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16 UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
17 CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA

18 CURTIS MARKSON, MARK
19 MCGEORGE, CLOIS MCCLENDON,
20 and ERIC CLARK, individually and on
21 behalf of all others similarly situated,

22 Plaintiffs

23 vs.

24 CRST INTERNATIONAL, INC., CRST
25 EXPEDITED, INC., C.R. ENGLAND,
26 INC., WESTERN EXPRESS, INC.,
27 SCHNEIDER NATIONAL CARRIERS,
28 INC., SOUTHERN REFRIGERATED
TRANSPORT, INC., COVENANT
TRANSPORT, INC., PASCHALL

No. 5:17-cv-01261-SB (SPx)

**STATEMENT OF INTEREST
OF THE UNITED STATES**

Date: August 5, 2022

Time: 8:30 a.m.

Location: Courtroom 6C

Judge: Hon. Stanley Blumenfeld, Jr.

1 TRUCK LINES, INC., STEVENS
2 TRANSPORT, INC., and DOES 1-10,
3 inclusive,

Defendants.

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1 **INTEREST OF THE UNITED STATES**

2 The United States respectfully submits this statement pursuant to 28 U.S.C.
3 § 517, which permits the Attorney General to direct any officer of the Department
4 of Justice to attend to the interests of the United States in any case pending in a
5 federal or state court. The United States enforces the federal antitrust laws and has
6 a strong interest in promoting competition and seeing that the Sherman Act’s
7 prohibitions on restraints of trade, 15 U.S.C. § 1, are fully and correctly applied to
8 all markets—including labor markets. The United States also has a significant
9 interest in preventing labor market collusion and other agreements that harm
10 competition for workers.¹

11 The United States files this Statement of Interest in response to the parties’
12 motions for summary judgment, ECF No. 613, and supporting memorandum, ECF
13 No. 620 (“MSJ”), to address the appropriate standard for analyzing when “no-hire
14 agreements” violate the Sherman Act. The United States takes no position on

15 _____
16 ¹ The United States has addressed agreements that harm workers in statements of
17 interest and amicus briefs in other cases. *See* Statement of Interest of the United
18 States, *In re Ry. Indus. Emp. No-Poach Antitrust Litig.*, 395 F. Supp. 3d 464 (W.D.
19 Pa. 2019) (No. 2:18-mc-00798-JFC), [https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1131056/download)
20 [document/file/1131056/download](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1131056/download) (no-hire and non-solicitation agreements);
21 Statement of Interest of the United States, *Seaman v. Duke Univ.*, No. 1:15-CV-
22 462, 2019 WL 4674758 (M.D.N.C. 2019), [https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1141756/download)
23 [document/file/1141756/download](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1141756/download) (no-hire agreements); Brief of Amicus United
24 States of America in Support of Neither Party, *Aya Healthcare Servs., Inc. v. AMN*
25 *Healthcare, Inc. et al.*, 9 F.4th 1102 (9th Cir. 2021), [https://www.justice.gov/](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1338731/download)
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27 Statement of Interest of the United States, *In re Outpatient Med. Ctr. Emp.*
28 *Antitrust Litig.*, No. 21-cv-00305 (N.D. Ill. Dec. 9, 2021), [https://www.justice.gov/](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1456106/download)
[atr/case-document/file/1456106/download](https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1456106/download) (no-hire and non-solicitation
agreement); Statement of Interest of the United States, *Beck v. Pickert Med. Grp.*,
No. CV21-02092, Nev. Second Judicial District Court (Feb. 25, 2022),
<https://www.justice.gov/atr/case-document/file/1477091/download> (non-compete
agreements).

1 whether there were no-hire agreements between Defendants and offers no view on
2 any other issue in this case except the proper standard for assessing the legality of
3 no-hire agreements. The United States also plans to seek leave to participate in the
4 oral argument currently scheduled for August 5, 2022.

