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#### Incarcerated workers do not have a right to strike in the US.

Harvard Law Review, 19 - ("Striking the Right Balance: Toward a Better Understanding of Prison Strikes," Harvard Law Review 03/8/2019, accessed 10-28-2021, <https://harvardlawreview.org/2019/03/striking-the-right-balance-toward-a-better-understanding-of-prison-strikes/)//ML>

II. LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PRISON STRIKES: STATE LAW AND FEDERAL STATUTES¶ A. Statutes and Regulations¶ As a threshold matter, state and federal statutory law provides no recourse for protecting prison strikes. Incarcerated individuals are not included as protected “employees” in the text of federal labor laws like the Fair Labor Standards Act78 and the National Labor Relations Act,79 and courts have refused to extend the protections that these statutes offer to those confined within prison walls.80 Further, this Note is aware of no state labor laws, or for that matter any state constitutional provisions, that have been interpreted to allow prisoners to strike. ¶Not only are prison strikes not protected by statutory law — they also are often explicitly prohibited. State statutes and prison regulations pose the most immediate barrier to prison strike activity, as states across the union appear to categorically bar prison strikes and other forms of inmate collective organizing. For instance, Alaska’s administrative code lists “participation in an organized work stoppage” and “encouraging others to engage in a food strike” as “[h]igh-moderate infractions.”81 The same is true at the federal level, as the Bureau of Prisons has made “[e]ngaging in or encouraging a group demonstration” and “[e]ncouraging others to refuse to work, or to participate in a work stoppage” prohibited acts.82 ¶ Further research is certainly necessary to develop a fuller, more nuanced treatment of the various state and federal statutory schemes that impact prison strikes.83 But even this brief overview drives home a clear bottom line: that state and federal laws, in their current forms, likely offer no viable protection for prison strikes and indeed often prohibit them outright. ¶B. Constitutional Law ¶ The Supreme Court has not spoken directly on the question of whether peaceful prison protests merit constitutional protection. However, two areas of constitutional analysis — prisoners’ rights broadly and prisoners’ First Amendment rights specifically — suggest that under current law, the answer to this question is likely also a resounding no.¶ 1. Prisoners’ Constitutional Rights Generally. — Section 1 of the Thirteenth Amendment states: “Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.”84 By its express terms, the amendment creates an explicit exception for persons serving a sentence pursuant to conviction of a crime, and it therefore offers prisoners no basis to refuse to work or to engage in other forms of peaceful strikes.85 ¶ Despite the Thirteenth Amendment’s clear textual carve-out, courts have not, in modern times, read the wording of the amendment literally to allow the State to treat inmates like slaves.86 According to the Court, “[t]here is no iron curtain drawn between the Constitution and the prisons of this country.”87 Instead, as neither slaves nor free people,88 inmates retain some (but not all) of their constitutional rights when they cross into the prison.89 The Supreme Court has time and again asserted that “[l]awful incarceration brings about the necessary withdrawal or limitation of many privileges and rights.”90 This is the case not only because of the inherently “deprivat[ory]” nature of imprisonment,91 but also because prison administrators must be accorded wide latitude in the complex and difficult task of operating a penal institution.92 This deference, however, “yield[s] to the strictures of the Constitution.”93 Indeed, courts recognize that inmates, despite being incarcerated, retain particular constitutional rights “that the courts must be alert to protect.”94 Such rights that an inmate retains are those “that are not inconsistent with his status as a prisoner or with the legitimate penological objective of the corrections system.”95 ¶ However, as the Court explained in Turner v. Safley, 96 a prison regulation may infringe on a prisoner’s retained constitutional rights as long as “it is reasonably related to legitimate penological interests.”97 Turner identified four relevant factors in determining the reasonableness of a prison regulation: (1) whether there is “a ‘valid, rational connection’ between the regulation and the legitimate governmental interest [advanced] to justify it”;98 (2) whether alternative means for exercising the asserted right remain available;99 (3) whether accommodation of the asserted right will adversely affect “guards[,] other inmates, and . . . the allocation of prison resources generally”;100 and (4) whether there is a “ready alternative[]”101 to the regulation “that fully accommodates the prisoner’s right at de minimis cost to valid penological interests.”102 ¶ So, under the general legal framework for prisoners’ rights, finding constitutional protection for peaceful collective actions like the 2018 prison strike will likely face an uphill battle. Such a right to strike not only must fit within the confines of a “retained right,” which appears to be narrowly defined; it also must go up against Turner and its progeny, which mandate rational basis review for any prison regulation — providing prison officials with broad deference to curtail any rights that a prisoner might retain.103 Turning to prisoner First Amendment jurisprudence specifically, it becomes even clearer that a right to strike likely cannot navigate either difficulty successfully.¶ 2. Prisoners’ First Amendment Rights. — The First Amendment of the Constitution includes within its guarantees political rights to communicate, associate, and present grievances to the government.104 These rights go to the very heart of our political system — one that, as a democracy, values the participation of its citizens.105 Outside of prison walls, the Supreme Court has recognized that individuals may, in many situations, exercise their First Amendment associational rights by peacefully engaging in a work strike.106 Inside prison walls, however, the right to strike is a legal gray area. The Court has analyzed a number of First Amendment rights, including those implicating concerted political activity and association, in the prison context — asking whether (1) the First Amendment right in question is inconsistent with an inmate’s status as a prisoner and (2) prison officials’ interference with such a right reasonably relates to a legitimate penological interest.¶ 107 However, the Court has yet to perform such an analysis for prison strikes specifically. But one seminal Supreme Court case — Jones v. North Carolina Prisoners’ Labor Union, Inc.108 — casts serious doubt on prisoners’ collective right to strike. In Jones, a prisoners’ labor union109 brought an action under 42 U.S.C. § 1983, claiming that the North Carolina Department of Corrections violated its First Amendment rights110 by promulgating a prison rule that prohibited, among other things, union meetings among inmates.111 The three-judge district court agreed, granting substantial injunctive relief to the union.112 The Supreme Court reversed, however, doing so on two main grounds. Writing for the majority, then-Justice Rehnquist first invoked the familiar notion that “[t]he fact of confinement and the needs of the penal institution impose limitations on constitutional rights,” especially First Amendment associational rights.113 Then, without engaging with the specific nature of the potentially retained associational interest in question (that is, that of organizing as a union), Justice Rehnquist concluded that the challenged regulation did not unduly abridge inmates’ First Amendment rights.114 He did so by adopting a rational basis test — emphasizing the critical importance of “wide-ranging [judicial] deference” to prison officials and their informed discretion in carrying out penological goals.115 In particular, Justice Rehnquist argued that “[r]esponsible prison officials must be permitted to take reasonable steps to forestall” the “everpresent potential for violent confrontation” within prisons.116 And as he highlighted, North Carolina prison administrators had testified that the presence of, and potentially even the very objectives of, a prisoners’ union did potentially pose a danger117 — likely resulting in increased friction between inmates themselves or between inmates and prison personnel, as well as in “easily foreseeable” outcomes like “[w]ork stoppages.”118 ¶ In light of Jones, it is unlikely that the Supreme Court would, if the question came before it, recognize inmates’ First Amendment right to strike. Although the case concerned the specific issue of prison unions, the Jones Court’s holding was, in its methodology and reasoning, farreaching — (1) providing prison administrators with wide latitude to curtail any inmate collective activity that, in their “reasonable” judgment, threatened institutional order and security119 and, as a result, (2) appearing to severely curtail inmates’ First Amendment rights.120 The Court’s broad deference and narrow First Amendment view should therefore naturally be expected to extend to prison strikes and other forms of collective protest, about which prison officials have consistently offered similar safety concerns and which they have uniformly sought to ban,121 and which Jones specifically acknowledged as a possible unwelcome outcome of allowing prisoners to unionize. ¶ That Jones likely prevents any constitutional protection for prison strikes — and therefore liberally protects prison regulations banning strike activities — is reinforced by how the Supreme Court has applied the case over the past forty years. In Turner, for example, the Court rejected efforts to cabin Jones to barring only “‘presumptively dangerous’ inmate activities.”122 The Court specifically discussed Jones as part of a line of “prisoners’ rights” cases permitting “reasonable” prison regulations to impinge on inmates’ constitutional rights123 and ultimately relied in part on Jones to fashion its general four-part framework for assessing “reasonableness” across prison regulations.124 And in Overton v. Bazzetta, 125 the Supreme Court again invoked Jones to emphasize that “freedom of association is among the rights least compatible with incarceration”126 — though it declined to draw any precise boundaries that would be helpful for determining what, if any, associational rights inmates retain within prison walls, and whether those include strikes.127 ¶Lower courts have not been as wary to draw such boundaries. Under Jones, lower federal courts have uniformly held that prisoners have no constitutionally protected right under the First Amendment to strike. One district court interpreted Jones to hold that prison officials may act to prevent such strikes whenever they have a “good faith” belief that such strikes “threaten the security of the institutions they manage.”128 Lower courts have rejected a right to strike by simply citing to or briefly discussing Jones and contending that it naturally compels such a result,129 or by drawing an explicit connection between the prohibited prison unions at issue in Jones and prison strikes, dubbing strikes to be “a species of ‘organized union activity.’”130 They have also done so by delving into the specifics of why strikes purportedly pose safety and security risks within prisons and why prison regulations barring strikes are therefore rationally related to legitimate penological goals.131 ¶ Lower courts also have justified upholding prison regulations barring strikes by explicitly or implicitly turning to the general Turner framework that Jones helped create — including by arguing that there are ready alternatives to prison strikes,132 or that such regulations are generally permissible exercises of penal authority.133 And finally, it is worth noting that lower federal courts have, in deferring to prison offi- cials’ judgments regarding security, also permitted all manner of regulations designed to punish strikers134 and aid officials in preventing strikes from occurring.135 In short, there exists little, if any, room under current constitutional case law for protecting prison strikes.

