. Introduction

The literature on business confidence is vast. If on the one hand some studies indicate that business confidence acts as a leading indicator of macroeconomic activity and influences the economic environment, on the other hand, some studies investigate the determinants of business confidence (Khan and Upadhayaya, 2020).

Although many advances have been made, the literature on the determinants of business confidence continues to evolve. Some studies analyze not only the effects of macroeconomic variables, but also the effects of other variables able to create (or reduce) uncertainties, such as corruption (Montes and Almeida, 2017) and monetary policy credibility (Montes, 2013; de Mendonça and Almeida, 2019). These studies reveal that low credibility and high levels of corruption reduce confidence due to the uncertainties that emerge.

Uncertain economic scenarios created by economic policy uncertainty undermine confidence, and affect the decision making of entrepreneurs, who, for example, postpone investment and employment decisions in order to gain more information (Bloom et al., 2018). Regarding the definition of economic policy uncertainty, Al-Thaqeb and Algharabali (2019) points out that “*Policy uncertainty is the economic risk associated with undefined future government policies and regulatory frameworks*” (Al-Thaqeb and Algharabali, 2019, p. 2). Baker et al. (2016) and Al-Thaqeb and Algharabali (2019) suggest that economic policy uncertainty delay economic recoveries during periods of recession as businesses and households postpone their decisions about investment and consumption expenditures due to market uncertainty. Nevertheless, regarding the effects of economic policy uncertainty on research and development (R&D) expenditures and innovation outputs, Tajaddini and Gholipour (2020) find positive relationships for a set of 19 developed and developing countries, thus, contradicting those that claim a negative association between economic policy uncertainty and R&D expenditure.

Since the work of Bloom (2009), and due to existing controversies in the literature, studies investigate the effects of uncertainty shocks on different economic variables (e.g., Baker et al., 2016; Bachmann et al., 2013; Colombo, 2013; Nodari, 2014; Donadelli, 2015; Gulen and Ion, 2015; Moore, 2017; Istiak and Serletis, 2018; Bahmani-Oskooee and Nayeri, 2018; Bahmani- Oskooee et al., 2018; Mumtaz and Surico, 2018; Gholipour, 2019; Greenland et al., 2019; Istiak and Alam, 2019, 2020; Tajaddini and Gholipour, 2020). In general, the findings suggest that macroeconomic variables such as GDP, investment and employment are adversely affected by increased economic policy uncertainty.

The political environment is also a source of uncertainty that affects the economy. Studies provide evidence that the instability of the political environment has negative effects on the economic environment (e.g., Barro, 1991; Alesina and Perotti, 1996; Svensson, 1998; Carmignani, 2003; Aisen and Veiga, 2006, 2013; Durnev, 2010; Zouhaier and Kefi, 2012; Julio and Yook, 2012; Uddin et al., 2017; Azzimonti, 2018; Jens, 2017). These studies show that political instability has negative effects on inflation, GDP and unemployment.

Political uncertainty reflects instabilities on the political scene (i.e., involving politicians). The instabilities arising from the political scenario are associated to uncertainties regarding possible changes in the “rules of the game” and in the functioning of institutions. Hence, the uncertainty related to the political system is a key feature affecting the business environment, which entrepreneurs must consider when deciding, for instance, to start or expand their businesses. The effects of political uncertainty are stronger when firms and politicians have close connections and political favors might be at play.

One can suggest economic policy uncertainty reduces entrepreneurs’ optimism about the future of the economy and their business. Similarly, an uncertain political environment can deteriorate business confidence, producing negative effects on the economic environment. Hence, some important questions arise. Does political uncertainty affect business confidence? Is business confidence affected by economic policy uncertainty? Are political uncertainty and economic policy uncertainty transmitted to investment decisions through business confidence? These questions are particularly important for developing countries since these countries often present higher levels of political uncertainty and economic policy uncertainty.

## Innovation ADV

### FTC DA---2NC

#### It’s zero-sum---the plan draws resources away from other priorities

R. Mark McCareins 19, Clinical Professor of Business Law in the Strategy Department at Northwestern University, JD from the Washington University in St. Louis, BA from Northwestern University, “Why Antitrust Regulators Don’t Scare Big Tech”, KelloggInsight, 8/19/2019, https://insight.kellogg.northwestern.edu/article/why-antitrust-regulators-dont-scare-big-tech

In McCareins’s view, these large businesses have to date played within the antitrust rules to keep markets competitive. Large-scale government investigations like the ones the DOJ and FTC plan could not only prove costly and ineffective, but could also draw resources away from targeting actual abuses in other markets.

“It’s a trade-off,” he says. “If regulators bring a highly speculative case in one of these big-name markets because they think it will show America that they are tough on regulation, and they lose—and while they’ve been doing that, they let 20 other markets go unattended—I don’t know if that’s a good allocation of our prosecutorial resources. The Antitrust Division’s loss earlier this year in the ATT/Time Warner merger litigation is an example of the government rolling the dice with a speculative case and limited resources. One would think with respect to the current tech investigations that the government cannot afford a repeat of the ATT/Time Warner outcome.”

#### Human resources are constrained and trade-off

Alison Jones 20, Professor at King’s College London & William E. Kovacic, Global Competition Professor of Law and Policy, The George Washington University Law School, “Antitrust’s Implementation Blind Side: Challenges to Major Expansion of U.S. Competition Policy,” The Antitrust Bulletin, Volume 65, Number 2, SAGE Publications Inc, 6/01/2020, pp. 227–255

B. Augmenting the Human Capital of the Enforcement Agencies

Measures to expand federal antitrust intervention dramatically—through the prosecution of lawsuits or the promulgation of trade regulation rules—will face arduous opposition from the affected businesses. Assuming that litigation will provide the main method in the coming few years to attack positions of single-firm or collective dominance, the targets of big antitrust cases will marshal the best talent that private law firms, economic consultancies, and academic bodies can offer to oppose the government in court. The defense will benefit from doctrinal principles that generally are sympathetic to dominant firms (again, we assume that legislation to change the doctrinal status quo will not be immediately forthcoming). Beyond a certain point, the addition of new, high stakes cases to the litigation portfolio of public antitrust agencies will create a serious gap between the teams assembled for the prosecution and defense, respectively. Although therefore the public agencies can match the private sector punch for the punch when prosecuting several major de-monopolization cases, when the volume of such cases rises from several to many, the government agencies may have to rely on personnel with considerably less experience to develop and prosecute difficult antitrust cases, seeking powerful remedies upon global giants.

An enhanced litigation program will therefore go only as far as the talent of the agencies will carry it. We propose three steps to build and retain the human capital—attorneys, economists, technologists, and administrative managers133—to undertake a more ambitious litigation program. The first is to use antitrust as a prototype for a program to raise civil service salaries. The second two steps consist of cautions about the dangers of (a) denigrating the skills and accomplishments of existing agency personnel and (b) attempting to shut the revolving door through which professionals move between the public and private sectors. We discuss all three of these steps below.

1. Resources and compensation

To accomplish the desired expansion of enforcement, we see a need for more resources.134 Nonetheless, budget increases that simply allow the enforcement agencies to hire additional staff, while useful, are not enough. We would use more resources to boost compensation for agency employees. This means taking the antitrust agencies out of the existing civil service pay scale. The need is not simply to hire more people. It is to attract a larger number of elite personnel who are equal to the tasks that the ambitious reform agenda will impose. We do not see how the public agencies can recruit and retain necessary personnel without a significant increase in the salaries paid to case handlers and to senior managers. It surprises us that none of the proposals for bold reform mention compensation for civil servants.

### Innovation---No Concentration---2NC

#### And it says nothing about competition.

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

Increased Concentration? With respect to increased concentration, the purported evidence concerns growing concentration at the industry—not market—level. One widely cited study, conducted in 2016 by the White House Council of Economic Advisers (CEA), examined broad industry sectors reflected in two-digit codes of the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS).14 Finding that “the majority of industries [saw] increases in the revenue share enjoyed by the 50 largest firms between 1997 and 2012,” it concluded that this was “suggestive of a decline in competition.”15 A study by The Economist reached a similar conclusion. Dividing the American economy into the “900-odd sectors” recognized by four-digit NAICS codes, the study found that two-thirds of the sectors became more concentrated between 1997 and 2012, with the weighted average revenue share of the top four firms in each sector rising from 26% to 32%.16 Like the CEA study, The Economist’s investigation has been widely cited as evidence of a market power crisis in the U.S.

The problem is that these studies of broad industrial sectors say nothing about market concentration, much less about the state of competition in markets (which may increase along with concentration if larger firms are more efficient and thus more formidable competitors). Antitrust is interested, quite properly, not in industrial concentration but in competition within markets—“ranges of economic activity in which competitive processes determine price and quality.”17 The CEA study looked at concentration in such vast sectors of the economy as “retail trade,” “finance and insurance,” and “transportation and warehousing.” These giant sectors include all sorts of firms that do not compete (e.g., a shoe store in Sheboygan and a grocer in Grand Forks are both part of the retail trade sector, but they don’t constrain each other’s prices and are thus not in the same market). The fact that the fifty largest companies in all of U.S. retail collectively account for a larger portion of all retail sales today than the top fifty such companies did fifteen years ago tells us precisely zero about the state of market competition in any particular market; for the CEA to suggest otherwise was absurd.18 And the same goes for The Economist’s study. Four-digit NAICS sectors are giant swaths like “other food manufacturing” (NAICS 3119), which lumps together “roasted nuts and peanut butter manufacturing” (NAICS 311911), “coffee and tea manufacturing” (NAICS 311920), and “spice and extract manufacturing” (NAICS 311942). Knowing that the four largest companies in all of “other food manufacturing” now earn a larger portion of that giant sector’s revenues than the four top companies did fifteen years ago simply says nothing about market concentration.

