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1

2 **"Semantic Sting" Controversy**

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5 **Introduction**

6 In the opening chapter of *Law's Empire*, Ronald
 7 Dworkin argues against the semantic sting, a
 8 "philosophical prejudice" (Stavropoulos 2001,
 9 61) which he attributes to what he calls "semantic
 10 theories of law." Among those theories, he counts
 11 his primary foil in the book, the legal positivism of
 12 HLA Hart, John Austin, and others. Dworkin's
 13 critique of the semantic sting sets the stage for
 14 his positive account of law, elaborated in the rest
 15 of *Law's Empire*. That critique has engendered a
 16 long-standing jurisprudential controversy. Theo-
 17 rists disagree what is its thrust and whether it
 18 succeeds. In what follows, the critique will be
 19 analyzed and some of the key responses to it as
 20 well as Dworkin's rejoinders will be examined.

21 **Semantic Theories and Grounds of Law**

22 In *Law's Empire*, Dworkin famously defends a
 23 moralized approach to the theory of law, which
 24 he calls interpretive. According to the interpretive
 25 theory of law, the nature of law is determined by
 26 the moral principles that best explain and justify
 27 legal practice. Dworkin juxtaposes his approach

to analytical legal positivism, which contends that 28
 jurisprudential method is descriptive in the sense 29
 that it does not rest on substantive commitments 30
 about what is morally right and wrong. Dworkin's 31
 critique of the semantic sting is meant to expose a 32
 fundamental flaw in the descriptive approach. 33
 With the descriptive approach thus set aside, 34
 Dworkin then goes on in the rest of the book to 35
 shift his focus to interpretivism. 36

On the face of it, though, the target of the 37
 semantic sting argument is not legal positivism 38
 or a method for exploring the nature law at all, 39
 but a group of theories about the proper use of the 40
 word "law," so-called "semantic theories of law." 41
 Some legal philosophers have protested that as a 42
 result, the argument misses its mark because legal 43
 positivism does not seek to explicate the meaning 44
 of the word "law" (Coleman and Simchen 2003, 45
 8; Raz 1998, 2). This issue will not detain 46
 us. Dworkin is interested in semantic theories of 47
 law insofar as they can contribute to our under- 48
 standing of the concept of law, and there is little 49
 reason to suppose that they do not. Indeed, for 50
 Dworkin they contribute to it in a special way, and 51
 it is important for understanding the semantic 52
 sting argument to explain how they are meant to 53
 do so. 54

Dworkin maintains that there is a close rela- 55
 tionship between theories about the nature of law, 56
 on the one hand, and propositions of law, "the 57
 various statements and claims people make 58
 about what the law allows or prohibits or entitles 59
 them to have" (Dworkin 1986, 4), on the other. 60

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61 More specifically, he contends that theories of law
 62 elucidate the concept of law by specifying the
 63 grounds of true propositions of law. By grounds,
 64 Dworkin means determinants of true propositions
 65 of law. For example, it may be that a proposition
 66 of law is true by virtue of the fact that a statute is
 67 enacted by Parliament, which (statute) has the
 68 effect of adding that proposition to the law. Enact-
 69 ment of a statute by Parliament is on this view a
 70 ground of law.¹

71 Semantic theories of law, for Dworkin, also
 72 provide an answer to the question: What makes
 73 propositions of law true or false? They hold that
 74 "lawyers all follow certain linguistic criteria for
 75 judging propositions of law, perhaps unawares"
 76 (Dworkin 1986, 32), and that these shared criteria
 77 supply the grounds of propositions of law. Seman-
 78 tic theories locate the standard of correctness for
 79 the application of the concept of law in "criteria in
 80 framing, accepting, and rejecting statements about
 81 what the law is" (Dworkin 1986, 33) that are
 82 embedded in actual usage of the concept. Import-
 83 antly, that standard does not transcend actual
 84 usage (Stavropoulos 2001, 71ff). In other words,
 85 whilst each of us individually may be mistaken
 86 about the concept, the linguistic community as a
 87 whole cannot be wrong, because there is nothing
 88 to the meaning of concepts other than its conven-
 89 tional meaning as this is determined by actual
 90 usage.

