# NC Lib (2:15)

## Framework:

#### I Negate the resolution resolved: The appropriation of outer space by private entities is unjust.

#### My value is justice because of the word just in the resolution.

#### In setting an end, every agent must recognize freedom as a necessary good, Gewirth 84 bracketed for grammar and gendered language

[Alan Gewirth, () "The Ontological Basis of Natural Law: A Critique and an Alternative" American Journal Of Jurisprudence: Vol. 29: Iss. 1 Article 5, 1984, https://scholarship.law.nd.edu/ajj/vol29/iss1/5/, DOA:9-10-2018 // WWBW Recut LHP AV]

Let me briefly sketch the main line of argument that leads to this conclusion. As I have said, the argument is based on the generic features of human action. To begin with, **every agent acts for purposes [t]he[y] regards as good.** Hence, **[t]he[y] must regard as necessary goods the freedom** and well being **that [is]** are the generic features and **necessary conditions of** his **action** and successful action in general. From this, it follows that **every agent logically must hold or accept** that he has **rights to these conditions**. For if he were **to deny** that he has **these rights**, then he **would** have to **admit that it is permissible** for other persons **to remove** from him the very **conditions** of freedom and well-being **that**, as **an agent**, he **must have**. But **it is contradictory** for him **to hold both that [t]he[y] must have these conditions and also that he may not have them.** Hence, on pain of self-contradiction, every agent must accept that he has rights to freedom and well-being. Moreover, **every agent must further admit that all other agents also have those rights, since all other actual or prospective agents have the same general characteristics of agency** on which he must ground his own right-claims. What I am saying, then, is that every agent, simply by virtue of being an agent, must regard his freedom and well being as necessary goods and must hold that he and all other actual or prospective agents have rights to these necessary goods. Hence, every agent, on pain of self-contradiction, must accept the following principle: Act in accord with the generic rights of your recipients as well as of yourself. The generic rights are rights to the generic features of action, freedom, and well-being. I call this the Principle of Generic Consistency (PGC), because it combines the formal consideration of consistency with the material consideration of the generic features and rights of action.

#### Preserving free choice to decide what is best for oneself is the best way to be ethical, because people have differing opinions of what is ethical. Accordingly, my criterion is preserving freedom.

#### People are not merely pawns of society, but real people with goals, dreams, and interests. It’s simply unethical to use one human against their will for the benefit of others. Nozick 74

Nozick 74, Robert Nozick, [American political philosopher, former professor at Harvard University], Anarchy, State, and Utopia, 1974.

**Side** **constraints express the inviolability of other persons**. But why may not one violate persons for the greater social good? **Individually, we each sometimes choose to undergo some pain or sacrifice for a greater benefit or to avoid greater harm: we go to the dentist to avoid worse suffering later; we do some unpleasant work for its results; some persons diet to improve their health or looks; some save money to support themselves when they are older. In each case, some cost is borne for the sake of the greater overall good**. Why not, similarly, hold that some persons have to bear some costs that benefits other persons more, for the sake of the overall social good? **But there is no social entity with a good that undergoes some sacrifice for its own good. There are only individual people, different individual people, with their own individual lives. Using one of these people for the benefit of others, uses him and benefits others. Nothing more**. **What happens is that something is done to him for the sake of others. Talk of an overall social good covers this up.** (Intentionally?) To use a person in this way does not sufficiently respect and take account of the fact that he is a separate person, that **his is the only life he has**. He does not get some overbalancing good from his sacrifice, and **no one is entitled to force this upon him--least of all a state or government that claims his allegiance** (as other individuals do not) **and that therefore scrupulously must be neutral between its citizens.**

#### Individuals have rights, so people must respect your actions and cannot restrict you, meaning the government’s only obligation is to protect rights. Philosophy professor Edward Feser writes:

Feser, Edward, (Professor of Philosophy at Pasadena City College), IEP, <https://www.iep.utm.edu/nozick/>. [ajv].

The various programs of the modern liberal welfare state are thus immoral, not only because they are inefficient and incompetently administered, but because they make slaves of the citizens of such a state. Indeed, **the only** sort of **state that can be moral**lyjustified **is** what Nozick calls a***minimal*** *state*or "night-watchman" state, a government **which protects individuals**, via police and military forces, from force, fraud, and theft, **and administers courts** of law, but does **nothing else**. In particular, such **a state cannot** regulate what citizens eat, drink, or smoke (since this would **interfere with their right to use their** self-owned **bodies** as they see fit), cannot control what they publish **or** read (since this would interfere with their right to use the **property** they've acquired with their self-owned labor- e.g. printing presses and paper - **as they wish**), cannot administer mandatory social insurance schemes or public education (since this would interfere with citizens' rights to use the fruits of their labor as they desire, in that some citizens might decide that they would rather put their money into private education and private retirement plans), and cannot regulate economic life in general via minimum wage and rent control laws and the like (since such actions are not only economically suspect - tending to produce bad unintended consequences like unemployment and housing shortages - but violate citizens' rights to charge whatever they want to for the use of their own property).

#### Prefer –

#### A] performativity – argumentation requires the assumption that freedom is good – else agents would be unable to make arguments

#### B] prerequisite – condoning any action requires condoning the freedom required to take that action – so my theory’s a prerequisite to theirs and my offense acts as a side-constraint to your framework.

#### C] culpability – absent a conception of free will, people can just claim they were acting of desires they can’t control.

#### D] probability – it’s logically contradictory to deny my framework because that would use freedom to do so. Therefore, it’s impossible for my framework to be false

## Contention 1: Rights

#### Appropriation is establishing property rights in something formerly un‐owned

**Dominiak 17**

Łukasz Dominiak (Associate Professor at Nicolaus Copernicus University in Poland; he holds a PhD and habilitation in political philosophy and is a Fellow of the Mises Institute). “Libertarianism and Original Appropriation.” Historia i Polityka, 29/2017: 22. Pp. 43‐56. JDN. https://apcz.umk.pl/HiP/article/view/HiP.2017.026/13714

Ownership1 , or property, on the other hand is a normative concept. To own a thing is to have a right to possess it, i.e. to be in such a juridical position that one’s claim to deal with the thing at will is a justified claim whereas claims of other persons are unjustified or less justified than the owner’s. As Barnett puts it, “rights are those claims a person has to legal enforcement that are justified, on balance, by the full constellation of relevant reasons, whether or not they are actually recognized and enforced by a legal system” (2004). To recognise someone’s ownership is therefore to assert that his possession of a thing is just, rightful, lawful, licit or reasonable etc., is to conclude that he ought to possess the thing if such is his will, even if he actually does not possess it. As Kinsella writes, “ownership is the right to control, use, or possess, while possession is actual control” (2009). Thus, ownership is a threefold normative or juridical relation between the owner, the thing owned and the rest of mankind such as the owner may control the thing to the exclusion of others because he has the best title to do it. Hence, the distinction between possession and ownership is a distinction between factual and normative relation. Having drawn the above distinction between possession and ownership, we are ready to define original appropriation. Thus, original appropriation is acquiring ownership of unowned things. To originally appropriate is to establish property rights, i.e. justified claims to physical things that at the moment of acquisition are unowned. What is important to underline again, is that original appropriation is not about taking factual possession of things that are unpossessed or unowned – this process is called occupation and can be conceived as one of the possible investitive facts that can result in original appropriation but should not be confounded with the latter. Neither is it about acquiring ownership of things already owned. It is about instituting new property rights to unowned things. As Nozick puts it, the topic of “original acquisition of holdings, the appropriation of unheld things includes the issues of how unheld things may come to be held” (2014), i.e. come to be owned. Hence, original appropriation is about creating normative relations between persons and things.