#### Incarceration disproportionately affects people of color, which causes a permanent reduction in job opportunities and quality of life. Rezal 21

Adriana Rezal [data journalism fellow with U.S. News and World Report], 21 - ("A New Report Explores Racial Disparities in America’s Incarceration Rates," US News & World Report, 10-3-21, accessed 11-3-2021, https://www.usnews.com/news/best-states/articles/2021-10-13/report-highlights-staggering-racial-disparities-in-us-incarceration-rates)//LF

A national view of **U.S. incarcerated populations** by race and ethnicity **show**s **high rates of disparity among the country's communities of color and white Americans, especially among Black communities.** While **Black Americans are on average 4.8 times more likely to be incarcerated than white Americans, in some states such as** [**New Jersey**](https://www.usnews.com/news/best-states/new-jersey)**, Black Americans can be up to 12.5 times more likely to be incarcerated than white Americans**. [Hawaii](https://www.usnews.com/news/best-states/hawaii) demonstrates the lowest differential of Black to white American imprisonment, as shown by the map below. However, Black Americans in Hawaii are still over twice as likely to be incarcerated than white residents. While Latino individuals are on average 1.3 times more likely to be incarcerated than whites in the U.S., in some states such as [Massachusetts](https://www.usnews.com/news/best-states/massachusetts), Latino populations are up to 4.1 times more likely to be incarcerated than whites. In 20 states, including Oklahoma, North Carolina and New Hampshire, the data in the report shows the likelihood of imprisonment is higher for whites compared to the Latino population. However the report emphasizes the unreliability of ethnicity data possibly contributing to an underestimation of Black and Latino American data. "An example lies in Florida, which claims that 13% of its prison population is Latinx though more than one quarter of its residents are Latinx," (a gender neutral term for 'Latino,' according to the report. "There are most assuredly more Latinx people in prison than are officially reported but the exact number is unknown." **When it comes to incarceration, the U.S. is a world leader with 1.2 million people in state prisons across the country.** According to the report, **imprisonment is** a **life-altering** event **that can create negative impacts on the individual and societal level. Individuals released** from incarceration **may have difficulty gaining employment, finding stable housing and experience reduced lifetime earnings. Additionally, high levels of incarceration within communities can result in increased crime rates and contribute to neighborhood deterioration,** according to the study. Although the U.S. remains a world leader in imprisonment, The Sentencing Project reports that nine states have been successful in decreasing their incarcerated population by more than 30% in recent years as a result of policy reforms and reduced prison admissions and lengths of stay. These states include Alaska, New Jersey, New York, Connecticut, Alabama, Rhode Island, Vermont, Hawaii and California. The report cites a number of causes for racial disparity within U.S. prisons. According to the report**, the nation's history of white supremacy over Black people created a legacy of racial subordination that impacts their criminal justice outcomes today. The report also asserts that communities of color, especially Black Americans, are negatively affected by biased policies and practices including police-citizen relations, pre-trial detention, the weight criminal history records can carry in sentencing and unequal prosecutorial charging.**

#### Prison working conditions are terrible—prisoners work in unsafe conditions and accrue thousands of dollars in debt. Eisen 20

Lauren-Brooke Eisen [director of the Brennan Center’s Justice Program where she leads the organization’s work to end mass incarceration], 20 - ("Covid-19 Highlights the Need for Prison Labor Reform," Brennan Center for Justice, 4-17-2020, accessed 11-4-2021, https://www.brennancenter.org/our-work/analysis-opinion/covid-19-highlights-need-prison-labor-reform)//ML

For decades, prisoners in American correctional facilities have worked for no wages or mere pennies an hour. As the United States attempts to reduce transmission of Covid-19, more than a dozen states are now relying on this captive labor force to manufacture personal protective equipment badly needed by healthcare workers and other frontline responders.¶ [Prisoners in Missouri](https://wgem.com/2020/03/31/missouri-governor-provides-updates-on-covid-19-response/) are currently earning between $0.30 and $0.71 an hour to produce hand sanitizer, toilet paper, and protective gowns that will be distributed across the state. In Louisiana, prisoners are [making hand sanitizer](https://www.theadvocate.com/baton_rouge/news/coronavirus/article_98081a40-74ea-11ea-b367-2774f5090b74.html) for about $0.40 an hour. And in Arkansas, where incarcerated workers are [producing](https://www.eldoradonews.com/news/2020/apr/02/state-prisoners-manufacturing-masks/) cloth masks for prisoners, correctional officers, and other government workers, their labor is entirely uncompensated.¶ This unprecedented health emergency is re-exposing how our country’s long-held practice of paying nothing or next-to-nothing for incarcerated labor, with no labor protections, is akin to modern-day slavery.¶ Prisoners are not protected by the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA), the federal law establishing minimum wage and overtime pay eligibility for both private sector and government workers. In 1993, a federal appeals court [held](https://casetext.com/case/harker-v-state-use-industries) that it is up to Congress, not the courts, to decide whether the FLSA applies to incarcerated workers.¶ Courts have also [ruled](https://www.theatlantic.com/business/archive/2015/09/prison-labor-in-america/406177/) that the National Labor Relations Act, which guarantees the right of private sector employees to collective bargaining, does not apply in prisoners.¶ Even worse, prisoners are excluded from the U.S. Occupational Health and Safety Administration protections that require employers to provide a safe working environment. This dehumanizing lack of protection for prison workers has long subjected them to conditions that have [endangered their physical safety](https://theintercept.com/2016/12/28/california-blames-incarcerated-workers-for-unsafe-conditions-and-amputations/).¶ Amid a health threat that [worsens in crowded environments](https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/politics/2020/04/09/coronavirus-hits-workers-inmates-jails-prisons-threatened/2968807001/), many prisoners are working without any mandated protections. Congress must amend the language of federal employment protections to explicitly extend to work behind bars.¶ Forced labor in prisons has its roots in the post-Civil War Reconstruction period, when Southern planters faced the need to pay the labor force that had long worked for free under brutal conditions to produce the economic capital of the South.¶ Though the 13th Amendment abolished “involuntary servitude,” it excused forcible labor as punishment for those convicted of crimes. As a result, Southern states codified punitive laws, known as the Black Codes, to arbitrarily criminalize the activity of their former slaves. Loitering and congregating after dark, among other innocuous activities, suddenly became criminal. Arrest and convictions bound these alleged criminals to terms of incarceration, often sentenced to unpaid labor for wealthy plantation owners.¶ In the following decades, Southern states — desperate for cheap labor and revenue — widely began leasing prisoners to local planters and Northern industrialists who took responsibility for their housing and feeding, a practice known as convict leasing.¶ Under this system, the captive labor market worked long hours in unsafe conditions, often treated as [poorly](https://www.nytimes.com/2008/04/10/books/10masl.html) as they had been as slaves. Records [approximate](https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=35zwA6yMbAgC&oi=fnd&pg=PP1&dq=Robert+Zieger,+%E2%80%9CFor+Jobs+and+Freedom:+Race+and+Labor+in+America+Since+1965.%E2%80%9D+&ots=EBzrbvCklq&sig=YkRKzrWlFAqE7YG00vNHgFBAPJ8#v=onepage&q=Robert%20Zieger%2C%20%E2%80%9CFor%20Jobs%20and%20Freedom%3A%20Race%20and%20Labor%20in%20America%20Since%201965.%E2%80%9D&f=false) that on an average day between 1885 and 1920, 10,000 to 20,000 prisoners — the overwhelming majority of them Black Americans — continued to toil under these insufferable circumstances.¶ In the 1930s, a [series of laws](http://www.ncpathinktank.org/pub/st206?pg=3) prohibited state prisons from using prison labor, but the federal government continued to rely on this workforce to meet the demands of the rapidly changing markets of mid-century. By 1979, Congress passed [legislation](https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/bja/203483.pdf) allowing state corrections officials to collaborate with private industries to produce prison-made goods, birthing the modern era of prison labor. ¶ Today, [approximately 55 percent](https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/csfcf05.pdf) of the American prison population works while serving their sentences. Prison jobs are broadly divided into two categories: prison support work — such as food preparation, laundry services, and maintenance work — and “correctional industries” jobs, in which prisoners might make license plates, sew military uniforms, or staff a call center. It is prisoners in correctional industries who are currently being deployed to help meet the nation’s need for protective gear.¶ While so many behind bars are manufacturing items the country desperately needs to combat our current health crisis, their low wages and lack of labor protections — among myriad other factors — mean they are not accorded the same benefits or recognition as other workers.¶ What’s more, the measly cents per hour that is typical compensation across often-dangerous prison jobs is not nearly enough to cover the court fees and fines, restitution, child support, and room and board expenses that most state departments of corrections deduct from prisoners’ earnings. When there is anything left, it is barely enough to pay for commissary goods such as food, hygienic products, and toiletries, let alone marked-up email services that prisoners rely on to stay in touch with their loved ones. Despite working for years, many prisoners are left with thousands of dollars in ~~crippling~~ debt by the time they complete their sentences.¶ In 2018, prisoners in dozens of facilities across the country went on strike and issued a [list of demands](https://incarceratedworkers.org/campaigns/prison-strike-2018), which included “an immediate end to prison slavery” and that prisoners be “paid the prevailing wage in their state or territory for their labor.”¶ This time of national emergency requires that everyone do their part to slow the spread of coronavirus. The significant shortage of face masks, protective gowns, and hand sanitizer that is putting the lives of our frontline workers in jeopardy necessitates bold and swift action. But if the states and [federal](https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2020-04-06/federal-inmates-to-make-cloth-virus-masks-for-prisoners-guards) government are going to rely on correctional labor to manufacture this equipment, they need to improve the wages and labor protections of our incarcerated workers. To fail to do so is not far off from the devaluation and brutalization of slave labor that was ostensibly abandoned a century and a half ago.