5 Agreements among competitors to allocate markets have long been
6 condemned as per se unlawful. As this Court has already recognized, the same
7 rule applies whether competitors agree to allocate markets for customers or
8 workers. *See Markson v. CRST Int'l, Inc.*, No. 5:17-CV-01261-SB-SP, 2021 WL
9 1156863, at *4 (C.D. Cal. Feb. 10, 2021). In either case, the agreement eliminates
10 or limits competition among rivals and therefore violates the antitrust laws.
11 The United States thus urges the Court to analyze any no-hire agreements between
12 Defendants under the per se rule.

13 BACKGROUND

14 I. Legal Background

15 A. The Sherman Act

16 Section 1 of the Sherman Act, 15 U.S.C. § 1, outlaws “[e]very contract,
17 combination . . . or conspiracy” that unreasonably restrains trade, *NCAA v. Bd. of*
18 *Regents of Univ. of Oklahoma*, 468 U.S. 85, 98 (1984). “Restraints can be
19 unreasonable in one of two ways.” *Ohio v. Am. Express Co.*, 138 S. Ct. 2274,
20 2283 (2018) (“*Amex*”). Congress condemned some restraints as per se
21 unreasonable based on their inherently anticompetitive “nature and character.”
22 *Standard Oil Co. v. United States*, 221 U.S. 1, 64–65 (1911). “Restraints that are
23 not unreasonable per se are judged under the ‘rule of reason,’” which involves a
24 “fact-specific assessment” of “the restraint’s actual effect on competition.” *Amex*,
25 138 S. Ct. at 2284 (internal quotation marks and brackets omitted).

26 When restraints are illegal per se, they are “unreasonable and therefore
27 illegal without elaborate inquiry as to the precise harm they have caused or the
28 business excuse for their use.” *N. Pac. Ry. Co. v. United States*, 356 U.S. 1, 5

1 (1958). Companies are thus forbidden to enter into per se illegal agreements even
2 if, in an individual case, there is a theoretical possibility that the agreement is
3 benign or beneficial. *See Arizona v. Maricopa Cty. Med. Soc’y*, 457 U.S. 332, 351
4 (1982) (“The anticompetitive potential inherent in all price-fixing agreements
5 justifies their facial invalidation even if procompetitive justifications are offered
6 for some.”). As the Supreme Court has explained, “[t]he assumption that
7 competition is the best method of allocating resources in a free market recognizes
8 that all elements of a bargain—quality, service, safety, and durability—and not just
9 the immediate cost, are favorably affected by the free opportunity to select among
10 alternative offers. Even assuming occasional exceptions to the presumed
11 consequences of competition, the statutory policy precludes inquiry into the
12 question whether competition is good or bad.” *Nat’l Soc’y of Pro. Eng’rs v.*
13 *United States*, 435 U.S. 679, 695 (1978).

14 Certain types of horizontal agreements, such as price fixing, output
15 restrictions, and market allocations, have long been recognized as illegal per se.
16 *See, e.g., Am. Ad Mgmt., Inc. v. GTE Corp.*, 92 F.3d 781, 784 (9th Cir. 1996).
17 These agreements are termed “horizontal” because they are agreements between
18 actual or potential competitors, e.g., two rival car dealerships, “on the way in
19 which they will compete with one another.” *Bd. of Regents*, 468 U.S. at 99.
20 “Horizontal agreements” contrast with “vertical agreements,” which are “‘imposed
21 by agreement between firms at different levels of distribution’” on matters over
22 which they do not compete. *Amex*, 138 S. Ct. at 2284 (quoting *Bus. Elecs. Corp. v.*
23 *Sharp Elecs. Corp.*, 485 U.S. 717, 730 (1988)). Horizontal market allocations—
24 including the no-hire agreements alleged here—are particularly harmful because
25 they eliminate or limit competition among rivals along numerous dimensions,
26 including price and non-price terms. *See, e.g., Blue Cross & Blue Shield United of*
27 *Wis. v. Marshfield Clinic*, 65 F.3d 1406, 1415 (7th Cir. 1995) (“It would be a
28 strange interpretation of antitrust law that forbade competitors to agree on what

1 price to charge, thus eliminating price competition among them, but allowed them
2 to divide markets, thus eliminating all competition among them.”).