#### Injustice requires someone wronged, but initial acquisition doesn’t violate any entity’s rights– therefore, private appropriation of outer space cannot be unjust, Feser 05:

Edward Feser, [Associate Professor of Philosophy at Pasadena City College] “THERE IS NO SUCH THING AS AN UNJUST INITIAL ACQUISITION,” 2005 //LHP AV

The reason **there is no such thing as an unjust initial acquisition** of resources is that there is no such thing as either a just or an unjust initial acquisition of resources. The concept of **justice**, that is to say, simply **does not apply** to initial acquisition. **It applies only after initial acquisition has already taken place**. In particular, it applies only to transfers of property (and derivatively, to the rectification of injustices in transfer). This, it seems to me, is a clear implication of the assumption (rightly) made by Nozick that **external resources are initially unowned**. Consider the following example. **Suppose** **an individual** **A seeks to acquire some previously unowned resource R**. **For it to be** the case that A commits an **injustice** in acquiring R, it would also have to be the case that **there is some individual** **B** (or perhaps a group of individuals) **against whom A commits the injustice**. **But for B to have been wronged** by A’s acquisi- tion of R, **B would have to have had a rightful claim over R,** **a right to R**. By hypothesis, **however**, **B did not have a right to R, because no one had a right to it—it was unowned, after all**. So B was not wronged and could not have been. In fact, **the very first person who could conceivably be wronged by anyone’s use of R would be, not B, but A himself, since A is the first one to own R**. Such a wrong would in the nature of the case be an injustice in transfer—in unjustly taking from A what is rightfully his—not in initial acquisition. **The same thing, by extension, will be true of all unowned resources: it is only after some- one has initially acquired them that anyone could unjustly come to possess them, via unjust transfer**. It is impossible, then, for there to be any injustices

#### **The right of original appropriation comes from the right to property, and is just as important in protecting human’s freedom and autonomy. Van der Vossen 9**

Bas van der Vossen (Professor of Philosophy, University of Arizona). “What counts as original appropriation?” Politics Philosophy & Economics, 8: 355. 2009. JDN. https://philarchive.org/archive/VANWCA

Instead, acts of original appropriation are required for a particular practice of (justified) property rights to get started at a specific moment in time. The reason for this is that justifications of property at the general level can only establish a general conclusion: that there is a justification for situations in which people have property rights. They tell us that there is no moral problem when certain individuals claim certain rights against others with respect to certain objects. But this leaves out an important thing. For a general justification does not tell us whether the holdings of any given set of persons are in fact justified, nor how we could know. If we want to establish that, we need to know how a particular individual, call her P, can come to own a particular object, name it O. In particular, we want to know how P can come to possess O when it is not already in someone else’s possession.

The account of original appropriation thus serves the function of individuating property rights; it allows previously unowned objects to become covered by the (justified) property rights of particular individuals. Without it, we would lack an intuitively ap‐ pealing means of identifying whether a given set of holdings that arose from a situation in which there were no property rights present constitutes legitimate property. Without it, we would lack the means of establishing the legitimacy of something that was not yet owned coming into someone’s possession. This is the role of original appropriation. It involves specifying certain acts that signify that a person can legitimately claim to have a property right. It involves specifying what counts as original appropriation.

# Mining DA (2 min)

#### Asteroid Mining is coming now, due to tech, and the private sector is perfect for this job. Countries are allowing it to happen in the status quo. It is necessary because it helps acquire water, rocket fuel, rare earth metals, and other valuables.

**Gilbert 21** alex gilbert, is a complex systems researcher and a PhD student in space resources at the Colorado School of Mines. "Mining in Space Is Coming." Milken Institute Review, April 26, 2021, [www.milkenreview.org/articles/mining-in-space-is-coming](http://www.milkenreview.org/articles/mining-in-space-is-coming). [Quality Control]

**Space exploration is back**. after decades of disappointment, a combination of better technology, falling costs and a rush of competitive energy from the private sector has put space travel **front and center**. indeed, many analysts (even some with their feet on the ground) believe that commercial developments in the space industry may be on the cusp of starting the largest resource rush in history: **mining on the Moon**, Mars and **asteroids**. While this may sound fantastical, some baby steps toward the goal have already been taken. Last year, NASA awarded contracts to four companies to extract small amounts of lunar regolith by 2024, effectively **beginning the era of commercial space mining**. Whether this proves to be the dawn of a gigantic adjunct to mining on earth — and more immediately, a key to unlocking cost-effective space travel — will turn on the answers to a host of questions ranging from what resources can be efficiently. As every fan of science fiction knows, the resources of the solar system appear **virtually unlimite**d compared to those on Earth. There are whole other planets, dozens of moons, thousands of massive asteroids and millions of small ones that doubtless contain humungous quantities of materials that are scarce and very valuable (back on Earth). Visionaries including Jeff Bezos imagine heavy industry moving to space and Earth becoming a residential area. However, as entrepreneurs look to harness the riches beyond the atmosphere, access to space resources remains tangled in the realities of economics and governance. Start with the fact that space belongs to no country, complicating traditional methods of resource allocation, property rights and trade. With limited demand for materials in space itself and the need for huge amounts of energy to return materials to Earth, creating a viable industry will turn on major advances in technology, finance and business models. That said, there’s no grass growing under potential pioneers’ feet. Potential economic, scientific and even security benefits underlie an emerging geopolitical competition to pursue space mining. The United States is rapidly emerging as a front-runner, in part due to its ambitious Artemis Program to lead a multinational consortium back to the Moon. But it is also a leader in **creating a legal infrastructure** for mineral exploitation. The United States has adopted the world’s first space resources law, recognizing the property rights of private companies and individuals to materials gathered in space. However, the United States is hardly alone. Luxembourg and the United Arab Emirates (you read those right) are racing to codify space-resources laws of their own, hoping to attract investment to their entrepot nations with business-friendly legal frameworks. China reportedly views space-resource development as a national priority, part of a strategy to challenge U.S. economic and security primacy in space. Meanwhile, Russia, Japan, India and the European Space Agency all harbor space-mining ambitions of their own. Governing these emerging interests is an outdated treaty framework from the Cold War. Sooner rather than later, we’ll need new agreements to facilitate private investment and ensure international cooperation. What’s Out There Back up for a moment. For the record, space is already being heavily exploited, because space resources include non-material assets such as orbital locations and abundant sunlight that enable satellites to provide services to Earth. Indeed, satellite-based telecommunications and global positioning systems have become indispensable infrastructure underpinning the modern economy. Mining space for materials, of course, is another matter. In the past several decades, planetary science has confirmed what has long been suspected: celestial bodies are potential sources for dozens of natural materials that, in the right time and place, are **incredibly valuable**. Of these, water may be the most attractive in the near-term, because — with assistance from solar energy or nuclear fission — H2O can be split into hydrogen and oxygen to make **rocket propellant**, facilitating in-space refueling. So-called “**rare earth” metals** are also **potential targets** of asteroid miners intending to service Earth markets. Consisting of 17 elements, including lanthanum, neodymium, and yttrium, these critical materials (most of which are today mined in China at great environmental cost) **are required for electronic**s. **And they loom as bottlenecks in making the transition from fossil fuels to renewables backed up by battery storage.**

