## 1

#### The Indian economy is recovering post-2nd COVID wave, but it’s tentative – COVID mutation and consumption hesistancy

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The economy was gradually turning towards recovery early this year until the much more severe second COVID-19 wave hit India in April. The comforting news is that improving business sentiments, coupled with a strong recovery among industrial nations, propelled growth in the January–March quarter of FY2020–21. While substantial spending by the government provided the biggest boost to growth, private investments and goods exports—in segments such as engineering goods, chemical products, and pharmaceuticals—did remarkably well in the last quarter of the fiscal year.

What, however, emerged as a worrying trend (from the GDP numbers) is that traction in consumption spending seemed restrained, highlighting spending hesitancy due to health and financial anxieties. With more COVID-19 variants emerging across the world and certain mutations suggesting variants of concern, the ebb and flow of the pandemic is likely to continue.1 This raises several questions: How damaging would the impact of successive waves be on the economy? Can consumers eventually shirk off their anxieties and resume spending with confidence? While we pin our hopes on pent-up demand to lift recovery, are there any risks that may materialize?

We responded to the first question in our earlier publication (see “The tunnel just got longer, but you can still see the light” for more details)—we are cautiously optimistic about the economy’s ability to bounce back once we tide over the second wave.2 Successive waves will likely have a diminishing economic impact as a larger proportion of the population gets vaccinated. Recovery, however, is likely to be delayed and will flow into the next fiscal year.

In this report, we try to answer the other two questions. High-frequency data suggests that consumers are yet to recover from the emotional and financial scars of the second wave. While the upper-middle or higher-income class with larger savings are longing to spend, the weakening labor market, rising inflation, and deteriorating household balance sheets are risks that may test the resilience of a majority of consumers for some time. To bring back consumer confidence, India must vaccinate its population rapidly. At the same time, it is important for policymakers to understand the above risks looming over pent-up demand that we are so relying on for a strong recovery. That way, they can take quick actions to prevent these factors from spinning out of control.

#### Indian farmer strikes hamstring the economy

Krishnan ’20 [Murali, “How India's farmer protests could take a toll on the economy”, 09-12-2020, https://www.dw.com/en/how-indias-farmer-protests-could-take-a-toll-on-the-economy/a-55885748]//pranav

For nearly two weeks, tens of thousands of farmers have been staging protests on roads leading into Delhi. The farmers want to pressure Indian Prime Minister Narendra Modi into repealing a new set of farming laws, which they say liberalizes the agriculture market at farmers' expense. On Tuesday, the farmers called for a nationwide shutdown, which closed businesses and disrupted traffic as protesters squatted on roads and train tracks in several parts of the country. The impact of the shutdown, which was called "Bharat Bandh," was particularly strong in northern states like Punjab and Haryana, and the capital region, Delhi. Industry in Punjab, already reeling under the disruption of coronavirus lockdowns, has been doubly hit as train services remain suspended by the protests. "This protest has lasted for a long time and has begun eating up the economy of the state," Badish Jindal, president of Punjab's federation of small businesses, told DW. Making a bad economic situation worse Last week, India's central bank, the Reserve Bank of India, predicted India's economy will contract by 9.5% in the current fiscal year, which ends on March 31, 2021. In the April-June quarter of 2020, when the lockdown was in full force, India's economy contracted by nearly a quarter, which is the worst-ever decline since India started compiling GDP statistics on a quarterly basis in 1996. Economists and policy analysts believe the ongoing disruption caused by the protests could further upset the already fragile economic situation. "Obviously, this strike will have repercussions. Agricultural supply has already dipped and this will lead to inflation. Agrarian distress will be further compounded," as Jawaharlal Nehru University economist Himanshu — who only goes by one name — told DW. Agriculture accounts for nearly 15% of India's 2.4 trillion-euro economy, and farmers' unions are a powerful political constituency. Although most economists are reluctant to estimate a ballpark figure on the economic losses brought on by the demonstrations, some pointed out that the effects will likely extend beyond the agriculture sector into the overall economy. "At a time when the economy is upended and lives and livelihoods are affected, this current impasse will add further distress. It is difficult to estimate the production loss, but all of this will have a ripple effect," Mahesh Vyas, CEO of the Centre for Monitoring Indian Economy (CMIE), told DW. "A contraction in the Indian economy would continue into the next three quarters and a recession is inevitable," he added.