#### Prisoners make almost no money for their labor. Fulcher 15

Patrice A. Fulcher [Associate Professor at The John Marshall Law School], 15 - ("," Journal of Civil Rights and Economic Development, Winter 2015, accessed 10-28-2021, https://scholarship.law.stjohns.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1759&context=jcred)//ML

**B.**87 In 2011, FPI's net sales were 745 million dollars and their earnings were 62 million dollars.88 Restricted to sell its products only to federal agencies, FPI's largest purchaser is the U.S. Department of Defense, which makes up 52% of it revenues. 89 The FPI use to have a mandatory source requirement for all federal agencies, but it was amended to prohibit any federal agency from purchasing FPI products or services, unless the agency determines that the products offered are the "best value". 90 So in addition to making license plates, furniture and other typical prison-made goods, thousands of federal inmates work for FPI making supplies for the U.S. military. FPI inmates who are given this assignment find themselves making anti-tank missiles, body armor, land mine sweepers, components for fighter aircrafts, and other gear for the Pentagon. 91 ¶Consequently, an inmate who works within the federal prison labor system may make a maximum of $64.00 a month (prior to any state deductions for room and board, taxes, etc., assuming an inmate works 5 days a week for 8 hours), and a maximum of $92.00 a month (subtracting 50% of the wages for the IRFP, assuming an inmate works 5 days a week for 8 hours) if he works for FPI.¶ B. State Prison Labor Systems ¶There are approximately 1,382,000 inmates in state prisons in the U.S.92 State prisoners work within varying labor systems while incarcerated. 9 3 State inmates may (1) work within the confines of a prison, where state or private entities manage the facility, sell the products produced, and receive the profits, (2) work in jobs directly benefiting prison operations by cleaning, cooking, or doing laundry, or (3) work outside of prison walls laboring for the state or private companies. 94 Over the last 30 years, at least 37 states have enacted laws permitting the use of inmate labor by private enterprise. 9 5 State inmates' wages are determined by the state in which they are incarcerated, and may be affected depending on whether the state correctional facility is certified under the Prison Industry Enhancement Certification Program. ¶1. State Prison Labor ¶ Under The Prison Industry Enhancement Certification Program ("PIE") In 1979, Congress passed the Prison Industry Enhancement Certification program ("PIE") under the Justice System Improvement Act.96 The PIE exempts state and local correction departments from the Ashurst-Sumners Act legislation, which placed restrictions on the interstate sale and transportation of prison-made goods.9 7 The specific goal of the PIE was to provide private-sector work opportunities to prisoners by certifying 50 state correctional agencies to sell prison made goods interstate and to the Federal Government (over the original $10,000 limitation). 98 Once a state agency is certified under the PIE, its corrections department may either sell prison made goods on its own, or enter into prison labor contracts with private companies to sell goods in the free market.99 ¶ In order to qualify for PIE certification, correctional agencies have to apply through the Bureau of Justice Assistance ("BJA") or the National Correctional Industries Association, pay state prisoners a prevailing wage, and meet several other statutory requirements.10 0 Paying inmate workers prevailing wages under the PIE may appear equitable on its face, but it is not. Most inmates see only 20% of their gross wages because the PIE also allows for 80% wage deductions for room and board, victim assistance, taxes, and family support.lO' While expecting convicts to defray the cost of their incarceration and victim services is reasonable, as will be seen in part x of this article, the current scheme is short sighted and unwise because, among other things, so little attention is given to reducing recidivism through prison programs and support for newly released inmates. ¶According to the Bureau of Justice Assistance, there were 37 state, and 4 county-based PIE certified correctional industry programs in the U.S. in 2011.102 These PIE programs include the management of at least 175 business partnerships with private industry. 103 In 2012, the number of PIE certifications increased to 45; these certified correctional agencies employed a total of 4,700 inmates. 104 Furthermore, the 45 certified PIE agencies generated $9,780,130 in gross salary revenues in 2012.105 A majority of those earnings went to net inmate salaries ($3,958,354), then correctional institution for room and board ($3,482,883), state and federal taxes ($989,503) victims' programs ($947,770), and the lowest amount to inmate family support ($401,620).106 Therefore, each of the 4,700 prisoners working for PIE certified programs made approximately $842.00 in 2012, which equates to $70.00 a month.¶ ¶2. State Prison Labor Without PIE Protections ¶ State correctional industries without PIE protections are prohibited from selling prison-made products interstate. 107 They also are under no federal obligation to pay working prisoners prevailing wages as required for certification under PIE.108 Depending on the facility, these state correctional agencies typically require inmates to work, and pay inmates from $0.17 to $5.35 per hour.109 There are also several state-operated correctional institutions that force prisoners to work, but pay them absolutely nothing for their labor. For example, the Georgia Department of Corrections does not pay working inmates.1 10 Once a person is sentenced to one of the Georgia's 31 state prisons, he or she will be ordered to either work jobs that directly benefit the prison, make products to be sold to government agencies, or perform city work detail jobs without getting paid a cent.11 In light of these facts, it is not surprising that on December 9, 2010, thousands of Georgia inmates staged the largest prison protest in U.S. History.ll 2 Through the use of contraband cell phones, Georgia inmates in at least seven different state prisons coordinated a nonviolent prison strike.l13 These protesting inmates had several demands, but high on their list was to be paid a living wage for work.114 "If they would start paying us, that would reduce crime behind the walls," said Mike, one of the protesting prisoners, "inmates would have the means to get hygiene [items] and food from the commissary." 15 The protest lasted approximately 5 days and unfortunately, the prisoners' demands have still not been met.116 Almost all Georgia state-prisoners are still working for free, at least three inmates have publically complained that they were brutally beaten for their involvement in the protest, and in July 2012 several Georgia prisoners went on a hunger strike to protest additional inhumane punishments stemming from the 2010 prison protest.117 ¶Finally, state prisoners labor for correctional institutions that fall under the supervision of state departments of correction, but are separate selfsustaining corporate entities. Some of the prison industries have PIE certification for all of their work programs while others certify only certain jobs under PIE. Two such institutions in the U.S. are the Georgia Correctional Industries ("GCI") and the Oregon Corrections Enterprise ("OCE").118 GCI and OCE utilize state inmate labor to produce and sell a plethora of services and products to state and local government agencies. 19 For instance, GCI employs 1,400 Georgia inmates, who manufacture garments and bedding, institutional and office furniture, cleaning chemicals, perform embroidery, screen printing, reupholstering, engraving, optical, and framing services, work in milk and meat processing plants, and on farms to produce beef and pork, and harvest fruits and vegetables, eggs, grits, and corn. 120 GCI has some work programs certified under PIE, but a majority of the employed inmates work for less than minimum wage.121 GCI boast on its website that they "maintain one of the lowest raw food costs in the nation-$1.57 per day per inmate".122 So inmates laboring in GCI food production factories and fields in the sweltering heat of the Deep South are paid roughly $31.40 a month if they are lucky (prior to state deductions and if they work 5 days a week). Approximately 1,100 of Oregon's 14,300 prisoners work for OCE and perform a variety of services for Oregon government agencies; printing, call centers, laundry service, and mailing projects, and document scanning to name a few. 123 OCE has PIE certification, but it is difficult to determine whether it applies to all of their work programs since inmates' wages still appear to be low.124 In a study conducted by University of Oregon students, three inmates at OCE reported that after working each month, they had $50.00 to send home to their families or add to phone call accounts. 125 ¶ C. Private Prison Labor Systems ¶ State governments turned to prison privatization in order to solve the problems arising from the mass incarceration of people in the U.S.126 Thus, the top two private prison corporations in the U.S., Corrections Corporation of America, Inc. ("CCA") and The GEO Group, Inc. ("GEO"), have made billions from acquiring state and federal contracts to manage prisoners. 127 CCA is the leading private prison in the U.S. for it profits from housing more than 80,000 prisoners in the U.S.128 GEO, is one of the world's largest private prison corporations with approximately 80,000 beds and 114 facilities located in the U.S., the United Kingdom, Australia, and South Africa. 129 GEO is only second to CCA in the U.S. because GEO has 56 Facilities and a bed capacity of 61,132,130 while CCA 60 facilities with a bed capacity of more than 90,000.131 ¶ It is clear that CCA and GEO deliver profits to their shareholders from housing inmates, but they also create wealth through forced prison labor. CCA maintains that inmates work in vocational jobs including carpentry, computer applications, construction and building trades, electrical, horticulture and landscaping, masonry, painting, and plumbing. 132 GEO also reports that it provides vocational training, but does not list the specific jobs that inmates perform.133 Since the PIE only applies to state correctional agencies, CCA and GEO are unable to apply directly for certification. As a result, CCA and GEO are under no obligations to pay their inmates prevailing wages. ¶It is difficult to determine how much private prisons actually pay working inmates, but there is nothing to dispute that private prisons also force able inmates to work. It is estimated that private prisons on average pay inmates 17¢ per hour for a maximum of six hours a day, with CCA paying working prisoners the most at .50¢ per hour for "highly skilled positions".134 Other sources suggest that CCA pays working inmates $1.00 a day, and at the same time charges them $5.00 a minute for telephone calls. 135 Additional reports indicate that private prisons pay an average of 93¢ to $4.73 per hour.136 ¶ Private prison companies also capitalized on the growing incarceration of undocumented workers in the U.S. by obtaining million dollar federal detention contracts to house detainees for Immigration and Customs Enforcement ("ICE"). 1 37 Like the other inmates they house, private prison companies also force immigration detainees to work. 138 CCA operates an immigration detention center in Gainesville, Georgia.139 Female detainees in this facility have complained that they are paid subminimum wages for their work and about inadequate medical and living conditions. 140

#### Low wages for prisoners create cycles of recidivism. Fulcher 15

Patrice A. Fulcher [Associate Professor at The John Marshall Law School], 15 - ("," Journal of Civil Rights and Economic Development, Winter 2015, accessed 10-28-2021, <https://scholarship.law.stjohns.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1759&context=jcred)//ML>

B. Reallocate Greater Wealth To Working Prisoners and Decrease Recidivism ¶ Working for slave wages or as a slave without compensation is the harsh economic reality for millions of prisoners in the U.S. Then after succumbing to living a life as a slave for the duration of their sentence, these prisoners are released back to society, without any means of financial support from their labors. Often indigent, homeless, and unable to overcome the challenge of obtaining employment with a conviction, many former inmates reoffend.192 Moreover, for those who do secure jobs, their earnings are greatly limited by their criminal records. A recent PEW study revealed "past incarceration reduced subsequent wages by 11 percent, cut annual employment by nine weeks and reduced yearly earnings by 40 percent."1 93 As a result, U.S. recidivism rates will remain high unless former prisoners have economic resources immediately upon release. Thus, the FLSA should be emancipated from the constraints imposed, not by Congress, but by rigid and unsupported judicial interpretation that wrongly exclude working prisoners from its provisions. Free the FLSA and compensate working inmates; allow prisoners to accumulate capital while they are incarcerated, so they will have a means of support to help them rebuild their lives, and not have to commit crimes to survive. ¶ Hence, I propose the following basic guidelines in providing FLSA coverage to working inmates: (1) employment should be voluntary; those who do not wish to work must take vocational classes for their entire prison sentence, (2) working inmates should be paid at least minimum wage, (3) automatic wage deductions shall be allowed for taxes and other previous court ordered obligations only, and (4) a forced 80 percent wage deduction will be deposited into an outside interest bearing bank account, accessible only upon release. In adopting this payment scheme, the economic reality for working prisoners will be greatly improved.¶ Utilizing the total PIE quarterly statics from 2012 mentioned above in section III(B)(1)(only subtracting family costs and taxes), each of the, 4,700 inmates working in PIE programs would have received approximately $356.00 a month instead of $70.00.194 This figure represents net wages after an 80 percent deduction of $1,427.00 is transferred into an interest bearing account.1 95 Additionally, since today's prisoners serve an average of 5.2 years in prison, 196 each of the 4,700 inmates under the proposed new FLSA guidelines would have at least $3,567.50 upon his or her release if the 80% were placed in an account with an interest rate of at least a 3%. Granted, this amount may not seem significant, but it is better than expecting that a bus ticket and a knapsack of clothes will be enough to enable a person who has been incarcerated to build his life in free society. ¶