As Gregory Werden and Luke Froeb have demonstrated, changes in industrial concentration can easily mask changes in market concentration.19 Suppose that a state had four cities located one hour apart; that each city initially had five locally owned restaurants, with each earning an equivalent share—five percent—of the state’s restaurant sales revenue; and that a “sector” was defined to include all the restaurants in the state.20 The “CR4” for the sector (i.e., the revenue share of the four largest firms) would be 20%.21 Now suppose that four national chains bought one of the restaurants in each city, that a fifth chain opened a new restaurant in each city, and that all the restaurant outlets (now 24) continued to earned an equal proportion of the state’s restaurant sales revenue (4.167% each). The CR4 for the sector would have skyrocketed to 83.33% despite the fact that competition in each market had increased.

There are good reasons to believe that the situation just described is common in the U.S. A recent study by economists from Princeton University and the Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond documents diverging trends between national and local market concentration.22 It concludes that while national concentration is increasing, local concentration is not. Indeed, the authors find that “local concentration has been declining rapidly for the last 25 years when we measure concentration at the city, county, or ZIP code level.”23

Put simply, there is no evidence of a market power crisis resulting from increased industrial concentration. When it comes to market competition, trends in national sector-level concentration are inapposite.

#### Market concentration is a non-issue---they use bad studies.

Robert D. Atkinson 21, President of the Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, founding member of the Polaris Council who advices the U.S. Government Accountability Office’s Science, Technology Assessment, and Analytics team, Ph.D. in City and Regional Planning from the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, “How Progressives Have Spun Dubious Theories and Faulty Research Into a Harmful New Antitrust Doctrine,” Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, 03-10-2021, https://itif.org/publications/2021/03/10/how-progressives-have-spun-dubious-theories-and-faulty-research-harmful-new

The core argument neo-Brandeisians have relied on to move the Overton window is that lax antitrust enforcement has led to market concentration rising to dangerous levels, and in turn leading to a decline in competition.

Yet, when looked at more closely, the problem is far less serious than the broad pronouncements would suggest. Despite the measured rise in concentration in some industries (at least from 2002 to 2012, the last year of government-provided data), in the vast majority of markets, it remains well below the levels that would normally trigger antitrust concern. Moreover, while concentration has grown in many industries, that growth is usually from very low to low levels. Census data from 2002 and 2012 shows 792 six-digit NAICS (North American Industry Classification System) industries (out of approximately 1,066 total industries) for which a percentage change between the two years could be calculated. Of these, the market share of the top 4 companies either fell or remained constant in 319 industries (40 percent). Another 116 showed an increase of 10 percent or less. Of the 473 industries where concentration increased, the C4 market share remained less than 20 percent in 142 industries and under 40 percent in 281 industries. Only 95 industries saw an increase in concentration that produced a C4 of 60 percent or more (and even at 60 percent, if each firm held an equal market share, this would mean each firm had just 15 percent of the market) and of these, just 45 had increases of more than 10 percentage points.

But there are measurement issues as well. For one thing, most studies often use an inappropriately broad definition of “the market,” and omit the role of imports that reduce concentration. Second, most look only at national concentration levels, when many markets are local in nature. Recent studies conclude that concentration in most local markets has been steady, or even falling. Third, a certain degree of concentration can be good. Rather than leading to a decline in competition, it may result in increased competition in which more productive firms increasingly gain market share over their less-productive and less-innovative rivals.

Finally, the definition of relevant markets for antitrust purposes has continuously been criticized and questioned as being excessively narrow and out of touch with market realities. Indeed, relevant product markets are defined as narrowly as possible to make any company with a certain market power look like a monopolist. Equally, geographically relevant markets are drawn so narrowly that global competition is often overlooked. And potential competition with dynamic entry does not represent a sensible criterion for market definition, contrary to competitive constraints exerted on the market. Consequently, neo-Brandeisians want to narrow the definition of relevant markets to the smallest possible size (only one firm), contrary to academic antitrust literature, which advocates for broader and more-accurate market definitions. Once labeled as a monopolist (akin to Brandeis’s mark of Cain), the resulting backlash and techlash can spread even farther, soon followed by antitrust reforms.16

### Innovation---Big Companies Inevitable---2NC

#### Their market power persists because it’s a result of network effects.

Robert W. Crandall 19, Senior Fellow in the Economic Studies Program of the Brookings Institution, Chairman of Criterion Economics, Ph.D. in Economics from Northwestern University, “The Dubious Antitrust Argument for Breaking Up the Internet Giants,” Review of Industrial Organization, Vol. 54, 01-29-2019, http://doi.org/ 10.1007/s11151-019-09680-y

To correct any allegedly anticompetitive practices of the Internet giants through the enforcement of the antitrust laws, the courts would have to impose remedies that are designed to ameliorate or correct these problems. Remedies could be structural or behavioral or both; most of the popular discussion focuses on structural relief.52 In the *Microsoft* case, the district court judge initially imposed structural relief—a separation of Microsoft’s operating system business from its applications software business—but the court of appeals found this remedy to be inappropriate. Often, as in the *AT&T* case, a structural decree is accompanied by behavioral restraints that the courts must supervise; this is a supervision that often continues for a very long time.

As shown above, none of the notable Internet giants has sufficient market share in its primary revenue-generating market to be vulnerable to a Section 2 Sherman Act prosecution. The focus of any antitrust action would have to be on the other side of their platforms: the services they offer to their subscribers. But even if they were vulnerable on this side of their platforms, it is far from clear how a structural remedy could be designed to address their market dominance. Three of these companies— Google, Amazon, and Facebook—have arguably grown to their present size because of network effects in Internet search, online shopping, or social media. Even Netflix is possibly the beneficiary of such effects; but Apple is different because its primary markets are for equipment that consumers use to connect to a public communications network—which it clearly has not monopolized.

If network effects explain the dominance of Google, Facebook, and Amazon in search, social media, and online retailing, respectively, it is far from clear how breaking these companies into multiple companies would end their dominance. Network effects would likely reappear and lead to a result much like the *status quo* *ante*.

#### 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.

#### And even if they succeed, they’re logistically impossible.

Bronwyn Howell 21, Nonresident Senior Fellow at the American Enterprise Institute, Faculty at the Wellington School of Business and Government at Victoria University of Wellington, Senior Research Fellow at the Public Utilities Research Center at the University of Florida, Ph.D. in Economics from Victoria University of Wellington, “Breaking up Big Tech: Benefiting consumers or targeting profits?”, American Enterprise Institute, 01-26-2021, https://www.aei.org/technology-and-innovation/breaking-up-big-tech-benefitting-consumers-or-targeting-profits/

In both cases, the authorities seem to believe that forcibly breaking up — or “structurally separating” — the firms will ultimately be in the long-term interests of consumers. However, structural separation is neither simple to implement nor necessarily beneficial.

First, as my colleague Mark Jamison has argued, it is far from clear that Big Tech companies’ actions are in fact harming consumers. Facebook’s large user base has benefited from the complementary nature of adding WhatsApp’s voice calling function to the social media platform’s core functions. Its app purchasing has also provided a viable alternative pathway for developers of new (and valuable) apps to receive a return on their sunk investments while at the same time enabling more rapid upscaling than would be possible if run “stand-alone.” Forcing Facebook and platforms like it to divest apps they acquire that succeed in the marketplace will chill incentives for all platforms to buy up new apps for fear that if successful they too may face the same “separation” fate. Reducing the level of new app creation and uptake ultimately harms consumer welfare.

Second, as the EU obligations indicate, it is not readily apparent that consumers are the primary beneficiaries of these antitrust actions. Rather, it seems that one goal is to “share” the gatekeeper’s profits with business consumers and rivals by granting access to the gatekeepers’ investments in (particularly) information and customer access. In this sense, the Digital Markets Act seeks to replicate the failed access regulation that has characterized telecommunications markets in Europe — and was introduced but subsequently abandoned in the US.

Mandatory structural separation of a regulated firm is the ultimate sanction available in access regulation. There are strong indications that the much lower levels of investment in frontier technologies in Europe compared to the US can be traced back to access regulation — a very high price to pay for a superficially more equitable profit distribution.

Lessons from other markets

Research on structural separation in electricity markets and in fiber broadband in Australia and New Zealand has found that mismatches in investment horizons and risk preferences, information asymmetries, and lost benefits from internal coordination when firms are forcibly separated can outweigh any benefits from increased competition between the remaining firm and its newly separate components. It is quite likely that the same issues will prevail but to an even greater extent when the primary business being separated is the management and use of information.

This all begs the question of whether the underlying motivations of current antitrust actions on both sides of the Atlantic are primarily to promote competition for the long-term benefit of consumers or, rather, attempts to break up and redistribute the profits of Big Tech firms. If it is the latter, then consumers could ultimately be the losers if structural separation proceeds.

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

#### US will remain leader in AI---funding and quality advantages secure a tentative lead.

Savage '20 [Neil; 12/9/20; science writer for Nature; "The race to the top among the world’s leaders in artificial intelligence," https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-020-03409-8/]

For the near future, Ding says, the US is likely to remain the world leader in AI. “Though China has some exceptional universities, such as Tsinghua University, the US dominates in terms of maybe the top 20 universities doing AI research, and that is reflected in the quality of the papers. It’s very unlikely that China will become the singular innovation centre by 2030.”

Many countries see AI as providing a competitive edge, not only economically, but militarily, says Husain. He likens the competition in AI to the Space Race of the mid-twentieth century, in which the US and the Soviet Union vied to be the first to achieve milestones in space travel. “The Space Race yielded contributions that differentiated the American technological ecosystem from all others for decades to come,” says Husain. “If a country invests heavily in this area, it will yield technologies that will form the pillar of defence capability and economic differentiation for the rest of the century.”