#### However, in order for asteroid mining to take place, private entities need to be allowed to appropriate. The plan prevents that

**Meyers 15** Meyers, Ross. J.D. candidate at the University of Oregon Law School. "The doctrine of appropriation and asteroid mining: incentivizing the private exploration and development of outer space." Or. Rev. Int'l L. 17 (2015): 183. Italics in original. [Quality Control]

The **doctrine of appropriation** is a reasonable rule for adjudicating asteroid claims, and it could **easily be modified to apply to asteroid mining**. In the context of water rights, the doctrine of appropriation requires that the claimant be a landowner in order to claim the right to use a water source. It does not make sense, however, for the international community to grant complete ownership over asteroids toa single entity, so the landowner requirement of the rule should be removed. A similar modification would need to be made to the "beneficial use" language of the doctrine.

In the context of water rights, an appropriator obtains rights only to water that he or she can reasonably put to beneficial use. The metals contained in asteroids have a high level of marketability. For that reason, a mining entity could potentially put any amount of obtained metal to beneficial use, in the sense that the resources can be sold. This, however, would defeat the purpose of the rule, which is to limit such unreasonable claims. To ameliorate this problem, the doctrine of appropriation could be modified to define "beneficial use "constructively by providing that beneficial use is assumed for any resources that have been removed from the asteroid that the mining entity can reasonably hope to transport to market in a return journey. With the **astronomical cost** of undertaking a trip to such an asteroid, this modification would limit mining entities to only what they can carry back, thereby leaving the untapped resources available to other entities capable of making the same trip. Considering the size and profitability of metal deposits on asteroids, this modification to the doctrine of appropriation would **not be overly burdensome to corporate interests**. At the same time, it would **satisfy the economic imperative of promoting the rapid development of asteroid resources.**

There is no doubt that asteroids may be **extremely beneficial to mankind,** both as a **source of resources** and as a jumping-off point to **far off locations in space**. The human-race has progressed scientifically and technologically to the point that space travel is within commercial reach, and the need for new international laws governing the ownership of space has never been more apparent. The Outer Space Treaty of 1968made great strides in developing rational rules for space and many of its provisions should be maintained in their original form. However, by allowing ownership of asteroids under the doctrine of **appropriation**, the international community can **incentivize the exploration and development of space in a way that reflects the needs of society in general**, **without vesting an absolute monopoly in a single entity.** The doctrine of appropriation helped drive American westward expansion, and its application to space mining would help drive the human race in its expansion into the space, the final frontier.

#### Asteroid mining offsets terrestrial growth that ruins the environment and enables many more solar power satellites – both solve climate change

**Taylor 19** Chris Taylor is a veteran journalist. Previously senior news writer for Time.com a year later. In 2000, he was named San Francisco bureau chief for Time magazine. He has served as senior editor for Business 2.0, West Coast editor for Fortune Small Business and West Coast web editor for Fast Company. Chris is a graduate of Merton College, Oxford and the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism. "How asteroid mining will save the Earth — and mint trillionaires." Mashable, 2019, mashable.com/feature/asteroid-mining-space-economy. [Quality Control]

The mission is essential, Joyce declares, to save Earth from its **major problems**. First of all, the fictional billionaire wheels in a fictional Nobel economist to demonstrate the actual truth that the entire global economy is sitting on a **mountain of debt**. It has to keep growing or it will **implode**, so we might as well take the majority of the **industrial growth off-world where it can’t do any more harm to the biosphere.**

Secondly, there’s the **climate change fix**. Suarez sees asteroid mining as the only way we’re going to build **solar power satellites.** Which, as you probably know, is a form of uninterrupted solar power collection that is theoretically more effective, inch for inch, than any solar panels on Earth at high noon, but operating 24/7. (In space, basically, **it’s always double high noon).**

The power collected is beamed back to large receptors on Earth with large, low-power microwaves, which researchers think will be harmless enough to let humans and animals pass through the beam. A space solar power array like the one China is said to be working on could reliably supply 2,000 gigawatts — or **over 1,000 times more power than the largest solar farm currently in existence.**

“We're looking at a 20-year window to **completely replace human civilization's power infrastructure,**” Suarez told me, citing the report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change on the coming catastrophe. Solar satellite technology “has existed since the 1970s. What we were missing is **millions of tons of construction materials** in orbit. **Asteroid mining can place it there.”**

The Earth-centric early 21st century can’t really wrap its brain around this, but the idea is not to bring all that building material and precious metals down into our gravity well. Far better to create a whole new commodities exchange in space. You mine the useful stuff of asteroids both near to Earth and far, thousands of them taking less energy to reach than the moon. That’s something else we’re still grasping, how relatively easy it is to ship stuff in zero-G environments.

2100, the U.N. estimates. So if optimism is always a matter of perspective, the possibility of four degrees shapes mine.

