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**The Net Neutrality Debate:
Twenty Five Years After *United States v. AT&T* and 120
Years After the *Act to Regulate Commerce***

By

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Executive Summary

Apparent ignorance of more than a century of economic history now threatens the competitive constitution of the Internet under the guise of “net neutrality.” Net neutrality is a slogan that stands for the proposition that the Internet and physical means of access to it should be available to all on uniform, non-discriminatory terms. Proponents of net neutrality fear, first, that access to bottlenecks, such as the “last mile” to the home, will be monopolized and second, that the successful monopolist will seek to favor its own vertical services by excluding or disfavoring others. Net neutrality is their answer to these threats. But the architects of the concept of net neutrality have simply resurrected the traditional naïve “common carrier” solution to the threats they fear. By choosing new words to describe a solution discredited by experience, the architects and economic interests supporting net neutrality may mislead themselves and others into repeating a policy error much more likely to harm consumers than to promote competition and innovation.

Net neutrality policies could only be implemented through detailed price regulation, an approach that has often failed, in the past, to improve consumer welfare relative to what might have been expected under an unregulated monopoly. Regulatory agencies often settle into a well-established pattern of subservience to politically influential economic interests. Consumers, would-be entrants and innovators are not likely to be among these influential groups.

History thus counsels against adoption of most versions of net neutrality, at least in the absence of refractory monopoly power and strong evidence of anticompetitive behavior—extreme cases justifying dangerous, long shot remedies.

I. Introduction

Apparent ignorance of more than a century of economic and regulatory history now threatens the competitive constitution of the Internet under the guise of “net neutrality.” Net neutrality is a slogan that stands for the proposition that the Internet and physical means of access to it should be available to all on uniform, non-discriminatory terms. Some net neutrality proponents go further, and argue that firms providing physical components of the Internet should not be permitted to offer different qualities of service, even if prices differ accordingly, and even if any customer can opt for any quality of service.

Proponents of net neutrality fear, first, that access to bottlenecks, such as the “last mile” to the home, will be monopolized and second, that the successful monopolist will seek to favor its own vertical services by excluding or disfavoring others. Net neutrality is their answer to these threats. But the architects of the concept of net neutrality have invented nothing new. They have simply resurrected the traditional but uncommonly naïve “common carrier” solution to the threats they fear. By choosing new words to describe a solution already well understood by another name, the economic interests supporting net neutrality may mislead themselves and others into repeating a policy error much more likely to harm consumers than to promote competition and innovation.

Net neutrality policies could only be implemented through detailed price regulation, an approach that has generally failed, in the past, to improve consumer welfare relative to what might have been expected under an unregulated monopoly. Worse, regulatory agencies often settle into a well-established pattern of subservience to politically influential economic interests. Consumers, would-be entrants and innovators are not likely to be among these influential groups. History thus counsels against adoption of most versions of net neutrality, at least in the absence of refractory monopoly power and strong evidence of anticompetitive behavior—extreme cases justifying dangerous, long shot remedies. My goal in this note is to add an historical perspective to the framing of the net neutrality debate. 1

II. Lessons of History

History, of course, can be a useful adjunct to analysis of policy alternatives. Proponents of net neutrality may recognize their own fears and goals, for example, in the following 120-year-old statement:

... [T]he paramount evil chargeable against the operation of the transportation system of the United States as now conducted is unjust discrimination between

persons, places, commodities, or particular descriptions of traffic. The underlying purpose and aim of the [proposed legislation] is the prevention of these discriminations. . . .²

This is from the legislative history of the first modern attempt by the federal government to regulate directly the behavior of large firms, in this case railroads. The result was the 1887 Act to Regulate Commerce, which contained this key provision:

[I]t shall be unlawful for any common carrier [railroad] subject to the provisions of this act to make or give any undue or unreasonable preference or advantage to any particular person, company, firm, corporation, or locality, or any particular description of traffic, in any respect whatsoever, or to subject any particular person, company, firm, corporation, or locality, or any particular description of traffic, to any undue or unreasonable prejudice or disadvantage in any respect whatsoever.³

This and subsequent legislation gave the now-defunct Interstate Commerce Commission (ICC) the power to prevent discrimination of the kind feared by proponents of net neutrality. The policy did not work. Railroads continued to discriminate, charging different prices for hauling different commodities. Railroad tariffs grew longer and more complex each decade. In the end, before it was abolished in 1995, the ICC was little more than the titular head of a series of highly discriminatory and dysfunctional regional transport cartels. There are few today who believe that this century-long experiment with regulation achieved net benefits for Americans.