Technologies that can be developed based on AI will indeed have both economic and military benefit, says Daniel Araya, a policy analyst at the Center for International Governance Innovation, a think tank in Ontario, Canada. “We’re talking new weapons, data-driven innovation for industry and automation, and redesigning how our society works from the ground up.”

#### 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.

#### 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.

#### Companies are big because they innovate---lack of innovation is from corporate failure or gross missteps.

Robert D. Atkinson 21, President of the Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, founding member of the Polaris Council who advices the U.S. Government Accountability Office’s Science, Technology Assessment, and Analytics team, Ph.D. in City and Regional Planning from the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, “How Progressives Have Spun Dubious Theories and Faulty Research Into a Harmful New Antitrust Doctrine,” Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, 03-10-2021, https://itif.org/publications/2021/03/10/how-progressives-have-spun-dubious-theories-and-faulty-research-harmful-new

Over the past few decades, many firms have gained market share in their industries, so much so that they have been coined “superstar” firms. This phenomenon has been especially true in digital markets wherein the nation’s largest Internet firms have created the platforms that are fueling rapid growth, but it has also occurred across many industries.

Neo-Brandeisians have latched on to this development to allege that the firms’ growing market share is largely due to anticompetitive conduct, rather than inherently superior business performance. They argue that this market power in turn has allowed firms to raise margins and profits, cut spending on innovation, and unfairly preempt competitive challenges. Even when firms have grown due to superior performance, these advocates warn that the firms often preserve their advantage by adopting a variety of anticompetitive practices.

This market power explanation of superstar firms appears to be flawed. Although some firms have gained even more market share, this has generally not been because the firms used market power to succeed, nor does it suggest reduced economic welfare. Rather, in this environment, a few firms appear to have figured out how to be much more innovative and competitive, and have acted effectively on those insights, enabling them to outperform laggard firms. Indeed, there appears to be something about the nature of current process and product technologies and global market operations that enables some firms to perform better than others, creating more public value in the process. Rather than decry this development and attempt to hold back successful firms, advocates should be celebrating it and identifying ways to help lagging firms do better. If there is a policy problem, it is not due to the success of superstar firms. Instead, it is either the failure of laggards to catch up or some gross mistakes, such as BlackBerry’s persistence on smartphones with keyboards paving the way for Apple and Google’s successes.

### Innovation---UQ---Startups

#### Startups are booming---the pandemic created fertile ground for innovation.

Greg Rosalsky 21, Reporter at NPR, M.A. in Economics and Public Policy from the Woodrow Wilson School at Princeton University, “What America's Startup Boom Could Mean For The Economy,” NPR, 06-29-2021, https://www.npr.org/sections/money/2021/06/29/1010229557/what-americas-startup-boom-could-mean-for-the-economy

Back in November, the Planet Money newsletter reported that — despite a deadly pandemic and an ugly recession — America was seeing a boom in the creation of new startups. We spoke with University of Maryland economist John Haltiwanger, one of the leading scholars of business formation. Now Haltiwanger has a new study out, and the trend is clear: "The surge continues," Haltiwanger says. "We're now convinced this wasn't just a blip."

Like so many other areas of the economy, applications for new businesses pulled back in the first half of 2020 but then snapped forward again like a slingshot. Not only was 2020 the best year on record for new business creation since the Census Bureau began tracking it in 2004, but applications for new businesses have continued to soar, through at least last month. In May, there were a half a million applications for new businesses; the second highest month on record, below only last July. In total, there have been more than six million filings for new businesses since the pandemic began. The boom can be seen in both businesses composed of only one self-employed person and businesses that the Census expects will employ multiple people.

Over the last year and half, we have been reshuffling how and where we work and shop; and that shift has created all sorts of opportunities for entrepreneurs. With the pandemic, it's like someone ripped out an irrigation pipe for brick-and-mortar commerce and plugged it into virtual commerce. It's brought a drought to face-to-face businesses, and a bounty to businesses you interact with on a digital screen. The retail sector alone, driven by e-commerce, accounts for about a third of all the new startup growth. In addition, trucking, warehousing, and delivery services are all seeing surges — which makes sense, as we've seen a massive shift of spending on in-person services to tangible goods that are bought online.

We've also seen the rise of remote work and a reshuffling of the population, from city centers to suburbs, and from traditional job centers to "Zoom Towns." Where people go, they bring their dollars. It may help explain why the food and accommodation sector is the greatest area of growth. We've also seen huge growth in the types of businesses that can provide remote services.

There are at least two potential theories for what's going on. First, while the boom is undeniably good news, there is a slightly negative take: we've seen a surge in new businesses mainly because the pandemic forced two painful restructurings to the economy. It began by ravaging the face-to-face economy and creating an awkward marketplace where we could only do stuff six feet apart. This suffocated many existing businesses while providing oxygen for others, such as online retailers, video conferencing apps, drive-thrus, delivery services, mask and sanitizer companies, and the like. Yet, many of these new opportunities for pandemic-friendly businesses may prove to be only temporary. Many of them could die as we head back to normal.

Now that most of us are vaccinated, we're releasing the pressure cooker of our pent-up demand for going out. It's leading to the second major restructuring: new businesses — restaurants, bars, salons and so on — are growing out of the ashes of the businesses scorched by the pandemic. This is great news! It's better than no new businesses. But it's possible that we're now just heading back to normal, as opposed to something new and better. Think of it like the economy doing a pendulum swing from a normal economy to a pandemic economy and back to a normal economy again.

It's hard to completely rule out this Negative Nancy take. We don't have many details about what exactly the new businesses created during the pandemic are doing, or how big they're gonna get. More importantly, we still don't have great data on how many and what kinds of businesses died over the last year, and whether these new businesses are merely just filling the massive hole created at the beginning of the pandemic. The data suggests the biggest surges occurred at the beginning and tail ends of the pandemic, which is consistent with the idea that this was a pendulum swing.

But Haltiwanger offers a second, more optimistic theory, which says this is about way more than just a pendulum swing: it's a rocket ship to a better economy. As painful as the pandemic has been, he believes it has forced the business world to drop outdated ways of doing things and embrace technology in a new way. "I don't think any of us had a clue that we could do so much business activity remotely," Haltiwanger says. "That sparks all kinds of new ideas."

The MIT economist Erik Brynjolfsson told us last year that history suggests there is "a lot of inertia in the way people work" and that "unless there's a shock, most people will tend to continue to do things the old way." The pandemic, he said, provided that shock. It's forced businesses to fully embrace technologies that enable a whole raft of new business practices, including remote work. Moreover, he argued, these changes may finally result in real productivity growth after so many years of stagnation.

When Haltiwanger looks at the data on business creation, he sees signs that this pickup in productivity may be on the verge of happening. "I have been struck over the last six months at how much of a sustained increase this surge in new business applications has been," he says. "Here's the thing: when we've seen sustained increases like this in the past, it has boded well for job creation, innovation, and productivity growth in the United States."

The legendary Harvard economist Joseph Schumpeter developed a concept known as creative destruction that may help explain what's going on. It describes the cycle of business death and birth that remakes the economy into something more efficient and productive. Economists believe it's a vital process to improve society's living standards. As destructive as the pandemic has been, it's possible we'll look back and see it as the spark for creating a new and better economy.

#### Particularly in tech.

Robert D. Atkinson 21, President of the Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, founding member of the Polaris Council who advices the U.S. Government Accountability Office’s Science, Technology Assessment, and Analytics team, Ph.D. in City and Regional Planning from the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, “How Progressives Have Spun Dubious Theories and Faulty Research Into a Harmful New Antitrust Doctrine,” Information Technology & Innovation Foundation, 03-10-2021, https://itif.org/publications/2021/03/10/how-progressives-have-spun-dubious-theories-and-faulty-research-harmful-new

Neo-Brandeisians have argued that market concentration has grown, and that this has caused a precipitous decline in the number of business start-ups. In this narrative, “monopoly” is a sclerotic scourge, robbing the economy of its traditional dynamism—which is largely wrong.

This claim is based on correlation. Concentration has increased while the number of start-ups has fallen; therefore, they argue, concentration caused the decline. In fact, there is no statistical relationship between changes in concentration and changes in new firm formation. Moreover, all the net decline in new firm formation is in one major sector—retail—wherein the results of increasing retail firm size have been superior productivity growth, higher wages for workers in larger stores, and significant consumer benefit in the form of lower prices and broader selection. (See figure 3.)

And when it comes to the most important kind of start-ups—potentially high-growth start-ups, especially in technology sectors—there has been no decline. When MIT professors Jorge Guzman and Scott Stern looked at trends in high-growth entrepreneurship for 15 large states from 1988 to 2014, they found that even after controlling for the size of the U.S. economy, the second-highest rate of high-growth entrepreneurship occurred in 2014.21

Chart, waterfall chart

Description automatically generated

## Inequality ADV

### Inequality---Circumvention---Enforcement---2NC

#### Firms take advantage, worsening their impacts in the interim.

Wright et al. 19, Joshua D. Wright, former Commissioner of the Federal Trade Commission, Ph.D. in Economics from the University of California, Los Angeles; Elyse Dorsey, Adjunct Professor at the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, Deputy Chair of the Antitrust & Consumer Protection Working Group at the Regulatory Transparency Project, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University; Jonathan Klick, Professor of Law at the University of Pennsylvania Carey Law School, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University; Jan M. Rybnicek, Adjunct Professor and Senior Fellow at the Global Antitrust Institute at the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, J.D. from the Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, “REQUIEM FOR A PARADOX: The Dubious Rise and Inevitable Fall of Hipster Antitrust,” Arizona State Law Journal, Vol. 51, Spring 2019, accessed via Lexis

Replacing the well-defined consumer welfare model with a vague, new standard that has no unifying objective based in objective economic evidence would dramatically increase the ability and likelihood of interested industry participants to engage in rent seeking when appearing before the federal antitrust authorities. 274 Today, the well-established definitions and boundaries of the consumer welfare standard allow courts to hold enforcers (and private parties) accountable and prevent misuse of the antitrust laws and political influence in antitrust enforcement decisions. Unlike sister agencies prone to capture, the FTC and DOJ are relatively well insulated from such influence by the need to apply objective economic principles to a clearly articulate consumer welfare standard.