3 Courts have recognized a limited defense to the per se rule when an
4 agreement is considered “ancillary” to a “business association or joint venture.”
5 *Texaco Inc. v. Dagher*, 547 U.S. 1, 7 (2006). Under Ninth Circuit law, there are
6 two requirements for an agreement to be ancillary. First, the agreement must be
7 “subordinate and collateral to a separate, legitimate” collaboration. *Aya*
8 *Healthcare Servs., Inc. v. AMN Healthcare, Inc.*, 9 F.4th 1102, 1109 (9th Cir.
9 2021) (quoting *Rothery Storage & Van Co. v. Atlas Van Lines, Inc.*, 792 F.2d 210,
10 224 (D.C. Cir. 1986)). Second, the agreement must be “reasonably necessary”
11 to achieving the potentially procompetitive purpose of the collaboration. *Id.*
12 (quoting *United States v. Addyston Pipe & Steel Co.*, 85 F. 271, 281 (6th Cir. 1898)
13 (Taft, J.), *aff’d*, 175 U.S. 211 (1899)).

14 The “reasonably necessary” requirement ensures that defendants refrain
15 from using restraints that have potential procompetitive benefits which can be
16 achieved through reasonably less anticompetitive means. For example, in
17 *Blackburn v. Sweeney*, 53 F.3d 825, 828–29 (7th Cir. 1995), the Seventh Circuit
18 held that an agreement among former partners to refrain from advertising in each
19 other’s territories was not ancillary to the dissolution of a partnership, in part
20 because of its unreasonable duration. *Id.* at 828 (“Defendants’ contention that the
21 advertising Agreement is a legitimate covenant not to compete, ancillary to the
22 dissolution of the partnership, is further undermined by the Agreement’s infinite
23 duration.”).² In *Snow v. Align Tech., Inc.*, No. 21-cv-03269-VC, 2022 WL 468704
24 (N.D. Cal. Feb. 16, 2022), a manufacturer of dental aligners licensed its patent to a
25 competitor in return for royalties and referrals, and agreed not to compete with the
26 competitor in direct-to-consumer sales. The district court, applying *Aya*, held that

27 ² The Seventh Circuit separately concluded that the agreement was not ancillary to
28 the dissolution of the partnership because it took place after the partnership was
dissolved. *See Blackburn*, 53 F.3d at 828.

1 the complaint plausibly alleged that the restraint was illegal per se because the
2 agreement not to compete—which effectively gave the competitor a monopoly
3 over direct-to-consumer sales—was not reasonably necessary to achieve the
4 procompetitive purpose of expanding the buyer market from dentists to consumers.
5 *Id.* at *4.

6 While ancillary agreements are exempt from per se treatment, they are not
7 exempt from antitrust liability. Instead, they are scrutinized under the rule of
8 reason, which asks whether the agreement is, on balance, anticompetitive.
9 *See, e.g., Rothery Storage*, 792 F.2d at 214.

10 **B. Application of the Sherman Act to Labor Markets**

11 The Sherman Act protects competition in all markets, including labor
12 markets as well as product markets. The law “does not confine its protection to
13 consumers, or to purchasers, or to competitors, or to sellers. Nor does it immunize
14 the outlawed acts because they are done by any of these. The [Sherman] Act is
15 comprehensive in its terms and coverage, protecting all who are made victims of
16 the forbidden practices by whomever they may be perpetrated.” *Mandeville Island*
17 *Farms v. Am. Crystal Sugar Co.*, 334 U.S. 219, 236 (1948) (internal citations
18 omitted). That the law applies to labor markets in particular has long been settled.
19 *See United States v. Jindal*, No. CV 4:20-CR-00358, 2021 WL 5578687, at *5
20 (E.D. Tex. Nov. 29, 2021) (“The Supreme Court has made clear that the Sherman
21 Act applies equally to all industries and markets—to sellers and buyers, to goods
22 and services, and consequently to buyers of services—otherwise known as
23 employers in the labor market.”); *see also Anderson v. Shipowners Ass’n*, 272 U.S.
24 359, 363–64 (1926) (agreements “related to the employment of seamen for service
25 on ships”); *NCAA v. Alston*, 141 S. Ct. 2141, 2161 (2021) (“market for student-
26 athletes’ labor”).

