1	This transcript has been lightly edited for clarity
2	PANEL ENTITLED: "THE FIRST 90 YEARS: PROMISE AND
3	PERFORMANCE"
4	
5	SPEAKERS: WILLIAM E. KOVACIC
6	MARC WINERMAN
7	EDWARD F. COX
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9	MODERATOR: ERNEST GELLHORN
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11	MR. GELLHORN: Good morning, I'm Ernie Gellhorn,
12	I teach at George Mason Law School, and I'm delighted to
13	be the moderator of the first program. We begin with a
14	program that seeks to take a critical, honest and we
15	hope helpful evaluation of a 90-year, I would say,
16	roller coaster ride, some highs, some lows. And it
17	certainly is appropriate to celebrate the 90th
18	Anniversary of the FTC founding in the midst of a
19	presidential campaign.
20	You recall, of course well maybe we don't
21	quite recall, but we know that the Federal Trade
22	Commission really grew out of the Supreme Court's
23	decision in 1911 and the furor it created of committing
24	to a conservative federal judiciary, a decision on
25	antitrust in connection with how the rule of reason

should be evaluated and applied.

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The candidates at the time: Roosevelt, the progressive; Wilson, the Democrat; Taft, the conservative Republican incumbent, all put the creation or discussion of antitrust policy at the center of their campaigns. Roosevelt, who had once made control of the trust a major focus of his administration, now promised a new nationalism that would, per Marc Winerman's comments, rationalize the economy, tame but not dissolve the trust and accommodate rather than challenge concentration and inter-firm cooperation.

Taft, on the other hand, was committed to a judiciary or judicially applied rule of reason, and yet he promised, and alone, strict de-concentration under that rule.

Wilson's New Freedom, on the other hand, straddled it by attempting to satisfy his parties' agrarian base yet appeal to business interests. He urged the Congress to set forth precise standards backed by criminal sanctions and also urged the creation of an interstate trade commission to promote fair competition by investigating and publicizing, but not otherwise prosecuting trade abuses.

Wilson assailed Roosevelt's proposal of a federal commission with power to investigate any

1	business activity and Roosevelt's other unmentioned
2	proposal to set maximum prices for goods produced by
3	monopolists.
4	To quote Wilson, "If the government is to tell
5	big businessmen how to run their business, then don't
6	you see that big businessmen have to get closer to the
7	government, even than they are now. Don't you see that
8	they must capture the government in order not to be
9	restrained too much by it?" Interesting words.
LO	The happy end of the story, of course, is that
L1	Wilson won the campaign, and then implemented
L2	Roosevelt's proposals with Taft's idea.
L3	The Federal Trade Commission is perhaps the most
L4	studied, reported upon and evaluated independent Agency.
L5	I know of no other that has been reviewed and studied so
L6	frequently. They begin with the reports of Henderson
L7	and Rublee in 1924 and '26, to the Nader and ABA
L8	Commission reports in 1969, to the most recent, I
L9	believe, 1989 study, again, by the American Bar
20	Association.
21	Interestingly enough, I believe there are no
22	studies in the last 15 years, at least major studies.
23	What does that tell us?
24	Now, the Commission has been subject to

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withering criticism, indeed public scorn, in the past,

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the 1969 studies, of course, are one, but the Washington
Post, not a necessarily restrained animal at all points,

called it a national nanny, as we all recall from 1979.

And yet if you look at the reports, virtually every one
of them ends up on an optimistic note, says we got to

keep the Commission and it can, in fact, improve and
perform better.

Indeed it was the 1969 ABA committee report that said, however, if they don't take our guidance and don't improve their performance, they ought to be terminated. Today we get three perspectives on this 90-year history. First, Marc Winerman, and I'm not going to give biographies, it's in your book, you know these people too well for me to go through the litany.

Marc Winerman, the unofficial historian of the FTC has, of course, the seminal article last year in the Antitrust Law Journal, it's only 97 pages, and it gets you to Wilson's first appointees. So, he still has more to do.

(Laughter.)

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MR. GELLHORN: But it's nothing if not thorough. He will provide a distinctive evaluation, at least if he says what he told me he was going to say, of the development and the record of the Federal Trade

Commission and its legislative origins to its early

L	struggles to its modern era in identifying differences
2	in public opinion of public attention given to the
3	Federal Trade Commission.

Edward Cox, widely recognized and highly respected New York corporate lawyer, will go back to his roots, 36 years ago when he was one of the original of Nader's Raiders, and also talk about the politics of regulatory reform from his unique perspective, both as a confidant and worker for Ralph Nader, and one who also knew Richard Nixon close at hand.

Bill Kovacic, our third and final panelist, is really a true antitrust superstar in the tradition, in my view, of Phil Areeda. A brilliant teacher, an erudite scholar and a bent for practical wisdom. His antitrust norms article last year beats Marc by four pages. But it is a tour de force of antitrust policy and progress.

Bill Kovacfuture(16)Tj5.7108 -2

participant, he notes, in two other FTC symposiums, starting first 50 years ago. He was, of course, the chief economist for the Federal Trade Commission in 1953 through 1954, and he's going to look at the leading role that economic analysis has played in the Commission, really from his appointment and forward, and he describes it interestingly enough, as first a shotgun marriage that has matured and evolved into the golden years.

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With that, we will start with Marc Winerman.

MR. WINERMAN: Hello. The standard disclaimers having been made, I'll start. Ninety years ago,
President Woodrow Wilson signed the FTC and Clayton Acts
-- his New Freedom antitrust Program. The Commission absorbed the Bureau of Corporations. The FTC Act transformed the Bureau into an independent agency, replaced its single commissioner with five, and gave it new powers. Most importantly, Section 5 authorized the Commission to challenge unfair methods of competition. The Commission soon used this authority to challenge not only antitrust violations, but deception as well. The .7108 0 Tdt but deception as

efficiency. Antitrust undermined America's global competitiveness and the court's couldn't be trusted to develop competition policy. Progress required concentration and control, and they required a Commission. Roosevelt secured a litigating antitrust division in 1903, but simultaneously created the Bureau of Corporations. He then worked to expand its powers. In 1908 he sought authority for it to pre-clear combinations and contracts. In 1911, he argued that it should protect consumers, competitors, shareholders and labor. He had a pretty broad mandate for the Commission.

