

## Sec. 1—The Congress

## Legislative Powers

trine has not been so rigidly applied as to prevent conferral of significant authority on the Executive Branch.<sup>86</sup> In *Loving v. United States*,<sup>87</sup> the Court distinguished between its usual separation-of-powers doctrine—emphasizing arrogation of power by a branch and impairment of another branch’s ability to carry out its functions—and the delegation doctrine, “another branch of our separation of powers jurisdiction,” which is informed not by arrogation and impairment analyses but solely by whether appropriate standards have been established by which delegations are to be exercised.<sup>88</sup> This confirmed what had long been evident—that the delegation doctrine is unmoored from traditional separation-of-powers principles.

The second principle underlying delegation law is due process. Under this doctrine, a delegation can be so arbitrary as to interfere with personal liberty and private property. Since federal separation-of-powers doctrine is not applicable to delegations to non-federal actors,<sup>89</sup> it is the Due Process Clause alone to which federal courts must look when reviewing delegations to states or private entities.<sup>90</sup> Under a due process analysis, the Court will be more deferential when power is delegated to a rule-making entity, such as a public agency, because an agency is typically required to follow established procedures to build a public record and to explain its decisions. This enables a reviewing court to determine whether the agency has stayed within its ambit and complied with its legislative mandate.<sup>91</sup> This is less likely to occur with delegations to private entities, which typically are not required to utilize such procedural safeguards as are expected when regulatory authority is exercised.<sup>92</sup>

**Filling Up the Details.**—In finding a power to “fill up the details,” the Court in *Wayman v. Southard*<sup>93</sup> rejected the contention that Congress had unconstitutionally delegated power to the federal courts to establish their own rules of practice.<sup>94</sup> Chief Justice Marshall agreed that the rulemaking power was a legislative function and that Congress could have formulated the rules itself, but, based on the character of that power, he suggested that the delegation of the authority to the judiciary was not impermissible. Since

<sup>86</sup> *Field v. Clark*, 143 U.S. 649, 692 (1892); *Wayman v. Southard*, 23 U.S. (10 Wheat.) 1, 42 (1825).

<sup>87</sup> 517 U.S. 748 (1996).

<sup>88</sup> 517 U.S. at 758–59.

<sup>89</sup> See, e.g., *Dreyer v. Illinois*, 187 U.S. 71, 83–84 (1902).

<sup>90</sup> See, e.g., *Eubank v. City of Richmond*, 226 U.S. 137 (1912); *Embree v. Kansas City Road Dist.*, 240 U.S. 242 (1916).

<sup>91</sup> *Yakus v. United States*, 321 U.S. 414, 424–25 (1944).

<sup>92</sup> *Carter v. Carter Coal Co.*, 298 U.S. 238, 310–12 (1936).

<sup>93</sup> 23 U.S. (10 Wheat.) 1 (1825).

<sup>94</sup> Act of May 8, 1792, § 2, 1 Stat. 275, 276.