27 Just as healthy product-market competition involves multiple firms
28 competing for consumers by reducing prices, or improving quality or innovation,

1 firms compete for workers by improving wages, benefits, or conditions of
2 employment. Thus, for there to be competition in labor markets, workers must be
3 able to move from employer to employer.

4 A no-hire agreement is a type of horizontal market allocation agreement
5 between two or more employers that eliminates or limits competition among them
6 for workers. These agreements limit the ability of workers to switch employers,
7 depriving workers of the benefits of competition for their labor, including better
8 wages, benefits, and other terms of employment. *See* Herbert Hovenkamp,
9 *Competition Policy for Labour Markets*, OECD (2019), https://scholarship.law.upenn.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3092&context=faculty_scholarship.
10 Limiting labor market competition results in lower wages and worse working
11 conditions because employers are no longer forced to compete against each other
12 for the best workers.
13

14 Recent studies make clear that collusion in labor markets is a significant
15 problem for workers and for the economy. *See, e.g.*, U.S. Dep’t of Treasury, *The*
16 *State of Labor Market Competition*, (March 7, 2022), <https://home.treasury.gov/system/files/136/State-of-Labor-Market-Competition-2022.pdf> (summarizing
17 empirical evidence and academic studies).
18

19 **II. Relevant Allegations and Procedural History**

20 The Fourth Amended Complaint alleges as follows: Defendants—several
21 transportation and logistics companies—have entered horizontal no-hire
22 agreements under which they agree not to hire drivers “under contract” with any of
23 the other defendants. *See* Fourth Am. Compl., ECF No. 228. “Under contract”
24 drivers are defined to include both current drivers and *former* drivers who have not
25 paid off certain loans even if the drivers are actually unemployed. *Id.* ¶¶ 58, 61
26 (“Until the tuition is repaid in full with interest, the driver is deemed to remain
27
28

1 ‘under contract.’”). Plaintiffs are truck drivers and former truck drivers who claim
2 they were victims of the alleged no-hire agreements.

3 Defendant CRST also requires employees to enter covenants not to compete
4 that prohibit them from obtaining work with any other “motor carrier” as long as
5 drivers’ loans are not fully paid. *Id.* ¶ 3. These covenants not to compete have no
6 geographical limit, *id.*, Ex. 1, part 11(b), and both the no-hire agreements and the
7 non-competes have no clear time limit, and thus could apply indefinitely to former
8 employees who are unable to repay their debts to Defendants. As a result, former
9 employees of Defendants who are unable to pay their debts may be forced to
10 remain unemployed, unable to earn the income needed to pay off their debts. *Id.*
11 ¶¶ 62–63. Moreover, because the non-competes also prohibit former drivers from
12 working as “independent contractor[s],” *id.* ¶ 3, they prevent horizontal
13 competition by Defendants’ former drivers.

14 Plaintiffs have sued Defendants under the Sherman Act and California law.
15 *Id.* ¶¶ 9–10. On July 9, 2022, Defendants C.R. England, Inc., CRST International,
16 Inc., and CRST Expedited, Inc. moved for summary judgment on Plaintiffs’
17 antitrust claims. The United States hereby submits this Statement of Interest to
18 address the proper application of the per se rule to no-hire agreements.