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He contrasted America's flawed antitrust with German law that regulated a cartel's output, maximum pricing and labor conditions. He said, "Where under modern conditions competition has been eliminated and cannot be restored," the government should provide control. It should stop unfair competition, but efficient firms would still grow too large for the market to tame. A commission should tell business in advance when proposed conduct was fair. If necessary, it should resort to price regulation and receiverships.

In contrast, Taft, as we've heard, favored judicial exposition of antitrust. He gave ambiguous support to a commission, but the courts, he said, typified "what we shall meet in heaven under a just God."

Woodrow Wilson, agreed with these agrarians in part. He acknowledged that industrialization required increased scale, but thought business had grown larger than economic and what he called "social" efficiency warranted. He argued that size blunted innovation. To protect smaller enterprise, he would construe, bias, and supplement antitrust law.

For example, he wouldn't make size per se unlawful, but he would establish a presumption that a restraint of trade affecting over 40 percent of a market was unlawful.

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He also anticipated a coming trend. Brandeis advocated collective activity through associations, albeit with an eye, which many of these so-called associationalists lacked, to antitrust.

Woodrow Wilson also wanted Congress to establish clear antitrust standards. Like the agrarians, he distrusted a commission. Though he grappled to define a limited role for a commission, he was far more articulate when he said he didn't want to be governed by a smug lot of experts playing providence to him.

Substantively, Wilson said that trust produced vast wealth if you cared about vast wealth no matter how distributed. He even spoke of giants gripping the throats of working men, blood dripping through their fingers -- but Wilson also said that large enterprise did not necessarily endanger

economic liberties. As a candidate, he opposed corporate dissolution, but not because, like Roosevelt, he welcomed growth. Rather Wilson trusted competition -- potential competition. Once the giants were stopped from competing unfairly, then in his words, the pygmies would triumph.

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After the election, Wilson quickly changed course on the question of dissolutions. Perhaps he was persuaded by a letter sent on behalf of his friend, John Bates Clark, an economist who had recently lost faith in potential competition. But his grounds for opposing a commission went deeper and he held to them longer. he introduced his antitrust program in 1914, the centerpiece was a definitions bill, the future Clayton Act. Reaching out to Roosevelt Progressives and businessmen (two groups that overlapped) Wilson promised in soaring rhetoric to create a commission as "an indispensable instrument for doing justice" when judicial progress was inadequate. Also, he said it would be an aid to business through advice and definite guidance. But all he actually proposed was to remove the Bureau of Corporations from the Commerce Department and replace its single Commissioner with multiple Commissioners.

What happened then was that the House, which first debated the antitrust package, couldn't produce

the clear legislative standards Wilson anticipated. Not surprisingly, it couldn't develop a clear formula to distinguish illegal from pro-competitive price-cutting.

When the House debates were winding down, George Rublee, who straddled the field -- he had been a Roosevelt speech writer and a Brandeis ally -- persuaded Brandeis and then Wilson to back Section 5. It appears that they originally intended to substitute Section 5 for all the substantive provisions of the Clayton Act, although ultimately the Clayton Act had substantive prohibitions, enforceable through civil and administrative proceedings, but not through criminal proceedings.

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The expanded commission bill drew bipartisan support in the Senate, although its advocates, including its principal spokesman, differed significantly among themselves. Francis Newlands, the Democratic spokesman, was curious. He actually tracked Roosevelt's ideas more closely. He argued that a commission could prevent monopoly at its incipiency, but also suggested that Roosevelt's style of regulation might later be warranted. He wanted to take all antitrust enforcement away from the Justice Department and give it to the commission if he could have had his way.

On the Republican side, Albert Cummins had an agrarian distrust for size. In 1913, he argued

that a special tax on firms with a more than 25 of a percent national market would target "so much dishonest wealth." For Cummins, the commission should be part of an broader antitrust package. For example, he opposed specific limits on corporate size, but championed a flexible ban against firms that grew so large that they prevented substantial competitive conditions.

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The commission drew support, albeit sometimes reluctant support, from agrarian antimonopolists, from Roosevelt-style progressives and from businessmen who sought clear advice which many hoped would broadly permit collective activity. In his study of the New Deal, Ellis Hawley identifies three competing traditions with roots in the Progressive Era: National planning, industrial self-government, and antitrust. There were variations Brandeis, for example, was an associationalist in each. who supported antitrust. But each was present, in some form, among commission's advocates.

Wilson's initial Commissioners internalized some of the ambiguities in the agency's creation, and they fought over more parochial matters as well. Brandeis refused a seat, so none of the original Commissioners had true national stature. In order of their term's length, they were Democrat Joseph E. Davies,

Wilson's Commissioner of Corporations; Edward N. Hurley,

a self-made businessman; and William Harris, formerly (with

insisted on litigating, but when DOJ settled, the
settlement order provided that the FTC would be the
pricesetter for newsprint.

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During Davies' tenure, the Progressive and associational strands got another boost. When the U.S. entered World War I in April of 1917, wartime imperatives drove further government intervention in the economy. And though the Commission played mostly a supporting role once the transition was made -- the Agency primarily served as a cost-finding agency to help others set prices for government purchases -- it was at the center of the initial decision to adopt these policies. In April of 1917, Wilson conferred with the Commissioners four times.

Another important development during the Commission's first months was the decision to challenge deceptive representations. During the Congressional debates, Cummins, Newlands and the other Commission advocates hadn't encouraged regulation of deception. In fact, it was the opponents of the FTC who said Section 5 is so broad, you can get to deception -- and, therefore, we shouldn't pass it.