A new "public interest" or "citizen interest" standard would take years to deploy and even longer before meaningful guidance could be issued similar to that which the consumer welfare standard offers today. In the meantime, [\*366] firms could use the new standard as leverage over the Antitrust Agencies--something that is not possible today because the consumer welfare standard offers a well-defined framework. By substituting in a vague new standard, Hipster Antitrust proponents ironically would grant large, powerful corporations with the ability to exert undue influence over the Antitrust Agencies' decision-making process. Moreover, once allowed to influence agency enforcement practices during the initial period when no framework exists, it will be difficult to establish guidelines that do not leave room for such manipulation to continue.

Calls to abandon the consumer welfare framework thus would exacerbate concerns about corporate influence by providing firms with a new ill-defined standard to manipulate. As a result, contrary to the purported objectives of consumer welfare critics, abandoning the consumer welfare model would revert the antitrust laws to a rent-seeking regime that increases--rather than reduces--corporate welfare.

#### Businesses shift to end-around antitrust

Kate Tromble 21 & Gregory Nantz, TROMBLE is vice president for Federal Policy at Results for America; NANTZ is a consultant for Results for America, “Federal Evidence-Based Competition Policy,” Inequality and the Labor Market, edited by Sharon Block and Benjamin H. Harris, Brookings Institution Press, 2021, pp. 193–208 JSTOR, https://www.jstor.org/stable/10.7864/j.ctv13vdhvm.17

4. Employer Concentration

A fourth issue contributing to lack of competition in labor markets is increased employer concentration. By one estimate, employer concentration reduces workers’ share of overall economic output by one-sixth to onethird (Naidu, Posner, and Weyl 2018). Increased employer concentration also reduces the number of firms competing within a given market, which reduces the risk to employers of engaging in collusion—even if the collusion is not explicit (Padin 2018). Although federal antitrust reforms could help to reduce employer market concentration, the mechanisms by which employers assert monopsony power are diffuse, requiring action along multiple fronts to successfully increase workers’ bargaining power relative to their employers (Bivens, Mishel, and Schmitt 2018).

U.S. labor laws have been in place for decades, but anticompetitive forces continue to impact workers. Those forces have changed over the years, warranting a systematic review of the cause and effect of statutory and regulatory changes on labor market activity. The federal govern ment has not, however, conducted such a systematic evaluation. Rather, the role of evaluator has been largely outsourced to academic economists and lawyers. Minimum wages, for example, have been the subject of decades of research, with a weak consensus only recently emerging. We need faster and more-robust systems and resources for understanding the impact of our federal labor laws on workers, employers, and markets. The federal government, through the DOL’s Chief Evaluation Office (CEO; the CEO is housed within the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy), could provide this kind of cohesive labor market research and evaluation activity.

#### Their authors lost this debate 30 years ago to the Econ DA and case defense.

Christopher S. Yoo 20, John H. Chestnut Professor of Law, Communication and Computer & Information Science and the Founding Director of the Center for Technology, Innovation and Competition at the University of Pennsylvania, “Hipster Antitrust: New Bottles, Same Old W(h)ine?”, University of Pennsylvania Law School Institute for Law and Economics, 04-06-2020, https://ssrn.com/abstract=3567928

The contours of this debate are well documented in the antitrust literature, outlined quite nicely in Michael Jacobs’s 1995 historical survey. During the 1970s and 1980s, antitrust populists waged an unsuccessful war against the growing dominance of the economic approach to antitrust and attempted to preserve the Warren Court jurisprudence that regarded large firm size and industry concentration as inherently problematic without any need to analyze the impact of particular business practices on consumers. They faced a vigorous academic critique showing that large size may well be the product of economies of scale inherent in a particular industry or from being a more efficient competitor. As the consumer welfare standard became entrenched in judicial decisions, the academic literature, and agency practice and guidance documents, populist criticism “took on a frantic tone” and eventually “grudgingly acknowledged the success” of the consumer welfare approach. By the end of the 1980s, the debate between the populist and the economic approaches “ha[d] lost its drama,” and “[t]he victory of a purely economic analysis . . . could hardly seem more complete.”2

Gone were the days when big was regarded as inherently bad and when small firms were protected for their own sake. Instead, firm size was relevant only to the extent that it benefitted or harmed consumers. Herbert Hovenkamp has noted that the problem with applying standards other than consumer welfare is that the goals:

are unmeasurable and fundamentally inconsistent, although. . .their contradictions rarely exposed. Among the most problematic contradictions is the one between small business protection and consumer welfare. In a nutshell, consumers benefit from low prices, high output and high quality and variety of products and services. But when a firm or a technology is able to offer these things they invariably injure rivals, typically those who are smaller or heavily invested in older technologies. Although movement antitrust rhetoric is often opaque about specifics, its general effect is invariably to encourage higher prices or reduced output or innovation, mainly for the protection of small business or those whose technology or other investments have become obsolete. Indeed, that has been a predominant feature of movement antitrust ever since the Sherman Act was passed, and it remains a prominent feature of movement antitrust today. Indeed, some spokespersons for movement antitrust write, as Louis Brandeis did, as if low prices are the evil that antitrust law should be combatting.3

It thus comes as no surprise that during this period, the Supreme Court embraced consumer welfare as the appropriate standard under the Sherman Act.4 The emergence of a consensus that economic analysis should dictate the contours of antitrust did not, of course, mean the end of all controversy. As anyone who has worked with economists knows, agreement that consumer welfare is the goal of antitrust still leaves a great deal of room for differences of opinion. During the 1990s and 2000s, these disputes took place between the largely price-theoretic approach of the Chicago School and the more game-theoretic approach of the post-Chicago School. More recently, antitrust has taken a more empirical turn. It would be a mistake, however, to regard these disputes as a rehash of the old fight between the economic and populist approaches. Instead, these arguments took place within a shared commitment to consumer welfare as the proper antitrust standard. In the words of Carl Shapiro, Berkeley business professor and former Deputy Assistant Attorney General for Economics of the U.S. Department of Justice’s Antitrust Division, “If ‘Post-Chicago Economics’ stands for the notion that . . . antitrust should move away from promoting efficiency and consumer welfare, count me out.”5

#### They fall prey to the nirvana fallacy.

Christopher S. Yoo 20, John H. Chestnut Professor of Law, Communication and Computer & Information Science and the Founding Director of the Center for Technology, Innovation and Competition at the University of Pennsylvania, “Hipster Antitrust: New Bottles, Same Old W(h)ine?”, University of Pennsylvania Law School Institute for Law and Economics, 04-06-2020, https://ssrn.com/abstract=3567928

In short, to experienced observers of antitrust, the current uproar about hipster antitrust has the familiar ring of a debate that both sides thought had been long settled. The new bottles do not hide the fact that the wine is the same, and the same vinegary flavor that led to its rejection a generation ago remains. Although complaining about large companies has always had a certain appeal in some quarters and may have new appeal in others, mere slogans and epithets do not represent an adequate substitute for reasoned analysis. This is particularly true in the digital economy, which has yielded specular economic growth and value and in which the need for large investments in R&D and other features of the market may necessitate the existence of large firms if consumers are to enjoy these benefits. Moreover, the classic nirvana fallacy reminds us how easy it is to point out the flaws of one approach while foregoing any close examination of the proffered alternative, which no doubt suffers from flaws of its own that may be even greater. The absence of a coherent alternative to the consumer welfare standard thus limits the seriousness with which complaints about it are taken. All of these considerations are framed by the backdrop that vague standards open the door to political manipulation and abuse and that enforcement authorities around the world typically watch U.S. antitrust law closely and often take cues from how it develops. They underscore the importance of avoiding the seduction of basing legal changes on mere demagoguery and insisting that any reforms be based on a solid analytical foundation.

#### They sacrifice coherence for political goals.

Kristian Stout 18, Director of Innovation Policy at the International Center for Law & Economics, J.D. from the Rutgers University School of Law, “The Unreasonable Demands of Antitrust Populism,” Truth on the Market, 01-26-2018, https://truthonthemarket.com/2018/01/26/the-unreasonable-demands-of-antitrust-populism/

A panelist brought up an interesting tongue-in-cheek observation about the rising populist antitrust movement at a Heritage antitrust event this week. To the extent that the new populist antitrust movement is broadly concerned about effects on labor and wage depression, then, in principle, it should also be friendly to cartels. Although counterintuitive, employees have long supported and benefited from cartels, because cartels generally afford both job security and higher wages than competitive firms. And, of course, labor itself has long sought the protection of cartels – in the form of unions – to secure the same benefits.

For instance, in the days before widespread foreign competition in domestic auto markets, native unionized workers of the big three producers enjoyed a relatively higher wage for relatively less output. Competition from abroad changed the economic landscape for both producers and workers with the end result being a reduction in union power and relatively lower overall wages for workers. The union model — a labor cartel — can guarantee higher wages to those workers.

The same story can be seen on other industries, as well, from telecommunications to service workers to public sector employees. Generally, market power on the labor demand side (employers) tends to facilitate market power on the labor supply side: firms with market power — with supracompetitive profits — can afford to pay more for labor and often are willing to do so in order to secure political support (and also to make it more expensive for potential competitors to hire skilled employees). Labor is a substantial cost for firms in competitive markets, however, so firms without market power are always looking to economize on labor (that is, have low wages, as few employees as needed, and to substitute capital for labor wherever efficient to do so).

Therefore, if broad labor effects should be a prime concern of antitrust, perhaps enforcers should use antitrust laws to encourage cartel formation when it might increase wages, regardless of the effects on productivity, prices, and other efficiencies that may arise (or perhaps, as a possible trump card to hold against traditional efficiencies justifications).