We have more recent evidence in telecommunications itself of the intractable difficulty of preventing discrimination, in this case by vertically integrated monopolies. Few historical events resonate in telecommunications policy with the clarity of the 1982 settlement that terminated the trial in *U.S. v. AT&T*.⁴ Old AT&T agreed to settle by accepting the entire relief package sought by the government.⁵ The relief called for a platonically pure structural disintegration and future isolation of the local Bell telephone monopolies from the competitive services then offered by AT&T, including long distance service and equipment manufacturing. The reason: regulation had failed to prevent discrimination against AT&T's competitors.

III. The Specter of Vertical Integration

The current net neutrality debate has taken place in the rhetorical equivalent of the fog of war. The originators of the debate chose to invent new language to describe both a familiar economic problem and a familiar legal and regulatory solution to that problem.⁶ Much of the popular writing by pro-neutrality advocates is maddeningly vague and heavy with sloganeering. Their argument seems tailored chiefly for political effect, rather than analytical rigor. It has taken several years for scholars on both sides to penetrate the fog.

Translated into the language used by economists, the debate is about preventing bad (anti-competitive) behavior by vertically integrated firms that enjoy market power at one stage or another of the vertical chain of production. For example, Alcoa, which once enjoyed a U.S. monopoly on aluminum ingot, was accused by the Justice Department in the 1930s of foreclosing competition in certain fabricated aluminum products. Alcoa made and sold fabricated products in competition with independent firms, for which Alcoa was the only source of ingot. The government's idea was that Alcoa could charge a high price for its ingot and thus impose a price floor on its competitors, in effect cartelizing the fabricated products businesses. Later in the 20th century antitrust lawyers and many economists began to find this sort of problem under virtually every vertically-integrated rock, even when there was no monopoly at any stage of production. By 1977 vertical integration hysteria had peaked, and in that year the Supreme Court reversed course, recognizing that vertical integration often is pro-competitive.⁷

The consensus view nowadays is that vertical integration is simply an instance of the determination of the scope of firms, as distinct from markets.⁸ Firms make resource allocation decisions by internal fiat, using organizational tools such as management hierarchies. Markets allocate resources through arms-length transactions among decentralized actors. Much of the time markets work very efficiently, but there is a variety of conditions under which firms do better. Hence, goods and services are produced and sold by firms with various degrees of horizontal and vertical integration. Generally, firms can be said to compete with markets as venues for resource allocation.

Abstract economic models predict that when allocation within a firm replaces what had been decentralized market exchanges, consumer welfare (present and also future, because of incentives for innovation) may increase or decrease. In other words, the economic incentive to expand horizontally or vertically is usually but not always compatible with the social interest in maximizing long run consumer welfare. We have two tools to deal with the possible bad outcomes: antitrust policy and regulation.

IV. The Checkered History of Regulation

Antitrust policy works by seeking to prevent, directly or through deterrence, welfare-reducing expansions in the scope of firms, without indirectly deterring expansions that benefit consumers. This is easy to say, but very tough to accomplish in practice; the requisite information is difficult to assemble and assess, and the same tools (e.g., statements of enforcement policy and appellate precedents) can have indirect deterrent effects on both good and bad changes in the scopes of firms.

Hard as it is to calibrate antitrust policy, regulation is even more difficult. Aimed at improving serious long term structural incompatibility between private incentives and social welfare, regulatory tools intervene continuously and directly

in firm decisions. The simplest case is the incentive of a monopolist to restrict output in order to maximize profit. Traditionally, public utility regulators set maximum prices and required utilities to serve all comers at or below those prices. In principle this might achieve an efficient level of output. But in practice, the constraint itself almost invariably produces incentives that distort internal allocation decisions of regulated firms, raising costs. In addition to these distortions, regulatory agencies themselves frequently have been more concerned with the welfare of the firms they regulate than with the economic welfare of the public. In many cases, consumers would have been better off without regulation. The starkest evidence: deregulation of airlines, trucking and most rail rates actually produced lower prices.

A relevant example of regulatory distortion is the incentive to expand the scope of the firm vertically into the sale of unregulated products, and a concomitant incentive to exclude competitors from such markets. This was the central economic basis for the Justice Department litigation, seeking to disintegrate the old AT&T vertically, that was commenced in 1974 and led to the 1982 settlement and the actual breakup in 1984.⁹ The policy basis for the lawsuit was the failure of the FCC, despite many years of effort, to prevent AT&T from finding ways to keep competitors out of potentially competitive markets into which it had integrated vertically. FCC staff officials testified in the trial of the case that, despite strenuous effort, their interventions had failed.