But the bill passed, of course. And on November 23rd, 1915, the Commission heard the Associated Advertising Clubs of the World. They were a

self-regulatory body with "vigilance committees" that
were precursors to the Better Business Bureaus. The

AACW had drafted an anti-deception law and secured its
passage by two-thirds of the states, so it could turn to
state regulators when self-regulation failed.

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But the president of the clubs told the Commission that they had faced such new challenges like direct mail appeal, "the greatest offender against honest advertising." The post office could get some fraud orders but that wasn't enough. The Commission accepted the argument and its first three complaints challenged deceptive claims.

Internally, though, the Commission was in disarray, for reasons that went to core issues of antitrust policy, the FTC's role in implementing that policy, and personalities. The first disputants were Rublee and Davies. Rublee served only a recess appointment, the Republicans weren't happy about not getting a commissioner, and he left in September 1916. He suspected that Davies actively opposed his confirmation. Meanwhile, Davies had engineered a vote at the first Commission meeting naming himself Chairman for seven years, and Rublee then turned around and organized a coup to depose him.

After that, the commissionership rotated

annually and the Chairman had no special powers. This created some problems then as the years went on. Each commissioner took administrative responsibility for certain units within the Agency. In 1947, they even decided to trade units every year. Commissioners voted on promotions and performance ratings at meetings. And the situation stayed that way until 1950 when we've heard it changed.

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Rublee and Davies also clashed on substance.

Speaking in 1926, Rublee outlined three bones of contention. He didn't want deception cases. He didn't think Section 5 reached horizontal restraints, a voluntary combination or contract putting an end to competition. That would have eliminated a lot from our jurisdiction. Further, he didn't want to give advance advice to business, which Hurley and Davies did want to do. And Wilson had pushed very hard on this notion of helping business, at one point inviting businessmen to turn to the men of the Federal Trade Commission who would tell them to go on rather than the lawyers at the Justice Department who would tell them to stop.

Hurley assumed the chairmanship when Davies lost it. But Hurley told a business conference when he was offered a spot on the Commission, "I told the President that all I knew was business, that I knew nothing about

the new laws nor the old ones and that I would apply all the force that I had in the name of business." He added that German industry became safe when the government sanctioned cartels.

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Hurley pressed for uniform cost accounting, so that businessmen could better understand the workings of their own operations. The Commissioners approved this basic program, but they were shocked when they learned in December 1916 that he approved specific cost accounting plans that facilitated industry coordination. Davies also learned that Hurley held discussions to make the Secretary of Commerce permanent FTC Chairman. In any event, Hurley soon resigned.

Wilson's later appointees worked better together than his initial selections. Indeed, they worked together through most of the next administration. They included Victor Murdock, who had headed the Progressive contingent in Congress for two years after ten years as a Republican representative. They included two Democrats, Huston Thompson, a Justice Department litigator, and John Nugent, who had been elected to a short Senate seat in 1918 and defeated in 1920, and when Wilson nominated him in 1921, he was confirmed, even though Wilson and he were both lame ducks, through Senatorial courtesy. Nugent later ran for his old Senate

seat. Without resigning from the Commission, he conducted a

Senate campaign. He lost.

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Wilson appointees dominated the Commission until 1925 and that was part of his problem in the 1920s. They were out of sync with the rest of the government. But the balance shifted dramatically in 1925 when William Humphrey arrived. Humphrey was confrontational. He had an unusual approach to Congressional relations. For example, he wrote a Congressman a letter in which identified his the Congressman's favored weapon the jawbone made famous by Samson. He was also gratuitously offensive at Commission meetings. In 1926, the Commission and Justice Department both sued Continental Baking over a series of acquisitions. The Department settled, but a condition was that the Commission dismiss its case. Humphrey demanded an immediate vote, denying Nugent a day to study the papers. Humphrey also tried to stop investigations directed by the Senate, arguing that the Commission should not respond to resolutions by a single house of Congress.

Humphrey did have an affirmative agenda. He aggressively backed challenge to fraud, for example, and pressed the Cm mission to name magazine publishers as respondents. He also expanded the trade practice

big cases which, a lot of good and harm can be done through 1 2 smaller cases.

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Still, it focuses on some issues that did matter at the time. For example, a dozen stories in the summer of 1917 discussed the Commission's role in shifting to a wartime economy, showing the Commission was playing an important, non-case role at the time. In a two-year period in late 1917, eight front-page stories covered the FTC investigation of meat packers. In the early 1920s, the FTC remained prominent through a series of investigations and cases, including challenges to base point pricing and the Alcoa Corporation. Coverage remained high in the mid-1920s, though, by then, it often focused on Congressional criticism of the Commission.

In 1929, though, press coverage dropped dramatically. The one exception involved the utilities investigation -- which Congress directed the FTC to do because some Senators wanted to divert an investigation that other Senators themselves wanted to do. Black, who was then a Senator. Insisted the investigation be made publicly. It made constant headlines. The utilities 2nl7108 0 hred(n2in) T, j Swi7th Ocal Commissioner presiding, produced five front

1	on, in particular. First of all, the Commission's press
2	coverage dropped substantially for nearly two decades.
3	I'm sorry about bypassing the '30s. In contrast to
4	substantial coverage during World War I, only two first-page
5	stories covered the Commission in World War II: During
6	a cigarette shortage, the Commission acted to ensure an
7	adequate supply for soldiers.
8	Coverage picked up after the war, though. The 1952
9	oil cartel report drew some attention. But the real key to
10	the 1950s was television. For the first time, with television
11	advertising, consumer protection became important.
12	Finally, to lead into Ed's discussion, things
13	pick up in the '60s, there are a lot of strong
14	initiatives that develop despite the criticisms that
15	were made at the time. But after the next
16	administration, during the Nixon and Ford
17	administrations, it stepped up even more dramatically in
18	part because of the work Ed and others did.
19	Thank you.
20	(Applause.)
21	MR. COX: You saw that peak up there?
22	(Laughter.)
23	MR. COX: That was us. I think it was Adlai
24	Stephenson who said that every speaker gives three
25	speeches. The first speech is the one that he prepares,

the second speech is the one that he gives, and the third speech is the one that he wished he had given afterwards.