## Plan

#### Plan: The United States ought to recognize the unconditional right of incarcerated workers to strike.

## Solvency

#### The right to strike is key for prisoners hoping to reform the criminal justice system, allows prison laborers to publicize their conditions and assert their right to dignity

Harvard Law Review, 19 - ("Striking the Right Balance: Toward a Better Understanding of Prison Strikes," Harvard Law Review 03/8/2019, accessed 10-28-2021, <https://harvardlawreview.org/2019/03/striking-the-right-balance-toward-a-better-understanding-of-prison-strikes/)//ML>

But in order to ensure that the Constitution truly does not stop at the prison walls, courts cannot simply accept prison administrators’ fears regarding strikes at face value and instead should rigorously test their credibility and basis in fact.143 And more importantly, by over-deferring and failing to engage in any analysis of the merits of prison strikes, courts miss an important opportunity. As this Note has argued, prison strikes represent an underappreciated aspect of prison life — the means by which prisoners have, throughout the course of American history, surfaced pressing problems of our carceral state and initiated important transformations in our prison system. Therefore, it is imperative to meaningfully consider why and how such strikes merit legal protection — even if such protection appears to fly in the face of the current state of the law and to defy conventional wisdom. To that end, this Part first explores the First Amendment as one potential avenue for considering the merits of prison strikes, by presenting three critical First Amendment values contained within prison strikes,144 and it then briefly discusses other potential legal avenues for courts and scholars to consider. A. Considering the First Amendment Values of Prison Strikes The right to strike within prisons may be conceptually viewed as a composite of three separate fundamental First Amendment freedoms: the freedom to peacefully associate, the freedom of speech, and the freedom to assemble and petition for redress of grievances.145 Each is considered in turn. 1. Association. — The right to peaceful association is one that captures the right of individuals to commune with others for the expression of ideas and for effective advocacy.146 Strikes, like prison unions, represent an important means of association for prisoners — allowing them to “lay claim to a social identity as ‘workers’ . . . and in doing so generate claims to respect and solidarity.”147 This identity and solidarity can, in turn, enable inmates to engage in productive and peaceful bargains with prison officials for better conditions, higher pay, and other reform desires. Bargaining is, in many respects, already very common in prisons, “for the simple reason that [prison] administrators rarely have sufficient resources to gain complete conformity to all the rules.”148 However, such bargaining typically happens in an informal, ongoing, private process;149 in their recurrent, day-to-day contact with inmates, prison administrators use their arsenal of tools150 to “negotiate” only with select inmate leaders,151 with the central goal of maintaining “short term surface order.”152 This informal bargaining is “dysfunctional” to the long-term stability of prison institutions and “the real needs of those incarcerated within” them153 — creating hierarchical relationships154 that breed mistrust155 and leave many inmates powerless and feeling aggrieved.156 As a result, inmates often feel that they have to resort to violence to protect themselves from exploitation, express their dissatisfaction, and obtain redress.157 Alternatively, peaceful, collective prison strikes avoid these harmful consequences by allowing for “open” and “formal” negotiations between all inmates and prison staff.158 Such transparent and legitimated bargaining benefits both inmates and prisons as a whole. By initiating peaceful protests such as work stoppages, all inmates are able “to solve problems, maximize gains, articulate goals, develop alternative strategies, and deal with [administrators] without resorting to force or violence.”159 And by permitting peaceful strikes, prison administrators “provide inmates with a channel for airing grievances and gaining official response . . . giv[ing] the institution a kind of safety-valve for peaceful, rather than violent, change”160 — avoiding potentially expensive and time-consuming litigation and even helping rehabilitate inmates,161 all while deemphasizing hierarchical structures in prisons that harm institutional order.162 2. Speech. — A prison strike also represents a critical way by which inmates can express themselves.163 First, as alluded to above, a strike allows inmates to claim and communicate an identity — as more than just marginalized, ignored convicts with little to no self-determination, but instead as workers and human beings entitled to basic dignity. Such collective actions represent the “performative declaration and affirmation of rights that one does not (yet) have.”164 And, as Professor Jocelyn Simonson discusses, these strikes are collective contestations to “demand dignity, calling attention to the ways in which [prisoners] are treated as less than human and in the process reclaiming their own agency.”165 Such dignitary considerations, which courts have sought to protect under First Amendment principles, should therefore naturally extend to prisoners attempting to, through strikes, express their basic selfworth.166 Beyond representing a form of inherent, individual expression for inmates, prison strikes also represent a broader form of expression, allowing inmates to be visible to and heard by the public at large. Over the course of American history, inmates — by virtue of being locked up in isolated, impregnable penitentiaries — have largely been a silent and ignored segment of the American population.167 Through peaceful protests like the 2018 national prison strike, however, their suffering, their calls for reform, and their voices are, for the first time, directly expressed on a large scale, ringing out loudly beyond the prison walls and jumpstarting important conversations of criminal justice reform. It is critical to protect such expression; “[i]ndeed, it is from the voices of those who have been most harmed by the punitive nature of our criminal justice system that we can hear the most profound reimaginings of how the system might be truly responsive to local demands for justice and equality.”168 3. Petition for Redress. Inmates’ strikes can be seen not only as expressions of their dignity and general efforts to express their voices beyond prison walls but also as significant methods of assembly to call attention to specific grievances and seek redress from the government.169 While in theory “[t]here is no iron curtain drawn between the Constitution and the prisons of this country,”170 in practice, “prisons often escape the daily microscope focused on other American institutions such as schools, churches, and government.”171 Courts grant prison administrators wide deference not only in running day-to-day life within prisons but also in restricting press access to prisons.172 Therefore, much of the American public — already closed off from and largely indifferent to the lives of prisoners — is kept even more in the dark about prison conditions and the state of our carceral system as a whole. Prison conditions, from what has been documented, are horrendous across states. Many prisons are severely overcrowded and seriously understaffed;173 inmates routinely experience physical abuse and even death at the hands of prison guards,174 receive inadequate protection from guards, are deprived of basic necessities,175 are given substandard medical care,176 and are forced to live in squalor and tolerate extreme circumstances;177 most prisoners have minimal, if any, access, to rehabilitative or mental health services;178 and prisoners have little legal recourse, as internal prison grievance procedures are often stacked against inmates,179 and judicial deference and federal legislation have effectively shut the courthouse doors on prisoners’ civil rights claims.180 And across prisons, criminal sentencing laws not only have contributed to an unprecedented era of mass incarceration, but also have forced African Americans and people of color broadly to bear much of this burden.181 As the Marshall Project states, “[s]ociety won’t fix a prison system it can’t see”;182 peaceful prison strikes like the 2018 strike, however, draw back the “iron curtain” of prison walls, bringing to light many of the pressing issues described above. Through these strikes, inmates are able not only to express their grievances to their prison administrators, but also to “publicize their on-the-ground realities to the larger world”183 and, in turn, gain attention from and access to the political branches able to implement policy reforms.184 As recent history has shown, inmates have experienced some success by pressing their claims against the government through publicized strikes. For example, as described above, the California strikes in 2011 and 2013 generated public outcry that eventually resulted in transfor- mations to the California prison system’s solitary confinement policies.185 In Alabama, inmates’ participation in the 2016 nationwide prison strike helped prompt the Department of Justice to open an investigation into the state’s prison conditions.186 And more broadly speaking, strikes like the 2018 strike have begun to “remedy power imbalances, bring aggregate structural harms into view, and shift deeply entrenched legal and constitutional” barriers to critical prison reforms.187 B. Considering Additional Legal Avenues for Protecting Prison Strikes The foregoing analysis suggests that the First Amendment is a critical, worthwhile vehicle for considering the merits of a right to strike for prisoners. As Justice Black recognized, the importance of such analysis likely transcends prisoners themselves. He wrote: “I do not believe that it can be too often repeated that the freedoms of speech, press, petition and assembly guaranteed by the First Amendment must be accorded to the ideas we hate or sooner or later they will be denied to the ideas we cherish.”188 But this Note acknowledges that judicial recognition of prison strikes’ First Amendment values requires significant doctrinal change. Convincing the Supreme Court to overturn its Jones and Turner precedents, and instead to adopt a test with less deference than is currently afforded to prison administrators, is unlikely. As a result, future research is necessary to identify other potential avenues to consider the legal status and merits of prison strikes. As alluded to above, labor law presents one such promising avenue, as does state constitutional and statutory law. Drawing from the broader j

#### Incarcerated workers are uniquely vulnerable to exploitation the right to strike is a key weapon in fighting for better conditions