#### Climate change causes extinction.

Specktor 19 [Brandon; writes about the science of everyday life for Live Science, and previously for Reader's Digest magazine, where he served as an editor for five years; "Human Civilization Will Crumble by 2050 If We Don't Stop Climate Change Now, New Paper Claims," livescience, 6/4/19; <https://www.livescience.com/65633-climate-change-dooms-humans-by-2050.html>] Justin

The current climate crisis, they say, is larger and more complex than any humans have ever dealt with before. General climate models — like the one that the [United Nations' Panel on Climate Change](https://www.ipcc.ch/sr15/) (IPCC) used in 2018 to predict that a global temperature increase of 3.6 degrees Fahrenheit (2 degrees Celsius) could put hundreds of millions of people at risk — fail to account for the **sheer complexity of Earth's many interlinked geological processes**; as such, they fail to adequately predict the scale of the potential consequences. The truth, the authors wrote, is probably far worse than any models can fathom. How the world ends What might an accurate worst-case picture of the planet's climate-addled future actually look like, then? The authors provide one particularly grim scenario that begins with world governments "politely ignoring" the advice of scientists and the will of the public to decarbonize the economy (finding alternative energy sources), resulting in a global temperature increase 5.4 F (3 C) by the year 2050. At this point, the world's ice sheets vanish; brutal droughts kill many of the trees in the [Amazon rainforest](https://www.livescience.com/57266-amazon-river.html) (removing one of the world's largest carbon offsets); and the planet plunges into a feedback loop of ever-hotter, ever-deadlier conditions. "Thirty-five percent of the global land area, and **55 percent of the global population, are subject to more than 20 days a year of** [**lethal heat conditions**](https://www.livescience.com/55129-how-heat-waves-kill-so-quickly.html), beyond the threshold of human survivability," the authors hypothesized. Meanwhile, droughts, floods and wildfires regularly ravage the land. Nearly **one-third of the world's land surface turns to desert**. Entire **ecosystems collapse**, beginning with the **planet's coral reefs**, the **rainforest and the Arctic ice sheets.** The world's tropics are hit hardest by these new climate extremes, destroying the region's agriculture and turning more than 1 billion people into refugees. This mass movement of refugees — coupled with [shrinking coastlines](https://www.livescience.com/51990-sea-level-rise-unknowns.html) and severe drops in food and water availability — begin to **stress the fabric of the world's largest nations**, including the United States. Armed conflicts over resources, perhaps culminating in **nuclear war, are likely**. The result, according to the new paper, is "outright chaos" and perhaps "the end of human global civilization as we know it."

# CASE

**Growth forces structural changes that solve environmental damage.**

Faik **BILGILI ET AT. 16**. \*\*PhD in Economics, The City University of New York and Istanbul University; professor of Economics, Erciyes University, Turkey. \*\* Emrah Kocak, Researcher, Evran University. \*\*Ümit Bulut, PhD in Economics, Gazi University and Professor of Economics, Ahi Evran University. “The dynamic impact of renewable energy consumption on CO2 emissions: A revisited Environmental Kuznets Curve approach.” *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 54(Feb): 838-9. Emory Libraries.

Some seminal papers reveal that, within the process of economic growth, environmental pollution level first scales up and later scales down. This is an inverted U-shaped relationship between GDP per capita and pollution level (Grossman and Krueger [3,4], Panayotou [5], Shafik [6], Selden and Song [7]). Since this relationship resembles the relationship between GDP per capita and income inequality produced by Kuznets [8], Panayotou [5] calls it Environmental Kuznets Curve (EKC).

According to the EKC hypothesis, the level of environmental pollution initially intensifies because of economic growth, later tampers after GDP per capita reaches a threshold value (Panayotou [5], Suri and Chapman [9]; Stern [10]). Therefore, this hypothesis implies a dynamic process in which structural change occurs together with economic growth (Dinda [2]). Grossman and Krueger [3] first clarify how the EKC arises. They explore that economic growth affects environmental quality through three channels: (i) scale effect, (ii) structural effect, and (iii) technological effect. Fig. 1 presents the EKC within the periods of (i), (ii) and (iii).

According to the scale effect, given the level of technology, more resources and inputs are employed to produce more commodities at the beginning of economic growth path. Hence, more energy resources and production will induce more waste and pollutant emissions, and the level of environmental quality will get worse (Torras and Boyce [11], Dinda [2], Prieur [12]). The structural effect states that the economy will have a structural transformation, and **economic growth will affect environment positively** along with continuation of growth. In other words, as national production grows the structure of economy changes, and the share of less polluting economic activities increases gradually. Besides, an economy experiences a transition from capital-intensive industrial sectors to service sector and reaches technology-intensive knowledge economy (the final stage of the structural change). Due to the fact that technology-intensive sectors utilize fewer natural sources, the impact of these sectors on environmental pollution will be less. The last channel of the growth process is the technological effect channel. Since a high-income economy can allocate more resources for research and development expenditures, the new technological processes will emerge. Thus, the country will **replace old and dirty technologies with new and clean technologies**, and environmental quality will deepen (Borghesi [13], Copelan and Taylor [14]). Consequently, environmental pollution initially increases and later decreases as a result of scale, structural and technological effect emerging along with growth path.

Some studies of EKC hypothesis consider income elasticity of clean environment demand (Beckerman [15], Selden and Song [16], McConnel [17], Panayotou [18], Carson et al. [19], Brock and Taylor [20]). Accordingly, the share of low-income people’s expenditures for food and basic necessities is higher than that of high-income societies’ expenditures for the same type of commodities (Engel’s Law). As income level and life standards rise in conjunction with economic growth, the societies’ demand for clean environment advances. Besides, societies make often pressure on policy makers to protect the environment through new regulations. One might argue that, because of these reasons, clean environment is a luxury commodity and the demand elasticity of clean environment is higher than unity (Dinda [2]).

**It's try or die for cap---new tech is key.**

John **Asafu-Adjaye 15**. Associate professor of economics at the University of Queensland in Brisbane, Australia. Et al. “An Ecomodernist Manifesto”. April 2015. <https://www.ecomodernism.org/manifesto-english>

**High-efficiency solar cells** produced from earth-**abundant** materials are an exception and have the potential to provide **many tens** of **terawatts** on a **few percent** of the **Earth’s surface**. Present-day solar technologies will require **substantial innovation** to meet this standard and the development of cheap **energy storage** technologies that are capable of dealing with highly variable energy generation at large scales.

**Nuclear** fission today represents the only **present**-day **zero-carbon tech**nology with the demonstrated ability to meet most, if not all, of the **energy demands** of a **modern economy**. However, a variety of social, economic, and institutional challenges make deployment of present-day nuclear technologies at scales necessary to achieve significant climate mitigation unlikely. A **new gen**eration of nuclear **tech**nologies that are safer and cheaper will likely be necessary for nuclear energy to meet its **full potential** as a **critical climate mitigation** technology.

In the long run, **next-gen**eration solar, advanced nuclear fission, and nuclear fusion represent the **most plausible pathways** toward the joint goals of **climate stabilization** and radical **decoupling** of humans from nature. If the history of energy transitions is any guide, however, that transition will take time. During that **transition**, other energy technologies can provide **important** social and **environmental benefits**. Hydroelectric **dams**, for example, may be a cheap source of **low-carbon** power for poor nations even though their land and water footprint is relatively large. Fossil fuels with **c**arbon **c**apture and **s**torage can likewise provide **substantial** environmental **benefits** over current fossil or biomass energies.

