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## 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. Theorists  
17 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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More specifically, he contends that theories of law elucidate the concept of law by specifying the grounds of true propositions of law. By grounds, Dworkin means determinants of true propositions of law. For example, it may be that a proposition of law is true by virtue of the fact that a statute is enacted by Parliament, which (statute) has the effect of adding that proposition to the law. Enactment of a statute by Parliament is on this view a ground of law.<sup>1</sup>

Semantic theories of law, for Dworkin, also provide an answer to the question: What makes propositions of law true or false? They hold that "lawyers all follow certain linguistic criteria for judging propositions of law, perhaps unawares" (Dworkin 1986, 32), and that these shared criteria supply the grounds of propositions of law. Semantic theories locate the standard of correctness for the application of the concept of law in "criteria in framing, accepting, and rejecting statements about what the law is" (Dworkin 1986, 33) that are embedded in actual usage of the concept. Importantly, that standard does not transcend actual usage (Stavropoulos 2001, 71ff). In other words, whilst each of us individually may be mistaken about the concept, the linguistic community as a whole cannot be wrong, because there is nothing to the meaning of concepts other than its conventional meaning as this is determined by actual usage.

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

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

It is not clear how we are supposed to draw this distinction. In any event, however we draw it, it is doubtful that it can be kept watertight. It could be argued that, for almost any criterion, these philosophers offer at the level of the concept of law, it is possible to imagine a dispute over that criterion leading to a disagreement about the grounds of propositions of law. Consider a positivist who maintains that one of the criteria for the existence of law is that there is a social practice among officials containing the ultimate criteria of legal validity and an anti-positivist who denies this because she thinks that a standard may be part of the law even though it is not treated as such by the community of officials. There are likely cases where the positivist and the anti-positivist disagree about the truth of a proposition of law by virtue of that upstream disagreement about the concept of law.

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

<sup>1</sup>To 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 dis- 153 agreement is disagreement over whether a crucial 154 law-creating or law-changing fact has occurred or 155 not. Clearly, if you believe that the ayes had it 156 when a bill was put to a vote in Parliament, and 157 I believe that they did not, then we are likely to 158 disagree about what the law is on a particular 159 issue. But in this example, we agree that a bill 160 securing a majority of affirmative votes in Parlia- 161 ment is a fact whose occurrence affects the content 162 of the law by changing our legal rights and duties. 163 In Dworkin's terminology, we agree what are the 164 grounds of law. By contrast, two people have a 165 theoretical disagreement when they disagree 166 about whether a fact affects the content of the 167 law in that way. For example, you and I disagree 168 about whether the fact that it is morally wrong to 169 benefit from your own wrongdoing affects the law 170 of inheritance. That is, we disagree whether this 171 fact is a ground of law.

172 Dworkin contends that theoretical disagree- 173 ment 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 the- 184 oretical disagreements as "illusory" or "a pre- 185 tense" (31): Disputants may frame their views in 186 terms of what the law is, but what they are really 187 doing is disagree about how the law should be 188 developed in cases where, since agreement has 189 broken down, the law has run out. In fact, for 190 some semanticists, this will be a common occur- 191 rence, the result of the open texture of language 192 throwing up "borderline cases." These are cases

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

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

If one takes this view of theoretical disagree- 210 ment 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 sup- 213 plied by) the principles that best fit and justify 214 legal practice, not what the community takes 215 them to be. Accordingly, the interpretive theory 216 ascribes to participants in legal practice a "Protes- 217 tant attitude" (Dworkin 1986, 252, 413). Each of 218 them must work out for herself the best interpre- 219 tation of legal practice. Theoretical disagreement 220 is very likely to occur among people adopting this 221 attitude. 222

Thus understood, the semantic-sting critique of 223 legal positivism is ancillary to the broader argu- 224 ment from theoretical disagreement but indepen- 225 dent of it (Smith 2010, 644ff). It offers a diagnosis 226 for why some theorists downplay the importance 227 of theoretical disagreement in law. However, the 228 argument from disagreement does not stand or fall 229 on the soundness of that diagnosis. If theoretical 230 disagreement in law exists and a theory of law 231 fails to account for it, then it is for this reason 232 explanatorily deficient. 233

**Disagreement Without Shared Criteria**

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

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 people  
255 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 argument  
274 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

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

## Disagreement About Shared Criteria

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

360 Dworkin had anticipated this strategy in his  
 361 early critique of Hart's account of social rules  
 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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