91 Some philosophers dispute that there is such a
 92 connection between theories of law and the
 93 grounds of propositions of law. (e.g., Coleman
 94 2001, 180ff; Himma 2002, 160ff; Toh 2013)
 95 They contend that sharing the same criteria for
 96 the concept of law does not entail sharing the
 97 same criteria for determining the truth of proposi-
 98 tions of law. For example, persons from different
 99 jurisdictions share the former but not the latter.
 100 This seems to open up the space for the existence
 101 of a class of (privileged) conceptual truths, which

are shared even by those who disagree about the
 truth of propositions of law.

102
 103
 104 It is not clear how we are supposed to draw this
 105 distinction. In any event, however we draw it, it is
 106 doubtful that it can be kept watertight. It could be
 107 argued that, for almost any criterion, these philoso-
 108 phers offer at the level of the concept of law, it is
 109 possible to imagine a dispute over that criterion
 110 leading to a disagreement about the grounds of
 111 propositions of law. Consider a positivist who
 112 maintains that one of the criteria for the existence
 113 of law is that there is a social practice among
 114 officials containing the ultimate criteria of legal
 115 validity and an anti-positivist who denies this
 116 because she thinks that a standard may be part of
 117 the law even though it is not treated as such by the
 118 community of officials. There are likely cases
 119 where the positivist and the anti-positivist dis-
 120 agree about the truth of a proposition of law by
 121 virtue of that upstream disagreement about the
 122 concept of law.

123 Dworkin attributes a criterial semantics to
 124 Hart's positivist theory of law. The attribution
 125 has been defended by Stavropoulos (2001), who
 126 offers close textual evidence from *The Concept of*
 127 *Law* and other work to support it. Although legal
 128 positivism is not the only theory of law that
 129 Dworkin associates with criterial semantics,
 130 there seems to be a special affinity between the
 131 two. Famously, Hart took himself to be pursuing a
 132 descriptive rather than normative inquiry (Hart
 133 1994, 239–241). Criterial semantics, as Dworkin
 134 understands it, lends support to this pursuit. If the
 135 concept of law is individuated by the criteria
 136 employed collectively by members of the relevant
 137 linguistic community when they use the concept,
 138 the aim of the legal philosopher becomes one of
 139 reporting or unearthing those. Importantly, this
 140 exercise must involve very limited revision of
 141 members' use, because there is no standard inde-
 142 pendent of use by which we can correct it
 143 (Stavropoulos 2001, 76–77). Of course, we can
 144 evaluate and amend our linguistic practices, say,
 145 because the concept of law we currently employ
 146 has morally negative consequences, but that is an
 147 analytically separate task.

¹To be more precise, Dworkin maintains that the grounds of propositions of law are themselves propositions such as the proposition that "a majority of MPs voted in favour of this bill." The difference is not relevant for present purposes.

148 **Theoretical Disagreement and the Sting**

AU3 149 Dworkin faults semantic theories for their explanation of disagreement in law. He distinguishes
 150 two kinds of disagreement that people may have
 151 about the content of the law governing a particular
 152 issue: empirical and theoretical. Empirical disagreement is disagreement over whether a crucial
 153 law-creating or law-changing fact has occurred or
 154 not. Clearly, if you believe that the ayes had it
 155 when a bill was put to a vote in Parliament, and
 156 I believe that they did not, then we are likely to
 157 disagree about what the law is on a particular
 158 issue. But in this example, we agree that a bill
 159 securing a majority of affirmative votes in Parliament is a fact whose occurrence affects the content
 160 of the law by changing our legal rights and duties.
 161 In Dworkin's terminology, we agree what are the
 162 grounds of law. By contrast, two people have a
 163 theoretical disagreement when they disagree
 164 about whether a fact affects the content of the
 165 law in that way. For example, you and I disagree
 166 about whether the fact that it is morally wrong to
 167 benefit from your own wrongdoing affects the law
 168 of inheritance. That is, we disagree whether this
 169 fact is a ground of law.

173 Dworkin contends that theoretical disagreement is a common feature of legal practice, but
 174 that semantic theories cannot adequately explicate
 175 it, because they are afflicted by the semantic sting.
 176 The semantic sting is the belief that, in order for
 177 two people to be using the same concept, they
 178 must share the same criteria for its application.
 179 As explained above, for semantic theories these
 180 criteria are the grounds of propositions of law. But
 181 ex hypothesi cases of theoretical disagreement
 182 involve a dispute about such grounds. So,
 183 according to semantic theories, we must treat theoretical disagreements as "illusory" or "a pretense" (31): Disputants may frame their views in
 184 terms of what the law is, but what they are really
 185 doing is disagree about how the law should be
 186 developed in cases where, since agreement has
 187 broken down, the law has run out. In fact, for
 188 some semanticists, this will be a common occurrence, the result of the open texture of language
 189 throwing up "borderline cases." These are cases

194 that our shared criteria for applying a concept do
 195 not fully anticipate, as when we contemplate
 196 whether to count a palace as a house. Palaces
 197 satisfy some of the criteria for a house but not
 198 others, so a fresh decision needs to be made
 199 whether to include them in the concept.