19 ARGUMENT

20 I. No-Hire Agreements Are Per Se Violations of Section 1 of the 21 Sherman Act

22 No-hire agreements are horizontal market allocations, a type of agreement
23 long held to be per se unlawful under the Sherman Act. *See In re Ry. Indus. Emp.*
24 *No-Poach Antitrust Litig.*, 395 F. Supp. 3d 464, 482 (W.D. Pa. 2019) (holding that
25 employee no-poach agreements are per se illegal market divisions); *United States*
26 *v. eBay, Inc.*, 968 F. Supp. 2d 1030, 1039 (N.D. Cal. 2013) (same); *In re High-*
27 *Tech Emp. Antitrust Litig.*, 856 F. Supp. 2d 1103, 1122 (N.D. Cal. 2012) (same).
28 When competitors agree to divide a market, they have committed a per se illegal

1 violation of the Sherman Act “regardless of whether the parties split a market
2 within which both do business or whether they merely reserve one market for one
3 and another for the other.” *Palmer v. BRG of Ga., Inc.*, 498 U.S. 46, 49–50 (1990)
4 (per curiam).

5 Forbidden market allocations can exist in various ways. They can be
6 territorial agreements in which competitors split geographical markets among
7 themselves. For example, in *Palmer*, two bar review companies—HBJ and
8 BRG—agreed not to offer bar review courses in each other’s geographical
9 markets. *Id.* at 47. The Supreme Court held that the agreement to divide territory
10 between the companies was “unlawful on its face.” *Id.* at 50. Alternatively, such
11 agreements can involve the allocation of customers or employees rather than
12 geographical territory, and can take the form of complete bans on competition,
13 such as no-hire or no-sale agreements. They may also be of more limited scope,
14 such as “no-solicitation” clauses pertaining to one another’s workers or customers.
15 For example, in *United States v. Cadillac Overall Supply Co.*, 568 F.2d 1078 (5th
16 Cir. 1978), a number of companies in the business of supplying industrial uniforms
17 agreed to refrain from soliciting each other’s current customers. The companies
18 also committed to “active discouragement” of other uniform supply companies’
19 current customers “from changing suppliers,” in the event that the customers
20 sought them out. *Id.* at 1081. The Fifth Circuit explained that both territorial and
21 customer allocation agreements are per se violations of law: there is no “significant
22 difference between an allocation of customers and an allocation of territory” and
23 consequently “the allocation of customers is a per se violation of Section One of
24 the Sherman Act.” *Id.* at 1088, 1090; *see also United States v. Topco Assocs.*, 405
25 U.S. 596, 612 (1972) (“We also strike down Topco’s other restrictions on the right
26 of its members to wholesale goods. These restrictions amount to regulation of the
27 customers to whom members of Topco may sell Topco-brand goods.”); *United*
28 *States v. Coop. Theatres of Ohio, Inc.*, 845 F.2d 1367, 1373 (6th Cir. 1988) (“[W]e

1 find that the so-called ‘no-solicitation’ agreement alleged in this case is undeniably
2 a type of customer allocation scheme which courts have often condemned in the
3 past as a *per se* violation of the Sherman Act.”).

4 Whether market allocation agreements are based on territory, customers, or
5 workers, they cause the same harm: they prevent those unhappy with one company
6 from taking their business to another company, and thus reduce the competitive
7 pressure to lower product prices, raise wages, and improve quality. The *per se* rule
8 therefore applies equally in customer-facing and supplier-facing markets, i.e.,
9 markets for component parts or labor. Faced with the case of sugar refiners who
10 conspired to fix prices on sugar beets (a sugar input), the Supreme Court
11 explained: “It is clear that the agreement is the sort of combination condemned by
12 the [Sherman] Act, even though the price-fixing was by purchasers, and the
13 persons specially injured . . . are sellers, not customers or consumers.” *Mandeville*
14 *Island Farms*, 334 U.S. at 235; *see also Knevelbaard Dairies v. Kraft Foods, Inc.*,
15 232 F.3d 979, 988–89 (9th Cir. 2000) (“Most courts understand that a buying
16 cartel’s low buying prices are illegal and bring antitrust injury and standing to the
17 victimized suppliers.”); *United States v. Brown*, 936 F.2d 1042, 1045 (9th Cir.
18 1991) (market allocation by billboard advertising companies of an input, billboard
19 sites, was *per se* illegal); *Penn Allegheny Health Sys. v. UPMC*, 627 F.3d 85, 105
20 (3d Cir. 2010) (defendants’ contention that a buyer exercising monopsony power is
21 permissible because it lowers prices for downstream consumers “reflects a basic
22 misunderstanding of the antitrust laws”).