#### Strong Indian economy is key to deter Pakistani conflict and prevent collapse of conventional deterrence– Pakistan’s growing now

Jaffery ’20 [Syed Ali Zia Jaffery, Research Associate at the Center for Security, Strategy and Policy Research at the University of Lahore. He is also the Associate Editor of Pakistan Politico, the country’s first strategic and foreign affairs magazine. He is also teaching undergraduate courses on Foreign Policy and National Security, “Enhancing Deterrence Stability on the Subcontinent: The Case for Conventional Deterrence”, 04-08-2020, https://www.stimson.org/2020/enhancing-deterrence-stability-on-the-subcontinent-the-case-for-conventional-deterrence/]//pranav

Experts in Washington, D.C. termed Pakistan’s weak economic profile as one of the biggest impediments to a strengthened conventional deterrent. They contended that Pakistan, beset with debt, low-growth, and structural anomalies, will find it difficult to afford sustained investments in defense that could help keep a semblance of balance with a behemoth economic power, India. There is no doubt that Pakistan is in the midst of an economic crisis. That said, the country is slowly but surely extricating itself from dire straits.23 According to the World Bank, Pakistan could become a 2-trillion-dollar economy by 2047.24 This statistic inspires confidence given that nothing proposed in this memo caters to the short and medium terms. Even were economic challenges to persist, triggered by China Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC) investments, COVID-19 response, or otherwise, many policy options recommended below involve allocation of existing resources rather than significant new expenditures.

#### Even limited conflict goes nuclear and causes extinction

Baum 15 [Seth D. Baum, Ph.D. in Geography @ Pennsylvania State University, did his doctoral work on the concept of space-time discounting within the context of climate change decisions, co-founder and Executive Director of the think tank *Global Catastrophic Risk Institute*, and has a Post-Doctoral Fellowship with the Columbia University Center for Research on Environmental Decisions. “Winter-safe Deterrence: The Risk of Nuclear Winter and Its Challenge to Deterrence,” 23 February 2015, [http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13523260.2015.1012346]//recut](http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13523260.2015.1012346%5d//recut) anop