**Decline fuels nationalism---great power war**

Lawrence H. **Summers** **17**. Secretary of the Treasury (1999-2001) and Director of the US National Economic Council (2009-2010), former president of Harvard University, where he is currently University Professor. “Will the Center Hold?” *Project Syndicate*. 12/21/2017. <https://www.project-syndicate.org/onpoint/recession-or-financial-crisis-political-fallout-by-lawrence-h--summers-2017-12?a_la=english&a_d=5a37edac78b6c709b8d260dd&a_m=&a_a=click&a_s=&a_p=%2Fsection%2Feconomics&a_li=recession-or-financial-crisis-political-fallout-by-lawrence-h--summers-2017-12&a_pa=section-commentaries&a_ps>=

There is also the question of financial institutions’ health. While major firms appear far better capitalized and far more liquid than they were prior to the crisis, market indicators of risk suggest we may not be quite as far out of the woods as many suppose. Despite apparently large increases in capital and consequent declines in leverage, it does not appear that bank stocks have become far less volatile, as financial theory would predict if capital had become abundant. Financial markets are widely cited, including by US President Donald Trump, as providing comfort in the current moment. But a relapse into **financial crisis** would likely have **catastrophic** political **consequences**, sweeping into power even more **toxic populist nationalists**. In such a scenario, the center **will not hold**. Beyond the kind of near-term risks that markets price, there is the question of an economic downturn. The good news is that sentiment is positive in most of the world. Inflation seems unlikely to accelerate out of control and force a lurch toward contractionary fiscal and monetary policies. Most forecasters regard the near-term risk of recession as low. But recessions are never predicted successfully, even six months in advance. The current expansion in the US has gone on for a long time, and the risk of policy mistakes there is very real, owing to highly problematic economic leadership in the Trump administration. I would put the annual probability of recession in the coming years at 20-25%. So the odds are better than even that the US economy will fall into recession in the next three years. The risk from a purely economic point of view is that the traditional strategy for battling recession – a reduction of 500 basis points in the federal funds rate – will be unavailable this year, given the zero lower bound on interest rates. Nor is it clear that the will or the room for fiscal expansion will exist. This means that the next recession, like the last, may well be **protracted and deep**, with **severe** global consequences. And the political capacity for a global response, like that on display at the London G-20 Summit in 2009, appears to be **absent** as well. Just compare the global visions of US President Barack Obama and UK Prime Minister Gordon Brown back then with those of Trump and Prime Minister Theresa May today. I shudder to think what a serious recession will mean for politics and policy. It is hard to imagine avoiding a resurgence of **protectionism, populism, and scapegoating**. In such a scenario, as with another financial crisis, the center will not hold. But the greatest risk in the next few years, I believe, is neither a market meltdown nor a recession. It is instead a **political doom loop** in which voters’ conclusion that government does not work effectively for them becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Candidates elected on platforms of resentment delegitimize the governments they lead, fueling further resentment and even more problematic new leaders. Cynicism pervades. How else can one explain how the candidacy of Roy Moore for a US Senate seat? Moore, who was twice dismissed for cause from his post on the Alabama Supreme Court, and who is credibly charged with sexually assaulting teenage girls when he was in his 30s, could enter the US Senate as many of his colleagues look the other way. If a country’s citizens lose confidence in their government’s ability to improve their lives, the government has an incentive to **rally popular support** by focusing attention on threats that only it can address. That is why in societies pervaded by anger and uncertainty about the future, the temptation to stigmatize minority groups increases. And it is why there is a tendency for officials to **magnify foreign threats**. We are seeing this phenomenon all over the world. Russian President Vladimir Putin, Turkish President Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, and Chinese President Xi Jinping have all made nationalism a central part of their governing strategy. So, too, has Trump, who has explicitly rejected the international community in favor of the idea that there is only a ceaseless struggle among nation-states for competitive advantage. When the world’s preeminent power, having upheld the idea of international community for nearly 75 years, rejects it in favor of ad hoc deal making, others have no choice but to follow suit. Countries that can no longer rely on the US feel pressure to provide for their own security. America’s adversaries inevitably will seek to **fill the voids** left behind as the US **retrenches**.

**Cap solves war --- development, similar interests, and globalization**

Erik **Gartzke 07**. Erik Gartzke is Professor of Political Science and Director of the Center for Peace and Security Studies (cPASS) at the University of California, San Diego, where he has been a member of the research faculty since 2007. “The Capitalist Peace.” American Journal of Political Science , Jan., 2007, Vol. 51, No. 1 (Jan., 2007), pp. 166-191. https://www.jstor.org/stable/4122913

Capitalism as Pacifism

The security dilemma implies that insecurity is a durable facet of international affairs. War can result as each country fears for its own security, even when neither state in- tends aggression (Glaser 1997; Jervis 1978). Yet, insecurity is predicated on the expectation that at least some countries are revisionist powers. Even "pessimistic" conceptions of world affairs appear more sanguine as we relax the assumption that insecurity is ubiquitous and immutable. The task before peace theorists, then, is to identify when and how nations are liberated from the security dilemma. The argument here is that capitalism resolves insecurity by creating "powerful pacifists" (Lake 1992), countries possessing military strength ensuring that they are largely free from foreign influence or domination, but equally that they lack incentives to act aggressively abroad, at least under certain circumstances.26

Warfare results from two stages of interaction. First, states must possess the willingness and ability to compete. Second, states must be unable, or unwilling, to re-solve differences through diplomatic means.27 Capabilities constrain weak, distant states (Belize and Burundi do not fight each other), but weakness alone is often insufficient, given the relativity of power. Indeed, weakness is an attractive attribute in a target. For similar reasons, an unwillingness to fight must also be mutual. For the purposes of exposition, imagine that the motives for war are divided between zero-sum (private goods) and nonzero- sum (goods with public properties). Private goods competition involves things like attempts to conquer or control material resources (land, labor, minerals).28 Competition can also occur over efforts to influence or compel policies (norms, alignments, leaders).29 The allocation of resources is inherently conflictual; two states that claim the same territory must compromise, fight, or delay a decision. The allocation of policies may or may not generate significant friction, depending on whether, or to what ex- tent, state objectives are compatible. While it would be odd to speak of countries as having substantially compatible interests when drawing a common geographic boundary (cf. Collins and Lapierre 1997; Holbrooke 1998), it would be strange not to consider the existence (or absence) of common cause in assessing such topics as ideology, norm enforcement, terrorism, or the organization of the global or regional economy.

At least three mechanisms associated with capital- ism are capable of addressing the security dilemma and mitigating the causes of war. States with similar policy goals have no need to fight to establish policy since little can be gained from victory, or lost in defeat. States al- ways have dissimilar interests when it comes to resource or territorial issues, but changes in modern economies often make these differences trivial, as resources can be had more easily through commerce. There can be no basis for agreement between two passersby about who should collect a quarter lying on the sidewalk, but fighting over 25 cents makes little sense. If, however, a sack of $100 bills falls from the sky, landing on the quarter, then it is entirely possible that a fight will ensue over who can collect their bag of riches. Yet, even the sack of money need not lead to violence if the passersby can agree on how to di- vide up the wind fall. States willing and able to fight can still avoid a contest if competitors are able to foresee the likely consequences of fighting and identify appropriate bargains.