200 Dworkin finds this explanation unsatisfactory.
 201 Genuine cases of theoretical disagreement are not
 202 about drawing a linguistic boundary. In
 203 Dworkin's terminology, they arise in pivotal
 204 cases: Each side has its own understanding of
 205 the correct test guiding the application of the
 206 concept in such cases, and reporting to them that
 207 thus and so is how the term is used by the other
 208 side or even the rest of the community would not
 209 sway them.

210 If one takes this view of theoretical disagreement in law, one has reason to be attracted to the
 211 interpretive theory of law that Dworkin advances.
 212 In this theory, the grounds of law are (or are supplied by) the principles that best fit and justify
 213 legal practice, not what the community takes
 214 them to be. Accordingly, the interpretive theory
 215 ascribes to participants in legal practice a "Protestant attitude" (Dworkin 1986, 252, 413). Each of
 216 them must work out for herself the best interpretation of legal practice. Theoretical disagreement
 217 is very likely to occur among people adopting this
 218 attitude.
 219

222 Thus understood, the semantic-sting critique of
 223 legal positivism is ancillary to the broader argument from theoretical disagreement but independent of it (Smith 2010, 644ff). It offers a diagnosis
 224 for why some theorists downplay the importance
 225 of theoretical disagreement in law. However, the
 226 argument from disagreement does not stand or fall
 227 on the soundness of that diagnosis. If theoretical
 228 disagreement in law exists and a theory of law
 229 fails to account for it, then it is for this reason
 230 explanatorily deficient.
 231

234 **Disagreement Without Shared Criteria**

235 One common strategy for deflecting the semantic
 236 sting is to deny the putative link between legal
 237 positivism and criterial semantics altogether. This
 238 is the line Hart himself took (Hart 1994, 246).

239 However, he did not elaborate which semantic
 240 view *does* underpin his theory. In later work,
 241 Dworkin argues that there is no viable alternative
 242 that does not collapse Hart's theory to a fully
 243 normative project (Dworkin 2006, 140ff).

244 This strategy is also pursued by Endicott
 245 (1998, 285). Endicott maintains that Hart's
 246 semantic commitments are modest, consisting
 247 solely in a set of indisputable paradigms shared
 248 by all competent language users. When we apply a
 249 concept to a particular case, we do so on the basis
 250 of similarities between the case at hand and those
 251 paradigms. Such judgments of analogy serve a
 252 range of purposes in everyday communication.
 253 They are sometimes tenuous, but this does not
 254 mean that they are unwarranted, or that two peo-
 255 ple who draw different analogies are talking at
 256 cross-purposes; they can still make sense of each
 257 other if they bear in mind the context within which
 258 they are expressed. The same applies to law. The
 259 task of the legal philosopher is not to spell out the
 260 criteria for the application of the word "law." Such
 261 criteria are not available because we use the word
 262 "law" for different purposes.

263 Given that, as already mentioned, the semantic
 264 sting critique is a component of the argument from
 265 theoretical disagreement, it is not clear that
 266 Endicott's proposal undercuts it. Dworkin's
 267 semantic sting critique was not meant to question
 268 the very possibility of any kind of communication
 269 in the absence of shared criteria. Endicott may
 270 well be right that two people can engage in some
 271 genuine forms of communication although they
 272 employ different criteria when they use the word
 273 "law," but it does not follow without further argu-
 274 ment that cases allegedly involving theoretical
 275 disagreement are best explicated in this way.