The concept of nuclear winter was first developed in the early 1980s by scientists including Paul Crutzen, who later won a Nobel Prize in Chemistry for his work on the ozone hole, and legendary astronomer Carl Sagan.3 Sagan went to great lengths to raise awareness about nuclear winter in the 1980s and early 1990s.4 This episode apparently had some influence on policy, with Mikhail Gorbachev citing it as a factor in his desire to cool that era's nuclear tensions and reverse the arms race.5 After fading from the spotlight, nuclear winter began a bit of a comeback in 2007 with the publication of new research examining nuclear winter with the latest scientific models.6 Several follow-up studies and commentaries have been published since, and research is ongoing.7 In technical terms, ‘nuclear winter’ refers specifically to a cooling of Earth's surface such that winter-like temperatures occur during summer, as caused by a sufficiently large nuclear war. Cooling to warmer-than-winter temperatures can be called ‘nuclear autumn’. As per this definition, nuclear winter/autumn is part of a broader suite of environmental consequences of nuclear war. However, all of the environmental consequences can have profound consequences for the planet and for human civilization, and likewise are important for policy. No separate term has been coined for the full suite of environmental consequences of nuclear war, so this paper will use ‘nuclear winter’ as shorthand for the full suite. This use of ‘nuclear winter’ may be interpreted metaphorically: a time of cold, darkness, and death. Nuclear winter is caused by the burning of cities, industrial facilities, trees, and other flammable materials, sending smoke into the atmosphere. The main effects of the smoke derive from the fact that the smoke rises high up into the atmosphere, past the clouds, into the stratosphere where it will not quickly fall back out in rain. At this altitude, the smoke spreads across the planet and gradually falls back out over the next 10–20 years. While it is aloft, the smoke absorbs incoming sunlight and blocks it from reaching the surface. As the smoke absorbs sunlight, the stratosphere warms, causing ozone depletion at a potentially massive scale.8 The ozone depletion causes more ultraviolet radiation to reach Earth's surface. Increased UV radiation can harm living organisms, including humans. Harmful effects include skin cancer and eye damage to animals and the inhibition of photosynthesis in plants.9 Meanwhile, the smoke blocking sunlight from reaching the surface causes colder surface temperatures and less precipitation. Precipitation declines because there is less heat to power the hydrological cycle. The main harmful effect that has been identified is a decline in plant growth, including agricultural production. Secondary effects could include disease outbreaks and additional conflicts.10 The effects occur worldwide, regardless of where the detonations occur, though detonation location can affect the spatial distribution of impacts. For both UV radiation and cooling, the magnitude of the disruption is proportionate to the amount of smoke put into the atmosphere, which in turn depends on the number of nuclear detonations, the bombs’ yields, the detonation locations, and other factors. Regarding detonation location, a key variable is whether the detonation occurs in a city, and if it does, the population density of the city. Other locations such as industrial zones can also produce significant quantities of smoke. This is why nuclear weapons testing has not caused nuclear winter: the tests were conducted in remote locations or at high altitude, and thus did not have much to burn. The location of a city on the globe can also make a difference, given Earth's topography and atmospheric circulation patterns, but this effect is smaller. The most heavily studied nuclear winter scenario involves war between India and Pakistan in which each country uses 50 nuclear weapons, each with a 15 kiloton yield, comparable to the Little Boy weapon dropped on Hiroshima. The studies assume that the weapons are dropped on each country's major cities, and not on, for example, remote military targets, producing 5 teragrams of smoke.11 In this scenario, ozone loss would range from 20 per cent to 70 per cent from low to high latitudes.12 Temperatures would fall about 1.25°C within the first year. Even ten years after, temperatures would still be about 0.5°C below normal.13 Crop yields in China and the Midwestern United States are projected to decline by around 10–30 per cent.14 One analysis estimates that at least two billion people would be at risk of starvation.15 A core point is that even a ‘limited’ regional nuclear war could have catastrophic global consequences. It should be emphasized that what drives nuclear winter is the quantity of smoke entering the stratosphere, not where the nuclear war occurs. Thus, a comparably large nuclear war between other countries would have similar global climatic and humanitarian effects. The India–Pakistan scenario offers an illustrative and relatively probable case, but any nuclear weapon state except North Korea could produce similar effects. A larger nuclear exchange involving American and Russian arsenals would cause further disruption. An exchange of about 1,200 weapons could produce about 50 teragrams of smoke, causing temperatures to fall by about 4°C. For 4,000 weapons – around what New START prescribes – there could be 150 teragrams of smoke, with a temperature fall of about 8°C. Agriculture failure would be so severe and widespread that it becomes easier to count the survivors than the fatalities.16 Climate scientist Alan Robock, who has led many of the recent nuclear winter studies, expects some survivors ‘especially in Australia and New Zealand’.17 While this is hardly a cheerful evaluation, even this may be too optimistic. Hopefully some people somewhere would find some way to survive. But the conditions would be harsh enough that survival is no guarantee.18 Finally, it should be acknowledged that, over the years, there has been some scepticism of whether nuclear winter would actually occur, or would occur with enough severity to be worth factoring into security policy.19 To an extent, one cannot be sure what would happen, because a large exchange of nuclear weapons has fortunately never occurred. However, there are at least two reasons to believe that the current round of nuclear winter science is yielding results that are at least in the general vicinity of what would actually happen. One reason is that the science uses modern climate models developed for the study of global warming. Global warming has its own sceptics and controversies, which has led to the climate models being heavily scrutinized.20 Climate science may well be the most carefully vetted of all the sciences. The nuclear winter researchers are themselves distinguished climate scientists and are using state-of-the-art climate models. And two distinct nuclear winter research groups from two different countries using two different sets of models both report approximately the same results.21 While some uncertainties in the science of nuclear winter remain and additional research could provide additional confidence, it should be expected that the current research results are basically sound. The second reason for believing that nuclear winter would occur is that it has a historical precedent in volcano eruptions. Volcano eruptions, like nuclear weapon detonations, cause large amounts of smoke to rise into the atmosphere. An insightful example is the 1815 Mount Tambora eruption. The Tambora eruption caused temperatures to fall by about 0.5°C, resulting in major food shortages and other disruptions, such that 1816 is now known as the ‘Year Without Summer’.22 While humanity ultimately survived Tambora, nuclear war could put even more smoke into the atmosphere and cause more severe disruption. It, thus, is important to factor into nuclear security policy.