Economic Development

Conflict is inherent in the allocation of resources among two or more parties, but need not result in violence if the stakes are literally "not worth fighting over" or when bargains preempt fighting. Imagine two countries attempting to divide up a bundle of goods (resources, territory). Comparison of available allocations is zero-sum; any shift from one allocation to another benefits one country only at the expense of the other country. In this framework, a mutual preference for peace requires that the value of winning be small relative to the cost of fighting (Morrow 1989; Powell 1999).

Peace advocates have long championed factors thought to make war prohibitively expensive. Cobden, for example, claimed optimistically that "Should war break out between two great nations I have no doubt that the immense consumption of material and the rapid destruction of property would have the effect of very soon bringing the combatants to reason or exhausting their resources" ([1867] 1903, 355). Yet, if war is a process where competitors inflict costs on one another, making war more expensive will affect who wins, or how long fighting lasts, but not whether a contest occurs (Levy and Morgan 1984)

War costs are also endogenous; if fighting is prohibitive, countries will make themselves a "nice little war."'3 In- creasing the cost of fighting, or alternately increasing the benefits of peace-even when possible-shape what each actor will accept in lieu of fighting, but do not tell us which bargains are forged before warfare, and which after. Even the prospect of nuclear annihilation did not deter disputes during the cold war (Schelling 1960).

If, on the other hand, the value of resources in dispute is small or varies with ownership, then states can be disinclined to fight. Nations have historically used force to acquire land and resources, and subdue foreign populations. War or treaties that shifted control of territory changed the balance of resources, and power. Sovereigns, and to a lesser extent citizens, prospered as the state ex- tended its domain. Development can alter these incentives if modern production processes de-emphasize land, minerals, and rooted labor in favor of intellectual and financial capital (Brooks 1999, 2005; Rosecrance 1996). If the rents from conquest decline, even as occupation costs increase, then states can prefer to buy goods rather than steal them.31 As the U.S. invasion of Iraq illustrates, occupying a reluctant foreign power is extremely labor intensive. If soldiers are expensive, then nations can be better off "outsourcing occupation" to local leaders and obtaining needed goods through trade.32

At the same time that development leads states to prefer trade to theft, developed countries also retain populations with common identities, cultural affinities, and political, social, and economic ties. These states may be reluctant to conquer their neighbors, but they are equally opposed to arbitrary contractions of their borders. Residents of Gibraltar, for example, prefer British rule, even while Spain, which has fought over this lump of rock for centuries, is today unwilling to provoke a war.33 The com- bination of a lack of motive for territorial expansion and continued interest in serving and protecting a given population ensures a decline in conflict among states with developed economies, especially where developed countries are geographically clustered (Gleditsch 2003). Since most territorial disputes are between contiguous states (Vasquez 1993), I hypothesize that developed, contiguous dyads are more powerful than either developing or noncontiguous dyads.34

HI: Development leads contiguous dyads to be less likely to experience conflict**.**

While development decreases incentives for territorial aggrandizement, it greatly enhances the technological ability of states to project power. Nations with ships and aircraft can engage in distant disputes inconceivable for poor countries. Development may also lead to increased willingness to pursue policy conflicts. If development is clustered and neighbors no longer covet territory, capabilities can be devoted to pursuing the nation's secondary or tertiary interests. Distributed production networks and greater economic, social, or political integration naturally also create incentives to seek to influence the foreign policies of other countries, sometimes through force. In contrast to the blanket assertion of classical political economists, I expect that development actually leads countries to be more likely to engage in conflicts far from home.35 Iraq invaded and occupied Kuwait in August 1990, intent on securing its "nineteenth province" and wresting Kuwaiti oil wealth from local leaders. The United States and its Coalition allies also invaded Kuwait, not to conquer and keep, but to return the Emirate to its previous leaders. While Coalition objectives were couched in moralistic rhetoric, the United States was clearly concerned about who governed Kuwait, while preferring not to govern the country itself. Similarly, European colonial powers have repeatedly intervened in Africa, Asia, and elsewhere to prop up or dethrone regimes, impose settlements, or otherwise meddle in the affairs of developing countries

Similar Interests

There is a second salient difference between the two sets of motives for invading Kuwait. Suppose that Iraq had the conquest of Kuwait would have had to be divided formed an alliance, like the U.S. Coalition. Spoils from up in some manner. Each new member of an Iraqi-led alliance would dilute the spoils, diminishing each member's "slice." By going it alone, Iraq kept all of the wealth of Kuwait to itself, at least for a little while. In contrast, U.S. objectives were not much diluted by the size of its coalition. Since there was no resource "pie" to distribute, the size of the Coalition was not a hindrance in allocating benefits, though reasons for reconstituting Kuwait differed markedly among the members, another source of tension that could have led to conflict (Baker 1995).

Students of war often treat state interests as largely uniform, and largely incompatible. International com- petition forces nations-large and small--to be security seekers (Waltz 1959, 1979), or to lust after power (Mearsheimer 2001). A different conception of interests comes from utilitarianism (Bentham [1781] 2000; Mill [1861] 1998) and rational theory (Black 1948; Downs 1957; Riker 1963), one in which interests are variable and are often logical primitives. Many countries may share to a greater or lesser extent compatible worldviews or objectives (cf. Keohane and Nye 1989). Conversely, strong policy differences can lead to conflict, and possibly to war (Bueno de Mesquita 1981, 1985, 1989; Morrow 1985). For example, World War II and the cold war were "ideological contests" which pitted coalitions of countries with in- compatible visions of an appropriate world order against each other. Since policy interests vary, while interests over resource allocations are more nearly constant (in their fundamental incompatibility), policy conflict should also vary. The range of policy issues over which state preferences might vary is literally innumerable. This article adopts an axiomatic approach, making the broadest theoretical claim, and then using a policy interest index to operationalize interest affinity in testing.