Behind the failure of the FCC's attempts to control AT&T's anticompetitive behavior were AT&T's control of the information (about, for example, its costs) required by regulators to monitor and control the company's behavior, AT&T's control of the definitions of its services and the default pricing of those services, and the inherent constraints of administrative law on agency behavior. A leading example of these problems is the series of regulatory proceedings called *Computer Inquiry I*, *Computer Inquiry II*, and *Computer Inquiry III*.¹⁰

In *Computer Inquiries I*, *II* and *III*, the FCC sought to find an effective method to permit the old AT&T to provide services in unregulated competitive markets, while assuring that AT&T would not or could not engage in anticompetitive behavior in those markets. Among the regulatory strategies explored in these proceedings was the concept of the "fully separated subsidiary," a corporate unit organized to provide competitive services that was separated by an accounting firewall from the monopoly side of the business.

But it became apparent that a meaningful accounting separation was impossible, so long as the benefits from permitting AT&T to continue to supply inputs both to its own competitive downstream businesses and to the competitors it faced in those businesses arose from economies of scope or scale in the joint provision of inputs to both monopoly and competitive markets.¹¹ For example, there exists no unique economically legitimate allocation of joint and common costs. In any case, so long as AT&T owned both the regulated monopoly business and the related competitive business, anticompetitive incentives would persist.

The *Computer* rulemakings ended in morasses of complex, unworkable and ineffective or self-defeating regulations.¹²

Remarkably similar problems arose in a series of negotiations between AT&T and the Antitrust Division, intended to lead to a settlement of the antitrust litigation. These negotiations took place, both at the end of the Carter Administration and again in the early years of the Reagan Administration. The talks ended in complex regulatory proposals ultimately abandoned by both sides as unworkable. They were referred to by the parties as *Quagmire I* and *Quagmire II*.¹³

AT&T Chairman Charles Brown later explained his decision to accept the relief sought by the government in the antitrust case. The “quagmire” of unworkably detailed regulatory solutions that seemed inevitably to emerge from efforts to solve the underlying problem of incentive incompatibility (not his phrase) led him to conclude that isolation of the monopoly portion of the business from its competitive components (the relief requested from the court by the Antitrust Division) was the only way AT&T would be able to escape endless private and public disputes with competitors and regulators, and become free to focus on its business of providing communication services. AT&T therefore capitulated.¹⁴

Unfortunately, Judge Harold Greene had not had the benefit of the *Computer Inquiries* and *Quagmire* experience. When the government and AT&T filed the proposed settlement, with its stark and permanent isolation of the monopoly local service companies from participation in any competitive business requiring use of their monopoly facilities, Judge Greene rejected the platonic solution in favor of regulation by the court. He made exceptions for certain “information” services, and he insisted on a waiver process, permitting the local monopolies to enter competitive lines of business on a case by case basis with the court’s consent.¹⁵ Predictably, the court was subsequently bogged down in massive and bitter multi-year waiver proceedings, most of which recapitulated the lessons of the *Computer Inquiries* and the *Quagmires*.¹⁶

Despite Judge Greene’s misstep, the temporary isolation of the Bell companies from long distance service, combined with growing competition from wireless telephone providers, was sufficient to permit competition to develop in long distance service. The AT&T settlement ultimately was undone by the 1996 Telecommunications Act, which sought to solve the problem of competitive access to monopoly local telephone facilities by, among other policies, providing for the *further* (accounting) disintegration of local telephone facilities into “network elements,” each to be offered and priced separately to businesses seeking to compete with the local Bells.¹⁷ The resulting FCC implementation procedures were repeatedly challenged by the Bells, resulting in several trips to the Supreme Court. ¹⁸ The 1996 Telecommunications Act failed to induce facilities-based entry into local wire line telephony. Instead, market forces took an end run around the Bell bottleneck.

The arrival of competition in local telephony (and, as it turned out, video services) was made possible by the advance of digital and wireless technology and continuing reductions in the hardware costs of providing such services. Today, cell phone companies and cable television companies offer local phone services that compete with the former Bell telephone monopolies. Competition has finally come to local telephone service, not because of a century of government regulation, but in spite of it.

V. Those Who Do Not Study History Are Doomed to Repeat It

The history of attempts to regulate the old AT&T under traditional utility regulation principles (common carrier access rules and maximum price regulation) suggests some lessons for communications policy today. These lessons recapitulate the story of the earlier attempts to control discrimination in rail service.