No one will make a serious case for promoting cartels (although Former FTC Chairman Pertshuk sounded similar notes in the late 70s), but the comment makes a deeper point about ongoing efforts to undermine the consumer welfare standard. Fundamental contradictions exist in antitrust rhetoric that is unmoored from economic analysis. Professor Hovenkamp highlighted this in a recent paper as well:

The coherence problem [in antitrust populism] shows up in goals that are unmeasurable and fundamentally inconsistent, although with their contradictions rarely exposed. Among the most problematic contradictions is the one between small business protection and consumer welfare. In a nutshell, consumers benefit from low prices, high output and high quality and variety of products and services. But when a firm or a technology is able to offer these things they invariably injure rivals, typically smaller or dedicated to older technologies, who are unable to match them. Although movement antitrust rhetoric is often opaque about specifics, its general effect is invariably to encourage higher prices or reduced output or innovation, mainly for the protection of small business. Indeed, that has been a predominant feature of movement antitrust ever since the Sherman Act was passed, and it is a prominent feature of movement antitrust today. Indeed, some spokespersons for movement antitrust write as if low prices are the evil that antitrust law should be combatting.

To be fair, even with careful economic analysis, it is not always perfectly clear how to resolve the tensions between antitrust and other policy preferences. For instance, Jonathan Adler described the collision between antitrust and environmental protection in cases where collusion might lead to better environmental outcomes. But even in cases like that, he noted it was essentially a free-rider problem and, as with intrabrand price agreements where consumer goodwill was a “commons” that had to be suitably maintained against possible free-riding retailers, what might be an antitrust violation in one context was not necessarily a violation in a second context.

Moreover, when the purpose of apparently “collusive” conduct is to actually ensure long term, sustainable production of a good or service (like fish), the behavior may not actually be anticompetitive. Thus, antitrust remains a plausible means of evaluating economic activity strictly on its own terms (and any alteration to the doctrine itself might actually be to prefer rule of reason analysis over per se analysis when examining these sorts of mitigating circumstances).

And before contorting antitrust into a policy cure-all, it is important to remember that the consumer welfare standard evolved out of sometimes good (price fixing bans) and sometimes questionable (prohibitions on output contracts) doctrines that were subject to legal trial and error. This was an evolution that was triggered by “increasing economic sophistication” and as “the enforcement agencies and courts [began] reaching for new ways in which to weigh competing and conflicting claims.”

The vector of that evolution was toward the use of antitrust as a reliable, testable, and clear set of legal principles that are ultimately subject to economic analysis. When the populists ask us, for instance, to return to a time when judges could “prevent the conversion of concentrated economic power into concentrated political power” via antitrust law, they are asking for much more than just adding a new gloss to existing doctrine. They are asking for us to unlearn all of the lessons of the twentieth century that ultimately led toward the maturation of antitrust law.

It’s perfectly reasonable to care about political corruption, worker welfare, and income inequality. It’s not perfectly reasonable to try to shoehorn goals based on these political concerns into a body of legal doctrine that evolved a set of tools wholly inappropriate for achieving those ends.

#### Overwhelming consensus goes neg.

Christopher S. Yoo 20, John H. Chestnut Professor of Law, Communication and Computer & Information Science and the Founding Director of the Center for Technology, Innovation and Competition at the University of Pennsylvania, “Hipster Antitrust: New Bottles, Same Old W(h)ine?”, University of Pennsylvania Law School Institute for Law and Economics, 04-06-2020, https://ssrn.com/abstract=3567928

The continuing support for the consumer welfare standard was evident at the December 13, 2017, hearings held by the Antitrust Subcommittee of the Senate Judiciary Committee on “The Consumer Welfare Standard in Antitrust: Outdated or a Harbor in a Sea of Doubt?” While one of the speakers advocated abandoning the consumer welfare standard, the other three disagreed, including those who generally favor more vigorous enforcement of the antitrust laws.

Diana Moss of the American Antitrust Institute, one of the leading organizations arguing in favor of ramping up antitrust enforcement, stated that her organization “has always held the view that the antitrust laws are fundamentally durable and the consumer welfare standard is fully capable of meeting the challenges of the modern economy.” She cautioned that “remaking the antitrust laws or replacing the existing consumer welfare standard would throw the enforcement agencies, private plaintiffs, and the courts into disarray.” She then traced enforcement actions taken under the consumer welfare standard, concluding that “[t]hey support the notion that the standard capable of taking on the challenges we face moving forward” and that “[t]he consumer welfare standard is able to tackle the manifestation and exercise of market power in these settings.” In short, any problems with antitrust lay in the vigor with which it has been enforced, not in the consumer welfare standard itself.6

Shapiro similarly endorsed the consumer welfare standard and rejected concluding that a firm harms consumers simply because it has obtained a dominant position. He further stated:

During the 40 years that I have been studying and practicing antitrust, there has been a broad consensus among antitrust scholars and practitioners in favor of the “consumer welfare” standard. No evidence whatsoever has been put forward calling this consensus into question. Indeed, I know of no serious antitrust experts who favor abandoning the “consumer welfare” standard, and no workable alternative has been proposed.7

### Inequality---Consumer Welfare---2NC

#### 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.

#### That’s specifically true of tech---existing principles maximize consumer benefit.

Joe Kennedy 18, Senior Fellow at the Information Technology and Innovation Foundation, M.A. in Applied Economics from the University of Minnesota, Ph.D. in Economics from George Washington University, “Understanding Antitrust,” Real Clear Policy, 10-30-2018, https://www.realclearpolicy.com/articles/2018/10/30/understanding\_antitrust\_110883.html

The internet’s growth has been accompanied by the creation of a large number of new companies, including Apple, Amazon, Google, Facebook, Uber, and many others. These global enterprises sometimes seem to have a dominant, perhaps unassailable, competitive position in their markets. This supposed dominance has caused some to argue for tougher antitrust enforcement.

But a careful review of the special nature of these companies shows that current antitrust principles remain capable of dealing with most threats to competition. In those cases where antitrust is likely to be ineffective, other policies are capable of dealing with any problems. Moreover, most problems that critics point to are often exaggerated, undercutting the call for stricter antitrust enforcement.

The Role of Platforms

Most of the largest internet companies became successful by operating market platforms, which create value by bringing two or more sides of a market together, making it easy for them to interact. Like many other businesses, platforms benefit from efficiencies of scale; in many cases, the cost of serving another customer is almost zero. They also benefit from networks effects; each user benefits more if many others use the same platform.

These characteristics have several implications. One is that platforms often subsidize one side of the market in order to attract users. Although other sides may have to pay more as a result, they still benefit from having more potential partners using the platform. Another is that larger platforms are more valuable. One consequence is that competition officials need to look at how a corporate policy affects all sides of the market before deciding whether a particular policy is anticompetitive.

The Consumer Welfare Standard

For the past 40 years, antitrust policy has been guided by the consumer welfare standard. The courts and regulators evaluate corporate practices, including mergers, by whether they would result in enough market power to harm one or more sides of the market, including consumers, suppliers, and workers. This harm can take a number of forms, including price increases (although platforms are free to many users), quality reductions, and reduced innovation. This analysis requires a detailed examination of the particular market in question. Absent any harm, antitrust normally does not intervene. The consumer welfare standard is flexible enough to encompass a broad range of views and enjoys the support of almost all practitioners.

Lately, some critics have argued that the internet giants have become so big that their dominance is self-perpetuating. Companies with better technology or products are unable to mount an effective challenge because the giants either run them out of business or buy them up. These critics argue regulators should either break up large companies or regulate them as public utilities, even if doing so would raise consumer prices and slow innovation. In many cases, the critics underestimate the ability of the consumer welfare standard to achieve their objectives, provided that the requisite harm exists. In other cases, such as privacy and rising income inequality, antitrust is poorly equipped to handle the problem.

It is also important to remember that even the largest platforms compete fiercely to deliver value to all sides of the market. Although Facebook is dominant in social networking and Google dominates search, they compete intensely against each other and others in the most relevant market: advertising, where they vie for the dollars of powerful companies that also place ads in numerous other media. Even on the individual side, they inevitably compete for user attention during the finite number of hours in a day.

Technological Change

Technology has also changed the nature of competition. In numerous cases a company has seemed to have a dominant edge just before it slides into oblivion. Often the fatal threat comes not from a better version of the existing product but rather from companies offering new technology that delivers superior value. Perhaps as a result, the current giants remain some of the most innovative in the world. Rather than maximizing their near-term profits, they invest tremendous sums into research and development, often in new areas where they face fierce competition from incumbents, such as autonomous vehicles and artificial intelligence.

Data

Although internet companies collect large amounts of individual data, this alone should not raise antitrust concerns. In a recent study economists Anja Lambrecht and Catherine Tucker found little evidence that the mere possession of even large amounts of data can protect a company from a superior product offering because data are seldom inimitable, rare, valuable, or non-substitutable. One reason is that having the right algorithms and business models tends to be much more important than having the right data. Another is that much data has a short “half life.”

Privacy

Finally, many internet critics point to the privacy risks of allowing companies to gather large amounts of personal data. There have clearly been cases of consumer harm tied to either inappropriate use of data or inadequate security. The government itself has not been immune to these risks. But the privacy and security risks are no different if there are 10 major search engines and social networks than if there are just a few. In fact, more might be worse since large firms have much more at stake in getting privacy and security right than do midsized firms. Moreover, antitrust law is ill-equipped to deal with privacy issues. Fortunately, existing tort laws and regulations seem adequate to deal with the problems that have arisen. If Congress wishes, it can always enact additional protections.