## 2

#### CP Text: The United States ought to:

#### Recognize a right of workers to strike, except for workers who are essential to a country’s food supply

#### Provide those workers with a unconditional right to impartial conciliation followed by arbitration procedures

#### Workers right to strike can be conditional in the context of food supply---exceptions are limited to avoid abuses, AND enable alternatives that channel worker demands

Brudney 21, James J., Joseph Crowley Chair in Labor and Employment Law, Fordham Law School. Yale Journal of International Law, 2021. “The Right to Strike as Customary International Law” <https://digitalcommons.law.yale.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1710&context=yjil> brett

The international right to strike is far from absolute. It may be restricted in exceptional circumstances, or even prohibited, pursuant to national regulation. For a start, Convention 87 provides that members of the armed forces and the police may be excluded from the scope of the Convention in general, including the right to strike.57 In addition, applications by the CFA and CEACR have concluded that three distinct forms of substantive restriction on the right to strike are compatible with Convention 87. 1. Substantive Limitations One important restriction applies to certain categories of public servants. The CEACR and CFA have made clear that public employees generally enjoy the same right to strike as their counterparts in the private sector; at the same time, in order to ensure continuity of functions in the three branches of government, this right may be restricted for public servants exercising authority in the name of the State.58 Examples include officials performing tasks that involve the administration of necessary executive branch functions or that relate to the administration of justice. Each country hasits own approach to classifying public servants exercising authority in the name of the State. When considering the international right under Convention 87, some public servant exceptions seem clearly applicable, such as officials auditing or collecting internal revenues, customs officers, or judges and their close judicial assistants. 59 Some public servant exceptions seem inapplicable, such as teachers, or public servants in State-owned commercial enterprises.60 Whether public servants are exercising authority in the name of the State can be a close question under particular national law, one on which the CEACR and CFA have offered encouragement and guidance,61 as has the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR).62 A second equally important restriction on the right to strike involves essential services in the strict sense of the term. This is an area in which both the CEACR and CFA have developed a detailed set of applications and guidelines. 63 The two committees consider that essential services, for the purposes of restricting or prohibiting the right to strike, are only those “the interruption of which would endanger the life, personal safety or health of the whole or part of the population.”64 This definition of essential services “in the strict sense of the term” stems from the idea that “essential services” as a limitation on the right to strike would lose its meaning if statutes or judicial decisions defined those services in too broad a manner. 65 The interruption of services that cause or have the potential to cause economic hardships—even serious economic hardships—is not ordinarily sufficient to qualify the interrupted service as essential. Indeed, the very purpose of a strike is to interrupt services or production and thereby cause a degree of economic hardship. That is the leverage workers can exercise; it is what allows a strike to be effective in bringing the parties to the table and securing a negotiated settlement. The two ILO supervisory committees also have made clear that the essential services concept is not static in nature. Thus, a non-essential service may become essential if the strike exceeds a certain duration or extent, or as a function of the special characteristics of a country. 66 One example is that of an island State where at some point ferry transportation services become essential to bring food and medical supplies to the population.67 When examining concrete cases, the supervisory bodies have considered a range of services, both public and private, too broad to summarize here. As illustrative, the two bodies have determined that essential services in the strict sense of the term include air traffic control services, 68 telephone services, 69 prison services, firefighting services, and water and electricity services. 70 The CEACR and CFA also have identified a range of services that presumptively are deemed not to be essential in the strict sense of the term.71 In addition, in circumstances where a total prohibition on the right to strike is not appropriate, the magnitude of impact on the basic needs of consumers or the general public, or the need for safe operation of facilities, may justify introduction of a negotiated minimum service.72 Such a service, however, must truly be a minimum service, that is one limited to meeting the basic needs of the population or the minimum requirements of the service, while maintaining the effectiveness of the pressure brought to bear through the strike by a majority of workers.73 The third substantive restriction on the right to strike under Convention 87 relates to situations of acute national or local crisis, although only for a limited period and only to the extent necessary to meet the requirements of the situation.74 With respect to all three forms of substantive restriction, the CFA and CEACR have indicated that certain alternative options should be guaranteed for workers who are deprived of the right to strike. These options include impartial conciliation followed by arbitration procedures in which any awards are binding on both parties and are to be implemented in full and rapid terms.75