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And as I was thinking about what I would do here, because we were going -- I was going back 36 years, I didn't want to rely just on memory, so I've done a prepared speech here, and I generally don't like to do that.

There's a story of a President of the United
States who had an event coming up. He wanted a
15-minute speech for it and he called his speechwriter
and said, I would like to have a 15-minute speech for
this event and here's what I need, and came the day of
the event and the President of the United States walked
out of the Oval Office, got in his car, as he went in
and the speech writer handed him the speech, went to the
event and he started speaking. At the end of 15
minutes, he still had more to go; at then end of 20
minutes, he was still going; half an hour, people
started leaving, started walking out of the room on the
President of the United States.

And 45 minutes later, the speech was over to a small smattering of applause and the room was half empty. Well, he didn't take that too well and went back to the White House and called in the speechwriter and

said, look, I wanted a 15-minute speech, you gave me a
45-minute speech. The speechwriter responded,

Mr. President, I gave you a 15-minute speech and two
copies. Well, although this is prepared and I do have

some copies, I hope it won't go that way.

(Laughter.)

MR. COX: But it was 36 years ago, the year was 1968, and there was a whiff of revolution in the air. This was the year of the TET offensives by the Vietcong, in a war fought by a draftee Army, a war that had gone on too long, a year President Johnson declined to run for another term, the year of the tragic assassinations of Bobby Kennedy and Martin Luther King, the year race riots in our major cities and riots within and without the Democratic Convention in Chicago, as new political forces jousted with the old.

And more relevant to this 90th Anniversary

Symposium, 1968 was the year that Ralph Nader assembled a group of seven students to do a summer study of the Federal Trade Commission, a study which resulted in a self-styled student task force report which received extensive press coverage when the report was issued in January 1969. All the student volunteers had just graduated from or were attending either Yale or Harvard Law School with the exception of myself, who had just

graduated from Princeton. Judy said that this was college students, I was the only one I guess who could qualify since I had just graduated from college. All the others were really very high-powered graduates of law schools or who were about to graduate from law school.

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I enrolled in Nader's seminar the prior year at Princeton, had been impressed by his insights and the workings of our political processes and had used him as the informal advisor for my senior thesis. While the most junior member of this team that he assembled, I had by far the most working experience with Nader and in the end was one of three of the students who saw the project through to the end and one of two who continued to work with Nader as he organized the hundreds of students who came to Washington the next summer to replicate what we had done with the FTC in task force reports on other federal agencies.

In the fall of 1969, I entered law school and went on to other things. I did not give any significant thought to or interact in any significant way with either the FTC or Nader until I was invited to participate in this symposium. I can only liken my preparation for this as the opening of a time capsule, a time capsule full of things that I knew intimately at

the time and now have the opportunity to measure in light of 35 years of subsequent FTC history and my own personal experiences.

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For the subsequent FTC history, I am very indebted to Marc for his patient tutoring over the phone and source references, and to the thoughtful writings of Richard Harris and Sid Milkis, among others, on the subject.

So, in this context, what is the significance of the Nader report? I will let others speak, others with a more measured and experienced perspective than mine. Harris and Milkis in their book, the Politics of Regulatory Change, make this observation, and I quote, "The Nader Report's criticism of the FTC was not especially radical or novel. The direct impact, however, was surprising. It sparked a series of political actions that eventually revitalized the Agency."

Justin Martin, in his more sort of colloquial book on Nader, published in 2002 wrote, "Nader's FTC raid really did accomplish something, his seven children

1	still has that constituency of the consumer movement.
2	Lastly, and this is predicting the future, and
3	this doesn't necessarily concern the FTC, but it's
4	interesting. "During the summer of 1969," he concludes,

1	criticism. This is a person who was looking into the
2	future and built something and we, the students who
3	worked with him on the Federal Trade Commission report,
4	were part of that. Were his instruments, I could say,
5	in doing that.
6	So, what did we actually do? Well, we read
	ents who

One early turning point, before that incident, which no doubt initiated and irritated Chairman Dixon very much, was an article in the Wall Street Journal which I generated by finding in a search of the personnel files, and that -- what we discovered, there was a purely patronage office in Oak Ridge, Tennessee, which was manned by a friend of Chairman Dixon's, a certain Judge Castro C. Gear.

Nader told me to take the information to Jerry Landauer. I don't know if many of you remember Jerry Landauer, he was one of the great muckraking reporters on the Wall Street Journal at the time. I will never forget the scene, Landauer, cigarette in his mouth, on the telephone, calling various sources to confirm and supplement the information which I had given him and pounding out the story on his typewriter, and all the time while he was doing this saying, oh, that poor fellow, talking about Judge Gear.

Let me just read to you the way that interview between Landauer and Judge Gear on the telephone went. He started off, let me just say, by calling Judge Gear's boss, who could not say precisely what kind of work occupied Judge Gear, but adding parenthetically, but I understand there's a good deal of work down there in Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

The telephone interview with the Judge himself proceeded as follows. Landauer: What date was the Oak Ridge office open? Judge Gear: You will have to get that information from the central office. Landauer: What type of work primarily occupies you? Judge Gear: You will have to get that information from the central office. Landauer: You mean to say that they know more about your work in Washington than you do in Oak Ridge? Judge Gear: Well, they have the first hand information there.

Long pause.

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Landauer: Is it an FTC policy to release all information only through the central office? Judge

Gear: Pause. I don't know if it is or not. Landauer:

On what grounds, then, do you refuse to give even the most innocuous information? Judge Gear: You'll have to get that information from the central office.