23 The same rule applies for market allocations in labor markets. Contrary to
24 Defendants’ argument, MSJ at 17–18, the application of the *per se* rule does not
25 need to be “rejustified for every industry that has not been subject to significant
26 antitrust litigation.” *Maricopa*, 457 U.S. at 351. And while prior experience with
27 a particular restraint is relevant when courts are considering whether to apply
28 “a *new per se* rule,” *id.* at 349 n.19 (emphasis in original), that is not relevant here

1 because the per se rule against market allocation is well-established, *id.* at 349.
2 Moreover, like other suppliers, employees supply an input—labor—and courts
3 have repeatedly recognized claims against employers who engage in
4 anticompetitive behavior in labor markets. In *Anderson*, for example, the Supreme
5 Court recognized a claim by sailors against a cartel of shipowners who allocated
6 the sailors to employers and fixed the sailors’ wages. 272 U.S. at 362–65. And in
7 *Alston*, the Court recognized a claim by student athletes against universities that
8 fixed their compensation. 141 S. Ct. at 2154, 2166; *see also id.* at 2167–68
9 (Kavanaugh, J., concurring) (“Price-fixing labor is price-fixing labor. And price-
10 fixing labor is ordinarily a textbook antitrust problem because it extinguishes the
11 free market in which individuals can otherwise obtain fair compensation for their
12 work.”).

13 Accordingly, just as customer-allocation agreements are per se illegal
14 market divisions in product markets, employee-allocation agreements are per se
15 illegal market divisions in labor markets.

16 **II. If the Court Finds the Alleged No-Hire Agreements Between**
17 **Defendants Exist, They Should Be Analyzed Under the Per Se Rule**

18 Consistent with the principles described above, this Court has already
19 recognized that Plaintiffs adequately alleged that Defendants’ alleged horizontal
20 no-hire agreements are per se illegal. *See Markson*, No. 5:17-CV-01261-SB-SP,
21 2021 WL 1156863, at *4.

22 Because horizontal no-hire agreements are per se illegal, Defendants’
23 argument that the alleged no-hire agreements have “a plausible procompetitive
24 effect,” MSJ at 19, is foreclosed by precedent. *See, e.g., Maricopa*, 457 U.S. at
25 351 (“The anticompetitive potential inherent” in all per se agreements “justifies
26 their facial invalidation even if procompetitive justifications are offered for
27 some.”); *Topco*, 405 U.S. at 610 (“In applying these rigid [per se] rules, the Court
28 has consistently rejected the notion that naked restraints of trade are to be tolerated

1 because they are well intended or because they are allegedly developed to increase
2 competition.”); *United States v. Aiyer*, 33 F.4th 97, 119 (2d Cir. 2022) (“no need”
3 for courts “to consider ‘demonstrable economic effect[s]’” when evaluating per se
4 conduct in light of its “inherent” anticompetitive potential).

5 The limited defense available for ancillary restraints, *see Aya*, 9 F.4th at
6 1109, does not help Defendants. Defendants argue that the alleged no-hire
7 agreements should be analyzed under the rule of reason because they help
8 guarantee a “return on . . . investment” for training new employees. MSJ at 20.
9 This is not a cognizable ancillary-restraints argument. That a restraint purportedly
10 has some procompetitive effects does not justify invoking the ancillary-restraints
11 doctrine unless the restraint is “subordinate and collateral to a separate”
12 collaboration. *Aya*, 9 F.4th at 1109. Defendants identify no such collaboration
13 here.