Globalization of Capital

While policy differences or resource competition can generate conflict, they need not produce contests if states can resolve differences diplomatically. Liberal theory emphasizes the pacifying effect of cross-border economic linkages. Markets are arguably most relevant as mechanisms for revealing information, however, rather than for adding to the risks or costs of fighting (Gartzke and Li 2003; Gartzke, Li, and Boehmer 2001). Competition creates incentives to bluff, to exaggerate capabilities or resolve. Anarchy makes it difficult for states to compel honest answers from one another except through the threat or imposition of harm. Contests inform by being costly, forcing actors to choose between bearing the burden of competition and backing down. Of course, one can signal by "burning money," expending valuable resources autonomously, but such acts create a relative as well as absolute loss. Tactics that impart costs only as a byproduct of imposing costs on an opponent can produce relative gains, while tactics such as burning money only harm the initiator. States with economies integrated into global markets face autonomous investors with incentives to reallocate capital away from risk. A leader's threats against another state become costly when threats spark market repercussions. Participants learn from watching the reactions of leaders to the differential incentives of economic cost and political reward. Two economically integrated states can more often avoid military violence, since market integration combines mechanisms for revelation and coercion. An economically integrated target can be coerced by the threat of losing valuable exchange, but a nonintegrated initiator cannot make its threats credible or informative. Conversely, a globalized initiator can signal but has little incentive to hamper its own markets when a nonintegrated target does not suffer (Gartzke 2006b).

**Lack of deterrence means extinction via nuclear war– Ice Age, famines, and war won’t stay limited**

Edwards 17 [Paul N. Edwards, CISAC’s William J. Perry Fellow in International Security at Stanford’s Freeman Spogli Institute for International Studies. Being interviewed by EarthSky. How nuclear war would affect Earth’s climate. September 8, 2017. earthsky.org/human-world/how-nuclear-war-would-affect-earths-climate/

In the nuclear conversation, what are we not talking about that we should be?

We are not talking enough about the climatic effects of nuclear **war**. The “nuclear winter” theory of the mid-1980s played a significant role in the arms reductions of that period. But with the collapse of the Soviet Union and the reduction of U.S. and Russian nuclear arsenals, this aspect of nuclear war has faded from view. That’s not good. In the mid-2000s, climate scientists such as Alan Robock (Rutgers) took another look at nuclear winter theory. This time around, they used much-improved and much more detailed climate models than those available 20 years earlier. They also tested the potential effects of smaller nuclear exchanges. The result: an exchange involving just 50 nuclear weapons — the kind of thing we might see in an India-Pakistan war, for example — could loft 5 billion kilograms of smoke, soot and dust high into the stratosphere. That’s enough to cool the entire planet by about 2 degrees Fahrenheit (1.25 degrees Celsius) — about where we were during the Little Ice Age of the 17th century. Growing seasons could be shortened enough to create really significant food shortages. So the climatic effects of even a relatively small nuclear war would be planet-wide. What about a larger-scale conflict? A U.S.-Russia war currently seems unlikely, but if it were to occur, hundreds or even thousands of nuclear weapons might be launched. The climatic consequences would be catastrophic: global average temperatures would drop as much as 12 degrees Fahrenheit (7 degrees Celsius) for up to several years — temperatures last seen during the great ice ages. Meanwhile, smoke and dust circulating in the stratosphere would darken the atmosphere enough to inhibit photosynthesis, causing disastrous crop failures, widespread famine and massive ecological disruption. The effect would be similar to that of the giant meteor believed to be responsible for the extinction of the dinosaurs. This time, we would be the dinosaurs. Many people are concerned about North Korea’s advancing missile capabilities. Is nuclear war likely in your opinion? At this writing, I think we are closer to a nuclear war than we have been since the early 1960s. In the North Korea case, both Kim Jong-un and President Trump are bullies inclined to escalate confrontations. President Trump lacks impulse control, and there are precious few checks on his ability to initiate a nuclear strike. We have to hope that our generals, both inside and outside the White House, can rein him in. North Korea would most certainly “lose” a nuclear war with the United States. But many millions would die, including hundreds of thousands of Americans currently living in South Korea and Japan (probable North Korean targets). Such vast damage would be wrought in Korea, Japan and Pacific island territories (such as Guam) that any “victory” wouldn’t deserve the name. Not only would that region be left with horrible suffering amongst the survivors; it would also immediately face famine and rampant disease. Radioactive fallout from such a war would spread around the world, including to the U.S. It has been more than 70 years since the last time a nuclear bomb was used in warfare. What would be the effects on the environment and on human health today? To my knowledge, most of the changes in nuclear weapons technology since the 1950s have focused on making them smaller and lighter, and making delivery systems more accurate, rather than on changing their effects on the environment or on human health. So-called “battlefield” weapons with lower explosive yields are part of some arsenals now — but it’s quite unlikely that any exchange between two nuclear powers would stay limited to these smaller, less destructive bombs.

**Growth is sustainable---It’s historically supported---but even if it isn’t, rejection is the worst option.**

Mark **Budolfson 21**. PhD in Philosophy. Assistant Professor in the Department of Environmental and Occupational Health and Justice at the Rutgers School of Public Health and Center for Population–Level Bioethics "Arguments for Well-Regulated Capitalism, and Implications for Global Ethics, Food, Environment, Climate Change, and Beyond". Cambridge Core. 5-7-2021. https://www-cambridge-org.proxy.library.emory.edu/core/journals/ethics-and-international-affairs/article/arguments-for-wellregulated-capitalism-and-implications-for-global-ethics-food-environment-climate-change-and-beyond/96F422D04E171EECDEF77312266AE9DD

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

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

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

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

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

Arguments for and against Forms of Capitalism

The Argument against Capitalism

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

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

The Argument for Well-Regulated Capitalism

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Elites block transition---causes mass death---only capitalism enables a peaceful solution to poverty.**

Rainer **Zitelmann 21**. German historian and author of “The Rich in Public Opinion.” "Violence Is History’s Great Economic Leveler." National Interest. 6-30-2021. https://nationalinterest.org/feature/violence-history%E2%80%99s-great-economic-leveler-188974

Another question that is all too rarely asked is: What would be the price of eliminating inequality? In 2017, the renowned Stanford historian and scholar of ancient history Walter Scheidel presented an impressive historical analysis of this question: The Great Leveler: Violence and the History of Inequality from the Stone Age to the Twenty-First Century. He concludes that societies that have been spared mass violence and catastrophes have never experienced substantial reductions in inequality.

Substantial reductions in inequality have only ever been achieved as the result of violent shocks, primarily consisting of war, revolution, state failure and systems collapse, and plague.

According to Scheidel, **the greatest levelers of the twentieth century did not include peaceful social reforms**, they were the two world wars and the communist revolutions. **More than 100 million people died in each of the two world wars and in the communist social experiments**.

Total War as a Great Leveler

World War II serves as Scheidel’s strongest example of “total war” leveling. Take Japan: In 1938, the wealthiest 1 percent of the population received 19.9 percent of all reported income before taxes and transfers. **Within the next seven years**, their share dropped by two-thirds, all the way down to 6.4 percent. **More than half of this loss was incurred by the richest tenth of that top bracket**: their income share collapsed from 9.2 percent to 1.9 percent in the same period, a decline by almost four-fifths. The declared real value of the income of the largest 1 percent of estates in Japan’s population fell by 90 percent between 1936 and 1945 and by almost 97 percent between 1936 to 1949. The top 0.1 percent of all estates lost even more during this period, 93 and 98 percent, respectively. During this period, the Japanese economic system was transformed as state intervention gradually created a planned economy that preserved only a facade of free-market capitalism. Executive bonuses were capped, rental income was fixed by the authorities, and between 1935 and 1943 the top income tax rate in Japan doubled.