(Laughter.)

MR. COX: So, that gives you a flavor of what we did. What resulted was what I guess they would call these days in campaigns a lot of earned media, which was priceless to our cause. And Dixon didn't help himself by noisily trying to shut us down. It didn't work either. Phil Elman opened all his files to us, regardless of what the Chairman said. And right down

through the staff, there were lots of good people then, who were willing to talk to us, who wanted to help us, they wanted the Commission to become what it could be, what its basic powers and the way it was meant to be, would come to fruition.

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We finished our interviews and our work, being students we had to go back to school. September came. And although we had -- there was a spate of articles talking about it and then it was Nader's Neophytes, they hadn't quite gotten to Nader's Raiders, but we had a Christmas vacation and we came back then to produce the report, and I'll never forget, it was a very intensive time. I slept four hours a night in the basement of my brother's -- he was here working at systems analysis at the Pentagon, and we just worked around the clock and produced a nearly two-hundred page report that Nader whipped up the interest of the press in it and they eagerly awaited it.

I remember driving around at 3:00 in the morning, driving a Volkswagen, I didn't know how to use the stick shift really, going through red lights, with Ralph Nader seated next to me without a seat belt on.

(Laughter.)

MR. COX: The thought that went through my mind, it could all be over in a minute. And then after we

released our report, later on there were, of course,
extensive news articles and then hearings before a

Senate committee, which really was very congratulatory,
Ribicoff and others saying what wonderful kids we are to
volunteer this time and do all this great work.

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And Willie Taft, with a wonderful sense of humor, raised his hand and said, Senator, I would like to make a comment. Pause, silence in the hearing room.

I would like to thank my parents who supported me during this time.

In the next month, in April 1969, pursuant to the request, this is -- the hearing was in March of '69, in April '69, pursuant to a request of the recently elected President Nixon, the American Bar Association appointed a Blue Ribbon Commission to study the FTC and produce a report. The findings of the ABA report, which was delivered by the ABA to President Nixon on time in December of 1969, largely confirmed our findings, although as I quoted before, from a historian in more temperate language.

Now, President Nixon's foreign policy initiatives are well known, but Richard Nixon is also the President who much to the consternation of his political base, not only went to China, but also established the EPA, signed OSHA and Title IX with

respect to equality for women in athletics on campuses, signed those two acts into law, established the Consumer Product Safety Commission, and reduced the percentage of segregated schools in the south from 90 percent to 10 percent, quietly, but got it done, the only way to do it, thereby recognizing respectively the environmental movement, with the EPA, the workers safety movement, with OSHA, the women's rights movement, Title IX, the product safety movement, with respect to the Consumer Product Safety Commission, and the civil rights movement. It was only logical that President Nixon's administration would pick up on the imperativeness of the consumer group, when the noise made by Nader report on the FTC, put the FTC on the front burner.

According to Harris and Milkis, after seeing the ABA report in September of 1969, President Nixon, in his October 30, 1969 special message to Congress on consumer protection, in a remarkable demonstration of bipartisan support for consumers, the President called for the adoption of a buyer's bill of rights, called for the -- and unlike the Kennedy and Johnson presidencies, Nixon took direct action, according to Harris and Milkis, to strengthen the commitment to consumer protection at the FTC.

Endorsing the recommendations of the ABA report,

most importantly, attracting very capable young
attorneys with a strong commitment to consumer
protection.

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In the summer of 1970, Weinberger moved out to be Deputy Director of the budget and Miles Kirkpatrick, who had chaired the ABA Commission on the Federal Trade Commission, succeeded Weinberger as Chairman and continued the reforms. The rerigging, remanning and redirection of the FTC ship by these Republican appointed Chairmen was accomplished against the backdrop of what Harris and Milkis describe as a loosely organized, but influential coalition of consumer advocates among House and Senate members, a talented and programmatically ambitious Congressional staff, an aggressive core of investigative and advocacy journalists, an elaborate network of consumer public interest groups.

It was this coalition that in the '73 to '76 period passed the Alaska Pipeline Act and the Magnusson Moss Act, both of which gave the FTC new enforcement powers, as well as such consumer advocacy programs as the Intervener Funding Program.

While Nader gave great kudos to we students who produced the Nader Report, Nader received the credit generally, and properly, for the report. It was a

political force and specific assistance of this

coalition that made our report and its ultimate impacts

possible. It was also this coalition that put an

increasingly strong consumer movement wind behind the

FTC's sails, culminating in Mike Pertschuk's

administration under President Carter.

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For the better part of two years, in which I did my thesis for Nader, did the FTC report and then worked as a journalist at the New Republic and organized the 1969 summer of Nader's student task force, I was right in the middle, although not always a part of this coalition of consumer advocates. The very success of this coalition during President Carter's administration resulted in squabbles in overreaching from unseemingly impregnable positions of power. The coalition lost most of its momentum and the FTC was ready for new leadership.

With the election of Reagan in 1980, the consumer movement and the FTC were subject to a whole new set of forces, which go beyond my experience and competency to comment on.

In conclusion, I see three basic views of the Federal Trade Commission. One holds that the free market can sort out the problems which the FTC was designed to solve, and therefore, it should be

2	The FTC came into being in 1914, under President
3	Wilson's New Freedom administration, as Marc pointed
4	out, but its legislative design, giving it broad
5	regulatory authority over the entire economy smacks more
6	of Teddy Roosevelt's New Nationalism. The result is
7	that those of you who are privileged to staff it have
8	front row seats to view and be potential actors in the
9	great drama and success story of our ever-evolving

And I have to say that it was a privilege for me
to have played a small role in the re-invigoration of
the Federal Trade Commission and in this great and
fascinating drama 36 years ago. Thank you.

15 (Applause.)

Not Call success.

American economy.

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MR. KOVACIC: I want to start today by
recognizing three intellectual debts. The first is that

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Federal Trade Commission and a very informative one.