14 Furthermore, Defendants do not explain why the alleged no-hire agreements
15 are “reasonably necessary” to achieve any procompetitive end. *Id.* In fact,
16 Defendants contend that a horizontal agreement among them is *unnecessary*, and
17 “makes no economic sense,” because each Defendant has “an independent and
18 well-founded interest in avoiding being hit with a costly suit for tortious
19 interference.” MSJ at 12–13. There are also reasonably less-restrictive ways in
20 which Defendants could recoup the cost of training employees. Defendants could,
21 for example, enter into agreements *with drivers* requiring them to reimburse the
22 costs of providing training if they leave for another firm soon after they are hired
23 (or under some other, more reasonable set of conditions) rather than entering into
24 horizontal no-hire agreements *with their competitors*. *See, e.g., Donald J. Polden,*
25 *Restraints on Workers’ Wages and Mobility: No-Poach Agreements and the*
26 *Antitrust Laws*, 59 Santa Clara L. Rev. 579, 603 (2020) (discussing “contractual
27 methods by which employers can secure their confidential commercial information
28 and be reimbursed for the training and other investments they have taken in their

1 employees . . . short of outright restraints on worker mobility”). Defendants
2 already require trainees to enter into “vertical employment contracts.” *See* MSJ at
3 5 (“CRST’s vertical employment contracts constitute the primary means by which
4 CRST receives enough return on its investment to operate and maintain its [driver
5 training program].”).

6 Preventing drivers from obtaining a job with another company, however,
7 blocks one means for Defendants to be reimbursed for the costs of training,
8 because drivers will lose opportunities to increase their income. It also could mean
9 fewer drivers on the road at a time when companies are facing “serious and chronic
10 driver shortages,” MSJ at 20, and consumers are struggling with the consequences
11 of supply chain issues. And it is not likely to be reasonably necessary for
12 recovering employer expenditures on training because the ordinary costs of job
13 search and relocation already likely prevent workers from frequently switching
14 from job to job.

15 Moreover, every firm must invest in acquiring new employees and
16 customers. That does not justify horizontal market-allocation agreements.
17 Consider a firm making an up-front investment in a consumer product or service,
18 e.g., companies providing consumers with discounted cell phones to use on their
19 network. The need to invest in acquiring new consumers does not mean Verizon
20 and AT&T could agree not to poach customers from each other. *See, e.g.,*
21 *Columbia Steel Casting Co. v. Portland Gen. Elec. Co.*, 111 F.3d 1427, 1433, 1444
22 (9th Cir. 1996) (agreement among power companies to allocate market, avoiding
23 “the duplication of transmission lines and poles, substations, and transformers,”
24 was “a per se violation of § 1 of the Sherman Act”). Defendants have not
25 explained why labor markets should be treated any differently. Nor can employers
26 eliminate labor-market competition using horizontal no-hire agreements based on a
27 (legally unenforceable and speculative) promise that they will invest more in
28 workers. The possibility that horizontal restraints might encourage defendants to

1 invest in customers or workers does not override the judgment by Congress that
2 competition—not agreements among competitors—“is the best method of
3 allocating resources.” *Nat’l Soc’y of Pro. Eng’rs*, 435 U.S. at 695; *see also N. Pac.*
4 *Ry. Co.*, 356 U.S. at 4 (“[T]he policy unequivocally laid down by the [Sherman]
5 Act is competition”).

6 It is equally irrelevant that Defendants’ alleged horizontal agreements
7 purportedly aim to prevent tortious interference, including “interfer[ence]
8 with . . . fixed-term employment contracts.” MSJ at 17. In *Fashion Originators’*
9 *Guild of Am. v. FTC*, 312 U.S. 457 (1941), the Supreme Court concluded that an
10 agreement among competing clothing designers not to sell their garments at stores
11 selling copycat designs was per se unlawful. While the designers argued that their
12 agreements “protect[ed] . . . against the devastating evils growing from the pirating
13 of original designs,” the Court held that this evidence “[was] no more material than
14 would be the reasonableness of the prices fixed by an unlawful combination.” *Id.*
15 at 468. The Court added that protecting against “tortious” conduct did “not
16 justify . . . combining together to regulate and restrain interstate commerce in
17 violation of federal law.” *Id.* The same is true here. Even assuming *arguendo* that
18 hiring drivers “under contract” with a rival firm is actually tortious conduct under
19 applicable state law, an agreement among competing trucking companies not to
20 interfere with each other’s employment contracts, i.e., to allocate markets, still
21 violates the Sherman Act. *See Cadillac Overall Supply*, 568 F.2d at 1087–1090
22 (need to “assur[e] non-interference with . . . service contracts” did not save
23 “allocation of customers” from per se treatment).

