

***Loper Bright Enterprises v. Raimondo*, 144 S. Ct. 2244, 2257–59, 2260–61, 2263 (2024) – Majority Op.**

II

A

Article III of the Constitution assigns to the Federal Judiciary the responsibility and power to adjudicate “Cases” and “Controversies”—concrete disputes with consequences for the parties involved. The Framers appreciated that the laws judges would necessarily apply in resolving those disputes would not always be clear. Cognizant of the limits of human language and foresight, they anticipated that “[a]ll new laws, though penned with the greatest technical skill, and passed on the fullest and most mature deliberation,” would be “more or less obscure and equivocal, until their meaning” was settled “by a series of particular discussions and adjudications.” The Federalist No. 37, p. 236 (J. Cooke ed. 1961) (J. Madison).

The Framers also envisioned that the final “interpretation of the laws” would be “the proper and peculiar province of the courts.” *Id.*, No. 78, at 525 (A. Hamilton). Unlike the political branches, the courts would by design exercise “neither Force nor Will, but merely judgment.” *Id.*, at 523. To ensure the “steady, upright and impartial administration of the laws,” the Framers structured the Constitution to allow judges to exercise that judgment independent of influence from the political branches. *Id.*, at 522; see *id.*, at 522–524; *Stern v. Marshall*, 564 U.S. 462, 484, 131 S.Ct. 2594, 180 L.Ed.2d 475 (2011).

This Court embraced the Framers’ understanding of the judicial function early on. In the foundational decision of *Marbury v. Madison*, Chief Justice Marshall famously declared that “[i]t is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is.” 1 Cranch 137, 177, 2 L.Ed. 60 (1803). And in the following decades, the Court understood “interpret[ing] the laws, in the last resort,” to be a “solemn duty” of the Judiciary. *United States v. Dickson*, 15 Pet. 141, 162, 10 L.Ed. 689 (1841) (Story, J., for the Court). When the meaning of a statute was at issue, the judicial role was to “interpret the act of Congress, in order to ascertain the rights of the parties.” *Decatur v. Paulding*, 14 Pet. 497, 515, 10 L.Ed. 559 (1840).

The Court also recognized from the outset, though, that exercising independent judgment often included according due respect to Executive Branch interpretations of federal statutes. For example, in *Edwards’ Lessee v. Darby*, 12 Wheat. 206, 6 L.Ed. 603 (1827), the Court explained that “[i]n the construction of a doubtful and ambiguous law, the contemporaneous construction of those who were called upon to act under the law, and were appointed to carry its provisions into effect, is entitled to very great respect.” *Id.*, at 210; see also *United States v. Vowell*, 5 Cranch 368, 372, 3 L.Ed. 128 (1809) (Marshall, C. J., for the Court).

Such respect was thought especially warranted when an Executive Branch interpretation was issued roughly contemporaneously with enactment of the statute and remained consistent over time. See *Dickson*, 15 Pet. at 161; *United States v. Alabama Great Southern R. Co.*, 142 U.S. 615, 621, 12 S.Ct. 306, 35 L.Ed. 1134 (1892); *National Lead Co. v. United States*, 252 U.S. 140, 145–146, 40 S.Ct. 237, 64 L.Ed. 496 (1920). That is because “the longstanding ‘practice of the government’ ”—like any other interpretive aid—“can inform [a court’s] determination of ‘what the law is.’ ” *NLRB v. Noel Canning*, 573 U.S. 513, 525, 134 S.Ct. 2550, 189 L.Ed.2d 538 (2014) (first quoting *McCulloch v. Maryland*, 4 Wheat.

316, 401, 4 L.Ed. 579 (1819); then quoting *Marbury*, 1 Cranch at 177). The Court also gave “the most respectful consideration” to Executive Branch interpretations simply because “[t]he officers concerned [were] usually able men, and masters of the subject,” who were “[n]ot unfrequently ... the draftsmen of the laws they [were] afterwards called upon to interpret.” *United States v. Moore*, 95 U.S. 760, 763, 24 L.Ed. 588 (1878); see also *Jacobs v. Prichard*, 223 U.S. 200, 214, 32 S.Ct. 289, 56 L.Ed. 405 (1912).

“Respect,” though, was just that. The views of the Executive Branch could inform the judgment of the Judiciary, but did not supersede it. Whatever respect an Executive Branch interpretation was due, a judge “certainly would not be bound to adopt the construction given by the head of a department.” *Decatur*, 14 Pet. at 515; see also *Burnet v. Chicago Portrait Co.*, 285 U.S. 1, 16, 52 S.Ct. 275, 76 L.Ed. 587 (1932). Otherwise, judicial judgment would not be independent at all. As Justice Story put it, “in cases where [a court's] own judgment ... differ[ed] from that of other high functionaries,” the court was “not at liberty to surrender, or to waive it.” *Dickson*, 15 Pet. at 162.

B

The New Deal ushered in a “rapid expansion of the administrative process.” *United States v. Morton Salt Co.*, 338 U.S. 632, 644, 70 S.Ct. 357, 94 L.Ed. 401 (1950). But as new agencies with new powers proliferated, the Court continued to adhere to the traditional understanding that questions of law were for courts to decide, exercising independent judgment.