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Second, my debt to Ernie Gellhorn, whose work on this subject really set me in the motion of looking both at quantitative measures of performance and really as the inspiration for much of the work that I have done in the area and the person who in many ways taught me to be a teacher.

And third, Marc Winerman. Marc recently has been named Counsel for Special and Historical Studies at the FTC. Marc is both special and an expert in historical studies and after this symposium will be beginning his year as a Victor Kramer Fellow, which is one of the most distinguished honors that a career staff person of the FTC or the Department of Justice can hold. And the daily seminar in the hallways that Marc has provided me over time is, in many ways, a source of insight for my presentation today.

What I would like to look at is the basic question of how we evaluate performance over time. And I would like to look, as Ernie mentioned before, at the vast literature on the Commission. It's fair to say that the academic literature that looks at the Federal Trade Commission easily exceeds the literature on any other federal government regulatory body. It's unmistakably voluminous and has been, literally over

L	decades from the very time of the Agency's creation, an
2	extraordinarily powerful source of attraction for
3	commentators.

But an issue that all of this literature begs is, how do we measure the performance of public institutions? The commonly used test that shows up in many instances, both more serious and scholarly and popular, is that it is the big case that really matters. Discreet enforcement events. But this neglects -- and this is really the theme of my talk today -- crucial

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students become completely somnolent. Audiences at conferences start flipping through the program to see if there are concurrent sessions they can attend, start making lunch plans, but in so many ways, this is the vital infrastructure that determines the success of an institution over time.

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I want to suggest the importance, distilling this literature, of developing a norm, a standard that applauds officials for making capital investments in institutional capability that is truly to plant the trees rather than to simply grab the low-hanging fruit. That's an idiot bit of advice to policymakers. If you don't plant trees, you starve after a generation or so.

And last, to improve the role of historical understanding, which is a crucial -- has a crucial role to play in formulating policy over time and, indeed, is a key theme of this entire symposium.

By way of overview, I want to give you a quick summary of the key commentaries spanning nine decades to identify key institutional lessons and to offer my own report card that comes out of this body of commentary

three baskets, the first are large blue ribbon panels of the kind assembled at President Nixon's request in 1969 by the ABA; the 1949 report of the Hoover Commission, being perhaps second in importance in this category.

A second being non-government organizations, Ralph Nader's group in '69, the 1989 report of the ABA called Kirkpatrick II, sometimes reports that are not published, which set in motion the Kirkpatrick Report in 1989, was a separate report that the antitrust section had commissioned in 1987 and '88. What resulted, and this is for a group of us who are basically alumni from the late 1970s and the early 1980s, working on a variety of matters and then independently putting together different pieces, it was a scathing assessment of what the Commission had done. So scathing that the ABA decided not to publish it on its own, but instead set in motion the 1989 Kirkpatrick II report.

Last have been individual contributions.

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Nader's introduction in the Nader Report is a single sentence that says, we're not talking about competition policy here. It was focused on consumer protection, although its institutional concerns spread well beyond the boundaries of the consumer protection mission.

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What are the main recurring themes in these reports? Let me simply summarize some of the principal observations they've made over time. The first is that the Commission was afflicted with inadequate planning. And I think the basic core of the criticism here is one that policymakers have to continue to take into account. Indeed, it comes from even the earliest works, and Henderson's work gets this very well.

When I worked with transition economies, I encourage them to read Henderson's book. It's written in 1924, it's a decade after the adoption of the statute and it's a marvelous account of what a new institution, even with favorable initial conditions, good judicial system, respect for the rule of law, administrative propriety standards that ensure that individual government officials, for the most part, are going to act in an honest way, despite those initial conditions, Henderson documents what a new institution of this type is likely to face.

And one of the key points that came out of his

volume and is emphasized in subsequent work is that if you don't have a metric, a process, a strategy, for deciding what you're going to do, you will be buried over time by what simply comes into the door. You will be completely reactive, you will have no capacity to sort out the trivial from the important, you will be utterly ineffective.

And sadly, it's only in the comparatively modern era that the Commission gets ahead of this flow of work and starts to put in place a conscious process for deciding what it will do and how it will do it.

A second basic theme deals with the cumbersomeness of the procedures for administrative adjudication and for the routine execution of work. And I have to admit, this remains still a sore spot. Why? A key assumption in the formation of the Commission is that it would have a comparative advantage, not simply with respect to substantive analysis, but with respect to speed in the treatment of competition and consumer protection matters, and a continuing battle and a continuing area for improvement which is identified throughout the commentary and I think quite rightly, is that conceptual general ambition in many respects still hasn't been realized and practiced, although there's been dramatic, dramatic progress in that respect.

Steve Calkins, who will wrap up this session, played an enormous role in setting in motion internal administrative reforms and adjustment in procedures.

Although I don't think we're at the point where Congress expected us to be in 1914 in this respect, what is promising is that the modern trend has featured significant progress in that direction.

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The third basic objection was poor transparency, and here, again, there's a powerful lesson for any new competition authority. The Commission's early decisions, and if you flip through the early FTC reports, you see this, are extraordinarily cryptic in their treatment of the issues before them.

And the basic message that came out of the commentary is that if you want to obtain deference from reviewing tribunals, you have to provide a compelling basis to obtain the deference. Notwithstanding the formal standard that gives you deference with respect to substantial evidence. The basic message of the commentaries, quite properly, I think, is you get the deference you deserve, notwithstanding the legal standard. That has to be earned all the time, if it were a mathematics exam, you've got to show your work in a way that convinces the instructor that you've done good work.

The fourth observation deals with ineffective management. Partly as a matter of the overall government design, but partly as the manner in which individual managers at the most senior levels of the Agency allocated their time and did their work.