24 Defendants’ argument that courts “routinely apply the rule of reason to
25 hiring restrictions” is wrong and the cases they cite are inapposite. *See* MSJ at 20.
26 As noted above, Defendants have not established that the alleged no-hire
27 agreements are ancillary restraints. The ancillary-restraint cases they cite applying
28 the rule of reason are therefore distinguishable. *See Aya*, 9 F.4th at 1110 (“the

1 challenged restraint is reasonably necessary to the parties’ procompetitive
2 collaboration”); *Deslandes v. McDonald’s USA, LLC*, 2018 WL 3105955, at *7
3 (N.D. Ill. June 25, 2018) (“ancillary to franchise agreements”); *Conrad v. Jimmy*
4 *John’s Franchise, LLC*, 2021 WL 3268339, at *10 (S.D. Ill. July 30, 2021) (same);
5 *Kelsey K. v. NFL Enterprises LLC*, 2017 WL 3115169, at *4 (N.D. Cal. July 21,
6 2017) (“reasonably necessary to a larger legitimate collaboration”); *Hanger v.*
7 *Berkley Group, Inc.*, 2015 WL 3439255, *5–7 (W.D. Va. May 28, 2015)
8 (“the restraint challenged in this lawsuit is one piece of a global settlement
9 agreement between the parties to resolve three suits in two states”); *Eichorn v.*
10 *AT&T Corp.*, 248 F.3d 131, 146 (3d Cir. 2001) (sale of a business); *Coleman v.*
11 *Gen. Elec. Co.*, 643 F. Supp. 1229, 1232 (E.D. Tenn. 1986) (same); *Cesnik v.*
12 *Chrysler Corp.*, 490 F. Supp. 859, 862 (M.D. Tenn. 1980) (same). *Bogan v.*
13 *Hodgkins*, 166 F.3d 509 (2d Cir. 1999), which Defendants also cite, MSJ at 18–20,
14 addressed what the court viewed as “an intra firm agreement.” 166 F.3d at 515–
15 16. This case, in contrast, addresses the type of “classic interfirm horizontal
16 restraint of trade” that the *Bogan* court thought was absent. *See id.* at 515.
17 *Deslandes*, another case cited by Defendants, MSJ at 20, also explicitly rejected
18 Defendants’ argument that the need to invest in training workers justifies a naked
19 no-hire agreement. 2018 WL 3105955, at *8 (“[E]very employer fears losing the
20 employees it has trained. That fear does not, however, justify, say, law firms
21 agreeing not to hire each other’s associates. Employers have plenty of other means
22 to encourage their employees to stay without resorting to unlawful market
23 division.”).

24 Accordingly, the Court should reject Defendants’ attempt to justify the
25 alleged no-hire agreements as deserving anything less than per se treatment. *See*
26 *Gen. Leaseways, Inc. v. Nat’l Truck Leasing Ass’n*, 744 F.2d 588, 595 (7th Cir.
27 1984) (“The per se rule would collapse if every claim of economies from
28

1 restricting competition, however implausible, could be used to move a horizontal
2 agreement not to compete from the per se to the Rule of Reason category.”).

3 **CONCLUSION**

4 For the reasons above, the United States respectfully requests that the Court
5 analyze any no-hire agreements between Defendants under the per se rule
6 consistent with well-established precedent.

7
8 Dated: July 15, 2022

Respectfully submitted,

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CERTIFICATE OF SERVICE

I hereby certify that on July 15, 2022, I electronically filed the foregoing brief by using the CM/ECF system. Participants in the case are registered CM/ECF users, and service will be accomplished by the CM/ECF system.

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