During this period, the Court often treated agency determinations of *fact* as binding on the courts, provided that there was “evidence to support the findings.” *St. Joseph Stock Yards Co. v. United States*, 298 U.S. 38, 51, 56 S.Ct. 720, 80 L.Ed. 1033 (1936). “When the legislature itself acts within the broad field of legislative discretion,” the Court reasoned, “its determinations are conclusive.” *Ibid.* Congress could therefore “appoint[] an agent to act within that sphere of legislative authority” and “endow the agent with power to make *findings of fact* which are conclusive, provided the requirements of due process which are specially applicable to such an agency are met, as in according a fair hearing and acting upon evidence and not arbitrarily.” *Ibid.* (emphasis added).

But the Court did not extend similar deference to agency resolutions of questions of *law*. It instead made clear, repeatedly, that “[t]he interpretation of the meaning of statutes, as applied to justiciable controversies,” was “exclusively a judicial function.” *United States v. American Trucking Assns., Inc.*, 310 U.S. 534, 544, 60 S.Ct. 1059, 84 L.Ed. 1345 (1940); see also *Social Security Bd. v. Nierotko*, 327 U.S. 358, 369, 66 S.Ct. 637, 90 L.Ed. 718 (1946); *Medo Photo Supply Corp. v. NLRB*, 321 U.S. 678, 681–682, n. 1, 64 S.Ct. 830, 88 L.Ed. 1007 (1944). The Court *2259 understood, in the words of Justice Brandeis, that “[t]he supremacy of law demands that there shall be opportunity to have some court decide whether an erroneous rule of law was applied.” *St. Joseph Stock Yards*, 298 U.S. at 84, 56 S.Ct. 720 (concurring opinion). It also continued to note, as it long had, that the informed judgment of the Executive Branch—especially in the form of an interpretation issued contemporaneously with the enactment of the statute—could be entitled to “great weight.” *American Trucking Assns.*, 310 U.S. at 549, 60 S.Ct. 1059.

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C

Congress in 1946 enacted the APA “as a check upon administrators whose zeal might otherwise have carried them to excesses not contemplated in legislation creating their offices.” *Morton Salt*, 338 U.S. at 644, 70 S.Ct. 357. It was the culmination of a “comprehensive rethinking of the place of administrative agencies in a regime of separate and divided powers.” *Bowen v. Michigan Academy of Family Physicians*, 476 U.S. 667, 670–671, 106 S.Ct. 2133, 90 L.Ed.2d 623 (1986).

In addition to prescribing procedures for agency action, the APA delineates the basic contours of judicial review of such action. As relevant here, Section 706 directs that “[t]o the extent necessary to decision and when presented, the reviewing court shall decide all relevant questions of law, interpret constitutional and statutory provisions, and determine the meaning or applicability of the terms of an agency action.” 5 U.S.C. § 706. It further requires courts to “hold unlawful and set aside agency action, findings, and conclusions found to be ... not in accordance with law.” § 706(2)(A).

The APA thus codifies for agency cases the unremarkable, yet elemental proposition reflected by judicial practice dating back to *Marbury*: that courts decide legal questions by applying their own judgment. It specifies that courts, not agencies, will decide “*all* relevant questions of law” arising on review of agency action, § 706 (emphasis added)—even those involving ambiguous laws—and set aside any such action inconsistent with the law as they interpret it. And it prescribes no deferential standard for courts to employ in answering those legal questions. That omission is telling, because Section 706 *does* mandate that judicial review of agency policymaking and factfinding be deferential. See § 706(2)(A) (agency action to be set aside if “arbitrary, capricious, [or] an abuse of discretion”); § 706(2)(E) (agency factfinding in formal proceedings to be set aside if “unsupported by substantial evidence”).

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When the best reading of a statute is that it delegates discretionary authority to an agency, the role of the reviewing court under the APA is, as always, to independently interpret the statute and effectuate the will of Congress subject to constitutional limits. The court fulfills that role by recognizing constitutional delegations, “fix[ing] the boundaries of [the] delegated authority,” H. Monaghan, *Marbury and the Administrative State*, 83 Colum. L. Rev. 1, 27 (1983), and ensuring the agency has engaged in “‘reasoned decisionmaking’ ” within those boundaries, *Michigan*, 576 U.S. at 750, 135 S.Ct. 2699 (quoting *Allentown Mack Sales & Service, Inc. v. NLRB*, 522 U.S. 359, 374, 118 S.Ct. 818, 139 L.Ed.2d 797 (1998)); see also *Motor Vehicle Mfrs. Assn. of United States, Inc. v. State Farm Mut. Automobile Ins. Co.*, 463 U.S. 29, 103 S.Ct. 2856, 77 L.Ed.2d 443 (1983). By doing so, a court upholds the traditional conception of the judicial function that the APA adopts.

III

The deference that *Chevron* requires of courts reviewing agency action cannot be squared with the APA.