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Marc has pointed already to what may be the single most important administrative adjustment, government-wide, and for the Commission in its history. It's the Reorganization Act of 1950. Think for a moment of what Marc described about the leadership and management of the Commission until 1950. The chairmanship shifts every single year. And the individual Commissioners, much like feudal lords, have control over individual bureaus and individual programs, so that you do not have a program developed over time under the supervision of an individual Commission Chairman who is going to be doing this for several years. With the accountability that comes through it, every year it's up for grabs.

And if you want to ask why did the Commission stumble about so badly in doing the first thing on this line, the Commission designed before 1950 ensured that the planning was in 12-month cycles, at best. It didn't go beyond that.

A key lesson about how institutional design

directly affects substantive outcomes, the '50
Reorganization Act, which allowed the President to
designate the chair, so that you would have a chair that
would serve more than 12-month terms, instead of having
the continuing disruptions over time, was a vital
adjustment.

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Poor integration of economics and law. Again, a basis for creating the Commission in 1914 is that it would have a comparative advantage over public institutions because it would have a large body of researchers and the research would inform the development of competition and consumer protection programs over time. Realizing the integration of those two sets of capabilities has remained a challenge over time, but the awareness, I think, in the modern era, beginning in the 1960s, about the importance, the possibilities for doing that, has promoted adjustments.

And last the continuing criticism of the personnel of the Commission, this I think is the most important single contribution of the Nader Report. The Nader Report motivated a fundamental change in the model by which the Agency recruited and retained personnel.

There are painful instances in the '69 report in which Rand Dixon, and he not only told it to the Nader folks, he told it to others, said that is my philosophy

for hiring: I can hire really good people out of

school, but they'll go away. I want to hire people who

will not go away. Unlike the Air Force, which aims

high, I'm going to be like the Navy and dive deep. I'm

going to penetrate those lower strata of the class,

people who are inert and will stay forever.

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The Nader Report motivated a basic change in the model, and we have come to live with, to accept, to deal with the fact of continuing turnover and rotation, but that shock to the system, the exogenous shock that established a different internal norm was absolutely indispensable to the transformation of the Agency's human capital over time.

These are the benefits, these are the recurring themes, I'm now going to talk about things I don't like about the earlier studies and flaws that, perhaps, obscure other things we have to do. A couple of different types.

First, bad history. What do you see in lots of the studies? You see the rote recitation of earlier studies. And I understand what's going on, they didn't have the time to go back and really dig through original sources that Marc did, they take the earlier study and take the punch line and say it's still true, still true, still true.

But what don't you have in the earlier studies?
You don't have common agreement about what the Agency
ought to be doing, except some generalized view that it
ought to do stuff that's important. Do important stuff.

Henderson's punch line, for example, that the Agency spends too much time on trivial matters highlights this. Henderson thought consumer protection was pointless. Don't worry about deception, why are you wasting time on these advertising cases? The unmistakable inference of Henderson's work is that everything ought to be channeled in the direction of competition policy, period. Yet, every subsequent author recites Henderson's words, quote that says, "the same criticism is true today," yet none of these authors, I think, really parsed his work to see that he was really talking about having an antitrust agency only, nothing to do with consumer protection.

Weak data in many of the stories. David Hyman, my colleague in the General Counsel's Office, now at the University of Illinois, is fond of telling me, in God we trust, all others provide data. Too many of the formative studies rely on impressionistic assessments of authors without giving you the specific cases that would inform your judgment about what they're thinking about. In so many instances, no context is provided. Criticism

- did not take account -- and I've got a CF site to Tom
- 2 McCraw at the bottom. Tom McCraw, just about 25 years
- ago, held a wonderful seminar at the FTC on industry.
- 4 Tom McCraw said, regulatory experiments must be judged

isn't like that. There's a lot more continuity, many
more links over time.

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Second, bad political science. I mean, this literature for the most part ignores the political constraints and forces that operate upon the Commission. The Cement Institute case was the product of a textbook effort to do good research and channel it into a case, regardless of whether you think it was a good case or not. By contemporary standards, it was a great job. The Commission was almost turned into the city's largest three-sided swimming pool by Congress, because it brought the Cement Institute case. Commentators don't talk about that dynamic. The force of Congressional oversight, the fact of judicial oversight.

The best book on this score is Thomas Blaisdell book in '32, points this out and says, ah, this broad collection of powers comes with it some fairly powerful limitations and dangers. Trying to use it is going to require not just technical proficiency, but extraordinary political adroitness. And they had a sense of public management in many instances.

This literature suggests there are no upward limits on capacity, but if you do one good thing, you can immediately do another. It's like thinking on the basis of Do Not Call that Do Not Spam is right around

the corner. You went to the moon yesterday, you're
going to go to Mars next month, aren't you, and Saturn
after that. No sense that doing one thing well
immediately means you can do a natural extension to
something else immediately. And it ignores the
cumulative nature of policy.

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A couple of conclusions about lessons. What would my report card look like? Coming out of this, first, one basic institutional criterion, do you have a good strategic plan? Are your goals well-identified? Not just for internal discussion, but external debate and analysis.

Second, are you tracking the nature and type of cases you're bringing and are you following their outcomes? Following their outcomes is very important. There is a tendency in this city, and I have participated in this, to grade policymakers by the number of things they start. That's like measuring the effectiveness of an airline by the number of flight take offs. Landings, not our problem.

In economic terms, there is a tremendous capacity there. If you're not internalizing the results, in effect, to impose huge external costs on your Agency. You don't fill out the score card, at best, when any individual chair leaves, the grade is an

incomplete, because you don't know until years later what the actual grade is.

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Are you evaluating advocacy initiatives and outcomes in the same way? Are you investigating capability and knowledge base that gives you the credibility to persuade courts to know what you're doing, to persuade judges that you know what you're doing over time? Are you displaying information about what you're doing? Are you putting information into the public domain so you can engage in a public debate?

There's a natural reticence to do this, to do after-the-fact assessments in a candid way. But if you're afraid that your ideas are too fragile to withstand scrutiny, then maybe, maybe in that instance it's time to get some better ideas. So, to put information into the public domain is an important good practice that comes out of this. And, finally, a commitment to do after-the-fact assessments.