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It’s a tough time to be a worker in America. The Trump administration has [slashed important workplace safety regulations to ribbons](https://www.epi.org/publication/deregulation-year-in-review/); the economic gap between the poor and working classes and the 1% [continues to widen](https://www.theguardian.com/inequality/2018/jan/22/inequality-gap-widens-as-42-people-hold-same-wealth-as-37bn-poorest) at an alarming rate; poverty remains [rampant](https://www.economist.com/democracy-in-america/2018/03/01/poverty-in-america); and overall, union membership, which affords protection to workers throughout the country, hovered [around only 11%](https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2018-01-19/union-membership-rate-in-u-s-held-at-record-low-of-10-7-in-17) for 2017. Headlines alleging worker exploitation at Silicon Valley giants like Amazon, Tesla, and Uber bombard our screens; even “progressive” media organizations swept up in [the digital media organizing wave](https://www.nytimes.com/2017/12/26/business/media/unions-digital-media.html) are struggling, as [BuzzFeed](https://www.nytimes.com/2017/12/26/business/media/unions-digital-media.html) founder Jonah Peretti has repeatedly spoken out against unionizing, while [Slate](https://splinternews.com/slate-staffers-accuse-bosses-of-new-union-busting-effor-1827238235) and [Thrillist](https://theconcourse.deadspin.com/the-dismal-thrillist-anti-union-campaign-1793157413) employees who have unionized have accused the companies of using anti-union tactics and stalling the process. And the most vulnerable worker populations—[sex workers](https://qz.com/1310338/the-us-sex-worker-crackdown-hurts-the-most-vulnerable-women/), [immigrants](https://www.theguardian.com/news/2018/mar/13/how-the-most-vulnerable-workers-are-targeted-for-sexual-abuse), and [undocumented people](https://www.pbs.org/newshour/show/low-wage-immigrant-workers-are-especially-vulnerable-to-sexual-abuse-how-can-they-say-metoo)—face increased repression from the government. There is hope, though. For centuries, a worker’s most potent weapon against exploitation from capitalism and oppression from the powers that be has been direct action: the strike. And right now, America’s prisoners are [on strike](http://prisonstrike.com/). Incarcerated workers across the nation [are standing up to protest](https://www.teenvogue.com/story/how-the-national-prison-strike-is-working-to-help-incarcerated-people-in-the-united-states) their inhumane living conditions and buck the horrific yoke of prison slavery with organized labor’s strongest weapons—solidarity and collective action. The prison strike was organized by workers both inside and outside detention facilities, spearheaded by Jailhouse Lawyers Speak (JLS), and supported by the Incarcerated Workers Organizing Committee (IWOC) and the Free Alabama Movement (FAM), and sparked by [deadly uprisings at Lee Correctional Institution in South Carolina earlier this year [that cost seven prisoners’ lives](https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/2018/04/30/prison-riots-and-killings-rising-states-slash-budgets-guards/545299002/). The strike began on August 21 and ends on September 9, dates that reflect the legacy of rebellion in American prisons: [on August 21, 1971](http://www.latimes.com/local/crime/la-me-san-quentin-six-retro-20150813-htmlstory.html), George Jackson was killed by prison guards in San Quentin, and his death was met by protests from other prisoners across the country, [culminating in the famed September 9 uprising](http://amsterdamnews.com/news/2011/sep/12/40-year-anniversary-of-the-attica-rebellion/) at the Attica Correctional Facility in upstate New York. By choosing these dates, participants in the prison strike of 2018 are drawing a direct line between their current struggle and the struggles of those who have come before, emphasizing the stark fact that [very little has changed](https://www.citylab.com/equity/2017/06/america-treatment-of-prisoners-criminal-justice/529143/) in terms of conditions or opportunities for those who are locked up and held by the state since the birth of the modern prison system. The striking prisoners of today have released a a list of ten demands. which calls for improvements to the current living conditions in prisons, increased rehabilitation programs, educational opportunities, and specific policy goals. This essentially articulates the idea of [non-reformist reforms](https://www.jacobinmag.com/2017/08/prison-abolition-reform-mass-incarceration), a central plank of prison abolition. By illuminating the barbarity of the current prison system and calling for its abolishment while advocating for an improvement in current conditions, they are—to [paraphrase](https://ordinary-times.com/shawngude/2013/02/non-reformist-reforms-defined/) French socialist André Gorz—asking not for what can be achieved within a current system, but for what should be possible. As of August 21, across 17 states (and one Canadian province), these incarcerated workers are demanding real, tangible prison reform, and the abolition of one of America’s great enduring shames—the loophole enacted by [the 13th amendment](https://www.teenvogue.com/story/13th-documentary-ava-duvernay-netflix) that decrees slavery can be used to penalize those convicted of a crime. This is where the term “prison slavery” originates, as director Ava DuVernay laid out in her groundbreaking [2016 documentary 13th](http://www.avaduvernay.com/13th/), which argues that slavery never ended — it was just repurposed by the prison industrial complex and blossomed as mass incarceration. Her documentary argued that the new American plantations don’t grow cotton, they work prison jobs churning out license plates and other cheap goods, for which prisoners are paid mere pennies on the hour—if at all. Meanwhile, **prison labor generates an estimated** [**$1 billion per year**](https://www.economist.com/united-states/2017/03/16/prison-labour-is-a-billion-dollar-industry-with-uncertain-returns-for-inmates), proving to be quite a profitable business for the private companies and corporations who benefit from prisoners’ work. Prison labor is used to manufacture a vast array of consumer goods, from [Christmas toys and blue jeans to military equipment, lingerie, and car parts](https://www.thrillist.com/gear/products-made-by-prisoners-clothing-furniture-electronics). Incarcerated people also frequently serve as a captive labor force [for prisons themselves as kitchen and maintenance workers](https://www.npr.org/2018/08/21/640630606/u-s-inmates-plan-nationwide-prison-strike-to-protest-labor-conditions), and for a variety of other services, from [shoveling snow after a Boston blizzard](https://www.boston.com/news/local-news/2015/02/17/low-on-resources-boston-turns-to-prison-labor-to-shovel-snow) to [harvesting oranges in Florida](https://nypost.com/2015/06/23/the-seven-weirdest-jobs-that-prisoners-do/). (California recently made headlines when it was revealed that it [was using prison labor](https://www.vox.com/2018/8/9/17670494/california-prison-labor-mendocino-carr-ferguson-wildfires) to fight its deadly wildfires, which it has done since the 1940s; the prisoners (which included some juvenile offenders) were reportedly paid $1 per hour plus $2 per day to risk their lives, and are [barred from becoming firefighters](https://www.usatoday.com/story/opinion/2018/08/20/californias-volunteer-inmate-firefighters-denied-jobs-after-release-column/987677002/) after their release.) Prisoners are paid very little for their work; the average wage in state prisons ranges, on average, from 14 cents to 63 cents per hour for “regular” prison jobs, and between 33 cents and $1.41 per hour for those who work for state-owned businesses, and while they are working full-time jobs, prisoners do not always have the benefit of basic labor protections, such as minimum wage, sick leave, or overtime pay. Given that the United States has the [highest incarceration rate in the world](http://www.prisonstudies.org/highest-to-lowest/prison_population_rate?field_region_taxonomy_tid=All), with [2.3 million people](https://www.prisonpolicy.org/reports/pie2018.html) currently behind bars, the prison industrial complex [would collapse](https://psmag.com/social-justice/taking-freedom-modern-day-slavery) were it to pay incarcerated workers the minimum wage—which creates [further incentive](https://www.newyorker.com/business/currency/making-profits-on-the-captive-prison-market) for them to keep locking people up. Many prisoners [welcome the chance to work during their incarceration](http://www.latimes.com/opinion/op-ed/la-oe-bozelko-prison-labor-20171020-story.html), because it gets them out of their cells, allows them to make purchases from commissary, and gives them the opportunity to send money home to their loved ones, but not everyone is given a choice: according to Newsweek, some prisoners in eight states—Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Texas—**are** [**not paid at all**](https://www.newsweek.com/prison-slavery-who-benefits-cheap-inmate-labor-1093729) for their labor in government-run facilities. Unlike most other workers, prisoners cannot simply walk off the job; they are forced to get more [creative](https://www.motherjones.com/crime-justice/2018/08/prison-strike-inmate-labor-organizers/). Participants in the strike have several options available to them, according to Mother Jones, including commissary boycotts, work stoppages, sit-ins, and hunger strikes, and reports of participation are continually coming in from different facilities. In addition, these workers also have much more to fear in terms of retaliation, and several organizers say that they have already [endured punitive measures](https://www.motherjones.com/crime-justice/2018/08/prison-strike-inmate-labor-organizers/). **Participating in a prison strike is a matter of life or death, but for prisoners seeking justice, if not freedom, there is really no other option**. There has been a huge amount of media coverage over this prison strike, a massive contrast to the last major national prison strike in 2016, which was said by some to be the [largest prison strike in American history](https://theintercept.com/2016/09/16/the-largest-prison-strike-in-u-s-history-enters-its-second-week/) and involved what one organizer estimated as roughly 20,000 incarcerated workers and across at least 20 facilities yet received little to no mainstream media coverage. The tide seems to be turning, buoyed by a number of factors, from the continuing outcry over police brutality and more visible conversations over the horrors of the prison industrial complex to the overtly racist practices of the Trump regime. More people on the outside are waking up to the terrible plight of our siblings behind the walls, but awareness isn’t enough: they need [support, solidarity, and action](https://itsgoingdown.org/prisonstrike/). It bears remembering that, above all, this strike is a human rights campaign. Ending prison slavery and supporting incarcerated workers is absolutely a labor issue, and every union and labor activist in the nation should be standing up to support their efforts. The companies who profit off of this modern day slavery have blood on their hands, just like history’s craven factory owners and coal bosses who oversaw the [deaths and degradation of previous generations](https://www.washingtonpost.com/entertainment/museums/the-american-worker-exploited-from-the-beginning/2017/11/20/7ae8fe6a-c890-11e7-b0cf-7689a9f2d84e_story.html). We need to equate monetarily supporting companies that use prison labor with crossing the picket line, and to scabbing for enslavement. The fact that **there are human beings housed in cages** who are **forced to work for slave wages** is completely unacceptable by any metric, and fixing (if not completely abolishing) this wretched system should be a priority for those who consider themselves part of the labor movement, or on the right side of history. An injury to one is an injury to all, and our fellow workers on the inside are bleeding out.

#### **Prisoners currently face massive barriers to striking – they get punished and aren’t allowed to unionize** **Kozlowska 16** [Hanna is a reporter on Quartz's investigations team. She previously worked for The New York Times as a writer for NYT Opinion and was a fellow at Foreign Policy magazine. She was also a stringer for the Times in Poland. “US prisoners are going on strike to protest a massive forced labor system”. 9-06-2016. Quartz. https://qz.com/777415/an-unprecedented-prison-strike-hopes-to-change-the-fate-of-the-900000-americans-trapped-in-an-exploitative-labor-system/. Accessed 11-1-2021; MJen]