First, as the examples above attest, there is little clear evidence that traditional regulation ever achieved even its narrow objective of making non-discriminatory service available to all at cost-based prices. On the contrary, discrimination on the basis of factors correlated with price elasticity has been a commonplace of regulation from the time of the 1887 Act to the present.

Second, the remedy makes the disease worse. Regulators and regulation often have served as deterrents to technical innovation, both by incumbent monopolists and of course by potential entrants. Bell Labs was a famous source of *invention*, but AT&T was a ponderous and reluctant *innovator*. The framework of regulation and the principles of administrative law give incumbent producers great leverage in preventing entry by competitors. This, in turn, reduces the incumbent's own incentive to innovate.

Third, there is no body of learning, or experience from other contexts, suggesting that these failures might be remedied significantly by "better" regulatory practices. The long run interests of consumers arguably are better served by unregulated (and therefore hopefully shorter-lived) monopoly than by regulated (and therefore likely semi-permanent) monopoly.

With the possible exception of the platonic isolation approach of the original Justice Department/AT&T 1982 settlement agreement, which was never implemented, no approach to controlling anticompetitive behavior by vertically integrated regulated monopolists in the communications industry has been successful, and most have injured consumer interests. If consumers really did face the imminent prospect of last mile monopoly and anticompetitive access discrimination in broadband services, a doubtful proposition at best, the sad lesson of history is that the "net neutrality" remedy is a cure far worse than the feared disease.

Footnotes

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1 A brief and readable summary of the technical and economic issues is available online: Christopher S. Yoo and Timothy Wu, “Keeping the Internet Neutral: A Debate” (December 28, 2006). *Vanderbilt Public Law Research Papers* No. 06-27. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=953989>; forthcoming volume 59 of the *Federal Communications Law Journal*, 2007. Wu and Yoo frame the policy issues using economic theories of the consequences for consumer welfare of vertical and horizontal integration by producers. Their differences are nuanced, based largely on different subjective takes on the weights to be placed on technical and economic risks. For example, where Wu sees a dangerous duopoly of Bells and cable companies, Yoo sees unfolding competition from new advances in wireless broadband and satellite technology. A recent paper by Professor Yoo provides a much more detailed recital of the academic, legislative, judicial and regulatory history of the debate through mid-2006. Christopher S. Yoo, *Network Neutrality and the Economics of Congestion*, 94 *Georgetown Law J.* 1847 (2006).

2 Senate Report No. 46, 49th Cong., 1st Sess., p. 215, as quoted by Justice Hughes in *Houston East and West Texas Railway Company v. United States* 234 U.S. 342, 356 (1914), describing the purpose of §3 of *An Act to Regulate Commerce*, 24 Stat. 379, 390 §3 (1887).

3 24 Stat. 379, 390 §3 (1887).

4 Merrill Brown and Caroline E. Mayer, U.S. Ends Antitrust Suits Against AT&T, IBM, *The Washington Post* Jan 9, 1982.

5 The government’s requested structural relief was set out in broad terms in Testimony of Bruce M. Owen on behalf of the United States, *United States of America v. American Telephone and Telegraph Co., et al.*, Case 74-168 USDC—DDC, Trial Trans. June 22, 1981 at 10,938-11,084.

6 “Net neutrality” and “end to end principle” for example are semantically unnecessary terms for the old ideas “common carrier access” and “interconnection obligation,” respectively. Jettisoning the old language also threatens to discard the experience that it tags.

7 *Continental T. V., Inc. v. GTE Sylvania Inc.*, 433 U.S. 36 (1977).

8 Ronald H. Coase, “The Nature of the Firm,” *Economica*, New Series, Vol. 4, No. 16 (Nov., 1937), pp. 386-405, and Oliver Williamson, *Markets and Hierarchies* (1975) are the seminal works.

9 Roger G. Noll and Bruce M. Owen, “United States v. AT&T: The Economic Issues,” in Kwoka and White, eds., *The Antitrust Revolution*, 1988; 2nd ed. 1994.