The Benefits of Competition

Continued technological development is critical to higher productivity and better living standards. New technologies are most likely to arise in markets that are competitive enough to pressure each company to develop better products over time but that also allow companies to capture a significant share of the value that their innovations generate. An inevitable aspect of this competition is the decline of companies that fail to adopt new technologies over time. Another consequence is that higher productivity often displaces individual workers. Although competition produces losers, it ultimately delivers higher living standards for all. Antitrust law should not protect incumbents from legitimate competition, nor should it break up companies simply because they are big. Instead, it should ensure that the rules are fair and that companies must compete in order to succeed.

### Inequality---Impact D---2NC

#### Inequality is shrinking---they use bad data.

Phil Gramm & John Early 21, former Chairman of the Senate Banking Committee, Visiting Scholar at the American Enterprise Institute; former Assistant Commissioner at the Bureau of Labor Statistics, “Incredible Shrinking Income Inequality,” 03-23-2021, https://www.wsj.com/articles/incredible-shrinking-income-inequality-11616517284

The refrain is all too familiar: Widening income inequality is a fatal flaw in capitalism and an “existential” threat to democracy. From 1967 to 2017, income inequality in the U.S. spiked 21.4%, and everyone from U.S. senators to the pope says it’s an urgent problem. Yet the data upon which claims about income inequality are based are profoundly flawed.

We have shown on these pages that Census Bureau income data fail to count two-thirds of all government transfer payments—including Medicare, Medicaid, food stamps and some 100 other government transfer payments—as income to the recipients. Furthermore, census data fail to count taxes paid as income lost to the taxpayer. When official government data are used to correct these deficiencies—when income is defined the way people actually define it—“income inequality” is reduced dramatically.

We can now show that if you count all government transfers (minus administrative costs) as income to the recipient household, reduce household income by taxes paid, and correct for two major discontinuities in the time-series data on income inequality that were caused solely by changes in Census Bureau data-collection methods, the claim that income inequality is growing on a secular basis collapses. Not only is income inequality in America not growing, it is lower today than it was 50 years ago.

While the disparity in earned income has become more pronounced in the past 50 years, the actual inflation-adjusted income received by the bottom quintile, counting the value of all transfer payments received net of taxes paid, has risen by 300%. The top quintile has seen its after-tax income rise by only 213%. As government transfer payments to low-income households exploded, their labor-force participation collapsed and the percentage of income in the bottom quintile coming from government payments rose above 90%.

In 2017, federal, state and local governments redistributed $2.8 trillion, or 22% of the nation’s earned household income. More than two-thirds of those transfer payments went to households in the bottom two income quintiles. Remarkably the Census Bureau chooses to count only $900 billion of that $2.8 trillion as income for the recipients. Excluded from the measurement of household income is some $1.9 trillion of government transfers. These include the earned-income tax credit, whose beneficiaries get a check from the Treasury; food stamps, which let beneficiaries buy food with government issued debit cards; and numerous other programs in which government pays for the benefits directly.

Americans pay $4.4 trillion a year in federal, state and local taxes. Households in the top two earned-income quintiles pay 82% of the tax bill, although they never see most of this money because it is deducted directly from their paychecks. When measuring income inequality, however, the Census Bureau doesn’t reduce household income by the amount paid in taxes. Had it done so and counted all transfer payments as income, inequality from 1967 to 2017 would have increased by only 2.3% instead of the reported 21.4%. That’s a difference of almost 90%—a rather large error.

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

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

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

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

#### Inequality doesn’t cause diversionary war

Gal Ariely 15, senior lecturer in the Department of Politics & Government, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, PhD from the University of Haifa’s School of Political Sciences, “Does National Identification Always Lead to Chauvinism? A Cross-national Analysis of Contextual Explanations,” Globalizations, 2015, https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/43980028/Ariely\_Globalizations\_2015.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1515397197&Signature=78lnbbHNRVjhLgOKyRPKm%2BK8M1o%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DDoes\_National\_Identification\_Always\_Lead.pdf

With respect to internal explanations, the effects of income inequality and ethnic diversity are presented in Table 3. Models 3.1 and 3.2 indicate that neither directly affects chauvinism. H4 is therefore not supported. The results suggest, however, that both have a negative effect on the national-identification slopes. Contrary to our expectations, countries with higher levels of economic and ethnic division appear to exhibit a weaker relation between national identification and chauvinism. While these findings might seem to contradict H5, the pattern was caused by outliers. After excluding South Africa—the most unequal and ethnic diverse country in our sample—the effect of ethnic diversity is not even of borderline significance. After excluding Chile—the most unequal country in our sample—the interaction effects for economic inequality were also far from significant. The results, therefore, do not support H5.21¶ Conclusions¶ During the historic phone call between President Obama and Iranian President Sheikh Hasan Rouhani in September 2013, the latter stated that his country’s nuclear program ‘represents Iran’s national dignity’.22 This declaration reflects the common perception that Iran’s nuclear program mobilizes Iranians in support of resisting further national humiliation at the hands of foreigners (Moshirzadeh, 2007). This reflects the important role national feelings play in the contemporary international arena. Evidence from other examples—such as the Israeli-Palestine conflict—indicates that national identity serves as a key factor in conflict resolution. The prominence of national feelings is not limited to the Middle East, their effect on public attitudes towards international issues, and conflicts also being manifest in the West (Billig, 1995; Kinder & Kam, 2010).¶ It is thus hardly surprising that scholars seeking to develop a better understanding of conflicts adopt a social-psychology perspective, replacing the deterministic view that identification with one’s in-group necessarily leads to antagonism towards out-groups with an examination of the broader social context. In line with this approach, the present paper focuses on the way in which political and social contexts encourage chauvinistic views towards the international arena and how they affect the relation between national identification and chauvinism.¶ Integrating various social and psychological theories, we investigated two external contextual explanations (globalization and conflict) and an internal explanation (social division). Employing cross-national survey data, we examined the relation between national identification and chauvinism across 33 countries. The findings indicate that a positive relationship exists between national identification and chauvinism across most of the countries, although the level differs from country to country. Using a multilevel regression analysis, we tested to see whether globalization, conflict, and social division correlate with this variation. The results indicate that social and political contexts are related to chauvinism and the ways national identifi- cation and chauvinism are linked. Although a closer relation exists between national identification and chauvinism in more globalized countries, globalization failed to explain the variation in chauvinism itself. These findings support the notion that globalization highlights the importance of national identity (Calhoun, 2007; Castells, 2011). While those sections of globalized societies that are attached to their country also tend to resist international cooperation and endorse hostile views, the complexity of the phenomenon—as evinced by the divergent findings of previous studies (e.g. Jung, 2008; Norris & Inglehart, 2009)—calls for further research of this interpretation. The fact that the current study is cross-sectional must also be taken into account, the findings adducing the relation but not the causal relations between the variables. In contrast to experimental studies, the present design is similarly limited in its ability to offer a robust control for alternative explanations.¶ Another external factor found to be relevant—to a certain degree—was conflict. Countries that suffered large numbers of deaths in conflicts and mobilized resources and personnel exhibited higher levels of chauvinism. When other indices for conflict were used, however, these results were not replicated. A possible explanation for this finding lies in the inherent limitation in the way in which conflicts are measured across various countries. Measuring international conflicts is a challenging task (Anderton & Carter, 2011). While the ways of measuring conflict were chosen because they reflect different dimensions of conflict in order to be representative of a wide range of countries, the problem of comparability cannot be ignored. An alternative explanation may derive from the fact that only deaths from conflict and resources/personnel mobilization are sufficiently significant to contribute to chauvinism. The limitations of our measurements of conflict and research design mean that this idea must remain speculative, however. In addition, it is important to emphasize that the sample of countries is also limited as many countries are not involved in conflict and there is also limited variation in the types of conflicts.¶ Contrary to what the divisionary theory of national mobilization would lead us to expect, neither economic inequality nor ethnic diversity were related to chauvinism or affected the relation between national identification and chauvinism. This finding might also be explained by the limitation of the current research design. The number of countries included in the ISSP 2003 National Identity Module being relatively small and the sample only covering countries with available survey data, the results relate solely to this specific sample of countries. Across another set of countries, social division might play a far more significant role. Another explanation might be the meaning given to national identification and chauvinism across the countries. While evidence exists for the comparability of the scales across most of the countries, the divergent meaning probably attributed to them in Germany, the United States, and Israel might form an additional limitation.

#### Populism’s peaked AND declining

Dr. Yascha Mounk 21, Associate Professor of Practice at Johns Hopkins University's School of Advanced International Studies, Contributing Writer at The Atlantic, Ph.D. in Government from Harvard University, “We Might Have Reached Peak Populism,” The Atlantic, 07-07-2021, https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2021/07/peak-populism/619368/

Feeling optimistic about the state of American politics is hard. The country is deeply polarized. Much of the debate consists of name-calling and demonization. Dissatisfied with a strategy of maximal obstructionism in Congress, Republicans in state houses are trying to make subverting the outcome of the next election easier.

But we can’t forget how much worse things could be right now—and what a major achievement it was for Joe Biden to have defeated Donald Trump. America booted an authoritarian populist from office in a free and fair election at the conclusion of his first term.

For those who are interested in the fate of liberal democracy around the world, that triumph raises a key question: Was Trump’s loss an aberration owed to specifically American factors? Or did it portend the beginning of a more difficult period for authoritarian populists around the world—one in which they might be held accountable for their many mistakes and misdeeds?

You could make the case for a pessimistic answer. In some countries, such as the Philippines, authoritarian leaders remain highly popular among voters. In others, such as Peru, the populist wave is just now coming ashore. And even in the United States, it is plausible that extremist leaders who have recently been ousted may soon stage a comeback—Trump is widely believed to be interested in running for the presidency in 2024, and the Republican Party seems to be growing more extreme by the day.