On Friday (Sept. 9) prison inmates across the US will participate in what organizers are touting as the “largest prison strike in history,” stopping work in protest of what many call a modern version of slavery. The protest, organized across 24 states, is spearheaded by the inmate-led Free Alabama Movement (FAM) and coordinated by the Incarcerated Workers Organizing Committee (IWOC), a branch of an international labor union. Its manifesto, published online by “prisoners across the United States,” reads: This is a call to end slavery in America…To every prisoner in every state and federal institution across this land, we call on you to stop being a slave, to let the crops rot in the plantation fields, to go on strike and cease reproducing the institutions of your confinement. The strike will be held on the 45th anniversary of the Attica prison revolt, when prisoners took control of a maximum-security correctional facility near Buffalo, New York, demanding better conditions and an end to their brutal treatment. Today, nearly 900,000 US prisoners work while incarcerated. The Bureau of Prisons, which oversees all federal inmates requires that all prisoners (barring medical reasons) work. State prisoners are in the same boat; according to Eric Fink, a professor at Elon Law school, in all or nearly all US states prisoners must work. If they refuse, they can be punished with solitary confinement, revoking visitation, or other measures. Inmates receive very little pay for their labor—in federal prisons it ranges from $0.12 to $0.40 an hour. In some states, like Texas, those held at state prisons receive zero compensation. The majority of inmates work on prison maintenance and upkeep—cleaning, cooking, etc.—but approximately 80,000 do work for the outside world. Sometimes these jobs are the result of government contracts; other times, prisoners end up doing work for private companies such as Victoria’s Secret, Whole Foods or Walmart. Unlike other American workers, these prisoners are not protected by labor laws. They don’t have access to worker’s compensation, they get payed well below the minimum wage, and they cannot effectively form unions. Courts have ruled that because the relationship between prisons and inmates is not that of an employer and a worker, inmates don’t get these labor protections. According to The Nation, there is a faction among the organizers that would rather see prison labor abolished, but IWOC is pushing for inmates to unionize. “Prisoners are the most exploited labor class in this country,” says Azzurra Crispino, spokesperson for the organization. The moral case to let prisoners unionize and have the protections given to civilian workers is straightforward: forcing people to work is inhumane, as are the ridiculously low wages and often the labor conditions themselves. The economic case is much more complex. Prisons argue that paying inmates a minimum wage would bankrupt them—in fact, Alex Friedmann, an editor for Prison Legal News told The American Prospect that the criminal justice system would collapse has little potential to significantly add to the GDP, there are longer-term and broader effects to consider. Higher wages can help not only inmates, but their dependents in the outside world, who might avoid ending up on welfare having greater support. Cheap inmate labor may save money for prisons or corporations, but meaningful, decently-paid employment and job training could reduce recidivism and future crime. Ultimately, it’s the taxpayers who pay for most of the criminal justice system, and that means they are subsidizing cheap labor for big corporations instead of investing in reducing crime in the future. In addition to putting pressure on individual institutions, strike organizers are hoping to raise awareness among the public. “Nothing is preventing employers from paying prisoners a decent wage and offering benefits and after 300 years it’s pretty clear it isn’t going to happen on its own. No more than slavery was ended in this country because slave owners got enlightened,” said Paul Wright, editor of Prison Legal News and prisoner rights advocate. “Alas, there is no General Sherman coming to rescue and liberate America’s prison slaves.”

## Framework

#### The impact of structural violence cumulatively outweighs – challenging the structures that facilitate inequality is necessary

**Ansell 17** - David A. Ansell, Senior Vice President, Associate Provost for Community Health Equity, and Michael E. Kelly Professor of Medicine at Rush University Medical Center (The Death Gap: How Inequality Kills, p. 7-10)

There are many different kinds of violence. Some are obvious: punches, attacks, gunshots, explosions. These are the kinds of inter- personal violence that we tend to hear about in the news. Other kinds of violence are intimate and emotional. But the deadliest and most thoroughgoing kind of violence is woven into the fabric of American society. It exists when some groups have more access to goods, resources, and opportunities than other groups, including health and life itself. This violence delivers specific blows against particular bodies in particular neighborhoods. This unequal advantage and violence is built into the very rules that govern our society. In the absence of this violence, large numbers of Americans would be able to live fuller and longer lives. This kind of violence is called structural violence, because it is embedded in the very laws, policies, and rules that govern day-to- day life.8 It is the cumulative impact of laws and social and economic policies and practices that render some Americans less able to access resources and opportunities than others. This inequity of advantage is not a result of the individuals personal abilities but is built into the systems that govern society. Often it is a product of racism, gender, and income inequality. The diseases and premature mortality that Windora and many of my patients experienced were, in the words of Dr. Paul Farmer, "biological reflections of social fault lines."9 As a result of these fault lines, a disproportional burden of illness, suffering, and premature mortality falls on certain neighborhoods, like Windora's. Structural violence can overwhelm an individual's ability to live a free, unfettered, healthy life. As I ran to evaluate Windora, I knew that her stroke was caused in part by lifelong exposure to suffering, racism, and economic deprivation. Worse, the poverty of West Humboldt Park that contributed to her illness is directly and inextricably related to the massive concentration of wealth and power in other neighborhoods just miles away in Chicago's Gold Coast and suburbs. That concentration of wealth could not have occurred without laws, policies, and practices that favored some at the expense of others. Those laws, policies, and practices could not have been passed or enforced if access to political and economic power had not been concentrated in the hands of a few. Yet these political and economic structures have become so firmly entrenched (in habits, social relations, economic arrangements, institutional practices, law, and policy) that they have become part of the matrix of American society. The rules that govern day-to-day life were written to benefit a small elite at the expense of people like Windora and her family. These rules and structures are powerful destructive forces. The same structures that render life predictable, secure, comfortable, and pleasant for many destroy the lives of others like Windora through suffering, poverty, ill health, and violence. These structures are neither natural nor neutral. The results of structural violence can be very specific. In Windora's case, stroke precursors like chronic stress, poverty, and uncontrolled hypertension run rampant in neighborhoods like hers. Windora's ill- ness was caused by neither her cultural traits nor the failure of her will. Her stroke was caused in part by inequity. She is one of the lucky ones, though, because even while structural violence ravages her neighbor- hood, it also abets the concentration of expensive stroke-intervention services in certain wealthy teaching hospitals like mine. If I can get to her in time, we can still help her. Income Inequality and Life Inequality Of course, Windora is not the only person struggling on account of structural violence. Countless neighborhoods nationwide are suffering from it, and people are dying needlessly young as a result. The mag- nitude of this excess mortality is mind-boggling. In 2009 my friend Dr. Steve Whitman asked a simple question, "How many extra black people died in Chicago each year, just because they do not have the same health outcomes as white Chicagoans?" When the Chicago Sun- Times got wind of his results, it ran them on the front page in bold white letters on a black background: "health care gap kills 3200 Black Chicagoans and the Gap is Growing." The paper styled the head- line to look like the declaration of war that it should have been. In fact, we did find ourselves at war not long ago, when almost 3,000 Americans were killed. That was September 11,2001. That tragedy propelled the country to war. Yet when it comes to the premature deaths of urban Americans, no disaster area has been declared. No federal troops have been called up. No acts of Congress have been passed. Yet this disaster is even worse: those 3,200 black people were in Chicago alone, in just one year. Nationwide each year, more than 60,000 black people die prematurely because of inequality.10 While blacks suffer the most from this, it is not just an issue of racism, though racism has been a unique and powerful transmitter of violence in America for over four hundred years.11 Beyond racism, poverty and income inequality perpetuated by exploitative market capitalism are singular agents of transmission of disease and early death. As a result, there is a new and alarming pattern of declining life expectancy among white Americans as well. Deaths from drug overdoses in young white Americans ages 25 to 34 have exploded to levels not seen since the AIDS epidemic. This generation is the first since the Vietnam War era to experience higher death rates than the prior generation.12 White Americans ages 45 to 54 have experienced skyrocketing premature death rates as well, something not seen in any other developed na- tion.13 White men in some Appalachian towns live on average twenty years less than white men a half-day's drive away in the suburbs of Washington, DC. Men in McDowell County, West Virginia, can look forward to a life expectancy only slightly better than that of Haitians.14 But those statistics reflect averages, and every death from structural violence is a person. When these illnesses and deaths are occurring one at a time in neighborhoods that society has decided not to care about—neighborhoods populated by poor, black, or brown people— they seem easy to overlook, especially if you are among the fortunate few who are doing incredibly well. The tide of prosperity in America has lifted some boats while others have swamped. Paul Farmer, the physician-anthropologist who founded Partners in Health, an inter- national human rights agency, reflects on the juxtaposition of "unprecedented bounty and untold penury": "It stands to reason that as beneficiaries of growing inequality, we do not like to be reminded of misery of squalor and failure. Our popular culture provides us with no shortage of anesthesia."15 That people suffer and die prematurely because of inequality is wrong. It is wrong from an ethical perspective. It is wrong from a fair- ness perspective. And it is wrong because we have the means to fix it.

### Underview 1

#### Scholarly discourse and engagement with politics is key to effective structural reform - critique is insufficient.

**Purdy ’20 -** Jedediah S. Britton-Purdy et al, 20 - ("Building a Law-and-Political-Economy Framework: Beyond the Twentieth-Century Synthesis by Jedediah S. Britton-Purdy, David Singh Grewal, Amy Kapczynski, K. Sabeel Rahman :: SSRN," 3-2-2020, <https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3547312)//ey/>

To embrace the possibility of democratic renewal requires rejecting the terms of the Twentieth-Century Synthesis. We believe that the legal realists—and thinkers in a much longer history of political thought—were right in believing that "the economy" is neither self-defining nor self-justifying. The emphasis in these traditions has been the right one: on power, distribution, and the need for legitimacy as the central themes in the organization of economic life. Moreover, precisely because economic ordering is a political and legal artifact, the idea of an "autonomous" economic domain has always been obscurantist and ideological, even when accepted in good faith.' Law does not and never could simply defer to such a realm. Rather, **law is perennially involved in creating and enforcing the terms of economic ordering,** most particularly through the creation and maintenance of markets. One of its most important roles, indeed, is determining who is subject to market ordering and on what terms, and who is exempted in favor of other kinds of protection or provision.' Thus the program of law, politics, and institution building often called "neoliberalism" is, and can only be, a specific theory of how to use state power, to what ends, and for whose benefit.'The **ideological work** of the Twentieth-Century Synthesis has been **to** naturalize and **embed in legal institutions from the Supreme Court to the** Antitrust Office and **W**orld **T**rade **O**rganization a specific disposition of power**.** This power represents a deployment of market ordering that produces intense and cross-cutting forms of inequality and democratic erosion. However, Twentieth-Century Synthesis theorists tend not to see this, precisely because the Synthesis makes it so hard to see (or at least so easy to overlook). If it is to succeed, **law and political economy** will also **require something beyond mere critique. It will require a positive agenda.** Many **new** and energized **voices**, from the legal academy to political candidates to movement activists, are already building in this direction,' **calling for** and giving shape to **programs for more genuine democracy that also takes seriously questions of economic** power **and racial subordination;**171 more equal distribution of resources and life chances;172 more public and shared resources and infrastructues;173 the displacement of concentrated corporate power and rooting of new forms of worker power;174 the end of mass incarceration **and broader contestation of** the long history of the criminalization and **control of poor people and people of color in building capitalism;**175 the recognition of finance and money as public infrastructures;176 the challenges posed by emerging forms of power and control arising from new technologies;177 and the need for a radical new emphasis on ecology.178 These are the materials from which a positive agenda, over time, will be built. **Political fights interact generatively with scholarly and policy debates in pointing** the way **toward a more democratic political economy.** The emergence of new grassroots movements, campaigns, and proposals seeking to deepen our democracy is no guarantee of success. But their prevalence and influence make clear the dangers and opportunities of this moment of upheaval—and highlight the stakes of building a new legal imaginary. 179 Neoliberal political economy, with its underlying commitments to efficiency, neutrality, and anti-politics, helped animate, shape, and legitimate a twentieth-century consensus that erased power, encased the market, and reinscribed racialized, economic, and gendered inequities. By contrast, **a legal imaginary of democratic political economy**, that takes seriously underlying concepts of power, equality, and democracy, **can inform a wave of** legal **thought whose critique and policy imagination can amplify and accelerate these movements for structural reform** and, if we are lucky, help remake our polity in more deeply democratic ways.