10 COMPUTER I: *Regulatory and Policy Problems Presented by the Interdependence of Computer and Communication Service Facilities: Notice of Proposed Rulemaking and Tentative Decision*, 28 F.C.C.2d 291 (1970), *Final Decision and Order*, 28 F.C.C.2d 267 (1971), *aff’d in part sub nom. GTE Service Corp. v. FCC*, 474 F.2d 724 (2nd Cir. 1973), *decision on remand*, Order, 40 F.C.C.2d 293 (1973). COMPUTER II: *Amendment of Section 64.702 of the Commission’s Rules and Regulations (Second Computer Inquiry): Tentative Decision*, 72 F.C.C.2d 358 (1979), *Final Decision*, 77 F.C.C.2d 384 (1980), *recon.*, *Mem. Op. and Order* 84 F.C.C.2d 50 (1981), *further recon.*, *Order on Further Reconsideration*, 88 F.C.C.2d 512 (1981), *aff’d sub nom. Computer and Communications Industry Ass’n. v. FCC*, 693 F.2d 198 (D.C. Cir. 1982), *cert. denied*, 461 U.S. 938

(1983), *aff'd on second further recon., Mem. Op. and Order*, 56 Rad. Reg. 2d (P&F) 301 (1984). COMPUTER III: *Amendment of Section 64.702 of the Commission's Rules and Regulations (Third Computer Inquiry): Report & Order*, 104 F.C.C.2d 958 (1986), *recon., Phase I Reconsideration Order*, 2 F.C.C.R. 3035 (1987), *further recon., Order on Further Reconsideration*, 3 F.C.C.R. 1135 (1988), *second further recon., Order on Second Further Reconsideration*, 4 F.C.C.R. 5927 (1989), *Report & Order and Phase I Reconsideration Order vacated sub nom. California v. FCC*, 905 F.2d 1217 (9th Cir. 1990), *decision on remand, Computer III Remand Proceedings: Report and Order*, 5 F.C.C.R. 7719 (1990). See also the FCC's related essay at "Open Network Architecture" (ONA), in *Filing and Review of Open Network Architecture Plans: Phase I Order*, 4 F.C.C.R. 1 (1988), *modified on recon., Order on Reconsideration*, 5 F.C.C.R. 3084 (1990), *further recon., Order on Further Reconsideration*, 5 F.C.C.R. 3103 (1990), and *Amendment Of Part 69 Of The Commission's Rules Relating To The Creation Of Access Charge Subelements For Open Network Architecture: Report and Order & Order on Further Reconsideration & Supplemental Notice of Proposed Rulemaking*, 6 F.C.C.R. 4524 (1991).

11 In contrast to long distance markets, vertical integration by AT&T was not a serious impediment to the introduction of competition into equipment manufacture. Equipment manufacturing and provision of local telephone service had few common costs or other sources of economies of scope. The chief barrier to competition in telephone equipment was simply the FCC's decades-long willingness to enforce AT&T's desire to be free of competition.

12 The courts invalidated Computer III in *California v. FCC*, 905 F.2d 1217 (9th Cir. 1990); *California v. FCC*, 4 F.3d 1505 (9th Cir. 1993); and *California v. FCC*, 39 F.3d 919 (9th Cir. 1994). The FCC eventually gave up in *Appropriate Framework for Broadband Access to the Internet over Wireline Facilities, Report and Order and Notice of Proposed Rulemaking*, 20 FCC Rcd. 14853, 14872-79 ¶¶ 32-46 (2005)

13 *Economic Report of the President* (1996) Chapter 6, 171. Also, and for related background, Alvin Von Auw, *Heritage and Destiny: AT&T - The Story of the Biggest Company Breakup on Earth* (1983); Peter Temin with Louis Galambos, *The Fall of the Bell System*, (1987).

14 Von Auw and Temin, *supra*, offer much more detailed versions of this story.

15 *United States v. AT&T* (Modified Final Judgment), 552 F. Supp. 131 (D.D.C. 1982), *aff'd sub nom. Maryland v. United States*, 460 U.S. 1001 (1983).

16 Richard Posner has criticized the imposition of a regulatory decree as "tantamount to a confession that the antitrust action has not been successful in restoring competitive conditions." Richard A. Posner, *A Statistical Study of Antitrust Enforcement*, 13 J.L. & Econ. 365, 386-88 (1970). "There is a sense in which the entry of a regulatory decree signifies that the case should never have been brought." Richard A. Posner & Frank H. Easterbrook, *Antitrust: Cases, Economic Notes and Other Materials* 762-63 (2d ed. 1981).

17 Telecommunications Act of 1996, P.L. No. 104-104, 110 Stat. 56 (1996), Section 251(3)(2)(B)); see 47 U. S. C. §251(c).

18 For the high court's attempts to resolve some of the numerous disputes, see *Verizon Communications Inc. et al. v Federal Communications Commission* 535 U.S. 467 (2002); *Verizon Md. Inc. v. Public Serv. Comm'n of Md.* 535 U.S. 635 (2002); *Verizon Communications Inc. v. Law Offices of Curtis V. Trinko, LLP* 540 U.S. 398 (2004).