But you could also make the case for optimism. Recent developments in Europe and Latin America suggest that some of the populists and antidemocratic leaders who have dominated the political landscape for the past decade might finally be encountering serious trouble. If the picture looked almost unremittingly bleak a few years ago, now distinct patches of hope are on the horizon.

Take Germany. When the far-right Alternative for Germany first presented itself in national elections, in 2013, it fell just short of the 5 percent of the national vote it required to enter Parliament. Four years later, the party more than doubled its support, taking 13 percent of the national vote. If that rate of growth were to continue, the AfD would become the country’s largest party in elections this fall.

But as they say in financial markets, assuming that past performance is indicative of future results is a mistake. Far from continuing its rapid rise, the AfD is now losing popular support for the first time in its short history. Some polls suggest that the party may fall back to single-digit support in the September election. Even after Angela Merkel, Germany’s long-serving head of government, leaves office, there is little immediate reason to fear for the stability of German democracy.

The situation in neighboring France looks more precarious. Like his three predecessors, President Emmanuel Macron has quickly become unpopular, and the country’s traditional parties are sad shadows of their former selves. Marine Le Pen, the leader of the far-right National Rally, who has long aspired to step into the void, should be in a strong position: Only about 52 percent of French voters prefer Macron to Le Pen, according to some recent polls.

Yet recent regional elections—widely seen as a preview of next year’s presidential race—have suggested that her position is weaker than many feared. Le Pen failed to win power in a single region, and the traditional parties, whose death has so often been prognosticated, were the ones that showed surprising signs of electoral resilience. For now, the defensive bulwark against Le Pen seems to be holding.

Other long-established democracies in Western and Northern Europe have also seen populists lose momentum. Sizable populist movements won parliamentary seats in Denmark, Sweden, Greece, and the Netherlands. In all of these countries, these movements will likely remain part of politics for the foreseeable future. But in all of them, they have also, for now, ceased to grow.

Extremist leaders remain in power in some of the world’s most populous democracies. But even some of those strongmen are now starting to face a real reversal of fortune.

Jair Bolsonaro, a former army captain known for his extremist rhetoric and open nostalgia for Brazil’s departed military dictatorship, unexpectedly assumed the country’s presidency in 2019. But he is now in deep political trouble. Lacking loyal allies in the country’s Congress, Bolsonaro has so far proved unable to concentrate power and, thanks to his disastrous mishandling of the coronavirus pandemic, his popularity has plummeted. Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva, a former president better known simply as Lula, is likely to beat Bolsonaro in an upcoming election.

Extremist politicians in other Latin American countries are also doing poorly. Andrés Manuel López Obrador, a left-wing populist, won Mexico’s presidency by making big promises about economic redistribution and an end to corruption. Even before the coronavirus hit, his government had failed to deliver. Then his mishandling of the pandemic—a deadly mix of complacency and denialism that was strikingly similar to that of López Obrador’s nominal ideological adversaries, Trump and Bolsonaro—further dented his popularity. In congressional elections in 2018, López Obrador’s party won a crushing majority. In elections last month, it bled nearly 20 percent of its support. While López Obrador’s party retains a nominal majority in Congress thanks to the support of two smaller allies, his ability to pass controversial legislation has been significantly curtailed.

Even some authoritarian populists who had long since seemed to consolidate their power now face some difficulty. Narendra Modi, India’s prime minister, has recently suffered painful setbacks in important state elections. Turkey’s Recep Tayyip Erdoǧan has grown highly unpopular amid a deep financial crisis. Though both are likely to remain in the saddle for the foreseeable future, their electoral stars are not shining quite as brightly as they did a few years ago.

Perhaps the most interesting case is that of Hungary, a country that, despite its relatively small population, holds special significance for scholars of authoritarian populism. Before Viktor Orbán concentrated immense power in his own hands, many political scientists thought that Hungary’s democratic institutions had “consolidated,” meaning that they should have been able to weather serious crises without much damage. But because of Orbán’s assault on independent institutions, Freedom House, the prodemocracy NGO, has found that the country is no longer fully free—a historic first for a member state of the European Union.

But now, the opposition is finally getting its act together. After years during which Orbán’s control over the media, judiciary, and electoral commission left him with little effective resistance, opinion polls for next year’s parliamentary elections suggest that a broad ideological alliance is running neck and neck with his ruling party. If the united opposition ekes out a majority despite competing on an uneven playing field, the moment will be decisive for Hungarian democracy: Orbán will need to decide whether to ignore the outcome of the election, turning himself into an outright dictator, or give up the office on which he seemed to have such a firm hold just a few months ago.

It is far too early to declare that we have reached “peak populism.”

The coming years could well turn out to be even worse for liberal democracies around the world. By 2025, France and the United States might plausibly be ruled by Le Pen and Trump (or one of his family members), respectively. Modi and Erdoǧan will likely still be in office. Countries that are now governed by moderates could have new populist leaders of their own. This is hardly the time to stop sounding the alarm.

And yet, there is, for the first time in years, real evidence for the more optimistic scenario.

At the beginning of the populist rise, a new crop of political leaders made huge promises to voters and lacked a record on which they could be judged. But after winning power, they have largely failed to live up to their promises and bungled the handling of a once-in-a-century pandemic. Voters in many countries have thus started to grow disenchanted. Though populists usually retain a fervent following, their ability to build support from a broad cross section of voters seems to be rapidly fading in many countries.

The ability of mainstream parties to compete with populists has also improved. In many places, traditional parties had failed to realize how angry their own voters had become, and to what extent their policies were out of keeping with the preferences of the majority. Some have since corrected course, showing that they can beat populists at the ballot box if they steadfastly oppose extremism and take the grievances of ordinary voters seriously.

In a joke beloved by the writer David Foster Wallace, an old fish greets two young fish. “How’s the water this morning?” he asks them. Once the young fish are out of the old fish’s earshot, they turn to the other. “What the hell is water?” one asks. The moral of the joke is obvious: We often become so accustomed to our environment that we start to take it for granted.

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## Advantage CP

### AT: Infinite Money = Abusive

#### Here is our solvency advocate.

Joshua McCabe 18, Assistant Professor of Sociology and the Assistant Dean for Social Sciences at Endicott College, Senior Fellow in Poverty and Welfare at the Niskanen Center, “Top 10 Reform Options from the CBO,” Niskanen Center, 12-21-2018, <https://www.niskanencenter.org/top-10-reform-options-from-the-cbo/>

The independent Congressional Budget Office recently released a report offering 121 options for reducing spending or increasing revenues. It’s a cornucopia of fiscal responsibility. Whether your goal is reducing unsustainable deficits, strengthening existing social programs, or saving the planet, there’s something for everyone. Here’s my top 10 list (in no particular order):

1). Eliminate Itemized Deductions

Estimated revenue change: $1.312 trillion over 10 years

Itemized deductions are one of the main reasons the federal tax code looks like Swiss cheese. Eliminating deductions such the state and local tax deduction and mortgage interest deduction, which are regressive and distortionary, would be the more efficient way to reduce the deficit without raising marginal tax rates.

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2). Increase Individual Tax Rates Across the Board

Estimated revenue change: $905.4 billion over 10 years

Nobody likes to see their taxes go up but a broad-based increase of 1 percentage point across the board would be one of the more sustainable deficit reduction strategies. It would have minimal impact on most taxpayers and leave the overall tax-burden distribution unchanged.

A picture containing table

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3). Introduce 5 percent Federal Value Added Tax

Estimated revenue change: $2.97 trillion over 10 years

Beginning with the revenue slowdowns of the 1970s, the value added tax (VAT) has been the revenue booster of choice for every English-speaking country with the exception of the United States. It’s less distortionary than income taxes and its regressive structure can be easily offset with progressive spending or refundable tax credits.

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4). Properly Fund the IRS

Estimated revenue change: $35.3 billion over 10 years

In terms of total revenue increases, better enforcement of current tax laws isn’t a money machine. In terms of getting the most bang for the buck while buttressing the rule of law, it’s a no-brainer.

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5). Reform Unemployment Insurance Taxes

Estimated revenue change: $18.1 billion over 10 years

Because it hasn’t been indexed for inflation, the tax base for unemployment insurance has steadily shrunk over the years. “Broaden the base, lower the rates” is a tried and true tax reform strategy that applies just as well in this case. This option would broaden the taxable wage base for unemployment insurance from $7,000 to $40,000 while lowering the net tax rate from 0.6 percent to 0.167 percent.

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6). Expand the Wage Base for Social Security taxes

Estimated revenue change: $758.1 billion over 10 years

Expanding Social Security’s taxable wage base to 90 percent of an individual’s wages would restore it to what it was under President Reagan’s 1983 reforms and make it a bit more fiscally sustainable in the long run.

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7). Fix the FMAP Formula

Estimated revenue change: $794 billion over 10 years

The Federal Medical Assistance Percentages formula is supposed to subsidize states based on their fiscal capacities, but the minimum funding rates of 50 percent for all programs and 90 percent for the Medicaid expansion favor wealthy states over poor states. Eliminating both would save a total of $794 billion over 10 years, as we can see by adding up the figures in CBO’s chart, below. Plowing the savings back into an enhanced FMAP formula based solely on fiscal capacity would make it vastly more equitable without adding a penny to the deficit.

Calendar

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8). Eliminate Head-of-Household Filing Status

Estimated revenue change: $165.3 billion over 10 years

The standard deduction for a head of household is an inefficient way to help single parents and those taking care of elderly parents because it is regressive and creates marriage penalties. Eliminating it and plowing the savings back into an expanded child tax credit or family credit would be a progressive and pro-family reform.

A picture containing calendar

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9). Increase the Gas Tax and Index It

Estimated revenue change: $514.9 billion over 10 years

Everyone is talking about funding much-needed infrastructure spending. The gas tax was last raised in 1993 and has been eroded by inflation every year since because it was left unindexed. Raising it by 35 cents and indexing it would go a long way toward sustainably funding infrastructure and still leave the United States with the lowest rate of any rich democracy.