276 In a similar vein, Plunkett and Sundell (2014)
 277 challenge the argument from theoretical disagree-
 278 ment on the grounds that disagreement is not
 279 necessarily pointless in cases where people mean
 280 something different by a term like "law." They
 281 propose that in some of these cases, participants
 282 are best understood as conducting a *metalinguistic*
 283 *negotiation* (Plunkett and Sundell, 2014, 248).
 284 Metalinguistic negotiations do not revolve around
 285 the semantic content of the speakers' utterances
 286 but around propositions they convey by pragmatic

287 means. Moreover, they cannot be settled by the 287
 288 correct meaning of any concept, since ex hypo- 288
 289 thesi the two parties refer to a different concept 289
 290 with the same term. Rather, they are about how 290
 291 that term should best be employed, which of the 291
 292 two (or more) concepts it should refer to. This is a 292
 293 normative question of "conceptual ethics." 293
 294 Plunkett and Sundell do not give an account of 294
 295 the considerations that settle that question, in law 295
 296 or in any other domain, but they allow that these 296
 297 may be moral. However, Marques (2017) argues 297
 298 that, if it turns out that such metalinguistic nego- 298
 299 tiations in law systematically draw on moral con- 299
 300 siderations, they could be said to support the 300
 301 antipositivist view, whereby such considerations 301
 302 are constitutive of law. Thus, they offer a merely 302
 303 "notational variant of Dworkin's *conceptual inter-*
 304 *pretation*" (Marques, 2017, 225). 304

Disagreement About Shared Criteria 305

306 Some theorists dispute that semantic theories are 306
 307 committed to the view that all competent language 307
 308 users must possess the criteria for the correct use 308
 309 of concepts (Raz 1998, 15–16). They accept that 309
 310 the meaning of concepts like law is determined by 310
 311 the criteria a linguistic community employs when 311
 312 it uses those concepts in the sense that competent 312
 313 language users take their use to be governed by 313
 314 those criteria. However, they insist that the criteria 314
 315 need not be fully accessible to everyone. This 315
 316 anti-individualistic understanding of criterial con- 316
 317 cepts allows for the possibility that two language 317
 318 users sometimes disagree about shared criteria of 318
 319 which they only have partial knowledge. Further- 319
 320 more, Raz cites two additional characteristics of 320
 321 criterial concepts that give rise to theoretical dis- 321
 322 agreements: the non-exhaustive character of 322
 323 criterial explanations and the interdependence of 323
 324 criterial concepts. By virtue of the first character- 324
 325 istic two persons might have different criteria in 325
 326 mind but only because these criteria refer to dif- 326
 327 ferent aspects of the concept. By virtue of the 327
 328 second characteristic, two persons might share 328
 329 the same criteria for one concept but still disagree 329
 330 about their application because these criteria make 330

331 reference to further concepts about which they do
332 not have shared criteria.

333 Raz's strategy rests on a sophisticated under-
334 standing of criterial concepts, but it does not offer
335 a complete rebuttal of the semantic sting critique.
336 For, it is not tailored to account for the types of
337 disagreement that Dworkin discusses (Smith
338 2009, 305ff). In particular, it is far from clear
339 that it allows criterialists to explain cases where
340 legal practitioners do not take their disagreements
341 to be settled by appeal to shared criteria at all
342 (Smith 2009, 312ff).

343 **Disagreement About the Application of**
344 **Criteria**

345 A final strategy questions that a criterial explana-
346 tion of the grounds of law allows only for empiri-
347 cal disagreement about propositions of law
348 (Coleman 2001; Dare 2010). As Coleman puts
349 it, "judges accept the same truth conditions for
350 propositions of law... They disagree about
351 which propositions satisfy those conditions"
352 (Coleman 1982, 156). Put differently, they dis-
353 agree about how to apply those conditions.
354 Himma (2002, 153) uses the example of the
355 Equal Protection Clause of the US Constitution.
356 Two legal practitioners can agree that equal pro-
357 tection of the laws is a standard of legal validity
358 while disagreeing whether racial segregation fails
359 or satisfies the standard.

AU4 360 Dworkin had anticipated this strategy in his
AU5 361 early critique of Hart's account of social rules
AU6 362 (Dworkin 1978) and reiterated his objections to
363 it in subsequent work (Dworkin 2006, 187ff). He
364 argues that it rests on an abstraction strategy,
365 which "[converts] any disagreement that any
366 group might have over the standards that should
367 govern its conduct into a supposed disagreement
368 over the application of some more abstract moral
369 convention they share" (Dworkin 2006, 192).
370 However, this strategy trivializes the positivist
371 thesis that the law is ultimately based on a social
372 practice among officials. In addition, it has diffi-
373 culty accounting for deep-rooted theoretical dis-
374 agreements such as the disagreement between
375 originalists and non-originalists whether the

Equal Protection Clause makes the law depend 376 AU7
on morality at all. 377

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