#### Strikes cause food insecurity---empirics

Lopes et al 19, Mariana Souza Lopes--Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Research Group on Nutrition Interventions, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil. Melissa Luciana de Araújo--Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Research Group on Urban Agriculture, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil. Aline Cristine Souza Lopes--Nutrition Department, Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Research Group on Nutrition Interventions. PHN, (2019) <https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/public-health-nutrition/article/national-general-truck-drivers-strike-and-food-security-in-a-brazilian-metropolis/90C14AC48923A17597DED720365E810B> brett

Food security exists when people have, at all times, a guaranteed and adequate food supply. Food security involves access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets individual dietary requirements and food preferences for a healthy life without restricting access to other fundamental needs( 1 ) and sovereignty( 2 ). Therefore, the risk of food insecurity is influenced by the availability, price, access and quality of the food supply to the consumer, especially in a crisis situation( 3 ). Studies that have explored the global food crisis and market instability indicate that there is an independent association between crisis situations and food security( 4 , 5 ). For example, a recent Brazilian study showed that there was a marked increase in the prevalence of food insecurity during the Brazilian economic crisis( 4 ). In Brazil, the Centrais de Abastecimento de Minas Gerais S.A. (CEASA-MINAS) distributes produce. The aims of the CEASA-MINAS are to: (i) improve the process of marketing and distribution of products; and (ii) connect producers and consumers in urban centres. The CEASA-MINAS is supported by mixed-capital (public and private) resources and operates under governmental supervision. Consequently, the CEASA-MINAS plays an important role in guaranteeing food security and the human right to food( 6 ). The state of Minas Gerais is the third-largest economy in Brazil and has one of the best transport networks in the country. The CEASA-MINAS has six units in this state and its headquarters is in the city of Contagem, in the metropolitan region of Belo Horizonte. The headquarters is the principal unit and is named CEASA-Minas Grande BH( 7 ). In 2018, the CEASA-Minas Grande BH traded about 2000 tonnes of food, which corresponded to 80 % of the total market in the state( 8 ). Therefore, this business unit is the subject of the present study. The supply of unprocessed or minimally processed foods\* in the CEASA-MINAS is self-supplied by the state of Minas Gerais. In spite of this, food is transported via long routes in the state due to its large territory (586 528 km2). The distribution network is more complex for fruit. The supply of fruit at the CEASA-Minas Grande BH has multiple origins and the fruits are carried by trucks over long distances. Some leafy vegetables are produced near the food supply centre( 10 ). In general, the food supply of the CEASA-Minas Grande BH covers a radius of 200 km, but there are items that originate from distances of up to 2000 km away( 11 ). The 1081 municipality suppliers of the CEASA-Minas Grande BH move, on average, 25 700 trucks per month via Brazilian roadways( 8 ). Consequently, a national general truck drivers’ strike may have important consequences for the economy and food supply chain of a country that is dependent on road networks. Such an event occurred on 21–30 May 2018. During this 10 d strike, Brazilians experienced an extreme event characterized by roadblocks and the unavailability of fuel, medicine, food, and the inputs for food production processes. The disruption of the supply of animal feed had a devastating impact: millions of chickens and pigs were slaughtered because producers had no food for them( 12 ). The drivers were on strike in order to make diesel oil tax-free and to obtain better working conditions( 13 ). Despite the drivers’ important claims, in a crisis situation, 200 km can be as long as 2000 km and the repercussions may result in negative impacts for food security. Given the importance of transport conditions for the food security of the Brazilian population, the present paper aimed to analyse the impact of the national general truck drivers’ strike on the availability, variety and price of unprocessed foods sold by a food supply centre in a Brazilian metropolis.