#### Reform makes revolution more likely. Rejecting it condescendingly asserts the possibility of radical change is better than the certainty of real improvement.

**Delgado ’87 -** Delgado, Richard [teaches civil rights and critical race theory at University of Alabama School of Law. He has written and co-authored numerous articles and books], “The Ethereal Scholar:  Does Critical Legal Studies Have What Minorities Want?”, Harvard Civil Rights - Civil Liberties Law Review, 1987

Critical scholars reject the idea of piecemeal reform. Incremental change, they argue, merely postpones the wholesale reformation that must occur to create a decent society.38 Even worse, an unfair social system survives by using piecemeal reform to disguise and legitimize oppression. 39 Those who control the system weaken resistance by pointing to the occasional concession to, or periodic court victory of, a black plaintiff or worker as evidence that the system is fair and just.40 In fact, Crits believe that teaching the common law or using the case method in law school is a disguised means of preaching incrementalism and thereby maintaining the current power structure.41 To avoid this, CLS scholars urge law professors to abandon the case method, give up the effort to find rationality and order in the case law, and teach in an unabashedly political fashion. 42

**The** CLS **critique of piecemeal reform is** familiar, **imperialistic and wrong.** **Minorities know from bitter experience that occasional court victories do not mean the Promised Land is at hand.**43 **The critique** is imperialistic in that it **tells minorities and other oppressed peoples how they should interpret events affecting them.**44 **A court order directing a housing authority to disburse funds for heating** in subsidized housing **may postpone the revolution, or it may not. In the meantime, the order keeps a number of poor families warm.** This may mean more to them than it does to a comfortable academic working in a warm office. **It smacks of paternalism to assert that the possibility of revolution later outweighs the certainty of heat now**, unless there is evidence for that possibility**.** The Crits do not offer such evidence.

Indeed, some **incremental changes may bring revolutionary changes closer**, not push them further away**.** Not all **small reforms** induce complacency; some may **whet the appetite for further combat.** The welfare family may hold a tenants' union meeting in their heated living room. CLS scholars' **critique of piecemeal reform** often **misses these possibilities, and neglects the question of whether total change, when it comes, will be what we want.**

#### Adopt a hybridizing strategy - exploiting contradictions in hegemonic discourse maintains critical distance while effectively challenging the state. Kapoor ‘08

**Kapoor, 2008** (Ilan, Associate Professor at the Faculty of Environmental Studies, York University, “The Postcolonial Politics of Development,” p. 138-139)

There are perhaps several other social movement campaigns that could be cited as examples of **a ‘hybridizing strategy’**.5 But what emerges as important from the Chipko and NBA campaigns is the way in which they **treat** laws and **policies**, institutional practices, **and ideological apparatuses as deconstructible**. That is, they refuse to take dominant authority at face value, and proceed to reveal its contingencies. Sometimes, they expose what the hegemon is trying to disavow or hide (exclusion of affected communities in project design and implementation, faulty information gathering and dissemination). Sometimes, they problematize dominant or naturalized truths (‘development = unlimited economic growth = capitalism’, ‘big is better’, ‘technology can save the environment’). In either case, by contesting, publicizing, and politicizing accepted or hidden truths, they hybridize power, challenging its smugness and triumphalism, revealing its impurities. They show power to be, literally and figuratively, a bastard. While speaking truth to power, a **hybridizing** strategy also **exploits the instabilities of power**. In part, this involves showing up and taking advantage of the equivocations of power — conflicting laws, contradictory policies, unfulfilled promises. A lot has to do here with **publicly shaming the hegemon, forcing it to** remedy injustices and **live up to stated commitments** in a more accountable and transparent manner. And, in part, **this involves** nurturing or **manipulating the splits and strains within institutions. Such maneuvering can take the form of cultivating allies**, forging alliances, or throwing doubt on prevailing orthodoxy. Note, lastly, the way in which a **hybridizing** strategy **works with the dominant discourse**. This reflects the negotiative aspect of Bhabha’s performativity. The strategy may outwit the hegemon, but it does so from the interstices of the hegemony. The master may be paralyzed, but his paralysis is induced using his own poison/medicine. It is for this reason that cultivating allies in the adversarial camp is possible: **when you speak their language and appeal to their own ethical horizons,** you are building a modicum of common ground. It is for this reason also that **the master cannot easily dismiss or crush you.** Observing his rules and **playing his game** **makes it difficult for him not to** take you seriously or **grant** you **a certain legitimacy**. The use of non-violent tactics may be crucial in this regard: state repression is easily justified against violent adversaries, but it is vulnerable to public criticism when used against non-violence. Thus, the fact that Chipko and the NBA deployed civil disobedience — pioneered, it must be pointed out, by the ‘father of the nation’ (i.e. Gandhi) — made it difficult for the state to quash them or deflect their claims.

#### Using the government as a heuristic is better pragmatically and forces us to truly investigate political structures in search of ways to improve instead of using abstract solutions for concrete impacts.

**Zannoti ’13 -** Zannoti, Laura, associate professor of Political Science at Virginia Tech., Ph.D. from the University of Washington in 2008 and joined the Purdue University faculty in 2009. “Governmentality, Ontology, Methodology: Re-thinking Political Agency in the Global World”, originally published online 30 December 2013, DOI: 10.1177/0304375413512098, P. Sage Publications MC

By questioning substantialist representations of power and subjects, inquiries on the possibilities of political agency are reframed in a way that focuses on power and subjects’ relational character and the contingent processes of their (trans)formation in the context of agonic relations. **Options for resistance to governmental scripts are not limited to ‘‘rejection,’’ ‘‘revolution,’’ or ‘‘dispossession’’ to regain** a pristine ‘‘freedom from all constraints’’ or **an immanent ideal social order. It is found** instead **in** multifarious and contingent **struggles** that are **constituted within the scripts of governmental rationalities and at the same time exceed and transform them. This approach questions oversimplifications** of the complexities **of liberal political rationalities and** of their interactions with non-liberal political players and **nurtures a radical skepticism about identifying universally good or bad actors or abstract solutions to political problems.** International power interacts in complex ways with diverse political spaces and within these spaces it is appropriated, hybridized, redescribed, hijacked, and tinkered with. **Governmentality as a heuristic focuses on performing complex diagnostics of events.** It invites historically situated explorations and careful differentiations rather than overarching demonizations of ‘‘power,’’ romanticizations of the ‘‘rebel’’ or the ‘‘the local.**’’** More broadly, theoretical formulations that conceive the subject in non-substantialist terms and focus on processes of subjectification, on the ambiguity of power discourses, and on hybridization as the terrain for political transformation, open ways for reconsidering political agency beyond the dichotomy of oppression/rebellion. **These alternative formulations** also **foster an ethics of political engagement,** to be continuously taken up through plural and uncertain practices, **that demand continuous attention to ‘‘what happens’’ instead of fixations on ‘‘what ought to be.’’**83 **Such ethics of engagement would not await the revolution to come** or hope for a pristine ‘‘freedom’’ to be regained**. Instead, it would constantly attempt to twist the working of power by playing with whatever cards are available and would require intense processes of reflexivity on the consequences of political choices.** To conclude with a famous phrase by Michel Foucault ‘‘my point is not that everything is bad, but that everything is dangerous, which is not exactly the same as bad. If everything is dangerous, then we always have something to do. So my position leads not to apathy but to hyper- and pessimistic activism.

### Underview 2

#### Their disads will surely be ridiculous.

#### (A) Ethics – The state is complicit in perpetuating inequalities that are terrible for incarcerated workers. Apply a *VERY* high standard of proof to any rationalization of that policy.

#### (B) Compound Probability - Multiplied probabilities of long link chains have negligible net probabilities. This is the slippery slope fallacy.

#### (C) Causal Direction - They will say the fractional probability of a huge impact still has a large expected value, but it’s impossible to determine the direction of low-probability links. Does the butterfly flapping its wings cause the hurricane or prevent it? Disregard tiny-probability links because they don’t guide decision-making.

#### (D) Complexity – the DA presents a simplistic and deterministic narrative that fails to account for the myriad confounding factors that can disrupt or reverse the link chain of the DA. The most important of these is the probability that people will recognize the dangerous path they’re on and change course, e.g. leaders backing down during the Cuban Missile Crisis.

#### (E) Decision Gridlock – Every course of action or inaction has a negligible possibility of causing extinction. This makes it impossible to prioritize averting existential risk over all else because such risk is unavoidable. We have no choice but to prioritize REALISTIC probabilities.

# 1ar cards

## T

#### Indefinite articles can indicate particular instances

Dictionary.com, 20 – (dictionary.com, “a,” https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/a)//usc-br/

a indefinite article \ ə, for emphasis (ˈ)ā , Canadian ˈa \ Definition of a (Entry 2 of 13) 1—used as a function word before singular nouns when the referent is unspecified a man overboard and before number collectives and some numbers a dozen 2: the same birds of a feather swords all of a length

3a—used as a function word before a singular noun followed by a restrictive modifier a man who was here yesterday b: ANY a person who is sick can't work

c—used as a function word before a mass noun to denote a particular type or instance a bronze made in ancient times

## Politics

#### Manchin supports labor protections

Timothy Gardner [reuters journalist], 21 - ("Senator Manchin throws support behind U.S. labor reform bill," Reuters, 4-19-2021, accessed 11-6-2021, https://www.reuters.com/business/legal/senator-manchin-throws-support-behind-us-labor-reform-bill-2021-04-19/)//ML

WASHINGTON, April 19 (Reuters) - U.S. Senator Joe Manchin said on Monday he supports a sweeping labor reform bill, giving the legislation some momentum after it passed in the House last month.¶ The West Virginia Democrat said the Protecting the Right to Organize Act, or PRO Act, would level the playing field for unions and he was looking forward to working with a bipartisan group of legislators to pass it. He made the announcement at a virtual National Press Club event with Cecil Roberts, the president of the United Mine Workers of America (UMWA) union.¶ The bill, introduced in February by Democratic Senator Patty Murray and supported by President Joe Biden, would bolster collective bargaining rights, allow unions to collect dues from non-members covered by their contracts, and establish penalties for corporations that violate workers' rights, among other measures.