Significant leveling also took place in other countries during wartime. According to Scheidel’s analysis, **the two world wars were among the greatest levelers in history**. The average percentage drop of top income shares in countries that actively fought in World War II as frontline states was **31 percent of the prewar level**. **This is a robust finding because the sample consists of a dozen countries**. The only two countries in which inequality increased during this period were also those farthest from the major theaters of war (Argentina and South Africa).

Low savings rates and depressed asset prices, physical destruction and the loss of foreign assets, inflation and progressive taxation, rent and price controls, and nationalization all contributed in varying degrees to equalization. The wealth of the rich was dramatically reduced in the two world wars, whether countries lost or won, suffered occupation during or after the war, were democracies or run by autocratic regimes.

The economic consequences of the two world wars were, therefore, devastating for the rich—a fact that stands in direct opposition to the thesis that it was capitalists that instigated the wars in pursuit of their own economic interests. Contrary to the popular perception that the lower classes suffered most in the wars, in economic terms it was the capitalists who were the biggest losers.

Incidentally, the left-wing economist Thomas Piketty comes to a similar conclusion. In his book Capital in the Twenty-First Century, he argues that progressive taxation in the twentieth century was primarily a product of the two world wars and not of democracy.

**Poverty is Eliminated Peacefully**

The price of reducing inequality has thus usually involved violent shocks and catastrophes, **whose victims have been not only the rich but millions and millions of people**. **Neither nonviolent land reforms nor economic crises nor democratization has had as great a leveling effect throughout recorded history as these violent upheavals**. If the goal is to distribute income and wealth more equally, says historian Scheidel, then we simply cannot close our eyes to the violent ruptures that have so often proved necessary to achieve that goal. We must ask ourselves whether humanity has ever succeeded in equalizing the distribution of wealth without considerable violence. **Analyzing thousands of years of human history, Scheidel’s answer is no**. This may be a depressing finding for many adherents of egalitarian ideas.

**However**, if we shift perspective, and ask not “How do we reduce inequality?” but “How do we reduce poverty?” **then we can provide an optimistic answer**: Not violent ruptures of the kind that led to reductions of inequality, **but very peaceful mechanisms, namely innovations and growth, brought about by the forces of capitalism**, have led to the greatest declines in poverty. Or, to put it another way: The greatest “levelers” in history have been violent events such as wars, revolutions, state and systems collapses, and pandemics, **but the greatest poverty reducer in history has been capitalism**. Before capitalism came into being, **most of the world’s population was living in extreme poverty**—in 1820, the rate stood at 90 percent. **Today, it’s down to less than 10 percent**. And the most remarkable aspect of all this progress is that, in the recent decades since the end of communism in China and other countries, **the decline in poverty has accelerated to a pace unmatched in any previous period of human history**. In 1981, the rate was still 42.7 percent; by 2000, it had fallen to 27.8 percent, and in 2021 **it was only 9.3 percent**.

**Although private entities will be gaining a profit, it doesn’t just benefit them. Private appropriation is the only way to have something to pass down to the next generation because it is the only way to turn to green tech to help combat climate change so we can keep the planet we live on and it removes the stress mining has on the planet.**

**Asteroid Mining Combats Climate Change**

**McWhorter 2016,**- J.D. Candidate, William & Mary Law School

[Kevin, Sustainable Mining: Incentivizing Asteroid Mining in the Name of Environmentalism, 40 Wm. & MaryEnvtl. L. & Pol'y Rev. 645, 2016, https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/wmelpr/vol40/iss2/11, accessed 7-18-21]

In the next sixty years, scientists predict that certain elements **crucial to modern industry** such as platinum, zinc, copper, phosphorous, lead, gold, and indium could be **exhausted** on Earth. Many of these have **no synthetic alternative**, unlike chemical elements such as oil or diamonds. Liquid-crystal display (LCD) televisions, cellphones, and laptops are among the various consumer technologies that use precious metals. Further, green technologies including wind turbines, solar panels, and catalytic converters require these rare elements. As demand rises for both types of technologies, and as reserves of rare metals fall, **prices skyrocket**. Demand for nonrenewable resources creates **conflict**, and **consumerism** in rich countries results in harsh labor treatment for poorer countries. In general, the mining industry is extremely destructive to Earth environment. In fact, depending on the method employed, mining can **destroy entire ecosystems** by polluting water sources and contributing to deforestation. It is by its nature an unsustainable practice, because it involves the extraction of a finite and non-renewable resource. Moreover, by extracting tiny amounts of metals from relatively large quantities of ore, the mining industry contributes the **largest portion of solid wastes in the world**. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) describes the industry as the source of **more toxic and hazardous waste than any other** industrial sector [in the United States], **costing billions** of dollars to address the public health and environmental threats to communities. Poor regulations and oxymoronic corporate definitions of sustainability, however, make it unclear as to just how much waste the industry actually produces. Platinum provides an excellent case study of the issue, because it is an extremely rare and expensive metal an ore expected to exist in **vast quantities in asteroids**. Further, production of platinum has increased sharply in the past sixty years in order to keep up with growing demand for use in new technologies. In fact, despite their high costs, platinum group metals are so useful that [one] of [four] industrial goods on Earth require them in production. Scholars do not expect demand to slow any time soon. Among other technologies, industries use platinum in products such as catalytic converters, jewelry production, various catalysts for chemical processing, and hydrogen fuel cells. While there is no consensus on how far the Earth's reserves of platinum will take humanity, many scientists agree that platinum ore reserves will deplete in a relatively short amount of time. With the rate of mining at an all-time high, it is increasingly clear that historical patterns of mineral resources and development cannot simply be assumed to continue unaltered into the future. The platinum mining industry, however, has a strong incentive to increase its rate of extraction as profits grow with the rate of demand. Without any alternative, this destructive practice will continue into the future. So-called platinum-group metal (PGM) ores are mined through underground or open cut techniques. Due to these practices, all but a very small fraction of the mined platinum ore is disposed of as solid waste. The environmental consequences of platinum production are thus quite significant, but like the mining industry in general, the amount of waste is typically under-reported. While this is due to high production levels at the moment, those levels will only increase given the estimated future demand of platinum. In spite of the negative consequences, mining continues unabated because it is economically important to many areas. The future environmental costs provide a major challenge in creating a sustainable system. Relegating at least some mining companies to near-Earth asteroids would reduce the negative effects of future mining levels on Earth. The economic benefits of mining need not be sacrificed for the sake of the environment.