#### Food insecurity goes nuclear

Hartley et al 12 (Major General John Hartley AO (Retd), CEO and Institute, Director Future Directions International, Roundtable Chairman. Alyson Clarke, FDI Executive Officer Gary Kleyn, Manager, FDI Global Food and Water Crises Research Programme, “International Conflict Triggers and Potential Conflict Points Resulting from Food and Water Insecurity” 25 May 2012 http://futuredirections.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2012/05/Workshop\_Report\_-\_Intl\_Conflict\_Triggers\_-\_May\_25.pdf) brett

There is little dispute that conflict can lead to food and water crises. This paper will consider parts of the world, however, where food and water insecurity can be the cause of conflict and, at worst, result in war. While dealing predominately with food and water issues, the paper also recognises the nexus that exists between food and water and energy security. There is a growing appreciation that the conflicts in the next century will most likely be fought over a lack of resources. Yet, in a sense, this is not new. Researchers point to the French and Russian revolutions as conflicts induced by a lack of food. More recently, Germany’s World War Two efforts are said to have been inspired, at least in part, by its perceived need to gain access to more food. Yet the general sense among those that attended FDI’s recent workshops, was that the scale of the problem in the future could be significantly greater as a result of population pressures, changing weather, urbanisation, migration, loss of arable land and other farm inputs, and increased affluence in the developing world. In his book, Small Farmers Secure Food, Lindsay Falvey, a participant in FDI’s March 2012 workshop on the issue of food and conflict, clearly expresses the problem and why countries across the globe are starting to take note. He writes (p.36), “…if people are hungry, especially in cities, the state is not stable – riots, violence, breakdown of law and order and migration result.” “Hunger feeds anarchy.” This view is also shared by Julian Cribb, who in his book, The Coming Famine, writes that if “large regions of the world run short of food, land or water in the decades that lie ahead, then wholesale, bloody wars are liable to follow.” He continues: “An increasingly credible scenario for World War 3 is not so much a confrontation of super powers and their allies, as a festering, self-perpetuating chain of resource conflicts.” He also says: “The wars of the 21st Century are less likely to be global conflicts with sharply defined sides and huge armies, than a scrappy mass of failed states, rebellions, civil strife, insurgencies, terrorism and genocides, sparked by bloody competition over dwindling resources.” As another workshop participant put it, people do not go to war to kill; they go to war over resources, either to protect or to gain the resources for themselves. Another observed that hunger results in passivity not conflict. Conflict is over resources, not because people are going hungry. A study by the International Peace Research Institute indicates that where food security is an issue, it is more likely to result in some form of conflict. Darfur, Rwanda, Eritrea and the Balkans experienced such wars. Governments, especially in developed countries, are increasingly aware of this phenomenon. The UK Ministry of Defence, the CIA, the US Center for Strategic and International Studies and the Oslo Peace Research Institute, all identify famine as a potential trigger for conflicts and possibly even nuclear war.

#### Cross apply their impacts here – we solve for the food shortages the aff talks about.