#### . No extinction from warming – no tipping points and intervening actors

Sebastian Farquhar 17 – leads the Global Priorities Project (GPP) at the Centre for Effective Altruism, et al., 2017, “Existential Risk: Diplomacy and Governance,” https://www.fhi.ox.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/Existential-Risks-2017-01-23.pdf

The most likely levels of global warming are very unlikely to cause human extinction.15 The existential risks of climate change instead stem from tail risk climate change – the low probability of extreme levels of warming – and interaction with other sources of risk. It is impossible to say with confidence at what point global warming would become severe enough to pose an existential threat. Research has suggested that warming of 11-12°C would render most of the planet uninhabitable,16 and would completely devastate agriculture.17 This would pose an extreme threat to human civilisation as we know it.18 Warming of around 7°C or more could potentially produce conflict and instability on such a scale that the indirect effects could be an existential risk, although it is extremely uncertain how likely such scenarios are.19 Moreover, the timescales over which such changes might happen could mean that humanity is able to adapt enough to avoid extinction in even very extreme scenarios. The probability of these levels of warming depends on eventual greenhouse

gas concentrations. According to some experts, unless strong action is taken soon by major emitters, it is likely that we will pursue a medium-high emissions pathway.20 If we do, the chance of extreme warming is highly uncertain but appears non-negligible. Current concentrations of greenhouse gases are higher than they have been for hundreds of thousands of years,21 which means that there are significant unknown unknowns about how the climate system will respond. Particularly concerning is the risk of positive feedback loops, such as the release of vast amounts of methane from melting of the arctic permafrost, which would cause rapid and disastrous warming.22 The economists Gernot Wagner and Martin Weitzman have used IPCC figures (which do not include modelling of feedback loops such as those from melting permafrost) to estimate that if we continue to pursue a medium-high emissions pathway, the probability of eventual warming of 6°C is around 10%,23 and of 10°C is around 3%.24 These estimates are of course highly uncertain. It is likely that the world will take action against climate change once it begins to impose large costs on human society, long before there is warming of 10°C. Unfortunately, there is significant inertia in the climate system: there is a 25 to 50 year lag between CO2 emissions and eventual warming,25 and it is expected that 40% of the peak concentration of CO2 will remain in the atmosphere 1,000 years after the peak is reached.26 Consequently, it is impossible to reduce temperatures quickly by reducing CO2 emissions. If the world does start to face costly warming, the international community will therefore face strong incentives to find other ways to reduce global temperatures.

## Econ DA

#### Prison labor is not key to the US economy

Ertel 15 - JACOB ERTEL Jacob Ertel is a graduate of Oberlin College (Oberlin), where he studied Political Economy. Ertel was an organizer for Students for a Free Palestine (SFP), an affiliate of Students for Justice in Palestine (SJP), on the Oberlin campus. AUGUST 10, 2015 https://www.counterpunch.org/2015/08/10/do-we-need-to-rethink-the-prison-industrial-complex/

As a rhetorical tool, the notion of the PIC has been central in galvanizing public interest in the country’s astounding incarceration boom—and the 2.2 million people enveloped by it, over 60 percent of who are people of color—since the 1980s. In self-referentially positioning itself in relation to the more widely known ‘military-industrial complex,’ moreover, the PIC effectively calls attention to the state’s capacity to reproduce itself through a range of disciplinary institutions crucial to capitalism’s functioning. Though the PIC is useful in its ability to accessibly demonstrate the conjoined interests of capital and the state, some have argued that the term glosses over key historical, theoretical, and material conditions that can negatively affect our ability to understand the prison system and ultimately act against it. French sociologist Loïc Wacquant is among the most brazen of the term’s critics. Though Wacquant obnoxiously dismisses the PIC as an “activist myth,” various elements of his critique should merit our attention, if for no other reason than their provocatively counterintuitive framing. First and perhaps most surprisingly, Wacquant explains that only a miniscule percentage of incarcerated people actually work for private firms. In 2009, for example, only 0.3 percent of inmates nation-wide were employed by such companies. Even if this trend were to develop exponentially in the coming years, it would still fail to account for the fundamental features of the prison system, as no single economic sector relies principally or even significantly on prison labor, however disturbing this dynamic may be. Prisons likewise do not actually constitute a significant boon to the United States’ economy; in fact, inmates are generally employed at a net loss to the government (though their activity is heavily subsidized and regulated), and US corrections-based spending at local, municipal, and federal levels constitutes only a small fraction of the GDP.

None of this is to discount the disturbing reality of private prisons. And the private prison industry is growing: Corrections Corporation of America’s profits alone have increased by 500 percent in the past twenty years, and the three largest private prison corporations have spent over $45 million combined in lobbying efforts, giving some credence to Critical Resistance’s explication of the PIC. Yet despite increasing profit margins and appalling moral bankruptcy, private prisons are hardly the norm, and they likely won’t be anytime soon. One must also wonder whether the specific demonization of the private prison industry implicitly naturalizes the much larger and much more encompassing public prison nexus in the United States, one which has grown 790 percent since 1980 and which is not immune from the grave abuses (sexualized violence, correctional officer misconduct, food rationing, etc.) frequently cited as byproducts of the private prison industry. Such an analysis can tend towards a conspiratorial view of history that, regardless of whether or not it ultimately rings true, misses the central dynamic undergirding state involvement vis-à-vis both institutions of social welfare and institutions of imprisonment, detention, and poverty under neoliberalism. Wacquant identifies such a dynamic in Punishing the Poor as a “paradox of neoliberal rationality” in which “the state stridently reasserts its responsibility, potency, and efficiency in the narrow register of crime management at the very moment when it proclaims and organizes its own impotence on the economic front, thereby revitalizing the twin historical-cum-scholarly myths of the efficient police and the free market.” This trend is illustrated by dramatically changing state expenses—for instance, by 1995 US corrections budget appropriations exceeded funding for public housing by a factor of three, resembling the inverse relationship of 1980 funding allocations. In other words, explains Wacquant, the prison system has over time become the United States’ largest public housing initiative for the poor. This reframing of the PIC thus positions the state in a slightly different light, portraying the heightened capacity for incarceration within a frankly more grotesque functionality. If, as opposed to the traditional PIC framing in which labor done in both private and public prisons is conceived as a major economic boon, Black labor (which alone disproportionally constitutes roughly 36 percent of the prison population) is even more ineluctably characterized as surplus labor under post-Fordism, then the state can simply endow itself with the power to hyper-criminalize without pretext in order to deal with those who both serve no use to the economy and frustrate the largely white middle class whose labor does provide such a benefit. The heightening of aggressive, ‘zero-tolerance’ policing functions associated with gentrification is case in point, as those who are shut out of the deteriorating welfare system and forced to turn to informal economies become even more vulnerable to warehousing or police brutality, thus aiding in the production of ‘renewed’ urban space for the gentrifying middle-class. These critiques of the contemporary framing of the ‘prison-industrial complex’ are not simply a practice in detached pseudo-intellectualization; they are important because they frame the role of Black labor to the US economy in a fundamentally different way, one that can be instructive for current struggles and movements. Rather than assuming that the hyper-exploited production process occurring in prisons is central to the growth of the economy and the private corporations that contribute to it, for example, perhaps it is worthwhile to consider prison labor’s actual relative lack of productivity as symptomatic of a post-Fordist economy that deals with its “relatively redundant population of laborers…of greater extant than suffices for the average needs of the self-expansion of capital” (in the words of Marx) through mass warehousing. Contrary to the popular slogan then, ontologically speaking, Black lives cannot matter under neoliberalism because they have been cast as inessential to the quotidian functioning of the economy. Any critique of the current iteration of the PIC, however, must seriously reckon with the not at all insignificant rise of privatized detention centers. Private prison companies are responsible for 62 percent of the beds used by the Department of Homeland Security’s Immigrations and Customs Enforcement branch, and private firms such as the Corrections Corporation of America and GEO Group operate nine out of ten of the country’s largest immigration detention centers. Both of these companies have lobbied the Department of Homeland Security on immigration policy, and thus constitute a formidable force in shaping the fate of undocumented migrants largely driven to cross the border due to free trade agreements and the drug war. For this reason, the PIC as depicted by Critical Resistance may more accurately describe a ‘security-industrial’ or ‘detention-industrial’ complex. One might incorrectly read this imputation as implying that the recent success of Columbia Prison Divest’s campaign is ultimately inessential or futile. One might also infer that a call to reframe the prison-industrial complex may necessarily entail solely Keynesian or social democratic solutions, as opposed to the explicitly abolitionist stance put forth by radical groups such as Critical Resistance. On the contrary, such a reframing affirms the importance of (for now) symbolic initiatives such as divestment from the private prison industry, and is in fact entirely compatible with the notion of abolition and the prescriptions for restorative and transformative justice platforms often associated with radical adherents to the traditional usage of the PIC. For one, if for no other purpose, the PIC is useful in its function as effective political propaganda that has and should continue to pique a widespread interest in, at the very least, prison expansion. The primary short-term goal of any abolitionist movement must be to call attention to injustice, and there is no reason why the PIC should be abandoned, even if its empirical grounding may be questioned and readjusted. Likewise, the movement to divest from the private prison industry carries not merely symbolic import, but the potential to unify a range of (unfortunately) often-disparate divestment movements. For instance, Group4Securicor (more commonly referred to as G4S), which was targeted by Columbia’s private prison divestment campaign, operates in 125 countries and manages prisons and detention centers in Israel and the occupied West Bank, often in contravention of the Fourth Geneva Convention. One can thus read a refreshingly global and intersectional element into the prison divestment movement, one that makes use of the traditional and incomplete formulation of the PIC. While the success of private prison divestment at Columbia should certainly be seen as a tremendous victory for all divestment movements, reframing the prison-industrial complex as suggested above could prove useful in the seemingly perennial and fraught struggle to build a unified Left in the United States. Such potential exists because this reframing of the prison system cuts across multiple dimensions of neoliberalism to explicitly address the rise of incarceration rates and prison expansion within the context of economic deregulation and the state’s reneging on social protections since the 1980s. It prompts us not to be satisfied when Obama mentions the ‘school-to-prison pipeline’ once every seven years, to strive beyond incomplete iterations of abolition that might inadvertently limit themselves to ultimately reformist paradigms, and above all to form stronger connections between the prison abolition movement and the labor movement, between the immigration movement and the Boycott, Divestment, and Sanctions (BDS) movement.