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10). Introduce a Carbon Tax

Estimated revenue change: $1.099 trillion over 10 years

The Paris Accords and “green New Deal” proposals are window dressing when it comes to fighting climate change. There will never be a better option than simply directly taxing carbon emissions. Use the revenues for progressive spending offsets, growth-inducing tax cuts, deficit reduction, or all three.

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## Trade DA

### 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.

### AT: Thumpers

#### 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.

### AT: Empirically Denied

#### 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.

### AT: Underenforcement = Protectionism

#### 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

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, Lexis

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.

#### There are other independent links:

#### 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

Dr. Joseph A. Clougherty 21, Professor of Business Administration at the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign, Ph.D. in Political Economy & Public Policy from the University of Southern California, and Dr. Nan Zhang, Assistant Professor of Management at California State University, Stanislaus, Ph.D. in Business Administration from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, “Foreign Investor Reactions to Risk and Uncertainty in Antitrust: U.S. Merger Policy Investigations and the Deterrence of Foreign Acquirer Presence”, Journal of International Business Studies, Volume 52, Issue 3, June 2021, p. 456-458

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.

### AT: Antitrust Now

#### 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.

#### It's not law---changes to statute won’t happen

Joseph Charles Folio 21 III, Lawyer at Morrison Forrester, and Lisa M. Phelan Co-chair Global Antitrust Law Practice Group at Morrison Forrester, Jeff Jaeckel, Co-chair Global Antitrust Law Practice Group at Morrison Forrester, and Alexander Paul Okuliar, Co-chair Global Antitrust Law Practice Group at Morrison Forrester, “Antitrust Update: Up and Down the Avenue”, 3/22/2021, https://www.mofo.com/resources/insights/210322-atr-update.html

Are the stars aligning for antitrust reform? President Biden is filling key positions in the White House (Timothy Wu, National Economic Council) and at the FTC (Lina Khan, nominee for commissioner) with lawyers who have advocated for increased antitrust enforcement, especially against “big tech.” In Congress, the House antitrust subcommittee concluded a year-long investigation in October 2020 and found bipartisan agreement on discrete areas for reform. With Democrats now in control of both houses of Congress, antitrust legislation seems close. But not so fast.

The House and Senate antitrust subcommittees have held four hearings since February 25, 2021, but it is crucial to view these recent developments in their proper context. Even when politicians and enforcers appear to agree on a goal, it can still be a long and winding road to actual policy reform.

Two to go

Although antitrust reform advocates cheered President Biden’s initial appointments, two of the most consequential antitrust positions—the assistant attorney general (AAG) for antitrust and the FTC chair—remain open. Both the AAG and FTC chair wield tremendous authority; they approve cases, guide investigations, and will decide how to proceed with ongoing litigation. It is unlikely that the Biden administration will make any significant decisions, or support any particular legislation, before its key personnel are firmly in place. And that can take time. Former AAG Makan Delrahim was nominated in March 2017 but not confirmed until September 2017.

Interestingly, the pressure to nominate like-minded antitrust reformers for these two positions is coming from multiple angles. One public interest group recently sent a letter to White House chief of staff Ron Klain and, after “highly commend[ing]” the nomination of Ms. Khan to be an FTC commissioner, warned against the influence of certain White House and DOJ officials over the AAG and FTC chair nominations because of their links to “big tech” companies.[1] Additionally, many in the press have been critical of the level of tech enforcement activity during the Obama administration and want to avoid a replay of those years.[2]

### AT: Double-Bind

#### It’s distinct

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, Lexis

The U.S. has a long history of antitrust enforcement. The U.S. was one of the first nations to adopt antitrust laws through the enactment of the Sherman and Clayton Acts in 1890 and 1914, respectively. At that time, it was the response to a public outcry for protection from domestic monopolistic firms. So, at least initially, antitrust laws in the U.S. were highly political, sitting at the forefront of public debate and playing a large role in deciding elections. 90As time went on, the public outcry for protection from domestic monopolistic firms turned into an outcry against international firms. 91 The U.S. antitrust system of laws gained popularity and clout with its constituents more quickly and gained more public awareness than similar laws in other countries. 92

The U.S. system of antitrust laws then began to serve as an example of antitrust laws abroad. Setting aside the wide reach of U.S. influence in international matters generally, the sheer size of the U.S. market itself made U.S. antitrust law something to learn from.

[\*133] Although the U.S. spurred on the trend, its antitrust law is significantly different from that of other countries in several ways. At a high level, some distinctive features of the U.S. laws are the possibility of criminal sanctions on bad actors, the automatic trebling of damages, and the encouragement of private actors to bring suits. 93 Today, over 75% of antitrust cases in the U.S. are brought through private enforcement. 94 These features are not common to other jurisdictions.

### AT: Link Turn

#### Antitrust protectionism is restrained because the U.S. is strictly adhering to the consumer welfare standard

Elyse Dorsey 20, Adjunct Professor at Antonin Scalia Law School at George Mason University, JD from George Mason University, BA from Clemson University, et al., “Consumer Welfare & the Rule of Law: The Case Against the New Populist Antitrust Movement”, Pepperdine Law Review, 47 Pepp. L. Rev. 861, Lexis

Critics of the consumer welfare standard argue that the decision to focus on the welfare of consumers (rather than some other group or on non-welfare objectives) is inherently a political decision and therefore no more justified [\*881] than alternative tests. 118There are at least two errors with this position. First, the decision to adopt the consumer welfare model is political only in the sense that every policy decision is a political decision. 119 That is neither remarkable nor interesting for assessing the benefits of the consumer welfare standard. 120 The more important question is whether the consumer welfare standard, as applied, is better or worse than alternative tests at minimizing the discretion of a decisionmaker and therefore the potential influence of politics and rentseeking in antitrust decisions. 121 Significantly, what experience shows is that because the consumer welfare model is clear and objective, it cannot easily be contorted by a decisionmaker who may be motivated by a desire to pick winners and losers in a specific case. 122 The singular focus on consumer welfare thus creates a predictable methodology that leads to more consistency across different antitrust cases and to treating similarly situated parties equally under the law. 123 Indeed, by exporting the consumer welfare standard to other jurisdictions around the world, the United States has helped to foster the rule of law and limited the use of antitrust to promote protectionist goals. 124

[FOOTNOTE] 124 See, e.g., A. Neil Campbell & J. William Rowley, The Internationalization of Unilateral Conduct Laws--Conflict, Comity, Cooperation and/or Convergence?, 75 ANTITRUST L.J. 267, 272-73 (2008) ("The Chicago School played a major role in reversing traditional interventionist views about vertical pricing and distribution practices by developing arguments as to why such activities rarely are a cause for [antitrust] concern. William Kovacic . . . has also documented the complementary contributions of the Harvard School, based largely on considerations related to administrability and the institutional capacity of courts and enforcement agencies, which have combined with the Chicago School to provide a 'double helix' of intellectual support for a restrained approach towards dominant firm conduct."). [END FOOTNOTE]

### AT: Defense

#### a) Recent, robust studies

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

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

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

To trade or to raid

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

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

Trading partners

The causal arrow

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

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

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



### AT: Resilient

#### Antitrust causes global trade retaliation

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

B. Antitrust: Isn't It Just Protectionism on its Face?

Closer to the critical point of this paper, another popular criticism of antitrust law is that the laws themselves are inherently protectionist. 38 Trade protectionism is a "theory, practice, or system of fostering or developing domestic industries by protecting them from foreign competition." 39 Protectionism is "a politically motivated defensive measure." 40 Economics experts agree that "in the short run, it works. But, it is very destructive in the long term." 41 While preserving the country's competitive abilities for a short period, protectionism eventually makes the country engaged in protectionist policies and its industries "less competitive in international trade." 42 The more inward a country focuses, the more coddled and inefficient its markets and domestic companies become. In addition, surrounding countries will retaliate with protectionist policies, further thwarting the efficiencies gained from a free trade economy and its attendant benefits like downward price pressure and availability of goods for consumers.

#### The result is trade wars

Sean A. Pager 20, Professor at the Michigan State University College of Law, LLM from the European University Institute, JD from the University of California-Berkeley, AB from Harvard University, and Eric Priest, Associate Professor at the University of Oregon School of Law, LLM from Harvard Law School, JD from the Chicago-Kent Illinois Institute of Technology, BA from the University of Minnesota, “Redeeming Globalization Through Unfair Competition Law”, Cardozo Law Review, Volume 41, Number 3, 41 Cardozo L. Rev. 2435, July 2020, Lexis

Yet, even so, it would be unreasonable for every minor violation of a local ordinance overseas to give rise to an unfair competition action in America. Committing to such collateral enforcement of foreign law in such an unqualified manner would be problematic on several levels. Doing so would open the floodgates to transnational claims, clogging the dockets of U.S. courts and agencies. 142It could encourage harassment of foreign competitors, burdening them with the costs and distractions of defending unfair competition claims lodged in a distant U.S. court. And it could also encourage litigation tourism, inviting foreign plaintiffs to forum shop. Finally, use of unfair competition law could be abused for protectionist purposes. Such perceived unilateral aggression could trigger retaliation that risks sparking a larger trade war.

#### Trade’s fragile, given underlying populism and mercantilism---it’ll spiral

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This points to a new mercantilist trade order that might be more malign than benign, echoing the ‘new protectionism’ of the 1970s and early 1980s, or more worryingly, the 1920s and 1930s.

The two biggest threats to a stable and open global order are rising illiberal populism in the West, endangering its adherence to liberal values, and the increasingly aggressive illiberalism of the Chinese party-state, with its mix of authoritarianism, a state-directed market economy and external assertiveness. Both have mercantilist features that spill over the border into protectionism and restricted globalisation. Both feed off each other in a global negative-sum game.