How did the story end? What were the consequences both with respect to process and outputs? Implication for good leadership. What should good leaders do based upon this literature? You maximize positive externalities for the Agency and new leaders in the future. You make their lives better, as well as those of the employees.

1	You engage in a continuing process of
2	self-assessment and you promote critical public debate.
3	In short, we're not really in the business of looking
4	for best practices. So, to say best practices suggests
5	that there's a final fixed destination, it's a
6	continuing search for better practices, and that's what
7	I think the literature says we ought to do.
8	Thank you.

1	audience, others by my sitting and listening here. One
2	of the things that's sort of unique in this area, both
3	in antitrust and consumer protection, is we have more
4	than one federal agency addressing the question. We've

partly as a bit of experimentation diversification,
partly, certainly, as a matter of legislative interest
in having its own institution. That is an unmistakable
part of the original legislative design. I would say
that, you know, I have to come clean on this, it's
awkward to be an academic and take these jobs.

In 1997, I wrote a paper that talked about dual enforcement and the discussion said, hey, you know, on the other hand, you've got to pick. I said, well, okay, I'll add a conclusion, I'll say if there had to be one agency in antitrust, that it should be the Department of Justice. Now, I wrote the thing at a time before, he back peddles, damn electronic databases.

(Laughter.)

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MR. KOVACIC: But at the time that I did hedge in the paper and say there's some very interesting things happening that are serving in many respects that couldn't realize the basic game of the institutional design. And if I had to back off or reassess my earlier suggestion, I think the rationale for the diversification has been realized more in practice than modern nature.

1	as consumer protection. Securities and Exchange
2	Commission, I'm a securities lawyer, that's a completely
3	different analysis, way of doing things, different
4	marketplace, one that wouldn't even though it came
5	out of the Federal Trade Commission, it was initially
6	organized at the Federal Trade Commission, it would not
	be one that should be consolidated as paras paras paras parsnot

government has a DNA, a basic DNA of how it was 1 conceived and put together, and the FTC came out of the 3 Bureau of Corporations, and you go through Marc's history of it, and then it ran into World War I and then 4 it ran into the conservative '20s and then it ran into the judicial problems -- the problems that President Roosevelt had with the Supreme Court and the New Deal and that's the way it was born, if you will, and that makes it a confusing history.

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The SEC came out of the crash of 1929, huge problems in the security industry, something had to be done, and a basic disclosure, if you will, with respect to the '33 Act, an agency to assure proper disclosure was established. And that was, it was born cleanly, if you will. And that's what gives it the continuity. mission was clear, it was a good mission and it didn't overreach. If you talk to Louie Loss about 10(B)(5), he drafted it in a couple of hours. Very simple. of judicial interpretations of it. But the mission has been consistent from the start. The Federal Trade Commission, much different DNA.

> MR. GELLHORN: Marc?

MR. WINERMAN: Well, two thoughts, first of all, it's much easier to measure the success of the SEC because you're dealing with a more limited universe.

1	The Commission's universe, and particularly on the
2	consumer protection side, because that's where the
3	comparison is a broader universe and
4	UNIDENTIFIED SPEAKER: Use the mic.
5	MR. WINERMAN: I'm sorry. Is a broader
6	universe, and in addition, much of the work that the FTC
7	does, for example, creating databases for state and
8	federal agencies to work together, is more or less
9	invisible and the state and federal regulators realize
10	it but the general populous wouldn't.
11	And I guess I would also point out that the SEC,
12	I believe it's Joel Salzman, who is the historian of the
13	SEC, points out that the first four Chairmen were Joe
14	Kennedy, James Landis, William Douglas and Jerome Frank,
15	and in the '40s, the Agency completely tanked when it
16	was relocated in Philadelphia, so they are not without
17	their own peaks and valleys.
18	MR. GELLHORN: Well, that leads to sort of do we
19	have explanations of the Commission's peaks and valleys?

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out some of the things that he did, the broad mandate of

that is, let's assume you're attending the 100th one ten years from now, and I hope we all are here, what would you expect different to be said at the 100th than at the 90th? I tried to stump the panel.

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MR. COX: I would hope, following what Bill said, I don't think there's any best practices, period. I think what Jefferson said about we need a little revolution every 30 years is right. That's basically what I think you were saying, Bill. And if you don't have a little revolution every 30 years, you're going to have a big revolution. I would hope that things would have changed by then. In the next ten years, I don't know what it would be, but because of that change, the Commission will be as energized as it is now.

MR. WINERMAN: I guess I would say that the terms of the various competition debates won't change, but although the terms won't change, I would hope that the Commission continues to participate vigorously in the debates and react to the debates and initiate parts of the debate, and on the consumer protection side, particularly the Commission stays highly adaptable to technology, both in their use of the furtherance of the Commission and in preventing the abuses of those technologies, and again, the changes in front of us, but hopefully the Commission will continue to look after

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So, on that, I think it's just very important that you have the variety and I think that's what Congress had in mind. Every European country has this kind of a jurisdiction, not the kind of litigation things that we do.

On planning, one of the experiences that I had trying to plan was that the lawyers are not planners. They're not comfortable with doing that, they want to adjudicate facts, and if you're going to get real planning into this Commission, you've got to find a way of loosening up the Commissioners.

Now, Chris White took our planning thing and turned it into the absolute first hand, which was an information system. We didn't even have that at that time. So, we did make some progress. But I just think it's terribly important and I'm sorry to intervene, but I needed to say something.

(Applause.)

MR. GELLHORN: I'm sure I speak for every one when I say thank you very much. And to the panel, I don't think we have to wait ten years to make a judgment. Thank you very much.

MS. BAILEY: Thank you. We'll take a break until 11:15 and then we'll hear from our next panel.

1 (Applause.)